

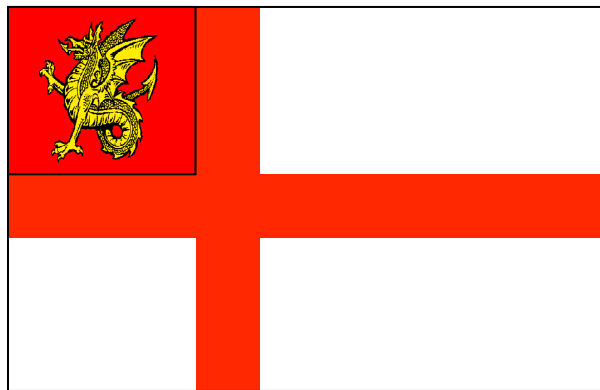


The Descendants of

JOSEPH STANFORD, SR.

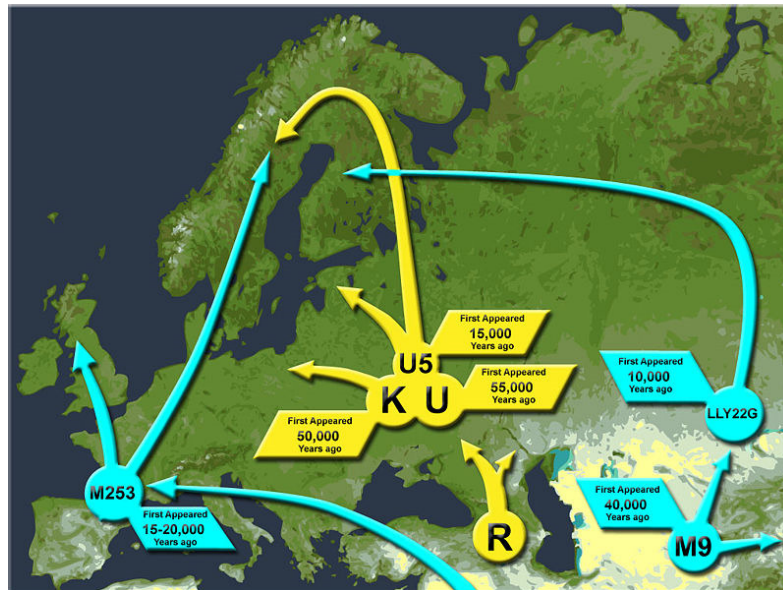
1660 - 1723

Wicomico 100, (Old) Somerset County,
Maryland



Stanford Family Origins and Coming to America

Generic Y-DNA analysis of 9th and 10th generation direct male descendants of Joseph Stanford indicates that our family is genetically identified by the I1a, I1-AS, or I1-M253 haplogroup...a specific set of genetic mutation markers. Haplogroup I is an European haplogroup, representing nearly one-fifth of Europe's population. It is almost non-existent outside of Europe, suggesting that it arose in Europe due to mutation. Estimates of the age of this haplogroup suggest that it arose prior to the last Glacial Maximum approximately 14-20,000 years ago and was distributed as shown by the following figure:



I1-M253 has highest frequency in Scandinavia, Iceland, and northwest Europe. In Britain, haplogroup I1-M253 is often used as a marker for "invaders," either Danes or Anglo-Saxon.

Extending genetic evaluation of Y-Chromosome DNA shows a very high probability that the family origin is Anglo-Saxon, with the closest modern-day genetic matches in east and south England, Germany, and Scotland, in that order.

For more detail about genetic analysis, haplogroup I1-M253, and the migration of ancient peoples being tracked by genetic mutation, see [Wikipedia](#) and the National Geographic [Genographic](#) Project.

Britain was settled when sea levels were much lower than today's, making Britain an extension of the European continent. Early Neolithic hunters crossed the land bridge from Europe following the withdrawal of the ice sheets and others soon followed. These "Britons" gradually settled the Britain from the Firths of Forth and Clyde in the north to the English Channel in the south. They were widely dispersed and organized essentially along tribal lines until after the appearance of the Romans in the first century BC.

The Roman conquest of Britain was a fairly gradual process, beginning effectively in AD 43 under Emperor Claudius, whose general Aulus Plautius served as first governor of Britannia. However, well before this time, Britain already had diplomatic and trading links with the Romans (dating from Julius Caesar's expeditions to Britain in 55 and 54 BC) and Roman economic and cultural influence was already a significant part of the British culture, especially in the south.

Between 55 BC and the 40s AD, the status quo of tribute, hostages, and client state, without direct military occupation, begun by Caesar's invasions of Britain largely remained

intact. During this period, it is reported that Britain paid more to Rome in customs and duties than could be raised by taxation if the island were conquered.

By 43 AD, however, the political situation within Britain was apparently in ferment and the first of a series of military operations by Rome began. These operations continued for almost 100 years before the many British tribes were effectively brought under full Roman control.

After about 250 AD, hostile "uncivilized barbarian" forces from outside the Roman empire had begun to threaten many of its provinces, including Britain. And, during the 3rd and 4th centuries, the Roman empire was weakened by disputes between rival army commanders competing to be named emperor. Strong emperors like Constantine and Theodosius were able to prevent the empire from falling apart, but by about 400 AD, the barbarians could no longer be resisted.

When the Romans invaded Britain in the year 43 AD, they brought 40,000 men to do the job. By the middle of the 4th century, however, there were probably far fewer Roman soldiers in Britain, most having been withdrawn by one emperor or the other to help fend off attacks in other parts of the empire and at home in Rome. After about 402 AD, Roman coinage stopped coming to Britain. Thus, Rome's soldiers (most of whom were British by this time) were no longer paid and Rome stopped collecting taxes. By about 410 AD, almost all Romans had left and Britain had ceased to be a part of the Roman empire!

Barbarian tribes had been moving westward across Europe since the mid-third century and may have made raids on Britain around this time. As the Romans left, the Scotti and Picts, tribes to the west and north (today's Ireland and Scotland), began to raid across the borders. Lacking Roman defenders, Britons solicited Germanic troops from the continent as mercenaries. The Venerable Bede, whose *Ecclesiastical History of the English People*, written in the eighth century, is the most valuable source for this era, gives the year of the invitation as around 450 and characterizes the soldiers as coming from "three very powerful Germanic tribes, the Saxons, Angles, and Jutes." Scholars locate the homelands of these tribes in Germany, the northern Netherlands, and Denmark.

Enticed by reports of the richness of the land and the "slackness of the Britons," the soldiers in the first three ships were followed by more, and soon, Bede noted, "hordes of these peoples eagerly crowded into the island and the number of foreigners began to increase to such an extent that they became a source of terror to the natives." The British monk Gildas, whose sixth-century treatise *On the Ruin of Britain* is the earliest surviving account of this period, describes the ensuing island wide bloodshed and scorched-earth tactics at the hands of the invaders: "For the fire of vengeance...spread from sea to sea...and did not cease, until, destroying the neighboring towns and lands, it reached the other side of the island."

According to Gildas, many in the "miserable remnant" of surviving native Britons fled or were enslaved. But archaeological evidence suggests that at least some post-Roman

settlements adopted Germanic fashions in pottery and clothing and burial practices; in other words, British culture vanished at least in part through cultural assimilation. The extent of the Anglo-Saxons' appropriation of Britain is starkly revealed in their most enduring legacy, the English language. While much of Europe emerged from the post-Roman world speaking Romance languages derived from the Latin of the bygone Romans, the language that would define England was Germanic.

The Saxons gave their name to Essex ("East Saxons"), Middlesex ("Middle Saxons"), Sussex ("South Saxons") and Wessex ("West Saxons"). The Angles were in East Anglia, Mercia, Bernicia and Deira, while the Jutes were in Kent and the Isle of Wight.

The term "Anglo-Saxon" is from writings going back to the time of King Alfred the Great, who seems to have frequently used the title *rex Anglorum Saxonum* or *rex Angul-Saxonum* (king of the English Saxons). The indigenous British people, who wrote in both Latin and Gaelic, generally referred to these invaders as *Saxones* or *Saeson* and the latter is still used today in the Welsh and Scots words for 'English' people.

In modern usage, "Anglo-Saxon" (or simply "Saxon") is generally used to mean people predominantly descended from the English ethnic group, in England as well as other Anglophone countries such as the United States.

By the end of the 8th century, almost all of England south of the Firths of Forth and Clyde was under Saxon control. However, this area was divided into seven large Saxon kingdoms (Northumbria, Mercia, Kent, East Anglia, Essex, Sussex and Wessex, as shown by the accompanying map), along with Celtic Wales, Cumbria, etc. and several smaller Saxon kingdoms. But, raids and then invasions by the Danes was to initiate three centuries of conflict and change that would ultimately bring about the creation of the English nation.



The first recorded Dane attack in Britain was in 793 at Lindisfarne monastery as given by the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle. (The term "Dane" identifies the Danes and Norwegians who were the Scandinavian powers at this time. During the 8th-9th centuries all of what is now Denmark, Norway, and most of Sweden was under control of the Danish kings. The term "viking" does not describe a people but an activity...to go "viking" meant simply to go "raiding". The term was rarely used by the early English writers, who referred to the invaders as Northmen, pagans, or Danes.) However, by then the Danes were almost certainly well established in Orkney and Shetland, and it is probable that many other non-recorded raids occurred before this.

After a time of plunder and raids, the Danes began to settle in England and made enough of an impact to leave significant traces in the English language; many fundamental words in modern English are derived from Old Danish. Similarly, many place-names in the east and north of England have Scandinavian roots. For example, Howe, Norfolk and Howe, North Yorkshire, both derive their name from the Old Danish word *haugr* meaning hill, knoll, or mound

An important development during the ninth century was the rise of the Kingdom of Wessex under Saxon King Alfred the Great. Though not without setbacks, by the end of Alfred's reign the West Saxons ruled what had previously been Wessex, Sussex, and Kent. Cornwall was subject to West Saxon dominance, and several kings of the more southerly Welsh kingdoms recognized Alfred as their overlord, as did western Mercia under Alfred's son-in-law Æthelred (eastern Mercia remaining under control of the Danes).

The arrival of the Danes upset the political and social geography of Britain and Ireland. While Alfred's victory at Edington in 878 stemmed the Danish tide, by then Northumbria had devolved into Bernicia and a Danish kingdom, Mercia had been split down the middle, and East Anglia ceased to exist as an Anglo-Saxon polity. The Danes had similar effects on the various kingdoms of the Irish, Scots, Picts and (to a lesser extent) Welsh. In North Britain the Danes were one reason behind the formation of the Kingdom of Alba, which eventually evolved into Scotland.

Alfred died in 899 and was succeeded by his son Edward the Elder. Edward, and his brother-in-law Æthelred (of what was left of Mercia), fought off Dane attacks and began a program of expansion, seizing territory from the Danes and establishing fortifications to defend it. By 918 Edward had gained control of the whole of England south of the Humber. In that year Mercia was fully integrated with Wessex into a single kingdom. However, after the death of Edward's son Æthelstan, the unification of England was repeatedly contested. His successors Edmund and Eadred each lost control of Northumbria to fresh Dane attacks before regaining it once more. Nevertheless, by the time of Eadred's successor Edgar, who ruled the same expanse as Æthelstan, the unification of England had been permanently established.

There were renewed Dane attacks on England in the final decade of the 10th century, coinciding with the start of the reign of Æthelred. Æthelred ruled a long reign, but ultimately lost his kingdom to the Danes King Sweyn of Denmark. When Æthelred's eldest son Edmund II ("Ironside") died shortly after him, Cnut the Great, Sweyn's son, became king of England, now part of a Danish empire stretching from Denmark to Ireland.

Rule over England fluctuated between the descendants of Æthelred and Canute for the first half of the 11th century. Ultimately this resulted, by 1066, in several people having a claim to the English throne. The most powerful Earl in England, Harold Godwinson, claimed the crown on 5 January 1066, within a day of the death of Edward the Confessor, and was confirmed by the English *witan* (council of nobles). However, William of Normandy in France (also of Danish descent), who was a relation of Æthelred's second wife Emma,

and Harald Hardrada of Norway, aided by Harold Godwinson's estranged brother Tostig, also laid claim to the crown.

War was the result of these conflicting claims. Harold Godwinson defeated Harald of Norway and his brother Tostig at the Battle of Stamford (or Stamford) Bridge, a small village at the bridge that crosses the river Derwent about 7 miles east of York, on September 25, 1066. The death of Harald Hardrada and the massacre of the Dane army during this battle was such a devastating defeat that England was never again menaced by the Danes. However, this battle was hardly over before Harold learned of the invasion by William of Normandy at Hastings. Marching rapidly southeast to meet William, Harold's smaller and very tired army was defeated by William's Norman forces and tactics at Hastings on October 14, 1066.

Surnames developed in England after the Norman invasion as government introduced personal taxation. And, today, the Stamford surname is found in almost every county in England, but, based on the 1891 census, it is most common in the Southeast (Middlesex, Sussex, and Surrey), the East (Kent, Essex, Suffolk, and Norfolk), and the Midlands (Warwickshire, West Midlands, and Staffordshire)...the areas that were not settled by Danes as part of the Danelaw in the 9th through 11th centuries. Since our Stamford family is undoubtedly Anglo-Saxon in origin, it makes sense that we probably originated in one of these counties of England.

The International Genealogical Index lumps the surnames Stafford, Sanford, Safford and Stamford under the surname Stauffer and includes a large number of variant spellings, including Standford, Staniford, Staniforth, Stanyforth, Stamford, Stadford, Stafford, Staddard, Stauffer, etc. But, the most common of these that also share genetic markers are "Stanford" and "Stafford".

"Stanford/Stafford" is an old geographical or habitational name from any of various places named Stanford or Stamford or Stafford, all named from Old English stan(en) 'stone' or stæf 'landing place' + forda 'ford'. In a few cases, the surname can be topographical and denote a ford marked with staves.

These places were variously recorded as "Stanford" and "Stanforda" in the Domesday Book of 1086-87. Today's gazetteers list the following Stanford/Stafford/Stamford place names in England, many of which appear in the Domesday Book:

- Stafford, Staffordshire
- Stamford Bridge, East Riding, Yorkshire
- Stamfordham, Northumberland
- Stamford, South Kesteven, Lincolnshire
- Stanford on Soar, Rushcliffe, Nottinghamshire
- Stanford, Breckland, Norfolk
- Stanford le Hope, Essex
- Stanford on Avon, Daventry, Northamptonshire

Stanford on Teme, Malvern Hills, Worcestershire
Stanford/Standford, Shepway, Kent
Stanford Rivers, Epping Forest, Essex
Stanford Bishop, Hertfordshire
Stanford Bridge, Chester, Chesire
Stanford, Bedfordshire
Stanford Digley, Berkshire
Stanford in the Vale, Oxfordshire
Stanford Hill, Greater London

Oddly enough, the Stanford surname is also common among the "Travellers" of England. Since the early 1500s, Romany "Gypsies", who originated in India about 400 AD, have been in England and to this day are found in the Southeast and Midlands. Over the centuries, folks of English descent adopted the Gypsy nomadic life style and became Travellers also, moving from place to place, job to job with the seasons.

The Gypsies survived numerous persecutions over the years and became a useful part of country life...farmers used Gypsies and other Travellers for many years to harvest the crops. They were useful in that they were itinerant and after their work was done were happy to move on elsewhere.

As everyone learned in elementary school, Christopher Columbus, an Italian with the backing of Spain, discovered what was to become America in 1492. But, even though Spain established colonial centers in America as early as 1510, the English didn't establish a permanent New World settlement until Jamestown, Virginia in 1607.

The Virginia Company was a pair of English joint stock companies chartered by James I on 10 April 1606 with the purposes of establishing settlements on the coast of North America. The two companies, called the "Virginia Company of London" (or the London Company) and the "Virginia Company of Plymouth" (or Plymouth Company) operated with identical charters but with differing territories. On 14 May 1607, the London Company established the Jamestown Settlement about 40 miles inland along the James River in present-day Virginia.

To the disappointment of its investors, the Virginia Company of London failed to discover gold or silver in Virginia. However, the company did establish trade of various types...furs, Indian tobacco, etc. The biggest trade breakthrough came when colonist John Rolfe (who married Pocahontas) introduced several sweeter strains of tobacco from the Caribbean (rather than the harsh-tasting kind native to Virginia). Rolfe's tobacco strains led to a significant export for the Virginia Company (and other early English colonies).

Virginia and the Eastern Shore of Maryland, which had closer ties to Virginia than to Maryland until the late 19th century, was peopled by two distinct types of settlers, characterized by Gerald W. Johnson in *Our English Heritage* as the "expendables" and the "indispensables".

The first element of settlers were the expendables, sentenced by English courts to “transportation” to the colonies as punishment (typically resulting in sure death from hardship, disease, and/or Indians) for simply being a person who, in the judgement of the court, fell in one of the categories of undesirables defined in an act of Parliament of 1572, generally referenced as “39 Eliz. c. 4”. Even as late as 1718, when Virginia refused to take any more “transportees”, England continued to exile thousands of individuals to the America and, later, Australia.

Who were these expendables? At the beginning of the 17th century, England was suffering from what the authorities considered over-population. It was, however, the effect of a disastrous land policy, the so-called “enclosures” whereby immense tracts were expropriated by great proprietors and the people driven from the fields to huddle in the town or to wander about begging. Since the government felt no obligation to care for these “rogues and vagabonds”, the Law empowered justices of the peace to banish them out of the realm...and what better place to dump them than in the New World.

Most transportees simply died...a wastrel’s life in England did not exactly provide one with the skills necessary to succeed in a frontier land. Dysentery, malaria, tuberculosis, lead poisoning, etc. killed many. Indians killed others. Malnutrition impacting on already poor physical condition added to the toll.

The Virginia Company, and later the Crown, recognized early on that transportees made poor colonists. If economic development of the colony was important, settlers with skills...carpenters, farmers, etc...were sorely needed. To attract these people, indispensable to the success of the colony, The London Company offered a very valuable commodity, land.

The industrial revolution has not yet come to England. So, skilled workers, while they may have had difficulty imagining themselves rich in a monetary sense, certainly could consider themselves rich if they owned their own farm or shop. In their experience, people who owned property could not be browbeaten or pushed around by anyone. Suffrage was linked to property and to be a freeholder meant that a man counted in public affairs. *Land meant not only economic success, but freedom.*

The Virginia Company offered 50 acres to skilled persons in return for passage to Virginia and 7 years (later, 4 years) indenture or service. While this sounds unreasonable under our 21st century value system, this was an astonishingly fair offer in the middle of the 17th century. Literally thousands of dissatisfied Englishmen (along with their wives, children, goods, and even money) indentured themselves to get a start in the New World as, ultimately, a freeholder. Most of these indispensables were literate (in fact, the literacy rate in Virginia in 1619 exceeded its literacy rate in 1719) and hard working. And, because, they had greater skills and were supported to ensure economic success, their survival rate was much higher than for transportees.

Discontent with their lives in England was a major factor for the indispensables. While poverty may have been the major concern, the 17th century was a time of savage persecution of minorities of all types...religious, political, social, or any other...in England. Political and religious convolutions in England, including the conflicts between Parliament and James I, Charles I's reign that culminated in the English Civil War and Cromwell's rule, Charles II's womanizing and disastrous military campaigns, the banishment of James II, and the importation of William and Mary from Holland to sit on the English throne, all of which occurred between 1603 and 1689, perhaps, made the New World an attractive alternative.

Our earliest recorded ancestor is **Joseph Stanford**, who was born about 1660. There are no records of Joseph prior to 1692, when his daughter Anne was born, so we do not know if he immigrated from England or was born in Virginia or Maryland. One account, from the Henry King Stanford family bible of 1845, is that Joseph and his wife arrived from England on the Eastern Shore of Maryland in 1683 with "three brothers sons". Another account is that he arrived with four brothers, while another brother emigrated to Ireland and one stayed in England. Neither of these, or any other, accounts can be verified. Historians have found that 70-85% of the English immigrants to Virginia and Maryland were indentured servants, so it is possible that Joseph was one also (or, at least, the descendant of one).

Given the dates and circumstances of Joseph's settlement in Somerset County, it is very probable that he was an indentured servant who came to the Eastern Shore in the 1680s to work on the tobacco plantations. As the population in England expanded in the mid-17th century, more and more were forced off the land to settle in London and Bristol. When offered a chance to become "servants" of Maryland landowners, many considered the terms of servitude to be very attractive. Merchants gave the poor free passage to Maryland in return for the right to sell their labor for specified period of time. The government of the colony, guaranteed the servant, when free, a small stake of food, clothing, and tools and the right to patent a tract of land.

In 1695, Joseph "patented" a plantation he named "Long Ridge" in the Princess Anne District of Somerset County, Maryland, near the head of Wicomico Creek. From tax records, we know the family stayed in this area for many years. The children's birth records are registered at the Green Hill Church in Stepney Parish in (current) Wicomico County, Maryland.

Since all land in Maryland had been given by the King to Lord Baltimore, an individual who wanted a grant of land had to apply to Lord Baltimore or to Lord Baltimore's Land Office. Until 1680, the records might read that whereas "John Doe" was due so many acres of land because he had brought himself and/or family and or servants into the Province, an order or "Warrant", was issued to the county surveyor to lay out so many acres of land and to create a document known as a Certificate of Survey.

Certificates of survey described tracts of land in various counties, giving the actual

dimensions, or metes and bounds of the survey, and are usually accompanied by a scale drawing of the survey. Boundary trees and rocks, and bodies of water, may be indicated.

The next step was to obtain a "patent" for the land. Patents are documents granting ownership rights to some previously unclaimed property and has the nature of a deed, containing a description of the property and conditions of tenure. It sometimes happened that a man might apply for a warrant and have the land surveyed, and the would die before the land was patented. The warrant and certificate of survey might be in the name of "Richard Roe," and the patent might be in the name of John, Joseph, Mary, and Elizabeth Roe, children of Richard Roe, deceased.

Of interest (and dismay!) to many Stanford family researchers, records from the 17th and early 18th centuries show that there were two different Stanford families living at the same time on the Eastern Shore of Maryland: descendants of Joseph Stanford of (Old) Somerset County (modern Somerset/Wicomico/Worcester Counties in Maryland and Sussex County in Delaware) and another Stanford family that settled in Dorchester County.

This *other* Stanford family appears to have been founded by a John Stanford, who was transported to Maryland from England about 1679 and settled in the Nanticoke 100 of Dorchester County, Maryland. In about 1685 he married Mary and had five sons...John Jr., Charles, William, Samuel, and Thomas. Members of this family predominately migrated to North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and southern Mississippi (while ours went to Georgia, Alabama, Florida, northern Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas). There are no records connecting the two families and genetic evidence *clearly* indicates the two families are not related.

A letter written by James Leland Stanford (1885-1926) on 5 Oct 1906 provides an account of family legends evidently passed down to him through his father Lycurgus Leven Stanford (1831-1917) from Joseph Stanford (b. abt 1789, Maryland, d. Nov 1860, Putnam County, Georgia).

Origin of the Stanford name: Leland Stanford's letter states that "We are members of the Scotch Clan, Athelstanford, which originated in the year 934 A.D. In that year, Athelstan, King of England, invaded Scotland with a great army. Acaius, King of Scotland, and Hugus, his ally, opposed them. On the third day, the Scotch forces were located on one of three hills, the one in the center. The English occupied the other two and the Scotch were completely hemmed in save for the East.

"Just at dawn, the battle began anew. Hugus, looking to the East, saw a Cross of St. Andrews, our patron in olden times, waving from an adjoining crag; reinforcements had arrived. It was our Clan. It was stationed at a little river with orders to 'stand at the ford'.

"When the battle was over, the Scotch were victorious. The King of Scotland sent for our Chieftain and told him that, 'Henceforth, your Clan shall be called Athelstanford

because this day you have served Scotland so well and Athelstan is whipped. You obeyed your orders and stood at the ford, hence your name.

"Only six of our men, beside the Chieftain, survived the battle. They returned to their mountain homes for they were Highlanders and cared for the same, women and children. They took an oath that they would love and aid their Kin through 'ninth cousins'."

A little research clearly shows that the Joseph/Lycircus/Leland Stanford account is a self-serving version of the old legend of Athelstaneford, a village in East Lothian, Scotland, close to the town of Haddington, about 20 miles east of Edinburgh. (The village is also known locally as Elshingford.)

According to popular legend, Athelstaneford is where the original Scottish "saltire" or St. Andrews Cross, the white diagonal cross on a sky blue background, was first adopted. There are numerous versions of the story, of which the following is are the more popular.

One version of the story is that on the eve of a battle between an army of the Picts and invading Saxons from Northumbria in 832 AD, Saint Andrew, who had been crucified on a diagonal cross, came to the Pictish King Óengus II in a vision promising victory. The next morning the Picts observed a white cross formed by clouds in the sky. They won the battle the leader of the retreating Saxons, Athelstan, was slain at a nearby river crossing, hence the name Athelstaneford. The Picts attributed their victory to the blessing of Saint Andrew, adopting his form of the cross as their flag, and naming him as their patron saint.

A second version of the story, presented by Scotland's National Flag Heritage Centre, is that the flag originated in a battle fought close to Athelstaneford about 832 AD when an army of Picts under King Angus, and aided by a contingent of Scots, was invading Lothians (at that time still Northumbrian territory), and found itself surrounded by a larger force of Saxons led by Athelstan. Fearing the outcome, Angus led prayers for deliverance and was rewarded by seeing a cloud formation of a white saltire, the diagonal cross on which St Andrew had been martyred, against the blue sky. The king vowed that if, with the saint's help, he gained the victory, then Andrew would thereafter be the patron saint of Scotland. The Scots did win, and the Saltire became the flag of Scotland.

And, another version is that in AD 735 the king of the Picts, 'Aengus MacFergus', with the support of 'Scots' from Dalriada, won a great battle against King Athelstane of the Northumbrians. It is said that before the battle, King Aengus dreamt of St Andrew bearing his Saltire cross. According to the legend, during the battle Aengus saw a cross of white clouds against a blue sky. The Picts and Scots won the battle. The Saltire, a white diagonal cross on a blue background, became the flag of Scotland and St. Andrew was adopted as Scotland's patron saint.

No matter which version is believed, it is obvious that the Athelstan in the Stanford legend is not the Athelstan, King of England, who fought Constantine, King of the Scots, in 934 AD.

Æthelstan or Athelstan (c. 893/895 – 27 Oct 939) was the King of England from 924 or 925 to 939. He was the son of King Edward the Elder and his first wife, Ecgwynn, grandson of King Alfred the Great who established the West Saxon line of kings.

Æthelstan's success in securing the submission of Constantine II, King of Scots, at the Treaty of Eamont Bridge in 927 allowed him to claim the title of 'king of the English', and even "by wishful extension" 'king of Britain'. Victory over Scottish and Viking forces at the Battle of Brunanburh in 937 confirmed his prestige. Æthelstan, effectively, was the first King of all England.

On 17 Jul 924 Edward died, and the events which followed are very unclear. Ælfweard, Edward's eldest son by Ælfflæd, had been ranked above Æthelstan at a meeting in 901, and Edward may have intended Ælfweard to be his successor as king, either of Wessex only or of the whole kingdom. When Edward died Æthelstan was apparently with him in Mercia while Ælfweard was in Wessex, and Mercia elected Æthelstan as king and Wessex Ælfweard. Whether a division of the kingdom was intended is uncertain, but Ælfweard only outlived his father by sixteen days, which changed everything. Even after this there seems to have been opposition to Æthelstan in Wessex, particularly in Winchester, where Ælfweard was buried. Æthelstan does not appear to have established his authority in Wessex until mid-925, and he was not crowned until 4 Sep 925.

Political alliances seem to have been high on Athelstan's agenda. Only a year after his crowning he married one of his sisters to Sihtric Cáech, the Viking King of Northumbria at Tamworth, who acknowledged Æthelstan as over-king, adopting Christianity. Sihtric died suddenly in 927 and his kinsman, perhaps brother, Gofraid, who had remained as his deputy in Dublin, came from Ireland to take power in York, but failed. Æthelstan moved quickly, seizing much of Northumbria. This bold move brought the whole of England under one ruler for the first time, although this unity did not become permanent until 954. In less than a decade, the kingdom of the English had become by far the greatest power in the British Isles, perhaps stretching as far north as the Firth of Forth.

Initially the other rulers in Great Britain seem to have submitted to Athelstan at Bamburgh: "first Hywel, King of the West Welsh [and perhaps the "Hugus" in the Stanford legend], and Constantine II, King of Scots, and Owain, King of the people of Gwent, and Ealdred...of Bamburgh" records the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle. William of Malmesbury adds that Owain of Strathclyde was also present.

Similar events are recorded along the western marches of Athelstan's domain. According to William of Malmesbury, Athelstan had the kings of the North British

(meaning the Welsh) submit to him at Hereford, where he exacted a heavy tribute from them. The reality of his influence in Wales is underlined by the Welsh poem *Armes Prydein Fawr*, and by the appearance of the Welsh kings as *subreguli* in the charters of 'Athelstan A'. Similarly, he drove the West Welsh (meaning the Cornish) out of Exeter, and established the border of Cornwall along the River Tamar.

John of Worcester's chronicle suggests that Æthelstan faced opposition from Constantine, from Owain of Strathclyde, and from the Welsh kings. William of Malmesbury writes that Gofraid, together with Sihtric's young son Olaf Cuaran fled north and received refuge from Constantine, which led to war with Æthelstan. A meeting at Eamont Bridge on 12 July 927 was sealed by an agreement that Constantine, Eógan of Strathclyde, Hywel Dda, and Ealdred would "renounce all idolatry": that is, they would not ally with the Viking kings. William states that Æthelstan stood godfather to a son of Constantine, probably Indulf (Ildulb mac Constantín), during the conference.

For the next seven years, the record of events in the north is blank. Æthelstan's court was attended by the Welsh kings, but not by Constantine or Eógan of Strathclyde. This absence of record means that Æthelstan's reasons for marching north against Constantine in 934 are unclear. Æthelstan's campaign is reported in brief by the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, and later chroniclers such as John of Worcester, William of Malmesbury, Henry of Huntingdon, and Symeon of Durham add detail to that bald account. Æthelstan's army began gathering at Winchester by 28 May 934, and reached Nottingham by 7 June. He was accompanied by many leaders, including the Welsh kings Hywel Dda, Idwal Foel, and Morgan ab Owain. From Mercia the army went north, stopping at Chester-le-Street, before resuming the march accompanied by a fleet of ships. Eógan of Strathclyde was defeated and Symeon states that the army went as far north as Dunnottar and Fortriu.

The Annals of Clonmacnoise state that "the Scottish men compelled [Æthelstan] to return without any great victory", while Henry of Huntingdon claims that the English faced no opposition. A negotiated settlement may have ended matter: according to John of Worcester, a son of Constantine was given as a hostage to Æthelstan and Constantín himself accompanied the English king on his return south. He witnessed a charter with Æthelstan at Buckingham on 13 Sep 934 in which he is described as *subregulus*, that is a king acknowledging Æthelstan's overlordship. The following year, Constantine was again in England at Æthelstan's court, this time at Cirencester where he appears as a witness, appearing as the first of several subject kings, followed by Eógan of Strathclyde and Hywel Dda, who subscribed to the diploma.

Thus, the Scots did not defeat Æthelstan in 934 and there is no evidence of any connection by our family with the village of Athelstaneford in Scotland. Genetic evidence clearly shows that the Stanford family is not Scots (or Pictish) in origin.

Coming to America: Leland Stanford's letter states that "[In] one family of the Clan, there survived six sons. Four came to America and settled on the East shore of the

Chesapeake Bay, one went to Ireland, and one remained in England. The four that came to America were Joseph Stanford, Joshua Stanford, James Stanford, Lieutenant, and John Stanford."

This legend has grain of truth in it...Joseph Stanford and his wife Jane did settle on the Eastern Shore of Maryland about 1690. And, in the Stanford family the names Joseph, Joshua, James and John appear repeatedly. But, research of early Maryland records, etc. does not reveal the early presence of any Stanford in Somerset County other than Joseph.

Important notes:

1. The family crest shown above is that of the Stanford family of Staffordshire and is simply "decorative"... there is no evidence that the descendants of Joseph Stanford are entitled to it or any other heraldry.
2. The flag above is a composite of two standards:
 - a. The St. George's Cross flag, which is believed to have been adopted for the uniform of English soldiers during the Crusades of the eleventh, twelfth and thirteenth centuries, particularly by the Knights Templar. About 1277, it officially became the national flag of England. After the Union of the Crowns of England, Scotland, and Northern Ireland, a combined flag was created in 1801, the "Union Jack", combining the crosses of St. George, St. Andrew, and St. Patrick, the patron saints of each county. However, the flag of England (as opposed to the United Kingdom) remains the St. George's Cross and continues to be used when showing allegiance to England alone.
 - b. The golden "wyvern" (two-legged dragon) flag of Wessex, the kingdom of the "West Saxons", was carried by the English under King Harold Godwinson at both of his last battles, those of Stamford Bridge and Hastings. This flag is illustrated within the Bayeux Tapestry.



The Family in Maryland

Giovanni da Verrazano is thought to have visited the Atlantic coast near Chincoteague Bay in Maryland in 1524. In 1526, Spanish explorers sailed into Chesapeake Bay and called it Santa Maria, a name that appears on a 1556 map. In 1608, Captain John Smith of Virginia became the first authenticated European visitor when he made a tour of the Bay area. In late 1631, William Clairborne established a fur-trading post, which is regarded as the first permanent European settlement in Maryland, on Kent Island (opposite Annapolis). At the time of early European settlement, the principal Indian groups were three Algonquian tribes, the Piscataway on the Western Shore, who left the area in 1697; and the Nanticoke and Pocomoke-Assateague on the Eastern Shore, who migrated westward in the 1740s. The Susquehannock also inhabited the area, but in 1675 they were carried into captivity by the Iroquois Nations.

In 1632, King Charles I of England granted George Calvert, 1st Baron Baltimore, settlement rights to lands between the 40th parallel and the south bank of the Potomac. Calvert died before the papers were complete and the charter passed to his son Cecilius (Cecil) Calvert, 2d Baron Baltimore. In November 1633, 200 colonists set sail from England in the *Ark* and the *Dove*, which landed on March 24, 1634, at Saint Clement (now Blakistone) Island at the mouth of the Potomac. They purchased the Indian village of Yaocomico, which they renamed St. Mary's (now St. Mary's City) and used it for 60 years as the capital and center of the colony.

Maryland developed from a tract of country belonging to the original grant of Virginia and the exact boundaries of the new Maryland colony were not accurately described by the Crown. This, in turn, led to a dispute with Virginia that would not be settled until late in the 18th century when the Mason-Dixon line was surveyed to divide the two states.

Before colonization began, the first Lord Baltimore died and left the grant to his son, Cecilius, the second Lord Baltimore. Since the charter did not expressly prohibit the

establishment of non-Protestant churches, Cecilius Calvert encouraged fellow Catholics to settle there.

While establishing a refuge for Catholics who were facing increasing persecution in Anglican England, the Calverts also were interested in creating profitable estates. To this end, and to avoid trouble with the British government, they also encouraged Protestant immigration.

Maryland's first town, St. Mary's, was established by both Protestants and Catholics in 1634. Arriving in the *Ark* and the *Dove*, they carefully chose a location high on a bluff near the point where the Potomac River flows into Chesapeake Bay.

The royal charter granted to the Calvert family embodied a mixture of feudal and modern elements. They were given the power to create manorial estates, but were limited to making laws only with the consent of the freemen (property holders). To attract and hold settlers, and to make the venture profitable, the family offered a limited form of land ownership. The number of independent farms grew and the farmers demanded a voice in the affairs of the colony. Maryland's first legislature, the House of Delegates, met in 1635.

Protestants quickly outnumbered Catholics, a development that led to the passage of the Toleration Act in 1649. This interesting statement of religious toleration provided freedom of worship to all who believed in the divinity of Jesus, but decreed the death penalty for those denying the Trinity.

From 1692 to 1715, Maryland was a crown colony, ruled by royal governors and during this period the Church of England was established as the official state religion. The Baltimores regained control in 1715 and religious freedom was reinstated in the colony.

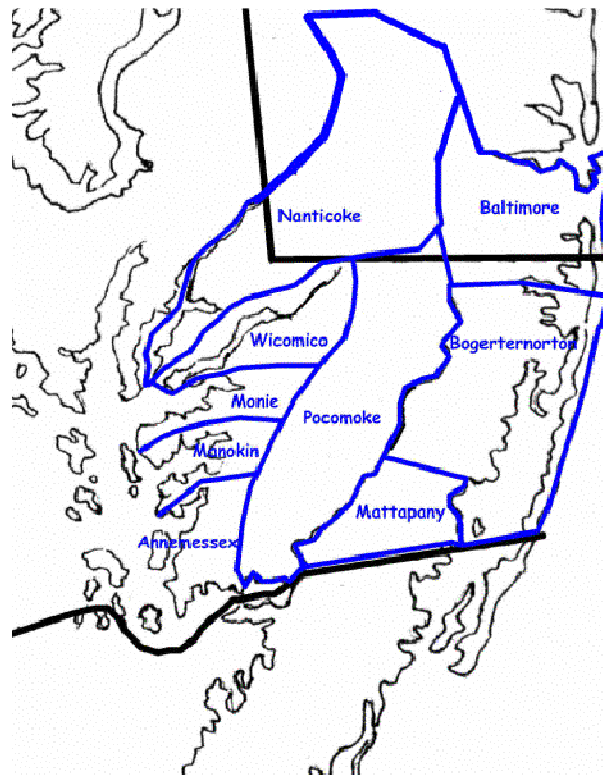
At first, the colony had a diversified agriculture, but by the end of the 17th century tobacco was the important "cash" crop and dominated agriculture.

In 1661, the Eastern Shore of Maryland was opened for settlement. Cecil, Lord Baltimore, Lord Proprietor of the Province of Maryland proclaimed on August 23, 1666 that Somerset County would be "bounded south with a line from Watkin's Point (being the north point of that bay into which the River Wighco formly called Wighcocomoco afterwards Pocomoke and Wighcocomoco againe, doth fall exclusively) to the Ocean on the east; Nanticoke River on the North & the Sound of Chesapeake Bay on the West." Somerset County was named for Lady Mary Somerset, sister of Cecilius Calvert's wife, Lady Anne Arundel.

Old Somerset County, from whence our ancestors relocated to Georgia, is located in the lower Eastern Shore and once encompassed a much larger area than the current boundaries. First, in 1669, Somerset lost land when the Delaware/Maryland boundary was realigned and part of Somerset County, Maryland became Sussex County, Delaware. In 1742, Worcester County to the east was formed from Somerset and, in 1867, Wicomico County, to the northeast, took more land from Somerset. Close neighbors to Somerset are

Dorchester County, Maryland to the northwest and Accomack County, Virginia to the south.

Since its creation, Maryland had been divided into "hundreds", civil divisions within counties representing about 100 houses, dating from the Saxon kings in England. For Somerset County, the following hundreds, according to the Proceedings of the Council of Maryland, 1696/7 were established: Annessex, Baltimore, Mattapany, Manokin, Monie, Nanticoke, Pocomoke, Bogerternorton, and Wicomico, as shown by the following figure:



Stepney Parish was among the parishes then established during the crown colony years. Stepney Parish consisted of Wicomico and Nanticoke Hundreds and it had almost the same boundaries as present-day Wicomico County. (This parish was probably named for an existing Stepney Parish in London, Middlesex, England.) A parish church, called the Green Hill Church (now St. Bartholemew's Episcopal Church), was built on the west bank of the Wicomico River in 1694. Our family lived in Stepney Parish, attended Green Hill Church, and all of the important events of the Stanford family until about 1803 are recorded in the Stepney Parish Registry.

As previously stated, Joseph Stanford, Sr. patented a 125 acre plantation named "Long Ridge" along Wicomico Creek in Somerset County, Maryland (near modern Princess Anne, Maryland) in 1695. The family bought and sold land in this same area for the next 100 years, utilizing it mostly to grow tobacco. However, tobacco rapidly depletes soil nutrients and year-after-year tobacco planting resulted in smaller and smaller yields, the only solution to which was to find new, better land. As virgin land became more difficult to find and more expensive in Maryland, family members looked for alternatives.

Two of Joseph's grandsons bought land in North Carolina and moved there before the Revolutionary War. After the War, government land in Georgia was granted to veterans, while others could obtain Georgia land through a lottery system. Taking advantage of these offers of free land, the majority of the family migrated to Georgia between 1783 and 1810 (including the North Carolina contingent).

However, not every Stanford moved south. Joseph Stanford Jr.'s sons Thomas, David, and Obediah remained in Maryland. Many of their descendents continue to live in Somerset County (now Wicomico and Worcester counties), while others moved to the District of Columbia and Virginia, along the Potomac's western shore.



The Family in Georgia

Georgia, the thirteenth American colony, was founded in a spirit of pure benevolence. The laws of England permitted imprisonment for debt and thousands of English who, through misfortune or thoughtless contracts, had become indebted to the rich and were arrested and thrown into jail, leaving desolate and starving families. The miserable condition of the debtor class finally attracted the attention of Parliament and, in 1728, a commissioner was appointed, at his own request, to look into the state of the poor, to visit the prisons of the kingdom, and to report measures of relief. This work was accomplished, the jails were opened, and the poor victims of debt returned to their homes.

To provide a refuge for the poor of England and the distressed Protestants of other countries, the commissioner appealed to George II for the privilege of planting a colony in America. The petition was favorably heard, and on the 9th of June 1732, a royal charter was issued under which the territory between the Savannah and Altamaha Rivers, and westward from the upper headwaters of those rivers to the Pacific, was organized and granted to a corporation for twenty-one years. In honor of the king, the new province received the name of Georgia.

The founder of Georgia was James Edward Oglethorpe, a philanthropist. By the middle of November 1732, a hundred and twenty emigrants were ready to sail for the New World. Oglethorpe determined to share the dangers and hardships of his colony. In the early spring of 1733, the company reached the mouth of the Savannah River and, on a bluff overlooking that stream, they laid the foundations of a city to which was given the name of the river. Land for the new colony was ceded to Oglethorpe by the Creek Indians.

After 1740, with the arrival of even more colonists, settlements developed along the coast and up the rivers to the trading outpost of Augusta. In 1758, the province of Georgia was divided into eight "parishes", with four new parishes added in 1765.

Prior to 1803 Georgia distributed land via a "headright" system, which granted 200 acres for the male head of a household, plus an additional 50 acres for his wife, each child, and each slave. Designed to prohibit corruption in distributing land to settlers, the headright system actually encouraged corruption. Headright abuses led to the adoption of the lottery

system in May 1803 and almost two-thirds of the land in present-day Georgia was distributed under this system. Seven times between 1805 and 1832 Georgia used a lottery system to distribute land.

The early Savannah settlers did not fair well. Oglethorpe established the Georgia colony with two moral concepts: no slavery and no liquor. While the second was an irritant to settlers, they blamed their inability to compete with adjacent Carolina on the inability to use slaves to create cost-effective plantations.

Another serious drawback to the colony's initial success was Oglethorpe's "tail male" concept of land holding...colonists could not transfer land except to a male heir. This, for all practical purposes, made the land worthless since it could not be sold. Finally, by 1752, Oglethorpe had to allow Georgia to become a royal colony, slavery became legal and the primary basis for Georgia's growth, and economic expansion came from the production of cotton through use of a slave labor system.

Conflict between slave states and free states dominated U.S. politics from 1776. By 1860, the national debate over slavery reached a crescendo. Following the election of Abraham Lincoln, whom the South saw as an opponent to slavery, a special Georgia state convention voted on January 19, 1861 to secede from the Union. A few months later Georgia formally joined the Confederate States of America.

Georgia did not suffer direct devastation from the Civil War until 1864 when General William Tecumseh Sherman advanced through northern Georgia, besieged and captured Atlanta (burning it to the ground), and then pushed on to Savannah on his famous "March to the Sea".

During the War years, Georgia lost nearly 120,000 men in battle, as well as much of the state's material wealth. The rebuilding of the state afterwards was a slow and painful process. There were political conflicts between the newly enfranchised black citizens who, for the first time were allowed to hold seats in the Legislature, and the prewar social structure that sought to minimize the changes to its traditional way of life.

During this period, Georgia's economy was also crippled because of its heavy dependence on cotton at a time when world market prices were at historically low levels. By the mid-1870's, the federal government abandoned its efforts to force reconstruction programs upon Georgia and left the state to its own leadership (the great "compromise" by Rutherford B. Hayes). This immediately resulted in the passage of "Jim Crow" laws to disenfranchise blacks and implement rigid segregation in the state.

Georgia continued to suffer even after the reconstruction years and by 1915 was still not developing economically. Times were hard and the period of 1915 to 1929 saw a resurgence of the Ku Klux Klan in the state, which spread nationally. The depression of 1929-1939 stopped what little economic development there was and Georgia "stagnated" until after World War II.

Following World War II, the pace of industrial growth in Georgia finally began occur. Atlanta gained recognition as a commercial, financial, and cultural center for the entire Southeast. New industries developed in Georgia, and others (especially textiles) moved from outside into the state. Meanwhile, rural Georgia was revitalized as Georgia's farmers, who had finally been driven from cotton production by the destructive boll weevil, diversified their planting operations and adopted new agricultural techniques.

The early Stanford family members settled primarily in northeast Georgia in Warren, Columbia, and Richmond Counties. Later, as the family grew, members spread widely throughout Georgia, particularly to the southern and southwest counties.

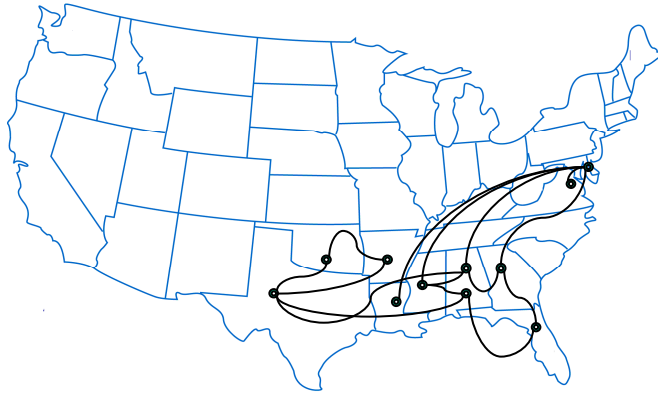
During the Colonial era, the Church of England was the established church in the State, and it was against the law for anyone to preach contrary to the doctrines of the Church of England. Nonetheless, Daniel Marshall established the first Baptist Church in Georgia in 1772, Kiokee Baptist Church...of which many of our family were members. (This church was located below Brownsboro along the Kiokee Creek in present-day Appling County, Georgia.)

The land that would form Richmond County was ceded to the English by the Creeks in the Treaty of Savannah on May 21, 1733, confirmed and expanded by agreements of 1735 and 1736.

Columbia County was formed in 1790 from the northern half of Richmond County (which was one of Georgia's original seven counties, when the earlier St. Paul's Parish became Richmond County in 1777). The area had been home to Creek, Euchee, and Cherokee Indians prior to colonization (one of the oldest archaeological sites in the nation can be found on Stallings Island in the County). Settlement of what would become Columbia County occurred primarily due to the presence of the second city in Georgia, Augusta.

Warren County was created in 1793 from parts of Columbia, Burke, Richmond and Wilkes counties. Georgia's 20th county was named for Revolutionary War hero, General Joseph Warren, who was killed in the Battle of Bunker Hill.

We know that two of Joseph Stanford Jr.'s sons, Jonathan and William, and almost all of his grandsons moved to Georgia between 1783 and 1810. From there, the family has spread to Alabama, Mississippi, Texas, Arkansas, Florida, and North Carolina (for the second time).



The Family Migrations

Generations of Stanfords during the 18th and 19th centuries migrated southward and westward in pursuit of better land and more land, first into Georgia, Alabama, Florida and Mississippi; then into Arkansas, Louisiana, Texas, and Oklahoma. Later family moves into New Mexico, Arizona, North Carolina, Michigan, New Jersey, California, etc. were driven not by land, but by the search for good jobs.

The map above graphically indicates the major family migrations between about 1780 and 1880.

However, a sobering aspect of this migration is that all of the land obtained by our ancestors was stolen, at least indirectly, from the native American Indians...the Creeks and Cherokees in Georgia and Alabama, the Creeks and Seminoles in Florida, the Choctaws and Chickasaws in Alabama and Mississippi, and the Comanche and dozens of other tribes in Texas and Oklahoma...by state and federal governments that found the Indians to "undesirables" wanted to make their lands available to "civilized" white settlers.

Georgia and Florida: Since the first Creek land cession to James Oglethorpe in 1733, land had been a major concern of the settlers of Georgia. Indian land cessions prior to 1800 included the following:

1763 The Treaty of Augusta used trails and rivers to create the first defined line between the Creeks and the colony of Georgia.

1773 Creek and Cherokee debts to Georgians were assumed by the state in payment for the land. This included a small portion of North Georgia.

1782-1783 Land to the south and west of the Tugaloo and Savannah Rivers were

ceded by the Cherokee and Creek.

1790 Alexander McGillivray, a mixed race Upper Creek ceded land from the Altamaha to the Oconee in The Treaty of New York, signed by President George Washington.

When the United States took the western lands claimed by Georgia in 1802 for the Mississippi Territory, the federal government promised to remove the Indians from Georgia soil. That year, and again in 1804, the federal government secured cessions of land for the state.

At the conclusion of the Creek War in 1816, the entire Creek nation was forced to cede the southern third of present day Georgia to the state to prevent further contact with the Seminoles. This was the single largest cession of land to the state, and the beginning of the end of the Creek Nation in Georgia. The Creek ceded additional land in 1818 and 1821. The Cherokee ceded small portions of land in 1817 and 1819.

Most whites in Georgia favored Indian removal and, when George Troup became governor in 1823, he aggressively moved to do just that. The Creek, first to be removed, were a loose confederation of tribes with various histories and customs. A small faction of the Lower Creek headed by William McIntosh, the son of a Scottish trader and a Creek woman, negotiated with the state although he did not represent the entire tribe. First cousin to Governor Troup, he gave all remaining Creek land in Georgia to the state in the Treaty of Indian Springs in 1825. After ratification by the federal government, Troup moved to swiftly survey and distribute the land. John Quincy Adams, the new President, did not consider the Treaty of Indian Springs valid and pressured Troup to stop moving on Indian territory.

Emboldened by his victory in the 1825 election, Troup reaffirmed his belief that the Treaty of Indian Springs was valid. President Adams quickly negotiated the Treaty of Washington in January, 1826. This treaty left a small piece of land on the Georgia-Alabama border in Creek hands. Not pleased with the new treaty, Troup ordered the land surveyed for a lottery, including the piece that was to remain in Creek hands. Since the federal government had no real love for Native Americans, they allowed Troup to quickly renegotiate the treaty and take all Creek lands in the state. By 1827 the Creek were gone from Georgia.

The last piece of land controlled by the Cherokee was North Georgia. In 1828 the state attempted to bring the Cherokee Nation under Georgia law. The conviction and execution of a Native American by the state for the murder of a Cherokee on tribal land in 1830 resulted in an appeal to the Supreme Court of the United States in 1831. In Cherokee Nation vs. Georgia, Chief Justice John Marshall denied the right of the Cherokee to bring a suit against the state. However, a year later, in a more properly formulated case, Worcester vs. Georgia, the court ruled that the laws of Georgia were invalid on Cherokee land.

The ruling was not enforced by the executive branch. Georgia proceeded with the land lottery of 1832 and gave Cherokee land to whites who began to move in. Despondent and divided, the Cherokee Nation broke into two factions, for or against removal. In 1835, the faction favoring removal signed a treaty with the U.S. government agreeing to removal in exchange for five million dollars. Both the federal and state government were fully aware that this smaller faction did not represent the majority of the tribe, but they validated the treaty anyway.

Thus, by 1835, there were no Georgia lands remaining in Indian hands.

To the west, the 1697 Peace of Ryswick had divided North America among the European powers, with France claiming the Mississippi Valley region. Consequently, the French were the first to establish permanent European settlements in that area, beginning in 1699 with a settlement at Biloxi. Then, in the early 1700's, the French began courting the Chickasaws and Choctaws in an effort to counter British intrusion into the interior.

While the Gulf of Mexico and the Mississippi and Tennessee River areas were explored and settled early by the French (1699-1763), British (1763-1781), and Spanish (1781--1798), the interior wilderness was pretty much left to the Indians. White settlement of those areas came about much slower.

The British received much of the territory with the 1763 Treaty of Paris after their victory in the French and Indian War. France retained only New Orleans. After receiving Florida from Spain, the British divided that piece of land into East and West Florida.

The British ruled all their land between the Alleghenies and the Mississippi River in a highly paternalistic manner. They ordered any white persons already in the territory to "remove themselves." Attempts were made to insure peace with the Indians. As might be expected, American settlers sitting in the Atlantic seaboard colonies were not happy with this British attempt to keep them out. But, settlement began to increase during the American Revolution when Loyalists from the colonies were allowed to flock into the British territory,

During the Revolutionary War, Spain took possession of Florida. So, by the 1783 Treaty of Paris, the Spanish had claimed much of the Gulf Coast region. Nevertheless, in the Treaty of 1795, Spain gave up everything north of the thirty-first parallel. Finally, after much negotiation, the Spaniards left East and West Florida completely in 1798.

After the British left the area, several of the original colonies claimed land, usually directly to their west of the existing states. Eventually South Carolina ceded the fourteen mile strip along the northern Mississippi and Alabama boundaries it had claimed to the United States.

The state of Georgia claimed the land west of it, an area became known as the Yazoo Strip. To resolve these claims, in 1798, the Mississippi Territory was formed by the Federal government. On April 24, 1802, the state of Georgia officially gave it to the U.S.

government with the understanding that eventually the territory would become a state.

The United States took possession of the entire area after the War of 1812, claiming in 1813 that the land controlled by the Spanish had been rightfully purchased from the French in the Louisiana Purchase. Most of that land was eventually sold for cash under the Land Act of 1820.

Since England, France and Spain, at one time or another, all had control over a portion of the territory and had granted land to their subjects; when the United States took control, it guaranteed the earlier land titles would be recognized. But difficulty in researching foreign claims, overlapping titles and frequent fraud made it nearly impossible for the United States to completely keep its pledge.

Alabama: During the War of 1812, the British used the Creeks of Alabama against the new American Republic and migration into the territory slowed even more. Andrew Jackson and the Tennessee militia defeated the British-backed Indians at the Battle of Horseshoe Bend, opening land along the Tombigbee River to white settlement.

After the War of 1812, the population in the Mississippi Territory exploded. An 1815 North Carolina legislature report approximated that 200,000 people had left that state during the previous twenty-five years to settle in the Lower Mississippi Valley. But most came from other Southern states through Tennessee into Alabama, or down through the Carolinas and Georgia into Alabama.

Beginning in 1816, white settlement was open to all Alabama land except Choctaw land west of the Tombigbee, Chickasaw land in the northwest corner and Cherokee and Creek/Muscogee land in the eastern third of the state.

The Cherokees came from mountain homes in northeast Alabama and were considered the most civilized of the tribes. The Chickasaws lived on the headwaters of the Tombigbee in the northwestern area of Alabama. Choctaws occupied the southwestern and western portion of the state. They were friendly with the French and other Europeans.

In 1817, the eastern portion of the Mississippi Territory was declared a separate territory to be called Alabama and the area of today's Mississippi was admitted to the Union as a state.

Unlike the migration to the New World, migration into the Mississippi region occurred during economically good times. During hard times, like the Panic of 1819, the influx dwindled. But during flush times, new settlers just kept coming. The land was fertile. Land offices were established in Alabama as a means for selling the land acquired in treaties. The land office for west-central Alabama remained open in Tuscaloosa from 1821 through 1866.

It was the first time in the United States that land was surveyed and laid out in sections, townships and ranges before being sold. After the survey, the land was put up for auction. Land not sold for at least \$2.00 per acre was later sold separately.

Alabama's population growth was so rapid that, on December 14, 1819, Alabama was admitted to Union as the country's twenty-second state.

Mississippi: Most of the interior Indian land was not open to whites for settlement when Mississippi became the twentieth state in the Union on December 10, 1817.

In 1770, the earlier Indians living in the region were nearly exterminated by the Choctaws and Chickasaws and their land was divided between these two tribes. After an 1816 treaty, the Tombigbee River became the eastern border of Indian land. So, before 1830, central and northern portions of Mississippi, west of the Tombigbee River remained in Choctaw and Chickasaw hands.

Although still Indian territory, others than just Indians were living in the region. Traders and trappers were permitted to stay in the territory only if they converted to Choctaw citizenship. Some took Indian wives. And about the same time, there were also a number of African slaves in Choctaw territory.

After the War of 1812, it became apparent a road was needed to connect Nashville with New Orleans. It was commissioned by Congress in 1816 and construction began in May, 1817, using portions of old Indian trails. The new "Military Road" was completed during the 1819-1820 winter under the direction of General Andrew Jackson, using a Tombigbee River ferry crossing originally used by Indians. The Robinson Road, on the other side of the Tombigbee was completed about 1824, joining the Military Road in the Columbus area.

Attempts to remove the Indians from their land began with the completion of the Louisiana Purchase. After the War of 1812, it became apparent the nation was fated to grow. And the Federal government began to aggressively work towards the relocation. General Andrew Jackson was even brought in to at first persuade and later to bribe and frighten the Indians into signing the Treaty of Doaks Stand on October 18, 1820.

Unfortunately, it was soon discovered that some of the land in northwestern Arkansas that had been promised to the Choctaws had already been settled by whites. After tribal leaders were given trips to Washington, clothes, jewelry and whiskey, they signed away their Arkansas lands for \$6,000 a year to be allocated for schools for the Indians.

After the September 27, 1830 Treaty of Dancing Rabbit, the Choctaws gave up claim to their land in Mississippi, opening the land south of the Tibbee Creek and west of the Tombigbee River for white settlement. In the October 20, 1832 Treaty of Pontotoc, the Chickasaw ceded land north of Tibbee Creek and west of the Tombigbee. The Indians were forced to leave their homes and move west along what would become known as the Trail of Tears. Settlers waiting along the Alabama border crossed into the new land.

(Actual surveying began in 1832 and lasted until 1840. But the first sales were made in January, 1831 when the Pontotoc Land Office sold 266,000 acres at an average of \$1.88 per acre.)

In 1834 and 1835, the Columbus Land Office sold eighty acre tracts of land for \$1.25 per acre. While many of those who settled earlier were squatters forced to move on when public domain land was sold, a fair number did acquire title to the land they claimed.

Thus, by 1835, Mississippi was free of native Americans.

Arkansas: The evolving U.S. policy of Indian Removal shaped Arkansas geographically, economically, and ethnically. Federal removal treaties with the Choctaw in 1825 and the Arkansas Cherokee in 1828 established the state's western boundary. Throughout the territorial period (1819–1836), Arkansas politicians were obsessed with removing Indians from the land within its shrinking borders. Yet, a cash-poor frontier economy profited enormously from government contracts when Southeast tribal groups were transported across Arkansas throughout the 1830s, along routes later collectively labeled “the Trail of Tears.” Still, the state's political leaders complained loudly that the presence of sovereign tribes in neighboring Indian Territory stifled development in Arkansas and, especially after the U.S. expanded to the Pacific Ocean following the Mexican War (1846–1848), wanted those tribes removed again even further west.

The American policy of removing Indians from tribal lands east of the Mississippi River began to influence the development of Arkansas soon after the Louisiana Purchase. The 1804 act separating Upper Louisiana from the Territory of Orleans authorized the president to exchange land above the thirty-third parallel, the line that became Arkansas' southern border, with any eastern tribe willing to “remove and settle thereon.” In fact, many refugee bands, notably the Cherokee, Choctaw, Delaware, and Shawnee, were already in Arkansas, forced west by land cessions, tribal disputes, harassment, or the search for better hunting grounds. Also scattered around the future state, with more coming, were white squatters, also not waiting for official settlement policies to be decided. For three decades, Arkansas was in flux, awaiting surveys and federal decisions.

Ironically, the first Indian land cessions in Arkansas were obtained to make room for other Indians. President Thomas Jefferson spoke to a Cherokee delegation about “vacant lands” in 1809 when he invited those wishing to move to go to “the country on the waters of the Arkansas and White Rivers.” An 1808 treaty with the Osage had theoretically ceded those lands to the United States. Thousands of Cherokee accepted Jefferson's invitation and settled in the Arkansas River Valley, infuriating the Osage and provoking years of escalating violence. The U.S. government had hoped that all Cherokee would be lured west. But instead, political friction within the tribe intensified when treaties in 1817 and 1819 forced the developing Cherokee Nation to cede “acre for acre” tribal tracts in the east so that the Arkansas Cherokee could get legal title to the land they occupied.

The Quapaw tribe, for whom Arkansas had been named, ceded their twenty-eight million

acres south of the Arkansas River in 1818, when Missouri Territory Governor William Clark was instructed to acquire more land west of the Mississippi to exchange with eastern Indians.

On February 22, 1819, Spanish and American negotiators finally agreed on the southwest boundary of the Louisiana Purchase. On March 2, the 100th meridian described in the Adams-Onís Transcontinental Treaty became the western boundary of the new Arkansas Territory. It would not be so for long. Although not yet officially named, the western half of the original Arkansas Territory would become Indian Territory.

An 1820 treaty with the Choctaw created an uproar in Arkansas by assigning to that tribe a swath of the new territory between the Arkansas and the Red rivers said to be populated by an estimated 3,000 whites. When few Choctaw were tempted to leave Mississippi, an 1825 treaty moved the Choctaw line farther west, running south from Fort Smith (Sebastian County) and becoming part of Arkansas's western border, although survey disputes continued until 1886.

Quapaw removal from Arkansas was unique because most of the tribe returned and endured a second removal. In 1824, territorial officials pressured the tribe, which numbered only 455, to give up its remaining two million Arkansas acres and join the Caddo on the Red River in Louisiana. The newcomers were not welcomed, floods destroyed crops, and sixty starved to death. Survivors eventually returned to Arkansas, hoping to be allowed to buy back some of their land and become U.S. citizens. Instead, they were removed to Indian Territory in 1833.

In 1828, after a decade of wrangling over land title and boundaries, a delegation from the Arkansas Cherokee traveled to Washington DC. By establishing the short-lived Lovely County in northwest Arkansas, territorial officials had blocked the outlet to western hunting grounds long promised by the federal government. On behalf of "the Cherokee Nation of Indians, West of the Mississippi," nine representatives agreed to move further west. Still hoping to entice more Cherokee to leave the East, federal negotiators traded about three million acres in Arkansas for seven million acres in what is now northeast Oklahoma, thus establishing the state's present border north from Fort Smith (Sebastian County). The Western Cherokee become known as the Old Settlers when the Trail of Tears Cherokee arrived in 1839 and eventually established a consolidated tribal government.

The final push for removing all Indians from east of the Mississippi River came with the 1828 election of President Andrew Jackson. Jackson's Indian removal policies, along with the mantra of states' rights, helped force the issue. Beginning with Georgia a month after the election, followed by Alabama and Mississippi in 1829 and Tennessee in 1833, southeastern states began claiming legal jurisdiction over the Indians within their borders, going so far as to outlaw tribal governments. Jackson sided with the states, even when the Supreme Court disagreed.

In 1830, the Choctaw were the first of the five major Southeast tribes to agree to a removal

treaty, emigrating in three official waves in 1831, 1832, and 1833. Some Creek bands began moving west in 1827 after the tribe was forced out of Georgia. Those emigrating after an 1832 treaty ceded Creek land in Alabama were among the most destitute and most numerous traveling through Arkansas. Most had to walk, some in chains as prisoners of war, and their journeys in 1834, 1836, and 1837 were made more miserable by the negligence of private contractors.

After agreeing to a final cession in 1832, the Chickasaw Nation negotiated its own removal in 1837–38, hoping to avoid the problems suffered by earlier emigrants. A small group of Florida Indians signed a removal treaty in 1833, but most resisted emigration, sparking the so-called Second Seminole War (1835–1842), one of the most expensive in U.S. history. Cherokee leaders fought removal in the courts and in Congress, contesting Georgia laws and an unauthorized 1835 treaty. Unable to elude expulsion, the Cherokee Nation organized its own removal in 1838–39. Remnant bands of all these tribes except the Chickasaw remain east of the Mississippi River today.

Removal continued past the 1830s in Arkansas as scattered tribal remnants were moved west and elsewhere in the U.S. as the federal government continued to designate state boundaries surrounding Indian lands. The Osage, for example, who had been moved north to make way for the Cherokee, were forced out of Kansas in the 1870s and back into the future Oklahoma.

Indian Territory/Oklahoma: he United States negotiated the Louisiana Purchase in 1803 and, thus, the Mississippi River no longer served as the nation's western boundary. Explorers of this enormous American portion of the trans-Mississippi West revealed the eastern part to be fertile and habitable. The middle-western part, viewed by some as the "Great American Desert," was thought uninhabitable.

President Thomas Jefferson (and those who followed him) envisioned an "Indian colonization zone" or permanent Indian frontier, in a north-south tier on the west bank of the Mississippi. Many people advocated this approach to "the Indian problem." They believed that removal of Indians to that area would permanently resolve the conflict between the original Native inhabitants and the whites who were clamoring to "civilize" the continent. Whites would live east of the river, Indians west of it.

The concept of an Indian zone solidified during the administration of John Quincy Adams and later developed fully under the direction of Andrew Jackson. A region conceived as "the Indian country" was specified in 1825 as all the land lying west of the Mississippi. Eventually, the Indian country or the Indian Territory would encompass the present states of Oklahoma, Kansas, Nebraska, and part of Iowa.

In actuality, the Indian Removal process had begun by treaties soon after 1800. In addition, many tribes simply fled westward as the line of white settlement advanced toward and then across the Mississippi River. Some of the Cherokee, for example, had begun moving west in the 1810s, with large migrations into west-central Arkansas in 1817 into a region they

had exchanged for land in the Southeast. Shortly before the 1817 Cherokee treaty came "Lovely's Purchase" in 1816, and an 1818 Osage treaty theoretically cleared northeastern Oklahoma and added the land to the public domain. In 1820 the Choctaw agreed to accept land between the Arkansas and Canadian rivers and the Red River, in present Oklahoma.

Meanwhile, whites also crossed the Mississippi and began to occupy a wide strip running north-south along its west side. Soon thickly populated, Missouri became a state in 1821 and Arkansas a territory in 1819. In 1824 a western boundary was surveyed for Arkansas, and it included all or part of the present Oklahoma counties of Craig, Mayes, Delaware, Adair, Cherokee, Sequoyah, Muskogee, Wagoner, Haskell, LeFlore, Latimer, Choctaw, Pushmataha, and McCurtain. It also incorporated the 1816 Osage cession of Lovely's Purchase as well as a huge chunk of land promised to the Choctaw in the 1820 treaty. As early as 1816 whites had begun to settle in this strip of land, which in 1820 was incorporated by Arkansas Territory into Crawford County, on the north, and Miller County, on the south, even extending down into present northeastern Texas. In 1827 Lovely County was created from Crawford County, taking in nearly all of present northeastern Oklahoma, and its seat established at Lovely Court House (Nicksville), later the location of Dwight Mission in Sequoyah County.

The Western Cherokee objected to being surrounded by whites and by organized Arkansas counties. The Choctaw objected to Miller County and its white residents, as well. In 1825 a new treaty adjusted the Choctaw eastern boundary, and Miller County was reduced. Many whites who had settled in that region now moved east of the new line. In 1828 the federal government used the situation to engineer another treaty with the Western Cherokees in which they agreed to move west of the new line. Lovely County was abolished, and the border between Arkansas and the Indian Territory actually the Choctaw and Cherokee nations was resurveyed in 1828 generally along the present Oklahoma-Arkansas boundary.

Finally, under the 1830 Indian Removal Act, the president was authorized to force tribes to cede their lands east of the Mississippi. Those who did were to be placed west of the new white settlements, that is, west of the 95th Meridian. An 1834 Trade Act further defined "the Indian country" as all that part of the United States west of the Mississippi and not within the states of Missouri, Louisiana, or Arkansas Territory, or any other organized territory. Whites were carefully excluded from the region, for most purposes, and trade by them with Indians was regulated. For judicial purposes, the northern region (mostly present Kansas) was attached to Missouri and the southern part (mostly present Oklahoma) to Arkansas Territory (after 1836, Arkansas state).

The Creek, Seminole, and Chickasaw succumbed to forced migration. All of these southeastern tribes thereafter inhabited the southern part of "the Indian Territory." Similarly, numerous tribes of the Northeast and the Northwest Territory, including the Kickapoo, Miami, Delaware, and Shawnee, were removed into the northern part, present day Kansas. Thus, by 1840 the Indian territory had been populated, sparsely, by Native groups.

Because its fertile land proved desirable to whites, the 1854 Kansas and Nebraska Act formally organized those parts of northern Indian territory into official territories that afterward became states.

After the Civil War ended, Indians from Kansas and Nebraska were moved further south into the part of the Indian territory that is present day Oklahoma. Plains tribes, including the Cheyenne, Arapaho, Comanche, Kiowa, and Apache, were concentrated on reservations in the western half of the territory. By 1889 more than three dozen tribes resided here.

As established by United States law, beginning with the Northwest Ordinance of 1787, when a specifically defined part of the unorganized federal domain was sufficiently populated, its residents (United States citizens) could petition Congress for "territorial status". Congress would subsequently pass an organic act, with a bill of rights for territory residents, and set up a three-part government, with appointed executive and judicial branches. Residents elected a legislative branch. The federal government had ultimate authority over territorial affairs, and an elected territorial representative was seated in Congress.

However, Congress never passed an organic act for the Indian territory, although a few measures were proposed, and one bill was written, for that purpose. The region never had a formal government, and it remained unorganized. Therefore, the geographical location commonly called "Indian territory" was not a legal territory.

When the United States Congress passed the Dawes Act in 1887, it made Indian nations wards of the Federal government. The act voided all native land claims and redistributed title to these lands among the Indians themselves. Originally, the Five Civilized Tribes and the Sac, Fox, Sioux and Seneca Nations were excluded from the provisions of the legislation, partially due to preexisting treaties and the fact that all resistance in these tribes had been more or less dulled by their existence on reservations. It furthermore stipulated that the territorial borders of these tribes would not be included in the creation of any further American states. However, the act was amended several times in subsequent years and eventually all tribal lands were absorbed by the United States for re-allotment. This made it easier for the United States to deal with Native American land claim issues. No longer would they have to bribe or force tribal chiefs to sign treaties that were often eventually contested. Another provision of the Dawes Act was the creation of state run schools for Native American children, schools designed to speed up the process of cultural assimilation.

In the years following the Dawes Act, settlers moved into Indian Territory and established homes on the reservations. These tenacious squatters, known as Sooners because they often moved in before the land was actually available, were backed by powerful business and political interests in the east. These interests felt that Indian land would be more valuable if it were opened up to settlement and development. Although U.S. officials would arrest squatters since their actions violated the Dawes Act, they could not stop their influx.

By 1889, the Dawes Act had resulted in the purchase of over 2 million acres of native land and, under provisions of the 1862 Homestead Act, any settler who could establish residence in these lands for a period of five years would be granted title.

A March 1889 law established a federal court system based at Muskogee, Oklahoma assuming judicial authority and jurisdiction that had been exercised since the 1834 Trade Act. *This measure for the first time specified enclosed boundaries for the Indian Territory, now officially reduced to an area bounded by Texas, on the south, Arkansas and Missouri on the east, Kansas on the north, and New Mexico Territory on the west, essentially the boundaries of present day Oklahoma.*

With more settlers inundating the lands surrounding the last native freeholds, Indian Territory was renamed Oklahoma Territory in 1890. "Oklahoma" is a Choctaw word meaning "red people." Then, in 1898, the Curtis Act dissolved the tribal governments and court system and placed the five tribes under the direct authority of the Territorial Assembly.

In the words of Senator Henry Dawes, originator of the Dawes Act and Chairman of the commission charged with its enforcement, Indian Territory was reorganized as a means of preserving the peace. Dawes saw the scattered tribes as a collection of lawless entities, a land where fugitives fled to seek sanctuary from the enforcement of the United States. His justification for designing this legislation was the fear that Indian Territory, left unchecked, represented a threat to the United States. For the Indians whose newfound homes were taken from them, the dispossessed masses of the former southeastern tribes, it was yet another broken promise.

In an effort to preserve their sovereignty, the five tribes convened in Muskogee, Oklahoma in 1905 to discuss the possibility of a separate Indian state. Named for the Cherokee linguist Sequoyah, who developed the written Cherokee language, this state was meant to enter the Union as a semi-sovereign alliance of all the tribes in the region. The delegates to the convention created a constitution and system of government based on the American model. However, the application for statehood was denied and the territory entered the Union as part of Oklahoma in 1907. The remaining tribes eventually regained their unique status as Indian nations when the Dawes folly was finally ended in 1934.

Texas: At the time of Spanish decline and Mexican independence, traders from the United States began to venture onto the Plains and establish contacts with Santa Fe and the Indian groups between the United States and New Mexico. Mexico was unable to repair broken trade alliances or impose order militarily. Because the American trade gave the Indians a new, strong market and steady source of firearms, raiding increased in the northern states of Mexico. The Republic of Mexico responded to these changes on its frontier by encouraging immigration from elsewhere.

Most significantly for the Indians of Texas, two new types of immigrant entered the

province: Indian bands from the eastern United States and Anglo-Americans. Indian migration from the east began in the 1790s as Choctaw, Chickasaw, Alabama-Coushatta, and Creek hunting parties, reacting to the decline of game in their traditional homelands, seasonally and temporarily entered Texas. Over time, eastern bands found it more convenient to trade deerskins locally than to carry them back east. Expanding white settlement also pushed them westward.

By 1820, the concept of removing eastern Indians westward began to be discussed by United States politicians; although the policy was not enacted until 1830, many groups understood the implications and left the United States by moving to Texas. The Mexican government welcomed the immigrants and promised them land titles in East Texas, but no titles were ever formally secured. The Indian migration into East Texas in the 1820s coincided with another important influx, that of Anglo-American immigrants, both legal and illegal.

During the Texas Revolution the independence forces sought conciliation with nearby Indians to keep them from allying with the Mexican army. Most bands were neutral, and some, such as the Shawnees, were willing to join in the fight against Gen. Antonio López de Santa Anna.

The fear that Indians might side with Santa Anna seems to have been greatest during the period between the fall of the Alamo and the Texas victory at San Jacinto. It does not appear to have been grounded in the Indians' behavior, but on a general fear that the entire rebellion was falling apart. Nevertheless, the specter of potential Indian hostility remained even after the crisis had ended, and it remained important in the new republic's policies.

The Indian scare had one very significant effect on Texas independence: the widespread rumors of Indian hostility persuaded United States troops from Louisiana to cross into Texas and occupy Nacogdoches in 1836, thus ending the Texans' eastward flight at the same time as the battle of San Jacinto.

In an effort to maintain good relations with the Indians, the provisional government declared in November 1835 that the East Texas bands had just claims to their land and that definite boundaries should be drawn for them. Indian land rights would be respected and, in February 1836, Sam Houston made a treaty with the Quapaw, Choctaw, Biloxi, Alabama, Coushatta, Cherokee, Shawnee, Delaware, and Kickapoo Indians and with various Caddo bands, which established a reservation where all would live, bounded by the Angelina, Neches, and Sabine rivers and the Old San Antonio Road.

According to the treaty, the land could not be sold or alienated to any entity but the Republic of Texas, Indians could have their own laws as long as they were not contrary to Texas law, and the republic would regulate all Indian trade. This first treaty of the Republic of Texas was never ratified by either the provisional government or the Texas Senate. Later, the Texas government realized that no Indians had been granted land titles by the

Mexican government, and used this as justification for expelling most of them from Texas.

The Indian policy of the Republic of Texas was for the most part defined by the president, especially Sam Houston and Mirabeau B. Lamar, whose divergent policies defined the spectrum of debate about how to handle the Indians. Houston advocated a policy of fairness and friendship toward the Indians because "natural reason will teach them the utility of our friendship," he explained in his 1836 presidential inaugural address. He believed Indians, as rational human beings, would find it in their best interests to maintain peace with Texans. Lamar took a far more bellicose position: "The proper policy to be pursued towards the barbarian race, is absolute expulsion from the country," he said in 1839. "The white man and the red man cannot dwell in harmony together. Nature forbids it."

Aside from the fear of Indian alliance with Mexico, questions of national sovereignty also made Texans want to erase Indian enclaves in regions filling up with white settlers. Recognition of Indian land rights, Lamar insisted, would be "parceling out our territory to strangers and intruders, and introducing into the very viscera of the body politic an alien, independent and innately hostile people." Most Texans agreed with Lamar that whites and Indians could not live as neighbors, although Houston maintained that a reservation with well-defined and enforced boundaries could exist peacefully surrounded by whites.

At the time of the Texas Revolution, the Caddos living in Louisiana had signed a treaty agreeing to move out of the United States and crossed the border to join their kinsmen in Texas. This greatly alarmed white settlers. During this tense period, the Texas Senate renounced the treaty Houston had made in 1836, thus provoking encroachment on Indian land by surveyors and squatters and retaliatory raids by exasperated Indians.

As always, the fear of an Indian alliance with Mexico was prevalent. The impetus for offensive action against the Cherokees and others came in 1839, when Texas Rangers killed Manuel Flores, a Mexican agent sent to recruit East Texas Indians. Among his effects was found a letter from a Mexican general proposing an alliance. Since the courier had been killed before delivering the message, obviously the Indians had not seen it; nevertheless, this incident was all Lamar needed to link the Cherokees to the Mexicans. White Texans attacked the Cherokee town, destroyed it and the cornfields, killed the Cherokee leaders, and sent the refugees north of Red River.

Two weeks after the Cherokees' defeat, the Shawnees and Delawares, who had been among the friendliest Indians to the whites, agreed to virtually the same removal terms. Unlike the Cherokees, they surrendered their gunlocks and accepted the escort out of the country.

The Indian removal campaigns chased the Caddos westward onto the prairies, wiped out the Kickapoo and Cherokee settlements, and intimidated the Shawnees and Delawares into leaving the republic. Viewed as a whole, the Republic of Texas waged a successful campaign to clear East Texas of Indians, to rid the area of an undesirable race, and to

open it to white settlement.

The republic's relations with the Comanches changed drastically in the late 1830s. Whites knew relatively little about them at first...Anglo-American settlers lived far enough away from them not to be victimized by Comanche raids, but close enough to be considered by the Comanches as a market for horses taken from Mexico and for buffalo robes. But, the relentless advance of white settlement, the new government's refusal to recognize Comanche territorial sovereignty with established borderlines, and the fact that white Texans took a much harder line against the Comanches than the Mexicans previously had resulted in unyielding warfare by 1840.

Texas entered the United States in 1845-46 and the situation for Indians was altered. For one change, raiders such as the Comanches, Kiowas, and Wichitas had to learn that the Americans and Texans were one people now, and that they could not rob one and sell the loot to the other, although unscrupulous frontier traders did this for a while. For another, the United States was obligated by the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo to block Indian raids into Mexico, a part of the agreement that the Comanches did not respect because they had not been consulted.

With Texas entry into the Union, white immigration to Texas rose considerably. The state's population tripled between 1850 and 1860. The influx of newcomers and the passing caravans of Forty-niners on their way to the goldfields of California also brought a new wave of disease that laid waste the Indians. The Comanches were hit by smallpox in 1848 and cholera in 1849, when by some estimates half their population died.

If this were not enough, the buffalo population began declining during the same period. Partly, the expansion of white settlement and the federally sponsored "Indian removal" program that put 50,000 eastern Indians on the margins of the South Plains reduced available buffalo range and increased the number of people hunting them. But the Indians' hunting style also contributed. They preferred to hunt buffalo cows because their meat was more tender and their hides easier to process into finer robes; the overhunting of breeding-age females contributed to the decline of the buffalo. As the herds shrank, Comanches took to eating their horses, and this depletion of their most important form of property impelled them to increase their cattle raids on both sides of the Rio Grande.

The most important change affecting Indians when Texas joined the United States, however, had to do with relations between the state and federal governments. The federal government, constitutionally mandated to be in charge of Indian affairs, took over that role in Texas, but the new state retained control of its public lands. In all other new territories, Washington controlled both public lands and Indian affairs and so could make treaties guaranteeing reservations for various groups. In Texas, however, the federal government could not do this. The state adamantly refused to contribute public land for Indian reservations within the boundaries of Texas, all the while expecting Washington to bear the expense and responsibility of Indian affairs.

Since federal Indian agents in Texas understood that guaranteeing Indian land rights was the key to peace, no peace could be possible with the intransigent attitude of state officials on the land question. Furthermore, Texans in the decade before the Civil War were highly critical of the inability of the army to defeat the Indians decisively and prevent raids; many believed that Texas protected its white citizens better when it was independent. This attitude regarding frontier policy became important when Texas seceded from the union in 1861.

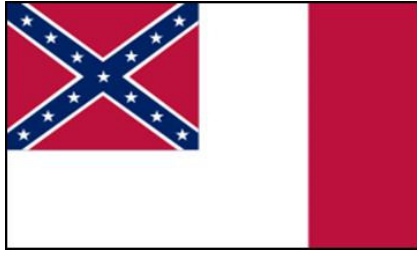
Texans had their opportunity, beginning in 1861, to prove their earlier assertions that Texas could defend the frontier and pacify Indians better than the United States could when the state seceded from the Union and joined the Confederacy. They accomplished little more than federal efforts had (although it must be taken into account that the needs of the Civil War took priority in manpower and spending).

Indian raids continued as before and even increased in some counties. The growth of cattle ranching added a new target for raiders, who drove off cattle for resale to the Comancheros, traders from New Mexico who ventured onto west Texas to buy from the Comanches.

After the Civil War, the final subjugation of the South Plains Indians involved a combination of economic and military measures, in which the destruction of the Indians' trade and subsistence base became primary to their acceptance of reservation life. The suppression of the Comanchero trade in the early 1870s removed an important market for raiders. The arrival of increasing numbers of white buffalo hunters all but destroyed the great South Plains herds; the newly constructed railroads brought not only more hunters but sent hides to eastern markets faster. Furthermore, William T. Sherman, commander of the United States Army, and Philip H. Sheridan, commander of United States troops in Texas, understood from their experiences in the Civil War that victory comes not just from the defeat of enemy armies, but from breaking the people's will to resist by destroying their ability to feed and supply themselves.

With this strategy in mind, the generals looked to the buffalo. Sheridan encouraged commercial hunters and even tourists to hunt buffalo, and he trained new recruits in marksmanship with buffalo targets.

Militarily, the army conducted winter campaigns, something not previously done. The Indians learned they had no sanctuary and could find their tepees and food stocks destroyed during the harshest time of the year. The last large military campaigns, and the Comanches' last sustained effort to continue their old way of life without government dependency, occurred in 1874. Military pressure on the bands outside the reservation increased during the summer and fall of 1874 and caused greater destruction of the Indians' subsistence base. Most Comanches off the reservation surrendered by the onset of winter and, by 1875, the last small bands came in and all of Texas was available for white settlement.



The Family in the Civil War

By 1860, there were a significant number of Stanfords living in Georgia, Florida, Alabama, and Mississippi, states that seceded from the United States in 1861. Dozens of Stanford men fought on the side of Confederate States of America (but a few did serve in the Army of the United States).

In 1861, with only a few notable exceptions, Stanford men were uneducated (most could not read or write) subsistence farmers and very few owned any slaves at all (none owned a large number of slaves). Yet, dozens of Stanford men volunteered for service in the Confederate army...many being wounded or dying from combat and disease.

Undoubtedly, few of these young Stanford volunteers understood the reason for the secession of the southern states and the war that rapidly followed their secession. Even today, most southerners have little or no understanding of the root causes of the war and the "justification" propaganda campaign that was waged by Jefferson Davis and his government during the war.

It is important that Stanford descendants understand that these men, brave though they were, fought and often died for an abhorrent and failed cause...slavery. *The popular southern rationale that this was a War Between the States based on the violation of state's rights by the Federal government is simply white wash by the Confederate government.*

A survey of the declaration of causes written by South Carolina and other states that followed it in leaving the Union reveals the simple truth that each state said clearly stated that the reason for getting out of the Union was simply that the Northern States (and the new anti-slavery President Abraham Lincoln) were threatening to do away with slavery. For example:

South Carolina stated, "The non-slave-holding states...have denounced as sinful the institution of slavery" and "have encouraged and assisted thousands of our slaves to leave their homes."

Mississippi declared, "Our position is thoroughly identified with the institution of slavery - the greatest material interest of the world. There is no choice left us but submission to the mandates of abolition or a dissolution of the Union."

Georgia seceded over the objections of one prominent Stanford family member and justified the action with the following: "A brief history of the rise, progress, and policy of anti-slavery and the political organization into whose hands the administration of the Federal

Government has been committed will full justify the pronounced verdict to the people of Georgia."

Several states singled out a special culprit, Abraham Lincoln, who was called "an obscure and illiterate man" whose "opinions and purposes are hostile to slavery."

Support of slavery by the general southern population in 1860 hinged on two things: large agricultural plantations needed cheap labor to be profitable and white southerners typically considered themselves superior to blacks, free or slave. (Unfortunately, this second aspect is still too often encountered even today in the south.)

However, when the Confederate States of America was created in early 1861, the Confederate Government was faced with a dilemma...in a war with the Union, their only two potential allies, England and France, had both outlawed slavery in the 1830s and 1840s. The protection of slavery could not be readily used as a basis for asking for aid from the two major world powers of the time, neither of whom allowed slavery!

Thus, a "spin" was placed on the rationale for secession...Jefferson Davis and his government began a propaganda campaign touting that southern "states rights" were being trampled by the northern majority. But, in reality, the only "right" that really mattered to the Confederate government was the right for rich southerners to own slaves!

Notice and Thanks

Two Stanford family researchers have been very helpful in resolving conflicts and breaking roadblocks in this research, Leo Leonard, Jr. and Agnes "Adgie" Stanford Wilson. Leo was kind enough to help resolve some tricky family connections in Georgia and Adgie's 25 years of family research in Maryland provided invaluable information about the Stanford's who did *not* leave Maryland after the Revolutionary War. I wish to thank both of them for their great help.

When I became interested in my Stanford family, I began researching on the Internet. First, I queried the RootsWeb WorldConnect database and, then, the Latter Day Saints FamilySearch database. Later, I joined Ancestry.com to get access to census data and other records in searchable form (backed-up by scanned images of the original pages). I prowled the USGenWeb query sites...it was amazing the connections that came from there. Another successful tactic was to research other families that are connected to ours by marriage. Much of the Maryland Archives are online now, and I took advantage of that source. Major newspapers have begun to scan their old issues and put them into a searchable database that, for a small fee, is available to the public...the Augusta, Georgia paper was particularly helpful, since many family members settled near Augusta when they moved from Maryland. And, the national "Tombstone Transcription" project and other grave surveys, especially www.findagrave.com, on the Internet also provided significant information. Expanded birth and marriage records from Texas and census data for 1935 and 1945 from Florida were invaluable aids. And, to augment my online searches, I bought Odessa Stanford Garrison's book, along with Lankford's books on early Maryland settlers.

There are some disadvantages to my methods of research. Records before 1850 are limited online and data after 1940 (the last U. S. census year available) is almost non-existent except in a few states with more open records. To get past these two limitations, local research is necessary and that's where the USGenWeb sites are helpful...local folks did lookups, checked grave sites, etc. in response to my requests and were very helpful.

The focus of my research is a little different than academic "genealogy", since my goal from the beginning was to develop as broad a picture of the family as possible, but not necessarily present detail for the sake of detail (unless to give a clearer picture of an individual). Thus, incorporating photographs, wills, land deeds, marriage licenses, etc. in this database was not on my agenda...I'm satisfied to know that people married and died and that the documentation to support each event is often available.

Another big difference in my database is extensive use of "notes" to add information about individuals and family lines. In most online sites, notes are "hidden", which, in my opinion, seriously constrains the amount of information that can be presented. Finally, unlike the majority of online sites, this database contains information on living people...members of your family that you may know and with whom you can connect. Restricting data to dead people makes tracing family lines more difficult in this age of the mobile family.

The goal of my research is to provide my children, grandchildren, and succeeding generations with some information about their family origins and their "place" in space and time. If others can utilize this research, then that is icing on the cake.

Herbert W. Stanford III

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