CONFEDERATE REFUGEES FROM INDIAN TERRITORY

By LeRoy H. Fischer and William L. McMurry*

In 1863, advancing Federal armies forced some 14,000 Confederate Indians to flee from their homes and seek refuge in the southern parts of the Choctaw and Chickasaw nations and in northern Texas. Most of the refugees were of the Cherokee, Choctaw, and Creek tribes, but they also included members of the Chickasaw and Seminole tribes. In 1861, they had possessed an abundance of grain, hides, horses, oxen, salt, lead, and cattle. But as refugees, most of them became dependent on the Confederate government for subsistence.

At the beginning of the war, Confederate President Jefferson Davis had realized the economic and military importance of Indian Territory. He had commissioned Albert Pike, who earlier had acquired experience in Indian affairs while in the service of the Federal government, to negotiate treaties of alliance with the various tribes of Indian Territory. Pike enjoyed great success, and within three months he had concluded treaties with the Creeks, Choctaws, Chickasaws, Seminoles, Cherokees, Reserve Indians, and Prairie Comanches.¹

Most of the United States Indian agents in Indian Territory had been men of Southern birth or sympathies. At the outbreak of war, they resigned their posts under the United States to accept the same positions with the Confederate States. At the same time, Federal troops abandoned Fort Cobb, Fort Arbuckle, and Fort Washita, the only garrisoned posts in Indian Territory. The Confederate victory on August 10, 1861, at Wilson's Creek in southwest Missouri placed Indian Territory completely in Confederate hands. Confederate authorities raised regiments among the Indians for defense and gave assurances that the integrity of the soil of Indian Territory would be maintained against Federal incursion.²

[•] LeRoy H. Fischer is Oppenheim Regents Professor of History at Oklahoma State University; William L. McMurry, a resident of Bethany, Oklahoma, recently received the Master of Arts degree in philosophy and history from Oklahoma State University.

¹ United States Department of War, The War of the Rebellion: A Compilation of the Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies (70 volumes, 128 books, Washington: Government Printing Office, 1880-1901), Ser. IV, Vol. I, p. 785, Ser. I, Vol. III, pp. 445-446, 513-527, 542-568, 574, 642.

² Dean Trickett, "The Civil War in the Indian Territory," The Chronicles of Oklahoma, Vol. XVII, No. 4 (December, 1939), pp. 401-410; Official Records, Ser. I., Vol. III, p. 589; Edward Everett Dale and Gaston Litton, eds., Cherokee Cavaliers: Forty Years of Cherokee History as Told in the Correspondence of the Ridge-Watie-Boudinot Family (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1939), pp. 104, 106.

In spite of these assurances, in 1863 a Federal invasion overran the northern two-thirds of Indian Territory and forced Confederate Indians to flee southward. Federal troops occupied all of the Cherokee, Creek, and Seminole nations and parts of the Choctaw and Chickasaw nations. Scarcely a Confederate household remained in the occupied region. The Southern Indians were "only too glad to escape with their lives," wrote Stand Watie, principal chief of the Confederate Cherokees.³

As Union advances increased the number of refugees, their support became a persistent problem for Confederate authorities. Not only was this important for humanitarian reasons, but also to insure the continued loyalty of the Southern Indians to the Confederacy. "The people feel themselves rejected," warned Confederate Brigadier General William Steele.⁴ The Indians fancied their position more important than it really was, he thought, but it was "quite likely" that they had received insufficient attention. J. A. Scales warned of possible large-scale defections to the Union side. "The simple truth is," he commented, "we have been very badly neglected by the officers of the Confederate States."⁵

Confederate Major General Thomas Hindman, in command of the forces in Indian Territory, responded to the problem by distributing, on his own responsibility, supplies from his commissary to the indigent Indians. In December of 1863, Major General Samuel Bell Maxey took command of Confederate forces in Indian Territory, also assuming the position of Superintendent of Indian Affairs. Maxey found numerous destitute Indian refugees camped along the Red River. Although he believed that Hindman's system of relief distribution had been abused by certain Indians who were not really in need of rations, he thought it best to continue Hindman's policies and even expand upon them.

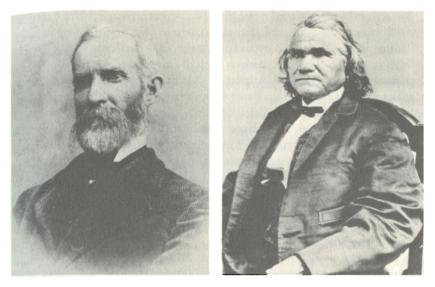
Without specific legal authority, Maxey erected a relief organization and appointed officers to manage it. A Superintendent of Issues, L. C. Eliason, was to visit the refugees of each nation or tribe and enroll the heads of families by name, noting with each name the number of women, children, and Negroes in the household. The rolls, compiled with the assistance of the agents and chiefs of each tribe, were to be amended monthly. They were to be deposited at the post commissary from which the tribe drew its rations. The Superintendent of Issues also was to supervise the procurement of relief supplies and their distribution among lesser officials. For each depot from

³ William J. Willey, "The Second Federal Invasion of Indian Territory," *The Chronicles of Oklahoma*, Vol. XLIV, No. 4 (Winter, 1966–67), pp. 420–430; *Official Records*, Ser. I. Vol. XXII, Pt. 2, pp. 1104–1105.

⁴ Ibid., p. 820.

⁵ Ibid., p. 821.

CONFEDERATE REFUGEES FROM INDIAN TERRITORY



Israel G. Vore, Confederate States Agent to the Creek Nation and Stand Watie, Principal Chief of the Confederate Cherokees—while Vore reported that the frictions and difficulties caused by the presence of thousands of Confederate refugee Indians were minor, Watie worked vigorously to better the lot of his followers who had been forced from their homes.

which supplies were issued, Maxey appointed an Issuing Agent to operate subordinate to the Superintendent of Issues. Issuing Agents were to attend to local details of transportation and distribution of provisions. They issued provision tickets, with numbers that corresponded to numbers on the lists of indigents, to all heads of families. The tickets listed all provisions issued to date to the holders. Each ration consisted of one and one-eighth pounds of flour, which might be replaced with one and one-quarter pounds of cornmeal, and one and one-half pounds of beef. With each 100 rations were issued two quarts of salt. Issuing Agents were expected to render quarterly reports to the Superintendent of Issues. Finally, Maxey appointed an Inspector of Camps, J. S. Stewart. He was to visit the various refugee camps at least monthly and ascertain whether or not the Issuing Agents were meeting the needs of the Indians.⁶

⁶ Ibid., Vol. XLI, Pt. 4, pp. 1086–1087; Allan C. Ashcroft, ed., "Confederate Indian Department Conditions in August, 1864," *The Chronicles of Oklahoma*, Vol. XLI, No. 3 (Autumn, 1963), p. 280; Special Order No. 25, January 31, 1864, Samuel Bell Maxey Papers, Thomas Gilcrease Institute of American History and Art, Tulsa, Oklahoma.

Maxey's initiatives placed relief distribution in the hands of the army for the duration of the war, even though his system became the object of some criticism. R. W. Lee, who served as Assistant Superintendent of Indian Affairs in Indian Territory, after a tour of inspection in southern Indian Territory, recommended in August of 1864 that a new office called Supervisor of Rolls be created in order to relieve the Superintendent of Issues of some of his many responsibilities. He also called for the appointment of a Transportation Master to manage supply trains. He recommended that issues to the refugees be cut to half rations, but be delivered faithfully. Later in the year S. S. Scott, Confederate Commissioner of Indian Affairs, admitted the "urgent necessity" of Maxey's system at the time of its adoption, but believed that the system should be modified in order to temper its extralegality. Maxey, he said, should have required bonds from all the officials he appointed, and army commissary officers should have retained control of their issues.⁷

A large portion of the beneficiaries of these relief efforts were Southern Cherokees. Most of these were the families of Cherokee men who were serving in the Confederate armed forces. In August of 1863, Watie estimated the number of Cherokee refugees as 6,000, and suggested that they be settled at a place which could be supplied with grain from Texas. He called on the Confederate government to provide food, shelter, and funds for the relief of the destitute. "The Confederate States have promised us full protection against our enemies," he told Scott, but added: "Shall I continue to encourage... [the Confederate Cherokees] or shall I unveil to them the dread truth that our country is to be hopelessly abandoned?"⁸

No doubt Watie's feelings drew intensity from the fact that his wife, Sarah, was among the refugees. She had fled to Rusk County, Texas, to the home of his sister, Nancy Starr, who was ill and died before the war ended. Mrs. Watie spent the duration of the war in Rusk and Woods counties, Texas. There she endured inconveniences and shortage much the same as those of the rest of her people, but her greatest worries were for the safety of her husband and son, serving with the Confederate forces.⁹

The Confederate Cherokee tribal government acted to supplement the army's efforts to feed the indigent. In late May of 1863, the tribal leaders, all of whom were serving with Watie's brigade, met in convention on Coody's

⁷ Ashcroft, ed., "Confederate Indian Department Conditions in August, 1864," *The Chronicles of Oklahoma*, Vol. XLI, pp. 280–281; *Official Records*, Ser. I, Vol. XLI, Pt. 4, pp. 1086–1087.

⁸ Ibid., Vol. XXII, Pt. 2, pp. 1104–1105.

⁹ Dale and Litton, eds., Cherokee Cavaliers, pp. 124-126, 135-136, 146-147, 162-163. 172-173, 187-189, 200-201.

Creek. On May 30, they passed an ordinance designed to feed the destitute. Under the ordinance, J. L. Martin was appointed a commissioner of relief for the Cherokees. General Steele cooperated with the Cherokees' effort by also making Martin an Issuing Agent under the army's relief system.¹⁰

Martin quickly began his duties. First he searched for an appropriate site for a relocation camp for the displaced Cherokees. In September, he reported that he had chosen a location about ten miles above the mouth of the Blue River, which drained into the Red River, the Indian Territory-Texas boundary. The place had plenty of water and a healthful appearance. Brigadier General Steele aided the resettlement effort by promising furloughs for all Indian soldiers who needed to go to camp to build houses for their families. Already, however, Martin was encountering difficulties, for the refugees were receiving only half rations. "I have to keep the people reconsiled [sic] by a great many promises," he confided to Watie.¹¹

Although Martin succeeded in relocating the Cherokee refugees, a controversy of vague origin led to his removal as relief commissioner and Issuing Agent in July of 1864. The Cherokee government then took further measures to aid the Cherokees. On July 20, the Southern Cherokee National Council passed a law providing for as many as five schools for refugee Cherokee children, to be located wherever twenty-five pupils were available. Next, the council passed a law providing for the election of an official to supervise the feeding of all refugee Cherokees. Watie, however, vetoed the act as being contrary to the earlier relief act of the tribal convention. Finally, on July 23, Watie signed an act appropriating \$40,000 to feed the indigent. The next relief commissioner was to submit to the Southern Cherokee National Treasurer quarterly reports on the expenditure of these funds.¹²

Funding for these Cherokee relief efforts came through the efforts of Elias C. Boudinot, the nephew of Watie, and the delegate of the Cherokee Nation to the Confederate Congress. By November of 1863, he had managed to secure a private loan of \$10,000 while he lobbied in the Congress for a formal appropriation for Cherokee relief. In January of 1864, Boudinot finally secured President Davis' signature on a bill appropriating \$100,000 in Confederate currency. The next month, Confederate Commissioner of Indian Affairs Scott left Richmond for Indian Territory with the money. He returned to Richmond, however, and did not arrive at Fort Towson, in the Choctaw Nation and near the camps of the Cherokee refugees, until July. He turned over \$45,000 to Martin, who still was relief commissioner,

¹⁰ Ibid., p. 127; Official Records, Ser. I. Vol. XLI, Pt. 2, p. 1047.

¹¹ Dale and Litton, eds., Cherokee Cavaliers, p. 139.

¹² Kenny Arthur Franks, "Stand Watie and the Agony of the Cherokee Nation," Doctor of Philosophy, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma, 1973, pp. 230–232.



Elias C. Boudinot, delegate of the Cherokee Nation to the Confederate States Congress, secured an appropriation of \$100,000 in Southern currency for the relief of the refugee Cherokees.

and gave the balance of the appropriation to the Treasurer of the Cherokee Nation.¹³

By August of 1864, the Cherokee refugees were well settled in their camps. Lee, Assistant Superintendent of Indian Affairs in Indian Territory, found them encamped along the Blue River for forty miles of its length, from its mouth to Tishomingo. Some also were at Goodland, twenty miles west of Fort Towson. Thus the great bulk of the Cherokee refugees, 2,906 of them, were located within the Choctaw Nation. At several supply depots in the region the Cherokees received their rations from Issuing Agents Joseph L. Martin, W. Crump, G. W. Gunter, and J. M. Adair. Most of the provisions came from northern Texas, especially from a depot at Warren. The major problem in supplying the Cherokee refugees was a shortage of wagons to transport goods. Except for a brief outbreak of smallpox, however, the Cherokees were fairly comfortable in exile, and they even initiated some industry. Cherokee national authorities put the refugees to work manufacturing spinning wheels and looms, which in turn fostered home industries of spinning and weaving. They also operated wheelright and blacksmith shops.14

Great numbers of Confederate Creeks, also forced to leave their homes, fled into the Chickasaw Nation. There Confederate authorities provided food and clothing, and organized the refugees into camps. The Creek refugees, numbering 4,671, camped on either side of the Washita River from its mouth on the Red River twenty-five miles upstream, and on the Red River for twelve miles upstream from the mouth of the Washita River. Some of the Creeks brought considerable property, even slaves, into exile with them. Even the more needy soon erected adequate shelters. Methodist and Baptist missionaries ministered among them. The army set up supply depots on either side of the Washita River, but there were problems in securing rations. Because of a shortage of wagons and very slow deliveries by beef contractors, the Creek refugees received only half of the rations intended for them. Another problem was the presence of freeloaders, whodrew rations when they really were not in need of them. Despite difficulties, Chief Samuel Checote was satisfied with the efforts of Issuing Agents O. L.

¹³ Dale and Litton, eds., Cherokee Cavaliers, pp. 143-144, 150, 153, 182; Journal of the Congress of the Confederate States of America, 1861-1865 (7 vols., Washington: Government Printing Office, 1904-1905, reprinted in New York by Kraus Reprint Company, 1968), Vol. III, p. 620; Official Records, Ser. I, Vol. XLI, Pt. 2, p. 1047.

¹⁴ Ashcroft, ed., "Confederate Indian Department Conditions in August, 1864," The Chronicles of Oklahoma, Vol. XLI, pp. 277-278; 282; a general summary of Confederate Cherokee refugees is in Angie Debo, "Southern Refugees of the Cherokee Nation," Southwestern Historical Quarterly, Vol. XXXV, No. 4 (April, 1932), pp. 255-266.

Graham and F. R. Young. "We believe that all is being done that can be done conveniently," he said.¹⁵ The Creeks also began industries in their camps. The Inspector of Camps supervised the establishment of shops for the manufacture of looms and spinning wheels, as well as a wagon shop and a blacksmith shop. In their homes, the Creek Indians met many of their clothing needs by utilizing their spinning wheels and looms.¹⁶

Seminole refugees evicted from their homes numbered 574. With them were 441 Creeks who were associated with them by ties of marriage or friendship. They settled near Oil Springs some fifty miles west of Fort Washita. Their needs for provisions were supposed to have been supplied by the contracting firm of Johnson and Grimes, who also provided rations for the Reserve Indians. But the Seminoles and the Creeks with them suffered from occasional failures of the contractors to deliver, which may have cause most of the men were in the army. The principal point of relief dis-Seminole Chief John Jumper, however, stated that "the Confederate States have not deserted us; we have been provided for; our women and children are fed; . . . the Government is engaged in a great war, she cannot do any more for us now than she is doing."¹⁷

The situation of the Choctaws differed from that of the Cherokees, Creeks, and Seminoles in that the Choctaws never were driven completely from their country. The northern portions of the Choctaw Nation, however, came under actual or threatened occupation by Federal forces in 1863. Residents of the area fled into more southern counties. Rather than establishing definite camps, as did the other tribes, they scattered among their fellow tribesmen, often in rough and inaccessible country. They especially occupied the settled area around Boggy Depot, the region of the road from Boggy Depot to Gaines Creek, the banks of Gaines Creek, Jacks Fork and Kiamichi rivers in Sugar Loaf and Wade counties near Fort Smith, and in a locale stretching from Island Bayou to the eastern boundary of the Choctaw Nation. This was mountainous country. Moreover, little agriculture was attempted because most of the men were in the army. The principal point of relief distribution was Fort Towson. There some 1,400 Choctaws regularly received supplies, and occasionally other refugees from along Jacks Fork and the Kiamichi rivers came in. By the end of 1864, Confederate officials had not yet completed a census of the Choctaw refugees, but Lee estimated their

¹⁵ Official Records, Ser. I, Vol. XLI, Pt. 4, p. 1089.

¹⁶ Angie Debo, *The Road to Disappearance* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1941), pp. 156–158; Ashcroft, ed., "Confederate Indian Department Conditions in August, 1864," *The Chronicles of Oklahoma*, Vol. XLI, pp. 275–276, 282.

¹⁷ Ibid., pp. 279–282; Official Records, Ser. I, Vol. XLI, Pt. 4, p. 1089.

CONFEDERATE REFUGEES FROM INDIAN TERRITORY



John Jumper, Chief of the Confederate Seminoles and Peter P. Pitchlynn, Chief of the Choctaws. While Jumper considered the Seminole refugees adequately fed, Pitchlynn reported that those Choctaws who had fled their homes were short of supplies.

number at 4,480. Issuing Agents for the Choctaws were Basil LeFlore, John P. Kingsbury, and Mitchell McCurtain.¹⁸

The situation of the Chickasaws was similar to that of the Choctaws. Residents of the northern counties, most of them in a destitute condition, took refuge in the southern counties. They received rations at a depot at Robinson's Academy, from Issuing Agent Reverend J. C. Robinson. Many of the Chickasaw refugees declined the aid proffered to them; although the relief rolls showed 785 Chickasaws eligible to receive rations, no more than 584 ever drew them. The refugees were usually satisfied with the relief efforts.19

The presence of thousands of refugees in the southern counties of the Choctaw and Chickasaw nations and in northern Texas sometimes led to frictions and difficulties. In May of 1864, Governor Dougherty Colbert of

¹⁸ Ashcroft, ed., "Confederate Indian Department Conditions in August, 1864," The Chronicles of Oklahoma, Vol. XLI, pp. 278-279, 282.

¹⁹ Ibid., pp. 278, 282.

the Chickasaw Nation complained to Confederate officials that displaced Creeks had committed depredations on the property of Chickasaws. Confederate authorities relayed the complaint to Chief Checote of the Creeks and to Major Israel G. Vore, agent to the Creeks. Vore investigated and reported that the complaints had stemmed from an inequitable division of a herd of horses that had included horses belonging to members of both tribes. Thus the problem was minor.²⁰

By the end of 1864, the refugees had posed severe problems in the Choctaw Nation. Chief Peter P. Pitchlynn reported that crops had been poor and that the entire population looked to a few slaveholders along the Red River for sustenance. Food supplies were inadequate, he said, especially since Maxey's soldiers consumed great amounts of stores and even wantonly destroyed some private property. Pitchlynn reported that the citizenry was becoming increasingly dissatisfied, and recommended that stores of corn at Shawneetown and other places along the Red River be reserved for the use of refugees and the families of absent soldiers. Maxey issued orders to conserve corn supplies "in every possible way," including the sending of horses to the rear. Finally, in early 1865 citizens in northern Texas complained of depredations by some soldiers of Watie's brigade. Watie had to act quickly to end such unruliness among his men, for the Indians depended largely on northern Texas for grain and other supplies.²¹

The Indians in turn also had complaints against Texas. Authorities of that state tried to levy state taxes on Indian refugees south of the Red River. Watie brought the matter to the attention of Lee, who presented the issue to Maxey. Maxey endorsed papers calling for an end to the taxation, and Lee forwarded them to the Confederate Treasury Agent for the Trans-Mississippi West, P. W. Gray. Gray then informed officials of the state of Texas that the Indians were to be considered exempt from taxation.²²

Although efforts to provide relief for the refugee Indians were energetic, they fell short of supplying many wants. There were physicians for the refugees, but medicines were in short supply. A shortage of cotton cards made it difficult for many of the Indians to keep themselves in clothing. In order to meet these and other shortages, Lee recommended that responsibility for refugee relief be taken from the hands of the army commissary and that contracts be let to private suppliers to provide rations for the

²⁰ Ibid., pp. 273-274.

²¹ Official Records, Ser. I. Vol. LIII, pp. 1035-1036; Dale and Litton, eds., Cherokee Cavaliers, p. 211.

²² Ashcroft, ed., "Confederate Indian Department Conditions in August, 1864," The Chronicles of Oklahoma, Vol. XLI, pp. 272, 284.

refugees. Lee recognized that honest contractors were difficult to find. He definitely thought, however, that a large wagon train independent of the army should be available for the use of the Issuing Agents, and that supplies should flow through Warren, Texas.23

Cherokee tribal authorities also made independent efforts to procure supplies. Elder Compere, who had been the chaplain of a Cherokee regiment, operated as a purchasing agent east of the Mississippi River and attempted to send supplies to his people in the summer and fall of 1864. He met with little success. His first problem was to secure wagons and drivers to make the trip west. Moreover, the presence of Union troops along the Mississippi River made crossing hazardous.²⁴

A possible solution to these supply difficulties seemed to be to open trade with Mexico. Confederate authorities issued an exemption to laws prohibiting the export of cotton in order to facilitate trade between Indian Territory and Mexico. On July 6, 1864, Seminole Chief John Jumper applied for a permit under the exemption to export 200 bales of cotton to Mexico. His application apparently never was approved. But Chief Samuel Garland of the Choctaw Nation and Governor Dougherty Colbert of the Chickasaw Nation received permission to export 500 and 300 bales, respectively, shortly afterward. Fears by Lee that the export scheme might become "instead of a benefit and blessing . . . an instrument of wrong and oppression" soon came true. Governor Colbert appointed William Levy agent to conduct the cotton sales. Levy saw the project as a means of turning a neat profit at the expense of the Indians-"a good paying business for those engaged in it," he said, "as it cannot be expected that we should spend our time and money entirely for charity sake."25 But when Levy tried to draw Brigadier General Watie into his plan, he met a cold response, for Watie had no wish to profit at the expense of his people. By January of 1865, however, Creek and Cherokee leaders had made arrangements with more respectable mercantile agents to allow them certain profits in order to obtain goods. The Creek tribal council appointed an agent to purchase 1,000 bales of their cotton and carry them to Mexico. The agent then was to spend half of the profits of the venture on goods for the Creeks. An entrepreneur named Charles Hamilton sought a similar arrangement from Watie and the Cherokees. Instead, William A. Musgrove got the appointment to transport 500 bales. Musgrove purchased the cotton quickly, and by the beginning of May, 1865, he had started a few wagons south. If any of the cotton shipped in these various

²³ Ibid., p. 274.

²⁴ Dale and Litton, eds., Cherokee Cavaliers, pp. 183, 196-197.

²⁵ Ibid., pp. 176-177.

enterprises ever reached Mexico, it did so too late to benefit the Southern Indians prior to the collapse of the Confederacy.²⁶

At the end of the war, United States authorities had to assume the burden of feeding the refugees, increased in number because the men who had served in the Confederate Indian forces rejoined their families. Some 6,500Confederate Cherokees, 6,500 Confederate Creeks, and 950 Confederate Seminoles appealed for aid. Federal officers realized that it was easier to feed the Indians than to control the depredations that would result from want among them. Therefore, the Federal Commissioner of Indian Affairs appointed a special agent to feed destitute Confederate Indians. By 1866, most of the refugees were able to return to their former homes.²⁷

Confederate authorities, especially Maxey, tried sincerely to meet the needs of the Confederate Indian refugees. In fact, their efforts were at first successful enough that they changed the attitude among the Indians from one of chagrin at being driven from their homes to one of satisfaction that the Confederate government was doing all that it could for them. Moreover, in the case of the Cherokees, Confederate army personnel were able to cooperate effectively with tribal authorities, while the Confederate government provided relief funds. All this was evidence that the Confederates did not forget their pledges to the Indians. However, the resources of the Confederacy were simply inadequate to meet the needs of the refugees. Problems of transportation were chronic and, as Federal troops occupied more of the Mississippi River valley, they became worse. Even so, the refugee experience was not disastrous for the Confederate Indians. They kept their tribal groups together in exile, and were provided with at least a minimum of sustenance. Their tragedy lay not so much in the temporary removal from their homes, but in the destruction of their homes during their absence from them, leaving them little to return to when the war ended.

²⁶ Ashcroft, ed., "Confederate Indian Department Conditions in August, 1864," *The Chronicles of Oklahoma*, Vol. XLI, pp. 272–273; Dale and Litton, eds., *Cherokee Cavaliers*, pp. 207–208, 216–217, 221–222.

²⁷ Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs for the Year 1865 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1866), pp. 254–256, 283; Official Records, Ser. I, Vol. XLVIII, Pt. ², p. 1096; Dale and Litton, eds., Cherokee Cavaliers, p. 239.