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THIS PERIODICAL IS INDEXED IN PERSI
FEATURE ARTICLES

U.S. Indian Wars Timeline by Carol Ralston Surrency 3

The Modoc War, Violence among the Lava Beds by June Ralston Anderson 7

Oregon’s Last Indian War; The Bannock War of 1878 by Carol Ralston Surrency 12

Pacific Northwest Indian War Pensions by Peggy Baldwin 15

The Black Hawk War of Illinois by Kristy Lawrie Gravlin 19

Cherokee Wars by June Ralston Anderson 23

REGULAR COLUMNS

Educate Yourself ~ by Susan LeBlanc
    GFO Microfilm Cabinets, US Material and Then by States, Part II
    by Vicki Bonagofski and Susan LeBlanc, AG 26

Written in Stone ~ Carol Ralston Surrency
    To Capture the Essence of a Cemetery 32

Relics ~ Harvey Steele
    Powder River Expedition 34

Extracts ~ Multnomah County Marriage Register Index 1911-1912
    Marie Diers and Eileen Chamberlin 38

Book Reviews ~ Susan LeBlanc 42

In Memorium 44
Letter From The Editor

From the beginning of European settlement in North America, there has been conflict with native people. The earliest explorers, Spanish, French and British all came looking to advance their wealth and power whether through the acquisition of land, resources or trade. Meeting that desire often put them at odds with the culture and lifestyle of the American Indian. For a taste of the number of Indian wars and battles our ancestor’s experienced or fought in, look at the timeline that begins the feature articles. This is far from being a complete list, but, hopefully, it will give a sense of the scope and frequency with which clashes occurred.

Feature articles on the Modoc War and the Bannock War take place, partly, in Oregon and tell us about hardships endured by both Indians and settlers. To give a sense of nationwide events, we picked the Black Hawk War and some parts of the Cherokee Wars to share with you. Our regular column, Relics, contains an article about the Powder River campaign while Educate Yourself finishes the listing of microfilm contained at GFO. Written in Stone has a potpourri of cemetery news, including an update on a husband and wife previously featured in the column. As usual, we include extracts and Book Reviews.

The intent for this issue was to give a little taste of some of the lesser known Indian conflicts, rather than the more commonly told stories of Chief Joseph or the Whitman massacre. So, we hope you enjoy the June 2013 Bulletin and, perhaps, learn a little something new.

Carol Surrency

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Feature Articles

U.S. Indian Wars Timeline
Carol Ralston Surrency

This is not by any means a definitive listing of Indian wars, battles or skirmishes occurring in the long struggle between two cultures with differing values regarding land and lifestyle. It is an attempt to list some of the major clashes familiar to most, as well as lesser known but no less important events. Terrible atrocities were committed on both sides, so the list attempts some balance in the selection of battles.

1540-41   Tiquex War.
First war between Europeans and Native Americans. Fought by army of Francisco Vasquez de Coronado against 12 pueblos of Tiwa Indians in New Mexico.

March 22, 1622   Jamestown Massacre.
Powhatan Indians kill 347 English settlers in the Virginia Colony.

1622-44   Powhatan Wars.
Contact was initially peaceful, but twelve years of conflict left numerous natives and colonists dead

1636-37   Pequot War.
Death of a colonist created a war that involving Connecticut and Rhode Island that left 600-700 Indians dead. Survivors were sold into slavery in Bermuda.

1675-76   King Phillip’s War.
A bloody war up and down the Connecticut River Valley causing the death of 600 colonists and 3000 Native Americans, including women and children.

1680-92   Pueblo Revolt.
In Arizona and New Mexico, Pueblo Indians rebelled against the Spanish, and were free for 12 years until they were reconquered in 1692.

1689-1697   King William’s War.
The first French and Indian War, the war was fought between England, France and their Indian allies.

February 8, 1690. Schenectady Massacre.
French and Algonquians destroy the town, killing 60 settlers including 10 women and 12 children.

February 29, 1704   Deerfield Massacre.
Abenaki, Wyandot and other tribesmen with French-Canadian militia, attack Deerfield, Massachusetts, killing 56 and taking many more captive.

1711   Tuscarora War.
In North Carolina, the Tuscarora attacked settlements, killing settlers and destroying farms. James Moore and Yamasee warriors defeated the raiders in 1713.

1715-18   Yamasee War.
In the Southern Carolinas, Yamasees’ together with other tribes almost exterminate a white settlement.

1728   The Second Fox War.
The Fox were reduced to 500 by French Troops and Indian allies.

1736   The Chickasaw Wars.
Fought between the Chickasaw who were British allies and the Choctaws, French allies.

174-1763   French and Indian War.
Called the Seven Years War in the U.S., fought between French Colonies with their Indian allies and British Colonies and their Indian allies.

August, 1757   Fort William Henry Massacre.
After the fall of the fort, as many as 180 British and colonial prisoners are killed by Indian allies of the French.

1760-62   Cherokee Uprising.
Difficulties between the British and the Cherokee causes an uprising in Virginia, the Carolinas and Tennessee.

1763   Pontiac’s Rebellion.
War Chief Pontiac and a large alliance chased the British from every fort but Detroit.
December, 1763 Killing by the Paxton Boys. Pennsylvania settlers’ settler’s kill 20 peaceful Susquehannock in response to Pontiac’s Rebellion.

July 6 1764   Enoch Brown School Massacre.
Four Delaware Indians kill a school master, 10 pupils and
a pregnant woman. Two pupils who were scalped survived.

1774   Lord Dunmore’s War.
Shawnee and Ming Indians raid traders and settlers in the Ohio River Valley and Governor Dunmore, of Virginia sent militia to defeat the Indians.

1776-1790 Chickamauga Wars also known as Second Cherokee War.
Cherokee involvement in the Revolutionary War, Chief Dragging Canoe and his people fought settlers in Tennessee, Kentucky, Virginia, the Carolinas and Georgia.

November 11, 1778   Cherry Valley Massacre.
An attack by British and Seneca Indians on a fort and village in eastern New York, during the Revolution. The town was destroyed and 16 defenders killed.

1785-1795   Old Northwest War.
Also known as Little Turtle’s War. Fighting in Ohio and Indiana. Following two humiliating defeats, the Americans won at the Battle of Fallen Timbers.

November 6, 1811   Battle of Tippecanoe.
Tecumseh’s War. Fought in Indiana Territory.

August 30, 1813   Fort Mims Massacre
After a defeat at the Battle of Burnt Corn, a band of Red Sticks sack Fort Mims, in Alabama, killing 400 civilians and taking 250 scalps. This started the Creek War.

1813   Creek War.
The War occurred in Alabama and Georgia. Andrew Jackson and militia broke the power of Creek raiders in battles in 1813 and 1814. Creeks relinquished a large tract of land.

1816-18   First Seminole War.
Seminoles’ defended their land and runaway slaves. Andrew Jackson did not succeed in defeating them, but forced Spain to give up the territory.

June 2, 1823   Arikara War.
First conflict between U.S. and western Indians, fighting in the Dakota Territory (present day South Dakota) near the Missouri River.

1827   Winnebago War.
Fighting in Wisconsin between settlers, miners and Indians. Led to the Black Hawk War.

1832   Black Hawk War.
Occurring in Illinois and Wisconsin, the Sac and the Fox tribes attempted to move back to their homeland. (See story in this Bulletin.)

1832   Department of Indian Affairs established.

Spring, 1833   Cutthroat Gap Massacre.
Osage Indians wipe out a Kiowa village in Indian Territory.

1835, 42 Second Seminole War.
Seminoles’ resumed fighting for their homeland in Florida.

1835   Creek Uprising.
Creek forces defeated and tribe removed to Indian Territory in Oklahoma.

1836 – 1875 Comanche Wars.
Fighting in the southern plains, primarily Texas Republic. U.S. military began official campaign in 1867.

1837 – Osage Indian War.
number of skirmishes in Missouri.

1839 – Cherokee War. Friction between Cherokee, Kickapoo, and Shawnee and settlers in Texas.

1840 – Great Raid of 1840.
The largest raid by Native Americans on white cities. The Comanche’s go deep into white-settled areas in southeast Texas.

August 11, 1840   Battle of Plum Creek.
Two day battle Comanche defeat by Texas volunteers and Texas Rangers.

November 29, 1847   Whitman Massacre.
Murder of missionaries, Dr. and Mrs. Whitman plus 12 others at Walla Walla, Washington by Cayuse and Umatilla Indians.

1848 – 1855 Cayuse War.
Occurring in Oregon and Washington Territories, the conflict was caused, in part, by diseases settlers brought with them.

1849 – 1863 Navajo Conflicts.
Fighting between Navajo and U.S. Army in Arizona and New Mexico led to Indians being sent to a reservation far from their homelands.
1850-51 Mariposa War.  
Piute, Miwok, and Yokut fought back after miners forced Indians off their lands in California.

1852 – 1853 Utah Indian Wars.  
Numerous skirmishes across Utah as settlers took over hunting grounds.

1854 – 1890 Sioux Wars.  
Sitting Bull and Crazy Horse fought to keep their hunting grounds in Minnesota, South Dakota, and Wyoming.

August 20, 1854 Ward Massacre.  
18 of 20 Oregon Trail pioneers in the Ward Party were killed by Shoshone Indians in western Idaho.

1855 Snake River War.  
Fighting at the junction of the Tucannon River and the Snake River in Washington Territory.

1855 Klickitat War:  
Fighting between Klickitat and Cascade Indians against white settlers along the Columbia River. The fighting was over land.

1855-58 Third Seminole War.  
The result of this final stand was deportation to Indian Territory in Oklahoma.

1855-1856 Rogue River Wars.  
In Southwestern Oregon, Indians fought settlers over land and hunting grounds, resulting in the removal to reservations.

1855-1858 Yakima War.  
A battle over land rights in Washington State. Nisqually Chief, Leschi was executed.

January 26, 1856 Battle of Seattle.  
Seattle was attacked as part of the Yakima War. I Indians were driven off by artillery fire and marines from the U.S. Navy.

1858 Coeur d’Alene War.  
A second phase of the Yakima War were encounters between Coeur d’Alenes, Spokanes, Palouses and Northern Paiutes and U.S. Forces in Washington and Idaho.

1860 Paiute War.  
Also known as the Pyramid Lake War, fought between Northern Paiutes, Bannocks and Shoshones with white settlers in Nevada (then Utah Territory). About 80 whites were killed.

February 26, 1860 Gunther Island Massacre.  
Also known as the Humboldt Bay Massacre, white settlers attack Indian villages killing 188 Wiyot Indians, mostly women and children.

1860-65 California Indian Wars.  
Numerous battles against Hupa, Wiyot, Yurok, Tolowa and other tribes.

1861-1864 Navajo Wars.  
Occurring in Arizona and New Mexico.

1861-1900 Apache Attacks.  
Apache bands in Arizona, New Mexico and Texas rejected Reservation life and under Geronimo and Cochise made hundreds of attacks on outposts.

August-September, 1862 Sioux War of 1862.  
Fighting in Minnesota resulted in the deaths of nearly 1,000 white settlers. As a result, 38 Dakota were hanged and others sent to a reservation.

January 1864 Battle of Canyon de Chelly.  
Final defeat of the Navajo by U.S. Army Colonel Kit Carson.

August-November, 1864 Cheyenne War of 1864.  
Terrible conditions on their reservation caused the Cheyenne and Arapahoe to retaliate by attacking stage coaches and settlements along the Oregon Trail.

November 29, 1864 Sand Creek Massacre.  
Militiamen kill at least 160 Indians at Sand Creek in Colorado.

1864-1868 Snake War.  
Rebelling against white encroachment on their lands by miners, the Northern Paiute and Shoshone in Oregon, Idaho and California fought U.S. military.

July 28, 1864 Battle of Killdeer Mountain.  
One of the largest battles in the plains, 3,000 volunteers fought 1,600 Sioux in North Dakota.

1865-1879 Ute Wars  
Periodic fighting of Utes against white settlers in Utah limiting expansion of settlements.

1865 - 1868 Campaign against Indians in southern Or-
egon, Idaho and Northern California.

1866-68 Red Cloud’s War.
Chief Red Cloud led highly successful attacks on the Army, resulting in being granted a large reservation that included the entire Black hills.

December 21, 1866 Fetterman’s Massacre. Fought near Fort Phil Kearney (Wyoming) where Indians ambushed Captain Fetterman and 80 men, killing all of them.

1867-1875 Comanche Campaign. General Philip Sheridan, in command of the Department of the Missouri, used winter campaigning as a means to find the tribes in the border regions of Colorado, Kansas, New Mexico and Texas.

August 2, 1867 Wagon Box Fight.
Captain James Powell with 31 men survived repeated attacks by more than 1,500 Sioux under the leadership of Red Cloud, and Crazy Horse in Wyoming. The soldiers were guarding woodcutters and took refuge in a corral made by laying 14 wagons end-to-end in an oval.

November 27, 1868 Washita Massacre. Custer’s 7th Cavalry attacked Black Kettle’s sleeping village near Cheyenne, Oklahoma killing 250 men, women and children.

1872-1873 Modoc War. Fought in northern California and southern Oregon, the Indians held out for six months.

1874-1875 Red River War. In northern Texas, a series of 14 battles fought against several tribes.

1876-1877 Black Hills War. Also called the Sioux War. Sitting Bull and Crazy Horse fought because of violations the 1868 treaty. Crazy Horse turned back soldiers commanded by General George Crook cutting off the reinforcements for Custer at Little Big Horn.

June 25-26, 1876 Battle of Little Bighorn. Sioux and Cheyenne Custer and the 7th Cavalry.

1877 Nez Perce War. Occurring in Oregon, Idaho and Montana, Chief Joseph led his tribe 1700 miles to Canada after members had attacked and killed white settlers, but was forced to surrender near the border.

1878 Bannock War. 21st U.S. Infantry, 4th U.S. Artillery and 1st U.S. Cavalry fought Bannocks and Paiutes when they rebellion.


May-August, 1879 Sheeppeater War. Soldiers pursued Shoshone through Idaho. This was the last war in the Pacific Northwest.

September 1879, Meeker Massacre. Indian Agent, Nathan Meeker and nine employees were killed and agency buildings burned in Colorado.

September, 1879-November1880 Ute War. 200 soldiers were attacked in Red Canyon by 300 to 400 Utes. After considerable loss of life, the soldiers were rescued by members of the 4th and 9th Cavalry.

September 4, 1886 Skeleton Canyon. Geronimo surrenders marking the end of the Apache Wars.

1890-1891 Ghost Dance War. Conflict between U.S. government and Native Americans resulting from a religious movement called the Ghost Dance, a belief that warriors would rise from the dead and help defeat the whites. This movement included the Wounded Knee Massacre and the Pine Ridge Campaign.

November, 1890-January, 1891 Pine Ridge Campaign Caused by unresolved grievances, this event involved almost half of the infantry and cavalry of the Regular Army.

December 29, 1890 Wounded Knee Massacre. Over 200 Sioux were killed by the U.S. 7th Cavalry. Sitting Bull had been killed several days earlier.

October 5, 1898 Battle of Leach Lake. Considered the last Indian war, this Chippewa uprising occurred in Northern Minnesota.

The Modoc War,
Violence among the Lava Beds

June Ralston Anderson

In terms of dollars and number of Indians involved, the Modoc War was the most costly in American history. More than 1,000 U.S. soldiers and additional Oregon militia volunteers fought against 50 to 60 Modoc’s. Their wives and children remained with them through 5 to 6 months of battles.¹

The final conflict in May 1873, took place in an extremely rough, inhospitable area of north central California now known as the Lava Beds National Monument at the south end of Tule Lake. The Modoc’s had always spent their lives moving from that general area north into south central Oregon around the Lost River area.

 causes of the War
Perhaps the best explanation of the war’s cause came from one of the Indians most implacable foes. General William Tecumseh Sherman had become commander of the U.S. armies after Ulysses Grant’s election to the presidency.² One of his chief responsibilities was to make the west safe for the constantly increasing number of white immigrants. Sherman’s view of the Indian problem was “The poor Indian finds himself hemmed in.” U.S. Senator from Maine, Lot Morrill, echoed Sherman’s opinion, “As population has approached the
Indian we have removed him beyond population. But population now encounters him on both sides of the continent, and there is no place on the continent to which he can be removed beyond the progress of population.”

This seemingly insatiable desire for land perceived by whites to be free or monetarily cheap was the chief cause of the Modoc War.

As the land in the Lost River country became more and more popular with settlers, it led to conflict. The Modoc’s were a small group, probably never more than 800 people total, living in bands throughout their home area. Conflicts included issues of access to accustomed hunting, fishing and gathering grounds for, without this access, they would go hungry. In order to provide for their people, some Modoc men learned to work for ranchers and some also found employment in Yreka, California. They accepted removal to the Klamath Reservation although they protested that many Klamath’s were enemies and would not want them there. Several bands of Modoc’s were harassed by the Klamath’s. Once on the reservation, they needed to buy their food. A Modoc leader, called Captain Jack by the whites, and a group of men from his band cut trees to make rails which they could sell. The Klamath’s claimed the rails were theirs because it was their reservation and took them away. After the failure of the U. S. Indian agent to resolve this and other issues, some of the Modoc’s left the reservation. As a result, land issues and conflicts with whites went on.4

Previously, in 1846, the Applegate brothers, Jesse, Lindsay and Charles, first noticed the suitability of the Lost River country for raising beef when they led a party blazing a trail for immigrant settlers through the Modoc homeland. By early summer, 1871, Jesse Applegate was living on a ranch at Clear Lake, east of Tule Lake. This land was known as the Applegate ranch even though it was owned by Jesse Carr, a California land developer and legislator. Carr was a major real estate speculator in San Francisco and elsewhere. He owned large herds of cattle and horses and, in 1862, he reported having 25,000 Spanish ewes on his Monterey County, California ranch. Often mentioned as potential candidate for the senate or governor, Carr was a power in the state.

The two Jesses combined their skills and began a huge land development scheme that started in the years just before the Modoc War. This enterprise took years to create, not reaching final form until after Jesse Applegate died in 1888. A primary component of the scheme was that the Modocs must be permanently removed from their homeland which was included in the Jesses’ ranch plan. According to Cheewa James, historian Robert Johnston concluded in a 1991 study that “… looking at the record … it can be shown that the two Jesses – one an Oregonian, the other a Californian – probably did more than all other settlers, civilians, governmental officials, or the military, to cause that tragic conflict [the Modoc War].”4 The Modoc’s requested that, if they must live on a reservation, it be on the Lost River where they would live peaceably. This was being considered by the US government, but, immediately, Applegate objected. He sent a letter to the government making several points: one, a Lost River Reservation would never be accepted by the settlers (of which he was one), second, the Modoc’s would allow vicious and vagabond Indians to live there, third, they would continue marauding, and fourth, Modocs still on the Klamath Reservation would be unhappy.5

Petitions from settlers were sent to the government saying the Modocs should be forced back to the Klamath Reservation. It appeared that Jesse Applegate was involved with the petitioners as one suggested that his nephew, Ivan Applegate, be appointed subagent, in charge of the Modocs. Jesse Applegate made his position very clear in a letter written in February 1872. He wrote “If these Indians were the quiet and orderly sort that the majority of Oregon Indians are, these difficulties would not exist…. their arrogance and impudence have been greater than ever before…. Poets and moralists agree that the untutored savage is also a ‘wild man,’ and like other wild animals, they chafe and fret under any kind of restraint…. If this is not done before spring opens, it cannot be done this year. As well expect to collect the coyotes out of that region of rock, mountain, and morass, as the Indians in the summer season.”

Some newspapers seemed to be aware that Jesse Applegate’s agitation was over land. While Jesse Carr appeared to be carefully trying to keep his name out of the papers regarding Modoc removal, the Applegate’s were not so fortunate. Robert Bogart of the San Francisco Chronicle chastised the Applegate’s in his February 24, 1873 article. He commented regarding Jesse Applegate: “Old Jesse hates the Indian as the devil hates holy water…. This Indian business up here is a good deal like a decayed egg. Puncture the shell anywhere and you will find an Applegate flavor at the same time.”

The desire of settlers for Indian removal and, particularly, Jesse Carr’s desire for a cattle kingdom was furthered by the inability of government agencies to communicate with each other in a timely manner and by a lack of oversight and enforcement of the orders in their chains of command.

**Fighting Begins**

The final episodes in the Modoc struggle to remain
in their homeland began when some of their camps were attacked without provocation on November 29, 1879. Captain Jack’s band, including the women and children, fled in their boats across Tule Lake to their lava bed stronghold. Contrary to orders, the attack on Captain Jack’s people was carried out by the army. At about the same time, an unauthorized civilian attack was launched on Hooker Jim’s band, living across the Lost River from Captain Jack’s people. This was led by Oliver Applegate, younger brother of Ivan, the Indian subagent, and nephew to Jesse. At first, the surprised Indians fought back but soon fled. Two civilians in the attacking group were killed, including Wendolin Nuss, the first permanent settler in the Klamath basin. Meacham, the Indian agent, reported two Indian women and a baby were shot. The village, including bodies, was burned by the civilians after the Modoc’s fled so the exact number killed is unknown.  

If the Applegate’s and some of the other settlers wanted Indian trouble, they now had it. A group of angry Modoc’s rode along the north and northeast side of Tule Lake looking for white men to kill and they killed fourteen people. Survivors gave the names of the Modocs they thought they had seen. The three names most often given were Curley Headed Doctor, Hooker Jim, and Long Jim. An irony is that some settler men who were friendly with the Modocs and did not fear their approach, were killed on that day because the army did not inform the settlers of impending trouble. Interestingly enough, the Modoc’s only killed men. When they encountered women, they asked where the men were. Although the white men who attacked their village had killed women, they did not return the favor in kind.  

One band of Modocs who lived on Hot Creek, west of both Tule Lake and Lower Klamath Lake, worked for and associated with friendly local ranchers, including John Fairchild, a stanch Modoc friend. Many of the Indians, including women, spoke English. They numbered about 14 men and 30 women and children. This group included: Shacknasty Jim, their leader, Jim’s brother Shacknasty Frank, Bogus Charley, Steamboat Frank, and Ellen’s Man George. These Modocs decided to move to the reservation to live, as they did not believe it possible to win a fight with the white men. On their way, with their escort of friendly ranchers (including Fairchild), some settlers met them and threatened to kill them if they crossed the river to go to the reservation. Fearful for their lives, the Modocs turned away and rode to the stronghold to join Captain Jack.  

Unless one knew exactly where to go, the lava bed stronghold the Modocs retreated to was an extremely unwelcoming place. It is made up of black basaltic lava called aa lava which forms jagged, rough blocks and creates piles from these blocks. It is cut in places by both deep and shallow crevices and caves which can be used for paths and shelters. The Modoc’s knew these locations and here they made their last stand.  

To bring the Modocs under control, soldiers were called in from several forts. Rather than taking time for wagons, soldiers from Camp Harney, 300 miles away, were ordered to come quickly using pack mules. The snow was so deep the soldiers had to break trail for the mules and since there were no wagons, they had no tents and had to sleep in the open in the snow. Southwest of Camp Warner, they encountered snow drifts up to their armpits, too deep to put any food for the mules on the ground, so they had to be fed from nosebags. The march continued from Camp Warner on to present day Klamath Falls, then south to the west side of Tule Lake. The reasons for this trip were not universally appreciated by the soldiers. Major J. G. Trimble later wrote, “And for what? To drive a couple of hundred miserable aborigines from a desolate natural shelter in the wilderness, that a few thriving cattlemen might ranch their wild steers in a scope of wild country, the dimensions of some several reasonable sized countries.”  

At Tule Lake tents were available, but the weather was still cold, and sometimes freezing. They had to endure rain, snow, sleet and thick fog, sometimes resulting in soldiers becoming disoriented and lost when trying to advance toward the Modoc positions. When ordered to move into the stronghold, their boots were cut by the basalt. Morale quickly became low; many could not understand why they were pursuing such a tiny group of Indians under such adverse circumstances.  

Army officers initially thought they could squeeze the Modocs from the west and from the east with their troops. Then, because the country to the south was extremely rough and Tule Lake was to the north, the Indians would be forced to give up. However, the Modocs and the terrain defeated repeat advances into the stronghold. Eventually, a peace commission was established.  

The Modocs in the stronghold were divided in their opinions about talking to the commissioners.  

Captain Jack still wanted peace, a reservation in their homelands or he would even consider returning to the Klamath Reservation with guarantees of fair treatment. Although he did not want the fight “ . . . he was not destined to live in peace, for at each turning point in his life, he was thrust into combat, sometimes by his own actions, sometimes by his stubborn pride, sometimes by
the acts of non-Indians, and sometimes by the will of his own people.” On the night the Modoc’s decided how to respond at a peace commission meeting scheduled for Good Friday, April 11, 1873, a few other wanted peace and sided with Captain Jack. The majority of warriors believed that killing the commissioners would be considered so significant, the whites would leave the Modocs alone. Most Modocs, including the Hot Creeks who had previously tried to return to the Klamath Reservation, voted to kill the commissioners. Some, including Hooker Jim, wanted Captain Jack to kill General E. R. S. Canby at the talks. Finally, accused of cowardice after enduring the ridicule of having a women’s shawl thrown over him, Captain Jack agreed to kill General Canby, although he said he knew it would mean his death as well as that of other Modoc’s. Other Modoc leaders were to kill the rest of the commissioners. Toby Riddle, Jack’s cousin, and her husband, Frank Riddle, a white man, acted as translators for the Modoc’s and soldiers carrying messages between the camps. Toby knew about the plot. She warned Alfred Meacham, one of the peace commissioners, who had been appointed Oregon Superintendent of Indian Affairs in 1869. He was a good friend of the Riddles. Meacham contacted U.S. government officials explaining the situation. Their response to the commissioners was to carry on and solve the Modoc problem. Sherman also cabled Canby that he was confident Canby would take care of the Modoc issue.

The Good Friday Meeting began with talk; then the killing began. Captain Jack fired first at General Canby. His revolver misfired. Inexplicably, Canby did not move, giving Jack time toockn the gun again. This time the gun fired, hitting Canby below his left eye. Rev Eleazar Thomas, another commissioner was killed and the warriors attempted to kill Meacham. He was shot more than once and knocked unconscious. One Indian started to scalp Meacham but Toby Riddle, who had been knocked down, called out that soldiers were coming and the warriors left, taking with them clothes from those they had shot. Thus, Canby became the only regular army general killed in the Indian wars.

Although General Sherman had expressed understanding of the Indian’s predicament, just as in the Civil War, he was ready to use the utmost force to gain his desired end. After the killing of General Canby, Sherman was furious. He ordered the Modoc’s exterminated. He received suggestions for accomplishing this, ranging from poison gas, to bloodhounds, to body armor for the army so they could walk into the Indian strongholds and shoot them. While many whites agreed with the idea of extermination for troublesome Indians, too many disagreed to make it a feasible political policy. However, the political will determined that some Indians must be punished and that all other Modocs must be confined to a reservation away from the area of their homeland.

Battles, attacks and skirmishes occurred in the following weeks. The army, with their Warm Springs Indian scouts, now began to flank the Modocs and to squeeze them from the south as well as from east and west. Some encounters ended with Modoc successes or in a draw. But the Modocs, with only 50 to 60 fighting men including teenagers and young men in their early twenties, could not afford any losses. As these began happening, some could see they would be dying for a losing cause. The Hot Creeks, having gone from wanting peace while on the Klamath Reservation, to being adamant in wanting the fight were now adamantly for surrender. Captain Jack refused, probably in the knowledge that for him it would mean certain death for killing General Canby. One morning the bands in favor of surrender woke up to find Captain Jack and his adherents gone, taking the best horses with them. This was the final straw. They surrendered. Later they told some Modoc women still living at the Fairchild Ranch, who acted as interpreters, that Jack had convinced them they could not be harmed during fighting, but they now realized that Jack was wrong. This apparently helped end their willingness to accept his leadership. The Hot Creek men and some others, including about 50 women and children, surrendered.

In the following days, four Modoc men, Shacknasty Jim, Bogus Charley, Hooker Jim and Steamboat Frank agreed to hunt down Captain Jack. The common view that they were traitors does not take into account either their circumstances or the Modoc War code. They were angry and felt betrayed by what they viewed as Captain Jack’s desertion, leaving them to care for the women and children.

Additionally, the Modoc’s code of behavior allowed them freedom to join or leave fighting parties at will. Their organization in small autonomous bands made it easy for these groups to come to different decisions and go in different directions.

Throughout the months of April and May, the army continued their hunt for the people with Captain Jack. There was consternation in the upper echelons of the army and federal government that their military might was being thwarted by such a small group of fighting men traveling with women and children. Occasionally, throughout this period, a few Modoc’s were found and collected by the army, but Captain Jack continued to elude them. Finally, while scouring the recesses of Willow Creek, an army patrol found Jack’s last hiding place.
When he was told they were there, Jack came out of his cave, gave his gun to one of the patrol, Jim Shay, and surrendered. Captain Jack’s only recorded statement about his surrender was that his “legs gave out.”

**The Aftermath**

Four Modoc men were hung at Fort Klamath, Captain Jack, Schonchin John, Black Jim and Boston Charley. Two were sentenced to life imprisonment at Alcatraz. All others who were part of the fighting were taken to Redding, California, put in train cattle cars and sent to Indian Territory in Oklahoma. About 100 Modoc people who had never left the Klamath Reservation remained there.

What was the result of more than four months of fighting? Jesse Carr, the would be land baron then tried to drive away the settlers who had bought into his get rid of the Modoc’s campaign. Initially, he had Jesse Applegate’s help. A survey map with Applegate’s signature as deputy surveyor exists, showing the territory Carr claimed. Historians who have studied the map conclude he was trying to control about 150,000 acres. Carr hired 300 Chinese, Swedish and Chileans to build a rock wall to protect his holdings. The wall was four feet wide and five feet high with barbed wire strung along the top. It was 100 miles long and took about three days to ride around and it cut off access to lakes, springs, creeks, meadows, swamps and timber. Louise Boddy, whose husband was killed in the early days of the Modoc war filed on land and built a cabin near Clear Lake. Carr repeatedly sent orders to have her cabin and barns pulled down or burned. His goal was to rid the land of all settlers and stockmen other than himself. In 1885 he was sued by the U.S. government for unlawfully occupying public lands. His wall was ordered torn down and he was arrested. He died in 1903 before his trial. Jesse Applegate had mental problems and was put in the asylum in Salem, Oregon. He died in 1888.

Finally, on March 3, 1909, the Modocs in Oklahoma were granted permission to return to the Klamath Reservation, if they wished, and some did return. Others, born in Oklahoma, chose to stay there. Although, along with many other tribes, they lost their official status in the early 1900s, today the Modoc’s are again recognized as a tribe by the federal government.

Perhaps the lessons of the Modoc War and other wars are best expressed by Cheewa James:

> What I know is that the bitterness of the past must be just that—past. The understanding and lessons derived from the war must be used to build a better, more tolerant world today and a stepping stone to the future. We must acknowledge, in the Indian way of thinking, that all living things, including human beings, are interrelated. We are here to care for one another.

(Endnotes)

5. Ibid. 46.
6. Ibid. 46, 47.
7. Ibid. 48, 49.
8. Ibid. 49.
9. Ibid. 59.
10. Ibid. 63.
12. Ibid. 117.
17. Ibid. 141, 142.
19. Ibid. 115.
21. Ibid. 229.
22. Ibid. 24.
Oregon’s Last Indian War;  
The Bannock War of 1878  
Carol Surrency

A casual reading of almost any book on American history, from popular accounts to textbooks to scholarly tomes reveals that there have been a lot of conflicts or wars with American Indians since the creation of the United States. In 1907, the War Department officially enumerated 1,470 incidents of military action against American Indians between 1776 and 1907. This suggests that there was about one military action per month against Indians during the first 121 years of the nation’s existence. This count does not include a number (of) incidents or wars involving state militias and volunteer groups, such as vigilantes. In some instances the military action was a single battle, in others there were a series of battles. According to the War Department, only two of these actions have the formal status of “war” under U.S. Army terminology: the 1877 Nez Perce War and the 1878 Bannock War.¹

1878 was a time of panic and fear for settlers in Southwestern Idaho and Eastern Oregon, as roving bands of Native Americans moved through the countryside, killing, looting and burning. Who were these Indians and what caused the uprising? Just nine years previous, the Bannocks had signed a treaty beginning with these words: “From this day forward peace between the parties to this treaty shall forever continue. The Government of the United States desires peace, and its honor is hereby pledged to keep it. The Indians desire peace, and they hereby pledge their honor to maintain it.”²

Origins

The Bannocks are part of the Uto-Aztecan language group, related linguistically and culturally to the Shoshones, a tribe with which they have ended up sharing a reservation. They, along with the Shoshones and Northern Paiutes, are often referred to in historic documents as “snakes”, a term used for Indians living in the Snake River Plain.

According to the Shoshone-Bannock website, the traditional lands of the two tribes “encompassed vast areas that extended into what are now Canada and Mexico.” Hunter-gathers, they moved with the seasons to find food and resources. While Northern Shoshones stayed close to the Snake River, Bannocks roamed through much of Oregon, Idaho, Montana, Nevada and Wyoming often following the “Bannock Trail” through Yellowstone to hunt for buffalo.³

Removal to the Reservation
A number of events occurring during the 1860s helped to bring about the Bannock War, but a primary issue involved a plant. Camas, with a blue flower and a very nutritious bulb, was a major food source for many Indian tribes in the Northwest. Yearly, in the spring or fall, families would travel to Camas-filled areas to dig and prepare the bulb. Meanwhile, economic conditions following the Civil War encouraged large numbers of settlers to move west, hoping to find land and build a new life. This brought pressure on governments and military to move the Indians onto reservations. Bannocks met in treaty council with Americans in 1867, but before they would agree to go to a reservation, they insisted that their new lands include Camas Prairie, a fifteen mile stretch of country near Fairfield, Idaho. A second treaty, signed by the Bannocks in 1869 contained the promise of rights to harvest at Camas Prairie, but unknown to the Indians, Camas Prairie was written as “Kansas” Prairie. Assigned to the Fort Hall Reservation, the Bannocks were expected to share space with the Shoshones and adopt a settled agricultural lifestyle. Problems began immediately. Too many people and not enough resources caused constant hunger. Corruption and delays in receiving promised supplies of food from the U.S. government exacerbated the problem until by 1877, the Indians at Fort Hall were starving. Groups left the reservation to hunt and to dig Camas. Upon arriving at Camas Prairie, however, they discovered that settlers had turned their pigs and cattle out in the area and that almost all the Camas was destroyed. General George Crook, who made an inspection of the area and that almost all the Camas was destroyed. General George Crook, who made an inspection of the area and that almost all the Camas was destroyed. General George Crook, who made an inspection of the area and that almost all the Camas was destroyed. General George Crook, who made an inspection of the area and that almost all the Camas was destroyed. General George Crook, who made an inspection of the area and that almost all the Camas was destroyed.

The apportionment of rations for the supply of this agency was ridiculously inadequate; the Indians complained that three days out of seven they had nothing to eat, and the agent told me the allowance had never been adequate.” Later he added: “It was no surprise...that some of the Indians soon afterward broke out into open hostility...With the Bannocks and the Shoshones, our Indian policy has resolved itself into a question of warpath or starvation, and being merely human, many of them will always choose the former alternative, where death will at least be more glorious.”

Meanwhile, the Malheur Paiutes accused their agent of harsh and inhumane treatment and of issuing starvation rations, leading them to be ready for some kind of action.

Choosing the Warpath

Bannock Chief, Buffalo Horn, and about 200 warriors decided their only solution was to try to drive the Americans out of the country. It was expected that a number of tribes would join the uprising as they moved across Idaho and through Oregon. The plan was to cross the Columbia River and move north into Washington where they expected support from a number of groups living there.

Buffalo Horn and his men began moving along the Bruneau River killing settlers and destroying property as they went. They are also reputed to have killed stagecoach drivers and teamsters along the way. Silver City raised a band of volunteers who ran into Buffalo Horn as he neared the town. During the fight Buffalo Horn was wounded and, eventually, died. The majority of his warriors then fled and joined Paiute Chief, Egan, in South Eastern Oregon where “reports were rampant of ranch raiding and killing in the Steens Mountain country.”

Pete French’s ranch was hit and he and his men fled to make a stand at French Glen. As the Indians crossed the Blitzen River, Egan and his men were trailing some three thousand (stolen) horses, while traveling north, burning homes and driving off livestock on the way. At this time, there were between 1,200 and 2,000 people traveling with Egan, about 700 capable of fighting. Settlers fled to Fort Harney and to any location with a stone building.

At Silver Creek, west of Burns, the U.S. Cavalry met the Indians in an early morning attack. Although the government troops were repulsed several times, Egan was wounded in the wrist, chest and groin. The battle continued throughout the day, but after nightfall, Egan ordered piles of sagebrush to be set on fire making it appear that the Indians were standing their ground while they escaped.

His plan successful, Egan and his followers moved across the Strawberry Mountains toward Canyon City, where terrified citizens ran to hide in mine tunnels leaving the area a virtual ghost town. Bypassing the town, the Indians rampaged down the John Day Valley, burning, looting and killing animals and people wherever they were found.

Geologist, Charles H. Sternberg, was excavating in the John Day Fossil Beds. On July 1, he started for Dayville with a load of fossils, intending to bring back provisions. He recounts, “When I reached the mountains above Dayville, I could look down into the narrow valley of the John Day. Although it was noon, there was no smoke rising from the chimneys of the houses. The fields of wheat were ripe...but no one was working in them and there was no stock in the pastures.”

Meeting a Mr. Mascall, he learned that most local residents had gone to Spanish Gulch, a mining town in the Mountains with a stockade. From there, many people headed for The Dalles. Unwilling to leave his first priority, his fossils, Sternberg then spent the next several days making sure they were safe. He then encountered General Howard
and spent some time surveying the carnage and destruction left as the Indians passed. They entered one house to see food sitting on the table, the people having fled. At another, they found all the furniture broken and a barrel of molasses poured across the floor with a little dead dog in the middle. A little farther on, they came across a burned sheepman’s house and, nearby, two thousand sheep had been mutilated and left in piles to die. Later, the herders were found scalped.

In Long Creek, forty miles northeast of the John Day Valley, people hurriedly gathered in a fort at the edge of town. As the Indians came into the valley, they set fire to houses, drove off the horses and killed cattle and other animals. O.P. Cresap, a civilian scout for the army, describes seeing “flames leaping skyward and smoke curling up in great clouds” (from the houses). He also describes the Indian’s attempt to get into the fort by pretending to be friendly. The settlers refused admission and, finally, the Indians decided to move on toward the Umatilla Reservation where they were hoping to add recruits. Hundreds of Indians and several thousand head of horses passed within a few hundred yards of the Long Creek stockade.

The Indians now moved into the Blue Mountains between Butter and Birch creeks. Uncertainty about where they would go next brought panic in Pilot Rock, Pendleton and the Heppner country. On horseback, in wagons and on foot, people headed for Pendleton, Heppner, Umatilla, Milton, Walla Walla, and The Dalles for protection. In Pendleton, a trench was dug inside the courthouse fence and dirt banked up against the boards to make a fortification. Pickets were posted to guard all approaches. Near Heppner, The Sperry family, recently moved from Linn County Oregon, got settled just in time to experience the Indian uprising. They loaded their families in wagons and set out for a place of safety, camping along the way. After settling the women and children, the men returned to their homes and took turns standing guard. Because they were afraid to sleep at home, they camped out in the hills. The war party never came into the Heppner country, but Heppner Citizens went to Pilot Rock to join a volunteer company being organized for action against the warring Indians. On July 6th, the men were having dinner at Willow Springs, several miles south of Pilot Rock, when Indians appeared. At first alarm, thirteen men mounted their horses and rode off. The others tied their animals in a sheep corral and took shelter in a small shed. The fight went on all afternoon with one man, William Lamar killed and nine wounded. Toward night, the Indians, well under cover, started shooting the horses. A discussion was held and it was decided to retreat on foot putting some of the wounded who could ride on the remaining horses and the others in a light spring wagon. As they left the shed, gun shots rang out and Harrison Hale was killed. The others succeeded in getting away but they were attacked four more times before, at daybreak, they met regular army troops on their way to rescue them. Egan had regrouped his warriors after arriving in the Blue Mountains all the while making overtures to the Umatilla’s and Cayuse to join him. A large party of Umatilla, under the leadership of Umapine came to the camp, supposedly, to talk with Egan. Instead, they opened fire, killing Egan and thirteen of his warriors. The Umatillas then cut off his head as proof that he was dead and brought it to the army. Egan’s death broke the back of the Indian offensive. The Bannock and Paiute split into smaller groups and began drifting back toward their reservations. At Birch Creek, Umapine and the Umatillas surprised a fleeing war party. Seventeen warriors were killed and twenty-five women and children captured. This was the final battle in Oregon’s last Indian war. Today, a marker stands beside highway 395 at Battle Mountain State Park to commemorate the Bannock War.

(Endnotes)

5. Www.nativeamericannetroots.net Accessed 4/17/13
6. Mike Hanley with Ellis Lucia, Owyhee Trails, the West’s Forgotten Corner. (The Caxton Printers, Caldwell, Idaho, 1999) 128.
7. Hanley and Lucia. 133.
11. Mark V. Weatherford. Th... Family History. Privately Published.
12. Harrison Hale is the ancestor of former Portland mayor, Bud Clark.
13. www.oregon genealogy.com
Pacific Northwest Indian War Pensions

Peggy Baldwin

As the country pressed westward, forever moving to the frontier, they encroached on the lands that Native Americans had occupied for centuries. The settlers were land hungry and considered themselves to be superior to the Native Americans already occupying the land. This was the Wild West, where law was tenuous. Conflict was inevitable.

Men of the Oregon Territory, fighting in the Indian Wars, might be volunteers, members of local militias, or members of the U.S. Army. They included whoever they could gather to protect people just coming in on the Southern route of the Oregon Trail, as well as established settlers. Louis Southworth, an early Oregon Territory settler, who arrived as a slave with his master James Southworth in 1853, claimed to have fought in the Rogue River War in 1856. Here in his own words:

Guns were necessary in traveling through the Indian country. So I bought me a very fine rifle for $50. I prized it very highly. But at Roseburg I met a company of volunteers under Colonel John Kelsay, on their way to the Rogue River war. Because rifles were very scarce in those times, the soldiers threatened to take the gun away from me. Thereupon Colonel [Kelsay] said I could keep the gun if I would go along with it. Feeling as if I could not part with my gun, which was the only means of defense I had, I joined the company. During the war I was wounded, but was carried off the field, and my life was saved by Major Bruce, who was brave to the core.

This incident recalls the fact that many years afterward I met Colonel John Kelsay and Congressman Thomas H. Tongue at the Corvallis courthouse. Colonel Kelsay introduced me to Congressman Tongue saying, “Here is an aged man who fought bravely through the Rogue River war, but has never received any compensation.”

Whereupon the congressman replied he would get help for me, even [if] it had to come out of his own pocket. But within a short time he died. This is as near as I ever came to getting any compensation for my services in the Rogue River Indian war.

Articles written about Louis in the last years of his life talked about how financially destitute he was. He had no family to take him in. Louis’s informal induction into the Rogue River war raises questions about whether records were created to prove his presence in the war.

The Records

Sometimes there were no records; muster rolls were misplaced or lost. There could be records in state archives or kept on a national level. The Grand Commissioner of the Indian War Veterans of the North Pacific Coast, T A Wood, was also a lawyer who handled Indian War pension applications. Today we might think of this as conflict of interest, and indeed he was convicted in federal court of defrauding the government and was fined $1000 on 14 June 1904. He was re-elected as Grand Commissioner shortly after that, even though he was not popular with veterans because he overcharged them for his services.

He also withheld records from the government. This early 1900s style running title of a newspaper article leaves almost no need to read the article: “He Must Give Up — T. A. Wood has Indian War Muster Rolls — Department Wants Them — State of Oregon Likely to Be Asked to Take Legal Steps — Veterans Cannot be Paid — Only Proof of Their Service is Contained in the Documents the Portland Attorney Holds onto Tenaciously.” The U.S. Pension Bureau was puzzled by his actions and fought to get their records back. Wood and the Pension Bureau were in a standoff over who needed to make a copy so they could both have them.

An annual Pioneers’ Day meeting occurred on Wednesday, 17 June 1903 in the Portland Exposition Building, replete with hundreds of attendees, a parade, a banquet, and general celebration. Taking advantage of the occasion, the Veterans of Indian Wars met the day before at the Grand Army Hall. Pensions were high on their list of discussion topics, a bill having been passed the previous year. A veteran mentioned that, “The Commissioner of Pensions of course has to guard against error. It has said that in the past 30 or 40 years many frauds have been perpetrated in the Pension Office, and this has compelled the Commissioners of Pensions to make very rigid and exacting rules.” But perhaps those rules were a little too rigid, when they asked a widow to prove that she had not married prior to her marriage to
The Bulletin  Genealogical Forum of Oregon

Page 16 June 2013 Volume 62  No. 4

the Indian War veteran. They had been married for 70 years and at the time of her claim, anyone who would have known her before her marriage to the soldier, would have had to be at least 100 years old. She did not get the pension, with no one around who fit that profile.

**Indian War Pension Laws**

Pacific Northwest Indian wars that were first covered by the 1902 law are the Cayuse, Yakima, Puget Sound, Rogue River, and Coeur d’Alene wars. Wars covered by the 1917 law are the Modoc, Nez Perce, Bannock, and Sheepeater Indian wars. The Nez Perce war was originally covered in the 1881 law. For more information about these wars, consult the Wikipedia page about American Indian Wars and the links on that page to information about the individual wars.

**Indian War Pension Laws**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date Enacted</th>
<th>Name of Law</th>
<th>Statute</th>
<th>Content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1881 - March 3</td>
<td>Nez Perce Indian War</td>
<td>21 Stat. L., 641</td>
<td>Paid $1 / day, including time in hospital. Wounded, disabled, or killed, pension laws in effect as of 1881 apply.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1892 - July 27</td>
<td>Certain Indian Wars from 1832 to 1842</td>
<td>27 Stat. L., 281</td>
<td>$8 / month</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1902 - June 27</td>
<td>Certain Indian Wars from 1817 to 1858</td>
<td>32 Stat. L., 399</td>
<td>$8 / month</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908 - April 19</td>
<td>Increase, Widows and Minors; Regardless of Income</td>
<td>35 Stat. L., 64</td>
<td>$8 / month, widows $12 / month and $2 / month for each child under 16 years.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1913 - February 19</td>
<td>Rates Increased</td>
<td>37 Stat. L., 679</td>
<td>$20 / month</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1917 - March 4</td>
<td>Pensions of Survivors of Certain Indian Wars from January 1, 1859 to January 1891</td>
<td>39 Stat. L., 1199</td>
<td>Pensions for those enlisted men and officers who have reached the age of 62, and who served for thirty days in the campaign in southern Oregon and Idaho and northern parts of California... Specific Indian wars mentioned. See chart of Pacific Northwest Indian Wars.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**The Records**

**National Archives & Virgil White**

The Indian war pension files supply an amazing array of genealogically valuable information. Typically you will find the following information:

- Name of veteran or soldier and any aliases used
- Name of widow and surname if remarried
- Name of 2nd or 3rd or former husbands
- Children’s names
- Parents or siblings may be referred to
- Application number
- Certificate number, if approved for veterans or dependents
- State or country from which claim was filed
- Date claim was filed
- Name of war and dates served
- Regiment, company, and commanding officers
- Date and place of death of the veteran
- Date of death of the widow
- Cross-references to files in other series
- Physical description
- Places the veteran lived after leaving the service

The Indian War Pension files are located at the National Archives in Washington, D.C. Virgil White’s book *Index to Indian Wars Pension Files 1892 – 1926* indexes the files at the National Archives.

The Oregon Indian War pensions from this book also appear as an online index at the Genealogical Forum of Oregon (http://www.gfo.org/pension/index.htm). This online index does not appear to contain all of the Oregon records in Virgil White’s book, but it’s a good and easy place to start without having to leave home. This is the information that an entry in Virgil White’s book supplies:

Peek, Abraham M., Survivor’s Certificate #5049, applied for in Oregon on 9 October 1902, served in the Cayuse War.

Once you locate an Indian war pension, you can order copies of the pension file online.

They can be ordered directly from the National Archives at the following address – https://eservices.archives.gov/orderonline/

**Oregon Historical Society**
The Oregon Historical Society (OHS) has Oregon Indian pension files. These records are indexed in the Biographical Index at OHS. This index provides an application number and the files are available on microfilm, in order of application number. These files are from the records of T A Wood, the lawyer who many people consulted to complete their pension application. Because the first contact with T A Wood quite often was by letter, with an appeal from the veteran, which sometimes gives insight into the life of the veteran. The letter below is an example from Abraham Peek’s OHS Indian war pension file.

From other items in this file, we know that Abraham was actually in and out of the Oregon State Hospital. He had been kicked in the head by a horse and had some brain damage from that that made him emotionally volatile. Seeing what Abraham Peek had to say about himself and other people had to say about him in his pension file fills in pieces of his story. There is much more of this narrative in the OHS pension files than the ones from National Archives.

**Special Acts**

When a veteran or a widow had some difficulty getting an adequate pension or any pension at all, a legislator could introduce a special act to try to get that individual reconsidered for a pension. GenealogyBank.com is a paid website most widely known for its newspaper collection, but it also contains historical documents, including the *U.S. Serial Set*. This resource is a compilation of various government publications, including Congressional reports, the *Journal of the House of Representatives of the United States*, and the *Journal of the Senate of the United States*, which include the special acts. Select “Historical Documents” and enter names and a range of years or whatever else needed to sufficiently narrow the search. If you find a special act you can also search by the number of the act to see if there are any follow-up reports (i.e. “H.R. No. 271”)

**Back to Louis Southworth**

We started, in the first paragraphs of this article, with a newspaper article about Louis Southworth that said that a Representative Thomas A Tongue was going to help him get a pension. Louis said that Tongue died shortly after that. A search of the *Biographical Directory of the United States Congress* shows that Tongue died in 1903. The pension law that applied to the Rogue River Indian Wars was passed in 1902, so this fits Louis’s story.

Searching Virgil White’s book produces a record of pension application submitted for Lewis Southworth in 1902:

**Southworth, Lewis, Survivor’s Application # 6917, applied for in Oregon on 20 Sep 1902, served in Ross’ Oregon Mounted Volunteers**

A search of the newspapers on GenealogyBank.com produced the following article:

**Pension for Negro ex-Slave Sought.**

CORVALLIS, Or., Dec. 23.—(Special.) —Representative Hawley, of the First
District of Oregon, has introduced a bill in Congress to pension Lou Southworth, an old Negro ex-slave, who fought in the Rogue River and other Indian wars in the pioneer days of this state. He was purchasing his freedom from his master when the Civil War gave him his freedom and he never received a receipt for the money paid. The bill introduced by Mr. Hawley would pay him a pension of $20 a month.8

A search of the U.S. Serial Set on GenealogyBank.com confirms this news article. Hawley introduced special acts for Louis in the U.S. House and Senator Lane introduced them in the Senate. In all there were nine special acts entitled, “A bill granting a pension to Louis Southworth.” The first special acts were introduced in 1915, by Mr. Hawley in the U.S. House of Representatives and by Mr. Lane in the Senate.9 There is no evidence of a report coming out of the committees that the special acts were referred to.

Oregon Historical Society

There is no file for Louis Southworth at the Oregon Historical Society, but an inspection of file for Thomas Southworth produced two misfiled pages for Louis. Thomas was the son of Louis’s master. There was not the personal story about Louis that accompanies some files, however.

The Pension Bureau has the final word

The files from the National Archives showed both papers concerning both the 1902 application and the 1915 special act introduced by Hawley. “REJECTED” was stamped on both attempts. Mr. Lane stopped submitting special acts for Louis after Louis’s death. On the other hand, Hawley, showing real tenacity, continued to submit special acts for eight years after his death. An affidavit in Louis’s pension file from Major Bruce attested to Louis’s presence in the Rogue River wars in 1855 and his wounding at the Battle of Hungry Hill. But this was not enough evidence, according to the Pension Bureau, to ease Louis’s financial situation with an Indian war pension. Fraternal organizations in Corvallis took up a collection to help support Louis in the last two years of his life, ending with his death on 23 Jun 1917 in Corvallis.

(Endnotes)

The Black Hawk War of Illinois

By Kristy Lawrie Gravlin

This map shows the important features present when Illinois became a state on December 3, 1818. In the lower third of the state you can see the counties that had been created by then. On the left “in the big bump” is the bounty land area for those who were veterans of the War of 1812. It was planned but not yet filled at the time. One “notch” above that is a heavy dark horizontal line. This was the original plan for the north border of the state. But there were those who thought Illinois should have access to at least some of Lake Michigan, and it was soon raised some sixty miles to approximately the north “border” on the illustration that we know today as where Wisconsin begins.

In 1810 there were 12,300 residents in the whole state. Today there are about that many in tiny, rural Little Rock Township, with 10,900 of them in the city of Plano. (The circle is about where LR Township is, but it could not be made small enough. It would have been in Wisconsin by the first plan.) By 1818 the area was growing quickly and there were approximately 48,000 residents in the state—“almost” enough to qualify for statehood. (Other sources cite just over 55,000—the “required” number for a new state.) But the entire population was still in the “toe” of the state. In the settled part, the Wabash, Ohio, and Mississippi Rivers trace the right, bottom, and left edges of the area. Most of the first residents came from “the south” and were able to reach this land with relatively little difficulty. In the area of the “little bump” on the left, people were able to settle close to St. Louis, and became “collar” residents. It took many years before this population distribution changed much at all.

The northern two-thirds of Illinois had very few residents. There were some in what would become Chicago, and there were a scattering in the Galena area (the diamond), which had rich deposits of lead. Both Native Americans and Settlers were interested in the mining the lead. (It too would have been in Wisconsin by the first boundary.) But no one seemed anxious to bring their families into the area where various Indian tribes made their home, and did not welcome settlers taking their land. There was the possibility of massacre, and few others to depend upon for any help if any unpleasantries arose.

The British Crown had declared the area “Indian Territory” in Colonial times. But as more and more white settlers moved into the new state of Illinois, the Indians were pushed into northern Illinois, Wisconsin, and Iowa. Then in 1804 an event occurred which would change the whole situation.

At that time, Black Hawk, or “Makataimeshekiakiak,” was the War Leader of the Sauk and Fox tribes, a position he held because of his skill at leading raids beginning when he was 19. The tribes’ permanent location was near Rock Island (see long arrow), but the men hunted far and
wide in the winter, usually in Iowa and areas west of the Mississippi. The tribe raised 5,000 acres of corn and other crops that they harvested each year in the Illinois area. More than 100 multi-family lodges housed the residents who could gather 1,000 warriors if needed. They also used their village of Saukenuk (now Rock Island) as a burial ground for their people. Black Hawk was a bright, strategic, planner, who was fair and honest (although the rules of “fair” were not the same in their culture as in the white culture). These differences would lead to many misunderstandings on both sides.

What event began the Black Hawk War? Several of the Sauk braves had killed several Americans, and were being held prisoner near St. Louis. It was Sauk tradition to send men to such a situation to try to negotiate the freedom of a captive. They intended to pay the family for the death. But while they were there, the Americans, led by William Henry Harrison, invited them to have a little whiskey. This led to more, and more, of the liquid until the Sauk were sufficiently drunk enough to sign a paper which gave all of the Sauk and Fox lands in Missouri, Illinois, and Wisconsin to the United States. (See lighter colored area on this map.)

When they sobered up enough they returned to tell the tribe about the event. They said, when they returned to Black Hawk, that they thought they were trading a small portion of Missouri land as would have been reasonable in the situation. But the land had been signed away...and the man they went to rescue had been shot dead shortly thereafter. Not surprisingly, the tribe was not happy with these events. They felt that it was not a legitimate contract since the men had not been authorized to make such a deal, and that the land could not be sold without the tribe as a whole, both men and women, agreeing. The whites said, “Oh well...too bad, but we do think it counts.” Black Hawk was told that he would eventually have to move his tribe to the west side of the Mississippi River. They would be paid $2200 in goods at the signing and $1000 a year for the land—equivalent to $15,000 a year in today’s money—for over 50 Million acres of land. Many of the settlers who moved into the area began with 40-acre farms...for each farm the Sauk were paid “rent” of 12¢ a year—at least for a while.

When the War of 1812 began, Black Hawk led the warriors who agreed with him in fighting on the British side. He was not happy when the Americans won the war. The British had promised him they would return the tribes' traditional lands when they won the war. But that return did not come to be, of course.

When did pioneers begin settling in northern Illinois? In the spring of 1828, the Sauks and Fox were given one year to be out of Illinois. A year later about 20 white families decided to move into the Saukenuk area, where they destroyed the homes and fenced the fields. In the winter of 1830-31 the tribe nearly starved to death without the corn from their large farm. It was a very difficult time for them—the $1000 in trade goods they received that year was not able to support the entire group of nearly 2,000 people of all ages.

In April 1832, Black Hawk took the tribe (500 warriors plus 1,200 old men, women, and children) back across the Mississippi. The Indian view is that it was to retrieve foodstuffs from Saukenuk. They were also distressed that the whites were using their burial grounds as fields, scattering the bones hither and yon. And they thought other tribes would join their cause so they could return to reside in the Rock Island area.

The whites felt that it was an attack by the Sauk and rushed to gather a Militia to defend their land. They went to an area near Stillman Valley on May 14, 1832, with orders to coerce the Indians into submission. The Militia had 275 men led by Maj. Isaiah Stillman, while Black Hawk had 40-50 warriors with him at the time of the battle. Black Hawk had by then decided to return to Iowa as his tribe was in need of food and rest. When scouts brought word that the Militia was only eight miles away, he sent a delegation of three braves with a white flag to discuss their retreat plans.

The three emissaries were taken into the American camp, but when several other Indians were noted in the hills, watching, the three were fired upon. One was killed,
and the other two escaped and ran back to their tribe. The Militia followed them but, by the time they got to the camp, the Sauk had set up a defensive line. The soldiers never noticed the Indians hiding in the woods. When they were fired upon they panicked because about “a thousand Indians” were attacking them and ran for Dixon’s Ferry. No one seems to know where Major Stillman was during this affair.

Twelve militiamen were killed while all the rest beat a hasty retreat, approximately thirty miles southwest of the battle, which was termed “Stillman’s Run” thereafter. Although not proven, it has always been said that Abraham Lincoln was one of those who was brave enough to go back to bury the dead. Black Hawk said that at least three, and maybe as many as five, of his men were killed.

Someone...soldier or settler...spread the word that 2,000 bloodthirsty warriors had come to northern Illinois to cause terror and destruction. It may have been some of the 40-plus soldiers who forgot to stop at Dixon and just went on home to central Illinois instead. The sparsely scattered settlers were in a panic at this point. A group of whites were attacked and killed at Indian Creek, 12 miles north of Ottawa, as the tribe was foraging for supplies—although the main body of Black Hawk’s tribe was two days north of Beloit, Wisconsin, at the time. In the meantime Black Hawk led his entire village north, and then west, to get to the Mississippi. The soldiers seemed to be several days behind them nearly all of the chase. Was that incompetence, or a clever plot to trap the tribe?

For the next month they were followed by the Militia who were never quite able to catch up with the band of Sauk, even though they were weary and hungry and composed of old men, women, and young children surrounded by warriors numbering less than half as many as the less able tribes-people. Their War Chief, Black Hawk, who had been born in 1767, was 65 years old during this event. He led them, of course. Many elders and children died of starvation, exposure, and exhaustion in the month that they continued trying to reach the Mississippi.

On July 21st at Wisconsin Heights, about 60 warriors held off 700 troops led by Henry Dodge while the women, elders, and children of the tribe went across the Wisconsin River near what would become Madison, Wisconsin. The soldiers were able to kill those too old or ill to keep up. A Sauk leader, Neapope, hidden in a tree, offered to negotiate surrender between the Militia and the Indians. He was ignored, possibly because the Militia did not understand him.

Four days later Black Hawk’s tribe reached the mouth of the Bad Axe River where it empties into the Mississippi. There they found that the Americans had sent a group of soldiers up the Mississippi on a steamboat...just in time to meet them there. Although the Indians immediately raised a white flag of truce, the captain on the ship ordered the cannon fired again and again into the group, killing 23 immediately. The Indians sought shelter in the woods overnight.

The U.S. troops following Black Hawk suddenly caught up and charged them at dawn from the bluffs, firing into to the group and killing warriors, women, children, and the elderly indiscriminately. The steamboat fired its cannon at any who sought cover near the river. Those who tried to swim the Mississippi, including women who had toddlers clinging to them, were shot and killed. The Mississippi, it was said, ran red with blood. Approximately 90 actually made it across the river...where the Sioux waited. Allied with the U.S., and traditional enemies of the Sauk/Fox, the Sioux killed 68 of the 90 who had survived the bullets and the river.
Within a few days Ho-Chunk (then known as Winnebago) warriors found and turned Neapope and Black Hawk over to the Americans. The peace treaty that was signed on September 19th required the Sauk/Fox to stay more than 50 miles west of the Mississippi River. Black Hawk and the Winnebago Chief named Prophet, were imprisoned, along with a number of other chiefs, first in St. Louis, and then at Norfolk, Virginia.

The plan, apparently, was to put the “fear of the Great White Father” into Black Hawk. However, at this time, the leader of the U.S. was President Andy Jackson...perhaps the most appreciative of the Indian philosophy of life of any of our Presidents. The two spent a considerable amount of time together and, apparently, grew to like and admire each other’s “style of leadership”.

Eventually, in June through August of 1833, Black Hawk and Prophet were sent on a tour of eastern cities by rail. They stopped the train at most towns so that the people might see the “awful, scary, Indians” and enormous crowds were on hand in each place. Black Hawk, always the “publicist”, took advantage of the crowds to speak about his people and their needs, making them far more “human” than was the intent of those who devised the trip. He spoke, too, of how great a people the whites were...and how there was no way that the small tribes of Indians could successfully fight against such a large group. The two topics, combined with the most charming personality he maintained did much to ease the fears of the whites, as well as to make them like Black Hawk.

In 1833 the Sauk/Fox were settled upon the Iowa River where Keokuk was their Chief. Black Hawk was sent there. In 1836-1846 they were forced even further west, and their numbers had fallen from 6,000 to 2,477. Black Hawk, with the assistance of a translator, wrote a book entitled *The Autobiography of Black Hawk*, the first book ever written by a Native American. He lived with his wife and their three living children.

On October 3, 1838, Black Hawk died at age 71, of a respiratory illness. He was buried in the traditional sitting-up position in a “mausoleum” made of logs. It was not long before his grave was robbed. When his body was discovered it was put on display at the museum in Burlington, Iowa. By 1846 his tribe was pushed to the headwaters of the Osage River in Kansas. Then, in 1855, the Burlington museum caught fire and all things in it were destroyed.

It is possible to find many websites online that offer information about Black Hawk and the War of 1832. Each one offers a variety of information...varied even as to the facts. It is possible to determine when reading most of them whether the point of view is white or Indian, which changes the motives, and numbers, and results of many of the events. It is also possible to find the names of many very well known men who would be immediately recognized by most Americans. William Clark, of the Lewis & Clark Expedition, and four Presidents: Abraham Lincoln, William Henry Harrison, Andrew Jackson, and Jefferson Davis, were involved. Four future Illinois Governors were also part of the War—Thomas Ford, John Wood, Joseph Duncan, and Thomas Carlin, in addition to the Governor in 1832, John Reynolds. When Black Hawk and others were confined before being sent east, they were visited by author Washington Irving, and artist George Catlin. The Black Hawk War involved federal troops, militia from Illinois, Indiana, Missouri, and the territories of Wisconsin and Michigan—and, on both sides, Native American warriors. Eventually nearly one third of the U.S. Army was committed to the Black Hawk War although about nine thousand Illinois militiamen did the majority of the work.

Cherokee Wars

June Ralston Anderson

What were these people like, who desperately fought the colonists before, during, and after the Revolutionary War? Before fighting began, they were trading partners with the colonists and other British. Their culture stressed both cooperation and the right of small groups and individuals to autonomous actions. Before the wars began, many Cherokees lived in towns, built along rivers and creeks near the present borders of North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. Towns were grouped in three geographic areas. The Lower Towns were the most easterly, on the tributaries of the Savannah River, while the Middle Towns were on the headwaters of the Little Tennessee River. Even farther west, the Over the Hill Towns were located in eastern Tennessee and northeastern Georgia. Land might include a certain rural area around the aggregation of houses in the town itself.

The town was the basic unit of political organization. Each had a ceremonial center and everyone who used that center was considered a member of the town. Although people occasionally had meetings involving more than one village or town, this was not an obligation. There was no formal political organization beyond the individual town.¹

Each town had a council made up of the entire population. This council dealt with all political affairs, including relations with other towns, tribes and, during the early years of contact, Europeans. They also handled some affairs internal to the town such as repairs to public buildings, communal plantings, and ceremonies. Although the entire town belonged to the council, three groups of elder men seemed to dominate. The most prominent group included the chief priest and his assistants. A second group of seven, one from each clan, formed an inner advisory council. The third group was made up of senior men called “beloved men” whose advice was considered important. Seating in council meetings reflected this structure. The chief priest, assistants, and advisors sat in the center with the rest of the town arranged in clan groups around them. Young men were next, then women and children.²

That women sat behind the men, informs about a particular custom, not about the power or importance of women in Cherokee society in general. Cherokee women had “considerable power and prestige”.³ Women controlled the literal life of the Cherokee people because only they could bring new members into being. Women gained spiritual power through the processes of menstruation, pregnancy, and childbirth. When they were postmenopausal, they were held in high regard because of this accumulated spiritual power and had obligations requiring a high degree of purity. They made special vessels to accompany war expeditions, they sang and danced with the priests and warriors, and they brewed ceremonial medicine. Every seven years a special ceremony to purify the high priest was undertaken by a very aged and honorable woman.⁴

Beloved women, like beloved men, spoke in council meetings, and their opinions were considered along with those of the men. An especially exalted position in political and ceremonial life was held by war women. These were women who had fought in battles. They could carry their weapons and participate in the war dance with the male warriors and they also participated with the men in the Eagle Dance which commemorated past victories.⁵

War women’s exalted position derived from their connection with blood. Cherokees saw blood as the giver and taker of life. Men came in contact with blood in war. If they were wounded and lost too much blood they died. Women’s menstruation was connected with Cherokee survival because births provided new members of their clans. Warrior women crossed gender lines, becoming warriors and having the warrior connection to blood without the male warrior rituals while maintaining their female blood related abilities. This gave them great power and prestige.⁶

Another connection to war involved all women, not just the war women. Traditionally, most wars were to avenge the killing of relatives, not a policy matter between villages or tribes. Vengeance was necessary to still the spirits of the dead. Because of this, women had a direct interest and they often pressed their male relatives into battles for this reason. They also sometimes argued against wars because of danger to family members. Since the Cherokees were matrilineal, the death of women and girls greatly affected the clans to which they belonged. If all females from a clan should be killed, an entire clan would cease to exist.⁷

As the 1700s went on, the context and practice of war
changed. The British and French were at war in Europe and in their American colonies. Each tried to make allies of Indians and both used trade goods and gifts, including liquor, as inducements for allegiance. War changed from family or clan related vengeance for two main reasons. First, British wanted their Indian allies to fight in order to advance their cause against the French. Second, and more critical to the Cherokees, the colonists were usurping the Cherokee rights by squatting on Cherokee farming and hunting lands with very few making any attempt to obtain the land for their houses and farms, or hunting rights from the Indians. As a result, the Cherokees wars turned into battles for their homeland and for their very survival.

New concepts of warfare began to impact the political system and social structure. Although leadership roles had never been hereditary and did not become so, a shift in the power structure occurred. War chiefs became more important than they had been previously. Although Cherokees attempted to maintain their method of decision making which depended on reaching a village consensus; as time went on, it became harder to do so. Those who favored war sometimes refused to abide by a group decision against fighting. Some wished to practice a lifestyle more like that of the colonists, including such things as: education, housing, gender activities, and agriculture. Opposition by others ranged from those against any change to their traditional ways, through a gamut of possible opposition.

The War of 1760-61

This war, which took place in 1760-61, can be seen as the culmination of the British and French competition for dominance in the southeast. Prior to 1760, the Cherokees were officially allied with the British but often favored the French. After the capture of an English post, renamed Fort Duquesne by the French, the English signed new treaties with the Cherokees. In spite of this, conflicts developed. During a joint campaign against the Shawnees, Virginians killed Cherokee allies, then Cherokees began attacking Carolina settlements. The Carolina governor declared war against the Cherokees in November 1759 and fighting began in June 1760. The war brought devastation to the Cherokees. First, Colonel Montgomery with more than 1,600 men marched through the Lower Town area. He surprised the village of Little Keowee, and claimed to have killed male defenders. The towns were burned; cornfields and orchards were cut down. He took more than 100 men as prisoners, and drove the rest into the mountains to the west.

In 1761, Colonel Grant with 2,600 men, including some Chickasaws and Catawbas, attacked the Middle Towns, burning fifteen towns to the ground, as well as all the plantations. They also destroyed approximately 1,400 acres of Cherokee crops. Grant and his army drove about 5,000 women, men and children into the mountains to starve. Those who survived went to the Overhill Towns where there was also a food shortage. Traders in the area reported that, previously, the Cherokees had an abundance of fine horses, but now there were few as they had been forced to eat them after their normal food sources were destroyed. They were also cut off from access to British trade goods, being only able to obtain a few items from the French. Probably only a little over 2,000 warriors remained alive at the end of this war.

The War of 1776

When the British and the Whig or patriot colonists began their war, (the Revolutionary War) the Cherokees realized that their best hope lay with the British. The colonists were the ones taking Cherokee land and causing most of their problems. Indeed, many colonists believed the Indians should all be moved from land wanted by the colonists, or be exterminated. This was a common view. Even Thomas Jefferson, with his curiosity about Indian culture and languages, was in this group. By his second term as president, he came to believe that there was no place on the American continent for Indians to live unless they became “civilized,” by which he meant they should become like the whites. Jefferson believed the alternative was extinction.

The colonist’s 1776 plan for the Cherokees was to destroy them. South Carolina was to level the Lower Towns, North and South Carolina to destroy the Middle Towns, and Virginia to destroy the Overhill Towns.

General Griffith Rutherford attacked from North Carolina. He claimed destruction of 36 towns and cornfields and killed or captured livestock. The Cherokees living there moved into the Smoky Mountains. General Andrew Williamson and the South Carolina Militia attacked the Lower Towns with over 1,000 troops. He claimed to have burnt every town and destroyed all corn from the eastern edge of the Cherokee settlements to the Middle Towns. Then the two armies spent two weeks burning the Middle Town settlements and food. Colonel Christian and the Virginians under his command marched to the Overhill Towns. The Cherokees again fled into the mountains. The Virginians destroyed towns, livestock, 40,000 to 50,000 bushels of corn and 10,000 to 15,000 bushels of potatoes. They also cut down orchards. The Cherokees were so devastated they decided they had no choice but to sue for peace.
Peace before Removal

Even after a treaty was signed, the fighting did not stop. Many Cherokees moved their homes to the southwest, down the Tennessee River, settling near Chickamauga Creek. Others left and moved across the Mississippi River. Eventually, the Chickamauga settlements were also burned, along with other villages. Some Cherokees began to refuse to fight while others refused to quit. The result was more destruction of Cherokee property and killing of Cherokees. In 1788, many died in the Hiwassee River trying to escape their burning village. Killings continued on both sides for several years. Americans were reported to have beheaded women and children who were planting crops. Americans also attacked women and children on their way to South Carolina to buy corn. A final treaty was negotiated in 1798.

During the 1700s, the Cherokees made sixteen land cessions under thirteen treaties. Altogether, they gave up 82,277 square miles of land. In spite of this, and in spite of their adoption of a constitution and civil government modeled after that of the United States, the Cherokees were forcibly removed in 1838 to Indian Territory, now Oklahoma. Even wealth did not prevent removal. A number of Cherokees, including John Ross, the principle chief, lived just like their wealthy white neighbors, in large houses on plantations with servants and slaves. Even the creation of a principle chief position was an adaptation to white culture in an attempt to make it easier to deal with white-run governments.

Under John Ross, the Cherokees had argued their case against forced removal before the U.S. Supreme Court. The Supreme Court ruled in their favor but President Andrew Jackson refused to follow the Court’s ruling. Gold had been discovered in the mountains of north Georgia and whites would have the land. Legend has Jackson saying, “Marshall has made his rule, now let him enforce it.” In 1838, approximately 14,000 people were rounded up and held in stockades without adequate, water, food, shelter, or medicine and sent to Oklahoma. Some, possibly about 1,100 people, fled into the mountains and a few who were married to whites were allowed to stay in their homes. Estimates for the number of deaths associated with roundup and removal range from 2,000 to 4,000 on what has become known in history as the Trail of Tears.

(Endnotes)

2. Ibid. 93.
4. Ibid. 37.
5. Ibid. 39.
6. Ibid. 39.
7. Ibid. 88.
11. Ibid. 42.
12. Ibid. 71-77.
Educate Yourself

GFO Microfilm Cabinets, US Material and Then by States
Part II

Vicki Bonagofski and Susan LeBlanc, AG

This is a continuation of the inventory of microfilm at the GFO.

The previous inventory list is in the March 2013 issue. The films for the following states are found in cabinets 2, 3, and 4. The second cabinet contains films for Indiana through Missouri. The third cabinet contains films for Montana through Oklahoma. The fourth cabinet contains films for Oregon through Wyoming.

Cabinet 2

Drawer 1 – Indiana

Indiana Census- 1820, 40 rolls; 1830, 7 rolls; 1840, 20 rolls; 1850, 25 rolls; 1860, 17 rolls

Drawer 2 – Indiana

Indiana Census- 1900, 1C roll and 1S roll; 1910, 5 rolls; 1920, 5C rolls and 1S roll
Various Rush County Records, 1 roll
Indexes to Various Indiana Vital Records, Putnam, 1 roll
Index to Various Indiana Vital Records, St. Joseph, 1 roll
Index to Compiled Service Records, 5 films
Index to Various Vigo County, Indiana Vital Records
Index to Vital Records 1850-1920, Huntington, Jackson and Jasper Counties
Index to Vital Records Pulaski County
Index to Death Records Indiana, Posey County, 1882-1920

Drawer 3 – Iowa

Iowa Census- 1840, 2 rolls; 1850, 4 rolls; 1859 State A-Cos., 1 roll; 1860, 14 rolls; 1870, 40 rolls; 1880, 10C rolls and 3S rolls; 1900, 1 roll; 1910, 17 rolls; 1920, 1 roll

Drawer 4 – Kansas

Kansas Census- 1855 State, 1.5 rolls; 1859 State, 1.5 rolls; 1860, 5 rolls; 1870, 16 rolls; 1875 State, 2 rolls; 1880, 2C and 1S; 1900, 1C roll and 1S roll; 1905 State, 1 roll; 1910, 23 rolls; 1920 1 roll
Indexed to Compiled Service Records
Indiana Pioneer Histories

Drawer 5 – Kentucky

Kentucky Census- 1810, 5 rolls; 1820, 5 rolls; 1830, 10 rolls; 1840, 22 rolls; 1850, 24 rolls; 1860, 11 rolls

Drawer 6 – Kentucky

Kentucky Census- 1870, 46 rolls; 1880, 9C rolls and 6S rolls; 1900, 8 rolls; 1910, 14C rolls and 1S roll; 1920, 2 rolls
Kentucky Birth, Death and Marriage, 4 rolls
Carter County, Kentucky Tax Lists, 1 roll
Scott County, Kentucky Tax lists 1794-1817, 1 roll
Index to Taylor County, Central Kentucky Researcher Jan. 1971-June 1981, 1 roll
Evergreen Cemetery, Southgate, Kentucky, 1895-1899, 1 roll

Drawer 7 – Louisiana

Louisiana Census- 1820, 3 rolls; 1830, 2 rolls; 1840, 8 rolls; 1850, 5 rolls; 1860, 2 rolls; 1870, 22 rolls; 1880, 1S roll; 1900, 21S rolls; 1910, 4C rolls and 5S rolls; 1920, 1C roll and 4S rolls
Indexed to Compiled Service Records of Volunteers of Union Soldiers, 2 rolls
New Orleans, Louisiana Passenger Lists 1822, 1 roll
Passenger Lists of Vessels arriving at New Orleans, Louisiana, 1 Feb. 1840-29 June 1840
Quarterly Abstract of Passenger Lists Arriving at New Orleans, Louisiana, 2 Jan. 1838-30 Sep. 1845

Drawer 8 – Maine, Maryland
Maine Census- 1810, 2 rolls; 1820, 4 rolls; 1830, 3 rolls; 1840, 10 rolls; 1850, 11 rolls; 1860, 4 rolls; 1870, 17 rolls; 1910, 7 rolls
Maryland Census- 1790, 1 roll; 1820, 1 roll; 1830, 2 rolls; 1840, 15 rolls; 1850, 6 rolls; 1860, 4 rolls; 1870, 13 rolls; 1900, 2S rolls
Passenger Lists of Vessels Arriving at Baltimore, Maryland, 5 Nov. 1867-31 Mar. 1869 and 1 Jan. 1830-31 Dec. 1833

Drawer 9 – Massachusetts
Massachusetts Census- 1800, 2 rolls; 1820, 1 roll; 1830, 2 rolls; 1840, 17 rolls; 1850, 12 rolls; 1860 2 rolls; 1870, 26 rolls; 1880, 1C roll and 1S roll; 1900, 7S rolls; 1910, 9 rolls; 1920, 10C rolls and 1S roll
Genealogical Record: Berkshire Star, Lenox, Massachusetts and New York City Mercury, 1829-1830, 30 pages, 1 roll
St. Johnsville, New York Enterprise & News Genealogy Columns, Mohawk, Mohawk Valley Genealogy and History, 1936-1957, 16 Vols, 1 roll
Passenger Lists of Vessels Arriving at Boston 1 Oct.- 28 Dec. 1844 and 1 Jan. –31 May 1845, 1 roll
Passenger Lists of Vessels Arriving at Boston 7 Apr. 1870-20 June 1870, 1 roll
Passenger Lists of Vessels Arriving at Boston 21 June 1870-10 Sep. 1870, 1 roll
Passenger Lists of Vessels Arriving at Boston 12 Sep. 1870-31 Mar. 1871, 1 roll
Passenger Lists of Vessels Arriving at Boston 1 Oct. 1885-26 Feb. 1886, 1 roll
Passenger Lists of Vessels Arriving at Boston 17 May 1886-19 Aug. 1886, 1 roll
Passenger Lists of Vessels Arriving at Boston 1 June 1891-29 July 1891, 1 roll
Index to Compiled Service Records of Volunteer Union Soldiers, 2 rolls

Drawer 10 – Michigan, Minnesota
Michigan Census- 1820, 1 roll; 1830, 1 roll; 1840, 7 rolls; 1850, 5 rolls; 1860, 9 rolls; 1870, 31 rolls; 1880, 3C rolls and 2S rolls; 1900, 6C rolls; 1910, 1 roll; 1920, 2S rolls
Minnesota Census- 1850, 1 roll; 1860, 10 rolls; 1870, 5 rolls; 1880, 3 rolls; 1900, 1C roll and 1S roll; 1920, 3 rolls; 1930, 1 roll; State Census 1895, 1 roll; State Census 1885, 1 roll

Drawer 11 – Mississippi, Missouri
Mississippi Census- 1830, 1 roll; 1840, 3 rolls; 1850, 9 rolls; 1860, 4 rolls; 1870, 13 rolls; 1880, 3 rolls; 1900, 1C roll and 4S rolls; 1920, 1C roll and 1S roll
Mississippi Vital Records Index to Marriage prior to 1926
Missouri Census- 1830, 1 roll; 1840, 17 rolls; 1850, 35 rolls

Drawer 12 – Missouri
Missouri Census- 1860, 18 rolls; 1870, 41 rolls; 1880, 12C rolls and 9S rolls; 1900, 4C rolls and 21S rolls; 1910, 1C rolls and 2S rolls; 1920, 1C roll

Cabinet 3

Drawer 1 – Montana, North Dakota, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire
Montana Census- 1870, 1 roll; 1880, 1 roll; 1900, 7C rolls and 1S roll; 1910, 9 rolls; 1920, 12 rolls
Montana, Park County Historical Biographical and Scenic Description
North Dakota Census- 1860, 1 roll
Nebraska Census- 1870, 8 rolls; 1880, 6 rolls; 1885 State Census, 1 roll; 1900, 2C rolls and 5S rolls; 1910, 1 roll; 1920, 1 roll
New Hampshire Census- 1800, 1 roll; 1840, 4 rolls; 1850, 3 rolls; 1860, 1 roll; 1870, 2 rolls
Revolutionary War Rolls 1775-1783 by Regiment, 9 rolls

Drawer 2 – New Jersey, New Mexico
New Jersey Census- 1840, 12 rolls; 1850, 5 rolls; 1860, 1 roll; 1870, 5 rolls; 1880, 1 roll; 1900, 35S rolls; 1920, 15S rolls
New Mexico Census- 1850, 4 rolls; 1860, 5 rolls; 1870, 15 rolls; 1880, 3 rolls

Drawer 3 – New York
New York Census- 1800, 1 roll; 1820, 3 rolls; 1830, 12 rolls; 1840, 68 rolls

Drawer 4 – New York
New York Census- 1850, 32 rolls; 1855, 2 rolls Richmond County and Schenectady County; 1860, 15 rolls; 1870, 67 rolls

Drawer 5 – New York
New York Census- 1870; 1880, 8C rolls and 3S rolls; 1892 State Census, 1 roll Wayne County; 1900 1C for Kings County, 1 roll Renesselaer county; 1910, 1 New York County; 1920, 1C roll Queens and Borough, 1S roll

Drawer 6 – Passenger Lists of Vessels Arriving in New York 1820-1897
Arriving in New York 16 June 1897-30 June 1902, 15 rolls
Arriving in New York 22 Sep. 1826-28 May 1827, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 21 July 1831-31 Jan. 1832, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 22 June 1832-27 Aug. 1833, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 21 July-12 Oct 1834, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 1 March-January 1838, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 1 Sep. 1843-30 Mar. 1844, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 1 Apr.-18 June 1844, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 9 June-31 Aug. 1844, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 2 July-14 July 1845, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 16 July-15 Sep. 1845, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 1 June-10 July 1846, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 2 Dec. 1846-7 Apr. 1847, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 8 Apr.-20 May 1847, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 21 May-24 June 1847, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 25 June-25-31 Aug. 1847, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 1 Sep.-30 Oct. 1847, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 1 Nov. 1847-29 Feb. 1848, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 1 June-6 July 1848, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 11 July-24 Aug. 1848, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 25 Aug.-29 Sep. 1848, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 1-17 Apr 1849, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 3 Apr.-14 May 1850, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 15-25 May 1850, 1 roll (25)
Arriving in New York 20 Dec. 1850-22 Feb. 1851, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 24 Feb.-10 Apr. 1851, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 1-30 Apr. 1851, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 1-26 May 1851, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 27 May-10 June 1851, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 17 July-4 Aug. 1851, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 26 Mar.-7 May 1855, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 17 Dec. 1855-31 Jan. 1856, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 1 Feb.-31 Mar. 1856, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 1-25 July 1856, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 26 July-21 Aug. 1856, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 19 Sep.-18 Oct. 1856, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 20 Oct.-17 Nov. 1859, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 18 Nov.-31 Dec. 1856, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 1 Oct.-11 Nov. 1859, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 12 May-19 June 1860, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 22 Nov.-31 Dec. 1860, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 11 May-5 June 1861, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 6 June-8 July 1861, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 9 July-10 Aug. 1861, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 12 Nov. 1861-14 June 1862, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 9 Aug.-10 Sep. 1862, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 28 Oct.-13 Nov. 1865, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 14 Nov.-8 Dec. 1865, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 19 May-2 July 1868, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 18-31 May 1869, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 17 Dec. 1870-20 Jan. 1871, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 20 Apr.-3 May 1872, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 1-21 Oct. 1873, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 29 May-13 July 1878, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 11-22 May 1882, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 24 June-8 July 1882, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 28 Mar.-21 Apr. 1883, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 22 May-23 June 1884, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 20 June-7 Aug. 1885, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 1-30 Apr. 1887, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 4-26 Nov. 1889, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 27 Nov.-31 Dec. 1889, 1 roll
Arriving in New York 18-29 May 1891, 1 roll (39)
Register of Vessels arriving at the Port of New York,
New York, Free Foreign Ports 1789-1919, 1 roll; 1 Jan.
1849-21 June 1854, 1 roll; 2 Jan. 1882-30 June 1890, 1 roll
New York Passenger and Crew Lists 1897-1942; 28
May 1902, 1 roll; 21 Aug. 1911, 1 roll; 9 Nov. 1920,
1 roll; 1 Oct. 1921, 1 roll
Index to Passenger Lists of Vessels Arriving at New
York, New York, 1820-1846, Index, 6 rolls; Soundex
1 July 1902-31 Dec. 1943, 26 rolls
New York Records of the Reformed Dutch Church
of Store Arabia in the town of Palatine, Montgomery
County, New York, 1 roll
Rockville Cemetery and History of Uniondale Ward,
Lynbrook, New York, 1 roll

**Drawer 7 – North Carolina**

North Carolina Census- 1790, 1 roll; 1800, 2 rolls;
1810, 3 rolls; 1820, 3 rolls; 1830, 3 rolls; 1840, 21
rolls; 1850, 12 rolls; 1860, 14 rolls; 1870, 19 rolls

**Drawer 8 – North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio**

North Carolina Census- 1880, 1C roll and 2S rolls;
1900, 3C rolls and 3S rolls; 1910, 2 rolls
North Carolina Chatham County Cross Index to
Wills Book 1, 1770-1924, 1 roll
North Carolina Orange County Court Minutes 1805-
1814, 1 roll
Index to Compiled Service Records of Volunteer
Soldiers War of 1812, 4 rolls
Recorded Incidents and Sketches of Character
chiefly in the “Old North State”, 1 roll
North Carolina Randolph County Court of Pleas and
Quarter Sessions 1779-1811, 1 roll
North Dakota Census- 1860, 1 roll; 1870, 2 rolls;
1880, 2C rolls and 2S rolls; 1900, 2C rolls and 4S
rolls
Ohio Census- 1820, 10 rolls; 1830, 6 rolls; 1840, 42
rolls

**Drawer 9 – Ohio**

Ohio Census- 1840, 11 rolls; 1850, 41 rolls; 1860,
27 rolls; 1870, 23 rolls

**Drawer 10 – Ohio**

Ohio Census- 1870, 54 rolls; 1880, 5C rolls and 5S
rolls; 1900, 3C rolls and 17S rolls; 1910, 8C rolls
and 18S rolls

**Drawer 11 – Ohio**

Ohio Census- 1920, 34S rolls
Our Forefathers a department featuring Miami
Valley families, Vol. 1011, 1 roll
Index to the Microfilm edition of genealogical data
relating to Women in the Western Reserve before
1840-1850, 1 roll
Greenville, Ohio Advocate 50th Anniversary 1933
and Versailles Policy Ses. Ed. 1964, 1 roll
Ohio Franklin County Marriage Records 1803-
1865, H-R, 1 roll
Vine St. Hill Cemetery, Cincinnati, Ohio 1851-1986,
“O”, 1 roll
Ohio Jefferson County Marriage Records Vol. 1,
A-K 1789-1839, 1 roll
Ohio Jefferson County Tax Records 1800-1830, 1
roll
Ohio Miami County, Troy Vol. A 1807-1823,
Marriage Records and Wills, 1 roll
Ohio Miami County Vol. 1 and 2 Birth Records,
1853-1894, 1 roll
Ohio Pike County Marriage Records 1815-1857, 1
roll
Ohio Scioto County Marriages 1804-1840, 1 roll
Ohio Summit County Marriage Records A-G 1840-
1865, 1 roll

**Drawer 12 – Oklahoma**

Oklahoma Census- 1890, 1 roll; 1900, 10C rolls
and 17 S rolls; 1910, 3C rolls and 52S rolls; 1920,
1C roll and 5S rolls
Indian Territory Census- 1900, 3S rolls
Oklahoma Newspapers Pushmataha County, Antlers
City America, Jan. 1929-Dec. 1930, 1 roll

**Cabinet 4**

**Drawer 1-3 Oregon, already indexed**

**Drawer 4 – Pennsylvania**

Pennsylvania Census- 1800 and 1810, on 1 roll;
1820, 19 rolls; 1830, 3 rolls; 1840, 54 rolls
**Drawer 5 – Pennsylvania**

Pennsylvania Census- 1850, 21 rolls; 1860, 8 rolls; 1870, 55 rolls; 1880, 3C rolls and 1S roll

**Drawer 6 – Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina**

Pennsylvania Census- 1900, 1C roll and 2S rolls; 1910, 8C rolls and 3S rolls; 1920, 2S rolls
Passenger Lists of Vessels Arriving in Philadelphia, 3 Jan. 1853-30 Dec. 1853, 1 roll
Revolutionary War Rolls 1775-1783, by Regiment, 1 roll
History of Bucks County, Pennsylvania, 1905, 2 rolls
Rhode Island Census- 1840, 3 rolls; 1850, 4 rolls; 1860, 2 rolls; 1870, 3 rolls; 1880, 1S roll
Revolutionary War Rolls 1775-1783 by Regiment, 1 roll
South Carolina Census- 1810, 1 roll; 1830, 2 rolls; 1840, 10 rolls; 1850, 7 rolls; 1860, 2 rolls; 1870, 28 rolls; 1880, 4C rolls and 3S rolls; 1910, 20S rolls
History of Marlboro County, South Carolina, 1 roll

**Drawer 7 – South Dakota, Tennessee**

South Dakota Census- 1900, 5S rolls
South Dakota Union Veterans 1890
Tennessee Census- 1810, 1 roll; 1820, 2 rolls; 1830, 4 rolls; 1840, 18 rolls; 1850, 14 rolls; 1860, 7 rolls; 1870, 28 rolls; 1880 4C rolls and 3S rolls; 1910, 23 rolls
Tennessee Union Veterans 1890
History of Hickman County/Hardin County, 1 roll

**Drawer 8 - Tennessee**

Tennessee Census- 1900, 3C rolls and 96S rolls; 1910, 5C rolls and 4S rolls; 1920, 1 roll
Tennessee Smith County Court Minutes 1824-1836, 1 roll
Tennessee McMinn County Tombstone Inscriptions
List of North Carolina Land Grants in Tennessee 1778-1799 A&B, 1 roll
Tennessee County Records Bible and Family Tombstone Records and Misc. Records 1690-1930, 27 cemeteries, 1 roll
Rutherford County Clerk Minutes, 9 rolls
Rutherford County Deed Index, Direct and Reverse,

**Drawer 9 – Texas**

Texas Census- 1870, 10 rolls; 1880, 5C rolls and 3S rolls; 1890 Veterans and Widows, 1 roll; 1900, 3C rolls and 53S rolls; 1910, 8C rolls and 71S rolls

**Drawer 10 – Texas, Utah, Vermont, Virginia**

Texas Census- 1910, 3 rolls; 1920, 2 rolls
Early Texas Marriages 1800, vary by County, 1 roll
Compiled Service Records of Volunteer Union Soldiers, 3 rolls
Index to Passenger Lists of Vessels Arriving in Galveston, Texas 1896-1906, 1 roll
Utah Census- 1860, 1 roll; 1870, 4 rolls; 1880, 1S roll; 1900, 1S roll; 1910, 3 rolls
Vermont Census- 1820, 3 rolls; 1830, 2 rolls; 1840, 10 rolls; 1850, 1 roll; 1870, 2 rolls; 1880, 1 roll
Alphabetical Index to Canadian border entries through small ports in Vermont 1795-1924, 6 rolls
Vital Records of Vermont, Birth, Death and Marriage 1760-1870, 7 rolls
Virginia Census- 1810, 5 rolls; 1820, 5 rolls; 1830, 2 rolls; 1840, 15 rolls; 1850, 1 roll; 1860, 6 rolls

**Drawer 11 – Virginia, Washington**

Virginia Census- 1870, 33 rolls; 1890 Union Vets and Widows, 2 rolls; 1900, 4S rolls; 1920, 1S roll
Washington Census- 1860, 2 rolls; 1870, 1 roll; 1880, 3 rolls; 1890 Union Vets and Widows, 1 roll; 1900, 8 rolls; 1910, 5 rolls; 1920 2 rolls
Washington Death Index, 11 rolls
Washington Marriage Returns, 5 rolls
Frontier Justice and Guide to Court Records of Washington Territory, 1853-1889, 1 roll
Washington Land, Oregon and Washington Donation
Files, 10 rolls
Seattle, Washington Inbound Passenger Manifests, Crews Lists on or after 1 Dec. 1954 and Forms I489 and Customs forms 7507 and 7509, 1 roll
Marriage Returns Pierce County 1918, 1919, 2 rolls
Eastern Washington Genealogical Society Register of Veterans Graves, 1 roll
Eastern Washington Genealogical Society Inland Empire Newspaper, 1935-1966 and 20 Years Ago Lewiston, Pullman Walla Walla, 1 roll
Eastern Washington Genealogical Society Spokane Area Clippings from three Spokane, Newspapers, 1910-1959, 9 Vols, 1 roll
Inland Empire Genealogical Miscellany, Patcher Info. File, Families, Cemeteries, etc., 1 roll
Washington Cemetery Register of Veteran Graves, Spokane, 1 roll
Eastern Washington Genealogical Society Early Spokane Death Records and Vaccination Records, 1 roll

**Drawer 12 – West Virginia, Wisconsin, Wyoming**

West Virginia Census- 1870, 13 rolls; 1880, 1 roll; 1900, 11C rolls and 4S rolls; 1910, 1C roll and 2S rolls; 1920, 1S roll
West Virginia Kanawha County Marriages 1792-1896, 1 roll
West Virginia Hardy County, County Records, Inventories, Wills, Birth, Death, Marriage, very by records, 1786-1899, 1 roll
West Virginia County Courthouse Order and Minute Books 1855-1862, 1 roll
West Virginia Mortality Schedule 1850, 1 roll
West Virginia Mortality Schedule 1870, 1 roll
West Virginia Ohio Probate Records and Wills 1779-1900 and Vital Records Marriages 1791-1903, 1 roll, one duplicate
Wisconsin Census- 1840, 1 roll; 1850, 8 rolls; 1860, 6 rolls; 1870, 27 rolls; 1880, 2S rolls; 1900, 2S rolls, 1875 State, 1 roll
Wyoming Census- 1870, 1 roll; 1880, 1 roll
Written in Stone

Current Cemetery News

Carol Ralston Surrency

Civil War Couple Honored

In the September, 2011 issue of the Bulletin, guest author, Judy Juntunen, told the story of Thomas Thorp, one of two known Civil War Generals buried in the State of Oregon. A later issue, December 2012, featured an article written by Randol Fletcher about General Thorpe’s wife, Mandana.

Early in the Civil War, Thomas Thorp was wounded while serving with the 85th New York Infantry and was sent home to recover. During his convalescence, he acted as a recruiter at rallies held to encourage men to enlist in the Union Army. It was here that he met Mandana Major, an accomplished young lady with a college education and a lovely voice which she used to sing patriotic songs urging men to volunteer.

Commissioned lieutenant colonel upon his recovery, Thorp married Mandana on September 6, 1862 just before Thomas was to depart for the war again. Unwilling to stay at home, the new bride made plans to join her husband in the field where she became a volunteer nurse, tending to the sick and wounded for the rest of the war. Her husband was wounded again and captured, briefly, by the Confederates. In 1863, he was transferred to the cavalry, promoted to colonel and, after Lee’s surrender, to Brevet Brigadier General. In the Grand Review, a parade celebrating the Union victory in Washington D.C., Mandana rode at her husband’s side under her own banner.

After the war, the couple began moving westward and, in the 1890s arrived in Oregon, finally settling in Corvallis. Thomas was active in the Grand Army of the Republic and Mandana in the Women’s Christian Temperance Union and the Women’ Relief Corps. General Thorp died in 1915 and was buried in Crystal Lake Cemetery in Corvallis. Mandana, who had moved to Portland to be near her daughter, died in 1916. The daughter had her father’s remains moved to Portland and placed beside his
Almost one hundred years later, the locations of both graves was unknown. A member of the Sons of Union Veterans of the Civil War, the organization succeeding the Grand Army of the Republic, wondered if there were any Civil War generals buried in Oregon. Research led him to Corvallis where it was assumed that Gen. Thorp was buried in an unmarked grave. The Sons of Union Veterans ordered a military marker for the general’s grave and set it at Crystal Lake Cemetery.

About a year ago, researcher and GFO member, Stanley Clark, began looking for Mandana’s grave and discovered that she is buried at River View with her husband next to her, both in unmarked graves. The Sons of Union Veterans began fund raising to obtain a marker for Mandana. Thomas’s headstone was moved from Corvallis to Portland and on April 6, 2013, a ceremony was held at River View to celebrate the setting of the two headstones side by side.

Association for Gravestone Studies Conference.

The Association for Gravestone Studies (AGS), founded in 1977 in New England for the purpose of furthering the study and preservation of gravestones, is holding their annual conference in Oregon at Willamette University from June 18-23. The schedule includes tours to cemeteries in the Portland areas and the Willamette Valley, a workshop on cemetery conservation and lectures both in the day and evening. Some of the topics covered are: Vandalism Defense and Response, Community Volunteers in Historic Cemeteries, Family History and Cemetery Research Strategies by GFO’s own Susan LeBlanc, Gravestones in the Digital Age and more. There is a charge to attend the conference, but evening sessions from 7:00-9:00 are free. Some of the evening sessions are: The Winged Death Head in England (tombstone iconography), Calvinism, Communal anxiety, and death texts in Puritan New England, Shipwreck Cemeteries in New South Wales, the Secularization of Gilded Age Gravestones and symbolism such as the vacant chair, riderless horse, empty boots.

For more information about the conference, go to: www.gravestonestudies.org.

Washington County Road Threatens Possible Burial Site

A gravel road in Washington County has been identified by the city of Hillsboro as a key industrial street into the newly designated North Industrial area. This paving and widening to four lanes of a rural dead end road encroaches on an historic home built by the Shute family to the west and the reported location of the original Methodist Meeting House and burial ground to the East. Some of those reputed to be buried there are Joe Meek’s children which would make it a Native American burial site, protected by law. A committee of interested citizens has been actively involved in public forums, giving testimony and advocating that the site be protected. The meeting house has historic significance beyond being the first Hillsboro church to have been built as it was used for court sessions in the 1800s.

Permission has finally been given to use ground penetrating radar to see if any remains can be discovered and so, with luck, perhaps some part of this mystery can be resolved to the satisfaction of all parties.
Relics

Powder River Expedition
Harvey Steele

We have all seen it time and again – the long column of blue-clad cavalrymen moving against a stark and barren landscape (probably Monument Valley), through days of campaigning, trailed all the while by two or three light wagons, which, presumably, carried their supplies. This mental image has conditioned several generations of movie goers.

Although the movie image is usually framed by the American Southwest, it could be anywhere on the Great Plains in the 19th century: Nebraska, Kansas, Colorado, Montana, the Dakotas, or Wyoming. That image could well have been based on the 12th Missouri Cavalry Regiment, and the 1865 Powder River Campaign.

The 12th was organized in St. Louis, Missouri, between November 3, 1863 and March 23, 1864. One of the original companies was assembled by Lt. John Anderson, oldest son of William Anderson and Anna (Fox) Anderson of Savannah, Missouri. My maternal Great Grandfather, Thomas Martin Anderson, was also in that company. The unit was originally attached to the District of St. Louis, Department of Missouri, until July 1864. Then it was moved to the First Brigade, First Cavalry Division, Union Army. From then until May 1865, the regiment was part of the First Brigade, 5th Division Cavalry Military Division of Mississippi. From June 1865 to April 1866, the unit was part of the Eastern Division of the Department of Missouri, assigned to the Powder River (Wyoming) and District of the Plains, to April 1866.

Nashville

After months of comparatively light duty, the 12th was sent to Nashville to participate in one of the turning point battles of the Civil War. In a last desperate attempt to force Sherman’s Union army out of their Georgia march, Confederate General John Bell Hood led the Confederate forces toward Nashville in November 1864. Hood counted on the size of his forces to defeat the well-entrenched Union forces. After poor weather, and extreme caution by the Union commander, General George Thomas launched a cavalry attack at Hood’s exposed flanks. Led by General James Wilson, the new Union cavalry commander, the 12th Missouri and several other cavalry units hit the Confederate right with devastating force, using the technology of new Spencer repeating rifles. After two days, Hood’s army, the second largest force of the Confederacy, was in full retreat. Even as he retreated, Hood was fighting on three fronts, losing 4462 men in battle and retreat, about one-quarter of all Confederate troops in the entire country.

As Wilson’s new cavalry moved south, harassing Hood and twice repulsing the legendary Nathan Bedford Forrest, the 12th Missouri regiment continued scouting in northern Mississippi and Alabama until May 1865. The unit was then ordered to St. Louis for duty May 12-17, 1865, and from there to Fort Leavenworth, Kansas and Omaha, Nebraska. They were to fight Indians in Nebraska and Wyoming, from July 1865 and then started on the so-called Powder River Campaign. They had Indian battles near the Powder River in September and October 1865 and then continued in frontier duty until April 1866 and mustered out on April 9, 1866. In all of their campaigns, including the battle of Nashville, the regiment lost only one officer and 35 enlisted men killed and mortally wounded in action and only one officer and
226 enlisted men by disease.\(^4\)

**The Powder River Campaign**

The triumph at Nashville and the pursuit of Hood the high point of the 12th Missouri career. Their commanders at Nashville, General James Wilson and Colonel Hatch were not used on the Great Plains. The campaign that followed in Wyoming was one of the low points in American military history.

White contact with the Indians of the high plains had begun over 300 years earlier, when Spanish Conquistador Francisco Coronado led an expedition up from old Mexico. Spanish and French contact with the Indians had little lasting effect, but when the American Fur Company and other traders entered the plains in the 1820-1840 period the situation changed. By 1846 the U.S. had an Indian Agent in the Rocky Mountains but his early success changed to conflict as the emigrant trains increased and lengthened. Several major battles with the Sioux and other tribes followed and, at the end of the Civil War, a massacre of Indians by General J.M. Chivington led to Indian coalitions. After one major attack by Sioux, Cheyennes and Arapahoes, in which some 3000 warriors participated, Major General Grenville Dodge, Western Army commander, assembled a large expeditionary force which included the 12th Missouri Cavalry Regiment.\(^5\)

Dodge wanted a force of 4740, but only 2500 (which included John Anderson and Thomas Martin Anderson) were forwarded. Despite huge delays in supplies for the force, a three-pronged attack was planned, with Colonel Nelson Cole, Second Missouri Light Artillery, leading the right column (including the 12th) up the Loup Fork, around the east base of the Black Hills, eventually to rendezvous on Rosebud River. Cole commanded eight companies of his own regiment (equipped as cavalry) and eight companies of the 12th, numbering together about 1400 men, and a train of 140 six-mule wagons. The other columns were headed by Colonel Samuel Walker, 16th Kansas, with a force of 600, and General Patrick E. Connor, commander of the expedition, leading the left column, which included the 6th Michigan Cavalry (200 men) and the 11th Ohio Cavalry (75 men, including 95 Pawnee Scouts). Connor’s group also had a wagon supply train, with 195 civilian teamsters and wagon masters.\(^6\)

Cole’s force left the Pawnee Mission (about 100 miles west of Omaha) on July 3. He soon found that much of the area traversed was a barren and sandy desert, without fresh water, wood or grass. Buffalo chips were frequently burned for fuel and in many creek and river beds, water had to be dug for or was found in
stagnant pools. His animals, including horses and mules, wilting in the hot sun, could find neither forage nor water. General Connor had told Cole that he would find a supply depot on the Tongue River (near Panther Mountain). With Cole’s rations nearly exhausted, the prospect of a depot kept the force going. 400-500 Indians were in the vicinity, intent on capturing as many of the U.S. Army horses and mules as possible. Cole recaptured most of his lost stock, with four men killed and two mortally wounded. The Indians lost 25 men, with many more wounded. The Indian groups retreated into the Badlands. Signal fires alerted Cole to large assemblages of Indians in the Yellowstone River area. On August 3, 1865 Cole describes the event:

During the night a terrible storm set in, a kind of storm that is liable to sweep over this country in any season, during which the temperature of the atmosphere suddenly changed from intense heat of the day’s march, coupled with effects of the storm, proving fatal to a large number of horses… During the march down the river and back to grass 225 horses and mules died from excessive heat, exhaustion, starvation, and extreme cold and in consequence a number of wagons had to be destroyed, with a considerable amount of now no longer needed quartermaster stores. On the day following, I moved camp about a mile and a half for grass into the edge of a strip of timber which skirted the river. During the afternoon a detachment of the 12th Missouri Cavalry, who were sent to the camp of the previous day to more completely destroy the abandoned property, were attacked by a force of about 75 Indians, who were repulsed with the loss of one killed. Upon being pursued they retreated down the river.7

The abandoned supplies attracted more Indians and soon a large group was encircling the area of the Cole expedition. The company teams of the 12th Missouri were formed in lines perpendicular to the left of the regiment and extended from the section of artillery to the woods. Indians made efforts to lure away small parties of men from camp and then ambush them, but the 12th Missouri Cavalry, using their Spencer carbines, skillfully, repulsed them, although sometimes outnumbered 20 to 1. The conflict continued for three hours with many Indian losses, until one detachment of the 12th, acting without orders, crossed the river in pursuit. They were ambushed because the superior condition of the Indian horses enabled them to overtake the broken-down horses on which the troops of the 12th were mounted.8

The wayward detachment was driven into the river, with the loss of two men killed and two wounded. A massacre was only averted when Captain Boardman of the Second Missouri Artillery moved a portion of his company to their support and by “well directed volleys drove the Indians back with heavy loss.” Cole estimated the number of Indians in this charge to be not less than 1000.9

Finding no depot, and completely surprised by the numbers of Indians encountered (Connor had also told him the Indians would never have more than 200 in any attacking force), Cole started back toward Fort Laramie. On September 8, Colonel Walker, with the 16th Kansas, reported that he was being attacked by a force of 3000-4000 Indians. Cole moved his unit up to help Walker. Despite the rapidity with which the Indians used their bows and arrows, they were no match for the fast-firing Spencer carbines. Hundreds of Indians were killed but, as the expedition pressed their advantage, another storm came up. Cole noted:

After getting into camp a storm blew up, which grew worse as night came on and finally became terrific in its fury. From rain it turned into hail, then rained again, then in succession snowed and sleeted and also was freezing all night long. My picket officers were forced to march their men in circles at the reserve posts to prevent freezing, as fires were not admissible. Nothing could be done to protect the stock from pelting of this terrible storm, and numbers of them died during the night. When daylight dawned it had not abated in the least and owing to the unsheltered position of my camp was especially severe on the men as well as the stock, so much so that I determined to move to some point within a few miles where I could secure shelter in heavy timber to save the remnant of my rapidly fading animals. I moved two miles and a half, marking my trail with dead and dying horses and mules.10

The storm lasted 36 hours and claimed 414 of the expedition animals. Only a quarter of the necessary rations were available. Cole moved the expedition back to Fort Connor and camped. Connor’s promised supplies had not arrived and there were no extra supplies for Cole’s now shoeless and ragged warriors. Cole, undermanned and poorly supplied, had marched his expedition about 1200 miles, subsisting 82 days on 60 days rations. Yet Cole had only lost 12 men, and estimated the loss of the
Indians to be up to 500 killed and wounded. In October, the Powder River Expedition was officially abandoned.

The campaign was a logistic failure. The ration for cavalry horses in a garrison situation was 12 pounds of grain (generally corn) and 10 pounds of hay. In the field, grazing at breaks in the marches, night time grazing and casual opportunities along the trail were supposed to substitute fully for the hay. This still left a requirement of 12 pounds of corn per horse per day to keep mounts in combat condition on a large march.

All of this was predicated upon good roads and good forage, but there were no good roads and little good forage on the way to the Powder River and the expedition reached Wyoming in a weakened condition. The weather and the Indians nearly finished the job.11

General Patrick E. Connor had figured in 1865 that with 20,000 men he could end the Sioux/Cheyenne problem. He actually received less than 15% of that number. After several months he was recalled from the field when it was determined that the contract cost of transportation on the supplies for his operations was moving past the million-dollar-a-month level. Connor, who had demonstrated poor command of the entire operation, was sacked but he continued to serve in the U.S. Army, becoming a general during the Spanish-American War, 35 years later!12

My Great Grandfather, Thomas Martin Anderson, and his older brother, John Anderson, survived and returned to Andrew County Missouri, where John formed a new railroad town, Bolckow, 20 miles north of Savannah. Thomas took his family to the new state of Oregon and settled in the Portland area. For a time, my family lived with my grandfather at 92nd and Holgate and sometimes heard tales of our great grandfather’s experiences in that summer of 1865.

The Powder River Expedition was a major setback for U.S. Army Indian policy. More than any other event, it led to the determination by General Sherman and other U.S. Army commanders to seek a policy of ruthless destruction of the Indian tribes in the intermountain regions, foreshadowing the Custer massacre of 1876.13

(Endnotes)

7. LeRoy Hafen and Ann W. Hafen, Powder River Campaign and Sawyer Expedition of 1865 (New York: Macmillan) 529
8. Ibid. 531
9. Ibid. 532
10. Ibid. 534
11. Ibid. 538
13. Ellis 1970: 63
Extracts

Multnomah County, Oregon
Marriage Register Index  1911-1912

Extracted and Proofed by Marie Diers and Eileen Chamberlin

The index is sorted by the bride’s surname.  A copy of records from this and other Multnomah County Marriage Registers can be obtained in person or by mail. See details on the Genealogical Forum of Oregon website at GFO.org.

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Genealogical Forum of Oregon

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<td>Zanders</td>
<td>Martha</td>
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<td>Zebell</td>
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<td>Lyndon Samuel</td>
<td>Zehntbauer</td>
<td>Minerva Alice</td>
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<td>Frank</td>
<td>Zoller</td>
<td>Kate</td>
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<td>Zubrunich</td>
<td>Emila</td>
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**Book Reviews**


**Audience:** The book contains important information for family history researchers and genealogists on understanding family names and how they evolved. It is also recommended for anyone wanting to understand naming practices in the general public.

**Purpose:** The author created this short and well detailed book to assist fellow researchers in their pursuit of following their ancestral lineage and in researching other people’s families. He clearly defines the hazards of naming practices so others will be aware of the pitfalls in following name changes.

**Author’s qualifications:** Mr. Bockstruck alias Niederbockstruck is a FNGS – Fellow of the National Genealogical Society. He is the former genealogy librarian at the Dallas, Texas Public Library. He has an impressive biography which can be found at his website: http://www.hereditary.us/bockstruck.htm

**Content:** It begins by explaining that Onomatology is the study of names. He discusses the evolution of names, both of people and places. For forenames he provides clues to assist in determining how names may have changed. These include ethnic groups, religious groups, grace names, multiple forenames, nicknames, ambisexual forenames, hagiographic forenames, etc. For surnames he discusses the transitional use of naming patterns from various backgrounds. The toponyms are geographical names. One major challenge in name changes is the understanding of various dialects. While changes often occurred unintentionally, they often were perpetuated for generations. He focused on ethnic clues, Spanish, African American, Jewish and American Indian naming patterns. The final selection of bibliographic materials will provide further information.

**Writing Style:** The book flows well in a very efficient style. He incorporates stories of actual situations where research was challenging due to changes in names.

**Organization:** Within the book there are five sections: Introduction, Forenames, Surnames, Toponyms and Selected Bibliography of Legal Changes of Names.

**Accuracy:** There are no footnotes or endnotes, but he does provide reference material on several books in the text. The material is based on his knowledge gained in years of research. The use of examples would indicate there is a high level of accuracy.

**Conclusion:** Mr. Bockstruck has written a very comprehensive book. It provides important information in helping researchers to realize that The NAME IS The GAME in trying to find our ancestors.

-SL

The following reviews are for two versions of the publications of Genealogy at a glance, by Genealogical Publishing Co., Inc., Baltimore, Maryland, 2011. These add to our collection of handy reference guides for genealogy researchers at the GFO. Orders may be sent to 3600 Clipper Mill Rd., Suite 260, Baltimore, MD 21211-1953.

Website: www.genealogical.com or phone 1-800-296-6687.

Price of each Genealogy at a glance publication is $8.95 plus shipping & handling.


**Audience:** This useful guide is for anyone working to find ancestors in Poland.

**Purpose:** It is a tool for understanding resources and online databases in researching in this area of the world.

**Author’s qualifications:** She is the author of the book “Polish Roots” published by the same company in 2000; and several other of the Genealogy at a glance series.

**Content:** The content is divided into sections. Under Contents are listed Quick Facts and Important Dates; Polish Names; Polish History and Emigration; Finding the Hometown; Maps; Online Databases from Poland; Other Resources; Areas in Polish Lands, which is a full page list of these areas.

**Writing Style:** Her style of writing includes detailed explanation of each topic. Her four tips are important reminders to unique features of researching in Poland.

**Organization:** The material is written in brief snippets explaining the history and genealogy resources for this country. At the end of the first three sections are lists for further reference. Included are a dozen websites.
for more detailed information and online databases.

**Accuracy:** Most of the material shared was probably gleaned from years of research in Poland. Reading the above mentioned book would provide more detailed information.

**Conclusion:** This genealogy at a glance is a very useful overview of how to research ancestors from this part of the world and the need to gather information in the U.S. before working in Poland. Each of the references and websites will enhance the information provided in this tool.

-SL


**Audience:** The audience for this guide is anyone who has a female ancestor they are researching for whom they have no maiden name.

**Purpose:** In creating this guide great consideration appears to be given to understanding the fine details of records created for women. These are pointed out for consideration when trying to discover more about this ancestor.

**Author’s qualifications:** She is a well-known certified genealogist, who has published several books including “A Genealogist’s Guide to Discovering Your Female Ancestors” in 1997.

**Content:** The contents of the guide include Quick Facts and Important Dates, related to the history of women; The Challenges of Researching Your Female Ancestors; Determining Maiden Names and Parents; Other Sources Created about and for Women: Divorce Patterns, Insanity Records, Naturalizations, Widow’s Pensions, Dower Releases; Sources Created by Women; Glossary; Online Sources.

**Writing Style:** The author writes clearly and concisely about the details she is conveying.

**Organization:** This guide is presented in a very organized manner. It flows from one topic to another to create a pattern of searching that will hopefully lead to positive results. She includes sixteen further reference materials, found at the end of the sections. There are also several tips to aid in understanding the finer details.

**Accuracy:** Any researcher who has done this type of research will appreciate the detailed and accurate information included. Much of the knowledge shared appears to be from the personal work of the author.

**Conclusion:** This very handy guide is extremely valuable as a quick reminder of research materials that will enable one to find their female ancestors. The online sources may lead one to discover more about the ancestor’s family life, which is commonly overlooked for women.

-SL

Comments and suggestions should be sent to the Column Editor: Susan LeBlanc, dsleblanc@aol.com
In Memoriam

ROSEMARY GLATFELTER

April 3, 1930—March 8, 2013.
Graveside services were Tuesday March 12 at 3:00 pm at Finley Sunset Hills Memoria Park in Portland. (Gathered from the daily Death Notices)
Per Ann Wendlandt: Rosemary was a major Forum figure a decade or two ago. We have her family genealogy. She was a life member.
Per Lyleth Winther: All of Rosemary Glatfelter’s family were gone when I interviewed her in 2006. She lived in a low cost senior housing in Southeast Portland. She had worked many years at Meier & Franks store in the accounting department, starting in the 1950’s when they still wore hats and gloves to work. Her favorite memory of working at M & F’s was the day that customers flocked to see and experience all the new TV’s set up in the parking lot across the street (where the historic Multnomah Hotel used to stand).

JULIANNE ‘JULIE’ KAWABATA

Age 69 Aug. 01, 1943--April 04, 2013
Julie Kawabata died at her home, on April 4, 2013, after a battle with breast cancer. A lifelong resident of the Pacific Northwest, Julie was born in Portland, only child of Raymond (deceased) and Diane Aungst. She grew up in Richland, Wash., returning to Portland after graduating from Willamette University. She later earned a Master’s Degree in Library Science from the University of Portland. Julie worked as a special librarian for 20 years for Tektronix and Tri-Met, then as a freelance indexer. She indexed over 850 books for many well-known authors and publishers, and volunteered with Vintage Tek. Julie was passionate about words, with a love of reading, editing, libraries and books themselves. Also an avid traveler, she most recently visited Brussels and France. She loved good coffee and sharing a story. She leaves behind her son, Jamie, Dallas, Texas; mother, Diane Aungst, Richland, Wash.; cousins, Susan Hayden and Sally Dewey; former husband, Fred Kawabata; dear friends, Lois White, Anne Marie Claire, Pat Taylor and John Beaston. We will miss her laugh and gentle, better nature and the spirit she brought to living each day. Celebration of Life on Saturday, April 27, 2013, 3-6 p.m. at Metzger Park Hall (near Tigard, OR). A private memorial service was held April 10, 2013.
GFO Reflections: Julie was a current GFO member, and had volunteered for a short time as a Research Assistant/Receptionist.

LEE ROCK THANNUM

Age 77 Oct. 22, 1935--April 09, 2013
Loving husband, father and grandfather passed away on April 9, 2013. He is survived by his wife, Doris; children, Sharon and Richard (Laura) and grandchildren, Cheryl, Luke, Robert, James, Michael, Max and Rebecca. Services will be held April 18 at 11 a.m. in the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter Day Saints. Viewing at 10 a.m., 4195 SW 99th, Beaverton. Arrangements by Threadgills Memorial Services, Beaverton.
GFO Reflections: Cathy Lauer, Volunteer Coordinator: Lee has been a long-time volunteer, working as a Research Assistant / Receptionist on Tuesday mornings. His wife reported that Lee had left home to run to catch the bus to go do his shift at the Forum library last Tuesday. He dropped dead running to the bus. She said he just loved working at the GFO library and helping folks do their family history.
Honor your Union Veteran during the Sesquicentennial of the Civil War by becoming a member of:

Daughters of Union Veterans of the Civil War, 1861-1865

If you are a female descendant of a Union Veteran, please contact:

Perri Pitman Parker
Oregon Department President
pitt1842@aol.com

Are you a woman with an ancestor born in New England before 1789?

A new Colony is forming in Oregon for:

The National Society of New England Women

This could be your opportunity to become an organizing member.

If you would like more information, please contact:

Janice B. Heckethorne
Organizing Colony President
JBHeckethorne@gmail.com

First and Oldest Chapter in Oregon Organized in 1896 Celebrating 117 Years

Multnomah Chapter
Weekday lunch meeting and program at a convenient downtown Portland location with ample free parking

Beverly Przybylski, Chapter Registrar
beverlyp9@comcast.net ~ 360-687-1954

www.rootsweb.ancestry.com/~ormcdar/Multnomah.htm
Like us on Facebook
New!

Oregon Burial Site Guide

Compiled by Dean H. Byrd
Co-compiled by Stanley R. Clarke
and Janice M. Healy

For more information visit our web site:
www.aracnet.com/~healyzh/obsg.html

or write to:

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