RESOURCE PROTECTION PLANNING PROJECT

RANCHING IN SOUTH CENTRAL OKLAHOMA

REGION FIVE

Project Director and Editor: Mary Ann Anders

Text and Research: Charles E. Brooks

Project Assistant: Suzanne Haynes

Oklahoma Historic Preservation Survey

History Department

Oklahoma State University

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One of the most significant factors in the historical development of the state of Oklahoma has been the beef cattle industry. This is particularly true in south central Oklahoma, once the home of the Chickasaw and several other Indian tribes. Ranching was a major occupation of the Chickasaws in the late nineteenth century, and of the whites who settled among them. Even after the allotment of tribal lands at the turn of this century, cattle remained an important economic resource in the region. This paper provides the historical context for the identification, evaluation, and preservation of ranch structures in south central Oklahoma.

An agricultural enterprise is a cattle ranch if it derives its income primarily from the production of beef cattle for market. A farm, on the other hand, cultivates the soil and produces crops for consumption. It has always been common in south central Oklahoma for ranchers to diversify their operations by engaging in farming to some degree, whether for food or as a cash crop, but they essentially depend on cattle for their livelihood. As elsewhere in eastern and southern Oklahoma, three types of ranching organizations have predominated in Region Five: Indian ranches, subsistence ranches, and large, profit-oriented ranches. Members of the Chickasaw, Seminole, Potawatomie, and Shawnee tribes all owned and ran cattle on the open range in the nineteenth century and many of their descendants own ranches today. Usually only mixed-blood Indians established large, successful ranches because their cultural orientation toward white society made them comfortable with the American capitalist economy. Full-bloods engaged in more traditional agricultural pursuits and relied for their survival on a few head of cattle and some crops. They were subsistence ranchers, as were many whites who settled in the region, though the whites usually ran more

cattle, up to several hundred head. South central Oklahoma has also supported many very large ranches that provided their owners with far more than physical survival. Enterprising ranchers, both white and mixed-blood, found substantial wealth and a high standard of living in well-organized cattle operations. They conducted their ranches as any entrepreneur would his business, with emphasis on the profits to be made. In south central Oklahoma such ranches usually belonged to individuals or families, rather than to large and impersonal cattle companies as was common in western Oklahoma.

Region Five comprises ten counties in south central Oklahoma: Garvin, Johnston, Carter, Love, Marshall, McClain, Murray, Pontotoc, Pottawatomie, and Seminole. In the late nineteenth century the counties of Carter, Garvin, Johnston, Love, Marshall, McClain, Murray, and Pontotoc lay within the boundaries of the Chickasaw Nation. That Indian nation also contained portions of several counties not included in Region Five, in particular most of Grady, Stephens, and Jefferson counties. Present Seminole County was the home of the Seminole Indians, while the Potawatomies and Shawnee inhabited modern Pottawatomie County.

THE INDIAN TRIBES OF SOUTH CENTRAL OKLAHOMA

The Chickasaws and Seminoles were members of the Five Civilized Tribes, a name applied to those native groups east of the Mississippi River that were the most settled and agriculturally advanced. The other three tribes were the Cherokees, the Creeks, and the Choctaws. The Chickasaws were of Muskhogean linguistic stock and were closely related to the Choctaws, later their eastern neighbors in Oklahoma. Most authorities agree that the two groups at one time composed a single tribe. The Chickasaws originated in northeastern Mississippi, though they claimed land stretching from the Ohio River south to the Gulf of Mexico and from western Alabama to the Mississippi River. Because their major

interests lay in trade and war, the Chickasaws devoted relatively little attention to agriculture until the nineteenth century, although the women were always responsible for raising vegetable gardens. Their tribal government was dominated by a minko, or "king," who was essentially a head chief elected to a life term by the tribal council. The Chickasaws entered into a commercial relationship with British traders in about 1700 and over the next several decades the tribe became an ardent supporter of British imperial power. Following the American Revolution these sympathies brought them into conflict with the new United States.

Between 1786 and 1818 American sentiment turned increasingly against the southern Indians. The Five Civilized Tribes occupied a vast domain that potential white settlers desired for themselves. The Chickasaws strongly resisted the suggestion first expressed by President Thomas Jefferson that the tribes voluntarily migrate into the virtually unknown region west of the Mississippi River. Yet remaining in their homeland had a devastating effect on their traditional lifestyle as the steady encroachment of white society, usually via merchants or traders, left them economically dependent. Government trading posts, called "factories," encouraged the Chickasaws to buy on credit in the eventually successful hope that indebtedness would force the tribe to cede portions of its land claims to the United States. White Americans felt little guilt in depriving the Indians of their ancestral lands because they believed the Indians were inherently lazy and unable to exploit the land's full potential. The concepts of private property and personal wealth had no meaning among the southern Indians, all of whom were more interested in hunting and tribal rituals. The Five Civilized Tribes turned to farming only when white settlement depleted the game on which they relied for survival. This particularly damaged the warrior-oriented society of the Chickasaws, leaving them confused and disillusioned.

One segment of Chickasaw society flourished under these conditions: the mixed-bloods, who were later of such importance in the Oklahoma cattle industry. Referred to by later historians as an "aristocracy," the mixed-bloods were the product of marriages between Chickasaw women and white traders and their employees who settled among the Indians. Because they were raised, in part, by white men, they better understood white society than the full-bloods and so accommodated themselves to the changes that occurred in tribal life. As early as 1800 such families as the Colberts, Adairs, and Loves essentially controlled the Chickasaw Nation.

The Seminoles were also a Muskhogean people, but one with a unique history. The fusion of several tribal factions on the Florida-Georgia frontier in the eighteenth century produced the Seminole tribe. The Oconee tribe was the central component. They were natives of what is now Georgia who fled with several pro-Spanish bands of Creek Indians to Florida following the Yemassee Uprising of 1715. Other Indian groups settled near them in the vicinity of present Pensacola and Tallahassee, including the Yamassee, the Apalachicola, and the Yuchi. The Creek leader, Secoffee, consolidated these groups under his control in about 1750 and they became known collectively as the Seminoles. After the disastrous Red Stick War of 1813-1814 huge numbers of Creeks sought refuge with the Seminoles more than tripling the tribe's population. The Creek language and cultural influence always remained predominant.

The Potawatomie were Algonquian-speaking Indians, closely related to both the Chippewa and the Ottawa. They originated on the Canadian side of Lake Huron and by 1700 had migrated to the vicinity of present-day Chicago, Illinois. By the end of the eighteenth century, they claimed much of present Illinois and Indiana. The Potawatomie sided with the British in both the American Revolution and the War of 1812 and so earned the official hostility of the United States.

When white settlers entered their territory the Potawatomie scattered in numerous small bands, some migrating to Iowa and others to Kansas.

The Shawnee were also Algonquians who migrated south from the Ohio River following their unsuccessful wars against the Iroquois. Around 1700 the tribe split into several factions, some settling in Pennsylvania, others in Kentucky. The Shawnee supported the British in the American Revolution and clashed frequently with the United States until their final defeat by General Anthony Wayne in 1795. They later followed Tecumseh, but again made peace with the United States after the famous leader's death in 1813. One large faction of the tribe had migrated to Missouri shortly after the Revolution, where they ceded their lands in 1825 to the United States and accepted a reservation in Kansas. Other bands joined them, including the troublesome Ohio Shawnee. One group settled voluntarily in what is now Ottawa County, Oklahoma: the Mixed Band, or Eastern Shawnee.

In the first quarter of the nineteenth century the white population of the United States steadily increased while the nation's Indian population stagnated or declined. Potential white pioneers increasingly pressured the United States government to solve the "Indian problem," by which they meant the occupation by Indian tribes of land suitable for white economic exploitation, in particular the rich agricultural lands held by the Five Civilized Tribes. The government adopted several strategies for separating the Indians from all or most of their land, including placing them on smaller reservations and educating them to become American-style farmers. The first alternative still left the Indians in possession of large amounts of land, while the second alternative was expensive and angered those white Americans who valued native cultures. The government finally chose the only strategy acceptable to all of its white constituents: the mass removal of

all Indian tribes to the western lands beyond the Mississippi. This was at best a temporary solution, but it satisfied immediate white demands for Indian land.

Some factions among the Five Civilized Tribes recognized this eventuality as early as the 1790s and moved west in small bands. Most, especially among the Chickasaws and Seminoles, remained in their ancient tribal homelands. To forestall the possibility of complete removal many Indian leaders sought to accommodate white demands. Specifically, they hoped that the cession to the United States of some portion of their domain might allow them to retain some of their land. The Chickasaws accepted this principle only gradually. In the 1786 Treaty of Hopewell they permitted the construction of a trading post at Muscle Shoals and in 1801 allowed a road to be built through their nation. The Chickasaws first lost land in 1805 when they surrendered their claims south of the Tennessee River to the west bank of the Tombigbee River. In 1818 Major General Andrew Jackson forced the tribe to cede all its land north of the southern boundary of the state of Tennessee by threatening to simply seize the area without compensation. In return the Chickasaws received an annuity of $20,000 for fifteen years but retained only five million acres in northern Mississippi and northeastern Alabama.

The Chickasaws were the last of the Five Civilized Tribes that signed the removal treaties and departed for new homes in the Indian Territory, now Oklahoma. The Chickasaws were a deeply religious people who believed that their southern land was a gift from the Great Spirit and to part with it would be an act of blasphemy. Thus they were determined to remain on the core of their traditional territory that they retained after 1820. As a result they entered upon a bitter struggle with both the state of Mississippi and the United States.

Hoping to convince Americans that they deserved to keep their land, the Chickasaws increasingly adopted white manners and mores. Many accepted

Christianity and settled on farms that were indistinguishable from those of white Americans. The Chickasaw Council, dominated by mixed-bloods, ratified a set of written laws. But the more settled and prosperous the Chickasaws became, the more they seemed to threaten white expansion and prosperity. Envy became a powerful force motivating removal and because the whites controlled the government, its agents reflected the will and aspirations of the white majority, to the detriment of Indian rights. Between 1820 and 1830 Mississippi extended its authority over the Chickasaw Nation, abolishing its government and opening it to the liquor traffic. Unscrupulous merchants preyed on the naive Chickasaws who had little protection because they did not understand the legal system. The 1828 presidential election brought Andrew Jackson to power and deprived the Chickasaws of any chance of a sympathetic presence in Washington. Jackson was a Westerner and an Indian fighter who, while he did not hate the Indians, felt little affection for them. He believed that removal would actually help the tribes because they would be free of the corrupting influence of traders and other whites who used the Indians for their personal profit. When the Chickasaws asked Jackson to enforce federal treaties that exempted the tribe from Mississippi law and rendered white settlement on their land illegal, the president declined. Jackson's policies reached fruition with the Indian Removal Act of 1830. Shortly afterward representatives of the Chickasaws met federal agents at Franklin, Tennessee, and agreed to the cession of the entire Chickasaw domain in the south in return for territory in the west of the tribe's own choosing. The United States agreed to pay the expenses of removal and to support the tribe for one year in its new home. An annuity of $20,000 would be paid the Indians for fifteen years. However, a clause in the treaty provided that if the tribe found no land to their liking they would not have to remove, and naturally, they found no such land. The Chickasaws were determined to resist removal as long as possible.

In 1832 General John Coffee met tribal leaders on Pontotoc Creek at the traditional council grounds. By threatening to withhold the annuity he convinced the Indians to sign a second treaty in which they again ceded all their southern lands, those lands to be immediately surveyed for public sale. All money from the sale would go into a special fund belonging to the Chickasaw Nation, but administered by the United States government. This fund would then be used to pay for removal and the support of the tribe in their new homes; thus the Chickasaws essentially paid for their own removal. However, not until January 17, 1837, after a very slow search for a suitable place to settle, did the Chickasaws conclude an agreement with the Choctaws at Doaksville, Choctaw Nation, by which the former would pay the latter $530,000 in return for the central and western portions of the Choctaw Nation, to be known as the Chickasaw District. Historians consider the physical removal of the Chickasaws to have been much less deadly than that experienced by other tribes; certainly fewer died on the "Trail of Tears" than among the Cherokees or Creeks. Indians and federal agents both learned from past mistakes and the Chickasaws left for the Indian Territory in smaller groups, earlier in the year, and with better and more provisions.

The Seminole resistance to removal was extraordinarily fierce. The tribe always regarded the United States with deep suspicion and with the First Seminole War of 1817-1818, in which Andrew Jackson with 3,000 United States troops attacked the village of Mikasuki in Florida in retaliation for Seminole raids in Georgia, that suspicion turned to hostility. When Spain ceded Florida to the United States in 1819, the Georgians demanded the immediate removal of the Seminoles from the vicinity of their state, blaming that tribe for a serious problem with runaway slaves. In 1823 the military moved the Seminoles to a swampy area east of Tampa Bay where the Indians almost starved to death. In the

1832 treaty of Payne's Landing the Seminoles agreed to removal to Indian Territory where they would be merged with the Creeks. But powerful factions within the tribe strongly opposed this move; when the army attempted to enforce the treaty in 1835, much of the tribe revolted. The resistance was led by Osceola, in alliance with Chief Mikanopi. This Second Seminole War lasted seven years and resulted in 1,500 dead American soldiers and expenses of $20,000,000. It ended in 1842 after General W. J. Worth agreed to allow several hundred Seminoles to remain in Florida. Other tribal leaders and their followers had been removed to the Indian Territory as they surrendered during the war. These Seminoles were never satisfied as members of the Creek Nation and in 1859 the United States established a separate Seminole agency near present Wanette, Pottawatomie County, where the tribe could live under their own laws and traditions.

Potawatomie relations with the government were quite different. In 1846 the government awarded the tribe a 576,000-acre reservation in Kansas that they shared with the Chippewa and Ottawa, located just north of Topeka. The state treated them unfairly and pressure for white settlement led them to allotment in severalty and the sale of their surplus lands in 1861. Most of these Indians accepted allotments and became United States citizens, becoming known as the Citizen Band. Those who refused allotments, the Prairie Band, settled on a reservation in Jackson County, Kansas.

By 1860 most of the Shawnee had settled in Oklahoma. In the early years of the nineteenth century various small bands migrated through Arkansas, Louisiana, Texas, and Oklahoma, receiving the name Absentee Shawnee as a result. In the 1840s and 1850s many settled in present Hughes County, Oklahoma. In 1859 the Shawnee in Kansas ceded their reservation of 1.6 million acres and after the Civil War many migrated to the Cherokee Nation.

POST-REMOVAL RANCHING IN THE CHICKASAW NATION: 1837-1861

Conditions in the new Chickasaw District were harsh during the first few years. The army established camps that were unsanitary and filled with disease to receive the Indians. Poor planning and unfeeling contractors led to near starvation when promised food either did not arrive in the camps or else arrived in a spoiled condition. Under the terms of the 1837 treaty the Chickasaws were to enjoy all the rights and privileges of citizens in the Choctaw Nation, but tribal leaders soon found themselves outnumbered in the General Council and they became fearful that the Choctaws might seize control of Chickasaw funds. The Treaty of Washington of 1855 alleviated some of these problems. It created a separate Chickasaw Nation and gave the tribe control of its own political and financial affairs. The Nation comprised 4,707,903 acres located between the South Canadian and Red Rivers and bounded on the west by the 98th meridian. The next year the tribal council promulgated a constitution closely modeled on that of the United States. Tishomingo on Pennington Creek in present Johnston County became the national capital.

Economically, the Chickasaws relied primarily on agriculture. Much of the Nation was prairie, ideal for cattle ranching on a large scale. Because the Chickasaws feared the volatile Plains Indians, they moved very slowly westward in the Nation. The major settlements were Pontotoc, Fort Washita, Colbert, Fort Arbuckle, Tishomingo, and Burney. None of these were large because the Chickasaws preferred a rural life and invariably established their homes adjacent to fields and pastures. Land in the Chickasaw Nation was owned by the tribe in common. Theoretically this allowed all Chickasaws equal opportunity to settle on fertile land. The full-blood Indians engaged in subsistence agriculture, though they might trade surplus grain and meat for needed goods. The average field was only three to ten acres in size. Traditionally women worked the fields, but

gradually men replaced them. They grew such crops as peas, beans, pumpkins, potatoes, and squash, and raised hogs, milk cows, chickens, and perhaps a few head of beef cattle for meat or sale.

The mixed-blood Chickasaws experienced considerable success prior to the Civil War. In outlook and lifestyle they closely resembled the antebellum Southern planters among whom they had lived. They practiced commercial agriculture, producing cotton, wheat, and corn on farms ranging from 100 to over 1,000 acres. Slaves performed most of the labor; Pittman Colbert alone owned 150 slaves. In addition, the mixed-bloods raised large herds of cattle. The Chickasaws had practiced cattle raising since the early contacts with the French and Spanish and they continued and expanded their operations in the Indian Territory. Some built their herds with their share of the Government's annuity payments and the extensive prairies, especially in the western portion of the Nation, were ideal for grazing. By 1860 the Chickasaw Nation had become something of a cattleman's paradise and the tribe appeared headed for economic self-sufficiency based on agriculture and cattle ranching. The American Civil War dramatically altered the situation.

POST-CIVIL WAR RANCHING IN THE CHICKASAW NATION: 1865-1907

The Chickasaws generally sided with the Confederacy during the Civil War: their slave-owning society resembled that of the South to a marked degree. The war badly damaged the ranching industry and caused tremendous economic dislocation. The entire Indian Territory was left almost a wasteland, although compared to the suffering endured by the Cherokees and Creeks, the Chickasaws escaped relatively unscathed because the contending armies never directly fought within their Nation. Nonetheless, business activity among the tribe virtually ceased, while farms and plantations were abandoned. To save cattle from Union

foragers, many Chickasaw ranchers deliberately drove their cattle into the Arbuckle Mountains, where they scattered; it was many years before some of these cattle were found. Confederate troops were also a threat to livestock; they seized thousands of horses through the years of war. By 1866 almost one-third of the Chickasaw people had no means of supporting themselves. Lawlessness became common and cattle thieves drove countless numbers of cattle out of the Nation.

Despite its problems, the Chickasaw Nation remained a land of fertile fields and vast grasslands, potentially able to produce excellent crops and feed large herds of livestock. In addition it was extraordinarily well watered. Cattle and horses could graze for miles on the open range. The Chickasaws assumed that the United States government would honor the removal treaties, protect them from white intrusion, and allow them to redevelop their ranching and agricultural industries unmolested. However, the westward movement of white settlement again confronted the Chickasaws with the possible loss of their tribal domain, only this time there would be no place else to go.

A number of Chickasaws established successful ranches in the post-Civil War period. Nelson Chigley operated near present-day Davis. Near Fort Arbuckle were the Grants, the Colberts, and Montford Johnson. The Turners, the Prices, and Noah Lael's Diamond Z all operated in present Murray County. In 1870 the Chickasaws ran 50,000 head of cattle in the Nation; by 1882 the number had risen to 140,000 head. As will be seen, even more cattle probably belonged to white ranchers who leased land in the Nation from friendly Indians. Most ranches, white and Indian, lay in the western portion of the Nation, an area unattractive to settlers because of its proximity to the Kiowa and Comanche reservations. Again, virtually all Chickasaw ranchers were of mixed-blood and were almost indistinguishable from white entrepreneurs. Indeed, an interesting characteristic

of these ranchers was their willingness to make money in almost any endeavor, whether it was directly related to cattle ranching or not. For example, Judge Overton Love had extensive banking and real estate interests, was a member of the National Council, a district judge, and a tribal delegate to Washington. Joe A. Camp was a director of the First National Bank of Pauls Valley. Montford Johnson owned large grain fields and orchards. William Leander Byrd was originally a merchant who exchanged goods in his store for horses and cattle, building large herds of both. He became one of the wealthiest men in the Nation, and was elected governor of the tribe in the 1880s.

The history of ranching in south central Oklahoma is inextricably tied to the gradual white infiltration of the Chickasaw Nation because most of these whites were Texas cattlemen. The first Texans to enter the Nation were drovers trailing their cattle north to the Kansas railheads in the years immediately following the Civil War. The Chisholm Trail was the most popular among Texas cattlemen because it took them directly to the "cow towns" of Abilene, Wichita, and Caldwell. However, this crossed the Nation in the three counties not included in Region Five. The West Shawnee Trail passed through the northeastern corner of the Nation, but it was never heavily traveled. The drovers found the rich grasslands of the Chickasaws ideal for grazing their cattle on the trail and many adopted the practice of turning off the route and pasturing their herds for weeks or months at a time, allowing the animals to fatten further for market. The Texans found many Chickasaws who were willing to sign leases granting the ranchers sole right of occupancy on large tracts of common tribal land. Unable to prevent these whites from entering the Nation, the Chickasaws tried to move them more quickly on their way with a law that required all herds belonging to white ranchers within the Nation to move at least eight miles each day or else pay a fine of one dollar per head. However, if the drover paid a fifteen cent per head

fee he might graze his stock for a limited time for one mile on each side of the trail. When this proved difficult to enforce, the Nation placed a flat twenty-five cent per head tax on all cattle being driven or pastured by whites. The Texans easily evaded this with the help of friendly Chickasaws who met them at the Red River and received a phony bill of sale. For an agreed amount of money the Indians remained with the cattle while they were in the Nation and claimed the animals as their own property, thus exempting them from tax.

The issue of pasture leases created considerable controversy. Some Chickasaws took advantage of the land system and the vague land laws to claim huge pastures which they used for their own herds or, more commonly, leased to Texans. Leasing land to wealthy whites was a natural reaction to conditions in the Indian Territory after the Civil War and was a common practice among virtually all tribes. The war deprived the Indians of capital that might have been invested in their own herds. Leases brought badly needed money into the Nations and utilized otherwise empty lands (or lands that the Texans would have used without profit accruing to the tribes). Many Texas ranchers took advantage of the situation by establishing permanent ranches within the Chickasaw Nation. The official tribal position on leasing was always rather ambiguous. The Chickasaw legislature legalized pasture leasing in 1876, but as the number and size of white ranches grew in the 1880s, the Nation increasingly attempted to regulate their operations. For example, the tribe restricted pasture size to one square mile (640 acres). This was in part a reaction to the use of barbed wire with which Texans fenced off huge amounts of range land for their exclusive use, a practice that contravened the ancient Chickasaw precept of common ownership and use of land. The federal government made only one serious effort to evict these white intruders under terms of the 1855 treaty that created the Chickasaw Nation. In 1887 a group of Texans moved about 150,000 head of cattle into the Nation and

refused to pay the appropriate taxes. The tribe complained to the Union Agency at Muskogee and Agent Robert L. Owen soon arrived in Tishomingo and, accompanied by a troop of Chickasaw light horse police, confronted the cattlemen. The Texans quickly removed 40,000 head, but their appeal to the Secretary of the Interior allowed them sufficient time to arrange phony bills of sale to willing Chickasaws that protected the remaining cattle.

Not all whites in the Chickasaw Nation were ranchers; many entered during the construction of various railroad lines in the 1870s and 1880s. To slow the entry of all these people, or at least profit from it, the Chickasaw legislature enacted a law in the 1870s requiring all non-citizens to purchase permits in order to legally reside within the boundaries of the Nation. These permits originally cost twenty-five cents, but rose as high as $25.00 in 1876 before dropping to the final figure of $5.00 per year. Those refusing to pay were subject to expulsion.

The existence of the residency permits facilitated an already widely popular practice: the intermarriage of whites and Chickasaws. This had long been common among the Chickasaws, as the powerful mixed-blood community demonstrated. In 1876 the Chickasaws legally confirmed full tribal membership on all whites married to Chickasaw citizens. Intermarriage exempted white ranchers from all laws and taxes affecting non-citizens, and as a result the number of intermarried whites increased dramatically in the late nineteenth century. This fact generated considerable controversy in the 1880s when it became apparent that these white Indians occupied the most valuable land in the Nation. Intermarried ranchers included Nick Butterly, a native of Ireland, who ran cattle in southern Garvin county; David Mays of Tennessee, for whom Maysville was named; and Frank Murray, also an Irishman, who had 20,000 acres of fenced pasture in 1885 in the vicinity of Erin Springs, a community named in his honor. Perhaps the most famous intermarried rancher was William E. Washington of

Marietta. He ran thousands of cattle in present Love County, in addition to raising cotton. He also owned ranches in present Jefferson County and in New Mexico. Washington was so successful that he built a $50,000 Victorian mansion in 1888. The house still stands near Marietta in Love County.

The Chickasaw legislature also created the post of stock superintendant in each of the Nation's four counties. His duties included collecting the taxes upon the stock of non-citizens, examining brands, and enforcing quarantine laws designed to protect native herds from exposure to the deadly Texas Fever carried by some Texas cattle. The superintendant also enforced the laws relating to trail herds, with the aid of the Chickasaw light horse police.

The conditions of life on late nineteenth-century ranches in the Chickasaw Nation were very similar to those in the rest of Oklahoma at the time. The purpose of ranches then, as now, was to increase the size of the herd and to fatten individual cows for their eventual trip to the nearest market. Cattle grazed on the open range until the introduction of barbed wire in the 1880s. This meant that cattle wandered unrestricted in search of food. The ranch's employees, the cowboys, served as fences, riding the boundaries of the ranch each day to maintain ownership of the range and protect the cattle from thieves, wild predators, and disease. Most of the cattle grazing on south central Oklahoma's ranges at this time were longhorn, hardy animals that thrived in the open range atmosphere.

Ranchers usually established their headquarters near a good supply of water, such as a running stream. Chickasaw citizens could settle on any unoccupied portion of the Nation that they wished and there was no limit on the amount of land a rancher might claim as his range. A fairly substantial ranch probably numbered about five or six thousand acres. Because all land belonged in common to the entire tribe no individual rancher owned any of his ranch. His only property was his cattle and his personal possessions. He occupied only as much

land as he could effectively control; thus, the more cattle and men on a ranch, the larger its physical size. Citizens paid no property taxes. Non-citizens leasing ranch land from a Chickasaw paid a variety of taxes described above.

Housing on these ranches ranged from crude to palatial (e.g., the Washington mansion), depending on the rancher's economic success. Barns, stables, cattle pens, and corrals also existed near the site of the ranch house. Barns served to store feed or shelter sick animals and were usually constructed of wood. Many ranches today have very old barns, though few remain in good condition. During the nineteenth century the stable was a significant ranch building because it housed the horses, then the only means of rapid transportation on the ranges. With the development of the pickup truck in the twentieth century, stables and horses have both declined in importance. A few cattle pens or corrals (used primarily for training horses) may have survived from the nineteenth century to the present, but most have probably been replaced by modern iron enclosures.

Of all ranch buildings, the ranch house is the most likely to have survived relatively intact to the present day. As the home of the rancher and his family, often for several generations, it received the greatest care and attention. Wood, stone, and brick have been the traditional materials used in the construction of ranch houses. Availability often determined the rancher's choice of materials.

The most characteristic operation of the open range ranch was the roundup. Without fences cattle strayed over wide areas in search of food and water, sometimes wandering many miles from their home range. Thus each spring it was necessary to collect all the cattle in a particular area and return each to its owner. The owner of every cow could be determined from identifying marks, called brands, burned into the hide of each animal. The spring roundup began about the middle of April each year. Every ranch in an area sent two or three cowboys to participate in the roundup and bring home the ranch's cattle. These

roundups were very large-scale operations requiring close cooperation by the cowboys from the various ranches. Each morning, as the roundup moved along the range, circle riders rode out from the main camp and swept a large area, forcing the cattle toward a prearranged point at the center of a giant circle. The cowboys then cut, or sorted, the cattle according to brands. The branding of calves born during the preceding winter then commenced. This was a crucial procedure on the open range where large numbers of cattle from many different ranches roamed and mixed freely. Roundups usually required a month or more to complete. For example, in the eastern portion of the Chickasaw Nation, in present Pontotoc, Murray, and Johnston counties, the spring roundup usually began west of Atoka and Lehigh, in the Choctaw Nation, and then moved northwest towards Stonewall. It then headed north to the site of present Ada, then the Figure "2" Ranch. The roundup then traveled southwest to the Alva Roff Ranch at present Roff before reaching its westernmost point at present Sulphur, then Noah Lael's Diamond Z Ranch. It then turned southeast, passing Mill Creek, Tishomingo, and Emet, finally returning to Atoka. As the roundup neared the various ranches their cowboys removed their own cattle and drove them back onto the home range. Fall roundups were of a similar nature, although the major purpose was the selection of steers for market. The appearance of barbed wire fences in the 1880s and 1890s made such roundups unnecessary because cattle could no longer stray from their own pastures. Once cattle were secure and more easily controlled, the breeding of high-grade cattle, such as Shorthorns or Herefords, was possible. Such cows reached their maximum weight more quickly and produced better quality beef than longhorn cattle.

South central Oklahoma was excellent grazing country, but ranchers there in the late nineteenth century faced a number of serious problems that threatened the stability and future of the cattle industry. Most significant were the highly

organized bands of rustlers and other marauders that terrorized ranchers until the 1890s. In the immediate post-Civil War period cattle thieves were a very serious problem and dozens of powerful Kansas ranchers were known to possess cattle bearing Chickasaw brands. Even as late as the 1890s the Arbuckle Mountains were the refuge for several outlaw gangs, including those of Bill Dalton and Al Jennings. One of the most notorious attacks by outlaws on a ranch occurred in Murray County at the ranch of Bud and Dora Stephens. They hired as cowhands a couple of black outlaws, Billy July and Henry Loftis. Following an argument they murdered Bud Stephens, threw his body into a cave, and then raped, tortured, and killed his wife. Billy July then panicked and killed Loftis, fearing he would talk. July was later hanged for the crimes. In the western portion of the Nation roving bands of Plains Indians terrorized herds; to them the cattle were an excellent source of both food and draft animals. Predators such as panthers also caused much damage, preying particularly upon calves.

A number of major ranches deserve a detailed discussion. The largest ranch in the southern portion of the Chickasaw Nation was probably the "700" Ranch, located on the site of present-day Ardmore. Alva Roff established the ranch in 1879. Roff ran at least 10,000 head on this ranch (he ran additional cattle on a ranch in Pontotoc County). The ranch house was a double log cabin, the two rooms divided by a "dog-trot" breezeway. It stood at what is now the corner of G Street and Second Avenue on the west side of G Street in the southeast portion of Ardmore, Carter County.

The most famous and successful Chickasaw Indian rancher was Montford T. Johnson. He was born at Old Boggy Depot, Choctaw Nation, in 1834, the son of an Englishman and a Chickasaw woman. In 1861 he established a ranch south of the Arbuckle Mountains, near present Woodford. His ranch house was a two-room log cabin, fourteen by sixteen feet, with the traditional breezeway separating the

rooms, located at the junction of Henry House Creek and Caddo Creek. By 1865 his herd had grown to such a size that he decided to enlarge his holdings and over the next several years he established a number of ranches along the South Canadian River. One such ranch was located on Walnut Creek in present McClain County. Another lay on the north side of the river in the Council Grove area of present Oklahoma City. Johnson ranched over such a huge area, including leases in the Wichita and Caddo reservation, that in order to insure his effective control of his holdings he divided his ranges into several separate ranches, such as the Walnut Creek Ranch, or the Council Grove Ranch, and settled tenants on each who operated the individual ranch on a partnership basis. Thus the managers of each ranch had a real economic stake in its success or failure. Johnson was one of the first ranchers in the Nation to attempt the breeding of high grade stock. He was also a pioneer in the use of winter feed, which produced stronger and more marketable animals.

Another well-known rancher was Mazeppa Turner, a Scotsman who married a Chickasaw woman, Laura Jane Johnson. They settled in the Arbuckles near present Dougherty, where Turner built a one-room cabin in 1868. He supposedly discovered Turner Falls, which bears his name. Pauls Valley bears the name of Smith Paul, a rancher of Scotch-Irish descent who also married a Chickasaw woman, Ela Teecha. His home and ranch were located about two miles northwest of Old Cherokee Town on the Washita River. In 1872 he constructed a large home of native rock, known as "Pauls Mansion;" it stood for many years. A third intermarried Chickasaw was Noah Lael, whose wife, Lucy Harris, was the daughter of Governor Cyrus Harris. His ranch lay just south of present Sulphur, in the present Chickasaw National Recreation Area. He built his house of poles in about 1878; it stood near the present park headquarters. William Nathan Price of Tennessee also married a Chickasaw woman and acquired a sizeable spread that

stretched between the Arbuckle Mountains and present Sulphur. He even established a town for his ranch employees, Sorghum Flat, that contained 35 houses, a sorghum mill, a cotton gin, and a stone chapel that still stands. Willis Burgess Lowrance was another native of Tennessee to marry a Chickasaw, Mary Fletcher. In 1877 he settled on Boiling Spring near Buckhorn, constructing a typical double log cabin, though in 1890 he built a large colonial-style house.

Among white-owned ranches, the most famous was probably the Hook Nine Ranch, so called because of the peculiar shape of the brand. It was located northwest of Ardmore in the Arbuckle Mountains, probably on the site of the former Mazeppa Turner Ranch. It was founded in 1890 by F. D. Hendrix and C. E. Royer, Texas businessmen. The improvements at the headquarters consisted of a three-room log cabin with mud-chinked walls, probably built by Turner; a lean-to that served as a smokehouse/storeroom; a huge rail corral that held up to 700 head; a log saddle/harness room; and a corn crib. Hendrix once estimated the total value of these structures at about three dollars. Such primitive surroundings were typical of these early white-owned ranches; these ranchers held only very tenuous leases on the ranch land and so were unwilling to devote the time or money to improving the headquarters site. The Hook Nine ran about 2,000 head of cattle each year and employed eight men. Each August the ranch trailed its cattle to nearby Davis for shipment by rail to Kansas City. In common with most ranchers, Hendrix and a hand always accompanied the cattle to market, returning to Davis on a passenger train. If the Hook Nine is any indication, ranching in the Chickasaw Nation could be quite profitable, in spite of taxes to be paid and permits to be bought. When Hendrix and Royer closed the business in 1898 (when the first pre-allotment surveys were conducted), each partner claimed a clear profit of $100,000.

By 1890 the possibility of allotment in severalty of Chickasaw tribal land in the Indian Territory had become increasingly probable, as it had for all the Five

Civilized Tribes. Many of these Indians had hoped to build strong native economies based to a large degree on an Indian-controlled cattle industry as a way of preventing allotment and white settlement. This they failed to do. It proved impossible to effectively regulate the cattle industry anywhere in Indian Territory, not only because white cattlemen refused to cooperate, but also because inter-tribal friction (and intra-tribal factionalism) made even the best laws difficult to enforce. When for lack of capital the tribes turned to leasing pastures to Texas cattlemen, they inadvertently subverted their own dreams for native control of the agricultural economy. Although few large cattle companies operated in the Chickasaw Nation, their existence elsewhere in the Indian Nations provided the federal government with a further argument in favor of allotment: that it would return the land from the hands of rich cattle barons to those of the common people. (The only major cattle company that operated in Region Five was the A-Bar Cattle Company, located in the vicinity of Pooleville, Carter County.)

By the late 1880s white pressure for access to Indian lands in Oklahoma was too powerful for Washington to resist and the government accepted the popular view that the Indians could never be truly civilized until they abandoned communal customs and each family settled on homesteads surrounded by civilized white neighbors. The Chickasaws argued strongly against this self-serving policy, but without success. In 1887 the Allotment Act passed in Congress over Chickasaw objections and in 1894 Congress created the Commission to the Five Civilized Tribes, more commonly known as the Dawes Commission. The Choctaws and Chickasaws together signed the Atoka Agreement with the Dawes Commission in 1897 that established the terms for allotment: each enrolled tribal member, regardless of age or sex, would receive 320 acres of land not subject to taxation for 21 years. The Supplemental Agreement of 1902 created a mechanism for

determining tribal citizenship. Allotment became final in 1906, shortly before Oklahoma became a state.

Allotment shares with barbed wire responsibility for ending the open range ranching period in the Chickasaw Nation. Privately owned and fenced pastures made both the cowboy and the longhorn obsolete. Allotment also destroyed many formerly successful ranches. William Leander Byrd, one of the wealthiest Chickasaw ranchers, passionately opposed allotment and after it occurred, he made no attempt to restructure his ranch under the new conditions. Others adapted easily to the situation and arranged for their own and their families' allotments to be located on their ranches. One of the best examples is E. B. Johnson, son of Montford Johnson, who not only secured his family's allotments on Montford's old ranch, but also purchased those of his brothers and sisters, creating a spread that might have satisfied even his father.

OTHER TRIBES IN SOUTH CENTRAL OKLAHOMA: 1865-1907

The Seminoles sided with the Confederacy in the Civil War and many served in John Jumper's famous Seminole Battery. As a result, the United States in 1866 forced them to cede their entire domain of 2,169,080 acres for about 15 cents an acre and then purchase 200,000 acres from the Creeks for 50 cents an acre (later augmented by a one dollar an acre purchase of 175,000 acres). The war also badly hurt what had been a thriving cattle economy. Seminole agent George Reynolds estimated their antebellum herds to be about 20,000 head. In the fall of 1869, four years after the war's end, that number was 4,000. For the rest of the nineteenth century the tribe subsisted on small-scale stock raising and farming. The allotment of Seminole lands was complete by 1907.

After the Civil War most members of the Citizen Band of Potawatomies sold their Kansas allotments and purchased a reservation near the center of Indian

Territory with the proceeds. It later developed that this same land had been assigned to the Absentee Shawnee and although the Potawatomies requested it, the Shawnee were never removed. However, the Absentee Shawnee lived entirely in the northern portion of the reservation and the Potawatomies lived in the central and southern portions so there was no conflict between the two groups. White encroachment on their lands was always a problem for the Potawatomies in the late nineteenth century, but the government did nothing to halt the influx of squatters. The UF Ranch was probably the largest to operate in this reservation; its cattle ranged throughout the southern portion. The owner, William Greiffenstein, was the son-in-law of Potawatomie chief Burnett.

The Absentee Shawnee were generally pro-Union during the Civil War and in 1868 the government allowed them to settle west of the Seminole Nation on land later purchased by the Potawatomies. In 1890 both the Shawnee and the Potawatomies agreed to cede all tribal land claims to the United States, thus accepting allotment. Surplus land not allotted to tribal members was opened by run on September 22, 1891.

SOUTH CENTRAL OKLAHOMA RANCHING IN THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

In the twentieth century cattle ranching ceased to be the single most important economic enterprise in rural areas. Cotton and later petroleum took precedence. In agriculture, the raising of other livestock, poultry, and dairy products, in addition to a diversity of cash and food crops, also brought substantial income to the region. Yet the industry remained important: in 1970 the Oklahoma Crop and Livestock Reporting Service estimated that over 240,000 beef cows grazed on the pastures of south central Oklahoma.

The nature of ranching itself changed in the twentieth century as the old cattle trails disappeared, whites legally settled on former Indian lands, and

enclosed pastures became common. In addition to allotment, two major factors contributed to the character of modern ranching. The first was the railroads. In the 1870s and 1880s the Missouri, Kansas, and Texas (Katy), the Santa Fe, the Rock Island, and the Frisco all built lines through the Chickasaw Nation. Along the tracks developed towns and cities, such as Ardmore, Berwyn, Dougherty, Davis, and Wynnewood; each became a miniature Abilene in its day. The railroads not only encouraged settlement and urbanization, they also greatly reduced the distance from ranch to market, ending the era of the long trail drive. In effect, they opened national markets to the Chickasaws, not only for beef cattle, but also for the whole range of agricultural goods produced in the region. The second modernizing influence on ranching was the introduction of barbed wire. Before its invention in the late 1860s the fencing of large pastures was not economically feasible, particularly in Oklahoma where settlement was sparse and free grasslands plentiful. However, as settlement increased and farmers demanded protection for their crops, ranchers accepted, at first reluctantly, the inexpensive fencing barbed wire provided. By the time of allotment pasture fences were already a common sight. (Indeed, as early as the 1880s the Chickasaw legislature limited the size of pastures to 640 acres because some cattlemen had enclosed vast tracts of land with barbed wire for their personal use.) The most important effect of barbed wire was in its influence on the breeding of cattle. It provided a secure and relatively controlled environment in which ranchers could breed superior grades of cattle that produced tastier, and therefore more marketable, beef than the tough and stringy meat of the longhorn.

In other ways twentieth-century ranchers reflect their era's emphasis on science and technology. The pickup truck, for instance, replaced the horse as the primary means of transportation on ranches several decades ago. Enclosed pastures also rendered the roundup obsolete. Veterinary medicine has made

extraordinary progress in eliminating many of the deadly diseases, such as Texas Fever, that once threatened the existence of Oklahoma herds. Innoculations are now as common for cattle as for human beings. Purebred cattle, which have revolutionized the practice of ranching, owe their existence in part to scientific research.

A number of ranches survived allotment in south central Oklahoma and even more have appeared since that time. Among the survivors was the Lowrance Ranch, operated in the twentieth century by Oscar K. Lowrance, the son of its founder. At its greatest extent this ranch was approximately 10,000 acres in size; in 1976 it encompassed only 1,000 acres. The Ferris Ranch, south of Connerville, established in 1893 by Tom Ferris, is still in the hands of the family. The E. B. Johnson Ranch continued in operation for years following allotment.

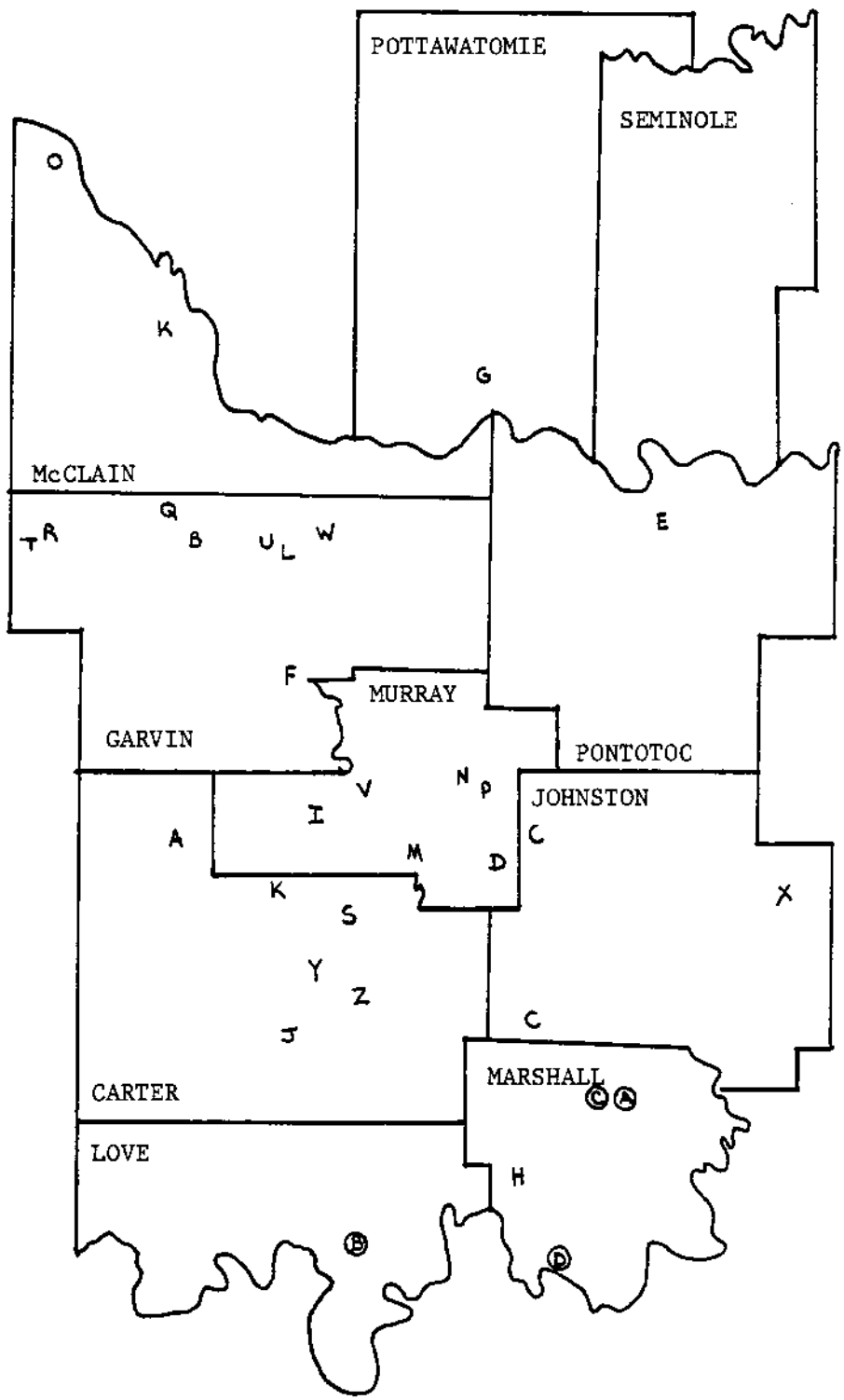
Several major ranches date from or shortly after the allotment period. R. H. Robertson, a native of Alabama, established a ranch in the vicinity of Cope, Oklahoma, in 1908. He purchased about 6,000 acres of land for 50 cents an acre and leased a substantial amount as well. He ran about 600 head of cattle and employed about seven hired hands. His home, still in the family's possession, is located five miles west of Wapanucka on state highway 7. Four brothers from Texas, John, Matt, Bob, and Gary Hood, purchased two ranches in Johnston County; the first near Pontotoc in 1905 and the second of 4,000 acres five miles northeast of Mill Creek in 1917. They abandoned both ranches in the 1920s.

One of the more successful family-owned ranches was the Corbin Ranch, established by William Wallace Corbin in 1907 west of Connerville. He later sold out to his sons, Carlton and William Murray Corbin. The latter bought out the former in 1934 and formed the present Tail N Ranch of almost 4,000 acres. W. M. Corbin, Jr., currently operates the ranch. In 1913 Frank A. Gillespie established a ranch seven miles south of Connerville that finally encompassed 7,000 acres.

Gillespie raised Hereford cattle, and the ranch is still known as the Hereford Spring Ranch.

Probably the most famous of the modern ranches in south central Oklahoma is the Turner Ranch, located near Scullin, about six miles east of Sulphur. Two oil men, Forrest Harper and Roy Turner, established the ranch in 1933, purchasing 9,300 acres in Murray, Johnston, and Pontotoc counties and stocking the ranch with purebred cattle taken from some of the finest herds in the Midwest. Turner purchased Harper's share in 1938. Turner always operated the ranch with a firm belief in the importance of science; thus the ranch possessed an excellent laboratory and facilities for artificial insemination. Turner even installed ceiling fans to circulate the air in the barns and constructed a special bathroom for the cleaning and grooming of cattle. Turner spared no expense in his devotion to purebred stock. In the 1940s Turner's attention drifted into politics, culminating in his election as governor of Oklahoma in 1946. Governor Winthrop Rockefeller of Arkansas then owned the ranch for a short time, but Turner recovered the ranch after leaving office and remained there until his death. In 1976 a Texas company puchased the ranch.

RANCHES IN EXISTENCE PRIOR TO ALLOTMENT*

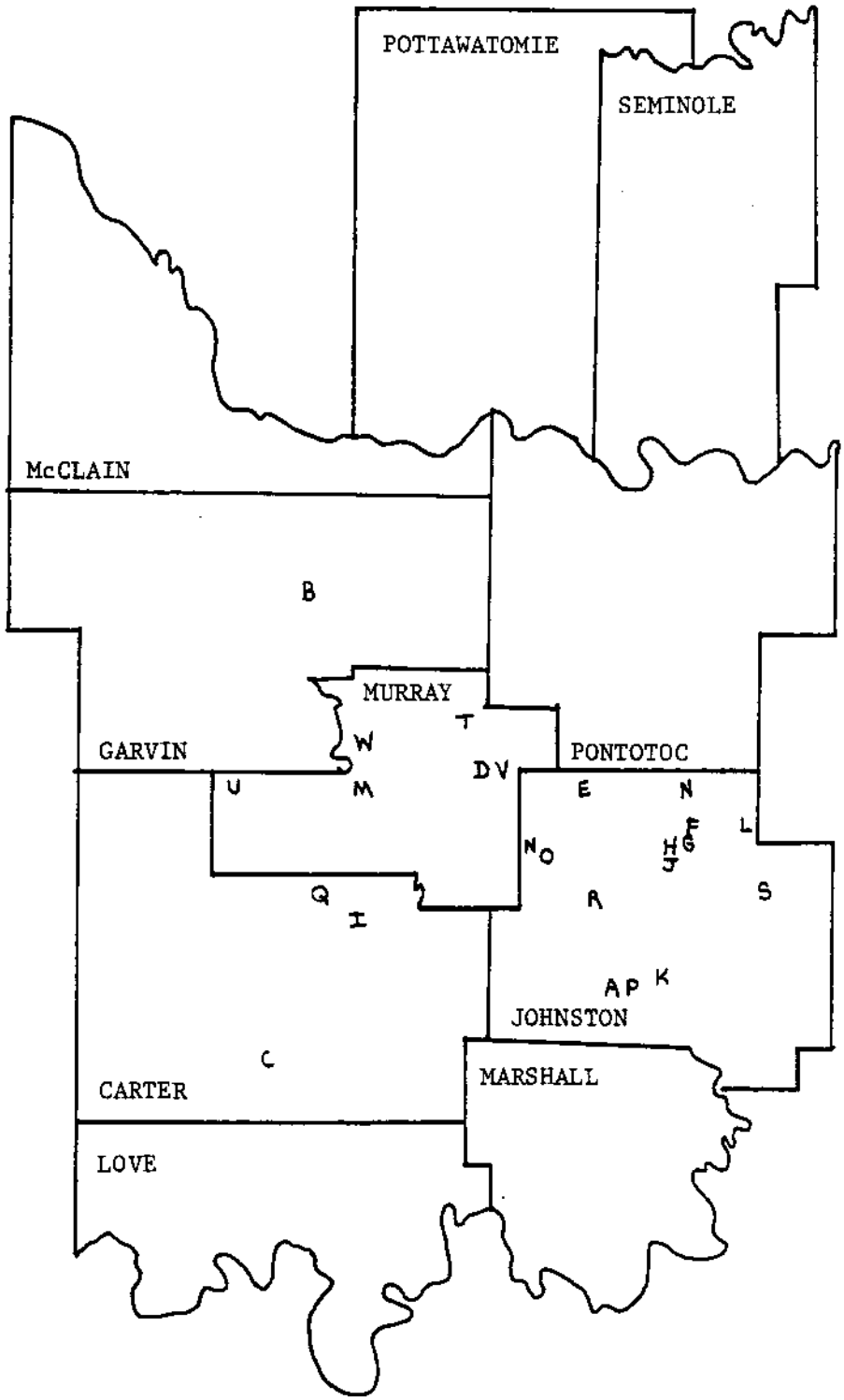


*Locations are approximate and based on secondary documentary research.

RANCHES IN EXISTENCE PRIOR TO ALLOTMENT--KEY

A. Eaves/Brady
B. John Criner Worley
C. Sam Daube (two sites)
D. Drake Brothers
E. Figure "2"
F. Charles Mitchell Grant
G. UF Ranch
H. George M. Holford
I. Hook Nine/Mazeppa Turner
J. IS Ranch
K. Montford Johnson (two sites)
L. William Grant Kimberlin
M. Tom Hayes
N. Noah Lael (Diamond "Z")
O. Long "O"
P. Willis Burgess Lowrance
Q. David Mays
R. Emmett McCaughey
S. Teat McCoggin
T. Frank Murray
U. Smith Paul
V. William Nathan Price
W. Jesse Reaves
X. James Riley
Y. Alva Roff
Z. "700" Ranch
Ⓐ William N. Taliaferro
Ⓑ William E. Washington
Ⓒ Richard O. Wiggs
Ⓓ James Hamilton Willis

RANCHES IN EXISTENCE AFTER ALLOTMENT*



*Locations are approximate and are based on secondary documentary research.

RANCHES IN EXISTENCE AFTER ALLOTMENT--KEY

A. Delbert Autry
B. James Thomas Blanton
C. Socrates Polusky Callen
D. Chaffin Black Angus Ranch
E. William Wallace Corbin
F. William Murray Corbin
G. Walter Easterling
H. Ples Ferris
I. Fitzgerald Ranch
J. Frank A. Gillespie
K. Ralph D. Gray
L. Harris Ranch
M. Healey Brothers (Flying "L")
N. Hood Brothers (two sites)
O. Fred Hunt
P. Lester Johnson
Q. Lazy S
R. Walter Phelps
S. R. H. Robertson
T. Will Sieg ("OK" Ranch)
U. Sparks (Rocking "S") Ranch
V. Roy Turner
W. Matt Wolfe

RANCHES IN EXISTENCE PRIOR TO ALLOTMENT

Name	Location	Owner/Founder	Dates of Significance
A-Bar	Vicinity of Pooleville	A-Bar Cattle Co.	late 19th century
Eaves/Brady	Vicinity of Pooleville	James J. Eaves	1890s
Butterly	Southern Garvin County	Nick Butterly	late 19th century
Callen	Northeast of Ardmore	Socrates Polusky Callen	1895-1910
Campbell	Vicinity of Pauls Valley	Hugh A. Campbell	late 19th century
Colbert	Vicinity of Ft. Arbuckle	Henry Colbert	1860s & 1870s
Drake Bros.	Site of Drake	Sam & Block Drake	1890s
Figure "2"	Site of Ada	Mr. Thomas	1870s
Froman	Site of Sulpher	Perry Froman	1882-ca. 1900
Goddard	South of Buckhorn and Sulpher	Undetermined	1880s & 1890s
Grant	Vicinity of Ft. Arbuckle	Tom Grant	1880s
UF	Southern Pottawatomie County	William Greiffenstein	1880s
Hall	Two miles west of Pecan Grove schoolhouse in Pontotoc County	Bob Hall	1890s
Holford	Vicinity of Lebanon	George M. D. Holford	late 19th century
Hook Nine	On Honey Creek, two miles above Turner Falls in Murray County	F. D. Hendrix & C. D. Royer	1890-1898
IS	2-1/4 miles west of Ardmore	Jerry and Russ Washington	1870s & 1880s
James	Big Canyon area, Murray County	Undetermined	1880s & 1890s

Name	Location	Owner/Founder	Dates of Significance
Johnson	Various ranches in vicinity of Ft. Arbuckle & on south bank of South Canadian River in McClain County	Montford Johnson	late 19th century
Kimberlin	Vicinity of Pauls Valley	William Grant Kimberlin	1870s & 1880s
Hayes	2-1/2 miles northeast of Dougherty	Tom Hayes	1890s
Lael	Two ranches: first on site of Sulpher; second 3 miles north of Wynnewood	Noel Lael	1878-1890s
LC	1 mile north and 2 miles west of Springer	Charlie Henderson, Willis Fryback, & Joe Brown	1882-1895
Long-O	1-1/2 miles south of Cow Creek in McClain County, north of Newcastle	W. T. Peery	1880s
Love	Vicinity of Marietta	Overton Love	late 19th century
Lowrance	Vicinity of Buckhorn, southeast of Sulphur	Willis Burgess Lowrance	late 19th century
Mays	Vicinity of Maysville	David Mays	1860s & 1870s
McCaughy	Vicinity of Erin Springs	Emmett McCaughy	1860s & 1870s
McCoggin	1 mile north and 1 mile west of Springer	Teat McCoggin	1871-1882
Murray	Vicinity of Erin Springs	Frank Murray	1871-1892
Paul	2 miles northwest of old Cherokee Town	Smith Paul	1830s-1880s
Price	Vicinity of Arbuckle Mountains	William Nathan Price	late 19th century

Name	Location	Owner/Founder	Dates of Significance
Reaves	northeast of Pauls Valley	Jesse Reaves	1890s
Riley	2 miles south and 2 miles west of Wapanucka	James H. Riley	1870s-ca. 1890
Roff	1 mile south of old town of Glenn, vicinity of Roff	Alva Roff	1883-1890
Scivally	northwest of Ardmore	Bob Scivally	late 19th century
700	site of Ardmore	Roff brothers	1870s
Taliaferro	site of Madill	William N. Taliaferro	1880s & 1890s
Turner	Vicinity of Turner Falls, Murray County	Mazeppa Turner	1880s
Washington	Vicinity of Marietta	William E. Washington	1880s-1920
Wiggs	Vicinity of Oakland	Richard O. Wiggs	1870s
Willis	Vicinity of Willis	James Hamilton Willis	late 19th century
Worley	Several ranches, in vicinity of Maysville, Erin Springs, Whitebead Hill	John Criner Worley	1872-1930

RANCHES IN EXISTENCE AFTER ALLOTMENT

Name	Location	Owner/Founder	Dates of Significance
Flying "A"	Vicinity of Ravia	Delbert Autry	1913-ca. 1930
Blanton	Vicinity of Pauls Valley	James Thomas Blanton	ca. 1900-1944
Burch Angus Ranch	Johnston County	Clarence Burch	Since 1938
Camp	South of Paoli	Joe A. Camp	1890s-1917
Black Angus Ranch	East of Sulphur	Mack Chaffin	mid-20th century
Colbert	18 miles south of Tishomingo	Benjamin H. Colbert	early 20th century
Colvert	Johnston County	Paul R. Colvert	since 1930s
Corbin	East of Scullin	William Wallace Corbin	early 20th century
Daube	north of Mannsville	Sam Daube	since 1885
Easterling	3 miles south and 1-1/2 miles east of Connerville	Walter Easterling	mid-20th century
Ferris	south of Connerville	Tom Ferris	since 1890s
Fitzgerald	vicinity of Woodford	Undetermined	since 1920s
Gillespie	7 miles south of Connerville	Frank A. Gillespie	since 1913
Grant	Vicinity of Wynnewood	Charles Mitchell Grant	1889-1939
Gray	north of Tishomingo	Ralph D. Gray	20th century
Green	1 mile north and 2 miles west of Springer	William L. Green	1900-ca. 1930s
Harris	5 miles north of Bromide	Undetermined	early 20th century
Flying "L"	south of Davis	Burk & Ship Healey	mid-20th century

Name	Location	Owner/Founder	Dates of Significance
Hood Brothers	Two ranches: Vicinity of Pontotoc, and five miles northeast of Mill Creek	John, Matt, Bob, and Gary Hood	1905-1929
Hunt	Vicinity of Mill Creek	Fred Hunt	since 1905
Jack	Vicinity of Dougherty	Walter Jack	early 20th century
Johnson	Vicinity of Ravia	Lester Johnson	1920s & 1930s
Lasater	South of Pauls Valley	Milas Lasater	early 20th century
Lazy S	Vicinity of Springer	Phil Cornell	since ca. 1900
Myers	Arbuckle Mountains	Bill Myers	mid-20th century
Parker	East of Connerville	Ludie Parker	since 1946
Phelps	Between Reagan & Troy	Walter Issaic Phelps	early 20th century
Potes	Murray County	Delbert Potes	early 20th century
Robertson	5 miles west of Wapanucka	R. H. Robertson	early 20th century
Sieg	Northeast of Sulphur	Will Sieg	1937-1958
Tail N	1 mile south & 2 miles west of Connerville	William Murray Corbin	Since 1934
Trammel	Vicinity of Hennepin	Joe Trammel	ca. 1925-1970s
Turner	6 miles east of Sulphur	Roy J. Turner	1933-1976
Wadsworth	Johnston County	John Wadsworth	ca. 1890-1923
Wolfe	North of Davis	Matt Wolfe	early 20th century

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