

Chapter 1 : Indian Wars Time Table

The American Indian Wars, the most famous of which were fought on the great Western plains between and , were among the most tragic of all conflicts ever fought. To the victor went no less than the complete domination of the continent, to the loser total extinction.

The near officer on the 1st fl. The war chief would lead his men to the attack, but from there on it was every man for himself. They always take care. When they find them unprepared or asleep, they creep up slowly and stealthily, like panthers in pursuit of their prey; when suddenly near, they simultaneously raise the war whoop. The Apache is not the Apache: The Apaches, whose territory covered what is now parts of Texas. These bands would go together under one leader in wartime, although normally each group had its own leader. Each local group would usually have a head chief, who would make decisions on sending out raiding parties, holding ceremonies and such activities. However, he had no real authority, depending on his influence among his followers to persuade them to do his will. Each group also had its own shaman. In wartime one man, known for fighting and leadership abilities, would usually be chosen as war chief for a whole band of up to several hundred warriors. Individual groups sometimes preferred their own war chiefs, and it would not be uncommon for a band to go into battle with more than one war chief. Often both war and civil chiefships were combined in one man. He could enlist men to follow him from his own group. Before an raid or war special dances and ceremonies would be held. Others came from European armies. One man, who previously put in four years in the German Army, wrote that the men in his regiment, the 7th Infantry, in were not fair soldiers, although the company officers were excellent leaders. Relations between officers and rank and file were very good, he thought. Each regiment was made up of ten to twelve companies. Not only were companies separated and small, but the men were largely untrained. This began to change by 1860. Other regiments were sending: Another training area initially neglected was first aid. By the late 1860s two to four men a company were given special training as litter bearers, with an emphasis on bandaging wounds. At the range Indians typically fought. The new metal cartridges noisily bounced about in the old boxes, making sneak attacks possible. Soldiers solved the problem themselves by making looped belts to hold their cartridges. Tannic acid in the leather corroded the cartridge cases. The main effort had to be made by volunteers. By 1870 Regulars patrolled the plains. The 1st Cavalry was sent to the Pacific Coast in 1866. In it was sent to Arizona to handle Apaches. Between 1866 and 1870 it was mostly fighting Utes and Cheyennes. It was sent to New Mexico in 1871. In the regiment was assigned to Arizona forts. It was sent to the Pacific Coast in 1870. The 5th Cavalry was sent to Kansas in 1864. In it was sent to forts in Texas, going on to Arizona the next year. In 1865 it was sent against the Utes. In 1866 it was sent on to various posts in the Indian Territory and Kansas. In 1867 it was sent to the Dakotas. In 1868 it went to posts in Texas and the southwest. From 1869 to 1870 it served against the Cheyennes and Sioux, being virtually destroyed at Little Bighorn in June 1876, and then California, in 1877, serving there until when it was sent to Arizona. In the regiment was split among posts in Kansas and the Indian Territory. In 1878 it was sent to posts in: Each troop was commanded by a captain, assisted by a first lieutenant and a second lieutenant. They were usually equipped with self-contained cartridges, stored in magazines. In the Ordnance Department began issuing web canister belts with a provision for the holster. The success of his campaigns against the Apaches largely depended on the Indian auxiliaries and the regulation blue blouse and pantaloons which were worn. The other trappings of the savage auxiliaries are a Springfield breechloading rifle, army pattern, a canteen full of water, [and] a butcher knife. In contemporary illustrations Apache scouts usually wear their hair long with a colourful headband instead of a hat. Other than that, they were generally dressed the same as typical Plains Indian scouts: a five-button tunic blouse, a web cartridge belt, sometimes sky blue trousers and a black slouch hat. Generally it was the same as other Army uniforms, but chevrons were white, piped scarlet. In the field they reasoned the same. In General Order No. 10. However, they felt much more comfortable in their native costume. You ought to see the coat I wear, and, then, the trousers, such a pair! Complaints about quality, however, drew a sharp reply from Quartermaster General: The clothing issued, the General said, was the same as saw service in the Civil War and if troops on the frontier were kept busy enough they wouldn't have time to complain about their

dress.

Chapter 2 : The American Indian Wars 1860-1890 by Philip R.N. Katcher

The American Indian Wars (or Indian Wars) is the collective name for the various armed conflicts fought by European governments and colonists, and later the United States government and American settlers, against various American Indian tribes.

Many of these conflicts occurred during and after the Civil War until the closing of the frontier in about 1890. Various statistics have been developed concerning the devastation of these wars on the peoples involved. His work includes almost nothing on "Indian war parties", and he states that "army records are often incomplete". Also, Arizona ranked highest of the states in deaths from the wars. At least 4,000 people were killed, including both the settlers and the Indians, over twice as many as occurred in Texas, the second highest-ranking state. Most of the deaths in Arizona were caused by the Apaches. Michno also says that 51 percent of the battles took place in Arizona, Texas, and New Mexico between 1846 and 1880, as well as 37 percent of the casualties in the country west of the Mississippi River. Relations between American Immigrants and Native Americans were generally peaceful. Signed in 1804 between the United States and the plains Indians and the Indians of the northern Rocky Mountains, the treaty allowed passage by immigrants and the building of roads and the stationing of troops along the Oregon Trail. Advancing settlement following the passage of the Homestead Act and the building of the transcontinental railways following the Civil War further destabilized the situation, placing white settlers into direct competition for the land and resources of the Great Plains and the Rocky Mountain West. But the Sioux of the Northern Plains and the Apache of the Southwest provided the most celebrated opposition to encroachment on tribal lands. Led by resolute, militant leaders, such as Red Cloud and Crazy Horse, the Sioux were skilled at high-speed mounted warfare. The Sioux were relatively new arrivals on the Plains, as, previously, they had been sedentary farmers in the Great Lakes region. Once they learned to capture and ride horses, they moved west, displacing other Indian tribes and became feared warriors. Historically the Apache bands supplemented their economy by raiding others and practiced warfare to avenge a death of a kinsman. The Apache bands were adept at fighting and highly elusive in the environments of desert and canyons. During the American Civil War, U. Army units were withdrawn to fight the war in the east. They were replaced by the volunteer infantry and cavalry raised by the states of California and Oregon, by the western territorial governments or the local militias. These units fought the Indians besides keeping open communications with the east, holding the west for the Union and defeating the Confederate attempt to capture the New Mexico Territory. After national policy called for all Indians either to assimilate into the general population as citizens, or to live peacefully on reservations. Raids and wars between tribes were not allowed, and armed Indian bands off a reservation were the responsibility of the Army to round up and return.

Texas's Indian wars In the 18th century, Spanish settlers in Texas came into conflict with the Apache, Comanche, and Karankawa, among other tribes. Large numbers of Anglo-American settlers reached Texas in the 1830s, and from that point until the 1850s, a series of armed confrontations broke out, mostly between Texans and Comanches. During the same period the Comanche and their allies raided hundreds of miles deep into Mexico see Comanche's Mexico Wars. Battles, army posts, and the general location of tribes in the American West

The first notable battle was the Fort Parker massacre in 1858, in which a huge war party of Comanches, Kiowa, Wichita, and Delawares attacked the Texan outpost at Fort Parker. Once the Republic of Texas was declared and had secured some sovereignty in their war with Mexico, the Texas government under President Sam Houston pursued a policy of engagement with the Comanches and Kiowa. Ironically, since Houston had lived with the Cherokee, the republic faced a conflict called the Cordova Rebellion, in which Cherokees appear to have joined with Mexican forces to fight the fledgling country. Houston resolved the conflict without resorting to arms, refusing to believe that the Cherokee would take up arms against his government. Under Lamar, Texas removed the Cherokee to the west, and then sought to deport the Comanche and Kiowa. This led to a series of battles, including the Council House Fight, in which, at a peace parley, the Texas militia killed 33 Comanche chiefs. The Lamar Administration was known for its failed and expensive Indian policy; the cost of the war with the Indians exceeded the annual revenue of the government throughout his four-year term. It was

followed by a second Houston administration, which resumed the previous policy of diplomacy. Texas signed treaties with all of the tribes, including the Comanche. The Comanche and their allies shifted most of their raiding activities to Mexico, using Texas as a safe haven from Mexican retaliation. After Texas joined the Union in 1845, the struggle between the Plains Indians and the settlers was taken up by the federal government and the state of Texas. The years 1840-1850 were particularly vicious and bloody on the Texas frontier, as settlers continued to expand their settlements into the Comanche homeland, the Comancheria, and was marked by the first Texan incursion into the heart of the Comancheria, the so-called Antelope Hills Expedition, marked by the Battle of Little Robe Creek. This battle signaled the beginning of the end of the Comanche as an independent nation, as, for the first time, they were attacked in the heart of their domain, in force. The battles between settlers and Indians continued and in 1840, at the Battle of Pease River, Texas militia destroyed an Indian camp. In the aftermath of the battle, the Texans learned that they had recaptured Cynthia Ann Parker, the little girl captured by the Comanche in 1835. She returned to live with the Parkers, but missed her children, including her son Quanah Parker. As chief of the Quahadi Comanches, he finally surrendered to the overwhelming force of the federal government and in 1850 moved to a reservation in southwestern Oklahoma. Among the causes of conflict were a sudden immigration to the region and a series of gold rushes throughout the Pacific Northwest. The Cayuse were defeated in 1811, but by then the conflict had expanded and continued in what became known as the Yakima War, 1855-1859. One of the triggers of the Yakima War was the creation of Washington Territory and the effort of its first governor, Isaac Stevens, to compel tribes to sign treaties ceding land and establishing reservations. The Yakama signed one of the treaties negotiated during the Walla Walla Council of 1855, and the Yakama Indian Reservation was established. The treaties were poorly received by the native peoples and served mainly to intensify hostilities. Gold discoveries near Fort Colville resulted in many miners crossing Yakama lands via Naches Pass, and conflicts rapidly escalated into violence. It took several years for the US Army to defeat the Yakama, during which time war spread to the Puget Sound region west of the Cascades. The Puget Sound War of 1857-1859 was triggered in part by the Yakima War and in part by the use of intimidation to compel tribes to sign land cession treaties. The Treaty of Medicine Creek, signed in 1854, established an unrealistically small reservation on poor land for the Nisqually and Puyallup people. Violence broke out in the White River valley, along the route to Naches Pass, which connected Nisqually and Yakama lands. Although limited in its magnitude, territorial impact and losses in terms of lives, the Puget Sound War is often remembered in connection with the Battle of Seattle and the execution of a central figure of the war, Nisqually Chief Leschi. In 1858, the fighting on the east side of the Cascades spread. The California Gold Rush helped fuel a large increase in the number of people traveling south through the Rogue River Valley. Gold discoveries continued to trigger violent conflict between prospectors and indigenous peoples. Although this conflict occurred in what is now Canada, the militias involved were formed mostly of Americans. Due to the discovery of gold in Idaho and Oregon in the 1840s, similar conflicts arose that culminated in the Bear River Massacre in 1843 and Snake War from 1842 to 1843. In the late 1840s another series of armed conflicts occurred in Oregon and Idaho, spreading east into Wyoming and Montana. The Nez Perce War of 1855 is known particularly for Chief Joseph and the four-month, 1,100-mile fighting retreat of a band of about Nez Perce, including women and children. As with the other wars in the Pacific Northwest, the Nez Perce War was caused by a large influx of settlers, the appropriation of Indian lands, and a gold rush—this time in Idaho. The Nez Perce engaged 2,000 American soldiers of different military units, as well as their Indian auxiliaries. The Nez Perce fought "eighteen engagements, including four major battles and at least four fiercely contested skirmishes". The Sheepeater Indian War in 1879 was the last conflict in the area. These conflicts with the United States involved every non-pueblo tribe in the region and often were a continuation of Mexican-Spanish conflicts. The Navajo Wars and Apache Wars are perhaps the best known. The last major campaign of the U. S. Army garrison west of the Rockies, and the economic and political effects of the California Gold Rush, most of the early conflicts with the mostly unwarlike California Indians involved local parties of miners or settlers. Occasionally companies of the California Militia were involved, whose actions were dignified with the name of an "Expedition" or a "War". The first of these, the Gila Expedition in 1848, was a dismal failure and nearly bankrupted the state.

Chapter 3 : The Indian Wars and the Battle of the Little Bighorn (article) | Khan Academy

'The Indian Wars' were a series of battles between Native Americans and US forces between and During the Indian Wars, many Americans believed the 'savage' lifestyle of the Native Americans was the cause of the fighting.

Visit Website Indians were also a key factor in the imperial rivalries among France, Spain, and England. Meanwhile, the English and their trading partners, the Chickasaws and often the Cherokees, battled the French and associated tribes for control of the lower Mississippi River valley and the Spanish in western Florida. More decisive was the French and Indian War Particularly serious was the near-annihilation of Gen. But with English minister William Pitt infusing new life into the war effort, British regulars and provincial militias overwhelmed the French and absorbed all of Canada. Visit Website But eighteenth-century conflicts were not limited to the European wars for empire. In Virginia and the Carolinas, English-speaking colonists pushed aside the Tuscaroras, the Yamasees, and the Cherokees. In , an Ottawa chief, Pontiac, forged a powerful confederation against British expansion into the Old Northwest. Most of the Indians east of the Mississippi River now perceived the colonial pioneers as a greater threat than the British government. Thus northern tribes, especially those influenced by Mohawk chief Thayendanegea Joseph Brant , generally sided with the Crown during the American War for Independence. Leger in upstate New York. Western Pennsylvania and New York became savage battlegrounds as the conflict spread to the Wyoming and Cherry valleys. Strong American forces finally penetrated the heart of Iroquois territory, leaving a wide swath of destruction in their wake. The Americans resumed the initiative in , when Clark marched northwest into Shawnee and Delaware country, ransacking villages and inflicting several stinging defeats upon the Indians. To the south, the British backed resistance among the Cherokees, Chickasaws, Creeks, and Choctaws but quickly forgot their former allies following the signing of the Treaty of Paris By setting the boundaries of the newly recognized United States at the Mississippi River and the Great Lakes, that treaty virtually ensured future conflicts between whites and resident tribes. Yet resistance to white expansion in the Old Northwest continued as a Shawnee chief, Tecumseh , molded a large Indian confederation based at Prophetstown. While Tecumseh was away seeking additional support, William Henry Harrison burned the village after a stalemate at the Battle of Tippecanoe in Indian raids, often encouraged by the British, were influential in causing the United States to declare war on Great Britain in Several hundred American prisoners were killed following a skirmish at the River Raisin in early But Harrison pushed into Canada and won the Battle of the Thames, which saw the death of Tecumseh and the collapse of his confederation. In the Southeast, the Creeks gained a major triumph against American forces at Fort Sims, killing many of their prisoners in the process. Andrew Jackson led the counterthrust, winning victories at Tallasahatchee and Talladega before crushing the Creeks at Horseshoe Bend in Alaska and Florida were also the scenes of bitter conflicts. Native peoples strongly contested the Russian occupation of Alaska. The Aleuts were defeated during the eighteenth century, but the Russians found it impossible to prevent Tlingit harassment of their hunting parties and trading posts. But the Seminole Indians and runaway slaves refused to relocate, and the Second Seminole War saw fierce guerrilla-style actions from to Osceola, perhaps the greatest Seminole leader, was captured during peace talks in , and nearly three thousand Seminoles were eventually removed. The Third Seminole War stamped out all but a handful of the remaining members of the tribe. In the United States, the removal policy met only sporadic armed resistance as whites pushed into the Mississippi River valley during the s and s. The acquisition of Texas and the Southwest during the s, however, sparked a new series of Indian-white conflicts. On the Pacific Coast, attacks against the native peoples accompanied the flood of immigrants to gold-laden California. Disease, malnutrition, and warfare combined with the poor lands set aside as reservations to reduce the Indian population of that state from , in to 35, in The army took the lead role in Oregon and Washington, using the Rogue River , Yakima , and Spokane wars to force several tribes onto reservations. Sporadic conflicts also plagued Arizona and New Mexico throughout the s as the army struggled to establish its presence. On the southern plains, mounted warriors posed an even more formidable challenge to white expansion. Strikes against the Sioux, Cheyennes, Arapahos, Comanches, and Kiowas during the decade only hinted at the

deadlier conflicts of years to come. The Civil War saw the removal of the Regulars and an accompanying increase in the number and intensity of white-Indian conflicts. Disputes on the southern plains culminated in the Sand Creek massacre , during which John M. In Minnesota , attacks by the Eastern Sioux prompted counterattacks by the volunteer forces of Henry H. Sibley, after which the tribes were removed to the Dakotas. The conflict became general when John Pope mounted a series of unsuccessful expeditions onto the plains in Regular units, including four regiments of black troops, returned west following the Confederate collapse. Railroad expansion, new mining ventures, the destruction of the buffalo, and ever-increasing white demand for land exacerbated the centuries-old tensions. The mounted warriors of the Great Plains posed an especially thorny problem for an army plagued by a chronic shortage of cavalry and a government policy that demanded Indian removal on the cheap. Using a series of converging columns, Philip Sheridan achieved more success in his winter campaigns of , but only with the Red River War of were the tribes broken. But arable lands and rumors of gold in the Dakotas continued to attract white migration; the government opened a major new war in A series of army columns took the field that fall and again the following spring. By campaigning through much of the winter, harassing Indian villages, and winning battles like that at Wolf Mountain , Nelson A. Miles proved particularly effective. Another outbreak among the Sioux and Northern Cheyennes, precipitated by government corruption, shrinking reservations, and the spread of the Ghost Dance, culminated in a grisly encounter at Wounded Knee , in which casualties totaled over two hundred Indians and sixty-four soldiers. Less spectacular but equally deadly were conflicts in the Pacific Northwest. In a desperate effort to secure a new reservation on the tribal homelands, a Modoc chief assassinated Edward R. Canby during an abortive peace conference in Also unsuccessful was armed resistance among the Bannocks, Paiutes, Sheepeaters, and Utes in To the far southwest, Cochise , Victorio, and Geronimo led various Apache bands in resisting white and Hispanic encroachments, crossing and recrossing the border into Mexico with seeming impunity. Only after lengthy campaigning, during which army columns frequently entered Mexico, were the Apaches forced to surrender in the mids. The army remained wary of potential trouble as incidental violence continued. Yet, with the exception of another clash in during which protesters temporarily seized control of Wounded Knee, the major Indian-white conflicts in the United States had ended. Militarily, several trends had become apparent. New technology often gave the whites a temporary advantage. But this edge was not universal; Indian warriors carrying repeating weapons during the latter nineteenth century sometimes outgunned their army opponents, who were equipped with cheaper but often more reliable single-shot rifles and carbines. As the scene shifted from the eastern woodlands to the western plains, white armies found it increasingly difficult to initiate fights with their Indian rivals. To force action, army columns converged upon Indian villages from several directions. This dangerous tactic had worked well at the Battle of the Washita but could produce disastrous results when large numbers of tribesmen chose to stand and fight, as at the Little Bighorn. Throughout the centuries of conflict, both sides had taken the wars to the enemy populace, and the conflicts had exacted a heavy toll among noncombatants. Whites had been particularly effective in exploiting tribal rivalries; indeed, Indian scouts and auxiliaries were often essential in defeating tribes deemed hostile by white governments. In the end, however, military force alone had not destroyed Indian resistance. Only in conjunction with railroad expansion, the destruction of the buffalo, increased numbers of non-Indian settlers, and the determination of successive governments to crush any challenge to their sovereignty had white armies overwhelmed the tribes. Eric Foner and John A.

Chapter 4 : American Indian Wars - Wikipedia

The wars between whites and Indians, the most famous of which were fought on the great Western plains between and , were among the most tragic of all conflicts ever fought. To the victor went no less than the complete domination of the continent, to the loser total extinction.

Previous struggles with the Indian , dating back to colonial times, had been limited as to scope and opponent and took place in a period when the Indian could withdraw or be pushed into vast reaches of uninhabited and as yet unwanted territory to westward. By this safety valve was fast disappearing; routes of travel and pockets of settlement had multiplied across the western two-thirds of the nation, and as the Civil War closed, white Americans in greater numbers and with greater energy than before resumed the quest for land, gold, commerce, and adventure that had been largely interrupted by the war. Kansas Buffalo The showdown between the older Americans and the new " between two ways of life that were basically incompatible " was at hand. The besieged red man, with white civilization pressing in and a main source of livelihood " the buffalo " threatened with extinction, was faced with a fundamental choice: Given its central role in dealing with the Indian, the Army made a major contribution to continental consolidation. The Setting and the Challenge After Appomattox, the Army had to muster out over a million volunteers and reconstitute a Regular establishment that had languished during the Civil War when bounties and short enlistments made service in the volunteers more profitable. There were operational commitments to sustain during and after the transition, some an outgrowth of the war just ended, others the product of internal and external situations that could not be ignored. But these and other later involvements were passing concerns. The conflict with the red man was the overriding consideration in the next twenty-five years until Indian power was broken. Unfortunately, the military assets released from other tasks were lost through reductions in force instead of being diverted to frontier defense. For even though the country during the Indian campaigns could not be said to be at peace, neither Congress nor the war-weary citizens in the populous Atlantic states were prepared to consider it in a state of war. And in any case, there was strong sentiment against a large standing army as well as a widely held belief that the Indian problem could be settled by other than military means. As the postwar Army took shape, its strength began a decade of decline, dropping from an level of about 57, to half that in the year that General Custer was killed, then leveling off at an average of about 26, for the remaining years up to the War with Spain. Effective strength always lay somewhere below authorized strength, seriously impaired, for example, by high rates of sickness and desertion. The Army was, therefore, organized on a territorial basis, with geographical segments variously designated as divisions, departments, and districts. There were frequent modifications of organization, rearrangements of boundaries, and transfers of troops and posts to meet changing conditions. Development of a basic defense system in the trans-Mississippi West had followed the course of empire; territorial acquisition and exploration succeeded by emigration and settlement brought the whites increasingly into collision with the Indians and progressively raised the need for military posts along the transcontinental trails and in settled areas. The annexation of Texas in , the settlement of the Oregon boundary dispute in , and the successful conclusion of the Mexican War with the cession to the United States in of vast areas of land, all drew the outlines of the major task facing the Army in the West in the middle of the nineteenth century. During the period between the Mexican and Civil Wars, the Army established a reasonably comprehensive system of forts to protect the arteries of white travel and areas of white settlement across the frontier. At the same time, operations were launched against Indian tribes that represented actual or potential threats to movement and settlement. Militarily successful in some cases, these operations nevertheless hardened Indian opposition, prompted wider red provocation, and led to the delineation of an Indian barrier to westward expansion extending down the Great Plains from the Canadian to the Mexican border. Brigadier General William S. Harney, for example, responded to the massacre of Lieutenant John L. Farther south Colonel Edwin V. There were various expeditions against various branches of the elusive Apache involving hard campaigning but few conclusive engagements such as the one at Rio Gila in It was in this region in that Lieutenant George N. Bascom moved against Chief Cochise , precipitating events that

opened a quarter century of hostilities with the Chiricahua Apache. Their general character was similar to operations elsewhere: The Army, often at odds with civil authority and public opinion in the area, found it necessary on occasion to protect Indians from whites as well as the other way around. Although the red man demonstrated an awareness of what was going on and took some satisfaction from the fact that white men were fighting each other, there is little evidence that he took advantage of the transition period between removal of the Regulars and deployment of the volunteers. The so-called Great Sioux Uprising in Minnesota in that produced active campaigning in the Upper Missouri River region in and was spontaneous, and other clashes around the West were the result, not of the withdrawal of the Regular Army from the West, but of the play of more fundamental and established forces.

Chapter 5 : Native Americans: 's - 's by Shivane Patel on Prezi

American-Indian Wars Warfare between Europeans and Indians was common in the seventeenth century. In , the Powhatan Confederacy nearly wiped out the struggling Jamestown colony.

Chapter 6 : The American Indian wars, (Men-at-arms series)-ExLibrary | eBay

Thus, the Indian Wars of to were caused by the American desire for more land, and the wars resulted in the destruction of the Indians' way of life and the opening of the West for.

Chapter 7 : The Army In The Indian Wars, " Legends of America

American Indian Wars Perhaps because of a tendency to view the record of a military establishment in terms of conflict, the U.S. Army's operational experience in the quarter century following the Civil War has come to be known as the Indian Wars.

Chapter 8 : American-Indian Wars - HISTORY

Part of the Spanish American wars of independence: Texas-Indian wars Barasa-Ubaidat War.

Chapter 9 : Causes of Indian Wars by Sarah Campbell on Prezi

Western Indian Wars Back to conflict menu A fter the Civil War, thousands of Americans poured into the Great Plains on a collision course with western Indian tribes.