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the Chickasaws traveled with great quantities of baggage and the emigration agents had much difficulty in getting them across the Mississippi, partly on account of the fact that the Indians as they approached the River learned of the disaster to the Monmouth when so many Creeks were drowned, and partly from the fact that the Indians refused to sell their ponies, desiring to carry them to their new country. The Chickasaws crossed the river and entered the Arkansas swamps at points very difficult to travel and lost five or six hundred of their ponies on this account.

The removal of the Chickasaws encountered further difficulties than mere transportation as they reluctantly joined the emigrating parties and those who stayed longed in their homes in the East were influenced in not making the trip by the information that smallpox raged in the new country and that many Chickasaws were starving because provisions were very scarce, the contractors not having furnished the guaranteed corn and other food. They were sometimes a month without bread. As of September 1839, only 5947 Chickasaws had enrolled in the West. Many were yet living around Holly Springs, Mississippi, in 1840.

Cherokee Removal

The Legislature of Georgia, by an Act of December 19, 1829, appropriated a large area of the Cherokee Nation and incorporated it in the territory of the State, creating out of it, Carroll, DeKalb, Gwinnett, Hall and Habersham counties. This Act on the part of Georgia was similar to that of Alabama and Mississippi, intending to subject the Indians to the State laws. In the matter of Georgia, it nullified the ordinance and regulations of the Cherokee Government which were in a fairly regular condition, and it made illegal the testimony of any person under the tribal law. Georgia further sought to influence emigration West by making punishable by imprisonment in jail or the penitentiary, anvone who sought to influence another not to emigrate. The State of Georgia went further than the other States in providing that "no Indian or descendant of an Indian, residing in the Creek or Cherokee Nations of Indians shall be deemed a competent witness in any Court of this State to which a white person may be a party." The Governor of Georgia on June 3, 1830, issued a

proclamation declaring all the provisions of the Act to be in effect and warned the Indians that they would be enforced. About that time gold was discovered on the lands of the Indians and the Government gave notice that all Cherokee lands, including the gold mines, belonged to the State. The United States Government sent troops into the gold districts to protect the Indians but at the request of the State authorities the soldiers were withdrawn and yielded the lands to the possession of Georgia. Governor Gilmer of Georgia at the time of the Jackson Removal Bill, demanded of the United States Government that the promise of 1802 be fulfilled. On account of the Georgia Act of 1830, a few natives began going West but no mass emigration of the Indians took place for several years.

The Cherokees as a group, more strongly resisted the Georgia determination to take their lands than did the other Indian Nations and as a consequence, there were conflicts between the State and Indian leaders over a period of several years. The Presbyterian Church Missionary work was strongly entrenched in the Nation with missionaries in what is now Alabama and Georgia, and the sympathy of these teachers was wholly on the side of the Indians. The Georgia militia on March 12, 1831, seized missionaries at four different localities and accused them of violating the State law for remaining among the Indians without a permit and for not taking the oath of allegiance to the State. The cases against the missionaries were all decided in favor of the State and appealed to the United States Supreme Court. Chief Justice Marshall ruled in favor of the Indians but President Jackson remarked, "John Marshall has rendered his decision, now let him enforce it." Governor Gilmer in August 1833, after the State of Georgia had refused to obey the mandate of the United States to release Rev. Samuel Worcester of the missionaries, expressed the opinion that the Indians had suffered sufficiently to perhaps want to remove West and he accordingly asked the President to renew enrollment of Indians for removal. On September 1, Mr. Jackson appointed Benjamin F. Currey of Tennessee as Cherokee Removal Agent.

The Cherokee Nation spent several years in an unsuccessful effort to defend their tribe's existence. At the council of July 23, 1832 held in Red Clay, Tennessee, the Government's proposition to enter into a treaty of removal was unanimously rejected. At another meeting in the fall of the same year, further efforts were made to influence migration but the eastern Cherokees hearing much complaint against the Government to provide for and keep its promises to the emigrants rejected the proposition again. Finally, they sent a delegation to Washington in January 1833, memorializing the Government and asserting that the Nation would never agree to move away, praying the Government to enforce the rights guaranteed to them by certain previous treaties. General Jackson, who had a short time before, been re-elected President, assured them that he was solicitous of their welfare but they must surrender to the policy of removal. John Ross, a Cherokee leader, secured the offer from the President of two and one-half millon dollars for their country in north Georgia and Alabama, if they would remove. He finally raised his offer to three million dollars. Ross told him that the gold mines in Georgia were worth more than that and reminded him that these were on the Cherokee lands. Mr. Ross inquired of the President why or how he could protect them against evils in the West if he could not protect their rights in Georgia. The delegation got no lasting assurances.

Two factions arose in the Nation; one the John Ross, the other the John Ridge faction. Governor Lumpkin of Georgia protested to the Secretary of War against the delegation sent to Washington in October 1833, which was headed by John Ross, that "they are wholly underserving the courtesy and marked attention of the official authorities at Washington." Another situation arose when the western Cherokees who had gone there following the treaty of 1828, were not cordial to the coming of the eastern section of the tribe, arguing that the land set aside under the treaty of 1828 belonged to them. Not succeeding in the efforts to make the Cherokees in the East to the West, a policy of oppression was instituted, beginning with the policy of taking the homes of the wealthier members of the tribe, seizing this property under any pretense which might be brought forward.

Joseph Vann, whose plantation contained eight hundred acres in cultivation, a brick house which cost him \$10,000, and extensive improvements on his property was seized and his property forfeited to the State because he had employed a white man as an overseer. Vann was forced to leave his home during the cold of winter and live over the Tennessee line in a log cabin, which had only a dirt floor. John Ross's holding was seized in the spring of 1834 by Georgia State authorities when during a land lottery scheme the property was drawn by a successful ticket holder. Such repetitions as the above instances continued to occur in the effort to break the spirit and wear down the resistance of the Indians.

Finally, at Washington on July 19, 1834, John Eaton, as Commissioner on behalf of the United States, negotiated with the eastern delegation a treaty by which they purported to cede to the United States all the Cherokee land in Georgia, North Carolina, Tennessee and Alabama and the Indians agreed to move to the West. A small consideration was included for rifles, blankets and brass kettles. Ten thousand dollars a year for ten years was allowed them for schools; twenty-five thousand dollars was allowed for the erection of school houses, ploughs, axes, hoes, looms and wheels. Under this treaty a provision was made to purchase for the emigrating Cherokees, 800,000 acres on the North of their allotted holdings. It was provided that the Senaca, Shawnee and Quapaw tribes might become members of the Nation if they wished to merge their lands with those of the Cherokees. In February 1835, the two factions of the Nation, the National Party under John Ross, who wished to fight to the end. and the Ridge Party, despairing of successful resistance and wanting to negotiate for removal, met with the Rev. John Shermerhorn. This conference provided that the Ridge party of the tribe cede its whole eastern territory and move West in consideration of \$3,250,000; the Ross Party insisted on \$20,000,000 and then the price proposed to the Ridge Party advanced to \$4,500,000. The stipulation was that the whole tribe ratify the agreement in full council that it become effective. Accordingly, the council met at Red Clay, Tennessee, in October 1835, at John Ross's one room log house. John Howard Payne, author of 108

HOME SWEET HOME, who had arrived that day to be guest of Mr. Ross, has left an interesting story of the meeting. This meeting rejected the Shermerhorn treaty. Ridge and Elias Boudinot led the majority against them. On the failure of agreement another meeting was set for New Echota, near the present Rome, Georgia, in the early winter.

The Georgia authorities suppressed the Cherokec Phoenix. the national newspaper which was printed using the characters invented by Sequoia, as well as English letters, and arrested Ross in Tennessee, detaining him without charge in the hope of influencing the natives to agree to removal. At the New Echota conference in December, only between three and five hundred persons, including men, women and children, out of a census population of 17,000, attended. However, a so-called treaty was drawn up and signed on December 29, 1835. Despite a protest to the United States Senate representing sixteen thousand out of the seventeen thousand Cherokees, the Senate ratified the treaty, but by only one vote majority. General Wool of the United States Army commanding the troops in the Cherokee country, forwarded the Indian protest against the treaty and he was rebuked by the President. Enrolling Agent, Major W. M. Davis of the Army, addressed the Secretary of War on the subject, siding with the natives. General Wool reported on February 18, 1837, that he had called them together to seek to allay opposition to the treaty but that it was vain to talk to the people almost universally opposed to this treaty, who maintained that they never made it. He reported that the people in the northern part af Alabama and in the Georgia section of the country, as well as those in the mountains of North Carolina, during the summer past, preferred living upon roots and sap from the trees rather than receive provisions from the United States and that thousands had had no other food for weeks. General Wool found it very disagreeable, because of his sympathies with the Indians, to attempt to disarm and over-awe them. The Tennessee militia, called out to prevent an alleged Cherokee uprising, declared that it would be a dishonor to Tennessee arms to aid in carrying into execution a treaty made by a lean majority.

However, in January, 1837, several hundred natives gathered at New Echota and volunteered to enlist to be removed when the proper officers would make a final settlement of their affairs. Some of the more wealthy and more intelligent Cherokees availed themselves of the provision which authorized them to emigrate with their families. The first party emigrating under the Government terms was in charge of Dr. John S. Young and one assistant physician. This party was composed of 466 Cherokees and five Creeks. They went from Ross's Landing (near the present site of Chattanooga) on March 1, 1837, going down the Tennessee River to Decatur, Alabama, where the Indians were put on board a railroad train, showing much bewilderment as none had ever seen such a wonder before. They were delivered by cars to Tuscumbia, going around Muscle Shoals, where they were again put on boats and departed for Paducah. These emigrants, like those of the other eastern groups, were taken on the Mississippi to the mouth of the Arkansas River and thence to Fort Gibson. Among the first emigrants was the family of Major Ridge who had selected a settlement two miles above Fort Smith.

Regardless of much pressure brought to bear, less than two thousand Cherokees had removed before May 1838, the time fixed for their departure. General Winfield Scott who later saw service with Gen. Wood in the Mexican war, established Army headquarters at New Echota and on May 10, 1839, issued a proclamation warning the natives that they must emigrate and in haste before another moon had passed. All the arms were taken from the Indians and as late as May 1843, thirty-six boxes of their guns were in storage at Fort Gibson, having never been returned to them. A cronicler of the events connected with the removal, among other things, says, "Even the much-sung exile of the Acadians falls far behind it in its sum of death and misery." United States troops under Scott's orders were placed throughout the Cherokee country to search out with rifles and bayonets every hidden cabin in the coves and mountain sides, and to seize and bring in as prisoners all the occupants, however, or whenever they might be found. The men were seized in their fields at work; the women were taken from their wheels and the children

from their play. In many cases, on turning for one last look at the ridge whence they came, they saw their homes in flames, fired by the lawless rabble that followed on the heels of the soldiers to loot and pillage. Hunts were even made for any graves in order to rob them of the silver pendants and other valuables deposited with the dead. A Georgia volunteer, later a Colonel in the Confederate Army, said, "I fought through the Civil War and have seen men shot to pieces and slaughtered by the thousands, but the Cherokee removal was the cruelest work I ever knew." Later Gen. Scott wrote Nat Smith, superintendent of emigration, "the distress caused the emigrants by want of their bedding, cooking utensils, clothes and ponies, I much regret, as also the loss of their property in consequence of the hurry of capture and removal," but he blamed the Indians for having faith in John Ross to save them. In after years the Indians made a large number of claims for spoilization, though little was recovered.

When nearly seventeen thousand Cherokees had been gathered into various stockades, the work of enforced removal West began. They were handled through the old agency on the Hiwassee River in Tennessee, through Ross Landing, by Gunter's Landing and thence West. Trains carried these detachments, about a thousand each, after reaching Decatur, to Tuscumbia. These trains were so crowded that an observer has said that thirty-two cars were necessary to transport the party and no more could be employed for want of power in the two locomotive engines. All the subsequent transfer of the Cherokees was in the same manner, always down the river, around the shoals, and from Tuscumbia to Paducah, thence down the Mississippi to the mouth of the Arkansas, up that stream and to their alloted lands.

A Georgia militia officer summed up the feeling in Georgia as of the 18th of June, 1838, when he concluded his report to Governor Gilmer from his headquarters of his military district at New Echota, with these words, "Georgia is ultimately in possession of her rights in the Cherokee country." Some 11,700 Cherokees were receipted for of 13,149 claimed by John Ross as being moved under his supervision. More than four thousand died during the course of capture and detention in temporary stockades and during the course of the removal.

Seminole Removal

The Seminole, generally referred to as of Florida, were a Muskhogean tribe, originally made up of emigrants sometimes referred to as the "Castouts" of the Lower Creeks on the Chattahoochee River. They moved into Florida shortly after 1700, and were classed by the writers and census takers prior to 1775, as Lower Creeks, but about that date they became known as Seminole, which word means "separatist" or "runaway." This latter designation is perhaps derived from the circumstances of the Creek Indians who had slaves joining escaped slaves in the Spanish country, where they became Spanish subjects and enjoyed the freedom of that section. The treaty of New York entered into by President Washington and General Alexander McGillivray in August, 1790, contained a promise by the Creeks to return to the whites the Negroes living among the Seminoles, but the Indians repudiated the agreement on the claims that they had no control over them. Slave raids by Georgians broke the peace of these Florida Indians during the years following. Disturbances between the south Georgia whites and the Florida Indians occurred in 1816 and this resulted in the conflict of 1817-1818, when General Andrew Jackson and his Tennessee troops, who had been joined by the Indians from the Lower Creek country in Alabama and Georgia, partially subdued the uprising. Conflicts between the whites and the Indians, many of whom never left Florida, continued for perhaps fifty years succeeding. The Indians in scuthwest Georgia and north Florida were influenced by British traders and General Jackson's dealings with them were harsh. At Fowlstown in 1818, he executed two British subjects, Alexander Arbuthnut and Robert C. Ambrister.

Under the Removal Act of 1830, Colonel James Gadsden, who had served as Andrew Jackson's adjutant in 1818, was sent in 1832, to attempt a treaty with the Seminole and to provide for their removal. They finally agreed, on condition that the Government would promise to send an exporing party to the country of the West offered them. The treaty of Payne's Landing of May 9, 1832, resulted. Major Ethan A. Hitchcock of the United States Army, later to serve as Removal Agent, noted in his diary

that the treaty of Payne's Landing of 1832, by which it was attempted to remove the Indians, was a fraud and that they never agreed to emigrate. The duplicity and force attempted under this so-called agreement resulted in the second Seminole war of 1836 and 1837, which lasted some nine or ten years.

The first Seminole emigration was that of the Apalachicola band under John Blunt, one of their number, a half breed. He had received \$3,000 when the treaty was signed and was to have \$10,000 more when he removed his band. These went by way of New Orleans but were arrested by one William Beattie, a Columbus Georgia citizen, who had a fraudulent claim against them. While encamped near New Orleans, on April 8, 1834, Beattie secured an attachment for their persons and had their headmen thrown in jail. In order to extricate themselves from this difficulty, the Indians paid Beattie \$2,000 dollars cash and delivered him two valuable slaves worth a thousand dollars more. This party eventually ascended the Mississippi River to Bayou Teche, up by Opelousas, and finally reached their place of destination on Trinity River in Texas, where they joined old Chief Red Moccasin, who had gone there years before. Of this group of 276, 35 died between the date of the treaty and the migration: 14 died at Applachacola when being concentrated to be sent and only 152 actually reached Texas. John Blunt, himself, died shortly after his arrival.

The final removal of the Seminole was scheduled from Tampa Bay where they were to board transports for New Orleans in January 1836. The Government agreed to furnish 14,000 hunting shirts for the men and 13,000 yards of plaided woolseys for petticoats and wrappers for the women, to in a measure give comfort on the trip. The insurrection of Osceola at this time is attributed to the incident of the seizure of his young wife who was carried off in slavery to be forcibly removed with the natives who had congregated, and to be carried West. Osceola also blamed Wiley Thompson, the United States Seminole Agent, for having on an occasion placed him in irons. The Indians who objected to being forced to go West, under the leadership of Osceola, committed several murders in

in the vicinity of Fort King and attacked the party of Major Francis L. Dade from Fort Brooke and killed of this company eight officers and 102 enlisted men, all but three soldiers. Captain Hitchcock (the Major who was in command of the removal, as set out above) subsequently visited the Fort Brooke battle ground and buried the dead. Clashes occurred between the hostile Indians and those agreeing to go West over a period of some months. Some 407 of Holahte Emathla's friendly Indians agreed in April to go and 382 of them reached Little Rock. Here Lieutenant George G. Meade, (of subsequent Gettysburg fame), was delegated to escort them. After much hardship, 320 of the original party reached their allotted land; 87 died within the space of two months. Holati (Holahte) died June 3, 1836, en route.

In order to force the Seminole removal, the Government attempted a campaign inaugurated by General Thomas Jesup, of destroying their towns and stores of coontie root, of which they made bread, killing their cattle, capturing the ponies and otherwise harassing them to force them to surrender and be moved. The Government made efforts to secure the services of the Indians of other tribes to come to Florida and hunt the Seminole from their hiding places and force them to go West. Some 900 Shawnees, Delewares, Kickapoo, Sauk, Foxes and Choctaws, volunteered for that purpose. The Cherokees who had volunteered to trick the Seminole to carry out the conference of Mikanopy and General Jesup, were mortified and repudiated their agreement. Osceola, born near Franklin, in the present Macon county, Alabama, who had gone to Florida perhaps prior to the Creek war of 1814, (as he is not known to have served therein) led hostile parties and the Army sought most to capture him. In March 1837, Jesup had made a treaty with the Indians through which Mikanopy, Jumper and Alligator agreed to remove their people West. They promised to set out by October 1st. When that time arrived they were not willing to go. On the 20th of October, Osceola and a party of his warriors desired a conference with General Jesup when it was his intention to work out an agreement concerning the slaves and other matters relatives to removal. General Jesup

arranged for the meeting but was not present. He directed General Hernandez to negotiate the agreement and while it was in progress, a considerable body of troops surrounded the Indians and made them all prisoners. Osceola and his delegation were confined at St. Augustine for a time when they were later carried to Fort Moultrie, of Charleston, S. C. After confinement here for a month, 220 of them were transported on March 12, 1838, by steamers through New Orleans and to the West. Osceola died there January 30. Mr. George Catlin, the celebrated artist, reached Fort Moultrie on January 17, with the intention of painting a portrait of the Seminole Chiefs. He succeeded in making a likeness of Osceola who was too ill to have it finished in the manner Catlin desired, but it is one of the distinguished paintings of its day.

Subsequent to the capture of Mikanopy and Osceola, the Indians sought an agreement with General Jesup's troops to end the campaign but they expressed a desire not to go West. Army records show some statistics of the receipt of captured ones who reached their new homes. Arriving there in June 1838 were 116; 66 on August 5, of that year; 272 in January 1839 and 204 in April. General Jesup's records show that 1955 Seminole were actually captured and several hundred killed. Of the emigrated Seminole, were a number of Negroes and Spainards who had intermarried with the natives. Many of the Negroes who were being transported West never reached the country as they were bought by slave traders en route. As late as February 1839, the Seminole were being transported in unseaworthy boats and during passage many lost their lives on account of explosions and other accidents. During the summer of 1841, 200 were started West, and 197 were delivered at Fort Gibson. As of March 21, 1842, General Taylor estimated that 2833 had been removed and located. Their lands were in the vicinity of Fort Gibson, and on Little River.

The last of the emigrating Seminole was the Pascofa, this company being transported by Col. Hitchcock. The Government estimated that there were 1500 white soldiers killed during the uprising in Florida, due to the determination of the In-

dians not to be forced to move West, and that twenty million dollars in property, much suffering and misery among the warriors, and a large mortality among the natives likewise resulted. The last party carried West under Col. Hitchcock, left in 1842, by Pensacola and New Orleans and arrived April 26, on the Mississippi River, thence were carried to their permanent homes. The Government attempted in 1856 to take a party of Western Seminole to Florida to influence the remaining members of that tribe there to agree to go West. Not much resulted. Of the hostile group still left in Florida, one hundred and sixty-five were removed as of that date and arrived safely in the West. There are about six hundred Seminoles still living in the Florida Everglades on lands set apart for them by the State and Government. These people still bitterly resent the cruelties and injustice imposed upon their ancestors through the western removal and are slow to avail themselves of the education and other civilizing agencies provided them by the Government.

COMMISSION TO THE FIVE CIVILIZED TRIBES

Congress in 1893 authorized the appointment of a Commission to the Five Civilized Tribes which had been removed from their homes to the Indian Territory, now Oklahoma. Grover Cleveland was President at the time and appointed the Commission which at first consisted of three members but was later enlarged to five. The headquarters of the Commission were at Muscogee, Oklahoma. The Commission was instructed to negotiate with the Five Civilized Tribes, the Creeks, Cherokees, Choctaws, Chickasaws and Seminoles, for the extinguishment of the communal title to the land and its allotment in severalty, and for the dissolution of the tribal government looking forward toward their ultimate absorption into the United States as a Territory or State. The Commission had no authority but was directed to induce the Indians to consent to these changes on terms which should be just and equable to all, binding after due ratification both by the Indians and the United States.

When these tribes were removed from the east they were given special titles to the land in the form of patents and their



(1907), vol. 8, p. 523; North Carolina Colonial Records (1895), vol. 11, pp. 176-178; Cary, Map of the Mississippi Territory.

Will's Town.-A Cherokee town, founded about 1770, situated on Big Will's Creek, just above the present village of Lebanon, in DeKalb County. It was named for a half breed chief called Red-Headed Will. It was a place of importance in Cherokee history. Here before and during the Revolution resided Col. Alexander Campbell, the famous British agent for the Cherokees.

References.-Pickett, History of Alabama (Owen's ed., 1900), pp. 146, 415, 436; O. D. Street, in Alabama History Commission, Report (1901), vol. 1, p. 420; Bureau of American Ethnology, Ninteenth annual report (1900), p. 546; Handbook of American Indians (1910), vol. 2, p. 956.

Witumka.-A Lower Creek town in Russell County, a branch of Kawita Talahasi. It was situated 12 miles northwest of the mother town, at the falls of Big Uchee Creek, and at the present Perry's Ford. It is about 6 miles on a direct line northeast of Seale. It was of sufficient importance to have a town house, near the ford. The place was one of much importance among the Lower Creeks, and with the decline of the mother town of old Kawita, that importance was increased. After the treaty of Cusseta March 24, 1832, the Indians who were not removed west regarded this place as their head town, and they met there for all of their conferences or councils. The town itself extended in a straggling way for about 3 miles up the creek, on its left or north bank. In later years the inhabitants cultivated the rich lands along the creek, and raised both cattle and hegs Paddy Carr, a Creek half-breed, and long United States interpreter, had a plantation on the same side of the creek below the town. The name signifies "rumbling water," that is, Uiwa, "water," tumkis. "it rumbles, makes noise."

Wetumca Council House was located at Moffitts Mill, on little Uchee Creek, northeast of Crawford, at the time of the meeting there in the fall of 1833. Inasmuch as this point is shown on later maps, it is suggested that the original settlement, below

on Big Uchee, mush have fallen into disuse as as it is known that most of this land at the latt tered by white settlers shortly after March of tl

References.-Handbook of American India p. 936; Gatschet, in Alabama History Com (1901), vol. 1, p. 414.

Woksoyudshi.-An Upper Creek town in noted in the census list of 1832 as "Waksoyou Coosa River, below Wetumka." It probably occur site of some older village opposite or below Fort

REFERENCES.-Gatschet, in Alabama Histo Report (1901), vol. I, p. 414; Handbook of A (1910), vol. 2, p. 968.

Yagnahoolah.-A locality on the east side of River in Clarke County, and known among the "Beloved Ground." It is thus described by Roman Yagna-hoolah (i. e. the Beloved Ground), which side and is very high, continuing above two miles bank; its lower part is steep and of whitish grey. above two hundred feet high, reckoning perpendic evidently in the vicinity and south of Wood's Blull ern terminus which was Witch Creek Hill.

REFERENCES.-Hamilton, Colonial Mobile (Romans, Florida, (1775), p. 329.

Yaknipakno.-An unidentified Indian town, e De Soto on his march through Alabama. The mean of the earth," and indicates that it was evidently rocky hill.

References.-Narratives of De Soto (Trail | 1904), vol. 1, p. 99, and vol 2, p. 129.

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pper Creek village, on the Chambers County. A creek per tributaries of Potchushatre was between the name of town is unknown. Hawkins m this town about 1777, but nent that the modern Creek's clonged to a group with Warry were entirely distince from

the Okfuski group, to which Niuyaka belonged. The word means "punkwood, spunk, rotten wood, tinder." It contained 126 families in 1832.

See Niuyaka; Wakokayi; Weogufki.

References.—Hawkins, Sketch of the Creek Country (1848), pp. 45, 46; Gatschet in Alabama History Commission, Report (1900), p. 412.

Tulawahajah. An old Creek Indian town in Shelby County, on the west side of the Cahaba River, almost due south of Birmingham.

References.—Manuscript records in Aiabama Department Archives and History.

Turkey Creek. An old Creek Indian town, on Turkey Creek in Jefferson County, probably a few miles north of Trussville.

References.—Manuscript records in Alabama Department of Archives and History.

Turkey Town. A Cherokee town founded about 1770, and situated in the bend of Coosa River opposite the town of Centre, in Cherokee County. It was a place of great importance in the Nation, and was named for one of its most noted chiefs, "The Turkey." Here under his leadership, originated many of the hostile expeditions against the white settlers of Tennessee and Kentucky.

References.—O. D. Street, in Alabama History Commission, Report (1901), vol. 1, p. 420; Pickett, History of Alabama (Owen's ed., 1900), pp. 146, 556; Handbook of American Indians (1910), vol. 2, p. 840.

Turkey Town. Choctaw Indian village on the Tombigbee River, at E. S. Thornton's upper landing in the West Bend section of Clarke County. Very few facts concerning it are preserved.



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site the site of the town of later date. Its people very evidently moved their townsite to the north of the river subsequent to the date of the map, and the remains of the old walls are doubtless those of the first location.

A French census of 1760 states that this town was situated four leagues from Fort Toulouse. It appears that some of the Kusa had united with them, and that together they reported 60 warriors or gunmen. The name is spelled in this census as Fouchatchis et Touchas. By the English trade regulations, agreed on at Savannah July 3, 1761, Fushatchi and Kusa, with their combined strength of 50 hunters, was assigned to the trader James Germany.

Report (1901), vol. 1, p. 396; Handbook of American Indians (1907), vol. 1, p. 480; Hawkins, Sketch of the Creek Country (1848), p. 38; Bartram, Travels (1791), p. 461; Mississippi Provincial Archives (1911), vol. 1, p. 94; Hamilton, Colonial Mobile (1910), p. 190; Colonial Records of Georgia (1907), vol. 8, p. 523.

Ghuallahatchee. See Hoithlewalli.

County established about 1784, and situated on the sites of the present towns of Guntersville and Wyeth City. Its headman was John Gunter, a full-blooded Scotchman, who had been adopted into the tribe. Gunter married a Cherokee woman and raised a large family of sons and daughters. His sons, John, Samuel, and Edward, were conscipuous figures in the Old Cherokee Nation, and west of the Mississippi their descendants are influential. This was an important settlement, and included some very intelligent Cherokees. An Indian trail extended from this village across Sand Mountain to Will's Town and Turkey Town.

References.—O. D. Street, In Alabama History Commission, Report, (1901), vol. 1, p. 419; Ala. Hist. Society, Transactions, 1899-1903, vol. 4, p. 193.

