"All the Real Indians Died Off"
AND 20 OTHER MYTHS ABOUT NATIVE AMERICANS

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is a two-way street, where reciprocity implies mutual responsibility. Simply stated, the work of achieving justice for American Indian peoples involves everyone. Indigenous and settler alike, because colonization dehumanizes both the colonized and the colonizer. Wanda Caslin and Denise Breton write, "Colonization denies entire peoples of these inherent human rights and the empowering responsibilities that go with them. Colonialism feels bad and punishing because that’s what it is. If, as is often said, we cannot get to a good place in a bad way, then we cannot get to a good society or a good relationship between peoples as long as colonialism is the dominant model."  

**HISTORICAL TIME LINE**

**Precolombian**—According to conventional science, humans began migrating from Asia to North America thirty thousand to forty thousand years ago. The Bering Strait land bridge theory postulates that humans crossed a hypothetical land bridge and arrived south of the Canadian ice sheets 16,000 years ago, while the "Clovis First" model confirms human habitation in North America (current New Mexico) 11,500 years ago. However, recent discoveries confirm the existence of humans in South America at least twenty thousand years ago, upending the Clovis model. By twelve thousand years ago—and very likely earlier—Indians lived in all the unglaciated areas of the entire hemisphere. Competing and ever-changing theories make the dates for human habitation in North America a moving target and ignore the fact that two of the seven agricultural civilizations in the world originated there, which created food plants—such as corn, tomato, squash, pumpkin, and cacao.

**9000 BC**—Agriculture begins in North America.

**4500 BC**—Monumental building begins in the Mississippi Valley.

**750 BC**—Monumental temples are built in the Ohio Valley.

**Ca. 1000**—Leif Erikson and a crew of other Norse explorers are the first-known Europeans to sail to North America. They settle in a region of today’s southeastern Canada, but the settlement ultimately
fails and the Vikings disappear, leaving behind artifacts that are discovered at L'Anse-aux-Meadows in Newfoundland in 1963.

**AD 200–1400**—The Hohokam culture—predecessors of the Tohono O’odham people in the Gila and Salt River region of today’s southern Arizona—is a technologically advanced agricultural civilization made possible by a complex system of irrigation canals. They also build large ball courts similar to those of the Mayans, for a game played with the first rubber balls known in the world.

**AD 600–1400**—Cahokia, one of the world’s largest cities in its time (located in today’s Illinois), with some fifty thousand people at its peak, is part of a larger group of Indigenous peoples known as the Mississippian, predecessors of today’s so-called Five Civilized Tribes—Cherokee, Creek, Chickasaw, Choctaw, and Seminole—among others.

**1390**—The Haudenosaunee (league of the five nations of the Iroquois—Seneca, Oneida, Onondaga, Mohawk, and Cayuga) is founded in what is now northern New York State and southern Ontario. Later, in 1712, the Tuscaroras will join the league.

**1400**—Some of the Athabaskan-speaking peoples of the sub-Arctic region in the Northwest (Alaska and Canada) move to what is now the US Southwest and divide into two large groups, Navajos (Dine) and Apaches.

**1452**—Pope Nicholas V issues Dum Diversas, authorizing Portugal to reduce Muslims, pagans, and all non-Christians to perpetual slavery and to seize their property.

**1455**—The same pope issues Romanus Pontifex, granting a monopoly on the African slave trade to Portugal and reinforcing the Europeans’ power to enslave non-Christian Native peoples wherever they are found and seize their lands. This is the onset of four centuries of transatlantic trade in enslaved Africans.

**1492**—Columbus arrives in the Caribbean believing he has found the Spice Islands of Indonesia (“East Indies”), which he calls the West Indies. He completes four round-trips between 1492 and 1498, wreaking death and destruction among the three million Taino residents of Hispaniola (today’s Dominican Republic), establishing a trade in Indian slaves that would last over a century, and launching a genocide that would result in the Indigenous depopulation of much of the Caribbean, repopulated with enslaved Africans.

**1493**—Pope Alexander VI issues the bull Inter Caetera, granting the newly “discovered” lands in America to Spain.

**1503**—Fishermen from England begin trading with the North Atlantic maritime peoples (Abenakis, Passamaquoddy, Mi-macs, Penobscots, and others), exchanging metal tools and cloth for furs and food. Soon French fishermen are trading with peoples of the Great Lakes region.

**1513**—The Spanish governor of Puerto Rico, Ponce de León, is driven away from Florida by the Calusas. He will return as a conquistador in 1521 with an organized colonizing mission, which will fail when the Calusas once again drive the Spanish out, mortally wounding the conquistador.

**1519**—The conquistador Hernando Cortés and four hundred armored and mounted men land at Yucatán when Mexico is in the midst of civil war. From the huge and majestic city of Tenochtitlán, the Aztec state rules over some thirty million people in greater Mexico, enforcing onerous tribute payments on the Indigenous farmers. Cortés allies with those attempting to overthrow the regime, and within two years the ancient and great civilization is reduced to ruins in one of the most horrific genocidal campaigns in history.

**1525**—A small Spanish exploring party, led by Cabeza de Vaca, seeking “seven cities of gold,” barely survives the journey
from Florida to Texas, with only de Vaca and an enslaved African, Estevanico, continuing to Mexico City. They claim to have sighted the cities de Vaca sought. This will lead to the mounting of the Coronado expedition into New Mexico three years later, where Estevanico is killed when he is sent ahead to scout and enters Zuni Pueblo without permission. The friar with the expedition returns to Mexico falsely claiming that the Pueblo civilization of the Rio Grande is wealthier than the Aztecs or the Incas, which makes future invasion only a matter of time.

1565—The Spanish set up the first European permanent settlement in what is now the United States. St. Augustine, Florida, functions as a base camp for further incursions on the continent.

1587—English colonists unsuccessfully attempt to create a settlement on Roanoke Island (off what is now mainland North Carolina).

1598—Don Juan Oñate, leading five hundred soldiers and families from Mexico, invades Pueblo lands in present-day New Mexico. The people of the city-state of Acoma, located on a steep rock mesa, resist, and the Spanish siege of Acoma ends with 800 Acomas slaughtered, while 570 are captured and put on trial, the men sentenced to having their right hands cut off and the women indentured into servitude. The Spanish colonizers impose a colonial system of domination and exploitation, brutalizing the Pueblo peoples throughout Spain’s rule in the Southwest, drastically reducing the population and number of autonomous Pueblo towns.

1607—The first permanent English settlement in what is now the United States is established at Jamestown, Virginia, on the lands of the Powhatan confederacy of Indigenous nations. Within two years, there is full-scale war, which continues off and on, while the London stock company financing the colony begins a lucrative trade in Indian tobacco, enticing a flood of English settlers, who instead of purchasing land from the Powhatans and clearing the forests and planting crops, attack and drive them out of their fields, burning their towns. Warfare continues until 1644, with the destruction of the Powhatan confederacy, leaving thousands of homeless and starving refugees. This marks the pattern of British settler-colonialism as they seize the Eastern Seaboard over a period of nearly two centuries.

1616–19—Following an exploratory mapping of southern New England by John Smith, a deadly epidemic wipes out a majority of Native peoples where the Mayflower will arrive.

1620—The Mayflower, financed by a British corporation, lands at the site of the Wampanoag (Pokanoket) village known as Patuxet, which the pilgrims rename New Plymouth.

1621—The pilgrims meet the sachem leader Massasoit and the English-speaking Squanto, who teaches them how to farm the Indian way, saving them from certain starvation. Massasoit negotiates a treaty of mutual protection with the colonists.

1621–60—More than forty thousand English Puritan (Calvinist) settlers flood Native lands in New England, initially drawn by stories of the local Indians being friendly with the Pilgrims. The Massachusetts Bay Colony is chartered, and settlers assume, when they acquire land from Indian communities for payment, that it is then their private property, but Indigenous nations in the Americas do not recognize individual private property and consider the money to be payment for use rights. The original inhabitants expect to continue to use the land for fishing and taking game.

1636–37—The Pequots’ attempt to drive the English squatters out of their territory, the Connecticut Valley, with organized
English militias burning villages. Captain John Mason launches a militia attack that kills over seven hundred Pequot—men, women, and children.

1638—The English Puritans, in dominating Connecticut, force the Pequots onto a much reduced land base, the first Indian reservation. The Indians are ruled by an English agent and prohibited from leaving the reservation or allowing other Indians inside. They are not allowed to bear arms and are forced to convert to Christianity, acknowledging that their own beliefs are Satanic.

1675-76—The first major war between the English settlers in New England and the Native people breaks out, known as King Philip’s War. A coalition of Native communities including Wampanoags, Narragansetts, Nipmucks, Mohegans, and Podunk attacks more than half the ninety English towns in Massachusetts and Rhode Island, wiping out twelve of them. Puritan militias form, with their ministers urging them to “exterminate the savage Canaanites.” A bloodbath begins, a war of extermination. The bloodied and mutilated bodies of Native people are dubbed “redskins” by the Puritans. Those not killed are sold into slavery in the West Indies.

1675-76—Bacon’s Rebellion is an uprising led by a member of the Virginia elite but composed of former indentured servants, both black and white. Although their rebellion would be heralded by multiculturalists in the twentieth century as a moment of racial unity, their goal was to pressure the Virginia colonial authorities to forcibly remove Indigenous farmers and distribute the land to the rebels. The rebellion is finally put down, but it leads authorities in 1691 to banish whites who intermarry with Indians, blacks, or anyone of mixed race.

1680—The Pueblo Revolt, inspired by religious leader Popé and joined by Navajos, Apaches, and Genizaros (the name for mestizos in New Mexico), drives the Spanish settlers, officials, priests, and soldiers out of Santa Fe. Peace and freedom ensues in the region for twelve years, at which time the Spanish return in full force and rule for another century.

1700—The encroachment of Spanish, French, and British colonists in North America leads many sedentary Native peoples to acquire horses and migrate to the Great Plains for buffalo hunting, particularly the Comanches and the Sioux.

1701—After six decades of warfare in northern New York, French Canada, and the Great Lakes region, exacerbated by French and British competition for domination in the region, with dozens of Native nations allied with one side or the other, a certain peace is reached, with greater domination of trade by the European powers and aggressive conversion by Christian missionaries.

1712—The Tuscaroras of the area that becomes North Carolina fight against English slave traders and choose to migrate to New York, where they became the sixth nation of the Iroquois Confederacy.

1727—The Lenape (Delaware) people who are indigenous to what is now New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, Pennsylvania, and southern New York, are forcibly removed from Pennsylvania.

1754-60—The French and Indian War between Britain and France (the North American theater of the European Seven Years’ War) leads to France’s loss of most of its claimed territory in North America.

1763—The British Royal Proclamation of 1763 limits English expansion of settlements over the eastern mountain chain into the Indigenous farmlands of the Ohio Valley, becoming a major contributing factor to the decision of settlers to fight for independence from Britain in order to form their own empire.
In 1765, to raise funds for the cost of policing the proclamation line, the British Parliament enacts the Stamp Act, which riles the settlers.

1763–66—Pontiac, leader of the Ottawa Nation in the Great Lakes region, puts together a large alliance of Native nations and communities to prevent the entrance of British agents who intend to seize all the French forts and outposts in the area. The alliance succeeds in holding back the British until they run out of weapons and ammunition, when all the communities are forced into peace treaties with the British.

1766—Land speculators and companies begin to map Indian lands in the Ohio Valley. Among the investors are future US presidents George Washington and Thomas Jefferson.

1769—Daniel Boone opens a route from Virginia into Kentucky, part of the Ohio Country, in defiance of the 1763 proclamation. Settler-squatters flood the farmlands of the Shawnees and Cherokees.

1769—Spanish Franciscan priests under the leadership of Junipero Serra use the Spanish army to attack, capture, and bring in the Native peoples, forcing them into labor in the prison-like missions in what is now California.

1774—The First Continental Congress is formed, one of its first acts being the appointment of a Committee on Indian Affairs to assure either Indigenous alliance or neutrality in the settlers' war of independence from Britain, but this wins over only the Delawares and the Oneidas under threats of total destruction. During the same year, the governor of the Virginia colony, Lord Dunmore, organizes a settler militia of three thousand to attack Shawnees in support of the illegal squatters in the Ohio Valley. The Shawnees form a confederation to defend the territory from invasion, which persists until it is crushed in 1812.

1776—The Declaration of Independence states among its reasons for secession: "He [the king] has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian Savages, whose known rule of warfare, is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes and conditions."

1778—The United States signs its first treaty with a Native nation, the Delaware Nation, to gain access to Delaware trade and create a military and political alliance during the Revolutionary War.

1783—The Treaty of Paris is signed, with Britain granting independence to the United States, with no mention of Indian rights. The bargaining power available to Native nations is down to a trickle, as that of their French and British allies has diminished or disappeared.

1787—The Constitutional Convention enacts the Northwest Ordinance, a plan to take the Indigenous peoples' land and farms in the Ohio Valley for Euro-American settlement and statehood, with empty promises for those to be displaced: "The utmost good faith shall always be observed towards the Indians; their lands and property shall never be taken from them without their consent; and, in their property, rights, and liberty, they shall never be invaded or disturbed, unless in just and lawful wars authorized by Congress; but laws founded in justice and humanity, shall from time to time be made for preventing wrongs being done to them, and for preserving peace and friendship with them." The Bill of Rights amended to the Constitution famously includes the Second Amendment that empowers settler-militias and guarantees the right of every settler to be armed.

1789—Federal Indian affairs are placed under the auspices of the War Department (which will become the Department of
Defense after World War II). The Office of Indian Affairs will be formed in 1824, remaining in the War Department.

1790–99—Settlers in the Ohio Valley are stunned by the gigantic earth works and Native antiquities and artifacts, which they loot. Washington and Jefferson pack their mansions with these stolen items.

1791—The Shawnee Confederation (fourteen allied Native nations) under the leadership of Blue Jacket and Little Turtle defeat a force of fourteen hundred militiamen organized by the US governor of the Northwest Territory. Tecumseh fights in this battle and soon rises to leadership of the confederation.

1793—Congress appropriates funds for the founding of the US Army to support militias in their attempts to dislodge the resident Indians in the Ohio Valley. The following year, twenty-two hundred army infantrymen along with a full cavalry and fifteen hundred Kentucky militiamen will attack the Shawnee Confederation, and the Battle of Fallen Timbers ensues, making clear that the confederation is unable to prevail in an all-out war. In 1795 the allied Native nations will sign the Greenville Treaty of Peace, giving up some land in exchange for a US-enforced boundary between Indigenous territory and US territory. The treaty will also stipulate that only nations can cede land, not individual Indians. However, the Northwest Territory governor, William Henry Harrison, ignores the treaty and continues military pressure against the Indians.

1794—Jay's Treaty between British Canada and the United States establishes the border between Canada and the United States. It allows the British to maintain their forts in the Northwest Territory and guarantees the right of the Indigenous inhabitants to move freely within their territories that now overlap the Euro-American border, without paying duties. This treaty remains in effect today.

1797—The nations of the Iroquois Confederacy retain only fragments of their once expansive territories.

1801—15—The Barbary Wars transpire, the first US wars overseas. "From the Halls of Montezuma to the shores of Tripoli," the first line of the official hymn of the US Marine Corps (composed and adopted soon after the US 1846 invasion of Mexico) will refer back to the First Barbary War, when President Jefferson dispatched the navy to invade North Africa. The ostensible goal was to force Tripoli to release US sailors it held hostage and to end “pirate” attacks on US merchant ships. In 1816, the wars in the Mediterranean will end with US victory when Pasha Yusuf Karamanli, ruler of Tripoli, agrees not to exact fees from US ships entering its territorial waters. The United States is an overseas imperialist power from its inception.

1805–6—The Lewis and Clark military expedition takes place. Soon after acquiring Louisiana, President Jefferson commissions a group of army volunteers under the command of Captain Meriwether Lewis and Second Lieutenant William Clark. Their task is to map the newly acquired territory and collect information on the Native nations present in every part of the territory. They impress multilingual Sacajawea, Shoshone wife of a French fur trader, into service as interpreter and guide on the 7,689-mile trek.

1806–13—Tecumseh rightly surmises that the United States intends to take all the land of the Northwest Territory and drive out the Indigenous inhabitants. With his brother, the religious
leader Tenskwatawa (the Prophet), he envisions a new alliance from the Great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico. They establish a new village, Prophetstown, as the capital of the alliance, attracting Shawnees, Wyandots, Delawares, Ottawas, and others. Tecumseh travels all the way to Florida, organizing along the way with the Creeks and Seminoles. They build channels of communication and trade throughout the interior. The alliance includes escaped slaves and free Blacks, along with errant citizens of Spain and France, as well as people from all of the southern Native nations. In 1811, while Tecumseh is in Florida, William Henry Harrison invades Prophetstown with nine hundred troops, burning all the buildings and granaries and forcing a treaty of cession. But Tecumseh continues organizing into Canada, allying for a time with British forces in the War of 1812. Tecumseh is killed in battle in 1813, and British support evaporates at the end of the war. The Creek and southern alliance, the Creek Confederacy, continues operating in the South, ending up in a new fortified center in the Everglades of Spanish-held Florida.

1814—Creeks are decimated at the Battle of Horseshoe Bend in Alabama by a Tennessee militia founded and headed by Andrew Jackson, a wealthy slave owner. Surviving Red Stick Creek warriors join the Seminole resistance in the Everglades.

1817–18—The First Seminole War begins after federal authorities enter Spanish Florida illegally in an attempt to recover plantation owners’ “property”: former African slaves. Under the leadership of Osceola, the Seminoles repel the invasion. In 1818 President James Monroe orders Andrew Jackson, by then a major general in the US Army, to lead three thousand soldiers into Florida to crush the Seminoles and retrieve the Africans among them. The expedition destroys a number of Seminole settlements and captures the Spanish fort at Pensacola, bringing down the Spanish government but failing to destroy Seminole guerrilla resistance. The Seminoles refuse to hand over any former slaves. The United States will wage three wars against the Seminole Nation in the Everglades between 1817 and 1858. The prolonged and fierce Second Seminole War (1835–42), while Jackson is president, will be the longest war waged by the United States up to the Vietnam War. The Seminoles will never surrender, and they still hold their territory in Florida.

1823—Johnson v. M’Intosh is the first Supreme Court case of the Marshall Trilogy, the foundation of all subsequent federal Indian law. It first articulates the doctrine of discovery.

1830—President Jackson signs the Indian Removal Act, authorizing the president to carve up Indigenous peoples’ territories west of the Mississippi in order to resettle the southeastern Native peoples on it and creating “Indian Territory,” later Oklahoma, which allows for the rapid development of the Cotton Kingdom in the Southeast.

1831—In Cherokee v. Georgia, the second case in the Supreme Court’s Marshall Trilogy, the court affirms the sovereignty of the Cherokee Nation to the ire of President Jackson, who refuses to follow the decision and initiates the removal of the “Five Civilized Tribes” (Cherokees, Choctaws, Creeks, Chickasaws, and Seminoles), so named for their adoption of US-style government.

1832—Worcester v. Georgia, the third case in the Marshall Trilogy, holds that Indians are domestic dependent nations, not foreign nations.

1838—The Trail of Tears begins. Cherokee, Creek, Chickasaw, Choctaw, and Seminole peoples are forced to walk over one thousand miles from their homelands in the Southeast to
Indian Territory (today’s Oklahoma), resulting in the deaths of over ten thousand.

1846—The United States signs the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo after the cessation of a two-year war against Mexico, which loses half its territory to the United States, beginning a new reign of terror against California Indians as the gold rush takes off the following year. The treaty mandates cooperation between the two countries to destroy the new cross-border Apache and Navajo Nations.

1862—The Dakota Sioux resistance to settlers taking their land ends with the mass hanging of thirty-eight Dakota men, the largest execution in US history.

1864—The Navajos are forcibly removed from their homelands in Arizona and forcibly marched by irregular troops led by Kit Carson to southeastern New Mexico, where half of them die while incarcerated, a traumatic event Navajos call the Long Walk.

1871—Congress unilaterally ends treaty-making with Indians.

1879—The Carlisle Indian Industrial School is established in Pennsylvania, the prototype for the many militaristic federal boarding schools that will be set up across the continent soon after, augmented by dozens of Christian missionary boarding schools. Sent to faraway boarding schools, children are subjected to an educational regime designed to teach them Euro-American ways (under the philosophy “kill the Indian, save the man”) and train them for low-level service jobs, damaging generations of Native children into the mid-twentieth century before the schools were reformed or closed.

1887—The Dawes Act is passed in Congress, sanctioning a policy of assimilation through privatization of Indian reservation lands. Lands are carved up into 80-acre and 160-acre allotments designated for individual farming and ranching. “Surplus” lands are opened for white settlement.

1890—Decades of armed Sioux resistance, led by Crazy Horse and Sitting Bull, among others, end in the massacre at Wounded Knee, leaving hundreds of unarmed and Sioux refugees dead. It is classified by the US military as a victory for the Seventh Cavalry, with dozens of Congressional Medals of Honor bestowed on the soldiers. Native resistance is generally seen as over.

1911—The Society of American Indians (SAI), America’s first pan-Indian organization, forms to lobby for civil rights and assimilation for Indians.

1923—Deskaheh, leader and spokesperson for the Iroquois Confederation of Canada, goes to Geneva, Switzerland, to present the confederation’s long-standing dispute with the Canadian government to the League of Nations.

1924—Congress passes the Indian Citizenship Act realizing the lobbying efforts of the SAI.

1928—The Meriam Report condemns the federal assimilation policy for causing intractable poverty on Indian reservations.

1934—The Wheeler-Howard Act (Indian Reorganization Act) signals a new Indian policy direction, allowing for newly organized tribal governments under strict federal supervision.

1944—The National Congress of American Indians emerges from the remnants of the SAI.

1946—The Indian Claims Commission is formed to monetarily settle Indian land claims, not to return lands.
1953—Congress passes House Concurrent Resolution 108, the Termination Act, in order to officially terminate the federal government's treaty relationship to Indian nations, the reservations to be dissolved, attempting to once and for all absorb Indians into mass society. Over one hundred tribes are terminated over the next few years. The federal relocation program encourages subsidized movement of Indians on reservations to designated urban areas, within a decade creating a large urban Indian population. Only after two decades of Native organizing is termination stopped.

1957—The International Labour Organization adopts conventions concerning the protection of Indigenous peoples, but they are inherently paternalistic and assimilationist.

1960—The National Indian Youth Council is founded in Albuquerque.

1964—Pacific Northwest tribes begin staging fish-ins in a move to get the United States to enforce their treaty-based rights to salmon fishing. This will culminate in the 1975 Boldt decision (United States v. Washington) finding in favor of the Native people to fish in their traditional waters even if not on reservation land.

1968—The American Indian Civil Rights Act is passed to give a measure of individual civil liberties to Indians. The American Indian Movement is founded in Minneapolis, modeled on black civil rights groups and made up largely from the urban Indian population.

1969—The two-and-a-half-year occupation of Alcatraz Island (San Francisco) begins, drawing national and international attention to Indian rights concerns.

1970—President Nixon condemns the termination policy, announcing a new federal policy of Indian self-determination, and signs into law the return of the sacred lands of Blue Lake to Taos Pueblo.

1971—The Alaska Native Claims Settlement Act is passed, which turns Alaska Native nations into corporations and extinguishes 90 percent of their claims to land in exchange for forty million acres of land and almost $1 billion.

1972—President Nixon signs into law the Indian Self-Determination and Education Act, reversing the previously assimilationist termination policy and giving tribal governments greater control over their affairs. In response, hundreds of Indian protesters carvan to Washington, D.C., in the “Trail of Broken Treaties” to present their Twenty Point Position Paper to Nixon and occupy the Bureau of Indian Affairs building for almost a week.

1973—The American Indian Movement leads a seventy-one-day occupation of Wounded Knee in South Dakota. Marlon Brando sends Sacheen Littlefeather to reject an Oscar at the Academy Awards, drawing attention to Hollywood’s treatment of Indians and showing solidarity with the Wounded Knee protesters.

1974—The American Indian Movement organizes a conference of thousands to form the International Indian Treaty Council.

1975—Congress passes the Indian Self-Determination and Education Assistance Act, giving tribal governments greater control over their affairs.

1977—Leonard Peltier is convicted of murdering an FBI agent on the Pine Ridge Indian Reservation and sentenced to two consecutive terms of life in prison, despite evidence that supports his innocence, making him widely viewed as a political prisoner.

1977—At United Nations headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland, the NGO Conference discrimination of Indigenous Populations
in America is held, producing the "Draft Declaration of the Principles for the Defence of the Indigenous Nations and Peoples of the Western Hemisphere."


1978—In Santa Clara Pueblo v. Martinez, the Supreme Court affirms the right of tribal governments to determine their own membership, a strong show of support for tribal sovereignty.


1988—The Indian Gaming Regulatory Act is passed to support tribal economic development.

1989—The International Labour Organization adopts Convention 169, the only international treaty to consider the problems of Indigenous peoples.

1990—The Native American Graves and Repatriation Act is passed to facilitate processes of repatriating Native American remains and burial artifacts, further bolstering tribal sovereignty.

1994—Congress passes the Tribal Self-Governance Act, creating a new compacting process between tribal governments and the BIA for greater tribal control of financial resources.

1996—Eloise Cobell (Blackfeet) files a lawsuit against the US Department of the Interior and US Department of the Treasury for over a century of mismanagement of Indian trust accounts.

1996—The remains of an ancient male skeleton, which will become known as Kennewick Man and the Ancient One, is found on the banks of the Columbia River. It’s speculated that the Ancient One was Caucasian, igniting a two-decade controversy over the how the remains are to be handled and who they belong to.

2000—The Bureau of Indian Affairs, via Assistant Secretary for Indian Affairs Kevin Gover (Pawnee), delivers an official apology for its wrongs against American Indians.

2007—After over two decades of deliberations, the UN General Assembly passes the Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples, with four no votes coming from Australia, New Zealand, Canada, and the United States, which all later will change to yes.

2009—Congress passes a resolution of apology to American Indians. Buried in a defense appropriations bill, the resolution receives little notice.

2010—President Obama signs the Claims Resolution Act settling the fourteen-year-long Cobell lawsuit. It is considered the largest settlement by the US government in history.

2010—Under Obama, the United States becomes the last member state to endorse the Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples.

2012—The international Indigenous activist movement Idle No More is born after a series of anti-Indian and anti-environment legislation is passed under the Harper administration in Canada.

2014—The US Senate confirms the first Native American woman, Diane Humetewa (Hopi), to a federal judgeship.

2014—In June thousands of Indigenous and Fourth World nations’ representatives from all over the world gather in Alta, Norway, to collectively prepare a statement for the upcoming UN World Conference on Indigenous Peoples (WCIP), the most significant gathering of Indigenous peoples in history.
The statement is a list of recommendations for UN member states’ own WCIP Outcome Document on how they can improve their relations with Indigenous peoples. In September, the World Conference on Indigenous Peoples is the first high-level plenary meeting for Indigenous issues in the UN, but the WCIP Outcome Document ultimately ignores many of the Alta statement’s recommendations. The WCIP is seen by many as an important step forward, while others are highly critical of its limitations.

2015—DNA analysis determines that Kennewick Man is genetically more related to the Colville Indians than to any other known group in the world.

2015—in a speech in Santa Cruz, Bolivia, Pope Francis delivers an apology for the Catholic Church’s sins against all Indigenous peoples. Two months later he canonizes Father Junipero Serra despite widespread opposition in Indian country.

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