

RESOURCE PROTECTION PLANNING PROJECT
PATTERNS OF WHITE SETTLEMENT IN OKLAHOMA, 1889-1907

REGION THREE

Text and Research: Michael Smith
Additional Research: Rita Askew-Wilson

Oklahoma Historic Preservation Survey
Department of History
Oklahoma State University, Stillwater
Director: Philip V. Scarpino

1986

ACKNOWLEDGMENT OF SUPPORT

The activity that is the subject of this publication has been financed in part with Federal funds from the National Park Service, Department of the Interior. However, the contents and opinions do not necessarily reflect the views or policies of the Department of the Interior, nor does the mention of trade names or commercial products constitute endorsement or recommendation by the Department of the Interior.

PATTERNS OF WHITE SETTLEMENT IN OKLAHOMA, 1889-1907

The purpose of this study is to provide a historic context for the interpretation of white settlement patterns in Oklahoma. While one cannot overlook the significant role of Indians, Blacks, and other ethnic groups in populating and developing the state, their contributions merit separate attention. This work, therefore, focuses on the conditions, stimuli, and processes that determined rural settlement and urban development in the state between 1889, when the area was opened to white settlement, and 1907, when Oklahoma was admitted to the Union.

Prior to the Civil War, the United States government set aside the present state of Oklahoma as an Indian preserve. Only those white people who married Indians or who obtained special permits would be allowed to reside legally on tribal lands. In the 1820s and 1830s, the Five Civilized Tribes--the Cherokees, Choctaws, Chickasaws, Creeks, and Seminoles--were forced to cede their territory in the Southeast in return for land in Oklahoma. Fierce nomadic tribes, however, controlled the western plains, and the Five Civilized Tribes settled only the eastern half of the region. The Indian custom of holding land in common, which persisted in Oklahoma, allowed each individual to exploit the amount of tribal land that suited his interests. While the full bloods kept to themselves on small subsistence patches, mixed bloods and adopted whites

operated farms, ranches, and plantations that often encompassed thousands of acres. The traditional Indian town, previously a communal center with adjacent common fields, declined in Oklahoma. Settlements functioned as trade, political, or educational centers, but they did not contain significant concentrations of population.

During the Civil War, the Five Civilized Tribes allied mainly with the Confederacy. As a penalty for secession, in 1866 the federal government forced them to accept new treaties that hastened the demise of Indian isolation and ultimately precipitated the opening of their land to white settlement. Among the provisions of the new agreements was the requirement that the tribes cede large portions of their western territory, upon which the United States would relocate other tribes, and the stipulation that they grant railroad rights-of-way across their domains.

During the 1870s and 1880s, railroad corporations constructed lines through the territory that facilitated the exploitation of natural resources in the Indian nations, provided greater access to regional and national markets, and stimulated increased agricultural activity. (For further information on the construction of railroads in Oklahoma, see the transportation historic context.) Section points along the rail lines became commercial and distribution centers and fostered the establishment of towns. Vinita, Miami, McAlester, Atoka, Durant, Ada, and Ardmore became significant railroad towns, service centers,

and the foci of areal agricultural development. The expansion of the rail facilities spurred the development of valuable bituminous coal deposits in Indian territory, principally in the Choctaw nation. Attracting thousands of workers, mining towns such as South McAlester, Krebs, Coalgate, and Lehigh comprised some of the most important population clusters in the Indian territory.

Concomitant with rapid economic development after 1870 was the dramatic increase in the number of white residents in Indian country. At first, most apparently obtained the required permits and engaged in legal activities. Many, however, were illegitimate "intruders." In 1889, the agent in charge of the affairs of the Five Civilized Tribes estimated that in a population of 175,000 there were 108,000 white residents, including 35,000 intruders. The number of illegal residents continued to rise in subsequent years and intensified the pressure upon the federal government to open Indian lands formally to white settlement.

During the 1870s, a rising tide of farmers, speculators, and businessmen streamed into the American West. A growing number of whites viewed land in the Indian territory as the last frontier and increasingly demanded the opening of the Unassigned Lands to white settlement. Many "boomers" refused to wait for official government sanction, organized colonization schemes in neighboring states, and carried out invasions of the Unassigned Lands

in defiance of federal authorities. Although the "boomers" failed to establish any permanent settlements, their encampments at locations such as those on the North Canadian River at the site of present-day Oklahoma City and on Boomer Creek near Stillwater did attract many settlers after the area was opened. The publicity that attended their activities, however, helped make the Oklahoma movement a national issue.

Events in the 1880s significantly advanced the boomers' designs. In 1887, the Santa Fe completed a line from Kansas to Texas directly through the Unassigned Lands. The company established station points at approximately ten-mile intervals, making such places as Alfred, Guthrie, Edmond, Oklahoma Station, and Norman prime future townsite locations. In 1889, the government of the United States acquired final title to the nearly 2,000,000 acres in the Unassigned Lands and authorized the president to open the area for white settlement. Because the number of expectant settlers far exceeded the approximately 12,000 sites available, the Department of Interior devised a procedure to give each person an equal chance--a land run. When the cannon blasts signalled the beginning of the run at noon on April 22, 1889, an estimated 60,000 people raced to stake a claim. By late afternoon, nearly all the land had been claimed--frequently by several persons. Almost as rapidly, urban clusters at Guthrie, Oklahoma City, Kingfisher-Lisbon, Orlando, Lexington, Crescent, and

elsewhere began the process of organizing towns.

White settlement in Oklahoma was not restricted to the Unassigned Lands for long. In 1889, the federal government negotiated treaties with Indian tribes (excluding the Five Civilized Tribes) who relinquished their exclusive claims to reservation lands and agreed to accept 160-acre allotments. After distribution of the individual parcels, the government purchased the remaining lands and opened them for general settlement.

The Organic Act of 1890, which provided formal political organization for the newly created Oklahoma Territory, annexed the Public Land Strip (the Oklahoma Panhandle) and stipulated that all reservation lands in the western Indian region would be incorporated into the new territory as they were opened to whites. Between 1891 and 1906, approximately 13,500,000 acres of land were opened by a series of runs, lotteries, sealed bids, and public auction. Those areas opened by land runs usually duplicated the process of settlement in the Unassigned Lands. Those opened by lottery, sealed bids, and public auction were more orderly. But in either case, the establishment of farms and the formation of towns largely followed the patterns and vicissitudes that characterized the initial opening.

Homesteaders who succeeded in obtaining land staked their claim, located the corners of their quarter section, made rudimentary improvements on their tract, and filed at

the land office as soon as possible. The settler's first home was small and crudely built of whatever material was available. After securing their own shelter, they then proceeded to plow their land, plant a crop, build a shed for the live stock, and set out a few fruit trees. If the land was productive and the farm thrived, a more substantial, multi-room wood frame or stone house (see, for instance, the old Herbert farmstead southeast of Mulhall) replaced the more primitive family quarters.

Many of the new settlers were not farmers and had no intention of becoming farmers. The urban impulse in Oklahoma Territory was almost as compelling as the hunger for land. Although not completely unique in American frontier experience, a significant characteristic of the settlement of Oklahoma Territory was the creation of instant cities and towns. The "boom towns" of Guthrie, Oklahoma City, Lawton, and Enid literally sprouted on the prairie on the day of the opening and contained 10-15,000 or more people by nightfall. Railroad towns evolved from stations or locations along the major lines and enjoyed the advantages of transportation and communications facilities. Inland towns--those settlements that had no initial connection to rail lines, such as Stillwater, El Reno, and Altus--were created to serve the needs of the rural population and in hopes of becoming thriving communities in their own right. The success and durability of these ventures largely depended upon a variety of

factors, the most important of which was the success of their efforts to secure the interest of a railroad. Many aspiring communities, such as Ingalls, Lawrie, or Paradise, just "bubbled up" after an opening and then collapsed almost as quickly.

The business district of the average town, at first comprised of from four to twelve stores along the main street, was the heart of the settlement. The earliest stores were often located in tents, but frame buildings replaced the temporary quarters as soon as possible. As the town prospered, brick, stone or concrete structures gradually supplanted many of the wooden buildings.

Between 1890 and 1907, a tremendous increase in the white population of Oklahoma Territory and Indian Territory generated almost irresistible pressure on Congress to admit Oklahoma to the Union. The population of Oklahoma Territory grew from nearly 61,000 in 1890 to almost 400,000 in 1900. A special census in 1907 set the population at over 722,000. By statehood, the population of Indian Territory had risen to over 690,000 inhabitants, with non-Indians outnumbering the Native Americans by seven to one. Before admitting Oklahoma, however, Congress insisted that Indians accept the concept of the private ownership of land. The Dawes Commission was authorized to survey the lands of the Five Civilized Tribes, enroll allottees, and determine eligibility. Ultimately, 101,526 persons received land allotments of 160 acres in Indian

Territory. The remainder was assigned to townsites, schools and other public purposes, and segregated coal and timber lands. There was no surplus land for homesteading. On November 16, 1907, Oklahoma's nearly 1,500,00 inhabitants entered the Union as citizens of the forty-sixth state.

PATTERNS OF WHITE SETTLEMENT IN REGION THREE

The nineteen counties of region three comprise the northeastern corner of Oklahoma. This area encompasses the entire Cherokee Nation and Osage Reservation and virtually all of the Creek Nation. The former Pawnee, Oto Missouri, Modoc, Ottawa, Peoria, Ouapaw, Shawnee, Wyandotte, and Seneca reservations also fall within region three. The dominant geographic zones, ranging in three concentric bands from east to west, include the Ozark Plateau, the Prairie Plains, and the Sandstone Hills. The Ozark Plateau, lying completely within the old Cherokee Nation, contains several extensive fertile areas, including Cowskin, Long, and Pegg's Prairies, which support productive farming operations. On the more rugged terrain of the plateau, land serves for grazing and the growing of trees. The favorable climatic conditions in the Prairie Plains allowed early settlers to grow a wide variety of crops, while extensive areas of fertile land for farms or

pastures lay between the rounded mounds of the Sandstone Hills.

Most of region three has an elevation ranging generally between 500 and 1000 feet. Its contour includes the Boston Mountains and Cookson Hills in the southeast and the Osage Hills in the northwest. Generally well watered, the region receives between thirty and forty-four inches of rain annually, the amount decreasing gradually from east to west. A number of important water courses, including the Arkansas, Verdigris, Grand, Illinois, Neosho, and Caney rivers drain the area. Region three contains extensive stretches of tall grasslands sandwiched between the vast oak and hickory forests of the east and the post oaks and blackjack oaks of the Cross Timbers. Among the abundant natural resources found here are coal, gas and petroleum, lead and zinc, and glass sand. Thus, before statehood, settlers could cultivate corn, cotton, wheat, potatoes, and fruit; graze large herds of cattle; and exploit a variety of subsoil riches.

After passage of the Indian Removal Act (1830), the Creeks, Seminoles, Cherokees, Quapaws, Senecas, and Shawnees agreed to surrender to the United States their lands east of the Mississippi River and migrate to Oklahoma. The Cherokees received most of the eastern half of region three as well as the Cherokee Outlet, a 60-mile wide strip of land extending from the 96th to 100th meridian. The Quapaws, Senecas, and Shawnees located on

small reservations in the extreme northeastern corner. The Creeks and Seminoles shared the remainder of the region until 1856. When the Seminoles established an independent nation in that year, their reconstituted domain lay outside region three.

After removal, the Creeks and Cherokees developed relatively prosperous economies. While most full bloods farmed small subsistence plots, many mixed bloods cultivated extensive tracts, produced large amounts of grain and cotton, and grazed substantial herds of cattle. Although land was held on a tribal basis, individual members could develop large scale operations. A number of Indian planters owned black slaves; others employed white laborers, who needed a special permit to enter Indian land.

As punishment for their support of the Confederacy during the Civil War, the United States government forced the Creeks and Cherokees to accept new treaties in 1866. The tribes agreed to cede their western lands to the federal government for the resettlement of other Indian groups, abolish slavery, and permit the construction of railroad lines through their territory. The Creeks retained all of their lands in region three. The Cherokees, although keeping most of their territory, did yield an extensive section of the eastern end of the Outlet for the resettlement of the Osages and lesser portions to accomodate the Pawnees and Oto Missouris. In addition, small groups of Peorias, Modocs, Ottawas, and Wyandottes

joined the Quapaws, Senecas, and Shawnees in the northeastern corner of the region. Although the Civil War had ruined farms, destroyed property, and decimated herds, the economy of Indian Territory revived in a remarkably short time. During the next few decades, however, a series of developments would destroy the tribes' independence and exclusive control over their lands.

The construction of railroads through Indian Territory in the 1870s initiated the tribes' ultimate demise. Beginning in 1871, the Katy, Frisco, Missouri Pacific, Kansas City Southern, Santa Fe, and other railroad corporations laid hundreds of miles of track through region three, encouraged agricultural production and ranching, spurred the exploitation of mineral resources, stimulated urbanization, and attracted a flood of whites. The Katy constructed the first north-south railroad line across region three in 1871-1872. Extending from Chetopah, Kansas, to Denison, Texas, it led to the establishment of such places as Welch, Bluejacket, Vinita, Pryor, Chouteau, Wagoner, Muskogee, Oktaha, Checotah, and Eufaula. In 1871, the Atlantic and Pacific Railroad Company, later known as the Frisco, built west from Missouri through Shawnee and Cherokee lands, connected with the Katy at Vinita, and led to the founding of Fairland and Afton. From 1881-1882, the Frisco extended this route to Tulsa by way of Chelsea, Foyil, Claremore, and Catoosa. By 1886 it had reached Sapulpa, and in 1898 the Frisco completed the line from

Sapulpa to Oklahoma City through Kellyville, Bristow, and Depew. A third major railroad constructed through region three between 1888 and 1889, when the Kansas and Arkansas Valley Railway Company (Missouri Pacific) laid a track from Van Buren, Arkansas, along the left bank of the Arkansas River to Ft. Gibson, and then north to Kansas. This stimulated the establishment and expansion of such places as Muldrow, Sallisaw, Gore, Braggs, Okay, Inola, Oologah, Talala, Nowata, Delaware, Lenapah, and South Coffeyville.

A number of other companies expanded rail services into the area prior to 1907. In 1895-1896, the Kansas City, Pittsburg and Gulf Railroad (Kansas City Southern) arched across the eastern portion of region three from the Oklahoma-Arkansas border northeast of Watts through Westville, Stillwell, Marble City, Sallisaw, and Gore. In 1899, the Santa Fe extended its trackage from Owen, near the Kansas-Oklahoma line, to Owasso via Copan, Dewey, Bartlesville, Ochelata, Ramona, and Collinsville. In 1901, the Frisco built from Sapulpa to Texas through Keifer, Mounds, Beggs, and Okmulgee. Between 1901 and 1904, the Katy built a line from South Coffeyville to Oklahoma City, passing through Wann, Wynona, Hominy, Osage, Hallett and Jennings. Additional construction provided an extensive rail network which connected towns in region three with major markets and population centers within and outside the region.

In addition to railroad construction, the discovery of mineral resources stimulated economic development, urbanization, and white settlement in region three. Extensive seams of coal underlie the heart of the region. After J.J. McAlester began the commercial exploitation of bituminous coal deposits in the Choctaw Nation in 1872, mining led to the establishment of numerous towns and camps in region three at such places as Henryetta and Okmulgee. The discovery of petroleum attracted further white settlement. Drilling for oil began on the Osage Reservation as early as 1896; by 1904, over 350 wells had been sunk. In 1901, petroleum was found south of Tulsa in the Creek Nation. In 1905, production began in the Glen Pool southwest of Tulsa; other spectacular strikes throughout the region followed. Beginning in the late 1890s, lead and zinc mining brought further economic development to region three. The northeastern corner of the state lies within the fabulously rich Tri State District, where such mining towns as Cardin, Commerce, and Picher arose before statehood.

As each town sprang into existence, a cluster of white businessmen, professionals, artisans, laborers, and scoundrels took up residence. Although non-citizens were required to obtain a permit to reside and work in Indian Territory and those without licenses were classified as intruders subject to expulsion, many whites entered and remained illegally. Towns on Indian land were established

through the patronage of the tribal council or a citizen who had received permission from the native government to exploit an unoccupied tract. Individual Indians could then lease town lots or surrender their claims for a price. Railroad townsite companies or mining concerns owned some of the towns. Most of these settlements contained all the necessities for the resident families, but others were little more than camps, where living conditions were extremely crude through the 1890s.

Describing settlements in Indian Territory during the 1880s, a federal report had stated that "towns have all been built and peopled by white residents, whose capital has been invested in large amount in structures necessary for the great and increasing trade which is being carried on at these centers. Costly and attractive residences have been erected in many of them, and in character they compare favorably with towns in any of the new states." It continued that white settlers "with few exceptions are doing a surprisingly large and prosperous business. And yet those who have built these towns, invested their capital in these expensive structures and have made these beautiful homes, have no title to the land on which they rest. This remains in the nation."

Another report prepared during the eleventh census in 1890 offered the following observations on urbanization in the Indian lands:

The towns occupied by the noncitizens (largely white intruders) are merely camps, but

with valuable and important buildings. There are no town limits, sewers, water supply, police, fire departments or any of the ordinary features of organized communities.

. . . Not one town in Indian Territory is incorporated, there being no law to incorporate townsites. Persons other than citizens (members of the various tribes) building homes in towns or cities do so at their own risk. They usually pay yearly rentals for the privilege to the Indian citizen who claims the land. Most of the towns are built adjacent to railroads and near the strips of land which the railroad companies own . . . where such towns or stations are located.

Despite the insecurity (and often illegality) of both their presence and their investment in these early communities, settlers in Indian Territory established towns much like those in other Oklahoma frontier settlements. A representative town in region three would contain at least one general store, a post office, a clothing store, a meat market, and furniture store. A wagon yard, a blacksmith shop, a livery stable, a grist mill, and an implement store were essential to any community. Reflecting the agricultural nature of the region, an elevator, cotton gin, stock yard, or a shipping and storage facility became integral parts of the local business complex. A sawmill was also characteristic of many towns. Other common enterprises included hotels, boarding houses, and restaurants. Since federal law forbade the introduction of alcoholic beverages into Indian Territory, saloons were conspicuously absent outside Pawnee county.

A variety of professional and service concerns were available in the young towns. Most contained a doctor's

office, a dentist, a pharmacy, and a barber shop. The furniture dealer might double as the town undertaker. Most communities included at least one church; members of settlements usually established a school as soon as possible. The forming of a bank and the establishment of a local newspaper added prestige to the town and were clear indicators of progress in any settlement. The initial commercial enterprises in these early communities were commonly housed in wood-frame buildings, but as the towns grew and prospered, brick, stone, or concrete structures gradually replaced them. In some instances, most or all of the original buildings of a town were destroyed by fire, and owners rebuilt using more durable materials.

While thousands of whites flocked to the railroad towns and other communities in region three, the vast majority were attracted to the rural areas, where, as tenant farmers, they helped develop extensive agricultural and stock raising enterprises. Mixed bloods established claims to large tracts, leased or rented land to white workers, and collected their rents in dollars or shares. At the end of the lease period, the improvements--houses, barns, fences, and other structures--became the property of the Indian lessor. On the Osage Reservation, for example, the average Indian leased one to six farms to white settlers. The Osage National Council had leased more than half the reservation to white cattlemen by the end of the 1890s. White tenancy enabled Indians to exploit additional

thousands of acres of agricultural land, and the production of wheat, cotton, oats, corn, and cattle rose dramatically.

As economic activities increased, the number of whites, with or without permits, grew apace. Although there is little reliable data concerning white residents prior to statehood, the census of 1900 recorded a total population of over 150,000 for region three. The region counted thirty-eight towns, including twenty-six in the Cherokee Nation and seven in the Creek Nation. While twenty of these communities contained fewer than 500 residents each, seven held over 1000 inhabitants. Muskogee (4,254) was the largest town in region three. The other major population centers included Vinita (2,339), Wagoner (2,372), Miami (1,527), Tahlequah (1,482), Pawnee (1,464), and Tulsa (1,390). Whites comprised the vast majority of the residents of these communities.

The rising tide of white settlers signalled the ultimate demise of Indian control over tribal domains. Succumbing to the demand that Indians be required to take individual homesteads, in 1887 Congress enacted the Dawes Act. This legislation decreed that Indian lands, except those belonging to the Five Civilized Tribes and the Osages, be allotted in severalty. Surplus land would then be made available for white settlement. After the initial run into the Unassigned Lands in 1889, one reservation after another in western Oklahoma was opened to white homesteaders in this manner.

Within region three, the Dawes Act was first applied to the Modocs, Ottawas, Peorias, Quapaws, Senecas, Shawnees, and Wyandottes--all of whom accepted allotments by 1894. In January, 1892, the Cherokees had agreed to sell their Outlet to the federal government, which would then open the area to white settlers under provisions of the Homestead Act. The Pawnees, whose reservation was adjacent to the Cherokee Outlet, accepted allotment in November, 1892. Their surplus lands were opened along with the Cherokee Outlet during the run of September 16, 1893. Because of its favorable location in the well watered eastern end of the Outlet, homesteaders occupied all of the reservation before sunset on the first day. Originally designated as "Q" county (with Pawnee as the county seat), the former Pawnee Reservation was incorporated into Oklahoma Territory. In 1893, the Osage and the Oto Missouri reservations were also added to Oklahoma Territory for court purposes; however, no allotments were made nor were white settlers permitted to occupy land in these areas at that time.

In 1893, Congress created the Dawes Commission and empowered its members to enter negotiations with the Five Civilized Tribes and the Osages to terminate tribal governments and allot their lands. The Creeks, Cherokees, and Osages made agreements with the federal government in 1900, 1902, and 1904, respectively. After these accords, the distributions of allotments began---in 1903 in the

Creek and Cherokee nations, and in 1906 in the Osage Reservation. White tenants, however, continued farming and ranching activities on the vast majority of these tracts.

In 1906, the Oklahoma Constitutional Convention created eighteen counties from former Indian lands in region three. Adair, Cherokee, Craig, Nowata, Sequoyah, and Washington counties lie wholly within former Cherokee territory. Creek, Okfuskee, and Okmulgee counties fall completely within the old Creek Nation. McIntosh, Mayes, Muskogee, Rogers, Tulsa, and Wagoner counties were created from Creek and Cherokee lands, while Delaware county was formed from Cherokee and Seneca territory. Ottawa county was established from former Ottawa, Modoc, Peoria, Quapaw, Shawnee, Wyandotte, Seneca, and Cherokee lands. The boundaries of the Osage Reservation were retained in creating Osage county. In 1906, portions of the Oto Missouri Reservation were added to Pawnee county.

When Oklahoma achieved statehood in 1907, the total population of region three reached 310,791, encompassing 224,143 whites, 44,305 blacks, and 42,343 Indians. Muskogee county contained over 37,000 inhabitants, while Sequoyah and Tulsa counties had over 21,000 each. The region counted eighty-nine incorporated towns, twenty-seven of which claimed over 1000 residents each. Muskogee was the largest city in region three with over 14,000 inhabitants. Other major population centers included Tulsa (7,298), Sapulpa (4,259), Bartlesville (4,215), and Vinita

(3,157). Although only 33 percent of the white residents of region three lived in towns, they dominated the urban settlements. Blacks constituted 13 percent of the town residents, while Indians comprised just 7.5 percent of the total.

PROPERTY-TYPE ANALYSIS OF WHITE SETTLEMENT
STRUCTURES IN REGION THREE

In region three, the initial dispersal of white settlers and the establishment of communities in which whites constituted the vast majority of residents follows a pattern generally similar to that characteristic of white settlement in other portions of the eastern half of Oklahoma. Whether they were licensed residents or illegal intruders, white tenants farmed extensive areas of the region. Thousands more inhabited the settlements, towns, and mining camps stimulated by railroad construction and the exploitation of mineral deposits between the 1870s and 1907. The development of Pawnee county, which was opened at the time of the run into the Cherokee Outlet, is more reflective of the settlement of western Oklahoma. Throughout the region, thousands of buildings, structures, and sites related to white settlement abound. The basic property types include: 1) townsites, 2) commercial buildings and structures, 3) non-commercial buildings, 4) homesteads and related structures, 5) houses, 6) churches, 7) schools, and 8) cemeteries. To establish the significance of specific properties related to the process of white settlement in region three, investigators must apply the following National Register criteria:

- A: Properties that are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history.

- B: Properties that are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past.
- C: Properties that embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction.
- D: Properties that have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.

1. Townsites: Townsites established before 1907 in region three include those that are of mere archeological interest, those that are virtual ghost towns (such as Blackburn in Pawnee county, Foraker in Osage county, or Paw Paw in Sequoyah county), and those that continue to function as vital social and economic units. Generally speaking, the smaller rural towns have been changed less by modern economic and physical developments than the larger communities. As a result, they retain a greater number of the original buildings, structures, and sites.

2. Commercial Buildings and Structures: Urbanized districts contain a wide variety of commercial buildings. In some instances, wood-frame buildings with false fronts and tin roofs, which are typical of the settlement period, still remain. The vast majority, however, are more substantial brick, stone, or concrete block buildings. In the days of settlement, they were used for stores, hotels, boarding houses, restaurants, banks, newspaper offices,

print shops, doctor's offices, pharmacies, saloons, blacksmith shops, agricultural implement stores, harness shops, feed and grain stores, lumber yards, and a wide variety of other business purposes. Typical commercial structures within the towns included grain elevators, cotton gins, sawmills, wagon yards, livery stables, and stock yards. Few of the remaining buildings contain the original enterprises for which they were built.

3. Non-Commercial Building: Non-commercial buildings typical of early settlement communities include jails, post offices, and lodge meeting halls.

4. Homesteads and Related Structures: Although the original homesteads (in Pawnee county) were frequently consolidated with neighboring tracts to form more extensive pasture and farm lands, many of the original claims remain relatively intact. In addition to the rural home, one would expect to find such structures as barns, sheds, silos, corn cribs, windmills, and fences. Even in cases where they have been unused for many years, some of these structures remain in salvageable condition.

5. Houses: Settlers built a variety of types of houses during the early period. Initial shelters included log cabins, dugouts, half-dugouts, small frame houses, and residences of stone and crude lumber. The availability of local timber sources made log cabins the most common first residences in many parts of region three. Houses often served as stores, post offices, churches, and schools as

well. Climatic conditions and inadequate maintenance undoubtedly have destroyed most of the dugouts and other crude shelters, but some surviving examples should remain in the rural districts. In both the towns and the countryside, small wood-frame, brick, or stone houses as well as elegant, multi-storied eclectic house types remain from the period prior to 1907. Many are virtually unchanged on the exterior.

6. Churches: Excellent examples of churches built before 1907 should be found throughout the region. Churches not only served as religious centers in the early days of settlement, but they also became a focus of social and cultural life as well. They range from small wood-frame buildings to substantial structures of brick or stone.

7. Schools: Schools are an important and highly visible aspect of rural and urban life in the period before 1907. Many one- and two-room schools--wood-frame, stone, or brick--remain scattered throughout the countryside. Larger school houses represent some of the most significant survivals of pre-statehood town life. They were social and cultural centers, as well as educational institutions.

8. Cemeteries: Cemeteries were significant components of the urban and rural environment. Frequently a cemetery was located near, but outside, the townsite limits on land donated by a farmer. Lots within a townsite were set aside for cemeteries as well. It was also common

to place a cemetery beside a rural church. At some sites, the only reminder of previous settlement is an abandoned cemetery.

WHITE SETTLEMENT SITES IN OKLAHOMA

REGION THREE:

Craig County:

1. First Congregational Church, 122 South Smith, Vinita, OK
2. Halsell Home, 215 South Adair, Vinita, OK
3. Western Hotel, 119 West Illinois, Vinita, OK

Creek County:

4. Bowmen Dry Goods/Otasco-Ceramic Shop, 103 South Main, Bristow, OK
5. Coppedge Drug/D & D Office Supply, 106 North Main, Bristow, OK
6. Elias & Garvey Grocery/Taco Place, 109 South Main, Bristow, OK
7. Episcopal Church/Christian Science Society, SE corner of Seventh and Elm Streets, Bristow, OK
8. Gillespie Home/House Unique, 24 West Fourth Street, Bristow, OK
9. A.H. Stone Building, 103-105 North Main, Bristow, OK

Delaware County:

10. Corey House/Hotel, North Main at Second Street, Grove, OK (N.R. 1982)
11. Grove Springs Park, Block 8, lots 1 and 2, original townsite, Grove, OK

Mayes County:

12. Griffen's Grocery/Chouteau Cafe, West 21.75 feet of lots 20-25, block 15, original townsite, Chouteau, OK (N.R. 1983)

McIntosh County:

13. Commercial National Bank Building, 301 West Gentry, Checotah, OK (N.R. 1982)
14. First National Bank Building, corner of Gentry and Broadway, Checotah, OK (N.R. 1982)
15. I.O.O.F. Building, 221 West Gentry, Checotah, OK (N.R. 1982)
16. Towry Bros. Building, 113 South Broadway, Checotah, OK (N.R. 1982)
17. Unnamed commercial building, 221 West Gentry, Checotah, OK (N.R. 1982)

Muskogee County:

18. Abstract & Insurance Agency, Block 3, lot 6, Muskogee, OK (N.R. 1984)
19. V.R. Coss Home, 1315 West Okmulgee, Muskogee, OK (N.R. 1984)
20. F.B. Fite Home, 443 North Sixteenth Street, Muskogee, OK (N.R. 1983)
21. Foreman/Grant Home, 1419 West Okmulgee Street, Muskogee, OK (N.R. 1973)
22. General Merchandise Store, Block 3, lot 15, Muskogee, OK (N.R. 1983)
23. Grace Cathedral, 218 North Sixth Street, Muskogee, OK
24. Jewelry Store, Block 3, lot 5, Muskogee, OK (N.R. 1983)
25. The New York Store, Block 3, lots 13 and 14, Muskogee, OK (N.R. 1983)
26. Oxford Hotel and Bakery, Block 3, lot 12 and south 25.57 feet of lot 11, Muskogee, OK (N.R. 1983)
27. Patterson/Couch House, 1320 West Okmulgee, Muskogee, OK (N.R. 1984)
28. Andrew W. Robb House, 1321 Boston Muskogee, OK (N.R. 1982)
29. Severs Block, Block 3, lots 7, 8, 9, 10, and north 1 foot of lot 11, Muskogee, OK (N.R. 1983)

30. Trumbo/Cole Home, 1321 West Broadway, Muskogee, OK (N.R. 1984)
31. Welch/Dowell Home, 1403 West Okmulgee, Muskogee, OK (N.R. 1984)

Osage County:

32. First National Bank and Masonic Lodge, 301 North Main Street, Fairfax, OK (N.R. 1984)
33. Osage Bank, 250 North Main, Fairfax, OK
34. Old Rock Schoolhouse (Horace Mann School Bldg.), 300 block of South SheShe, Hominy, OK

Pawnee County:

35. Blackburn Townsite, Sec. 19, T 22 N, R 7 E; 2 miles north, 11 1/2 miles east of Pawnee; 6 miles north, 7 miles west of Cleveland.
36. Blackburn United Methodist Church, D and Fourth Avenue, Blackburn, OK
37. Arkansas Valley National Bank, 547 Sixth Street, Pawnee, OK (N.R. 1978)
38. Bank of Ralston, 520 Main Street, Pawnee, OK
39. Ralston Opera House, 501-503 Main Street, Ralston, OK
40. Terlton Bank, Block 11, lot 1, Terlton, OK

Rogers County:

41. Bakery/Just 4 Kids, 405 West Will Rogers Blvd., Claremore, OK
42. Belvedere House, 109 North Chickasaw, Claremore, OK
43. Chamber of Commerce, 419 West Will Rogers Blvd., Claremore, OK
44. Claremore Jail/Lietchenburg Plumbing, 408 West Fifth Street, Caremore, OK
45. Claremore Progress, 315 West Will Rogers Blvd., Claremore, OK

46. David Ann's Shoes, 412 West Will Rogers Blvd., Claremore, OK
47. First United Presbyterian Church, 102 East Fourth Street, Claremore, OK
48. Forest Building/Heins Jewelry, 416 West Will Rogers Blvd., Claremore, OK
49. Hadad's Five and Dime, 410 West Will Rogers Blvd., Claremore, OK
50. Masonic Lodge/Ernie's Billiard Parlor, 506 West Will Rogers Blvd., Claremore, OK
51. Merle Norman, 418 West Will Rogers Blvd., Claremore, OK
52. Oologah Bank, 105 South Maple, Oologah, OK (N.R. 1982)
53. Rogers County Bank/First Federal Savings and Loan, 106 South Missouri, Claremore, OK
54. The Belvedere, 109 North Chickasaw, Claremore, OK (N.R. 1982)
55. Waters, Flanagan, et al. C.P.A.'s, 115 North Cherokee, Claremore, OK
56. Wilson Hardware, 422 West Will Rogers Blvd., Claremore, OK

Wagoner County:

57. Presbyterian Church, Cypress and B Streets, Coweta, OK
58. Cobb Building, 203 East Cherokee, Wagoner, OK (N.R. 9/13/82)
59. First National Bank Building, 114 East Cherokee, Wagoner, OK (N.R. 3/10/83)
60. John Gibson House, 402 South McQuarrie, Wagoner, OK
61. House Museum, 702 S.E. 7th West, Wagoner, OK
62. Leonard House, 804 East Cherokee, Wagoner, OK
63. Collin McKinney House, 1106 S.E. 7th, Wagoner, OK
64. Amos Parkinson House, 601 N. Parkinson, Wagoner, OK

65. Fred A. Parkinson House, 407 N.E. Third Street,
Wagoner, OK
66. James Parkinson House, 207 N.E. Second Street,
Wagoner, OK
67. Way House, 411 N.E. Second Street, Wagoner, OK
68. Van Tuyl Homeplace, 4 1/5 miles north, 7/10 mile west
of Porter, OK (N.R. 2/7/78)

Washington County:

69. William Johnstone Home, 912 South Cherokee,
Bartlesville, OK

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Primary Sources

United States Department of Commerce and Labor, Bureau of the Census. Bulletin 89. Population of Oklahoma and Indian Territory, 1907. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1907.

United States Department of Interior Census Office. Report on Population of the United States at the Eleventh Census: 1890. pt. 1. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1895.

United States Interior Department Census Office. Twelfth Census of the United States, Taken in the Year 1900. Population, pt. 1. Washington, D.C.: United States Census Office, 1901.

Secondary Sources

Books

Alley, John. City Beginnings in Oklahoma Territory. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1939.

Baird, W. David. The Osage People. Phoenix: Indian Tribal Series, 1972.

Buck, Solon J. The Settlement of Oklahoma. Stillwater: Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, 1934.

Calvert, J.L. The Settler's Guide: a brief but complete guide on all questions relating to public lands in Oklahoma and Indian Territory. Guthrie: State Capital Printing Company, 1893.

Dale, Edward E. and Rader, Jesse L., eds. Readings in Oklahoma History. Evanston: Row, Peterson and Company, 1930.

Debo, Angie. Prairie City: The Story of an American Community. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1944.

_____. The Rise and Fall of the Choctaw Republic. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1967.

_____. The Road to Disappearance: A History of the Creek Indians. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1941.

- George, Preston and Wood, Sylvan R. The Railroads of Oklahoma. Bulletin No. 60. Boston: The Railway and Locomotive Historical Society, Inc., 1943.
- Gibson, Arrell. The Chickasaws. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1971.
- _____. The History of Oklahoma. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1984.
- Gittinger, Roy. The Formation of the State of Oklahoma. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1939.
- Green, Donald E., ed. Rural Oklahoma. Oklahoma City: Oklahoma Historical Society, 1977.
- Hoig, Stan. The Oklahoma Land Rush of 1889. Oklahoma City: Oklahoma Historical Society, 1984.
- Jackson, Bernice, et al. Man and the Oklahoma Panhandle. North Newton, Kansas: Mennonite Press, Inc., 1982.
- Litton, Gaston. History of Oklahoma, At the Golden Anniversary of Statehood. 4 vols. New York: Lewis Historical Publishing Company, 1957.
- McReynolds, Edwin C. The Seminoles. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1957.
- Morris, John W. Ghost Towns of Oklahoma. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1977.
- Morris, John W., ed. Boundaries of Oklahoma. Oklahoma City: Oklahoma Historical Society, 1980.
- _____, ed. Cities of Oklahoma. Oklahoma City: Oklahoma Historical Society, 1979.
- _____, ed. Geography of Oklahoma. Oklahoma City: Oklahoma Historical Society, 1977.
- _____, et al. Historical Atlas of Oklahoma, 2nd ed. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1977.
- Richards, W.B., comp. The Oklahoma Red Book, Vol. 2. Oklahoma City: Democrat Printing Company, 1912.
- Rister, Carl C. No Man's Land. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1948.
- Shirk, George H. Oklahoma Place Names, 2nd ed. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1974.

Stewart, Dora Ann. Government and Development of Oklahoma Territory. Oklahoma City: Harlow Publishing Company, 1933.

Wardell, Morris L. A Political History of the Cherokee Nation. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1938.

Articles

Chambers, Homer. "Townsite Promotion in Early Oklahoma." Chronicles of Oklahoma 19 (June 1941): 162-165.

Chapman, Berlin B. "Opening of the Cherokee Outlet: An Archival Study, Part I." Chronicles of Oklahoma 40 (Summer 1962): 158-181.

_____. "Opening of the Cherokee Outlet, Part II." Chronicles of Oklahoma 40 (Autumn 1962): 253-285.

Edwards, Thomas. "Early Days in the C and A." Chronicles of Oklahoma 27 (Summer 1949): 148-161.

"How to Get a Homestead." Chronicles of Oklahoma 52 (Winter 1974-75): 497-499.

Steele, Annie. "Old Greer County." Chronicles of Oklahoma 42 (Spring 1964): 27-37.

Theses and Dissertations

Doran, Michael. "The Origins of Culture Areas in Oklahoma, 1830-1900." Ph. D. dissertation, University of Oregon, 1974.

Johnson, Bobby. "Some Aspects of Life in the 'Land of the Fair God': Oklahoma Territory, 1880-1907." Ph. D. dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1967.

Lewis, Elva Page. "Social Life in the Territory of Oklahoma, 1890-1906." M.A. thesis, University of Oklahoma, 1945.

Roark, Michael Owen. "Oklahoma Territory: Frontier Development, Migration, and Culture Areas." Ph. D. dissertation, Syracuse University, 1979.

Shelton, W.L. "A History of Texas County, Oklahoma." M.A. thesis, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, 1939.