RESOURCE PROTECTION PLANNING PROJECT

TRANSPORTATION IN OKLAHOMA TO 1920

REGION FIVE

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TRANSPORTATION IN OKLAHOMA

Transportation has played a key role in the economic and social development of Oklahoma. Early on, a rudimentary transportation network had a great influence on the level of commercial activities by allowing an exchange of goods and information within the region and by providing a connection to markets in the South. Transportation also influenced the settlement of the region by both Indians and whites. In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, improved mobility of goods, services, and people had far reaching social consequences. With faster links to the nation's cultural and political centers, the frontier disappeared and Oklahoma became fully integrated into the union. For purposes of this historic context, transportation in Oklahoma encompasses those facilities built to facilitate the movement of goods, services, and people. This includes sites and structures associated with river transportation, early roads and cattle trails, railways, and the state's highway system. This study covers the period from the beginning of the nineteenth century, when traders first used rivers in eastern Oklahoma, to the mid-1920s, when various levels of government began to fund construction of a modern highway system.

The development of transportation in Oklahoma occurred in distinct phases. The first took place prior to the introduction of railways and the second period began when railroads entered the territory in the 1870s. Before the

coming of the railroad, existing modes of transportation limited economic development. The movement of bulky items was restricted to waterways in eastern Oklahoma and to draft animals in overland travel. Each of these forms of transportation was slow and commercially unreliable. With the advent of railways in Oklahoma, large amounts of freight could be conveyed across the region faster and without regard for the depth of rivers or the needs of dray animals. The railroad revolutionized transportation in Oklahoma and had an unprecedented effect on the region by bringing in thousands of white settlers, contributing to the destruction of Indian sovereignty, and stimulating tremendous economic development.

One of the first examples of transportation's significance to trade in Oklahoma were waterways, and one of the earliest examples of these routes is the Three Forks region at the confluence of the Arkansas, Grand, and Verdigris Rivers. This site, active before 1820, was an important trading area with access to the Gulf of Mexico. Then, keelboats were the main means of river transportation, moving the region's products, mostly pelts, to New Orleans. These waterways also facilitated settlement, for Indian settlers used keelboats to reach Indian Territory over the same rivers as the traders who sent the region's products down river.

A later innovation in transportation permitted a greater volume of goods to move to and from Oklahoma. This involved the use of steam power, which also had an effect on the

region's agriculture. After removal to Indian Territory, some Indians, mostly intermarried whites and mixed-bloods, raised cash crops. Cotton, the main export crop, required a form of transportation that could move such a bulky item. Steamboats were the answer, and these craft plied the Mississippi and Oklahoma's eastern rivers to pick up these cargoes. The result was a great increase in the volume of goods exchanged, and the extension of the cotton culture to what would become Oklahoma.

While the waterways of eastern Oklahoma remained an important transportation network through the Civil War, overland trails persisted as the major means of moving foods and people. One of the earliest overland routes was the Santa Fe Trail, which passed through Oklahoma's panhandle. Its first regular use was in the early 1820s when Americans used the trail to trade between Saint Louis and the Mexican outpost of Santa Fe. Trade increased in volume and the trail continued to be used until the 1880s, when the railroad entered Santa Fe. Even so, the trail was not a factor in Oklahoma's commercial development; it simply passed through the region.

Beginning in the 1820s, forts linked by military roads formed an important part of the U. S. government's attempts to pacify the Indians living in what is now Oklahoma. The first of these roads, built in 1827, connected Fort Smith, Arkansas with Fort Gibson in the Three Forks region. Other

such roads traversed the region linking military posts scattered from Camp Supply, just east of the panhandle, to Fort Towson, in the southeastern part of the territory. Although generally of poor quality, these roads served as important overland routes until the coming of the railroads.

Roads also moved settlers across the region. The Texas Road, running north-south from Missouri to Texas, was among the first of these trails. First used in the 1820s by settlers who sought land in Texas, then a province of Mexico, the road later provided an avenue for Indian settlers travelling north to Indian Territory after their removal from the eastern United States. Later, it became an important route linking Texas, Indian Territory, and Kansas during the period of cattle drives from Texas to Kansas after the Civil War.

In 1849, the discovery of gold in California caused an exodus west. Southerners took the California Road that ran west from Fort Smith, Arkansas, through Indian Territory to the gold fields in California. In order to serve these travellers going to California, trading posts dotted the path. Apart from getting people to California, this well traveled trail helped settle Oklahoma.

One late addition to the forms of transportation available to people in Indian Territory was the Butterfield Overland Mail Route, a stage line that stretched from the Saint Louis to San Fransisco. Though the section of the

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

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 Novemver 16, 1907, Oklahoma's nearly 1,500,000 inhabitants entered the Union as citizens of the forty-sixth state.

PATTERNS OF WHITE SETTLEMENT IN REGION FIVE

The ten counties of region five occupy the south central portion of the state and contain virtually all of the former Chickasaw and Seminole nations, the Kickapoo, Shawnee, Sac and Fox, and Pottawatomie reservations, and a small portion of the Creek Nation. The principal geographical areas of the region include the Red River Plains in the south, the Red Bed Plains in the west, the Arbuckle Mountains in the center, and the Sandstone Hills in the north. Elevation ranges from 500 to 1000 feet, but segments of the rounded hills of the Arbuckles reach over 1400 feet. Much of region five falls within the Cross Timbers and contains extensive stands of post oak and blackjack oak trees. The area's luxuriant mixed grasses are well suited for stock grazing. Generally well watered, region five receives between thirty-four and forty-two inches of rain annually. Several of the state's major water courses, including the Canadian, Washita, and Red

rivers and Little, Rush, and Caddo creeks, drain the ten-county area. Topography, climate, and available water allowed early settlers to develop a variety of economic activities including stock raising, the cultivation of wheat, cotton, corn, potatoes, and fruit, and the exploitation of lumber resources.

After passage of the Indian Removal Act (1830), the Choctaws, Creeks, Chickasaws, and Seminoles emigrated to various sections of region five. In 1830, the Choctaws received all lands between the western border of Arkansas and the 100th meridian below the Canadian and Arkansas rivers. They settled mainly in the eastern third of their land. In 1837, a treaty permitted the Chickasaws to move to the area west of the Choctaw settlements. The governments of the two tribes were combined, and members of both groups had the right to settle any part of the Choctaw Nation. In 1833, the Creeks had received that part of region five north of the Canadian River. The Creeks later invited the Seminoles to settle on their lands; and by 1840, the Seminoles had also begun to arrive in Oklahoma.

After removal, the tribes developed relatively prosperous economies. While most full bloods farmed small subsistence plots, many mixed bloods cultivated extensive tracts along the river bottoms and produced large amounts of grain, cotton, and livestock. Although land was held on a tribal basis, individual tribal members could develop large scale operations. A number of Indian planters owned

black slaves; many others however, employed white laborers, who needed a special permit to enter Indian land.

In 1855 and 1856, new treaties more specifically delineated areas of tribal occupation. In 1855, the Chickasaws received virtually all of present region five below the Canadian River when a separate Chickasaw Nation was created. In 1856, the independent Seminole Nation was formed. Included in its domain was part of region five above the Canadian River. The remainder of the region continued to fall within the western fringe of the Creek Nation.

As punishment for their support of the Confederacy during the Civil War, the United States government forced the Indian nations 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. Although Chickasaw lands in region five remained intact, the treaties did affect Seminole and Creek possessions. The Seminoles ceded all of their territory to the United States. They purchased land from the Creeks to form the reconstituted Seminole Nation, which embraced most of present Seminole county. After 1867, the federal government resettled the Sac and Fox, Pottawatomie, Shawnee, and Kickapoo tribes on parts of the former Seminole and Creek lands in northern region five.

During the next few decades, a series of developments destroyed the tribes' independence and exclusive control over their lands. The construction of railroads through Indian Territory in the 1870s spurred a growing desire to open Indian lands to white settlement. Succumbing to the demand that Indians be required to take individual homesteads, in 1887 Congress enacted the Dawes Act, which decreed that Indian lands, except those belonging to the Five Civilized Tribes, be alloted in severalty. After each qualified Indian had received his allotment, surplus land would be opened to whites. The rush into the Oklahoma District in 1889 clearly illustrated the insatiable hunger for Indian land.

The first portion of region five officially opened to white settlers was that area encompassing the Pottawatomie and Shawnee reservations along with the extreme southern portions of the Sac and Fox and Kickapoo holdings. Between 1887 and 1891, the United States government had pressured the tribes to accept allotments. All agreed but the Kickapoos, whose reservation remained a small enclave until 1895. The federal government ordered that the reservations be opened by a land run, which would be held on September 22, 1891. Twenty-thousand prospective settlers participated in the run in hopes of acquiring one of the 7,000 available quarter sections. Since there were three times as many prospective settlers as there were available tracts, all the land was taken in a single day. Athough

they could claim land under the Homestead Act, settlers had to reimburse the government for clearing the Indian land titles.

The experiences of homesteaders in this area generally mirrored those of the settlers who made the first run into the Unassigned Lands in 1889. With sufficient rainfall and fertile soil, a 160-acre farmstead allowed family self-sufficiency. Settlers staked their claim, plowed a few furrows, perhaps began a well, and hurried to register at the land office. They established their first residence in tents, dugouts, sod houses, and crude frame shacks, cultivated corn, potatoes, oats, alfalfa, and cotton, planted fruit trees, and raised livestock. These early settlers later benefitted from the Free Homes Bill of 1900, which saved them hundreds of dollars. This unexpected money enabled farmers to replace their crude living quarters with more substantial homes of wood, brick, or stone, purchase new equipment, and improve their barns and other out buildings.

Urban development also began with the land run. Homestead law permitted the establishment of 320-acre townsites. The federal government had designated the southern portion of the newly opened lands (that part which fell within region five) as "B" county (later named Pottawatomie county) and had selected Tecumseh as its county seat. When the site was opened for settlement during the first few days after the run, a mad scramble for

lots ensued. Five thousand people hoped to acquire one of the 2400 available lots. Many speculators who had no intention of settling at the site took part in the rush and then sold their claims to those who planned to remain more permanently. The chaos and confusion that accompanied the opening of county seat townsites during this run in 1891 convinced federal authorities to establish more organized and peaceful procedures for future openings.

In accordance with the Organic Act of 1890, Pottawatomie county was added to Oklahoma Territory after settlement. By 1900, its population had grown to over 26,000 inhabitants. Shawnee, with 3,462 residents, Tecumseh (nearly 1,200), and McLoud (498) were the largest settlements in the county. This area did not have a pre-existing railroad network, and an intense battle for dominance between Tecumseh and Shawnee developed after the Choctaw, Oklahoma and Gulf Railroad Company (Rock Island) built through Shawnee in 1895. The effect of the railroad on Shawnee is demonstrated by the increase in its population from 350 in 1894 to 2,500 in 1896. Although Tecumseh was able to retain its position as county seat during the Territorial period, Shawnee became the county's most important town.

During the four decades following the Civil War, white farmers, speculators, businessmen, and others also challenged the Five Civilized Tribes' exclusive right to occupy and control their domain. Although the war had

ruined farms, destroyed property, and decimated livestock herds, the economy of Indian Territory had revived in a remarkably short time. Perhaps the most significant factor in the recovery was the extension of railroad lines through the area. The Santa Fe, Rock Island, Frisco, and Katy railroad corporations laid thousands of miles of track through region five, spurred agricultural production, stimulated urbanization, and attracted a flood of whites.

The Santa Fe was the first railroad to enter region five when it constructed from Purcell southward into Texas in 1887. Along this route arose such towns as Wayne, Paoli, Pauls Valley, Wynnewood, Davis, Ardmore, Marietta, and Thackerville. In 1895, the Choctaw, Oklahoma and Gulf Railroad Company (Rock Island) built from McAlester to Oklahoma City, enhancing the development of Wewoka, Seminole, Earlsboro, Shawnee, and McLoud. The Oklahoma Central Railway (Santa Fe) extended a line from Lehigh to Chickasha, giving rise to such places as Stonewall, Frisco, Stratford, Byers, Washington, and Blanchard. In 1900 and 1901, the Saint Louis, OKlahoma and Southern Railway (Frisco) constructed a route from Sapulpa to near the north bank of the Red River, leading to the establishment of, or providing additional stimulus to, such places as Sasakwa, Francis, Ada, Roff, Scullin, Mill Creek, Madill, and Kingston. Between 1903 and 1904, the Katy connected Shawnee to the Choctaw coal fields and Oklahoma City; additional spur lines of the major roads provided a network

linking dozens of towns in the region to one another as well as to national markets in the East, North, and South. 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 and subject to explusion, most whites entered and remained illegally.

Towns on Indian land were established only through the patronage of a tribal citizen who had received permission from the native government to exploit an unoccupied tract. He would then lease town lots or surrender his claim for a price. Describing these settlements in the 1880s, a federal report stated that "towns have all been built and peopled by white residents, whose capital has been invested in large amounts 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 usually illegality) of both their presence and their investment in these early communities, settlers in Indian Territory established towns much like those in Pottawatomie county and other Oklahoma frontier settlements. A representative town in region five 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. In the eastern areas of the region, a saw mill was also characteristic of some 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 of Pottawatomie 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 settlements 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, structures made of 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 in Indian Territory, 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 of land, leased or rented plots of from ten to 160 acres 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. White tenants enabled Indians to cultivate additional thousands of acres of agricultural land, and wheat, cotton, oats, and corn production rose dramatically. Chickasaws also rented thousands of acres in their western range to Texas cattlemen. In addition, they employed whites in quarries providing building stone and railroad ballast and in lumbering operations producing railroad ties and materials for local building needs.

As economic activities increased, the number of whites, with or without permits, grew apace. In 1876, whites totalled about 4500 in the Chickasaw Nation. By 1893, they exceeded 40,000. In 1900, the Chickasaw Nation contained over 139,000 people; whites vastly outnumbered the less than 6000 Indians. The United States census of 1900 listed a total of twenty-seven towns in the Chickasaw portion of region five. While eighteen of these settlements had less than 400 residents each, six contained over 1000 inhabitants. Ardmore (5,681) was the largest town in region five. The other significant population centers included Purcell (2,277), Wynnewood (1,907), Pauls Valley (1,467), Davis (1,346), and Sulphur (1,198). Whites comprised the overwhelming majority of the residents in these communities.

The rising tide of white residents signalled the ultimate demise of Indian control over their tribal domain. In 1893, Congress created the Dawes Commission and empowered its members to enter negotiations with the Five Civilized Tribes to terminate tribal government and allot Indian lands. In 1897, the Chickasaws and Seminoles reached agreements with representatives of the federal government. The distribution of allotments in the Seminole Nation was completed in 1902; in 1903, land allotment began in the Chickasaw Nation. White tenants, however, continued to farm the vast majority of these allotments. The Oklahoma Constitutional Convention created nine counties (in addition to Pottawatomie county) from the Indian lands in region five. Carter, Garvin, Love, McClain, Marshall, and Murray counties lay wholly within Chickasaw territory, and except for their eastern edge, Johnston and Pontotoc counties also fell within the old Chickasaw boundaries. Seminole county was formed from the Seminole Nation lands and a small portion of the Creek Nation.

When Oklahoma gained statehood in 1907, the total population of region five had reached nearly 198,000. That number included nearly 173,000 whites, 17,000 blacks, and 8,000 Indians. Pottawatomie county contained over 43,000 inhabitants, while, Carter, Garvin, and Pontotoc counted over 22,000 each. The region had forty-five incorporated communities, fifteen of which claimed over 1,000 residents each. Nine of the largest towns were county seats; all

forty-five were on a railroad line. Shawnee was the largest town in region five with nearly 11,000 inhabitants. Other major population centers included Ardmore (8,759), Ada (3,257), and Sulphur (2,935). Although less than 30 percent of the white residents of region five lived in incorporated communities, they dominated the towns. Blacks constituted just 10.2 percent of the urban residents, while Indians comprised a minute 1.7 percent of the total.

PROPERTY-TYPE ANALYSIS OF WHITE SETTLEMENT STRUCTURES IN REGION FIVE

Region five contains numerous buildings, structures and sites related to white settlement prior to 1907. A number of communities were established in Pottawatomie county after the land run opened the area in 1891. White tenancy and railroad construction led to the development of settlements and towns in the Chickasaw Nation between the 1870s and statehood. Although the large majority of whites in the Indian domain were "intruders," they and licensed white residents founded most of the first permanent towns and farmed thousands of acres of land before 1907. Any intensive survey of region five would reveal the following property types: 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. Preservationists must utilize the National Register criteria to determine the significance of specific properties. The National Register criteria are as follows:

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 in region five include those that hold mere archeological interest (such as Keokuk Falls in Pottawatomie county and Orr in Love county), those that are virtual ghost towns (such as old Center and Francis in Pontotoc county), and those that continue to function as vital social and economic units. The smaller rural towns commonly retain a surprisingly large number of original buildings, structures, and sites developed before statehood.

2. Commercial Buildings and Structures: Urbanized districts contain a wide variety of commercial buildings. They originally served as 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, saw mills, wagon yards, livery stables, and stock yards. Few of the remaining buildings contain the original enterprises for which they were built.

3. Non-Commercial Buildings: 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 Pottawatomie 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.

5. Houses: Settlers built a variety of types of houses during the early period. Initial shelters included dugouts, half-dugouts, small frame houses, and residences of stone and crude lumber. Frequently these houses 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 remain from the period prior to 1907.

6. Churches: Excellent examples of churches built before 1907 exist in the region. Surviving churches range from small wood frame buildings to substantial structures of brick or stone. Churches comprised a significant aspect of both urban and rural society during the pre-statehood period.

7. Schools: Schools are an important and highly visible aspect of rural and urban life in the period before

1907. Many one-or two-room schools--wood-frame, stone, and brick-remain scattered throughout the countryside. Larger schoolhouses-mostly of brick-represent some of the most important survivals of town life in the pre-statehood period. 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.

REGION FIVE:

Carter County:

Ardmore Historic Commercial District (National Register 3/14/83):

1. U.S. Jail, 206 West Main, Ardmore, OK
2. U.S. Courthouse Building, 200-202 West Main, Ardmore, OK
3. 128 West Main, Ardmore, OK
4. Dunlap Building, 100 West Main, Ardmore, OK
5. 118 East Main, Ardmore, OK
6. 123 and 125 East Main, Ardmore, OK
7. 119 and 121 East Main, Ardmore, OK
8. Carter and Booker Block, 15-21 North Washington, Ardmore, OK
9. Masonic Temple Building, N.W. corner of Main and Washington Streets, Ardmore, OK
10. 105 and 107 West Main, Ardmore, OK
11. 232-228 West Main, Ardmore, OK
12. 102 and 104 West Main, Ardmore, OK
13. 226 West Main, Ardmore, OK
14. Carnegie Library, 500 Stanley, Ardmore, OK
15. Sayer/Mann House, 323 SW F, Ardmore, OK (N.R. 1982)
16. Haney's Store, Highway 53, Block 25, lot 3, Gene Autry, OK
17. Brady Cabin, 38 miles N.W. of Ardmore, Poolville, OK (N.R. 1977)

Garvin County:

18. First National Bank, 100 West Main Street, Stratford, OK

19. Crump House, 804 North Carr, Wynnewood, OK

20. Hargis-Mitchell-Corkrane House, 204 East Robert S. Kerr, Wynnewood, OK (N.R. 1980)

Love County:

21. Bobo Home, 601 West Seminole, Marietta, OK

22. First National Bank Building, 200 West Main, Marietta, OK

23. Marietta Jail, 405 1/2 West Chickasaw, Marietta, OK

24. Marietta Monitor Building, 104 Main, Marietta, OK

McClain County:

25. The Brass Monkey and Sandy's Beauty Shop, Block 116, lot 8, Purcell, OK

26. Canadian Theatre, Block 116, lots 11 and 12, Purcell, OK

27. The Dragon's Den Cafe, Block 116, lot 10, Purcell, OK

28. Fashion's Galore, Block 116, lot 4, Purcell, OK

29. Krapf's Plumbing and Electric, Block 116, lot 5, Purcell, OK

30. Love Hotel, 200 West Main Street, Purcell, OK

31. Masonic Building, Block 12, lot 112, Purcell, OK

32. McCrory Electric, Block 112, lot 11, Purcell, OK

33. Merle Norman Cosmetics and Kiddy Kloset, Block 112, lots 12 and 13, Purcell, OK

34. O.K. Barber and Clifton Insurance, Block 112, lot 10.

35. Purcell Building, 132 Main Street, Purcell, OK

Pontotoc County:

31. J.L. Jefferies Home, Frisco and Seventh Streets, Roff, OK

Pottawatomie County:

32. Macomb Post Office, Block 4, lot 12, Macomb addition, Macomb, OK

33. Beard Cabin, Woodland Park, Shawnee, OK

34. Governor's Mansion, 618 North Park, Shawnee, OK

35. Kerfoot House, 740 North Board, Shawnee, OK

36. Nuckolls House, 200 East Federal, Shawnee, OK

37. Walker House, 1801 North Broadway, Shawnee, OK

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