

HISTORIC HOMESTEADS AND RANCHES IN NEW MEXICO: A HISTORIC CONTEXT



Thomas Merlan

Historic Preservation Division, Office of Cultural Affairs, State of New Mexico, Santa Fe, New Mexico, 87501. Professional Services Contract No. 08 505 7000 0021, Department of Cultural Affairs, March, 2008



Prepared for: Historic Homestead Workshop, September 25-26, 2010

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PREFACE

This manual has been written under the auspices of the New Mexico State Office of the Bureau of Land Management and the Historic Preservation Division, Department of Cultural Affairs of the State of New Mexico. The purpose of this manual is to assist field personnel to analyze and determine the significance of sites created by the practices of ranching and homesteading in New Mexico. This manual is intended to guide both fieldwork and necessary archival research on homestead and ranch sites.

Our assumption is that most of the surveyors who will use this manual are archaeologists whose training is in archaeology rather than architecture or documentary research. This manual also assumes that the surveyor will encounter the site in the course of a survey of a project area or area of effect.

By “homestead or ranch site” we mean a habitation site, feature or group of features that may be associated with historic agricultural activity and/or with related activities. This site may be (probably will be) reduced, disturbed, or looted. It may have a standing habitation or other standing structures on it, but it is also possible or likely that no such features have survived. The site could be as old as the phenomenon of ranching in New Mexico or the Southwest – meaning that its earliest features may date back to the 1500s. It is much more likely, however, that it will be recent – nineteenth or twentieth century.

Determining the value and meaning of these sites will require the application of criteria of significance – essentially those of the National Register of Historic Places, which is the federal government’s list of significant historic and prehistoric properties. Bear in mind that the National Register of Historic Places includes properties of national, regional and local significance. Properties of regional and local significance may be determined eligible to and nominated to the National Register of Historic Places. They may also be placed on New Mexico’s State Register of Cultural Properties.

Agriculture has been the core of New Mexico’s traditional economy. Our discussion nevertheless tries to distinguish the phenomena of ranching and homesteading from the general history of the state. Although this manual contains various references to specific times, places and sites, it is designed to be applicable to all of New Mexico, and may also have some applicability in other parts of the West.

Cover Photograph

Five-sided homestead. Front looks like a log cabin, back looks like a hogan, near the old Crocket Ranch in Cibola County near Fence Lake.

HOMESTEAD AND RANCH CHRONOLOGY

c. 9500 B.C. - Paleo-Indian occupation of the Southwest begins. Paleo-Indian people hunt big game and gather wild plants and small game during the late Pleistocene.

c. 5500 B.C. - the period called the Archaic begins in the Southwest. The beginning of this period coincides with environmental changes, including a decrease in moisture and changes in plant communities.

Plant foods were important before the introduction of agriculture in New Mexico. The leaves and crowns of the Agave can be roasted and can also be stored. Cactus fruits are edible, as are wild onion and wild potato. Many wild seeds and nuts can be eaten, including those of lamb's quarter, bunchgrass, bee plant, sunflower and piñon.

c. 1500 B.C. - crops are introduced into New Mexico from the south. By about 1000 B.C., Archaic peoples are eating some corn and squash along with wild foods.

At least two prehistoric agricultural or crop complexes, the Upper Sonoran and Lower Sonoran, were introduced into the American Southwest in prehistoric times. The concept of a crop complex implies a group of species with an apparent common geographic origin and a mutual association within certain environmental parameters, although an individual species may later experience a separate geographic distribution and history (Ford 1981:7).

This is also the date of introduction of corn into the Southwest, but one authority (Ford) considers a range somewhere between 1500 and 1200 B.C. likely (Ford: personal communication 1997). Wills 1988: 145 suggests an introduction date of about 3000 B.P., or 1000 B.C. Matson (Matson 1991:265, 268) suggests a date of about 1000 B.C.

From around 200 A.D. until the coming of the Spanish in the sixteenth century, the archaeological record in New Mexico shows that in some areas, agricultural communities remained stable over long periods, while in others, attempts to found such communities were abandoned.

The period A.D. 400 to A.D. 700 in the northern Southwest was marked by increasing dependence on agriculture.

Between about 700 A.D. and 1000 A.D. there is a change throughout the northern southwest, including most of western and northern New Mexico, from pithouse villages to villages composed of multi-room, surface structures. The pithouses, with some modification and elaboration, continued to be used for ceremonial purposes, as they are to this day. The shift from pithouses to surface dwellings may be directly linked to growth of population, more stable locations, and the growth of agriculture (Gilman 1983).

c. 750 A.D. - Historic New Mexico, the New Mexico of the Pueblo Indians, begins to become visible about this time, with the expansion of village settlement and the differentiation of living, storage and ceremonial rooms. Villages, in short, begin to resemble the pueblos first seen by Europeans in the sixteenth century and still extant.

c. 900 A.D. - several regional systems emerge in the Southwest. Two of these, the Chacoan and Mogollon systems, are in New Mexico. The Chacoan system appears to have been based primarily on agriculture; the Mogollon may have been equally dependent on hunting and agriculture.

In the thirteenth century large areas of the Southwest are abandoned, including the Classic Mimbres sites, Chaco Canyon and Mesa Verde in Colorado. One traditional explanation for these abandonments is enemy (specifically Athapascan) raids. There is no substantial evidence, however, that there were any Athapascan people (the ancestors of the modern Navajo and Apache) in New Mexico until sometime in the fifteenth century.

Before 1300 A.D. the Rio Grande Valley seems to have been sparsely inhabited. Beginning in the fourteenth century, however, major towns appear in this area - in the Chama River Valley, the Taos area, the Pajarito Plateau, near present-day Santa Fe and in the Galisteo Basin. Towns of up to six hundred rooms were built. Some of these are ancestral to the modern pueblos

c. 1400 A.D. - First arrival of Athapascan speakers in the Southwest (Opler 1983: 368-392). Sites that are probably Navajo have been radiocarbon dated to the 1500s (Hancock 1992; Hogan 1989).

1540 A.D. – the Vasquez de Coronado expedition, exploring north from Sinaloa in interior Mexico, enters New Mexico. Parties explore west to the Grand Canyon and east into the Great Plains. The expedition returns to interior Mexico. Over the next forty years, the frontier of European settlement moves north. Spanish expeditions re-enter New Mexico in the 1580s.

The arrival of Europeans leads to the end of traditional adaptations. The Spanish introduce new crops and domestic animals, creating a new agricultural base. They also bring a new religion, a new world view, a new government and diseases to which the Indians have no immunity.

The Spanish explorers who saw the pueblos in the sixteenth century all said that Pueblo Indians were good farmers who enjoyed abundant crops. They said very little, however, about specific irrigation practices. Martin de Pedrosa, writing in 1600 about the 1591 expedition of Francisco Sanchez Chamuscado, described a pueblo near the confluence of the Rio Grande and the Jemez River (possibly Santa Ana Pueblo), saying that "a stream of water with which the natives irrigate their cornfields flows nearby" (Hammond and Rey 1966:118).

Antonio de Espejo, describing what he saw among the Piro pueblos near modern Socorro in 1582, said that "they have fields planted with corn, beans, calabashes and tobacco in abundance. These crops are seasonal, dependent on rainfall, or they are irrigated by means of good ditches" (Hammond and Rey 1966:220).

Gaspar Castaño de Sosa, describing what he saw in the Tano and Tewa pueblos on the northern Rio Grande in 1592, said that "all six of these settlements had canals for irrigation, which would be incredible to anyone who had not seen them with his own eyes. The inhabitants harvest large quantities of corn, beans and other vegetables" (Hammond and Rey 1966:282). Castaño described another pueblo, possibly San Ildefonso, and said "this pueblo lies in a very extensive valley, all under irrigation" (Hammond and Rey 1966:283).

1598 (April) - Don Juan de Oñate takes formal possession of New Mexico at San Juan de la Toma (a point on the Rio Grande below El Paso del Norte).

1601 - Jusepe Brondate visits Juan de Oñate's colony at San Gabriel de Yunge Ouinge at the confluence of the Rio Grande and the Rio Chama. Of what he saw, he says that "the people devote themselves to agriculture, growing maize, beans, calabashes, fine melons, and watermelons. Some of their fields are irrigated by means of ditches; others depend on seasonal rains. They plant all their crops in May and harvest in August. This is the time when it rains in the province, although but little. In the winter it snows five or six times, as in Spain...the maize stalks are small, but the ears large. The Rio del Norte [Rio Grande] rises in the month of May when the snow begins to melt and carries considerable water until September" (Hammond and Rey 1953:626).

1600s – The New Mexico colonists pay the Franciscan friars with sheep for such services as baptisms, marriages and burials. The friars pay workmen with farm products for the labor of building the Pueblo mission churches. The friars and their Pueblo pupils produce woolen cloth.

1620-1670 – Livestock in New Mexico begin to increase. A market for them in Nueva Vizcaya (subsequently the states of Chihuahua and Durango) is established, and livestock are sent down the Camino Real.

1680 - Pueblos revolt and drive the Spanish out of New Mexico. The Pueblos keep at least part of the herds and flocks established under Spanish rule. Although the Pueblos propose to eliminate all elements of Spanish colonization, they do not give up beef, mutton, wool, or some new crops.

1692 - Reconquest of New Mexico by the Spanish begins under the leadership of Governor Diego de Vargas.

1693 - Vargas recolonizes the province of New Mexico with 70 families, 100 soldiers and 16 Franciscans (Simmons 1977:75).

1705 - Comanche enter northeastern New Mexico and the Southern Plains (Wallace and Hoebel 1952:8).

1700s – The system of *partido*, in which capital in the form of sheep is lent at interest, in the form of increase in the flock, becomes widespread in New Mexico. The owner of the sheep turns over a flock to a *partidario*, who pays for them with part of the natural increase and keeps part for himself, establishing his own flock.

1810s -1820s – older sheep ranges west of and along the Rio Grande prove inadequate, and ranchers begin to move out into the eastern plains. In 1824 Pedro José Perea of Bernalillo obtains a land grant in the Pecos Valley near modern Santa Rosa. One of his stated reasons for moving east is Navajo depredations west of the Rio Grande.

1821 (September) - Mexico gains independence from Spain, and New Mexico becomes a province of Mexico (Jenkins and Schroeder 1974:33).

1824 (July) - New Mexico becomes a territory of the Republic of Mexico.

1841 – United States Congress passes the Preemption Act. Under its terms, any head of household over 21 years of age can file a claim for 160 acres of public domain (Dick 1954:20, 34). The claimant is required to build a dwelling on the land and to make proof of settlement at a land office, and to swear that he has never preempted before, and does not own 320 acres in any state or territory, and does not intend to settle the land in order to sell it. He is then allowed to buy the land at a minimum approved price, usually \$1.25 per acre.

1845 - United States declares war on Mexico. Kearny's "Army of the West" marches into Santa Fe and claims New Mexico as a territory of the United States.

1848 (February) - Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo provides that Mexico give up all claim to territory east of the Rio Grande and cede New Mexico and upper California to the United States.

1852 - John George Clancy establishes a fortified ranch on Alamogordo Creek. In 1876 he drives a flock of sheep from California to his ranch (Parsons 1953:9).

1854 - Captain John Pope surveys a railroad route along the 32nd parallel from El Paso to the Red River.

1854 (July 22) - Congress passes an act providing for the appointment of a surveyor general for the New Mexico territory and gives every citizen residing in the territory before 1853 or settling in the territory before 1858 a donation of 160 acres (Westphall 1965:1).

1855 – New Mexico's first Surveyor General takes office in Santa Fe.

1860 - Mescalero Apaches steal livestock from settlers along the Rio Hondo below Fort Stanton (Thomas 1974:31).

1862 (November) – Congress passes the Homestead Act. This act enables settlers to acquire 160 acres of public domain by occupying the land for 5 years, making improvements and paying a filing fee (Worster 1979:82).

1862 (November) - A military post is established at Bosque Redondo on the Pecos River and named Fort Sumner. Mescaleros defeated by the forces of General James H. Carleton are confined to a reservation there (Bailey 1970:25-29, 37).

1866 - Charles Goodnight and Oliver Loving drive their first herd of longhorn cattle across west Texas and up the Pecos River to Fort Sumner (Sheridan 1975:37).

1866 - The first homesteaders arrive in southeastern New Mexico late in the year, settling at or near good water sources, mainly along the Pecos River and the Rio Hondo from Roswell to the Chaves County line (Pratt and Scurlock 1989:294).

1872 - John Chisum establishes a permanent cattle camp at the Bosque Grande (Sheridan 1975:39-40). Homesteaders in the Rio Hondo request permission to relocate their entries to North Springs River because other settlers have taken all the water upstream (Westphall 1965:83).

1872 – U.S. Congress amends the Homestead Act to permit Union veterans of the Civil War to count each year of military service toward the five-year residency requirement. Veterans are required to reside on and cultivate the land for one year. Provisions of the 1872 law are subsequently extended to veterans of the Spanish-American War, the Philippine insurrection, the Mexican border campaign, World War I, and the Indian campaigns. Veterans' rights are expanded again by an act of 1920 that allows them first choice on lands newly opened for homesteading.

1873 (March) - Congress passes the Timber Culture Act. Based on the idea that planting timber will cause precipitation, this act provides an additional quarter section of land to any settler who will plant at least 40 acres in trees within four years. Title will pass to the settler after ten years if evidence of timber culture is supported by two witnesses.

1874 - Barbed wire is patented and produced in De Kalb, Indiana.

1875 - John Chisum establishes the South Spring River Ranch (the Jinglebob, Chaves County) with some 80,000 head (Hinton 1956:189).

1876 - The Lincoln County War, among rival ranching and commercial factions, breaks out (Sheridan 1975:41).

The territorial assembly reaffirms the traditional right of travelers to free access to natural waters for themselves and their animals, but provides that persons traveling with migrating herds or large numbers of animals must obtain permission from the owner of any natural spring or lake, and must pay for any damage to fields or private property (Clark 1987:50).

1877 - Congress passes the Desert Land Entry Act to stimulate irrigation through individual enterprise. A settler may buy a section of land for \$1.25 an acre if he proceeds to irrigate within three years (Buchanan 1988:29).

1878 - Congress passes the Timber and Stone Act, which authorizes settlers and miners to buy up to 160 acres of land with potential timber and mineral resources at \$2.50 per acre (Oakes 1983:27).

1879 - 85 - Joseph C. Lea buys 13,387 acres along the entire length of the Rio Hondo, while other members of his family buy more than 2,400 acres in the same area (Westphall 1965: 68-69).

1880 - The estimated area of artesian flow in the Roswell Basin is 663 square miles. By 1927 this has shrunk to 425 square miles (Theis and Sayer 1942:46).

1880 – Railroad enters New Mexico. A regional railroad system is established in New Mexico in the period 1880-1890.

1880 - Bureau of Immigration is created as an office of the New Mexico territorial government in February, 1880, and remains active until 1912. Its purpose is to attract genuine homesteaders and desirable businesses.

1870-1880s - Texas ranchers enter the San Agustin Plains and the Valle Redondo and begin moving longhorns east along the Magdalena Livestock Driveway to the railhead at Magdalena. A few Texans also move into the San Juan River Valley of northwestern New Mexico, and from there into southeastern Utah.

1881 – U.S. Congress passes a provision (21 Stat. 315) permitting homesteaders to relate their claims back to a date of settlement, if prior to the date of entry.

1881 - An increase in cattle prices causes many ranchers to sell out to large ranching syndicates, some of them controlled by foreign investors (Hinton 1957:60).

First use of barbed wire on the Southern Plains (Gibson 1967:146).

1883 - Chisum family members and employees begin to file on 160-acre tracts along the Pecos River from Bosque Grande to Artesia in order to control the water (Hinton 1956:63).

1885-1886 - Winter is the most severe since 1850s. Extensive loss of crops and livestock.

1886 -1887 - Blizzards begin in November. Temperatures remain below zero in parts of New Mexico for two to three weeks in early 1887. Livestock losses are as high as 90 percent (Hollon 1966:136-137).

1887 - U.S. Congress passes the Hatch Act, creating agricultural experiment stations to carry on scientific research on agricultural problems and to disseminate information (Clark 1987:131).

1889 - New Mexico Territorial Assembly passes an act to prevent overstocking of ranges. Under its provisions, a person or corporation may use public lands only to the extent to which livestock can be supported on those by water to which that person or corporation has title (Clark 1987:54).

Late 1880s - Rapid decline of cattle industry in New Mexico due to drought, overgrazing, blizzards and other environmental factors (Baydo 1970:134).

1890 - the Queen family establishes a ranch about 40 miles southwest of Carlsbad in or near Dark Canyon. Water from the ranch supplies the nearby homestead community, which became known as Queen in 1905 (Pearce 1965:128).

Irrigation companies in the Pecos Valley advertise for homesteaders to file on public lands so the companies can sell the water from company canals (Myers 1974:23).

1891 - Timber Culture Act is repealed (Walker 1977:3).

1891-1892 – Severe drought in New Mexico causes widespread loss of livestock (Humphrey 1987:420).

1893 - 1894 - Continued below-normal precipitation (Gibson 1967:149; Tuan et al. 1973:58).

c. 1895 - Open range ranching in New Mexico ceases to be the general pattern, due to various factors including inclement weather, blizzards, and decline of range due to overstocking. Open ranges, however, continue in some areas, e.g. Lea County, as late as the 1920s (Baydo 1970:224-228).

1898 - U.S. Congress passes the Fergusson Act. Among its provisions is one setting aside 500,000 acres in New Mexico for the establishment of permanent reservoirs for irrigation. In March, 1899, the New Mexico Territorial Assembly responds with the creation of the office of Commissioner of Public Lands and Board of Public Lands, responsible for leasing, selling and managing Fergusson Act lands (Clark 1987:84).

1899 - New Mexico Territorial Assembly passes an act to prevent overgrazing due to overstocking and fencing (Clark 1987:54).

1903 -1905 - Large influx of homesteaders into New Mexico (Mosley 1973:19).

1907 - New Mexico Territorial Assembly passes a law creating the office of State Engineer, a water code, and a board of water commissioners. Hydrographic surveys of the territory begin (Clark 1987:118-123).

1908 (February 6) - Congress passes a law prohibiting the assignment of desert land entries to corporations or associations, limiting them to qualified, individual entrymen (Clark 1987:136).

1909 - Congress passes the Enlarged Homestead Act, often referred to as the Dry Farming Homestead Act, allowing a homesteader to file on 320 acres (Worster 1979:87).

1890-1910 - cultivated area of New Mexico is 788,000 acres (about 1,200 square miles) in 1890; in 1900 it has increased to over 5 million acres (about 7,800 square miles – as compared to 600 square miles in 1800 and 800 square miles in 1846). In 1910 it covers 11 million acres or 17,000 square miles, a peak figure never again reached (Williams 1986:128).

1909-1912 – a dry period reduces the influx of homesteaders and begins a lengthy process of abandonment and consolidation of homestead claims and reversion of homesteads to rangeland, lasting for over a generation.

1912 - Congress reduces the residency requirement from five to three years, also giving the homesteader the option of being absent from the homestead for up to five months each year. This is recognition of the need for and practice of a second livelihood.

1912 (January 6) - President William Howard Taft proclaims New Mexico the 47th state of the Union.

1916 - Congress passes the Stock Raising Homestead Act, authorizing entry on a full section of grazing land (Oakes 1983:27).

Due mainly to under-funding by Congress, the U.S. Geological Survey was slow to designate lands that could be claimed pursuant to this act. Designation lagged behind demand, and Congress passed a measure permitting an individual to petition for designation of public land, stating why he or she believed that the land was grazing land as defined by law. However, the Geological Survey still had to make this determination before the entry was allowed.

1917 - 1922 - A period of drought causes many homesteaders who had filed in the several preceding years of good rain to abandon their claims (Hinshaw 1976:154).

1918 - Mesquite dies in the severe drought and prickly pear is used for cattle food – this requires burning off the spines (Cabeza de Baca 1954:175).

1918 - 1919 - A severe winter forces many cattle and sheep ranchers out of business. Others who have profited during the WWI years begin to enlarge their holdings (Cabeza de Baca 1954:174).

A worldwide influenza pandemic – possibly originating in rural Kansas and carried to Europe by U.S. soldiers during WWI – becomes the deadliest plague in recorded history, killing about 21 million people. References to it are common in the history of the American West as they are worldwide; the influenza frequently appears in homestead records as a reason for the temporary abandonment of the homestead.

1919 (February 25) – an act of Congress (40 Stat. 1153) allows homesteaders to make a showing that adverse climatic conditions make it a hardship to reside on the claim for seven months a year and allows them to request a reduction to six months – but thereby increases the total time of residence to four years. Likewise the residence time per year can be reduced to five months, which increases the total required residence time to five years.

1920s - Good rain and high prices lead homesteaders and ranchers to increase farm acreage in the belief that this is a weather pattern that will continue (Thorntwaite 1941:186).

1927 (March 16) - New Mexico Legislature passes a statute regulating groundwater. All groundwater is declared to be public, subject to appropriation for beneficial use and subject to the control of the State Engineer (Clark 1987:237).

1933 - 1937 - Below-normal precipitation creates the general conditions known as the Dust Bowl (Tuan et al. 1973:58).

1933 (June 23) - Congress creates the Civilian Conservation Corps. However, the program does not go into effect until 1938. About 3 million people, mostly young men, work in this program on park, soil, and water conservation projects (Buchanan 1988:32-33). Forty-three camps are established around New Mexico. The program ends in 1942 (Clark 1987:244).

1934 - Congress passes the Taylor Grazing Act in response to drought conditions in the southern plains that are destroying the last vestiges of the formerly rich grasslands. The Act becomes the means to consolidate the abandoned public domain and to remove it from private management. Under the authority of the Act, President Roosevelt reserves from entry all unreserved lands in twelve western states including New Mexico. This action effectively ends homesteading (Clark 1987:254). The Taylor Grazing Act in effect reverses a public policy that for 50 years has found small farmers to occupy the arid lands. The Act creates a method whereby large areas of former grasslands can be returned to the public domain, put back into grass, and leased to ranchers.

1935 - Congress passes the Historic Sites Act, requiring archeological survey prior to the establishment of a federal or federally-authorized reservoir.

1937 - Congress passes the Bankhead-Jones Farm Tenant Act (7 U.S.C. §§ 1000). Under its provisions the government buys back thousands of patented homesteads and returns them to the public domain.

1939 - 1943 – There is a period of high rainfall in which many farmers are still cultivating market crops, while the more general tendency under the Taylor Grazing Act is to cultivate winter feed for livestock whose summer pasture is leased from the federal government. “The farmer had become the rancher-farmer” (Pratt 1986:213).

1950 -56 - An extended drought, the severest in the twentieth century, grips the Plains and the West. It causes wind erosion of twice the area affected by the Dust Bowl of 1934-37 (Tuan et al. 1973:58-60).

1966 - Congress passes the Historic Preservation Act, creating the National Register of Historic Places. Section 106 of the Historic Preservation Act requires federal agencies to take into account the effect of their undertakings on historic properties. The Historic Preservation Act authorizes the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation and 36 Code of Federal Regulations 800 (See Chapter 5: Procedures).

1

General History of Ranches and Homesteads in New Mexico

This chronology covers some of the main points in the development of agriculture in the Southwest before the arrival of Europeans. However, ranching - that is, the raising of large gregarious animals such as sheep, goats and cattle - is a European innovation that reached New Mexico in the early sixteenth century, while homesteading is an even more recent phenomenon originally authorized by federal legislation in 1862. Homesteading, as our chronology indicates, became an important phenomenon in New Mexico and, although unsustainable in the arid lands, continued until c. 1934, when it was substantially ended by the passage of the Taylor Grazing Act, although some homestead claims continued to be made into the 1940s (see further below).

Life and livelihood on patented homesteads continued until well after WWII, but as we will note below, homesteading was never an isolated phenomenon and most homesteads returned to range land. The Taylor Grazing Act was a legislative recognition that grazing, rather than small-scale farming or homesteading, was the better use of large areas of public land in the West and Southwest. The following general discussion is a context covering about four hundred years, A.D. 1540 - c. 1940.

SHEEP RANCHING AND TRADE

The first sheep in New Mexico were those brought by Vasquez de Coronado's expedition in 1540. These were part of the supply train commanded by Captain Tristán de Luna y Arellano. Livestock, including, sheep, cattle and horses, went along on the march into central Kansas and back to winter quarters on the Rio Grande in 1541. The Franciscan friars who remained behind when Coronado returned to Mexico kept some sheep, but the friars were subsequently killed by the Pueblos, and the sheep are not known to have left any offspring.

The records of the expeditions of the 1580's to New Mexico do not mention sheep. In his *entrada* of 1598, however, Juan de Oñate brought livestock necessary to establish a permanent colony, including 1,000 cattle, 1,000 goats, 150 mares with colts, and 4,000 sheep.

The sheep were *churros* with thick, shaggy under-fur which yields a long-staple, easily matting wool, suitable for hand processing, although they produced as little as a pound of wool per fleece. *Churros* were hardy, enduring long drives, capable of substituting dew and succulent plants for water and of subsisting on either fresh or dry grass. They were the basis for the modern Navajo-churro breed.

When Oñate left office early in 1610, he turned over to successor Governor Pedro de Peralta, as part of the official transition, 1,350 head of sheep and goats. There was no inventory of flocks and herds owned by individual colonists.

As the Franciscan friars established pueblo missions in the 1620s and 30s, they also established large herds and flocks. Each friar entering New Mexico was allotted 10 heifers, 10 sheep and 48 hens. These were the basis of the large mission herds and flocks that became

critically important during the famine of the late 1660s. Scholes (Scholes 1936:313) notes that by about 1650 each friar in New Mexico had a herd of several thousand sheep and thirty or forty horses.

Baxter (1987:11) states that despite fragmentary evidence, it appears that between 1620 and 1670 livestock in New Mexico began to increase significantly, and that a market for them was established in the mining districts of Nueva Vizcaya (present-day Chihuahua and Durango). These exports were important because they were the currency that paid for tools, weapons and goods needed on the frontier. Both church and civil officials are known to have engaged in some trade in livestock. Whatever there was of this trade, however, may have done more harm than good. Governor Francisco de la Mora Ceballos was charged in 1634 with exporting livestock, including mares, cows, sheep and goats, that were essential to the colony. Thirty years later, Governor López de Mendizábal was charged with sending flocks to Nueva Vizcaya and abandoning the Indian herders there, leaving them unable to get back to New Mexico.

When the Pueblos revolted in 1680 and drove the Hispanics out of the province, it was with the expressed intention of eliminating all vestiges of European culture. They did not, however, give up agricultural innovations including beef, mutton and wool (Baxter 1987:13). When Vargas returned to New Mexico in 1692-93, the pueblos still had some sheep. Vargas brought additional livestock to New Mexico during the reconquest, and church officials brought more, with which to reestablish the missions. Vargas distributed livestock brought from Nueva Vizcaya to New Mexican families in the spring of 1697. Over 1,000 Hispanics received more than 4,000 ewes and other livestock (Baxter 1987:16).

After the reconquest, herds and flocks gradually increased (Baxter 1987:21). In 1715 Antonio Gallegos of Bernalillo declared in his will that he owned 360 sheep and goats. Over the next twenty years the flocks of New Mexico's upper class, the *ricos*, increased to number in the thousands. Sheep became a measure of wealth, partly because as privileged individuals received proprietary grants, they were useful mainly for grazing sheep. Outlying areas could not be occupied in the face of the growing threat from increasingly mobile and warlike Indians, and they were not suitable for irrigation or farming.

Cattle and sheep only gradually came to be significant among the Pueblos in the 1600s (Spicer 1962:546). The slowness of the adaptation evidently has to do with the fact that the Pueblos were already successful agriculturalists. The effect of livestock on the band peoples was more far-reaching. The Navajos and Apaches became raiders of the horses and sheep of the Spanish settlements in the 1700s. The Navajos, probably because they had already adopted some Pueblo farming practices, gradually added livestock raising to their repertory, until sheep culture became as important to them as farming. Navajo and Apache livestock raiding was a practice that induced symbiosis with the Spanish and later with the Anglos. Since the non-Indians were the source of supply, the Apaches and Navajos permitted them to raise stock, rather than driving them out of the country (Spicer 1962:547).

An incident of 1735 indicates that livestock numbers were still too low to afford an exportable surplus. Governor Cruzat y Gongora issued a decree forbidding all exports of sheep, cattle, wool or grain, explaining that excessive sales in the previous year had caused food and

clothing shortages. In 1744 Governor Codallos y Rabal allowed the sale of wool from the Albuquerque area for export to the interior of Mexico, but the sale of live animals was probably still prohibited at this time (Baxter 1987:28).

The *partido* system - a means of lending capital at interest in the medium of sheep - became increasingly important in New Mexico in the eighteenth century. Possibly the earliest known *partido* contract in New Mexico dates to 1745 (Baxter 1987:29). Under this agreement, Captain Joseph Baca of Albuquerque received 417 ewes from Lieutenant Manuel Sáenz de Garvisu for a period of three years.

By 1757 the Pueblos and Hispanics between them owned seven times more sheep than cattle: 7,356 horses, 16,157 cattle, 112,182 sheep (Baxter 1987:42; Weber 1992:310). "As sheep became increasingly acceptable as a means of exchange for imported consumer goods, a small clique of rancher-merchants began to dominate livestock marketing within the province and to control other aspects of the local economy" (Baxter 1987:42). Many of these were natives of Spain, or *criollos* (born in the New World, but of European extraction).

Before the 1770s livestock production was at a bare subsistence level; after 1780 New Mexico began to produce a truly exportable surplus, in numbers such that the trade significantly aided New Mexico's economy, rather than depleting it as had earlier been the case. In 1788 Governor Fernando de la Concha estimated the number of New Mexican sheep sold in Chihuahua at 15,000 head valued at about 30,000 pesos. Six years later a friar noted that "15 to 20,000 sheep leave this province annually, and there have been some years when up to 25,000 left." In 1803 Governor Chacón estimated the number of cattle and horses going to market annually in Sonora and Nueva Vizcaya at more than 600 annually, plus 25 to 26,000 sheep and goats (see below). In 1827 Colonel Antonio Narbona reported that there were 5,000 cattle, 240,000 sheep and goats, 550 horses, 2,150 mules and 300 mares in New Mexico (Gutierrez 1991:319-320; Carroll and Haggard 1942:43).

At the end of the century, sheep marketing involved provincial merchants who brought their livestock to La Joya de Sevilleta, the last settlement north of the Jornada del Muerto. November was the traditional departure date, but as exports increased the dealers began to favor August, when summer rains improved grazing and filled waterholes. The caravans that went to Nueva Vizcaya were called *conductas* or *cordones*. They were escorted by detachment of soldiers from the Santa Fe presidio to guard against Indian attack. Zebulon Pike saw a *conducta* in 1807 (see below).

Governor Fernando de Chacón gives an overview of New Mexico agriculture in 1803:

Agriculture in said province does not appear in the best state owing to a lack of know-how. Nevertheless, the most common grains are sown, like wheat, corn and barley, and all kinds of vegetables in limited quantity, there being no practical way to export them to the provinces because of the great distances intervening between all of them. As a result the majority of its inhabitants are little dedicated to farming, in particular the Spaniards and *castas* who content themselves with sowing and cultivating only what is necessary for their sustenance. [Living] by

luck through the scarce years, like the current one, they experience great need which is met by resort to wild plants, roots, milk, beef and mutton...Although the Province possesses sufficient oxen for farming, what is most in abundance is sheep. Without counting what is consumed locally, there is exported to [Nueva] Vizcaya and the lesser [frontier] presidios from one year to the next twenty-five to twenty-six thousand head of sheep. Of swine there exists no great number because the natives of this country are more accustomed to the use of fat from beef than from hogs, and there is no one dedicated to the manufacture of soap. The raising of horses and mules is little encouraged because of the continual raids by the enemy [Indians]. But annually more than 600 animals of each kind are brought in from the Sonora and Vizcaya, not counting the herds of mustangs, which the citizens are in the habit of hunting whenever they go out on the frontier (Simmons 1985:81-88).

During the revolutionary years (1810-1821) the sheep trade declined, as did all forms of commerce, due to the unsettled conditions caused by war. The numbers of sheep in New Mexico, however, rose sharply, leading to a revival of the trade in the Mexican period (1821-1846).

By the 1820s the sheep population had grown to over 200,000, not counting Navajo herds, and the *pastores* were pushing out into the borderlands of northeastern New Mexico and as far as the Texas panhandle in search of pasture. The increase in numbers did not mean better breeding. Weather, predators and Indians made sheep raising a risky proposition at best, and there was no incentive to invest in superior breeding stock. Gregg (see below) talks about the poor quality of New Mexico sheep, but evidently does not understand the reason.

Shearing was still done with a knife. In 1829 Charles Bent, the trader who later became the first American governor, imported several pairs of shears for sale, but shears did not come into general use until the territorial period.

The increase in numbers of sheep meant a need for new pastures. Ranchers began to move onto the plains between the Sandia and Manzano mountains. Also in the period 1818-1824, several rancher-merchant families from Santa Fe and the Rio Abajo requested land grants on the Pecos in what are now San Miguel and Guadalupe Counties. The move to the east was partly on account of heavy Navajo raiding on the Puerco.

After independence from Spain, the rancher-merchants continued to send sheep down the Camino Real to Chihuahua, but sought out new markets in Durango, a growing mining center that traded with all of Mexico. In 1829 Antonio Armijo pioneered a route to California. Armijo and his party traveled from Abiquiu west-northwest, forded the San Juan near its junction with the Animas, recrossed the San Juan at the Four Corners to avoid the canyons downstream, and crossed northeastern Arizona to the Colorado (to the Crossing of the Fathers, the crossing used by Dominguez and Escalante and named for them), then southwesterly to the sites of St. George and Las Vegas, then south of Death Valley to near modern Barstow, then to the San Gabriel mission and to Los Angeles. In 1831, trader-trapper William Wolfskill took a somewhat different route. Wolfskill followed the Dominguez-Escalante route to the Dolores River, then northwest

to cross the Colorado near present-day Moab and the Green near present-day Green River. At Castle Dale, he veered southwest to follow the north-flowing Sevier River toward Parowan, then west to Newcastle and southwest to Las Vegas. At this point he picked up the Armijo Trail.

Wolfskill and his company, then, were the first to traverse what became known as the Old Spanish Trail to Los Angeles (Briggs 191). Evidently they could not have done so without some knowledge of earlier explorations including those of Dominguez-Escalante, Garcés, Smith and Armijo.

Governor Manuel Armijo (the last Mexican governor) made land grants totaling over 5 million acres during the late 1830s and early 1840s, including community grants that became necessary as the Hispanic population rose from about 25,000 in 1821 to almost 60,000 in 1846, including some 10,000 Pueblos. Some of the new farming and sheep-raising areas on the southern border between Los Lunas and San Marcial were harried by Apaches and Navajos. Huge grants were made in the east to naturalized foreigners including Charles Beaubien, Gervacio Nolan and Ceran St. Vrain.

The total number of sheep reached a high of about 5.5 million in 1844. Although this number declined somewhat after the American conquest, New Mexico was the biggest sheep producer in the United States in 1850 (Sheck 1990:25).

After the United States acquired the Southwest and the California gold rush created a demand for meat, New Mexico's sheep industry grew significantly. The number of sheep in the territory doubled in the 1850s. The trade was cornered by a few Hispanics *ricos* and subsequently a few additional Anglo merchants. They continued the *partido* system already in use in New Mexico.

In the 1850s breed stock from New Mexico flocks was driven to Utah, Colorado, Wyoming and Montana to create flocks in other areas of the Rocky Mountains (Williams 1986:120). The number of sheep in New Mexico increased from about 250,000 in 1830 to 830,000 in 1860 to up to 4 million in 1880.

Indian raids, especially by Navajos, fell off after the Civil War, making it possible to expand the grazing area and to establish new settlements, particularly in the west and south. After the Navajos were defeated at Armijo Lake in 1864, families from Pena Blanca on the Rio Grande began to settle along the Puerco, and by 1890 had occupied the Puerco to its headwaters (Mosk 1942:44). The extension of settlement before 1880 was almost entirely Hispanic, and some areas of agriculture continued to be primarily Hispanic enterprises, notably sheep raising. Coan (Coan 1925:390) estimates that sixteen of the twenty families that controlled three-fourths of the sheep in New Mexico in 1880 were Hispanic.

After the Civil War there was more demand for wool than for mutton (Williams 1986:120). Because the traditional *churro* sheep produced little wool, about 40,000 merinos were imported from California (about a third of them died on the trail). The resulting crossbred stock raised the wool clip in New Mexico from about 32,000 pounds in 1850 to over 4 million pounds in 1880. When the market for meat rose in the 1870s, almost 250,000 sheep from New Mexico were driven to Nebraska and Kansas feedlots to be slaughtered in Omaha and St. Louis.

In 1880 there were about 160,000 head of cattle in New Mexico; in 1890 there were 500,000; in 1900 about one million. The number of sheep increased from about 2 million in 1880 to about 5 million in 1900 (Byron:12). All the available range land in the territory was brought into use between 1880 and 1900. The railroad was the stimulus for the expansion of the cattle industry (Williams 1986:120). By 1900 only three counties (Rio Arriba, San Miguel and Union) had large concentrations of sheep. The sheepherders in Union County were primarily Anglos. As cattle began to dominate the market, a number of Anglo sheepherders converted to cattle and mutton and wool exports fell. Cattle took more range per head; as their numbers increased, there were conflicts over range and water that continued well into the twentieth century. "Uncle Joe" Turner, speaking to the present writer in Albuquerque in 1972, described such a conflict as he witnessed it in the Rio Arriba near Lindrith in 1912 (personal communication).

Human Behavior – Sheep Ranching

Clemente Gutierrez

Clemente Gutierrez was born about 1716 in Aragón, Spain. He came to New Mexico about 1750. In 1755 he married Josefa Apolonia Baca, daughter of Antonio Baca of Pajarito, a major sheep rancher. Gutierrez bought land near his father-in-law's ranch and to the west along the Rio Puerco. He lived on his ranch at Los Padillas.

He engaged in several lawsuits concerning *partido* sheep, including a dispute with Mateo Joseph Pino. Pino was called away from the grazing area on the Puerco by the Marqués de Rubí, then making his inspection of the northern frontier, and left the disposition of some bands of ewes with Gutierrez, who kept all the sheep. We do not know the outcome of Pino's subsequent appeal to the governor.

Gutierrez served as syndic (business agent) of the Franciscan Order in New Mexico, and was therefore responsible for managing church lands and livestock. He used this position for his own advancement - in one case in which he was authorized to collect a debt owed to the Order, he demanded livestock worth perhaps four times the amount owed. He was later ordered by the governor to return a specified sum to the debtor.

Gutierrez represented the Bishop of Durango for eight years as collector of tithes in New Mexico. He bought this office at auction in 1777 and farmed out collections in the Rio Arriba to his brother-in-law. A contemporary report (by Father Juan Agustín de Morfi) criticized the system of contracting out collections and the huge profits that accrued to Gutierrez.

In 1777 Governor Mendinueta imposed a new embargo on exports of sheep, cattle and unprocessed wool, noting in his decree that a few individuals contracted sheep before they were born, hoping to control the market and to realize excessive profits. It is probable that Gutierrez was one of those meant. In 1779, Mendinueta's successor, Juan Bautista de Anza, made a census in which he recorded a steep decline in livestock numbers from twenty years earlier.

Gutierrez died in 1785. At his death he had 7,000 yearling and two-year-old wethers ready for sale, another 6,600 for fall delivery, 13,000 ewes on *partido* to twenty-four *partidarios* in the

Rio Abajo. He owned three ranches at Pajarito and San Clemente on the Rio Grande and a ranch on the Rio Puerco.

Mariano Chaves y Castillo.

Mariano Chaves y Castillo was the biggest sheep trader in New Mexico during the Mexican period. His great-grandfather was don Juan Miguel Alvarez del Castillo, a Spaniard who came to New Mexico early in the 1700s, married twice into prominent local families, and served as alcalde mayor of Acoma, Laguna and Zuni. He mixed trading and livestock as did many of New Mexico's upper class. After his third marriage he moved to El Paso. He died while traveling through the Rio Abajo in 1765. The subsequent inventory of his property showed that he had debts receivable from New Mexicans all over the province, from Abiquiu to Belen.

In 1832 Chaves, then resident in Los Padillas, sent 30,000 head of sheep to Durango, the largest delivery made by a single individual in the Mexican period (Baxter 1987). Chaves, his brother José, their uncle Antonio Sandoval and the Otero family owned two-thirds of all the sheep (135,500 out of 204,200) exported from New Mexico in the period 1835-1840.

Chaves was among the sheep exporters who requested export tax relief from the Mexican national congress in 1836 (a seven-year exemption from the tax was granted in 1838. He briefly served as New Mexico's governor from January-April, 1844. He kept a store at San Miguel del Vado, where the Santa Fe Trail crossed the Pecos River.

Chaves died on May 16, 1845. His son, J. Francisco Chaves, born at Los Padillas in 1833, took sheep to Los Angeles in 1854 by way of Zuni, the White Mountains and the Mogollon rim, the Gila, the Pima villages and the Yuma crossing of the Colorado River. This route, however, was not used again, as far as we know. The preferred route was the Spanish Trail described above. In 1829-30, as noted above, Antonio Armijo had reached California by a somewhat different route.

Antonio Armijo

Armijo is referred to in official records as "citizen Antonio Armijo" and "commandant for the discovery of the route to California." We know little about him except what we learn from the record of this trip.

Armijo initiated commercial traffic between New Mexico and California. In 1829-30, with sixty men and a pack train, he traveled from Abiquiu west-northwest, forded the San Juan near its junction with the Animas, recrossed the San Juan at the Four Corners to avoid the canyons downstream, and crossed northeastern Arizona to the Colorado (to the Crossing of the Fathers, the crossing used by Dominguez and Escalante and named for them), then southwesterly to the sites of St. George and Las Vegas, then south of Death Valley to near modern Barstow, then to the San Gabriel mission and to Los Angeles. Armijo and his party bartered wool blankets for horses and mules then returned to New Mexico.

Armijo made a record of his trip to California. Two versions, the first unofficial and the second official, were published in the Registro Oficial del Gobierno de los Estados-Unidos Mexicanos on June 5 and 19, 1830. The diary entries are brief. Armijo notes water sources and encounters with Indians- "on this day [December 10, 1829] there was found a settlement of Payuches, with no mishap; it is a gentle and cowardly nation" (Hafen 1850:127).

Armijo says that he "returned [to New Mexico from California]...by the same route with no more mishap than the loss of tired animals, until I entered the Navajo country, by which nation I was robbed of some of my animals, and I arrived in this jurisdiction of Xemez today the 25th of April, 1830" (Hafen 1950:131).

CATTLE RANCHING

Ranching is not specific to open grasslands. "Cattle ranching...thrived in a great variety of New World physical environments, from tropical savannas to subtropical pine barrens and mid-latitude prairies, from fertile lowland plains to rugged mountain ranges, from rainy districts to semi-deserts" (Jordan 1993:9). Ranching was practiced in settled areas as well as on frontiers, and not every frontier went through a ranching phase.

In some areas in the American West, native animals (e.g. bison) were driven off or decimated to make way for cattle. In most places there were few competitors or predators that could keep cattle out. The most successful predator on cattle in North America was the Indian.

"...no herding system has ever attained, in any locality, a stable ecological balance, except at a lower productivity level than existed there when pastoralism first began. The open-range cattle-ranching strategy invariably caused habitat modification and damage" (Jordan 1993:10).

By the time of the discovery of America, the raising of range cattle occupied a broken belt of land on the Atlantic rim from Scandinavia and the British Isles down to Angola in Africa. Range cattle raising was to be found in highlands, islands, marshes, moors, savannas and semideserts, having been forced to the edges of two continents by more intensive farming practices. Ranching would similarly become established in a wide variety of coastal, marsh, plains and highland environments in the New World.

Aspects of cattle culture that we often consider typically North American are in fact well known in the Old World. Cattle droving from Scotland and Wales into the British lowlands may be thousands of years old (Jordan 1993:51). The Fulani of West Africa have traditionally used earmarks, but not cattle brands. Lassos were used in Spain and France, although not for roping from horseback, but usually to pull animals out of deep mud or marsh.

Southwestern Spain, including Extremadura and Andalucia, were range cattle growing areas at the time of the discovery of America. Ranchers raised cattle in the salt marshes of the Guadalquivir in Andalucia and on the adjacent wooded sandy hills, developing commercialized large-scale open-range ranching by early in the sixteenth century. At the same time, a distinct highland range cattle system developed in Extremadura.

Permanent Hispanic settlement began in New Mexico in 1598 with Oñate, but Hispanic New Mexico never became a center of cattle ranching. "Perhaps the single greatest retarding factor was the presence of a substantial established population of Pueblo Indian irrigation farmers" (Jordan 1993:146). The mission fathers, Jordan contends, blocked the development of a large-scale cattle industry in order to protect the fields and crops of the Indians. Oñate introduced breeder flocks of sheep, and these continued to dominate even after the reconquest of the 1690s. Diego Padilla south of Albuquerque owned 1,700 sheep but only 141 cattle in 1740. By 1757 all the Hispanics of the province owned fewer than 8,000 cattle and fewer than 2,500 horses. In 1832 there were 240,000 sheep in the department but only 5,000 cattle and 850 horses. Sheep became "the economic hallmark of the regional Euroamerican culture" (Jordan1993:147) and were adopted by the Navajos and Utes. Early nineteenth century expansion onto New Mexico's frontiers was initiated by herders who sometimes founded villages. This expansion, made possible by the Comanche Peace negotiated by Governor de Anza at Pecos in 1786 after signal military victories, continued for almost a century, until checked and pushed back by the arrival of Anglo ranchers on all New Mexico's margins.

The "Texas system" of cattle ranching evolved on the coastal prairies of southwestern Louisiana and in contiguous southeastern Texas. It was a system derived from several sources: the Louisiana French, the inhabitants of the Southern pine barrens, and the Mexican Texans, or *tejanos*, influenced mainly by Gulf Coast practices from Veracruz and Tamaulipas. The essence of this system, deriving both from the Carolinas and from northeastern Mexico, was the practice of letting cattle care for themselves year-round in localized pastures on the open range, without supplemental feeding or protection. This system somewhat resembled that of the Andalusian marshes in Spain. It was sometimes called "rawhiding."

The Mexican contribution to this system was less important than that of the Carolinas and Louisiana (Jordan 1993:212). The Mexican influence had to do mostly with horseback skills, especially roping. Mexican cowboys, or *vaqueros*, worked mainly in the country south of the Nueces, and were rare in north Texas and rarer still in the rest of the West. The "Texas system" of cattle ranching that reached New Mexico in the 1860s and 1870s, then was not substantially derived from Mexico or Mexican practices, but owed more to the Carolinas and Louisiana.

Texas cattle herds began to move to midwestern feeder areas as early as the 1840s and 50s, mainly along the Shawnee Trail that ran up from north-central Texas through Oklahoma into Missouri (Kansas City and Sedalia). However, the Shawnee Trail was soon plagued by thieves and hostile farmers. Texans began following trails further west after 1866, skirting the edge of the plowed lands to reach railroad shipping pens in Kansas and Nebraska, mining districts in the Rocky Mountains, and Indian agencies in New Mexico and the northern Plains. Thus the Goodnight-Loving Trail came into existence. Cattle were first brought into New Mexico in substantial numbers by Oliver Loving and Charles Goodnight (1866) to supply the Indian agencies. The other two major trails were the Chisholm and Western, crossing Texas and Oklahoma into Kansas. The Western Trail branched from Dodge City into eastern Colorado and up across eastern Wyoming to Montana.

The passage of the Homestead Act of 1862 and the establishment of Fort Sumner happened in the same month (November). The existence of the fort was the reason for the first cattle drive by Goodnight and Loving into New Mexico in 1866.

Until the mid-1870s many of the large herds driven north were used to stock ranges in Colorado, Wyoming, Montana and Idaho. The largest single cattle drive ever in New Mexico was in 1874, when 110,000 head were trailed north from Roswell to Colorado (Williams 1986:120). When Indian raids declined in western New Mexico in the 1870s, John Chisum and the Slaughters drove herds to military posts and rangeland in western New Mexico and Arizona.

In the early 1880s, with the end of the Indian wars, the number of cattle companies began to increase rapidly. A successful cattle company had to control water. It was first necessary to survey the townships so that land entries could be filed on water sources.

John P. Casey of Albuquerque made entries south of Quemado in late 1882 in the names of various men including a black cook and a doctor who lived in Dodge City. These individuals filed homestead and preemption claims on both sides of Largo Creek. They then sold their claims to Casey (Westphall 1965:58). The requirement that actual settlers reside in a township in order for it to be surveyed was largely ignored. Eleven claims by eleven different individuals were entered on one day (January 2, 1883); six of them were commuted to cash payment on one day (March 15, 1883). Casey entered into a verbal partnership with Surveyor General Atkinson, who gave him plats of the area (American Valley) before they were approved or filed in the Santa Fe Land Office. Casey subsequently acquired several partners, including Thomas B. Catron, who became the attorney for the group.

Casey was typical of a class of businessmen who acquired control of water and land by using straw men, while forming partnerships with investors and influential lawyers and public officials, like Catron and Atkinson.

Cattle operations established on the basis of homestead claims were fraudulent from their inception, since they ignored the legal requirement for growing crops. Only 58 percent of homestead entries in New Mexico were actually patented (Westphall 1965:65); where grazing was the land use, actual ownership was not essential. Westphall emphasizes fraud, but shows us something else: the fact that a majority of homestead claims were patented is consistent with the conclusion that the homesteads were actually used by people - newcomer Anglo small farmers and native Hispanics - who were at least attempting to conform to the requirements of law.

Texas ranchers established themselves in the San Agustin Plains and the Valle Redondo. By the early 1880s they were moving longhorns east along the Magdalena Livestock Driveway to the railhead at Magdalena. A few Texans moved into the San Juan River Valley of northwestern New Mexico, and from there into southeastern Utah (Jordan 1993:229).

In the 1880s John Chisum controlled the entire area between the Pecos Valley and the Texas border south of Fort Sumner. His herd was about 60,000 at its largest. His headquarters at South Spring created the little commercial town of Roswell. By the end of the 1880s much of Chisum's range had been cut up into cattle companies such as the Littlefield (LFD), Mallet and DZ.

From about 1876 to 1884 New Mexican *pastores* followed the trails of the *comancheros* and *ciboleros* into the arroyos and canyons of the Canadian River, establishing plazas with complexes of buildings. The plaza of Ventura Barrego at one time had twenty-four houses; the plaza of Jesus Maria Trujillo consisted of a large stone corral, a long stone main building with six rooms, and several small buildings separated by a space from the main dwelling. The houses were built with adobes or slabs of sandstone, laid up in mud mortar, with viga and adobe roofs. Texas ranchers forced the *pastores* back into New Mexico (Robinson 1979:150; Cabeza de Baca 1954:4-10; Urbanofsky 1973: 4-6).

The "Texas system" of cattle ranching spread through the Great Plains and the interior northwest, as far north as the Dakotas and southern Canada. It favored big operators. Some of them acquired huge tracts of land like the XIT Ranch in the Texas panhandle (originally a Mexican land grant) or the Armendaris and Montoya Grants in New Mexico. Others depended on eastern capital, attracted by low overhead costs and large profits.

The Maxwell Cattle Company on the former Beaubien and Miranda Grant in Colfax County covered over 1.7 million acres, with more than 10,000 cattle and 50,000 sheep. The Bell Ranch on the former Pablo Montoya Grant controlled water rights on over 2 million acres. Cowtowns for the Maxwell and the Bell were Cimarron and Liberty, respectively. By 1872 southeastern San Miguel County was controlled by the Consolidated Land, Cattle Raising, and Wool Growing Company. By 1880 the area that is now Union County was controlled by the Prairie Cattle Company (Williams 1986:122).

Politicians speculated in land. The largest operator was Thomas B. Catron, the Santa Fe politician and lawyer who became one of New Mexico's first senators in 1912. He may have been the largest individual landowner in the history of the United States, with about 2 million acres in his own name. Catron controlled the northern half of present-day Catron County through his American Valley Company. Catron was first and foremost a land speculator, with only a superficial interest in what was actually done on the land. Albert B. Fall, who became the other U.S. senator from New Mexico in 1912, acquired the Tres Ritos Ranch north of Tularosa, where he raised cattle.

In the 1880s it was widely assumed that cattle ranching was a way to quick profits. It depended on the use of the public domain. A calf worth five dollars could be matured on the public domain and reach a sale value of forty or fifty dollars in four years (Clark 1987:596).

Large herds on vast ranges attracted bands of cattle thieves. Rival gangs established headquarters near the cattle ranges and fought wars among themselves and with the cowboys. The Stockton gang was involved in the San Juan War near Farmington; the Selman's Scouts raided between Eddy (now Carlsbad) and Roswell. In the 1880s a rustlers' war in Doña Ana County had to be suppressed by the territorial militia. The Colfax County War was fought between miners and Maxwell Ranch cowboys; the Lincoln County War was fought among ranchers trying to gain a regional monopoly. Some cowboys who got involved in these wars became outlaws and professional gunmen, and their names are still familiar. William ("Billy the Kid") Bonney, who worked as a cowboy for one of the principals in the Lincoln County War, became the most famous of all.

The "Texas system" collapsed in the late 1880s. A system derived from coastal lands, based on Iberian longhorns that had never experienced a severe winter, could not work indefinitely in the high cold High Plains. There were winter die-offs in 1871-72 in the central Great Plains, drought in eastern Colorado in 1879-80, a severe winter of 1879-80 in Utah, and then the catastrophic winter of 1884-85, that killed as much as ninety percent of some herds, and finally the winter of 1886-87, which is often referred to as the single event that ended open-range ranching. In 1889 there were blizzards in New Mexico; at least nine cowboys and sheepherders in northeastern New Mexico died of exposure, and hundreds of cattle and at least 26,000 sheep froze to death (Arellano:10). The Crónica de Mora, however, expressing the views of some farmers in the area adjacent to the High Plains, viewed the record snowfall as "an unlimited supply of water for spring...and the settlers in the mountain valleys in this vicinity should go to work, now that there is time to do it, to build substantial reservoirs for the storage of water for the irrigation of lands late in the spring or during the early summer. The last two seasons have demonstrated that during dry spells there is not sufficient water on hand for the irrigation of lands now under cultivation" (La Crónica de Mora, November 30, 1890).

"Open range" is a term for the Texas system of letting cattle care for themselves, and is best defined by what it is not and does not do. As the term indicates, it does not involve fence-building. This system begins to disappear as soon as there are competing uses or claims on the land. In New Mexico, it is the system introduced from Texas in the 1860s, and continues in the 1870s, then begins to decline in the 1880s. However, raising cattle without fences persisted in some areas into the twentieth century, for example in Lea County (where open-range cattle raising was still the rule about 1910 and continued into the 1920s) and elsewhere. In a conversation with "Uncle Jim" Burleson at the Fite Ranch headquarters in southeastern Socorro County in 1984, this writer asked: "When did you come to this country, Uncle Jim?" "1911, wasn't no fences" he answered (personal communication).

The railroad created major stock towns and shipping places such as Clovis, Clayton, Tucumcari, Chama, Carrizozo and Magdalena, yet cattle totals did not increase in the early twentieth century. Homesteading began to break up the ranges; drift fences had to be removed. Barbed wire began to delimit most ranches.

Some ranching terms still in common use are Anglo-Californian, not Texan as often thought. *Rodeo*, for a cattle hunt or roundup, is in common use in California by 1850 and spreads through the west. Hackamore from *jaquima*, *bosal*, taps from *tapaderas*, cavvy or cavvyard (group of horses) from *caballada*, chinks (short chaps), corral from *corral* are all Anglo-Californian, according to Jordan (1993:256-57).

Jordan (1993:264) suggests that western cattle transhumance (seasonal movement, that is, between summer and winter pastures) is derived mainly from the California ranching tradition, with Pacific coastal and Mexican roots, but may also owe something to New Mexico highland herders, although they were herding sheep, not cattle.

The number of large ranches in New Mexico (that is, ranches over 50,000 acres) increased in the twentieth century, due mainly to the decline and disappearance of the homestead and the absorption of homesteaded lands into ranches (Cormier 1994: 87). At the same time, the immense nineteenth-century ranches were broken up into more manageable sizes or sold to major corporations.

Human Behavior – Cattle Ranching

“The cowboy” became a stereotype of American culture in the twentieth century. In fact the backgrounds, activities, and ethnicity of ranchers and cowboys varied widely.

Charles Goodnight

Charles Goodnight (1838-1929) was the first of the Texas cattlemen to bring cattle into New Mexico. Goodnight, of Pennsylvania German origin, was born in Madison County, Illinois, and came to the Brazos area of Texas in 1845 with his family. He worked at various jobs relating to farming, ranching and the development of a new country, including supervising slaves at various types of work. At twenty, he took a bunch of cattle into the San Saba Valley. In 1857 he took a herd of cattle into Palo Pinto County. He worked in this area (Palo Pinto, Parker and Young Counties) for the next ten years. Here he met Oliver Loving, a small slave-owner and owner of a store, who trailed cattle to Shreveport, Alexandria, New Orleans, and eventually to Illinois and Denver.

Goodnight resolved to leave the Texas frontier, creating a new cattle trail west of the old ones. His idea was to avoid the pre-Civil War trails, since other cattlemen would undoubtedly be using them, to find previously ungrazed country, and to market cattle in the mining region of the Rockies, where buyers would have cash and gold. The Comanche and Kiowa on the High Plains made a direct route impossible, so Goodnight decided to go by the Butterfield Trail to the southwest, then up the Pecos. He discussed his plan with Oliver Loving and they agreed to join herds. This made two thousand head of cattle and an outfit of eighteen men. Their point of departure was twenty-five miles southwest of Belknap, Texas. They sold steers at Fort Sumner - which had existed then for two years - and Loving took stock cattle on to Colorado, past Las Vegas, across the Raton to the vicinity of Denver. Goodnight went back to Texas to bring up another herd.

When Goodnight returned with the second herd, he and Loving established a winter camp at Bosque Grande, forty miles below Fort Sumner, making dugouts in the east bank of the Pecos. This was the first ranch established by Texan cattlemen in eastern New Mexico (Haley 1949:147). They made some deliveries of cattle to Santa Fe, and regular deliveries to Fort Sumner.

All of Goodnight’s cattle ventures through the 1870's were in areas never previously grazed, and in describing them he refers to towns that did not then exist.

Goodnight placed a herd on the Canadian River in eastern New Mexico in 1875. He established camps for his cowboys before returning to Colorado. He designated his range and told his cowboys “not to molest the *pastores* as long as they stayed outside the designated range for his cattle” (Haley 1949:278). Since New Mexican *patrones* had been running sheep in eastern New Mexico since the

1820s, it is not clear how Goodnight decided that the range was 'his.' His cowboys ran four or five hundred sheep into the Canadian and drowned them for trespassing on what they considered to be Goodnight's range. One of the cowboys, who also owned a part interest in the cattle, was subsequently arrested by a New Mexican deputy sheriff and taken to court in Las Vegas. Goodnight was forced to pay damages.

In 1876 Goodnight made an agreement with a group of New Mexico *mayordomos* to leave the Canadian valley and to locate at Palo Duro Canyon in the Texas panhandle. This area had been Comanche land until 1874, when Ranald Mackenzie's cavalry engaged and defeated the Indians there. The Palo Duro was prime winter range - as with all of Goodnight's ventures to this date, land never previously grazed by cattle. Goodnight entered the Palo Duro with his herd in October, 1876. The JA ranch he established there was bankrolled by John Adair, a British investor. Goodnight was the paid manager.

Goodnight subsequently operated ranches in Texas. He bred and sold bulls, experimented with buffalo breeding, experimented with crops and protected the wildlife. He contributed a foundation buffalo herd to Taos Pueblo, where he had friends whom he had known since the days when Taos men were among the comancheros and ciboleros on the Llano Estacado. Goodnight died at Goodnight, Texas on December 12, 1929.

Ernest Thompson Seton

Ernest Thompson Seton (1860-1946) was employed as a wolf hunter on the L Cross F Ranch on Pinabetitos Creek near Clayton in 1893. Seton was a naturalist, artist and author, born in England and raised in frontier Ontario. Seton noted that the wolves attacked sheep and cattle because their original sources of food, the buffalo, antelope and deer, had been wiped out or greatly reduced by settlers (Anderson 1981: 375). His stories about Lobo and the Pacing Mustang (in Wild Animals I Have Known) are based on his experiences in northeastern New Mexico. He noted that cows and cowboys were among the "wild creatures in this country." In his journal he described the hard work, monotony and loneliness of cowboy life, and noted that the cowboys were at their worst when they came to town, and at their best "at home, at sober work" and "hospitable to a degree that I never before experienced" (Anderson 1981:377). Seton's story of Lobo, published in Scribner's Magazine in 1894, was praised by Leo Tolstoy and made Seton famous. Seton eventually returned to New Mexico to establish a utopian community near Santa Fe.

George McJunkin

George McJunkin (1851-1922) is significant as a black cowboy who exemplifies the many former slaves who became cowboys in the 1860s and 70s. He was an open-range cowboy who lived into and helped to create the succeeding system of fenced pastures. He lived through the blizzard of 1889 and the flood of 1908 (which may have been caused at least in part by overuse of the range). He is unique as the discoverer of the Folsom Site.

In July, 1922, Carl Schwachheim and a friend, Fred Howarth, who worked in the bank in Raton and to whom McJunkin had also spoken about the "Bone Pit" as McJunkin had called it, visited the site and collected some of the bones. Four years later they visited the Colorado Museum of Natural

History in Denver, where director J.D. Figgins realized that the bones might constitute a valuable discovery. In March 1926, Figgins visited the site. He asked Carl Schwachheim to carry out an excavation. In August 1927, Schwachheim found a spear point, firmly embedded between two bison ribs that dated the human presence in the Americas to at least ten thousand years B.P.

Robert Beverly

Robert (Bob) Beverly (1872-1958) was born in Ringold, Georgia, the son of a former Confederate soldier. Orphaned at age twelve, Beverly drifted to the Wichita ranges and Indian Territory where he spent time “hanging with outlaws.” He drifted on “until he found friendly faces among the cowboys taking in the gambling places and saloons of the little cowtown of Midland in West Texas” (Brooks 1993:56-57). In 1890 as an eighteen-year-old cowboy, he worked for the 69 Ranch and later “drove the Texas-Montana cattle trail” (Brooks 1993:56-57), worked for the XIT Ranch, punched cows in the Comstock country along the Rio Grande, worked for Slaughter's Long S, and for the Quien Sabe. Later, he worked as a wagon boss for the JAL. He served as sheriff and tax collector for Midland County, 1909-1912. From 1916 to 1921 he was cattle inspector for the Texas and Southwestern Cattle Raisers Association. In 1923-1930 he was brand inspector for Lea County, New Mexico. In 1933-1937 he was sheriff of Lea County. He was married five times and had five children; two of his marriages ended in divorce. Beverly died in 1958

THE HOMESTEAD

Ranches and homesteads are not distinct entities. Homesteading is an activity directly sponsored by the government (see Maloney 1966). A homestead claim may be a response to this special incentive, but the two categories do not represent two unrelated phenomena. A homestead and a ranch may be variously related historically or economically, as we will discuss further below.

The Homestead Act of 1862 (U.S. Statutes at Large, Vol. XII, p. 392 ff.)

The Homestead Act, passed during the Civil War, is a tribute to the North's confidence of victory and more practically, a perceived way of attracting immigrants to the United States. The secession of the southern states, which had opposed the idea of small owners on free land, made passage of the Act possible. The Act's declaration that anyone who had borne arms against the United States was barred from acquiring a homestead also identifies it as a Civil War measure. In general, the Act entitled every United States citizen (and every person with the intent of becoming a citizen) with a family to a free quarter section or less of unappropriated public land (Keener 1916:77). This was the first public land act in the United States to recognize women as heads of households and to enable them to file for ownership of land. A significant number of homesteads in New Mexico were awarded to women. A woman over 21 could declare herself independent of her family and file on her own quarter-section – more often than not, in order to increase the extended family holdings. One family in Quay County, with a sister and two daughters of legal age, built a home in the center of the section with a bedroom in each quarter, and was able to meet the residency requirement for a full section of land (Williams 1980: Runyon Interview).

This ingenious use or misuse of the statute shows that the Homestead Act, based on the idea of the small farm, was wrong for the arid lands (a recommendation by John Wesley Powell, never acted on by the U.S. Congress, proposed 2,560 acres as a basic holding in the arid lands west of the 100th meridian). The Homestead Act was significant in New Mexico first as a way of acquiring large amounts of grazing land. However, after the rapid expansion and collapse of the first phase of large-scale ranching in New Mexico in the 1870s and 80s, most of eastern New Mexico was homesteaded, and the agricultural area reached a peak about 1910. Homesteading was also a way of acquiring relatively small areas of upland pasture, which became viable with the introduction of windmills, probably brought by the railroad after 1880.

Pratt notes that the preponderance of settlers in eastern New Mexico in the post-Civil War period came from northern states such as Kansas, Illinois, Ohio and Pennsylvania – evidently a reflection of the provision barring Southerners who had participated in the Civil War (Pratt 1986:206). However, he also states that some of the earliest homesteaders in New Mexico came from Texas in 1866 (Pratt and Scurlock 1989: 294). Further research could confirm that these entrymen did not serve in the Civil War – or that they did fight for the South, and that this service was never made known to the General Land Office (see Chapter 2: Research Issues).

An applicant for a homestead had to build a residence, improve an unspecified amount of land for agriculture, and remain on the claim for a minimum of five years. Homesteaders could not sell their claims until they had received title. If they abandoned or willfully relinquished their claims, they were forbidden to make second entries. After a period of six months (amended to fourteen months in 1891) they could speed up the process of acquisition by paying the government \$1.25 per acre. Beginning in 1872, it became legal for a homesteader who had patented one claim to apply for a second one. Another amendment of 1872 allowed any person who had served in the U.S. military during the Civil War to homestead and to deduct the time of service from the residency requirement for the homestead patent. Most soldier-homesteaders went to the frontier areas of Kansas, Missouri, Colorado, Nebraska and the Dakotas – only a few reached New Mexico in the 1860s. However, by the time this first generation of homesteaders had proved up, the lands around them had filled with other claimants, and they might then sell out and move further west to acquire a new homestead and to afford their children the opportunity to acquire homesteads as well.

Once an entryman had filed, he was given six months to occupy the land. Once he had moved onto the claim, he could only be absent for a brief period. Extended leaves had to be approved by the General Land Office. Homestead records (see discussion in Chapter 2: Research Issues) often include the homesteader's explanation of an absence due to crop failure, physical disability, or a death in the family. After fourteen months residence, if the homesteader could prove residence and cultivation, he or she would be entitled to buy the patent at a minimum government price (Keener 1916:94). Some did; others remained for the full five years and "proved up" without having to pay. "Proving up" required certified proof of residence and cultivation. When a claimant declared his intent to prove up, the General Land Office would publish notice in the newspaper that circulated nearest to the land in question. If there was no contest, the homesteader received the patent, signed by the President of the United States (an outline of a homestead case file is to be found in Chapter 5: Procedures).

In New Mexico it was possible to acquire 1,120 acres legally (Westphall 1965:43) by taking out a homestead of 160 acres, making a pre-emption claim (with payment of \$1.25 per acre for 160 acres), making a timber-culture claim of 160 acres and a desert land claim of 640 acres. Another person in the same family could take out an adjacent desert land entry. Beyond this, a cattle operator could encourage homesteaders to stay on their claims long enough to prove up, and then buy them out. The Blanchard brothers west of Roswell allowed settlers to haul water from their wells and invited the homesteader children to attend their private school. William C. McDonald of White Oaks and the MacGillivray brothers southeast of Estancia followed a similar strategy. John and Emma Muir of the Bar T Ranch near Lordsburg sent their homesteader neighbors beef when they butchered and, they said later "helped them in every way possible. We really welcomed their coming, but we knew they could not make a living as farmers, no matter how much of that dry land the Government gave them. As soon as they proved up they would be willing to sell, for they did not have enough money to become cattlemen. That is the way it turned out. Because of our friendly attitude, the homesteaders always offered their property to us first." (Muir 1958:63)

Subsequent adjustments to the Act of 1862 in the period 1872-1916 indicate Congress' growing recognition that the original act did not fit the arid lands. After 1916 Congress began to take a different approach, one that effectively recognized that ranching, rather than homesteading, was most appropriate to the arid lands. Section 7 of the Taylor Grazing Act stated that public lands within grazing districts created pursuant to the law were not subject to settlement or occupation as homesteads until they had been classified as such and opened to entry. For lands to be classified as homesteads and opened to entry, they had to be "more valuable and suitable for the production of agricultural crops than native grasses and forage plants." On November 26, 1934 President Roosevelt, acting under the authority of the Act, reserved from entry all vacant, unappropriated and unreserved lands in twelve western states including New Mexico, pending administrative decisions as to their best use. People who wanted to homestead now had to petition for classification of the land before making an entry. So the Taylor Grazing Act, while not formally ending homesteading, made it much harder to file.

As we noted, the earliest homesteaders came into southeastern New Mexico in late 1866, just a few months after the arrival of the first cattlemen (Pratt and Scurlock 1989:294). Most settled at or near good water sources, mainly along the Pecos River and the Rio Hondo from Roswell to the Chaves County line. Most adopted the Hispanic method of acequia farming. Consistent with the homestead laws, habitations were scattered on every quarter of half section, although some towns began to evolve as trading centers (Pratt and Scurlock 1989:294).

As noted above, in 1872 the Homestead Act was amended to permit veterans who had served in the Civil War (for the Union, that is) to count each year of military service toward the five-year residency requirement. They did have to reside on and cultivate the land for one year. Provisions of the 1872 law were subsequently extended to veterans of the Spanish-American War, the Philippine insurrection, the Mexican border campaign, World War I, and the Indian campaigns. Veterans' rights were expanded again by an act of 1920 that allowed them first choice on lands newly opened for homesteading.

The Timber Culture Act, Desert Land Act, Timber and Stone Act

The Timber Culture Act (17 Stat. 605) was passed in 1873, the Desert Land Act (19 Stat. 377) in 1877 and the Timber and Stone Act (20 Stat. 113) in 1878. All had the effect of increasing the amount of land that an individual could legally acquire. Less than 21,000 acres in New Mexico was patented under the Timber Culture Act before it was repealed in 1891. Desert land homesteads, however, were available up to the 1920s, and were usually obtained by commutation, that is, cash payment (Carlson 1990:226-27). Carlson totals the desert land homestead acreage in the Rio Arriba, in the period 1860-1949, at 26,017 acres, suggesting that this mechanism was not very significant in obtaining agricultural lands (Carlson 1990:226-27).

Neither the Timber Culture Act nor the Desert Land Act required residence on the land. Barker (Barker 1969:57) notes that there were 892 Desert Land Act entries totaling 246,847 acres between 1878 and 1888, while the number of final entries was 74, totaling 18,615 acres. This indicates that most entries were filed to gain control of rangeland and water during the short period of expansion of the range cattle industry. Entries could then be commuted to cash payment. The Secretary of the Interior noted in 1888 that 45 entries totaling 7,000 acres extending about 15 to 20 miles along the Tequesquite had been made under the Act, and then transferred to a cattle company prior to final proof of the claims. Fifty-six entries totaling 10,500 acres were made on the Pecos for a distance of 20 to 25 miles (Barker 1969:52). In this way, the Act served to establish two major ranches.

For the Santa Fe Land Office, Barker tabulates 208 entries totaling 63,633 acres, and 10 final entries totaling 1,958 acres, between 1878 and 1888. For the Las Cruces Land Office, he totals 599 claims in the same period totaling 155,601 acres and 64 final entries totaling 16,657 acres. A comparison of Carlson's and Barker's figures indicates that most entries in the north were made after 1888.

Homesteading: 1880 – 1920

Another change in homestead law occurred in 1881, when homesteaders gained the right to relate their claim back to a date of settlement, if prior to the date of entry. Using this law (21 Stat. 315) a settler who had been on the land for some time could proceed from date of entry to final proof in a few months.

A regional railroad system was established in New Mexico in the period 1880-1890 and facilitated transportation of crops to markets. Townsite development companies platted towns along the tracks. The railroads brought in new building materials; towns soon had main streets lined with businesses and residential areas with houses in a variety of styles.

A Bureau of Immigration was created as an office of the New Mexico territorial government in February, 1880 (effectively in response to the arrival of the railroad). It remained active until 1912. Its purpose was to attract genuine homesteaders and desirable businesses and to disseminate information about New Mexico's environment. The Bureau designated life zones in the territory, using natural vegetation as a guide to cropping practices for each zone. The Bureau, however, out of a desire to promote settlement, designated more area as suitable for dryland farming than was really the case. The Bureau promoted New Mexico at expositions and

fairs throughout the United States, and sent samples of New Mexico produce by special train throughout the Midwest (Williams 1986:126). The Bureau of Immigration also promoted New Mexico's healthy climate, contributing to the influx of tuberculosis sufferers who became a major industry from the 1880s up to about 1940.

New Mexico's first surveyor general arrived in 1855, but between 1869 and 1885 the men who held the post spent most of their time getting rich through silent partnerships with land speculators like T.B. Catron and Steven Elkins. The surveyors promoted cattle ranching, served the association of politicians and speculators known as the Santa Fe Ring, and largely ignored homesteading. In 1885 George W. Julian was appointed surveyor general. He refused to work with the Santa Fe Ring, promoted homesteading and worked with the Bureau of Immigration to define life zones by soils, climates, and suitability for various crops. In the 1880s and 1890s the railroads provided access to many areas newly designated for dryland farming. Nearly every train from Texas, Kansas, Iowa, Missouri and Arkansas consisted of "immigrant cars" - freight cars converted to carry families, household items, livestock and tools.

By 1910 the "nesters" had built shacks, tents and dugouts on almost every surveyed quarter-section in eastern New Mexico. The cultivated area was 788,000 acres (about 1,200 square miles) in 1890; in 1900 it was over 5 million acres (about 7,800 square miles - compare this to 600 square miles in 1800 and 800 square miles in 1846). In 1910 it covered 11 million acres or 17,000 square miles, a peak figure never again reached (Williams 1986:128).

There were 11,270,000 acres in farms in New Mexico in 1910 (U.S. Department of Commerce 1975: 460). The figure then continues to rise, to 24,410,000 acres in 1920 and to 46,792,000 in 1969 - fully sixty percent of the state. This evidently means that the statistics do not distinguish between farms and ranches. When Williams (Williams 1986:128) says that 11 million is the "peak farming acreage" he means the area under intensive cultivation, not rangeland.

Farmers created small towns, schools and churches. Commerce in the towns was often by barter, since subsistence was the rule and cash was scarce. Farm towns such as Melrose, Yeso, Willard, Eunice, Des Moines and Deming developed near the railway sidings where the immigrant cars stopped. Other towns such as House, Amistad, Dora, Knowles and Hope sprang up in grasslands near groups of farmers. By 1912 windmills and barbed wire fences had become prevalent. Good rains meant crops of potatoes, corn and vegetables comparable to yields in the Midwest. Dry cycles meant failure. The dry period of 1909-1912 turned the homesteader tide and began the process of abandonment and consolidation (Williams 1986:128). In some areas three-fourths of the population went elsewhere in search of work, while the homesteads reverted to rangeland. Between 1910 and 1920 the population loss in Roosevelt County was 12,064 to 6,548; in Quay County, 14,912 to 10,444; in Eddy County, 12,400 to 9,116; and in Guadalupe County 10,927 to 8,015. The farmers who stayed switched to dryland crops such as pinto beans, wheat and sorghum.

The Homestead Acts of 1906, 1909, 1911 and 1916

The Forest Homestead Act of 1906 (34 Stat. 233) was designed to place arable land in the hands of farmers, to ensure its cultivation and not merely to provide a ranch headquarters for a livestock operation (this use of the Homestead Act had by now been carefully observed by General Land Office personnel). Under this statute, homesteads were permitted in the National Forests. The Enlarged Homestead Act of 1909 (35 Stat. 639) allowed the claimant 320 acres of nonirrigable land, and required that a certain amount of the larger homestead be cultivated within specified years. This encouraged dry farming, which meant deep plowing and covering the entire field surface with fine soil to retard evaporation. The Three-Year Homestead Act of 1911 allowed patents in only three years and absences of up to five months per year.

In 1912 Congress reduced the residency requirement from five to three years, also giving the homesteader the option of being absent from the homestead for up to five months each year – recognition of the need for and practice of a second livelihood – something frequently referred to in homesteaders' reminiscences.

Among the last homestead acts was the Stock-Raising Homestead Act of 1916 (39 Stat. 291), which allowed 640 acres of nonirrigable land to a homesteader who lived on the land only three years and used it for pasture. Under this act, no cultivation was required and commutation was prohibited. The series of homestead acts shows a gradual adjustment to the realities of the arid lands.

New Mexico was one of the last places in the country to acquire significant numbers of homesteaders who were escaping from tenancy and lack of available land in the East, Midwest and South Plains. Homesteaders increased in numbers through the 1890s. Homesteading continued into the 1900s south of Las Cruces, and as late as the 1920s in the Quemado and Pietown area, and into the early 1930s in west-central New Mexico, as described by Vogt (Vogt 1967:16). These last waves of homesteading were encouraged by the Enlarged Homestead Act of 1909, which as we noted above made it possible to file on 320 acres and came closer to meeting southwestern conditions, and again by the Stock Raising Homestead Act of 1916, which made it possible to acquire title to a section of land by paying a filing fee of \$34, living on the land for at least seven months a year for three years, building a "habitable" home, making \$800 worth of improvements and paying a "proving-up" fee of \$34. Most of the homesteaders around Ramah acquired title to a section in this way. They established an economy based on dry-land cultivation of pinto beans, corn, and winter wheat, supplemented by dairy cattle, beef cattle, hogs and chickens, and some vegetable gardens irrigated from wells (Vogt 1967:43-44).

In the 1920s and 30s, Congress tried to make homestead residence requirements somewhat more flexible. Passage of a 1919 law (40 Stat. 1153) authorized homesteaders to make a showing that adverse climatic conditions made it a hardship to spend 7 months of the year on the homestead, and to request a reduction of the time spent on the homestead to six months. The homesteader then had to spend 4 years on the entry. Reduction to five months per year increased the required time on the claim to 5 years.

Congress authorized absence from the homestead during the years 1929-1932 for reason of drought, but without reducing the total required residency. The excused months had to be made up by extending the total time of residency to equal the time of absence. Congress again excused absences from 1932-36 due to poor economic conditions – the Depression. An additional two years to make final proof was allowed for claimants who could prove hardship due to poor economic conditions in the period July 1, 1931 – December 31, 1936.

Many homesteaders managed to hold onto subsistence operations until the 1920s and 30s, and in a few areas, the 40s and 50s. Very few could accumulate the capital necessary to make major improvements and so make the transition from subsistence to commercial farming or ranching.

Carlson (Carlson 1990:57-58) totals 9,231 homestead entries of all types in four counties (Rio Arriba, Taos, Santa Fe and Sandoval) in the period 1862-1949, totaling 1,190,586 acres or nearly 52 townships.

The patented land grant acreage for the same period was 4,501,080 acres. Carlson concludes that most of the irrigable bottomland was within the land grants, while the homesteads were found largely on scattered uplands and plateaus.

Fabiola Cabeza de Baca writes of the llano of central San Miguel County

In 1901, after the coming of the railroad, the Rock Island line promoted colonization into the land it traversed over the Cap Rock. Chartered immigrant cars brought a big colony of Iowa farmers. In the cars came draft horses, farming implements, dairy cows and household furnishings. These people were good farmers, but the Llano country was not farming land. The horses did not become accustomed to the country and neither did the dairy cattle. The Iowans built good substantial homes but their endurance soon gave out and in order to prove up on the land, they commuted for \$1.25 per acre. In three or four years, all but a handful moved to other states or went back to their homeland. Papa liked these Iowans and counted them among his best friends. He bought a great many acres from them upon their departure (Cabeza de Baca 1954:147).

Although the Homestead Acts were first used in New Mexico to monopolize water and grazing, it is clear from the numbers that homesteads were significant in New Mexico for small-scale stock raising, and that the system, combined with the loss of the common lands of the grants, destroyed the traditional Spanish-American village life, obliging Hispanics to accept a more dispersed pattern of settlement, as well as forcing most of them to find additional source of income, most commonly wage work, frequently outside New Mexico.

Maloney (Maloney 1966:98) notes that most homesteaders in San Miguel County were Hispanics from existing settlements within the county - either the new settlements on the plains, or the older towns back in the plateau and mountain areas. Maloney rejects the idea that Hispanic pastoralists were forced out by Anglo homesteaders, noting that the majority of homesteaders were Hispanic. Nearly all homesteads patented in San Miguel were for quarter-sections, even after the Acts of 1909 and 1916 allowed homesteads of 320 acres and 640 acres

respectively. Nearly all available land was homesteaded (Maloney 1966:108). Maloney noted that many ranchers running cattle on former homesteads were Hispanic. One rancher, Miguel Lujan, stated that his father paid Hispanic settlers to file claims and to obtain patents on homesteads, which they then turned over to the Lujan ranch (Maloney 1966:110).

Brooks (Brooks 1993:40) notes that "Lea County was primarily settled by families taking up 160-acre parcels." While a single homestead of 160 could not support a family, it could contribute to subsistence. A Lea County man speaks of homesteading around Jal:

Most every homesteader had come from a farm somewhere. So each one would clear a patch 30 to 60 acres and farm, and would raise a lot of feed three out of five years, and some feed every year. The good years you could raise corn, maize, cane, etc. I have seen feed grown taller than a man's head (Brooks 1993:40).

Eidenbach refers to the establishment of homesteads in the 1890s on former cattle range: "Many of the original ranches along the east side of the San Andres became marginal homesteads, line camps or were simply abandoned" (Eidenbach 1989:18).

A Socorro (later Catron) County homesteader indicates another dimension of the relations between homesteaders and ranchers. Hugh Moore says that in 1918 (Hogg 1988:53) he had no water on his homestead, and decided to water his cattle at a well owned by Nations Cattle Company. The well was guarded by a "gunman" armed with a rifle and two pistols. Because Moore, his son and nephew had the gunman outnumbered, he turned his back, allowing them to water cattle periodically for three or four days, until a rain filled a nearby evanescent lake and provided another water source. Hogg says he later encountered this man, who said that he had been unable to enlist during WWI because he couldn't pass the physical, and that he had been employed by the cattle company for thirty dollars a month to prevent homesteaders from using the well.

Human Behavior – Homesteading

Thelma Cone

Thelma Cone (later Thelma Cone Childers Cleveland) was born in Knox City, Texas on May 29, 1906, the last of eleven children. Her description of a turn-of-the-century homesteading family is exceptionally detailed (it has remained unpublished).

Her father was a contractor. During the Panic of 1907, when no one had cash to pay for his work, he read about available "government land", went to New Mexico and filed a claim (Childers 1982:2).

He "fixed up a covered wagon or two" to carry the family and hired a man to haul some building materials to New Mexico on freight wagons.

"The whole family made this move, as I understand, because Fay and Eva were old enough to file on land" (Childers 1982:3).

Near Redland, New Mexico the family built a half-dugout on her father's half-section, and smaller half-dugouts on the two other half-sections on which Fay and Eva (her older brother and sister) had filed. The half-dugout was a hole in the ground with a two or three foot high wall with windows for light and air.

She describes a dugout as follows:

This half-dugout, the way this was built, just dig a basement type hole in the ground, down as deep as you wanted, usually six, maybe seven feet and as large as you wanted. Then they put about a two and a half or three foot wall around the top of it. This was so you could put windows in it, for light and air. Above the windowed wall, they would put a roof. Of course, there were steps dug down, going down into this...Of course, it would have dirt floor and dirt walls, but it was warm and comfortable and with the windows in there it gave plenty of light. This is what we started living in (Childers 1982:3-4).

Her father soon moved about twelve miles to land that "he liked better." The post office was Richland. "Again he dug the half dugout, the basement type, but this time he built a house over it. The basement area was our kitchen and dining room and especially during the winter months we practically lived in that..." (Childers 1982:4).

Portales was about 30 miles away, and her father usually worked there, seldom coming home. Richland was "more or less the center of the community" (Childers 1982:25), and was about 30 miles from the nearest railroad. A "mail hack" or surrey hauled mail, materials and supplies from the rail line to the post office.

They had a horse, a milk cow, a dog, some ducks and geese, some hogs and chickens.

Their nearest neighbor was three-fourths of a mile away. "He helped mama out in a lot of ways, as she helped him."

...different to the Western stories, ranchers didn't hate us. They were good neighbors and always willing to give us a helping hand or let us get water or whatever we needed from them.

They grubbed out mesquite roots for stovewood, as well as cow chips. They saw jackrabbits, rattlesnakes, and sometimes a band of antelope. The rabbits damaged crops, and occasionally they would have rabbit drives - the men starting in a straight line, gradually forming a circle and shooting rabbits. They ate prairie chickens.

They had to haul water - five or six barrels on a wagon. They were sparing with water, taking sponge baths in a tin wash basin every night.

They made dolls from rags and stick horses from corn stalks.

They prepared fields for planting with a walking plow and a harrow. Their crops were pinto beans and maize or gyp corn for stock, and "ear corn" for human consumption. "If we had plenty of rain we would make a fairly good crop but if it was a dry year, not much" (Childers 1982:13).

Her mother and father would go to Portales together about once every six months - a three-day trip, one day going, one day shopping, a day returning. When the children went too, they would stay in a "wagon yard" -- the forerunner of the motel.

They used a cast iron washpot for laundry, also using the pot to heat water for scalding hogs. They made sausage and rendered lard. They salted meat and also made soap from the trimmed hog fat.

They strained milk, set the crocks of milk in a pan of water and put wet cloths on it to keep it cool, since there was no refrigeration. They skimmed cream, and churned it to make butter. Her mother would sell excess butter when there was any. For preserves, they cooked watermelon rind with lemon and sugar, since there were no fruit trees in the area.

They kept a garden where they grew green beans and tomatoes. They also cooked and ate some wild plants - "Careless Weed" made fair greens, with bacon. They harvested beans in the fall, drying the vines on a wagon sheet for several days, then beating them with sticks to shell them, pouring the beans from a pot onto a clean sheet so the wind would take the chaff. "We ate an awful lot of pinto beans" (Childers 1982:26).

They harvested maize by cutting the heads off by hand and throwing them in a wagon that was drawn "astraddle one row". They tied the maize heads in bundles with twine, built shocks of the bundles and let them dry, and hauled the bundles to the house before the winter wet weather began. Corn was harvested similarly. "There was always a little grain mill somewhere in the country. We would take some of this corn in and have it ground. That was our cornmeal and we had a lot of cornmeal mush, for breakfast" (Childers 1982:30). They shucked and shelled corn, and made hominy with lye in the washpot.

They went to community picnics in summer - "you didn't get out too much in wintertime to do anything other than what had to be done" (Childers 1982:23). They had dances.

Everyone turned out for the dances. There was always someone who could play a fiddle or a guitar, make music. Those old country hoe down dances could be a lot of fun. They'd put in the night because a lot of people came several miles for it, so they'd just dance all night. Women usually brought cakes and there would be coffee and cake during the night. They'd just keep dancing until daylight, go home and do their work, then sleep a while (Childers 1982:24).

They also had a "Literary Society" - something like a community theater, with recitations, plays, songs and dances. They had ice cream parties - the ice being brought to the post office in

the "mail hack", then carried in wagons by the men to the place for the party. Although she does not make this entirely clear, it appears that the ice was brought by the railroad.

They used the two covered wagons to commute to Texas to pick cotton.

A little while before we got the harvesting all done...Papa would be home to work on the covered wagons...We usually had two wagons...[he] would build what we called an overjet on this wagon...extend it out so there would be more room...it would be about seven foot wide; a regular bed mattress would fit in crosswise. Then he'd put the bows on -- you could buy wooden bows, curved bows that fit in brackets you'd make on the sides for the ends of these bows, every few feet the length of the wagon. Next he put on the wagon sheet. It was a large canvas with a hem in each end...He put the wagon sheet over the bows and there were places to fasten it down to the wagon...Mama and Papa would put their bed across the back end of one wagon. Up in the front end of the same wagon would be another bed for Belle and me. In between was a kind of sitting room...Well a lot of times Papa would put [a little stove] in so that on real cold days we would have some heat...On the back end of one of these wagons Papa built the chuck box...It was just about a foot wide at the top, but it slanted down to about three feet. He made a cover to fit that; hinged that cover on...At night when we camped, that lid would come down and a stick would be put under it...Inside this box were shelves with the dishes, cooking pots, food, just like a pantry...A water barrel was tied on the side...a coop was built on the back of a wagon -- that meant we could have fresh eggs (Childers 1982:31-33).

They lived in the wagons for several months. They rode from campsite to campsite, sometimes getting out and walking, picking up deadwood for fires. "This was grass land and cattle country so all we would see during the day would be cows but usually there were big natural lakes not too far apart. Most of the time we would be lucky enough to make night camp by one of these lakes..." (Childers 1982:33).

There was a school four and a half miles from the homestead. It was in a half-dugout - a homesteader who had lived there later built a house, and allowed the school to be taught in his former residence. Later Cone went to school in New Hope, in a real one-room school. This was about five and a half miles from the homestead.

Her father bought a small cow herd in 1913, going 350 miles to Sylvester, Texas. Two of her brothers walked and drove the cows home. With the sale of cream from the cows, her father bought farm equipment. He raised sorghum cane and bought a mill to make sorghum syrup. The mill had rollers and was run with horsepower - a horse or mule hitched to a lever.

"Everyone loved Mr. Cone's syrup so it sold pretty good. Of course, we always reserved enough for home use" (Childers 1982:55). They also began to raise kaffir corn and built a silo to hold it.

We lived on what was called the plains...But after you got down into Texas, the flat plains country just suddenly come up and there was a big dropoff down about three or four hundred feet...this was called the caprock. The best cotton usually grew below the caprock because at that time most of the plains was still ranching country... (Childers 1982:36).

With money coming in from the cream checks [cream from the cows they bought in 1913]...things began to be a lot easier for us. Papa stayed home more and he bought more farming equipment, like a riding planter and cultivator and a breaking plow. He and the boys could clear more land so we could raise more crops. We even had a few clothes about that time and we didn't have to go back to Texas to pick cotton (Childers 1982:54).

Papa was baptized into the church. For baptizing there, the crowd would go out on Sunday afternoon to some big earth tank...probably to Old Ranch Headquarters...I can remember seeing the people, the preacher wading out in there -- Papa was baptized along with some others (Childers 1982:57).

She makes the point that the abandonment of a homestead was not invariably a matter of sheer necessity or economic failure.

I think it must have been the next spring, anyway it was the spring I was eight years old, that Papa finally decided to sell out. That was one move that Mama didn't want to make. [S]he wanted to drill another well, and who can blame her? She was the one that had suffered most there, living out a lot of years on that claim. By this time, our seven years was past and the place and all the buildings and everything on it belonged to us. I can remember Mama saying, 'We have just now gotten to where we can make a living. We have the cows and if we can get water we can stay here and make a good living.' But Papa had decided to move and that was it (Childers 1982:60).

The droughts of the 1930s and 1950s again caused an exodus of the remaining farmers. By the 1960s large areas of the high plains were dotted with abandoned farms and farm towns, and the land had reverted to range grasses. After World War II, however, the Ogallala Aquifer made it possible to grow cotton, alfalfa and grain.

Dry Farming

Dryland farming does not mean farming without rainfall; rather, it involves the best use of limited rainfall through conservation, use of drought-resistant seed, and moisture-conserving tillage. Plowing breaks up soil particles in such a way as to increase the soil's ability to absorb and retain rainfall.

Most of Union, Quay, Curry, Roosevelt and Torrance Counties was subdivided into the dryland farms of homesteaders between 1880 and 1920 (Williams 1986:269). These five counties represented almost 4 million acres of dryland farming by 1920. Another approximately

2 million acres in Santa Fe, San Miguel, Colfax, Mora and McKinley Counties were homesteaded by 1920. Cycles of drought in the 1910s, 1930s and 1950s reduced the dryland farming area to about 1.1 million acres by 1980.

New Mexico became the leading pinto bean producer in the U.S. in the 1920s and 30s; since 1960 this crop has disappeared, mainly as a result of the severe drought of the 1950s.

Sorghum and wheat accounted for about 94 percent of the production on dryland in 1982. Hay crops, pasture, and other small grains accounted for most of the other dryland production.

Railroads brought other Anglos who began dry farming, usually under the homestead laws, in the higher elevations of northern New Mexico, in the late 1880s and early 90s.

The railroad established the use of windmills, first brought into use to tap groundwater to supply the engines. Farmers and ranchers adopted the windmill for agriculture (Sheck 1990:12). Windmills made it possible to use uplands for agriculture, contributing to competition for lands in the Spanish and Mexican grants and encouraging homesteading.

In the period 1900-1910 New Mexico's rural population had increased almost as rapidly as the urban population - the effect of the homestead boom. In the period 1910-1920, however, the increase in rural population slowed markedly, while the total number of farms dropped.

Homesteads – the Physical Record

Several students of the subject have noted that “homesteading was an imperfect system” (Stein 1990:17). The General Land Office never had a field staff adequate to inspect even a fraction of the claims. The attention paid by the government to Richard Wetherill's homestead in Chaco Canyon (Merlan 1985; Levine 1989) was highly unusual, if not unique. In general, the homesteader's filings and the testimony of his or her witnesses were taken at face value, and there was certainly some fraud, with claimants testifying to having made improvements that did not exist (Stein 1981). When there are evident discrepancies between the sites and artifacts on the ground and the documentary record, this possibility must be borne in mind.

Human Behavior - Chronological Summary

The following elements of human behavior relating to ranching and homesteading in New Mexico are listed by period. They are derived from the literature and are typical but certainly not exhaustive. In the early periods – up to the nineteenth century – ranching and agriculture are the almost universal occupation, and it is sometimes difficult to separate the description of agricultural practices from that of life in general.

1500s

The contacts between the Spanish and the Pueblos are brief until the end of the century. The following elements of behavior apply most particularly to the Oñate expedition of 1598.

- Spanish conquer the Pueblos
- Spanish expeditions trail cattle as food source. Spanish drive herd animals (see Baxter 1987:2)
- European population and subsistence patterns established on the aboriginal population
- Spanish introduce sheep, cattle, pigs, goats, and food crops (corn and wheat)
- Spanish exploit the Pueblos. European expeditions live by tribute from Indians
- nomadic Indians raid on sheep and cattle
- historic irrigation begins – e.g. San Juan Pueblo 1598

1600s

- Spanish continue to exploit and raid the Pueblos (one reason why Juan de Oñate is tried for abuse of office and banned from New Mexico)
- *encomienda* – the ownership of pueblos or parts of pueblos by individual colonists, including and consisting mainly of ownership of agricultural and other production, that is, the labor of Indians
- *encomenderos* graze cattle and sheep in the pueblos
- Pueblos tend cattle for the friar of a mission
- Pueblos plant wheat and corn, vegetable gardens and orchards for the friar of a mission
- Franciscan superior allots heifers, sheep and hens to each arriving mission friar
- Friars store corn, wheat, beans and maintain herds of cattle and sheep at the missions
- agricultural calendar is associated with religious calendar/events, e.g. Day of the Dead, in which food is distributed to the dead
- sheep are used as currency (Baxter 1987:7)
- Franciscan friars produce woolen cloth
- Diego de Vargas (1697) distributes sheep to colonists
- irrigation continues – there are a possible 52 *acequias* by 1700
- Spanish distribute animals to Pueblos as a reward to converts, to men who promise to live monogamously, etc.

1700s

- disappearance of *encomienda* – a reform brought about by the Pueblo Revolt and subsequent Spanish reconquest of the province
- Pueblos trade irrigable land for livestock and goods
- agriculture is the almost universal occupation of both Hispanics and Indians (Mosk 1942:35)
- grants of land – to individuals, to communities, and for ranches (*sitios*) Most grants are for sheep ranching – cattle are not important in this period (Mosk 1942:38)
- sheep contracts – *partido* (earliest known contract 1745 – see Baxter 1987:29)
- Franciscans collect tithes in corn, wheat, vegetables, sheep etc. (Baxter 1987:70)
- irrigation continues – there are possibly 102 *acequias* by 1800 (Hutchins: 278)
Cooperative associations (also called *acequias*) are formed to build irrigation systems

- Governor Cruzat y Gongora (1735) bans exports of sheep, cattle, wool and grain
- trade fairs after c. 1750 at Taos, Abiquiu and other sites. In these fairs nomadic Indians, mainly Comanche and Utes, come in to barter buffalo, elk and deer hides, chamois, meat and captives. The Pueblos in turn trade corn flour, woven cotton and wool blankets; the Hispanics trade horses, trinkets, pinon and punche (Foote:22-23)
- Spanish establish *ranchos*, or loose agglomerations of small farmsteads, as the typical unit of colonization (Simmons 1979)
- Colonists grow corn (which continues to be the major crop), and wheat in high valleys, such as Taos and Peñasco, where the growing season often prevents corn from reaching maturity. Barley is a minor crop most often used to feed livestock. Oats and rye are probably not raised in New Mexico in colonial times. Other field crops include *frijoles*, horse beans, peas, squashes and pumpkins, melons, chile, tobacco and cotton (Simmons 1983:9). Onions and garlic are widely used. Cucumbers, lettuce, beets and tomatoes are rarities, and potatoes are almost unknown. Spices including anise, coriander and saffron are grown in gardens.
- sheep exports resume in late colonial period (with the accession of Carlos III 1759, whose reforms include abolition of restrictions on trade and travel)
- some Apache groups from the Mimbres and Sierra Blanca regions consent to occupy lands on the Rio Grande and to become farmers (1790s)

1800s

- exports. Up to 1770 in New Mexico livestock production is at bare subsistence level, but after 1780 New Mexico begins to produce an exportable surplus
- *cordones* or *conductas* of 25-26,000 head of sheep are exported to Nueva Viscaya annually (Chacon Report of 1803. See Simmons 1985)
- irrigation continues. There are possibly 306 acequias by 1900 (Hutchins 278)
- commercial sale of sheep (export for sale in interior Mexico and California)
- Navajos raid sheep
- peonage binds poor Hispanics through debt and usurious interest

1821-1846

- commercial sale of sheep (export for sale in interior Mexico and California)
- Navajos continue to raid sheep

After 1846

- land acquisition by purchase and squatting
- site location ref water source or other factors (see Hawthorne 1994:178)
- continued export of sheep for sale in California
- competitive pricing of sheep
- publicity (see e.g. Baxter 1987:124, 139). Francois Aubry issues a press release about his sheep drive from New Mexico to California in 1853; J. Francisco Chavez conducts interview with Los Angeles papers in 1854
- relations with communities en route to sheep drives – e.g. Pima and Yuma villages in Arizona, Zuni Pueblo in New Mexico
- sheep owners buy supplies from these communities

- sheep owners ferry sheep and supplies across Colorado River (e.g. Baxter 1987:124)
- sheep owners conduct social relations with and consult with tribal Indians, e.g.
- Apaches, as a way of avoiding trouble, and put on feasts and entertainments (see Baxter 1987:147)

1860

- Union army creates an increasing demand for wool

1862 and later

- -homesteaders acquire homesteads from public domain, file and report
- -homesteaders buy land from the territorial government or from individuals
- -homesteader builds a house on the homestead and improves a small area for agriculture
- -ranchers settle without formalities wherever an adequate water source is found (see Hawthorne 1994:160)

1865 and later

- ranchers fence pastures
- range wars. Lincoln County War 1870s
- ditch war (Tularosa 1881) between Anglo and Hispanic settlers (see Hawthorne 1994:150)
- acquisition of desert lands under Desert Land Act 1877-1880s to gain control of
- rangeland and water

1880s and later

- Mormon farmers/missionaries enter New Mexico from the west, establishing villages rather than scattered ranches. They irrigate field crops
- inherent conflict between ranching and homesteading (see Hawthorne 1994:184)
- arrival of the railroad and obsolescence of cattle drives. Use of railroad for livestock shipping (See Dodge 2005:33). Influx of settlers
- enterprises ancillary to homesteading and ranching, e.g. establishment of local schools (see Hawthorne 1994:172)
- establishment of cemeteries (see Hawthorne 1994:174-175)
- creation of cooperative relationships between and among ranchers and homesteaders by blood and marriage (see Hawthorne 1994:196)

1900s

- land acquisition
- squatting (taking up land with no formalities - see Hawthorne 1994:185)
- site location ref water source or other factors (see Hawthorne 1994:178)
- buying land – from General Land Office; from individuals
- reconfiguration of ranches; selling out
- -water development (see Hawthorne 1994:139). Hand-digging of shallow wells is common; if a well dries up, the site may be drilled deeper
- gardening
- fencing of pastures (see Eidenbach and Morgan 1994:1)
- dry farming (e.g. milo maize, cane etc. for cattle)

- open range grazing (persists until WWI period. See Eidenbach and Hart1994:53)
- implied rights (see Hawthorne 1994:197). An implied right is a right to a portion of a stream and all the range land back from that stream to the divide which marked the boundary from one stream valley and the next” (see Nimmo 1972:237)
- Desert Land Act of 1877 applies particularly to irrigation farming
- Stock Raising Homestead Act of 1916 brings practices of homesteading and ranching into closer conformity in the arid lands (see Hawthorne 1994:187-188)
- construction of houses and improvements
- burials and creation of cemeteries (see Hawthorne 1994:174)
- withholding of deeds (see Eidenbach and Hart 1994:51) whenever the landowner’s interest is to avoid legal documents bearing his name. “In addition, local custom apparently dictated substantial delay between execution and filing of legal documents” (see Eidenbach and Hart 1994:51)
- water development
- well drilling (see Eidenbach and Hart1994:52)
- outside jobs (see Eidenbach and Morgan1994:xv)
- food preparation
- dairying (in areas of urbanizing population) as a source of income for homesteads (see Hawthorne 1994:121)
- homestead proof; correspondence with authorities (e.g. Commissioner of General Land Office. See Hawthorne 194:101)
- abandonment of homesteads - Reversion of homesteads to range (see Eidenbach and Morgan 1994:2)
- condemnation by federal government (see Hawthorne 1994:199)

1930s and later

- regulation of overgrazing by federal agents under Taylor Grazing Act



Martin Apodaca Homestead (LA 133011). The homestead was patented in 1919 with construction occurring between 1907 to-1918. This residence, built in 1913 also served as a church (El Buen Pastor) when a priest from Blanco visited in the canyons.



Vergis Site(LA 100555) is located in Shaw Canyon out by Pelona Mountain. There is no GLO patent record for the site. There is an apparent grave at the Vergis site.

2

Significance and Research Issues

THE NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES

The national standard of historic, archeological and architectural significance is eligibility to the National Register of Historic Places. The National Register is a list of the nation's significant historic sites maintained by the Department of the Interior. The National Register is the official federal list of districts, sites, buildings, structures and objects significant in American history, architecture, archeology, engineering and culture. The National Register was created by the federal Historic Preservation Act of 1966 (Public Law 89-665). The criteria of eligibility established pursuant to the law are set forth in 36 Code of Federal Regulations 60.4. The criteria apply at local, regional and national levels. The National Register has issued numerous bulletins on all types of sites and aspects of significance. These will be quoted below.

Scholars, researchers and land managers have created an extensive published and unpublished literature relating to the significance of ranches and homesteads. They have done this on the basis of field studies and site analysis that is not based on the National Register of Historic Places. Their reports do not necessarily discuss the Register. Nevertheless, the research issues and questions that are dealt with in their reports can all be fitted into National Register criteria and categories. We will first discuss the Register, then follow with a more general discussion of research issues.

Criteria of Significance

The National Register criteria for evaluation state that the quality of significance in American history, architecture, archeology, engineering and culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and: (A) that are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or (B) that are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or (C) 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; or (D) that have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history (36 Code of Federal Regulations §60.4 (see Savage and Pope 1997:12-24).

Architectural Significance

Significant architectural and historic archeological sites may be intrinsically significant rather than deriving their significance from an event or a person.

Appendix A includes sites now listed in the State Register of Cultural Properties and National Register of Historic Places that have architectural, historic archeological and

engineering significance. By and large, such sites embody the physical characteristics of the type – the ranch or homestead house, barn or other structure or assemblage of structures - and are a practical response to the needs of agricultural operations. As the National Register requires, they possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling and association.

Historical Significance (Significant Events)

“Criterion A recognizes properties associated with significant events, such as the founding of a town, or with a pattern of events, repeated activities, or historic trends...” (Savage and Pope 1997:12)

Criterion B covers “properties associated with individuals whose specific contributions to history can be identified and documented” (Savage and Pope 1997:14). This applies at local, state and national levels.

“Persons significant in our past are those whose activities have been important to the communities in which they are located, to the history of their state or to the nation as a whole” (Boland 1991:4). If a person is identified as significant, the documentation must identify the area of history – commerce, exploration/settlement, literature, politics, etc. – in which the individual made an important contribution” (Boland 1991:5). Boland also makes the point that the contribution of the significant individual must be compared with that of others in the same field. An example that appears in this bulletin is the chapel built by Archbishop Jean Baptiste Lamy in Santa Fe, New Mexico. Lamy is credited with reviving missions in his diocese, as well as establishing schools, hospitals and other social institutions. Note that the chapel is also architecturally significant for its combination of traditional adobe construction and Gothic elements. See Chapter 1 above for some short biographies of persons significant in the history of ranching and homesteading in New Mexico.

The chronology (pp. iii-xii) and general history (Chapter 1) make fairly extensive statements of the significant events associated with ranches and homesteads in New Mexico. Select from and proceed from these sections to identify and describe the significant events related to the ranch or homestead.

Criterion C has to do with design and construction. It covers “properties significant for their physical design or construction, including such elements as architecture, landscape architecture, engineering, and artwork” (Savage and Pope 1997:17).

A birthplace or grave may be significant under Criterion C if it is the birthplace or grave of a person of outstanding importance in the history of the local area, state or nation and if there is no other appropriate site or building associated with his productive life (Savage and Pope 1997:32. See also Potter and Boland 1992).

Criterion D covers information potential. It involves “important research questions about human history [that] can only be answered by the actual physical material of cultural resources” (Savage and Pope 1997:21). “The property must have characteristics suggesting the likelihood

that it possesses configurations of artifacts, soil strata, structural remains, or other natural or cultural features that make it possible to test a hypothesis or hypotheses about events, groups or processes in the past that bear on important research questions in the social sciences or the humanities; or corroborate or amplify currently available information suggesting that a hypothesis is either true or false; or reconstruct the sequence of archeological cultures for the purpose of identifying and explaining continuities and discontinuities in the archeological record for particular area” (Savage and Pope 1997:21).

A cemetery may be eligible under Criterion D if it derives its primary significance from graves of persons of transcendent importance, from age, from distinctive design features, or from association with historic events (Savage and Pope 1997:34).

Criterion E, relatively little used, is the criterion for reconstructed properties. A reconstructed property may be eligible under Criterion E when it is accurately executed in a suitable environment and presented in a dignified manner as part of a restoration master plan and when no other building or structure with the same associations has survived. All three criteria must be met (Savage and Pope 1997:37).

“Traditional cultural properties” are properties that play or have played a role in “a community’s historically rooted beliefs, customs, and practices” (Parker and King 1994:1). Such properties reflect cultural beliefs and practices, culture history, ethnicity, historic religious practices, and related practices and beliefs.

A “rural historic landscape” is “a geographical area that historically has been used by people, or shaped and modified by human activity, occupancy, or intervention, and that possesses a significant concentration, linkage, or continuity of areas of land use, vegetation, buildings and structures, roads and waterways, and natural features” (McClelland et al. 1999:1-2).

The authors give as an example the Dorris Ranch in Lane County, Oregon, noting that the cultivation of filberts on the ranch makes it significant in the history of agriculture (McClelland et al. 1999:1-2). “The characteristics of the rural landscape are the tangible evidence of the activities and habits of the people who occupied, developed, used and shaped the land to serve human needs; they may reflect the beliefs, attitudes, traditions, and values of these people” (McClelland et al. 1999:1-2).

McClelland et al. also note that a rural historic landscape is usually associated with agriculture, industry (including mining, lumbering, fish culture), maritime activities such as fishing, recreation, transportation systems, migration trails, conservation and sites adapted for ceremonial, religious or other cultural activities (McClelland et al. 1999:3). Several of these categories mirror the research issues in this chapter (see further below).

Landscape characteristics can be mapped on a USGS or other topographic map as referenced in the Laboratory of Anthropology Site Record (see Appendix B).

Regional and Community Associations

By their nature, ranches and homesteads are relatively isolated. However, a ranch or homestead always belongs to a community which may be hundreds or thousands of square miles in extent and may include other ranches and/or homesteads, roads, rail lines, a town or towns, and other features physically, culturally and economically related to the ranch or homestead. . In assessing the significance of a ranch or homestead, you must define the community – for example, a natural feature or series of features such as a mountain range, a basin or river valley, or a cultural feature or features, such as a railway line, or a combination of natural and cultural features. You must assess and describe this community and explain its relationship to the ranch or homestead under study.

The most useful general discussions of community associations in the various regions of New Mexico are the regional overviews (see bibliography).

Historical Archeological Properties

A historical archeological property is a place where physical evidence postdating the arrival of Europeans in the New World, usually taking the form of artifacts (e.g. fragments of tools, ceramic vessels, or animal remains), features (e.g. remnants of walls, cooking hearths, or trash middens) and ecological evidence (e.g. pollen) survive in a physical context that permits the interpretation of these remains (Townsend et al. 1993).

Any disused cultural property associated with a homestead or ranch may meet this description. Evidently this is the category covering the great majority of the ranch and homestead sites that we are concerned with.

National Register Bulletin 36 suggests that background research should be completed prior to field studies (Townsend 1993:4). “This research involves examining primary sources of historical information (e.g. deeds and wills) secondary sources (local histories and genealogies) and historic cartographic sources, reviewing previous archaeological research in similar areas, models that predict historical site distribution, and archeological, architectural and historical site inventory files; and conducting informant interviews” (Townsend 1993:4).

We will propose (see Chapter 5: Procedures) that basic archival research including review of the New Mexico Cultural Resources Information System be performed first, that field recording and testing follow, and that further archival research that may include most of the items noted in Bulletin 36 then be carried out if necessary. In some cases, initial archival research and recording may be all that is needed:

The patterning of artifacts and features on the ground surface of some properties may be sufficient to warrant nominating them to the National Register. If this is the case, then demonstrating the presence of intact subsurface artifact or feature patterning through test excavations may not be required. For example, Camp Carondelet in Prince William County,

Virginia, the 1861-1862 winter camp of a Louisiana brigade, was listed in the National Register without excavations. This Civil War camp, which is evidenced by above-ground patterning of hut outlines, chimney falls, trash pits, roads, and rifle pits has sufficient surface information to justify a statement of significance (Townsend 1993:6).

PROPERTIES THAT HAVE ACHIEVED SIGNIFICANCE WITHIN THE PAST FIFTY YEARS

Properties that have achieved significance within the past fifty years may be listed in the National Register of Historic Places only if they are of exceptional significance or are integral parts of districts that are listed on the National Register (Sherfy and Luce 1996:1). This consideration will probably not enter into the question of significance of a homestead, since all homesteads are now more than fifty years old. It could conceivably apply to a ranch property, if the property was of exceptional significance.

The matter of National Register eligibility is dealt with in Section 4 (“Recommendations”) of the Laboratory of Anthropology Site Record or Sections 22 and 23 on the HCPI Base Form (Form 1).

RESEARCH ISSUES AND QUESTIONS

The priority order of research questions given here is a suggested descending order responding to (1) basic information requirements; (2) land and cultural resource management requirements; (3) current issues in American history. Any of the questions may apply to the site being examined. Further, one question leads to another, and many questions are closely related.

1. Basic Information Requirements

1A. Documentation. The first and most basic research goal in any investigation is to document the site, for the obvious reason that this has to be done in order to assess its significance (see for example Seaman 2000:7). Such documentation may be considered a means to meet Criterion D.

In some cases, documentation will exhaust the research potential of the site, and no further investigation or site preservation will be indicated. It may be argued that any such property meets National Register of Historic Places Criterion D, and that once it is recorded, its eligibility to the National Register is to be determined by whether it meets any other of the stated criteria.

Documentation of the site includes age and dates (Section 9 “Cultural and Temporal Affiliation” of LAB Site Record).

A discussion and analysis of age and dates of historic ranches and homesteads lends itself to the determination of National Register eligibility. Curriden (1981:4) discusses earliest dates of historic occupation.

Key questions that may be answered by study of homesteads and ranches follow. These questions are drawn primarily from existing regional research designs and overviews and

secondarily from the general literature. The organization of the questions is suggested by that literature. We have also noted how the National Register defines and distinguishes various categories. We have not listed all categories as the Register defines them (see McClelland 1997:40-41): some National Register categories, such as medicine or performing arts, are not likely to be relevant here, and a few, such as maritime history, are a seeming impossibility, but any of the categories could be relevant – if, say, the ranch in question was the subject of a novel, literature could be an appropriate category. The National Register does not consider its own categories exhaustive – the last stated category is “other” (McClelland 1997:41). See also Appendix A for ranches and homesteads in New Mexico entered in the State and National Registers that are associated with less common categories of significance: literature (e.g. the D.H. Lawrence Ranch Historic District); science (e.g. the Los Alamos Ranch School); nationally-significant historic events (e.g. Pigeon’s Ranch); anthropology and the history of homesteading itself (e.g. the Evon Z. Vogt Ranch House).

Any of the areas of research given below may demonstrate that a property meets Criterion A, association with significant events. Criterion B may be met if a strong and lasting association with the productive period in the life of a significant person or persons is shown. Criterion C may be met if the property embodies the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction, or represents the work of a master, possesses high artistic values, or represents a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction. This criterion may relate to architecture, engineering, or landscape architecture.

2. Land and Cultural Resource Management Requirements

2a. Environmental Considerations. Climate (including precipitation, temperature and growing season), physiography and geography are fundamental considerations and should be recorded or referenced on the site recording form (Under Section 7 “Physical Description” and further under Section 12 “Narrative Description” of the LAB Site Record. This may include annual precipitation (maximum), minimum and mean temperatures; wind speed and direction, history of weather, and special events, such as snowstorms, hailstorms etc. in the historic record.

Local vegetation, topography and site setting should be recorded in Section 7 of the LABSR.

Notes on vegetation may include references to edible, medicinal, and other plants and the use of any of these by Pueblos, Navajos, Hispanics or Anglos, as well as mention of any toxic plants or weeds.

Further detail in Section 12 (“Narrative Description”) could include the geomorphology and geography of the site, its elevation, its soils, e.g. aridisols, mollisols, alfisols, or inceptisols, and its historic or contemporary fauna - species, endangered species, or extinct species that lived in the area in historic times.

Notes on physiography may include the physiographic province (e.g. Great Plains and subarea Southern Plains) as well as a description of physical features such as valleys, plains, rivers, discussion of surface drainage, springs, manmade features (e.g. lakes and reservoirs).

For research questions relating to environment, see for example Stein 1981:11. Did the occupants of the site adopt cultural strategies to mitigate the effects of climate and environment? Such strategies could include adobe structures, wells and water catchment structures, or the use of bottled water when local water is saline or alkaline.

2b. *Land Use, Settlement and Subsistence.* What factors led to the use of the particular area (see Oakes 1983)?

Did the landowner, rancher, homesteader subsist mainly on the land – or did he take on wage work? Did he travel to and in his work? What were his subsistence needs? What links to outside markets may be understood from the artifact assemblage – or from documentary sources (see Oakes 1983, 1990)?

To what extent did the rancher or homesteader rely on native flora and fauna? What crops and vegetables did he grow? What livestock did he raise?

The relationship of the homestead or ranch to other homesteads and/or ranches and to towns or centers of population is a frequently-asked research question.

If the cultural resource is on a homestead, the category and size of the homestead, whether 160, 320 or 640 acres is the basis for a question: for example, were stock-raising homesteads of 640 acres more successful than smaller claims? See for example Vogt 1955:38. The basis of the community under study was the Stock Raising Homestead Act of 1916, which in this case was highly successful in establishing and maintaining a ranching and farming community.

When Oakes discusses the Ontiberos homestead, she examines the relationship between material remains recorded at the site and the society and economy that left these remains (Oakes 1983:3).

Hannaford (1981:105) also lists three objectives for the study of the Ontiberos homestead:

- (1) Subsistence. What was the nature of subsistence on the site? Can this be deduced from the archeological record? Was the land put to agricultural use?
- (2) Settlement. What factors led to the use of the area when it was traditionally and best used for stockraising?
- (3) Material Goods. Do artifact patterns allow for a definition of variability within a homestead pattern applicable to eastern New Mexico? What does such variability reflect in terms of local and regional links to the territorial and national economy?

2c. *The Public Domain.* The research question here has to do with national policies for dealing with public lands, and how these are reflected in individual sites.

The federal government, acting on the authority of Article IV, Section 3 of the United States Constitution, implemented a system for transferring public land to private ownership. Between 1820 and 1860, Congress sold public land for cash. This system, however, was exploited by corrupt public officials and favored buyers and investors. Representatives of the western states

petitioned Congress to grant land to new settlers in return for services rendered (Wentworth 1948:494).

In 1841 Congress passed the Preemption Act. Under its terms, any head of household over 21 years of age could file a claim for 160 acres of public domain (Dick 1954:20, 34). The claimant was required to build a dwelling on the land and to make proof of settlement at a land office, and to swear that he had never preempted before, and did not own 320 acres in any state or territory, and did not intend to settle the land in order to sell it. He was then allowed to buy the land at a minimum approved price, usually \$1.25 per acre. The Preemption Act, however, was also subject to widespread fraud and abuse.

Congress at length established a new system under the Homestead Act of 1862. As we noted in Chapter 1, this happened after the Southern states, long opposed to a system of distribution of free public lands, had left the Union.

A broad question is the study of public domain and federal land policies, and the effect of these on westward expansion (Seaman 2000:8).

Seaman tells us that his two basic goals in the investigation of the Butcher-Wyatt site were the basic documentation and interpretation of historic events, and secondarily, the identification of critical sources of data for pattern recognition and quantification, and bringing out lines of future research (Seaman 2000:7). These broad goals could be relevant to the investigation of any homestead or ranch site. More narrowly, the issue of public domain and federal land policies and the effect of these on federal land policies is of special importance to federal and State land-managing agencies. Bear this in mind when you are working for any land-managing agency.

Seaman notes that historical archeology provides a testing ground for basic aspects of archeological methods.

Written and oral documentation often reflect specific contexts for past behavior which can be used as controls on site function, activity structure, group size, length of occupation, and other variable which interact to create the archeological facts we seek to understand. Basic definitions, which are not themselves subject to direct evaluation, can often be evaluated in terms of their accuracy and reliability through independent lines of data in historic sites archaeology. Although the actual dynamics of past human behavior and site formation processes cannot be systematically observed, methodological advances can nonetheless be made in areas of critical importance to historic sites archaeology (Seaman 2000:8).

Seaman also (Seaman 2000:11) discusses research questions relating to economy and demography: the function of the homestead in frontier town economics, the nature of the exchange of products and service between the homestead and the frontier town, the nature of homestead subsistence, the nature of population movements and other related issues (Seaman 2000:11).

The National Register deals with the issue of public domain and federal land policies, and the effect of these on westward expansion, under the heading "Law" (McClelland 1997:41), which it

defines as “the interpretation and enforcement of society’s legal code.” Was the property the subject of a General Land Office investigation that resulted in an interpretation of homesteading regulations? Is there an issue involving water law? We have mentioned (Chapter 1) the Wetherill homestead in Chaco Canyon, which was the subject of several GLO investigations.

3. Issues in American Prehistory and History

3a. History and Prehistory. How and to what extent is it possible to compare historic occupation and land use, as documented by the homestead or ranch, with the prehistoric occupation of the same site or vicinity? As you know, evidence of prehistoric occupation will frequently be recorded while documenting the ranch or homestead.

Archeologists working in the Southwest have often noted short-term occupations of homestead-like features that are part of the ancestral Pueblo adaptation of New Mexico. Individual farmsteads or farmhouses are a well-known feature of Puebloan society.

These homestead-like features have been known for some time. “A unique feature of the antiquities of the Jemez Valley are the ruins of small stone houses that are encountered by the explorer at every turn in the tributary valleys, on the steep slopes of the plateaus, and scattered over the upper surfaces of the wooded table lands” (Holmes 1905:211).

Elliott (1991:45) thinks that people lived in the large pueblos in winter and dispersed to the field houses (one to four room structures) in the frost-free season to harvest, plant and tend crops using a variety of techniques for managing precipitation and runoff. In the late fall they returned to the large pueblos (Scheick 1996: Vol. 1, 221).

An example of this kind leads to the question: What can observable patterns in homestead occupation and abandonment tell us about pre-contact pueblo settlement and abandonment of small, arguably single family structural sites? Is there a real and useful correlation between a Jemez field house and a historic homestead?

3b. The Frontier. The concept of the frontier has been widely employed by historians since Turner (Turner 1893) to explain the development of national patterns of behavior. Turner proposed that environmental constraints experienced by American settlers in the West caused them to develop distinctive traits peculiar to the frontier. He suggested that the frontier works a basic change in the social institutions and ideas of the people who found new communities in a frontier environment (Scheiber 1969:233); that human societies evolve by stages and that the frontier offers the student a social laboratory in which such stages may be observed (Scheiber 1969:233). Proceeding from these assumptions, Turner offered several hypotheses: that free land was so abundant on the American frontier that it had a transforming influence on those who took it up; that there was a distinctive American character, psychological, political and social (Scheiber 1969:233); that the distinguishing features of the American national character were those that the frontier environment called forth; that the identity between frontier traits and American national traits was no accident, but was called forth by the transmission of the frontier experience to the society as a whole; and that the process of social change on each frontier was essentially the same as on all the rest (Scheiber 1969:234).

Other historians have criticized this hypothesis (Webb 1931; Scheiber 1969; Billington 1974).

Webb (1931) phrases his research questions with what we would now consider extraordinary breadth. Among others: what were the effects of the great plains on the Anglo-American (Webb 1931:486)? Why was the west considered lawless (Webb 1931:496)? Why is the west politically radical (Webb 1931:502)? What has been the effect of the great plains on women (Webb 1931:506)? What has been the meaning of the great plains in American life (Webb 1931:507)? Despite this breadth, it is possible to relate these questions to the current research issues – politics, economy, demography etc. – that we have talked about here.

Scheiber follows up the early work of Turner and the highly influential “Turner Thesis.” Billington (1974:25) has it that a frontier is “a geographic region adjacent to the unsettled portion of the continent in which a low man-land ratio and unusually abundant, unexploited natural resources provide an exceptional opportunity for social and economic betterment to the small-property individual.”

Oakes (1983:1) examines a homestead “within the context of territorial, economic and social parameters of the American frontier of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.”

Seaman discusses the frontier phenomenon and the interaction of two or more distinct human groups (Seaman 2000:9).

This category is dealt with by the National Register under the heading “Exploration and Settlement” (McClelland 1997:41). Exploration and settlement are defined as “the investigation of unknown or little-known regions; the establishment and earliest development of new settlements or communities (McClelland 1997:41).”

3c. Agriculture. Agriculture is the process and technology of cultivating soil, producing crops, and raising livestock and plants (McClelland 1997:40).

All ranches and homesteads were agricultural enterprises. What was the specific nature of the enterprise in the case of the site being investigated? If a ranch, was it a cow/calf operation, a yearling operation, both or other? Did it change over time? Did it succeed or fail in the long term? In the case of a homestead, was the homestead part of a larger family or extended family operation? In such a case, how did the members of the family cooperate? What was the relationship of the ranch or homestead to other operations, to the towns or centers of population in the region, to the transportation network – roads, trails, railroads?

In answering such questions, the investigator may draw a picture of the regional economy, leading to the next area of research.

3d. Economics. Economics is the study of the production, distribution and consumption of wealth; the management of monetary and other assets (McClelland 1997:40).

Material goods that can be documented on the site are always a central concern of archeological investigation. Frequently asked questions are:

Do artifact patterns on the site allow for a definition of variability within, say, a regional pattern? What can we learn about local and regional links to territorial and national economic systems (Hannaford 1981:105)?

Can any changes in artifact type or distribution that be explained by a change in the ethnic, religious or socioeconomic classification of the inhabitants?

“From 1850 to 1900, the major impetus to American economy was the process of industrialization brought about by important technological advancements, an expanding resource base, and an increasing accumulation of capital” (Oakes 1983:24). Can a given technological stage be discerned in the site? For example, are the structures composed of hand-hewn timbers, or of sawn lumber? If the latter, can we learn where the lumber came from? Does the site have a well? Was the well hand-dug or drilled? Is the means of raising the water to the surface (whether a bucket, a pump or other means) still present?

If the site is a homestead, was it proved up and occupied for a relatively long time, or sold almost immediately (see Stein 1981:100)? Was the homestead the inception of a larger operation by the same owner, or did it change hands and thus contribute to the development of a larger operation – say a ranch – by someone else (see Witkind 2001:9)? Are we witnessing the phenomenon of grubstaking – the use of dummy entrymen to enable a speculator to file on several homesteads (see Gates 1963:35)?

Transportation networks – e.g. cattle trails and railroads – are a part of this issue. Five railroads established transcontinental connections between 1869 and 1893 (Barrera 1979:37). The railroads fostered further development. Access to them was critical to the success of many agricultural operations. The research question is: how does the establishment and development of a ranch relate to a military survey and road, or other transportation feature?

Does the site give evidence of specialized economic activity (see Curriden 1981:4)?

To what extent was the operation – ranch or homestead – self-sufficient? How much did it rely on bought goods? What household items were made on the place? How and to what extent did the operation rely on a regional or national economic network?

Was the operation speculative, for example, a homestead that was sold immediately on proving up (Gates 1963, 1968)?

How did a railroad facilitate the development of a ranch or homestead? More generally, what was the nature of historic access to the site?

Is there a relationship to a local or regional economic entity such as a grange or union? Is there a known relationship to any other entity, such as a lodge or fraternal organization?

3e. Demography. There are several research questions under this heading. One has to do with migration. Billington suggests that this is a matter of repelling and attracting factors (Billington 1974:27). Repelling factors include lack of economic success, changing modes of subsistence, catastrophic events, population pressure, and social or political incompatibility. Attracting factors include economic or social betterment, improved health, or simply the desire for change. Downing (1979:160) tells us that migration patterns are symptomatic of a nation's economic strategy and are not causal.

Discuss the origins of the homesteaders, whether in other states and regions or in other parts of New Mexico. Discuss their previous occupations if known. There may have been a stairstep migration from areas – e.g. Kansas, Colorado, where public lands filled up after one generation.

Another demographic question is that of age, sex and family composition. Was the homestead claimant a husband with a family, a single woman, a woman with children? Artifacts on the site may be related to the age and sex of the occupants. Family size and status are common research questions.

The issue of growth and decline is prominent in the literature. For example: “The role of homesteading in the extremely rapid economic and demographic growth and decline of Tucumcari during the first fifteen years of its existence was investigated through the collection and analysis of archaeological and primary historical data” (Seaman 2000:iii).

How did population grow in a given region, and how was it distributed? How did the failure of individual homesteads affect population and population distribution?

The matter of ethnicity is a common research question. “Some of the patterns of variability that are present on the Ontiberos Site may be due to the ethnic affiliation of the site occupants” Oakes comments (Oakes 1983:4).

The National Register lists “ethnic heritage” as a category of significance, with subcategories: Asian, Black, European, Hispanic, Native American Pacific Islander, or Other.

All ranches and homesteads recorded to date (in the New Mexico Cultural Resources Information System maintained by the Historic Preservation Division) have a primary ethnicity, e.g. Anglo/ Euro-American, Hispanic, Navajo, Apache. The way in which ethnicity relates to or conditions land use and subsistence is a basic research question.

3f. Social History. The National Register defines social history as “the history of efforts to promote the welfare of society; the history of society and the lifeways of its social groups” (McClelland 1997:41).

Consider the possibility of using historical documentation to test conclusions drawn from archeological investigation and analysis. See further in Chapter 5: Procedures.

Oakes (1995:117) says that a detailed examination of the lives of the owners of the site (Pigeon's Ranch) has given us some understanding of their “social milieu” – that the two men

are “representative of middle-class landowners of their time in rural New Mexico.” Note that information about the men derives mainly from published and unpublished documents, as well as through archeological testing and survey to determine the nature, extent and use of the property.

Oakes points out that archival records, oral histories and photographic documents can be measured against the archeological record to give a higher level of understanding than would be possible with the historical data alone (1995:117). See section below regarding oral history.

Curriden (1981:5) makes contradictions among archival, informant and archeological data a research question. Comparison of archival sources to the artifact record is a common research question (see Wozniak and Eschman 1983:21).

3g. Religion. Religion is an aspect of social history (see for example Vogt 1955:161-164). The discussion of religious affiliations leads to a discussion of how factions work in the community, and to what extent individualism is tolerated or encouraged. This, however, is a background question – it is not likely that the site being investigated will answer such questions.

Most ranches and homesteads have religious associations, but these are usually not the elements of primary significance in the site. An evident exception is State Register Site 135 (Church of the Immaculate Conception and Campo Santo at Gallegos Ranch, Harding County) where the religious association is central to the site’s importance. See the matter of religion as described by Thelma Cone Childers (p. 40). This is a more typical situation, in which religion is part of the history of the community without being specifically significant to the site itself).

Was the rancher or homesteader a member of a particular religious group, and if so, how did that membership affect or define his or her relations with neighbors or the development of a community or region?

To be eligible to the National Register of Historic Places, a religious property must have architectural, historical or artistic significance apart from its religious meaning – that is, it must be judged on secular grounds (Savage and Pope 1997:26)

3h. Special (e.g.) catastrophic events. The flu epidemic of 1918, the Great Depression, and the Dust Bowl, among others, are frequently mentioned as reasons why people lost lands or homesteads. They are also mentioned as reasons for settlement (see for example Ayres 1993:7). Ayres notes that Charles Brown decided to homestead because he had lost everything in the Depression; the experience of the Browns was part of the last phase of homesteading in the 1920s and 30s.

MEASURING COMMUNITY ATTITUDES

When time permits, you can measure community attitudes through a series of interviews or an oral history project.

Oral history is a means by which a community may write its own history, rather than conceding history to professionals. A series of interviews may produce a community consensus

about the place (homestead or ranch) that is your subject. However, this will probably not be the sole basis for determining site significance.

ORAL HISTORY

In 1558 Franciscan missionary Bernardino de Sahagún questioned a dozen old Mexican Indian men believed to be well-versed in Aztec lore. The result of the interviews by Sahagún and his research assistants was a carefully organized body of text and 1,850 illustrations of the spiritual and physical aspects of Indian life in pre-Columbian Mexico.

Oral history as a discipline came into its own in the United States in the Depression years. Although historian Alan Nevins was central to this effort (see Dunaway and Baum 1984:27), Nevins himself rejected the idea that he had created the practice (see Dunaway and Baum 1984:27) saying that oral history had become a patent necessity and would have sprung to life in a dozen places, under any circumstances.

The main product of an oral history program is the CD or transcript of a live interview. See the bibliography for standard sources on oral history (Baum 1977; Briggs 1986; Dunaway and Baum 1984; Kyvig and Marty 1982, 1996,).

The oral history of homesteads and ranches is uniquely important to the establishment of the significance of the sites.

The materials of oral history – first-person accounts by living informants – are evidently more perishable than the documents of scholarly history. The oral history of rural New Mexico in the twentieth century will largely disappear within the next generation unless recorded as soon as possible.

The biographies included in Eidenbach and Morgan 1994 are of informants born eighty years ago and more. Of the fourteen interviewed, only three are alive at this writing.

An oral history program requires (1) identifying informants ; (2) preparation of questions based on previous interviews, documentary and other sources; (3) recording and transcribing the interviews; and (4) ancillary activities such as still and video photography. You must also identify a repository and arrange for the materials to be curated. It will greatly simplify matters if the informants sign releases permitting future use (informants will be reassured if this is non-profit only) of the interviews).

Use student resources. Contact university and community college departments and identify teachers and students with an interest in local and regional history. Relevant departments/fields include history, anthropology, journalism and folklore.

You will need expertise in recording interviews; still and video photography; and transcription of CDs. Interviewers may include undergraduates and graduate students. In a milieu as small as a region of New Mexico there is always the possibility of a personal or family relationship between the university program/personnel and the persons being interviewed.

A typical interview should include the following:

- the story of how the family arrived on/obtained the ranch or homestead;
- boundaries and physical description of the homestead or ranch;
- description of the family/extended family the informant remembers, with names, dates or approximate dates of birth and death;
- discussion of subsistence: what was raised/grown;
- discussion of annual and seasonal schedule of work;
- discussion of predators;
- discussion of significant episodes of weather – major storms, heavy winters; drought, etc.;
- significant dates (of special events, rodeos, celebrations, disasters, etc.) the workers on the homestead or ranch, whether family members, locals or transients;
- food, food preparation, and notable celebrations or feasts;
- sickness and medicine;
- religion;
- politics;
- and the status of the homestead/ranch – does it still exist? If it was sold, to whom? What has happened subsequently?

A final question, or one which may recur, is about who else should be interviewed, and why. You should also ask, with regard to any matter of opinion, whether there is or was a consensus in the community about it, or whether opinion is or was divided. Tread lightly, and be prepared with follow up questions that will enable you to move on readily from contentious issues that may threaten to derail your inquiry. It is often useful to leave a difficult point and return to it as opportunity offers.

You have a strong ally in practicing oral history: most informants want to be heard. Some may be well known in the community as sources of information, but others may never have been questioned carefully or listened to attentively before. Their stories are unique.

When an informant wants to talk because he believes he has unique information, this affords a good explanation for your wanting to carry out an interview. Beyond this general reason, you will encounter informants who were involved in extraordinary controversies – for example, the appropriation of lands for military use here in New Mexico. These may have an additional motive for agreeing to be interviewed: the desire to set the record straight.

You will often be able to confirm matters of fact through documents, e.g. newspapers, and formulate questions on the basis of the written record, but don't forget that "It is precisely the inadequacy or inaccessibility of contemporary documentation that that has generated the need for oral history" (Dunaway and Baum 1984:55). Oral history is no mere alternative to documentary history. It is its own discipline and has its own rules.

When time permits, you may want to conduct an initial interview without a digital recorder, to clarify the purpose of the investigation and to enable the informant to refresh his memories. Likewise, after you have recorded an interview you will more often than not want to conduct a

follow up, to resolve unanswered questions and to give your informant a second chance. It is a rare informant who does not say “I could have explained it better” and will not accept a chance to do so.

DATA NEEDS AND SOURCES - SUMMARY

Based on the above research questions, we can summarize the following data needs and data sources:

Data Need (1): architectural and artistic significance

Determining site eligibility, including National Register eligibility, requires analysis of design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and of the distinctive characteristics of a method of construction. It may require recognition and analysis of the work of a master and of high artistic values.

Principal sources, including the discussion of the National Register itself, are Ayres Seymour 1993; Baker 1985 and 1987; Boland 1991; Bunting 1964, 1974 and 1976; Gibbs et al. 1985; Pratt 1986; Pratt and Snow 1988; Pratt and Scurlock 1989; Robinson 1979; Urbanofsky 1973; Wilson, Hordes and Walt 1989.

Data Need (2): significant events and significant persons

All of the above overviews will address these questions. See the bibliography for more sources of historic information.

Primary sources of historical information are deeds and wills. Secondary sources include local histories and genealogical and historic cartographic sources. You should also review previous archaeological research in your area of study and in similar areas, models that predict historical site distribution, and archeological, architectural and historical site inventory files. You may also conduct informant interviews (see the discussion of oral history in this chapter).

With reference to particular areas of significance, see the overviews. See also the following:

- for discussion of history and prehistory, the history section of the bibliography;
- for agriculture, the history section of the bibliography and the overviews;
- for discussion of economics, Barrera 1979; Curriden 1981; Hannaford 1981; Oakes 1983; and Stein 1981;
- for discussion of demography, Billington 1974; Seaman 2000;
- for discussion of social history, Oakes 1995; Wozniak and Eschman 1983.
- for discussion of special events, Ayres 1993.

Data Need (3): cultural beliefs and practices, culture history, ethnicity, historic religious practices, and related practices and beliefs

These are the data needs for interpretation of traditional cultural properties. See Cormier 1994; Deutsch 1987.

Data Need (4): land use

These are the data needs for the interpretation of historic landscapes. Again, the regional overviews produced by the Historic Preservation Division are main sources. See also Carlson 1990; Gates 1963 and 1968; McClelland et al. 1989.

Data Need (5): Ages and Dates

Use the regional overviews. See also Curriden 1981.

Data Need (6): physical evidence, artifacts and features

These are the data need for interpretation of historic archeological properties.

Use the regional overviews. See also Levine 1989; Oakes 1995; Stein 1981 and Townsend 1993.

Data Need (7): Environmental Considerations

These include climate, physiography and geology, vegetation and topography. See Humphrey 1987. For overviews of geomorphology and geology see Theis 1942.

Data Need (8): Land Use, Settlement and Subsistence

See the bibliography, in particular the history section. See also Thornthwaite 1941, Ward, Abbink and Stein 1977 and Weber 1992. See again the regional overviews, in particular Pratt and Scurlock 1989.

Data Need (9): The Public Domain

See homestead records. Review Chapter 5, in particular the discussion of pre-field research. See also Hawkins 2007.

General sources for all areas of significance are:

- The historical indexes and serial registers of the Bureau of Land Management, Santa Fe. See Chapter 5;
- The homestead records on file in the State Office of the Bureau of Land Management in Santa Fe and in Washington, D.C.;

- The Desert Land Entry Register (Record Group 49, Records of the Bureau of Land Management, New Mexico State Office, and Denver Federal Records Center, Lakewood, Colorado);
- Deed records, which are to be researched in the relevant county courthouses (see Appendix C);
- The census records of the United States. These are available in the New Mexico State Library;
- The county assessment rolls, which are available in the New Mexico State Archives and in the County courthouses (see Appendix C).;
- County and State tax records, which are on file in the County courthouses. The New Mexico State Library has copies.
- Lease agreements, which are filed in the County courthouses;
- Obituaries. The newspapers containing these are filed in public libraries throughout the State (see Appendix C).

Sources of broad underlying value are: Anonymous 1892; Bradfute 1975, and Conover 1923.



Kemp 1910 (LA 68083) is on BLM land within the Mesita Blanca WSA just south of Zuni Salt Lake. The Kemps applied for the homestead in 1910 and relinquished it in 1914.

3

Physical Features

This chapter is a list and analysis of significant physical features, artifacts, characteristics and settings of historic ranches and historic homesteads in New Mexico. This will be a checklist of features, artifacts and characteristics that the surveyor should look for. We have listed 31 possible features, but this list should not be considered exhaustive.

We will also discuss boundaries and how they may be established. A homestead, for example, has a legal boundary, but this may not be – probably is not – coterminous with the boundary of the significant property.

PHYSICAL FEATURES ON HOMESTEADS AND RANCHES

This list derives from the homesteads and ranches actually entered in the New Mexico Cultural Resources Information System (NMCRIS). As of August, 2007, there were 126 listed sites identified as homesteads and 74 sites identified as ranches. We will call this the database. Of course it has been added to since then and continues to grow every day, but we will use it here as a basis of discussion of features and their relative frequency.

This database shows significant overlap between homesteads and ranches. As we have noted, the two are not distinct phenomena. Four of the listed sites identified as ranches are described as containing homesteads. The TJ Ranch Homestead (LA 8675) is in both databases. The Cooper Ranch or Balok Homestead (LA 87665) is in both databases. LA 127581 in Rio Arriba County (the Herrera Homestead or Gomez Ranch) is in both databases. LA 133012 in San Juan County (the Martin Homestead or Old Rock Ranch) is also in both databases.

LA 37043, the Don Lee Homestead in Otero County, is also identified as a ranch. LA 82032, the Martin Ranch in Sierra County, is also referred to as a homestead. The Strang Ranch (LA 87207) in Catron County incorporates several homesteads. The Beasley Ranch (LA 97462) in Doña Ana County, is described as “primarily a homestead” that was also leased to miners. The Demetrio Lefebre Homestead, patented in 1920, became part of the Duran Ranch (LA 152156).

The numbers offered by the database need to be taken with some reservations. For example, as noted below, 52 corrals and corral complexes are referenced in the homestead database, but it is unlikely that any homestead could have been occupied without the construction of at least one corral. Many features may have been salvaged or torn down.

The homestead laws required actual residence, which meant a house or dugout, and actual cultivation. There was never any legal requirement for the features or improvements on a ranch. In practice, ranch and homestead features proved to be very similar. We have not found any ranch feature that does not also appear on a homestead, nor any homestead feature that does not appear on a ranch, except as discussed below – none of the homesteads in the database has a grave on it, nor does any homestead site include a church. Significant differences have more to do with the frequency of features relative to the site type: for example, dugouts are more common on homesteads than on ranches.

Homesteads and ranches are identified in the database with specific ethnicities: Anglo / Euro-American (which for convenience we will call AEA), Hispanic, Apache, and Navajo.

The great majority of the features listed here are in the 1993 NMCRIS User's Guide (see Bibliography), but some are not – this will be noted.

1. Main house or structure - homestead

A homestead house still standing is relatively uncommon. The database refers to 18 “extant” – that is, substantially intact – houses on the 126 homesteads recorded. It also refers to 17 standing log cabins.

The extant house at LA 8675 is described as “stone with floors of concrete and adobe.” The house at LA 103381 is described as an L-shaped three-room adobe plaster house. The house at LA 102076 is described as a sandstone masonry structure. At LA 97245, LA 37041, LA 37178 and LA 37221, there are wood frame houses. LA 37043 has a rock house as well as a house foundation of two rooms with rock and plaster walls. LA 37214 has a wood and stone house. LA 47515 has a one-room, shaped sandstone house. LA 49653 has an extant house, described as a historic four-room homestead. LA 51099 has an extant rock and adobe house (however, at the time of recording in 1994 the house was being scavenged for materials). LA 107134 contains a log house with a porch. LA 54608 had a house (it burned when electricity was installed and a penny was put in the fusebox). LA 114729 has a house of adobe and milled lumber. It is noted that there is a stone house in an unrecorded portion of the site of LA 122232. The extant house at LA 135879 is a “large masonry complex.”

In recording a house, you should note the roof type. The roof is the special feature that requires the use of the HCPI (Appendix B). The roof should be recorded on the HCPI Form 2, Section 9: whether flat, gabled, hipped, pyramidal, shed, etc. The floor type (packed earth, wood, other) and the heat source (whether a stove or fireplace) should be documented when recording a house.

The house on a homestead typically replaced the dugout as the main dwelling. It was often built from scavenged materials from elsewhere, e.g. the nearest town. The house may have been disassembled and reassembled, sometimes incorporating two or more original structures, or it may have been hauled intact, on skids (Pratt 1986:118).

On many homesteads the initial dugout and the shack that followed it were followed in turn by a more substantial dwelling, often of frame construction. Some of these houses were suggested by Farmers' Bulletins, including Hill (1906) and Betts and Humphries (1920).

1a. Main house or structure – ranch

The most common feature of the recorded ranches is a standing or extant house. There are no fewer than 100 on the 74 sites listed in NMCRIS.

The extant houses are associated with the various ethnicities – Anglo / Euro-American, Hispanic, Navajo, Apache. They meet various criteria of significance – by and large, not architectural. The John Chisum Ranch house (LA 9060) is significant for its association with its owner, who is significant in the history of ranching and agriculture. The house that is a feature of LA 46633 was designed by John Gaw Meem, New Mexico's best-known architect, and has specific architectural significance. LA 49315 is Pigeon's Ranch, and has historic significance for its association with a major Civil War battle. The Oliver Lee Ranch house is a feature of LA 50102. The site is significant both for its association with Lee, who is significant both as a rancher and agriculturalist and for his association with historic events. The site of the John Prather Ranch house is a feature of LA 101138. The house was bulldozed by the U.S. Army after Prather's confrontation with Army personnel (when he refused to leave his ranch when it was taken by the government to become part of the White Sands Missile Range) and his subsequent eviction. This episode is central to the novel Fire on the Mountain by Edward Abbey, giving the site specific literary significance – an unusual criterion, as we noted in Chapter 2. Prather is buried here (see below for notes on graves). LA 137527 is the foreman's house on the Frank Bond Ranch, now Valles Caldera National Preserve, and accordingly is significant in the history of New Mexico agriculture and in the history of conservation as well.

The recorded types of house construction include adobe, log, board and batten, and stone masonry.

Pratt (Pratt 1986:109) notes that in southeastern New Mexico a ranch headquarters usually consisted of a main ranch house, a bunkhouse, outbuildings such as a barn or tackroom, a corral, and a windmill and/or stock tank. Sheep ranching headquarters, he adds, resemble those of cattle ranches, although the corrals differ, and sheep dips or vats are sometimes present. Sheep camps were temporary, and may exhibit the remains of tent sites and hearths.

Pratt also notes (Pratt 1986:112) that ranches in the Pecos Valley tend to be more complex than those on the llano to the east:

Although ranchers often started out in humble dwellings, such as the stone dugout built in the 1870s by Robert Casey (later the Flying H Ranch), as the ranching operations got larger so did their headquarters. Possibly due to the precedent of the Hispanic building tradition in the Pecos River Valley, houses often consisted of rooms constructed of adobe or stone and arranged in a single file, linear (John Henry Tunstall House) or L-shaped plan (Diamond A Ranch Headquarters). Later houses incorporated Territorial style details such as metal gable and hipped roofs, shed-roofed porches, and gabled dormers (C Bar Ranch, 1886). In addition, the characteristic floor plan of the Territorial Style – central passage with flanking rooms – was adopted at this time [Gibbs et al. 1985:99-114] (Pratt 1986:112-113).

Architectural materials may include adobe, logs or posts (juniper, cedar, other), sawn lumber, sawn timber, hewn timber, sheet metal, plywood, asphalt shingle, metal wire, or concrete.

2. House foundation – homestead

The most common feature on a homestead is a remaining stone house foundation. The database refers to 56 foundations. Most are of houses, although a few may have belonged to other types of structure.

LA 16749 has a rock house foundation; LA 32057 has a sandstone and mud house foundation. LA 32061 has a “blocky native sandstone” house foundation with walls standing 6” high. LA 73231 has a house foundation with cemented coursed masonry. LA 105094 has a house foundation of roughly squared caliche with mud mortar. LA 111298 has a house foundation with packed clay floor. LA 66922 has a cobble, gravel and adobe house foundation, the adobe house is melted into a mound it also has a stone house foundation.

There may be no foundation. If there is a foundation it should be described – if none, this should be specified.

2a. House foundation – ranch

House foundations are also common on ranches; there are no fewer than 80 foundations on the 74 sites listed in ARMS. These are of various types – cut stone, adobe, cobble, and wet-laid caliche cobble.

3. Dugout - homestead

On the 126 sites in the database, there are a possible 38 dugouts. They are of various types of construction.

LA 16806, 50323 have “stone lined” dugouts. LA 32057 has a “6 x 8 rubble pile with central depression.” Six of the identified dugouts are also identified as possible root cellars. Comment on LA 66922 has it that “site may represent a 2-generation homestead with houses replacing original dugout domiciles” – something that is common in the literature. The dugout at LA 103094 is “roughly squared, unmortared caliche on back wall.” The dugout at LA 103381 is a “wooden superstructure covered by dirt.” The dugout at LA 107134 was evidently a log structure. The dugout at LA 119093 was a “cut square in a hill slope.” A dugout at LA 138296 was constructed of limestone slabs and milled lumber (this site is described as Hispanic, dating approximately AD 1911- 1940). Another dugout on this site was constructed of milled lumber with a cut sheet metal roof.

The first fixed dwelling structure on a homestead was usually a dugout, either fully below surface or half buried. Full dugouts were entered through a doorway that was sometimes recessed and sometimes had a covered, triangular entrance structure. A dugout was commonly roofed with some form of wooden beam construction, which was then covered with branches which were in turn covered with grasses or sod. Most dugouts faced south and were on a slope. Dugouts were usually small – about 10 by 14 feet, although some had three or four rooms (Hinshaw 1976:125-126).

A dugout that is first built as a domicile may become a root cellar when the homesteader moves to a surface dwelling. A root cellar may also be built as such. The description of Site H-9 (Bureau of Land Management 1991:33) tells us that this structure has a sandstone steps and walls, roof beams of unpeeled Ponderosa pine into which fencing nails have been driven and bent to serve as hooks for produce, and shelves lining the walls.

3a. Dugout – ranch.

There are 11 dugouts in the database, which suggests that they are significantly less common on ranches than on homesteads. At least one (LA 98329) is specifically identified as having been a habitation, but seven are identified as root cellars, meaning that they may never have been habitations. LA 108145 is identified as an animal pen. One dugout (LA 49315) is lined with timber, and one (LA 87803) is constructed of rock.

4. Bunkhouse – homestead

“Bunkhouse” is not a feature defined in the NMCRIS User’s Guide. However, LA 37043 has a bunkhouse – the only such structure in the homestead database.

4a. Bunkhouse – ranch.

In the ranch database, in contrast, there are nine bunkhouses (at LA16808, 37043, 83571, 100001, 108148, 108154, 116361, 128690, and 148231).

5. Chimney – homestead

A chimney is necessarily part of a house. However, it merits individual description as to type and material. “Chimney” is not a feature listed in the NMCRIS User’s Guide.

LA 32057 has a kerosene lamp chimney LA 103482 has a flat stone slab and mud mortar chimney which is part of the ruins of a stone house. LA 112947 has a chimney and fireplace – not further described.

5a. Chimney – ranch

On the recorded ranches there are chimneys at LA 98700 and 97430. There is a kerosene lamp chimney at LA 97360 and a partially standing stone chimney at LA 114534.

6. Gate - homestead

“Gate” is not a feature listed in the NMCRIS User’s Guide.

LA 101576 has a gate (in a fence) not further described.

6a. Gate – ranch

LA 30201 has a corral gate. There is a wall with a gate at LA 102218 (AEA), and a corral gate at LA 97331 (AEA). LA 119959, identified as Hispanic, has wooden irrigation gates – part of a water control device.

7. Tent base - homestead

There is a tent base at LA 107434. This feature is a log and rock rectangle.

7a. Tent base – ranch

There are several tent bases at LA 86000 (Rayado Ranch) - the number is not stated.

8. Horno – homestead

There are several hornos or ovens in the homestead database. There is an horno at LA 50199 (a Navajo site), and hornos at LA 70028, LA 86254, another at LA 86643 (the Gomez homestead), another at LA 114720. These are all identified as Hispanic sites. There are two hornos on sites (LA 32957, LA118789) identified as Anglo / Euro-American.

The horno at LA 86643 is tuff block and adobe – this is the only horno whose materials are described. Typically an horno will be adobe, although in some cases, as here, an easily sculptured material such as tuff will also be used in the base.

8a. Horno – ranch.

There are several hornos on ranches: LA 40609 (Navajo) and LA 59315 and LA 60916 (AEA).

9. Bridge – homestead

There are three bridges in the database. A bridge at LA 66922 is associated with a railroad access road. There is a suspension foot bridge at LA 112944 (AEA). LA 135430 is the Homestead Crossing. This bridge was used to access the H.H. Brook Farm and its successor, the Los Alamos Ranch School, and was closed in 1943 for security reasons. The surveyor noted abutments of crude stonework.

9a. Bridge – ranch

There are several bridges in the ranch database. There is an adobe bridge across an arroyo at LA 46638 (this is the community of Los Ranchos. The adobes came from the village church, which was demolished by the then landowner). There is a bridge (not further described) on the Anglo / Euro-American ranch designated LA 55963. There are railroad bridges or remains of bridges on LA 79998, 103844 and 109427. There is a wood and cable bridge on LA 119521.

10. Garden plot - homestead

There is a grid garden fenced with barbed wire at LA 33214 (this site is described as Hispanic, possible occupied AD 1899-1942). At LA 107135 (identified as AEA) there is a grid garden, specified as a cactus garden. These are the only gardens identified in the database.

10a. Garden plot – ranch

LA 97462 has a fenced grid garden. LA 143421 also has a grid garden.

11. Livestock pen - homestead

“Livestock pen” is not listed in the NMCRIS User’s Guide. Nevertheless, the database contains ten sites at which animal pens have been identified.

At LA 37178 (AEA), there is a corral with stock pens. At LA 86354, there is a lambing pen. At LA 107135 (AEA), there is a chicken pen. At LA 114729 (the Sandoval Family homestead, occupied perhaps 1890-1940), there is a log, plank and wire livestock pen. At LA 118934 (a Hispanic homestead), there are possible animal enclosure pens. At LA 119093 (a Hispanic homestead), there are rock alignments that may be corral and pen sides. At LA 125049, there is a lambing pen. At LA 127065 (AEA), there are two pens, not further described. At LA 140038 (Anglo), there are four interconnected wire and wood pens. At LA 144519 (the Jesus Flores homestead), there is a pole and wire small animal pen.

11a. Livestock pen – ranch

There is a post horse pen on LA 71166 (a site identified as Hispanic). There are an unknown number of lambing and goat pens at LA 76372 (the Henderson Goat Ranch). There is a pen and corral complex at LA 82032 (a site identified as Anglo / Euro-American). There are shipping pens at LA 82890 (AEA). There is a chicken pen at LA 100001 (AEA). There is a corral with internal pens at LA 103406 (AEA), and lambing pen at LA 104048 (AEA). There are rock stock pens at 97430 (AEA), a fenced pen at LA 97360 (AEA), stock pens at LA 110873 (AEA), rock stock pens at LA 114150 (AEA), a possible animal pen at LA 116353 (AEA), sheep pens at 116360 (AEA), goat and sheep pens at LA 116361 (AEA), corrals and pens at LA 117387 (AEA), and a corral or animal pen at LA 152156 (Hispanic).

12. Outhouse - homestead

Outhouses were common features, since indoor plumbing was a rarity on ranches and homesteads. Standing or collapsed structures and shallow depressions may indicate an outhouse. Latrines often contain artifacts – cloth, leather, wood, seeds, and household items. These are valuable both because such items most often do not survive when deposited on open ground, and because the vault of a privy has stratigraphy which can show how the ranch or homestead changed over time.

Only 19 outhouses are identified in the homestead database (and one of these is “identified ethnographically – whereabouts unknown.” LA 37041 has an outhouse. LA 103381 has a one-seater board and batten construction. Another outhouse is described as “a pile of masonry rubble” another has left only “a limestone slab base.” Another is represented by a “square depression with standing post bases.”

12a. Outhouse - ranch

There are some 20 outhouses in the database. Most are wooden structures. One of these (LA 37549) is a cribbed juniper log structure,

13. Well - homestead

LA 16749 has a “well- rock lined.” Several wells are associated with cisterns. The well at LA 37221 is lined with concrete. The well at LA 54346 has precast concrete pipes. The well at LA 66022 (an AEA homestead) has a concrete slab with pump and motor mounts. LA 67808, an AEA homestead originally occupied 1899-1907, but which then became a part of the Sacramento Forest Reserve and was occupied by the U.S. Forest Service until about 1980, has a capped well. LA 73231 (AEA) has a well that is filled with boards and tin sheeting. At LA 99634 (AEA), occupied about 1933-1942, there is a metal pipe well hole. LA 103381 (the Michel family homestead) has a well with a pump. The well head at LA 107134 (the Crossman homestead) has a galvanized tin sleeve. LA 110735 (the Wladar homestead) has a well hole with rock footings. LA 113692 (AEA) has an abandoned cement-encased well hole. The well at LA 115067, a Hispanic homestead occupied approximately 1911-1926, is lined with cribbed logs. LA 119094 is Hispanic, occupied approximately 1880-1935, and has a well constructed of coursed masonry. The Bail E. Hunt homestead (LA 131255) has a “tin pipe sticking out of the ground.” Similarly LA 131256, the Gilbert Fisher homestead, has a “vertically standing 10” diam. pipe surrounded by four posts.” LA 138296, the José Montoya y Luna homestead, dating approx 1911-1940, has a cylindrical metal well with two standing posts and a lumber frame. LA 138621, dating approximately 1880-1960, is an AEA homestead. The well is a “17” diameter casing with a concrete base.” LA 144259 is the Jesus Flores homestead, dating approximately 1912-1945. The well is “milled wood and plank w/capped well head.” LA 146659 and 146660 are both AEA homesteads (approx 1915-1940) and both have wells with metal casings.

A shallow hole may indicate a well that failed to reach water. Such features should be recorded.

As we will note in Chapter 5: Procedures, the State Engineer Office maintains a database of wells that may be cross-referenced to a well recorded in the field.

13a. Well - ranch

There are about 30 references to wells in the database (but some are simply the place name). A well is to be found on almost every site. The well at LA 49315 (AEA) is “sandstone block lined, w/curbing at top.” The well at LA 82032 (AEA) includes a standing derrick. A well at LA 83571 (the Dolores Ghost Town in Santa Fe County) has a mortared rock lining. The well at LA

100705 (AEA) is a “1’ diam. metal pipe in the ground.” The well at LA 101135 (AEA) is a depression with a dry-laid sandstone wall around it. There is a hand-dug well at 108155 (AEA). Several wells are described as covered with a concrete slab or cap.

14. Cistern – homestead

The NMCRIS User’s Guide does not list “cistern.” It does list “water catchment device” and states that this includes cisterns. The database, however, names cisterns specifically.

A possible 15 cisterns are recorded in the database. There is a stone-lined cistern at LA 16806. There is a cistern associated with the well at LA 37041 (AEA). There is a stone cistern at LA 37241. There are two concrete cisterns at LA 37220 (AEA). There are cement and brick cisterns at LA 66922, an AEA homestead. The concrete and stone cistern at the Marshall homestead (LA 120715) is estimated to be two meters deep. The cistern at the Block homestead (LA 102076) is constructed of basalt, mortar and cement. The cistern at LA 104234 (Trujillo homestead - Hispanic) is capped with a concrete slab. The cistern at LA 144619 (the Jesus Flores homestead - Hispanic) is constructed of sandstone and concrete and is 15 feet deep.

14a. Cistern – ranch

There are some 34 cisterns recorded on ranches in the database.

There is a concrete cistern at LA 30640. There are two cisterns at LA 35393 (AEA). There is a cistern at LA 37043 (AEA). There is a cistern at LA 67463, described as a recent Hispanic site. There is a cistern at LA 83571 (the Dolores Ghost Town or Real de Dolores in Santa Fe County), and a cistern at LA 87803 (AEA). There is a cistern at LA 100001 (AEA) with a short steel tower for a wind generator. There is a concrete cistern at LA 100481 (AEA), but it is noted that the log cabin, pumphouse and cistern at this site were completely destroyed by bulldozing in 1993. There are a number of cisterns recorded by Human Systems Research, Inc. on AEA ranches on White Sands Missile Range: these include LA 102218, 103779, 103781, 81692 (the Hardin Ranch) and 97401. LA 108143 (the Hunter Ranch on White Sands Missile Range) has a concrete cistern dated 1914. The 7 x 7 Ranch headquarters on White Sands Missile Range (LA 108748) has three cisterns. At the headquarters of the Cicero Green Ranch on White Sands Missile Range (LA 108631) there is a depression that may have been a cistern. There are two cisterns at LA 116331, the Hunter Long Well Ranch headquarters on White Sands Missile Range. LA 116336, the Dick Gilliland Ranch headquarters on White Sands Missile Range, has two cisterns. The Woolf Brothers Ranch headquarters (LA 116353) on White Sands Missile Range has a concrete cistern. The Ritch Ranch headquarters (LA 116357) on White Sands Missile Range also has a concrete cistern, as does LA 116361 (the Floyd Crockett Sheep Ranch headquarters on White Sands Missile Range). There is a metal cistern at the Bruton Ranch House (LA 88351) also on White Sands Missile Range. There several cisterns on AEA ranches on Fort Bliss as well: LA 97401 (the Bassett Ranch), LA 97411 (the Old Wright Place), LA 114150 (the headquarters of the Beasley Ranch – this is a concrete cistern).

At the Forked Lightning Ranch House (LA 119051 - AEA) in San Miguel County there is a cistern. There is a poured concrete cistern at LA 127047 – this is not a ranch, but rather a feature of the Denver and Rio Grande Western Railroad.

15. Tank, water catchment or reservoir– homestead

As stated previously, a tank or watch catchment is closely related to or a more general reference than a cistern.

Pratt (1986:244) notes that homesteaders frequently had to haul water with a team, wagon and barrels from a reliable water hole or spring – which may or more likely may not be on the homestead itself.

Twenty-seven tanks and groups of tanks are referred to in the database. Most are earth construction, but there are also several brick and cement cisterns, cement-lined tanks, a masonry water storage trough at LA 76115 (the Alamito Spring Homestead in Socorro County), a metal water storage tank on a wooden support structure at 87665, and galvanized steel stock tanks at LA 88082. The database indicates that there is no precise distinction between a tank and a cistern - several surveyors appear to use tank and cistern interchangeably.

15a. Tank, water catchment or reservoir - ranch

There are 29 references in the database. Some are simply depressions, some are earthen tanks, some metal tanks, some concrete tanks, one a concrete cistern (at LA 30640). LA 87665 features a metal water tank on a wooden support structure. At LA 103406 there is a masonry tank. LA 81692 features a tank that is actually a sheep dip trough and another built specifically for swimming. A tank at LA 116331 is described as a wildlife tank. A concrete cistern or tank at LA 108943 has a date – 1914.

There are also ten references to water catchment devices. Some of these are concrete troughs, or metal cisterns, and at least one is a dirt tank.

Troughs of wood or concrete are a related phenomenon on ranches as well. LA 30201 (AEA) has a “trough w/ pipe inside.” At LA 30202 there is a cement trough. At LA 103406, the McNatt Ranch on Holloman Air Force Base, there was a “wood plank trough, destroyed.” However, at LA 81692, the Hardin Ranch on White Sands Missile Range, there is a “sheep dip trough” – for a purpose other than watering stock. LA 116360, the Sweetwater Well Ranch on WSMR, also features a trough for dipping sheep and a set of sheep pens.

There are a further 11 references to water control devices. One of these is a set of ditches and canals, several are dams, and one is a set of box culverts (LA 119159). The phrase is also used to refer to irrigation gates and cement pipe inlets.

Such water control devices – dams, ditches, spreaders etc. – even if not part of the site being recorded, should be noted if observed. Reservoirs are also referenced on ranches – there are four instances in the database.

16. Barn – homestead

Barns whether on homesteads or on ranches are not common on the plains and grasslands due to lack of forage. They are more likely to be found in river valleys.

Ten barns are referenced in the database. There is a tin and wood barn at LA 37041 (AEA). LA 104350 records a barn with a concrete foundation. There is a notched log barn at LA 30797 (Spearman homestead), and a barn at the Cordova homestead (LA 30799)

16a. Barn - ranch

There are 23 references in the database. The barns are on sites of Hispanic and AEA ethnicity. The materials used are variously adobe, rock cribbed log, frame and stone. A barn may be within the same structure with a shop or with a bunkhouse. The barn at LA 119959 (Hispanic) has a “pitched roof faced with corrugated tin.” The barn at the Berlier Ranch headquarters (LA 128690 - AEA) in Mora County is a Quonset roof with rock walls.

17. Corral - homestead

Corrals, chutes, pens are essential to a ranch or homestead operation and should be observable.

Fifty-two corrals and corral complexes are referenced in the database. Various materials and methods of construction are recorded. There is one instance of use of interconnecting sandstone boulders (LA 45616 – AEA). There is a sheep corral built of brush (LA 51099 – Navajo). There are five wood post corrals within the Hispanic component of LA 86254. A pole and wire corral is a feature of LA 102822 (AEA). The corral at LA 79832 (AEA) is post and rail construction. The corral at LA 107134 (AEA) is wood post and barbed wire construction. The corral at LA 86643 (the Gomez homestead) is cut into a bedrock cliff slope. The corral at LA 138296 (the Jose Montoya y Luna homestead) is constructed of cut posts, tree limbs and barbed wire.

17a. Corral - ranch

There are 59 references in the database to corrals and pen and corral complexes. The animals corralled are cattle, goats, sheep, and elk. Most corrals are wire and post or board and post, but construction is various. The corral that is a feature of LA 134982 is post, board, barbed wire and pipe. The corral at LA 141954 is sandstone cobbles and wire. The corral at LA 9051 (AEA) is masonry situated against the base of the caprock. The corral at LA 26993 is stone; that at LA 97430 is rock. The corral at LA 87636 is a feature of an elk pasture used in the period 1926-1938. This historic elk corral was intended to help reintroduce a species extinguished by hunters. Some corrals were still in use at the time of recording.

18. Fence - homestead

Twenty-four fences and fencelines are referenced. There is a brush fence on LA 107134 (the Crossman homestead in Catron County - AEA). Most are post and barbed wire.

Pratt notes (1986:243) that fencing of homesteads may be inhibited by traditional range practices.

18a. Fence - ranch

There are only 11 instances of fences in the database, which probably means simply that fences are typically not on the recorded site, but some distance away. Most of the recorded fences are on Anglo / Euro-American ranches. The AEA site that is part of LA 54042 (it also has prehistoric features) was probably a military staging area established after the Pancho Villa raids into New Mexico (Hidalgo County) in 1914, giving this site unusual historic (both international and military) importance. The site of the Martin Ranch in Sierra County (LA 82032) is partly defined by fences. LA 98700 is likewise partly defined by fences. LA 97462 has a fenced garden.

Although there are no drift fences in the database, drift fences were an important type used during the open range period to keep cattle from drifting from one ranch to another in search of grass and shelter during blizzards. In 1890-91 a drift fence was built west from the Texas line of the LFD Ranch, passing one mile north of Lovington, for a distance of 49 $\frac{3}{4}$ miles (Pratt and Scurlock 1989:113). A second drift fence was built 50 miles north of and parallel to the first (Pratt and Scurlock 1989:113).

Barbed wire fences and windmills ended the open range wherever they were introduced. Fences were usually 3-4 strands, later 5. Juniper posts were most common.

Sheep fences were four or six foot heavy gauge mesh, often buried up to 18 inches in the ground to repel predators (Bonney 1971:48-52).

19. Shed - homestead

There about 12 references to sheds in the database. One shed is log, one tin and wood. At least three are wood. Most are not described. There is a tin and wood shed on LA 37178.

19a. Shed – ranch

There are about 15 references in the database. LA 30211, 30202, 37039 and 37042 have tin sheds. Those at LA 35393 and 37043 are wood. A shed at LA 37043 is wood with a tin roof. LA76372 (the Henderson Goat Ranch) has goat sheds. The shed in LA 83571 (the Dolores Ghost Town) is built on stamp mill footings. The shed at LA 108231 (AEA) is constructed of milled wood and corrugated tin. The barn at LA 152156 (Hispanic) is a “loafing shed-type barn.” The shed at LA 103406 (AEA) is for corn. Several sheds are for wood storage. The shed at LA 108143 (AEA) housed a generator. The shed at LA 108145 (AEA) was for coal. The

shed at LA 37042 was a possible smokehouse. The sheds at LA 108155 (AEA) are goat shelters. There is a “shed roofed stone larder attached to house w/breezeway” at LA 100001 (the George McDonald Ranch in Socorro County) There is a “loafing shed type barn” at LA 152156 (Hispanic – the Duran Ranch in Mora County).

In most cases the use of the shed is not specified.

20. Road/trail – homestead

Roads and trails are essential to the understanding of homesteads and ranches. They are of various types: migrant roads, military roads and trails, railroads, freight lines/wagon roads - that is freighting with horses and teams - stage and mail lines, and cattle trails (Williams 1986:120-121). Ask yourself: what is the historic local and regional access to this site (see Williams 1986:118 ff.)?

There are about 25 references to roads and trails in the homestead database. Dirt roads and wagon trails are common features. Association with a railroad is rare, according to the database – there are only three instances, but this may simply mean that a railroad is not within the recorded site. You should investigate probable means of transportation, including roads, wagon roads, and railroads. A road can be documented in Section 7 (Physical Description) and Section 10 (Feature Data) of the LAB Site Record.

One trail referenced as a livestock trail, LA 135430, is the Homestead Crossing near modern Los Alamos. This is described as a homestead era road/trail used for seasonal transportation to farming areas. It is now a hiking trail.

20a. Road/trail - ranch

Numerous roads are referenced in the database. Most of them are modern intrusive features. There is a railroad track or bed within LA 83571. A road documented within LA 103401 may be an original ranch road, but the surveyor was not sure. A road on the Mills Orchard Ranch in Mora County – Kiowa National Grasslands (LA 141954) is a feature of the historic site. LA 103842, 103843, 103844 and 103846 are segments of the historic Denver and Rio Grande Western Railroad. LA 104204 is segment of El Paso and Southwestern Railroad line. LA 109357 is segment of Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe Railroad. Roads on LA 97331, 97647, 97682, 108141, 108154 and 109353 are features of the ranch.

21. Windmill – homestead

The self-governing windmill was invented in 1854. It faces into the wind and controls its speed. Windmills were at first hauled by wagon to ranches; later the railroad shipped them to the nearest town, where they were unloaded and freighted to the ranch. The motor and fan apparatus was assembled on the site and mounted on a derrick 25-30 feet tall. These were built of wood with braces. Metal derricks assembled from kits became available after 1900.

There are many types of windmills. The most common on New Mexico ranches were the Aerometer and the Eclipse, both manufactured by Chicago companies (Baker 1985, 1987; Burroughs and Dalley 1985; Wilson et al. 1989:183).

There are 13 references to windmills on homesteads in the database. There is also a windmill tower but no mill on LA 104988 (the Lindsay Homestead in Chaves County). Concrete bases and footings are noted in several cases.

21a. Windmill – ranch

There are 21 references in the database. Both wood and steel towers are noted. It is also noted that the metal windmill at LA 82032 “replaces the original homestead windmill.” At LA 108143 there are footings but no mill.

22. Irrigation ditch - homestead

Thirteen ditches are referenced in the database. Most are simple dirt ditches, but several recorded ditches are piped and/or concrete-lined. There is a ditch system on LA 61349 (AEA). The Beckett homestead (LA 104350) in Eddy County has an irrigation system with feeder ditches and headgates.

22a. Irrigation ditch - ranch

There is an irrigation ditch system at LA 22765 (the Chamisal Site or Los Ranchos Archaeological District). LA 46648 is also within Los Ranchos Archaeological District, and the same ditch system was recorded with this site. There are four ditches at LA 55963 (the 6A Ranch – AEA – in McKinley County). There are eight in the Valencia Ranch (LA 60916 – Hispanic). There is a ditch at LA 83571 (the Dolores Ghost Town or Dolores Ranch in Santa Fe County). There are two at the Rayado Ranch (LA 86000) in Colfax County. There is a ditch on LA 117553, the Emil Bibo Ranch in Cibola County. LA 117691 is the Rancho de Atrisco Drain in Bernalillo County, and LA 119959, the related Ranchos de Atrisco Ditch in Bernalillo County, has 4 irrigation ditch systems. The Mills Orchard Ranch (LA 131959) in Harding County has a ditch system.

23. Material stockpile - homestead

A stockpile is not a dump; it features one or two materials. In the four instances in the database, these are: logs, bricks, coal and sandstone rubble.

23a. Material stockpile – ranch

There is a building stone stockpile on LA 100001 (AEA) – the only such reference in the database. However, there are four “wood concentrations” in the database, including wood and lumber piles and a secondary deposit of railroad ties at LA 127592 (the Laney Ranch in Eddy County).

24. Dump, trash pit or midden - homestead

There are 36 dumps in the database. Dumps are extremely important because discarded and datable items considered to be trash may be found in them; such items may also be widely scattered, however. Such artifacts are important indicators of diet (cans, bones), health conditions (medicine bottles), and of the extent to which the inhabitants were self-sufficient (homemade items) or dependent on a regional or national economy (articles stamped or marked with places of origin). However, a trash dump may be at a great distance from the ranch or homestead habitation, especially after automobiles and trucks come into use, and it may be difficult to associate a dump with a habitation.

Note manufacturers' marks on the bases of ceramic plates, basemarks on glass bottles, and brand names on containers. See references in the Bibliography under *Artifact Identification*.

As noted, however, significant and diagnostic artifacts can appear anywhere on the site. These may include bottle fragments, square cut nails, cartridge casings, cans, buckets, metal stove parts, enamelware, sheet metal, barbed wire and car bodies.

24a. Dump - ranch

There are 11 references in the database. The trash pits and trash deposits referred to are all AEA. They are mostly mixed trash, but include a "bottle dump" at LA 97647 and two can dumps at LA97360. These are important for possible dates.

25. Mineshaft/tunnel- homestead

There are three tunnels in the database. One is a spring (water) control structure, and two are mineshafts (LA 141240, 101575). Here is a somewhat unusual circumstance: two homesteads were operated as mines.

25a. Mineshaft/tunnel – ranch

There is a mineshaft tunnel in LA 83571 (the Dolores Ghost Town in Santa Fe County), indicating that mining was one of the strategies employed by the people of the community. There are associated placer pits and adits. A mineshaft/tunnel is a feature of LA 89194 (McCauley Ranch Mine 1). There is a mineshaft tunnel on the Hal Cox Ranch (LA 108144) on the White Sands Missile Range. LA 114150, the Beasley Ranch on Fort Bliss, has a mineshaft/tunnel feature.

An escape tunnel has been documented on LA 50102 (the Oliver Lee Dog Canyon Ranch). It probably has to do with Lee's extraordinary life, which included highly public political conflicts and death threats directed at him by opponents. This unusual feature appears to contribute to a case for the application of National Register Criterion (B): association with the lives of persons significant in our past.

26. Outbuilding – homestead

“Outbuilding” is a common description in the homestead database. The NMCRIS User’s Guide defines an outbuilding as a structure separated from, but related to, the principal structure on a residential site. In many cases no function can be determined. Specific functions named are: root cellar (LA 30799, 145347), bunkhouse (LA 37043), shop or garage (LA 66922, 103381), chicken coop (LA 73231, 103381) treehouse (LA 107134), livestock pen (LA 114729), association with irrigation ditches (LA 114729), pumphouse (LA 127497). Construction is varied, including log, coursed masonry, and milled lumber.

26a. Outbuilding - ranch

“Outbuilding” is an even more common description in the ranch database and covers a wide range of structures. Again in some cases, no use can be determined. There is a bee hive (LA16808), nine bunkhouses (LA16808, 37043, 83571, 100001, 108148, 108154, 116361, 128690, 148231), two workshops (LA 46639, 103406) and two other sites described as “shop” (LA 35293) or barn and shop (LA 100001). There is a 1940s-1950s motel (LA 49315), a slaughterhouse (LA 50102), a smokehouse (LA 50102), at least ten chicken coops (LA 50102, 83571, 100135, 103406, 108143, 108148, 108631 [possible], 108537, 116338, 116360), a storehouse (LA 51479), a sheep dip (LA 55963), a set of goat sheds (LA 76372), four pump/engine houses (LA 83956, 100481, 100705, 103406), a saddle house (LA 103406), a cornshed (LA 103406), a granary (LA 103406), a possible barn (LA 1103781), an aerial tramway (LA 104039), some possible animal stalls (LA 108143), a dancehall (LA 108144), a grain elevator (LA 110538), a Route 66 attraction – a sort of menagerie, evidently (LA 138434) - and a set of eight camping cabins (LA 139967). These descriptions indicate the wide diversity of means of subsistence that have been and continue to be characteristic of ranches in New Mexico.

27. Hearth – homestead

Various hearths in the database are associated with prehistoric sites. Others are recent, probably hunter hearths. Several may be associated with the homestead. There are possible hearths on LA 114729, the Sandoval Family Homestead in Rio Arriba County. These hearths all appear to be extramural firepits, not features of structures.

27a. Hearth - ranch

There are 14 references in the database. LA 22765 (in Los Ranchos Archaeological District) is a Hispanic site dating back to the mid-eighteenth century. There are eight hearths on it. LA 30199 has a hearth “possibly recent military.” Several recorded hearths are features of prehistoric sites, and have nothing to do with the historic ranch sites, and several are more recent than the historic occupation. Some, like one on LA 142308, a Hispanic site, are historic. Again, these hearths all appear to be extramural firepits, not features of structures.

28. Trading post/mercantile – homestead

LA 113692 is the Johnson Homestead and is also the Johnson Trading Post. LA 122955 in Sandoval County, the Smelser Homestead, is also a trading post. LA51099, the White Horse Homestead in McKinley County, is also the Nakai Dan or Mexican Dan Trading Post.

28a. Trading post/mercantile – ranch

Three sites in the database are characterized as trading posts: the Tanner Ranch in San Juan County (LA 39134), the Burley Ranch in Socorro County (LA 47358), and Koslowski's Trading Post 86076 in San Miguel County (LA 86076). These are all categorized as Anglo/Euro-American sites.

29. Church/religious structure – homestead

No churches are listed in the database as associated with homesteads.

29a. Church/religious structure - ranch

There are churches at LA 83571 (the Dolores Ghost Town in Santa Fe County); LA 714, in Los Ranchos Archaeological District in Bernalillo County; LA 6860, El Ranchito in Sandoval County; LA 8976, Ranchos de Taos in Taos County; LA 37549, Los Luceros Hacienda in Rio Arriba County; and LA 39935, La Cueva Historic District in Mora County. However, these are ranching communities, not individual properties, and the church has no direct functional relationship to the agricultural enterprise.

30. Burial/grave - homestead

Any homestead or ranch may have the grave of the original settler or family members on it. You should look for grave markers of stone or wood.

No burials are listed in the database as directly related to homesteads. There are two references in the database, but these are to prehistoric components of the sites.

30a. Burial/grave - ranch

LA 22765 (Los Ranchos Archaeological District or Chamisal Site) has a cemetery. A burial is recorded on the Coe Ranch (LA 3020) by a wooden marker. At LA 102218, the surveyor noted the John Prather grave, which is protected by a cinderblock wall. At LA 119409 (AEA), there is a grave with a tabular limestone cobble outline marking it. At Los Ranchos de Santa Cruz de Cochiti (LA 70), a Hispanic site recorded on the site of Cochiti Dam, there were graves scattered throughout the site.

It may be that graves are more common on ranches due to the somewhat greater isolation of a ranch, while homesteaders are more likely to establish a cemetery in the vicinity.

31. Agricultural field – homestead

A homestead may exhibit remnants of agricultural fields – furrows, borders, the associated irrigation ditches, (see above), fences (see above), and remnants of equipment representing agricultural activity. These should be recorded.

An agricultural field is a feature of LA125049, a Hispanic homestead (the Trujillo Homestead in the Kiowa National Grasslands in Harding County). This is the only such feature recorded as part of a homestead site in the database.

31a. Agricultural field – ranch

There is an agricultural field recorded on the site of LA 117553, the Emil Bibo Ranch (AEA) in Cibola County. There are eight fields in LA9060, the John Chisum Ranch in Chaves County. There are eight fields in LA 60916, the Valencia Ranch Archeological/Historic District in San Miguel County. One field is recorded as a feature of LA 46634 in Los Ranchos Archaeological District in Bernalillo County. One field is recorded as a feature of LA 86000, the Rayado Ranch in Colfax County.

SETTING - HOMESTEAD

The database records homesteads in numerous vegetative zones including marshland, woodland, forest, grassland, scrubland and desert, and numerous topographic zones including flood plain/valley, bench, terrace, mesa, saddle, hill slope, hill top, mountain and low rise.

Vegetation and topographic location go into Section 7 (“Physical Description”) of the LAB Site Record (Appendix B).

SETTING - RANCH

The database records ranch sites in numerous vegetation zones including forest, woodland, scrubland and grassland, and numerous topographic zones including mesa, ridge, bench, terrace, floodplain/valley, arroyo and low rise.

Again, this information goes into Section 7 (“Physical Description”) of the LAB Site Record (Appendix B).

BOUNDARIES – HOMESTEAD OR RANCH SITE

The most commonly used criteria for boundaries are: the absence of artifacts or features; a significant decline in surface or subsurface artifact density (such a decline should be specifically identified and defined); the natural topographic or hydrological features; the historical boundaries of the property; land disturbance that has adversely affected the integrity of archeological deposits; a verified (field-tested) model of property types; modern legal boundaries; and, historic landscape features (Townsend 1993:32).

A boundary may be a legal parcel number or a block and lot number. It may also be a subsection of a section or a metes and bounds description - by identifiable features, distances in feet, and directions.

When defining the boundaries of the historic property, consider National Register criteria. Practically, this means researching the historic boundary – in the case of a homestead, the entire tract of 160, 320 or 640 acres – but it also means historic features, natural features and cultural features, and a practical combination of historic and contemporary features, including features that are intrusive and adverse. “Consider and use as many features or sources as necessary to define the limits of the eligible resource. In many cases, a combination of features may be most appropriate. For example, the National Register boundaries of a property could be defined by a road on the south, a fence line on the west, the limits of subsurface resources on the north, and an area of development disturbance on the east” (Seifert 1995:3). Limits may derive from a USGS map (for large properties) or may be arbitrary, as when two natural or cultural boundary features are joined by a straight line.

Perhaps the most problematic boundary of a historic homestead is the historical/legal boundary itself, because it is unlikely that that boundary will be coterminous with significant surface features, and you are relatively unlikely to propose it as the boundary of a nominated site, unless this historical/legal boundary is highly important relative to any other boundary. You are more likely to propose a boundary derived from historic features, artifacts and structures. However, you should both map and discuss the original legal boundary, with notes on its present condition.

A justification of the boundary is required for a National Register nomination. This justification should follow from the site description and the discussion of significance. “For historical archeological properties more than one reason usually applies. All the reasons should be given and linked to the boundaries as they are drawn on the map” (Townsend 1993:34). Boundaries may combine a historic boundary, a topographic boundary and physical features: For example, you could say, paraphrasing (Townsend 1993:34): “The property’s western and southern boundaries correspond to the historic boundary of the property; the northern boundary follows the centerline of the arroyo; the eastern boundary corresponds to the eastern extent of intact archeological deposits.”

If the significant cultural property differs from the original property, which may be the entire ranch or homestead, remember that the National Register will call for a boundary justification to the effect that the nominated property is the property or part of the property that has retained its historic significance. This justification may be entered in Section 7 of the Laboratory of Anthropology Site Record or entered on the HCPI continuation sheet (Appendix B).

The documentation should include at minimum a USGS map showing the location and boundaries of the property, black-and-white photographs documenting the appearance and condition of the property, and a sketch map and site plan.

The boundary can be shown on the map attached to Section 13 of the Laboratory of Anthropology Site Record or on the HCPI Form 2 site plan (see Appendix B).



Cerro Brillante homestead near Cibola County Road 42.



Homestead near Cabezon in Sandoval County. Note stone masonry, adobe and frame construction episodes.

4 Site Integrity

THE NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES

A property must possess integrity in order to be listed on or eligible to the National Register of Historic Places. Integrity is the ability of a property to convey its significance (Savage and Pope 1997:45). To be listed in the National Register of Historic Places, a property must not only be shown to be significant under the National Register criteria, but must also be shown to have integrity (Savage and Pope 1997:45). The evaluation of integrity is sometimes a subjective judgment, but must always be grounded in an understanding of a property's physical features and how they relate to its significance (Savage and Pope 1997:45).

A property either retains its integrity or does not. Within the concept of integrity, there are seven aspects or qualities that are recognized by the National Register as defining integrity. To be eligible to or to be placed on the National Register, a property must retain several, and usually most, of these qualities. The retention of specific aspects of integrity is paramount for a property to convey its significance (Savage and Pope 1997:45).

See Appendix A for a list of all homestead and ranch properties in New Mexico entered in the State Register of Cultural Properties and/or the National Register of Historic Places as of January, 2008. These sites have been found to meet the criteria of integrity and may serve as examples.

The seven qualities of integrity are:

Location

Location is the place where the historic property was constructed or the place where the historic event occurred (Savage and Pope 1997:44). The relationship between the property and its location is often important to understanding why the property was created or why something happened. The actual location of a historic property, complemented by its setting, is particularly important to recapturing the sense of historic events and persons. Except in rare cases, the relationship between a property and its historic associations is destroyed if the property is moved.

With respect to ranches and homesteads, then, integrity of location means that the features of the property - in particular the main house and other main features, whether in a ruinous (archeological) or relatively intact state - are still in their original locations. If the house has been moved to a new location off the ranch or the homestead claim, it would no longer be eligible to the Register. However, if immovable parts of the house, such as a cellar, are still in their original location, they may be Register-eligible as archeological features, if they are over 50 years old and still have the ability to yield significant information (Criterion D).

There are two other considerations: if the house or other structure was moved more than 50 years ago, it may have achieved significance in a new location. An example would be a structure, possibly a ranch house or mining building used before 1920, that was skidded to a new location to serve as the office of the military police on the Trinity Site (Merlan 2001:77). Here the original significance may lie in architecture (C) or information potential (D), but that significance is eclipsed by the new association with an event of world importance (A), the first atomic test.

It is also possible that the ranch or homestead property has become part of a larger complex of more recent structures – a town or urbanizing area – and has lost its original setting. Such a change would probably not affect a property’s eligibility under Criterion A (significant events), B (significant persons) or C (significant architecture). If, however, the property had originally been found significant as part of a rural historic landscape (see our example of the Dorris Ranch in Chapter 3) and had lost its agricultural setting, its significance might be lost as well.

Design

Design is the combination of elements that create the form, plan, space, structure and style of a property (Savage and Pope 1997:44). It results from conscious decisions made during the original conception and planning of a property (or its significant alteration) and applies to activities as diverse as community planning, engineering, architecture, and landscape architecture (Savage and Pope 1997:44). Design includes such elements as organization of space, proportion, scale, technology, ornamentation and materials (Savage and Pope 1997:44).

A property’s design reflects historic functions and technologies as well as aesthetics (Savage and Pope 1997:44). It includes such considerations as the structural system; massing; arrangement of spaces; patterns of fenestration; textures and colors of surface materials; type, amount, and style or ornamental detailing; and arrangement and type of plantings in a designed landscape (Savage and Pope 1997:44).

Design can also apply to districts, whether they are important primarily for historic association, architectural value, information potential, or a combination of these. Design has to do with more than individual buildings or structures located within the boundaries.

Design also applies to the way in which buildings, sites or structures are related: for example, spatial relationships between major features, visual rhythms in landscape plantings, layout and materials of walkways and roads, and the relationship of other features, such as statues, water fountains, and archeological sites (Savage and Pope 1997:44).

This National Register discussion of design is somewhat at variance with frontier realities: most ranchers and homesteaders in New Mexico were mainly concerned with function and utility. The question concerning design is whether the main features of a ranch headquarters or homestead are still arranged so that the observer can see how they related and how the property functioned. If they are, the site can be said to have “integrity of design.” If the features have been moved or disturbed, function of design may have been lost. If the main house is still visible but all the ancillary features have been destroyed, once again, the site lacks integrity of design.

Setting

Setting is the physical environment of a historic property (Savage and Pope 1997:45). While location refers to the specific place where a property was built or an event occurred, setting refers to the *character* of the place in which the property played its historic role. It involves *how*, not just *where*, the property is situated and its relationship to surrounding features and open space (Savage and Pope 1997:45).

Setting often reflects the basic physical conditions under which a property was built and the functions it was intended to serve. In addition, the way in which a property is positioned in the environment can reflect the designer's concept of nature and aesthetic preferences (Savage and Pope 1997:45).

The physical features that constitute the setting of a historic property can be either natural or manmade, including such elements as topographic features (a gorge or the crest of a hill); vegetation; simple manmade features (paths or fences); and relationships between buildings and other features or open space (Savage and Pope 1997:45).

The particular importance of setting should be obvious. In a community or city, setting is most often dictated by adjacent structures – that is, setting is likely to be arbitrary. On a ranch or homestead, on the contrary, setting is more likely to be a response to topographic features, water or other resources –not arbitrary, but fundamental to the planning of the historic property.

The essential things to note, then, are the original setting and its significance to the property – is it on a hill, near a spring? – and the extent to which recent development has encroached on the property's rural character. Are the buildings and structures now in a downtown or urbanizing area? If so, the property has lost integrity of setting. To retain integrity of setting, the historic structure or structures must have some visual buffer or margin. McClelland, Flint et al. 1999 provides information on defining the edges of rural properties.

Materials

Materials are the physical elements that were combined or deposited during a particular period of time and in a particular pattern or configuration to form a historic property (Savage and Pope 1997:45).

The choice and combination of materials reveal the preferences of those who created the property and indicate the availability of particular types of materials and technologies. Indigenous materials are often the focus of regional building traditions and thereby help define an area's sense of time and place (Savage and Pope 1997:45).

To have integrity of materials, the historic property must retain the key exterior materials dating from the period of its historic significance. If the property has been rehabilitated, the historic features and significant materials must have been preserved. The property must also be an actual historic resource, not a recreation. Likewise, a property whose historic features have been lost and then reconstructed is usually not eligible.

An archeological site that has lost other types of integrity will remain significant as an archeological resource if it retains integrity of location, design, association and materials.

Any historic site, such as a ranch or homestead that has remained isolated is likely to be looted by relic collectors looking for bottles, coins or anything else of apparent value. The degree of disturbance and the loss of qualities of significance should be assessed by an archeologist on a case-by-case basis.

Workmanship

Workmanship is the physical evidence of the crafts of a particular culture or people during any given period in history or prehistory (Savage and Pope 1997:45). It is the evidence of artisans' labor and skill in constructing or altering a building, structure, object or site (Savage and Pope 1997:45). Workmanship can apply to the property as a whole or to its individual components. It can be expressed in vernacular methods of construction and plain finishes or in highly sophisticated configurations and ornamental detailing. It can be based on common traditions or innovative period techniques (Savage and Pope 1997:45).

Some ranch buildings displayed elaborate workmanship – the Vermejo Ranch headquarters in Colfax County, for example, ordered built by a Chicago grain speculator, was and is an extraordinary example of the Richardsonian Romanesque architecture of a hundred years ago. Most ranch and homestead buildings, however, were functional structures – in the case of a homestead, it was usually the case that the owner had applied for free land because he had little or no money. The surveyor should determine what the historic appearance of the structure was and whether and how much it has changed over time. Integrity of workmanship is present in a ranch or homestead when the fabric, form and massing of the materials have been maintained or renewed in kind, so that the original conception is still visible. The quality of integrity is a prime consideration in structures that are in an architectural state, but less so in those reduced to an archeological state.

Feeling

Feeling is a property's expression of the aesthetic or historic sense of a particular period of time (Savage and Pope 1997:45). It results from the presence of physical features that, taken together, convey the property's historic character. For example, a rural historic district retaining original design, materials, workmanship and setting will relate the feeling of agricultural life in the 19th century (Savage and Pope 1997:45). A group of prehistoric petroglyphs, unmarred by graffiti and intrusions and located on the original isolated bluff, can evoke a sense of tribal spiritual life (Savage and Pope 1997:45).

It is often noted that this quality is perhaps the most elusive of all the qualities of National Register significance. Perhaps it is more easily recognized than defined. Clearly, this quality is most likely to be found when the property remains substantially intact, in a substantially unaltered setting. On the other hand, a property that had lost this quality could nevertheless retain others, such as association with significant events or persons, or ability to yield significant information.

Association

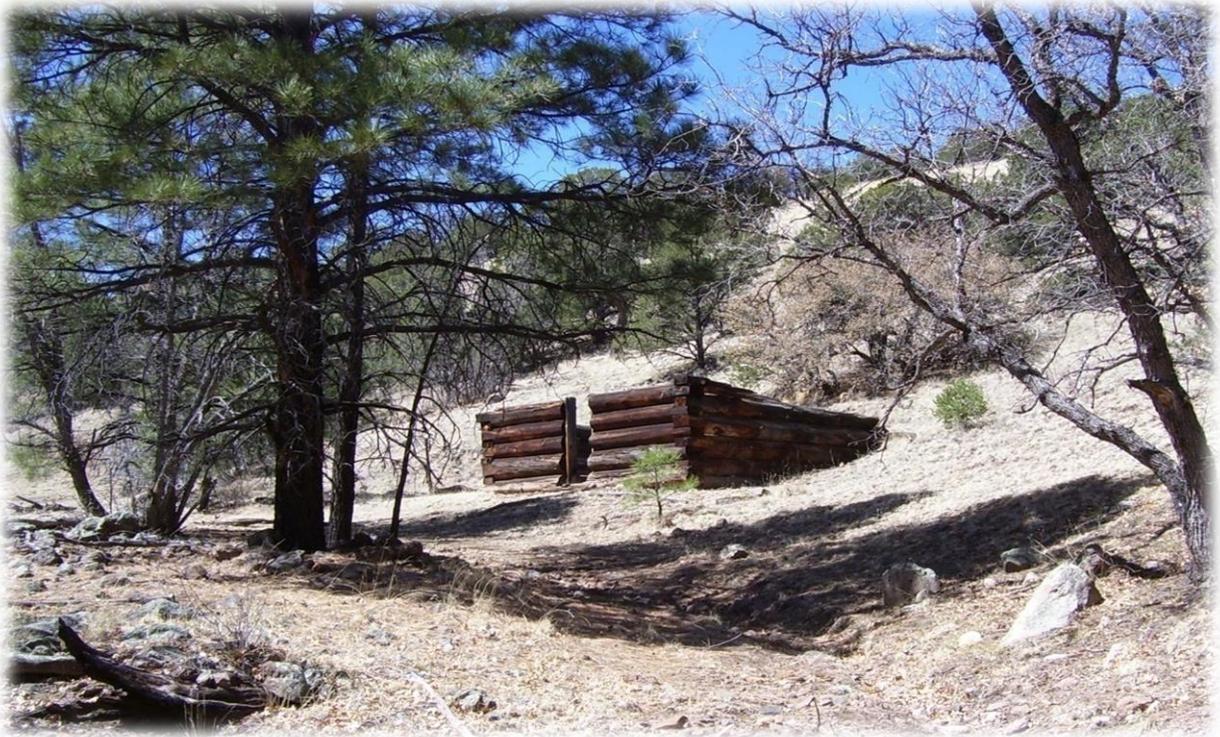
Association is the direct link between an important historic event or person and a historic property. A property retains association if it is the place where the event or activity occurred and is sufficiently intact to convey that relationship to an observer (Savage and Pope 1997:45). Like feeling, association requires the presence of physical features that convey a property's historic character (Savage and Pope 1997:45). Because feeling and association depend on individual perceptions, their retention alone is never sufficient to support eligibility of a property for the National Register (Savage and Pope 1997:45).

SUMMARY

“Historic integrity is the composite effect of seven qualities: location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling and association” (McClelland et al. 1999:21). “Decisions about historic integrity require professional judgments about whether a property today reflects the spatial organization, physical components and historic associations that it attained during the periods of significance. A property's periods of significance become the benchmark for measuring whether subsequent changes contribute to its historic evolution or alter its historic integrity. Historic integrity requires that the various characteristics that shaped the land during the historic period be present today in much the same way they were historically. . . The general character and feeling of the historic period . . . must be retained for eligibility” (McClelland et al. 1999:21).

RESTORATION AND PROTECTION

The assessment of integrity will open the issue of the appropriate treatment of the site. Under the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended, it is the responsibility of any federal agency to preserve and protect historic sites under its ownership and control (16 U.S.C. 470-1). Sections 3 (“Condition”) and 7 (“Physical Description”) of the LAB Site Record are logical places to record the condition of a site and to make recommendations for its appropriate preservation and protection.



Juanita Stephens Homestead 1943 (LA 100557) located in Juanita Canyon out at Pelona Mountain.



Romero Homestead (LA 20383). The homestead was patented in 1915 by Jose Vicente Romero and is the earliest homestead in Palluche Canyon

5

Procedures

SECTION 106

Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended, requires federal agencies to take into account the effect of their undertakings on historic (including archeological) properties and to afford the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation a reasonable opportunity to comment on such undertakings (16 U.S.C. 470s). The goal of such consultation is to identify historic and archeological properties potentially affected by the undertaking, to assess its effect and to seek ways to avoid, minimize or mitigate any adverse effect on historic and archeological properties.

If you are carrying out a survey (which may be followed by further research or data recovery) in connection with any federal undertaking or authorization, the survey and further actions will fall within the Section 106 process.

36 CFR 800.2

Section 36 CFR 800.2 explains that the federal agency that carries out or authorizes an action with the potential to affect a historic property will designate a federal agency official with jurisdiction over the undertaking. This federal agency official will have authority to approve the undertaking and to commit the federal agency to take appropriate action to ensure Section 106 compliance. This agency official may be a federal, State, local or tribal government official who has been delegated responsibility for compliance with Section 106.

36 CFR 800.3

The initiation of the Section 106 process, as described in 36 CFR 800.3, includes the establishment of the undertaking, a determination if appropriate that the undertaking has no potential to cause effects on historic properties, the identification of the State Historic Preservation Officer (SHPO) or Tribal Historic Preservation Officer (THPO) who will be involved in the Section 106 process, a plan to involve the public, identification of other consulting parties, involving local governments, and involving Indian tribes. These are all responsibilities of the sponsoring or authorizing federal agency and specifically of the federal agency official.

36 CFR 800.4

Section 36 CFR 800.4 deals with the identification of historic properties. This covers both planning and pre-field research.

Planning includes the determination of identification efforts. In consultation with the SHPO or THPO, the federal agency official will determine and document the area of potential effect, review existing information on historic properties within the area of potential effect, including any data concerning possible historic properties not yet identified, seek information from

consulting parties, gather information from any Indian tribe or Native Hawaiian organization that has been identified under 36 CFR 800.3, and take steps necessary to identify historic properties within the area of potential effect.

The responsibilities of the field investigator – whether a federal agency employee or a contractor - are likely to begin here.

It is likely that a federal employee or contractor will carry out site identification, while a different entity – probably a contractor – will prepare and execute a research design if appropriate. These essential functions are listed by number below.

PRE-FIELD RESEARCH

The investigation of a project area or area of effect should begin with pre-field research.

(1) Check the New Mexico Cultural Resources Information System for sites and resources that have already been recorded in the project area.

The New Mexico Cultural Resources Information System is maintained by the Historic Preservation Division, Department of Cultural Affairs, State of New Mexico.

The address and telephone number are:

Archeological Records Management Section
Historic Preservation Division
Department of Cultural Affairs
408 Camino Lejo
Santa Fe, New Mexico 87501
Tel: (505) 476-1275
Fax: 476-1320

The ARMS can be accessed at

<http://www/nmhistoricpreservation.org/PROGRAMS/arms.html>

You may also access the system at

<http://stubbs.arms.state.nm.us/arms>

If you are a federal employee or working out of a federal office, a federal firewall could prevent you from accessing this system. In this case, visit or call the ARMS.

The ARMS has support agreements with various federal and state agencies. Under these agreements, federal and federally-authorized personnel use the system at no charge. Likewise, educational institutions and researchers use the system at no charge.

Private contractor must register with the ARMS, sign user agreements on an annual basis and set up user accounts, for a fee of \$100. *Note: this price is subject to change.*

(2) Review the General Land Office or Bureau of Land Management Records for the area of effect.

Bureau of Land Management

Every homestead has a paper trail- the homestead application, subsequent documents, and the patent, if one was issued. Ranches, of course, have documents of title as well. Here we will talk more specifically about homesteads, since this research is more cut-and-dried. Research on ranch titles is carried out through such basic documents as the assessors' records, referenced in our notes on the State Records Center and Archives (see further below).

Some important information is now available on line, while other details must still be obtained in the State Office of the Bureau of Land Management or in archives.

The State Office of the Bureau of Land Management is located in Santa Fe, New Mexico. Here you can check the legal description in the Public Room.

The address and telephone number is

United States Department of the Interior
Bureau of Land Management
New Mexico State Office
301 Dinosaur Trail
P.O. Box 27115
Santa Fe, New Mexico 87508
Tel: (505) 954-2098
Fax: (505) 954-2115

The plat books, serial records and homestead patents are on file here. You will need to review the Master Title Plats, accompanied by a Historical Index. These township and range plat books will tell you where, when and how the land was purchased, deeded or leased from the United States.

The plat book column titled "Kind of Entry or Purpose of Order" frequently contains an entry marked "HE" ("Homestead Entry"). Other possible designations are "HES" ("Homestead Entry Survey"), "FHE" ("Forest Homestead Entry"), "ELE" ("Enlarged Homestead Entry") or "SRHE" ("Stock Raising Homestead Entry"). These annotations will tell you under what statute the entry was made, thereby also indicating the earliest possible date of filing (see our discussion of statutes in Chapter 1).

You can determine the date of the claim by checking the entries that appear in the column titled "Date of Action." In the case of a homestead, this will show the date on which the claim was made. The last column "Remarks" will state the date on which the claim was "closed, terminated, rejected or rescinded." You will see that in many cases, the claim is relinquished or cancelled, sometimes after only a few months, sometimes after a number of years.

In 1937, as noted in the Chronology, Congress passed the Bankhead-Jones Farm Tenant Act (7 U.S.C. §§ 1000), under which the federal government reacquired thousand of homesteads. See further below.

Successful claims will have patents, but both successful (patented) and abandoned claims will have serial records, unless the claim was made before July, 1908 (the date of establishment of the serial system of record-keeping).

Serial records will show the dates from filing of the original homestead application to transfer of the land to the claimant. Serial records will also show the homesteader's periods of presence on or absence from the claim (pursuant to the 1912 amendment – see Chronology).

The continued automation of data by the Bureau of Land Management can save time and money. You can go to the website www.glorerecords.blm.gov. This system uses the homesteader's name or the township and range description to find the patent description, land description, and an image of the patent. You can print the patent. You can also order a certified copy.

The plat book may note that the Historical Index has been automated. Although some plat books may not indicate this, most if not all Historical Indices have now been automated. There is a set of printouts (in white three-ring binders) in the Public Room, containing this material. There is also a website www.blm.gov/lr2000 that contains this material.

LR2000 uses “case type codes” for every type of case and law or other authority for the case. The Case Type is an entry in the Historical Index.

Some codes of special interest to you are:

- 251101 HE Original - May 20, 1862 (12 Stat. 392)
- 251101-02 - January 18, 1881 (21 Stat. 315) (relating claim back to date of settlement)
- 251101-06 - February 19, 1909 (35 Stat. 639) (increasing allowable area of claim to 320 acres)
- 251103 HE Forest – June 11, 1906 (34 Stat. 233) (the Forest Homestead Act)
- 251104 HE Stock-raising - December 29, 1916 (39 Stat. 863) (the Stock-Raising Homestead Act)
- 251105-01 Timber Culture - March 3, 1873 (17 Stat. 605) (the Timber Culture Act)
- 251105-02 Timber and Stone Act (June 14, 1878 (20 Stat. 113)
- 251201 HE Additional - After Proof – March 2, 1889 (25 Stat. 854)
- 251202 HE Additional – Contiguous April 28, 1904 (33 Stat. 527)
- 251300 HE Second Entry - September 5, 1914 (38 Stat. 712)
- 251400 HE Enlarged - February 19, 1909 (35 Stat. 639) (this appears to duplicate 251101-06)
- 251500 – Reclamation Homestead June 17, 1902 (32 Stat. 388)
- 252000 – Desert Land Act (March 3, 1877 (19 Stat. 377)
- 252400 – Desert Land Entry – Reclamation Project June 27, 1906 (34 Stat. 520)
- 252800 – Desert Land Reclamation October 22, 1919 (41 Stat. 293)

The Case Type, then, can immediately give you an earliest date for the claim. For example, if the Historical Index gives the Case Type as “251103” you will know that the claim was made pursuant to the statute of (June 11)1906 – the Forest Homestead Act. If the Case Type is “251104” you will know that the claim was made pursuant to the statute of (October 25) 1916 – the Stock-Raising Homestead Act, or some subsequent amendment of that Act. 251104 also tells you that the claim is for 640 acres. Of course, it is possible or probable that the claimant was on the land earlier than the date of the act, and it is also possible that he or she actually occupied or shared an area larger than that permitted by the statute - by arrangement with other family members, say. The Historical Index gives you a theory or an official version – not necessarily what happened. But it is a valuable point of departure.

When using LR2000, seek by township and range and date of issuance of the patent.

Survey plats and field notes, on file at the BLM State Office, often contain information about the improvements found on or near subdivision lines within a township-range. These surveyors’ notes and plats may be referenced in the automated Historical Index. Survey plats and field notes are also being automated now, and may be available on line. You will frequently find surveyors’ notes that contain descriptions of buildings, fence lines, roads and cultivated fields. Surveys are sometimes tied to the corners of buildings, so this is a way to learn about improvements. Surveyors’ notes will sometimes indicate the character of the natural environment at the time of early settlement. The “General Description” at the end of the notes will give an overview of the township, evaluate the agricultural potential of the area, and comment on the progress and character of settlement in the area.

You can also check for the special survey records made for Forest Homestead Act entries. These metes-and-bounds surveys were conducted to ensure that an entry did not contain valuable timber land. If a Homestead Entry Survey (HES) was executed, it will be referred to in the township-range plat books in the Public Room (that is, the Master Title Plat/Historical Index”) by the number assigned to the survey.

If the claim was never patented and antedates 1908, you may need to consult the regional or national archives for more information (see further below).

Research in the NMCRIS and the GLO/BLM records falls within the “appropriate identification efforts” described by 36 CFR 800.4(b)(1). This section describes “background research, consultation, oral history interviews, sample field investigation, and field survey.”

Our specific recommendation here is that you review the NMCRIS and the GLO/BLM records. You should also be familiar with the literature for artifact identification, with particular reference to datable artifacts (see Bibliography: Artifact Identification). You should then proceed to carry out field survey.

FIELD RESEARCH

Your field survey may be 100 percent coverage of an area of direct project effect, or some lesser percentage as provided for in a memorandum of agreement executed pursuant to 36 CFR 800.6 or a programmatic agreement pursuant to 36 CFR 800.14, or documents used by the agency official to comply with the National Environmental Policy Act pursuant to 36 CFR 800.8. The approach adopted is the specific responsibility of the federal agency official.

Field Recording

All archeological, historic archeological and historic sites identified by field survey should be recorded on the Laboratory of Anthropology Site Record. All surveys performed should be recorded on the NMCRIS Investigation Abstract Form (NIAF).

Any roofed structure on the site should be recorded on the Historic Cultural Properties Inventory Form (HCPI Form 2- Appendix B).

The following general principles should be kept in mind:

(1) full detail is essential in recording. Assume the possible significance of any and all artifacts. Any datable artifact, such as a can or glass bottle, should be recorded in necessary detail. Do not say “1 tin can” if the literature makes it possible for you to say “1 tin can, hand manufactured, soldered end seam, cross knife opening, contained solid food such as fruit or vegetables, embossing indicates South American market, and dates to ca. 1880” (see Bibliography: Artifact Identification).

(2) historic and documentary sources are essential. You have already reviewed the NMCRIS and GLO records. After field recording, you may need to consider other documentary sources, including primary sources of historical information (e.g. deeds and wills), secondary sources (local histories and genealogies) and historic cartographic sources. You may also carry out or recommend informant interviews. Informants or possible informants should be noted in a site report. The surveyor is not expected to go out of his way to carry out interviews, but the federal agency, e.g. the BLM cultural resources management program, may do follow-up interviews. Local people, especially those who have longstanding associations with the area, are some of the best sources of information.

Field recording requires determination of prehistoric and historic dates. Particularly relevant to historic dates are: type of nail (square cut or made from wire?), colors of glass; manufacturer's marks on plates or bottles, brand names on containers (see Bibliography: Artifact Identification).

If there are any features made of concrete, check them closely for inscriptions, names, initials or dates. Inscriptions are often found on foundations, well casings, or other smooth surfaces that were poured and could be inscribed while still wet.

If the dates closely match those of archival records, the field information and documents may be mutually explanatory.

A homestead has precise boundaries that are clearly and simply delineated in the BLM plat books, patents and serial records. Here you will see the size and location of the homestead. If the remains of a house and the remains of a corral are a half mile or a mile apart, you will record them as separate sites (and it is also likely that you will record one but not the other, if only one is within the boundaries of the current undertaking), but knowing their relationship will nonetheless be important in determining their significance. If you know that the claim was 160, 320 or 640 acres, you will have a context for the site you are recording and will also know the historical/legal basis for the claim, which again relates directly to the date or period in which the claim was made. If the nature of the undertaking permits, you should survey the entire area of the claim, whether or not it is within the area of the current undertaking.

At any given time, a ranch has boundaries known to the rancher. These may or may not be delineated by fences. However, ranch boundaries will vary over time and will be affected by such things as formal or informal exchanges of pasture with neighbors or lease of State or federal lands. It is rather unlikely that any such boundaries will be conterminous with those of the cultural resource that you are identifying and delineating.

There is always the possibility that a feature associated with the historic property will lie outside its legal boundaries. This is fairly common with respect to ranches and can also happen on a homestead, whether by accident or design. The nature of the improvement/feature is relevant here. Although it is unlikely that a rancher or homesteader would knowingly drill a well outside his property, it is quite likely that a less vital improvement – e.g. a wall or fence to prevent livestock from escaping through a natural gap or arroyo, might be placed outside the property boundary.

Site Integrity

Section 3 (“Condition”) of the Laboratory of Anthropology Site Record requires you to make a determination of the condition and integrity of each site recorded. In doing this, consider the issues of integrity discussed in Chapter 4.

National Register Criteria

Section 4 (“Recommendations”) of the Laboratory of Anthropology Site Record calls on you to make a recommendation regarding the National Register eligibility of each site recorded. In doing this to the best of your knowledge, consider the criteria for National Register eligibility discussed in Chapter 2. Further investigation as provided for in a research design may also be called for (see below).

SURVEY REPORT

36 CFR 800.5 – Assessment of Adverse Effects

The criteria of adverse effect should be applied to historic properties within the area of potential effect after the field survey and report and before the research design is written. The determination of adverse effect is the responsibility of the agency or agency official. The

determination of adverse effect will be taken into account in the writing of a research design. The assessment (36 CFR 800.5), review and resolution (36 CFR 800.6) of adverse effects may involve alternatives to or modification of the undertaking. This being the case, such review and resolution takes place before data recovery proceeds.

Adverse effects include, but may not be limited to: physical destruction of or damage to all or part of a historic property; alteration of a property, including restoration, rehabilitation, repair, maintenance, stabilization, hazardous material remediation, and provision of handicapped access; removal of the property from its historic location; change of the character of the property's use; introduction of visual, atmospheric or audible elements that diminish the integrity of the property's significant historic features; neglect of a property which causes its deterioration; or transfer, lease or sale of a property out of federal ownership.

RESEARCH DESIGN

If you identify sites within the area of effect and determine that they are likely to yield significant information beyond that recorded by the field survey, further investigation, including data recovery and archival research, may be justified.

At this point in the procedure, a change of personnel will probably take place. Pre-field research and field survey may have been carried out by a federal employee or contractor. The preparation of a research design and further investigation will probably be carried out by a for-profit or non-profit contract organization.

A research design for historic sites may include, but may not be limited to the following:

- (1) a general discussion of the history of the region of the area of project effect. See Bibliography, and in particular the regional overviews ("Overviews") for historic context;
- (2) a list of the historic sites identified in the area of effect, with a general description and categorization of these;
- (3) a discussion and detailed description of homesteads and ranches in the area of effect;
- (4) a discussion and detailed description of other features in the area of effect;
- (5) a set of site-specific recommendations, with reference to National Register criteria that may be met by each site, and including recommendations for testing, archival research and /or excavation. Any sites not considered eligible to the National Register should be identified as such. A typical summary under this heading might read as follows:

LA 500,000 is located within and/or on the floodplain of Chical Draw, and appears to contain the remnants of a ranch-related workshop and corral. Based on homestead records, it appears likely that the site was the temporary home of John Huston when he homesteaded the surrounding 160 acres circa 1911. The site is likely to contain significant information and is potentially eligible to the National

Register of Historic Places under Criterion A (association with a significant era and event in our history) and under Criterion D (its potential to yield information important to our history). If threatened by the proposed earth disturbing activity, the site should be evaluated through testing, archival research and oral history to ascertain whether significant subsurface deposits are present.

(6) a theoretical orientation and methodological approach;

Here method and theory can both be discussed. See Bibliography: *Method and Theory* for some methods, principles and possible approaches. A possible summary under this heading could read as follows:

The Anglo / Euro-American sites are, for the most part, the result of comparatively short-term site specific use. In contrast to the Native American sites, artifacts and historic records allow accurate placement of these sites in terms of both time period and function. In all cases, this use is related to historical development of the Alemán area as a mining and ranching community and thus research is best served by cultural historical approach that views these site features as microcosms of patterns of historic land use and transportation that were common across the western United States.

(7) a set of research questions for the sites;

Research questions to be asked and answered go beyond the site recording forms (LABSR, HCPI, NIAF). See Chapter 2. Data recovery may include archival research, economic data, information on race or ethnicity, research to establish an association with significant events, or all of these.

(8) recommended methods of data recovery, which may include artifact collection and analysis, archival research, and/or excavation;

(9) site maps and artifact summaries for each site in the area of the undertaking;

(10) a statement of project personnel, project scope and objectives, and standard field procedures, including description of testing, excavation, and the field forms to be used (include these);

(11) a discussion of methods of analysis, including but not limited to radiocarbon samples, charcoal and faunal analysis, historic artifact analysis (e.g. manufacturers' marks), location of artifacts in relation to one another and to architectural features;

(12) a discussion of the organization and contents of a project report, including methods and results, curation of materials and records, the museum or facility for curation, and a copy of the curation agreement if appropriate.

DATA RECOVERY

If the undertaking is on federal lands or under federal auspices, the federal agency official must approve any data recovery program. Data recovery may then proceed as described in the research design.

Archival Research and Data Recovery

You should consider the possibility that archival research and data recovery (that is, site testing and excavation) may be complementary, or that one process may obviate the need for the other. If the eligibility of the site to the National Register has been determined and the significant information that may be obtained from any site that will not be preserved has been collected, analyzed and reported, the Section 106 responsibility has been met.

The New Mexico State Office, Bureau of Land Management and the New Mexico Historic Preservation Division follow a protocol under a long-standing Programmatic Memorandum of Agreement (PMOA 168, signed 11/2/87). In Section V.A.5.a of the protocol, BLM and the HPD agree to utilize the definitions of Isolated Manifestations, Category 1, and Category 2 sites contained within Addendum No. 1 to PMOA No. 168, dated 11/2/87. This has been incorporated as Appendix 4 to the protocol.

This Appendix states: "Category 1 Sites. a. The significance of these properties lies solely in their potential to yield information under Criterion d, for the National Register of Historic Places. However, this information potential should be exhausted by field recording of essential basic data such that any remaining significance can be preserved in archival form, exhausting the data potential of categorical sites through detailed recording."

This agreement, then, recognizes that ephemeral sites may be managed expediently through comprehensive and detailed recording. In effect, we have been saying for years that the very process of detailed site recordation constitutes adequate data recovery for these marginally important properties.

A determination that the significance of a property lies solely in its potential to yield information under Criterion d should be justified by an adequately detailed statement explaining that it meets no other criterion of significance as discussed in Chapter 2.

REPOSITORIES AND SOURCES OF INFORMATION

Historic Preservation Division

As noted, the ARMS is a section of the Historic Preservation Division, Department of Cultural Affairs, State of New Mexico.

The address is

Historic Preservation Division
Department of Cultural Affairs
407 Galisteo Street, Suite 236
Santa Fe, New Mexico 87501
Tel: (505) 827-6320
Fax: 827-6338

Staff members have individual e-mail addresses. Call to request further information.

The most useful and detailed discussions of the general literature are in the regional overviews listed in the bibliography. These are available at the Historic Preservation Division. They are for sale. The Division copies them on request, and cost depends on the number of pages (25 cents per page). *Note: this price is subject to change.*

As mentioned in Chapter 4 above, the Historic Preservation Division holds the nominations of all sites entered in the State Register of Cultural Properties and National Register of Historic Places. These descriptions and analyses of homesteads and ranches (see Appendix A) are a practical measure and illustration of eligibility to both registers. Look for the homesteads and ranches near your project area. Ask the Division staff for copies as necessary.

National Archives

The best sources of information about homesteads are the homestead case files. Case files contain detailed information from the date on which the homestead was first entered to the date when the claim was patented, relinquished, or canceled. Included in case files are the name and age of the claimant, where he or she was born, usually some details about his family, details of acreage and crops cultivated, descriptions of improvements to the property, sworn testimony of claimants and witnesses, naturalization records (in the case of a foreign-born claimant) and military records (in the case of a veteran). Some files also contain maps showing boundaries of and improvements to the claim. Case files may be obtained from:

National Archives & Records Administration
Old Military and Civil Reference Branch (NWCTB)
Room 601
700 Pennsylvania Avenue NW
Washington, D.C. 20408-0001
Tel: (202) 357-5329

A request for a case file should be ordered on “NATF Form 84.” You can obtain the form by going to www.nara.gov. Use the “Order on Line” function. Scroll to this form. You can print it out and mail it in. You can also order on line by using the web site www.archives.gov. You can also make requests in person. The general information needed for any such request is the same, whatever the method.

A typical case file will contain:

- a cover page from the land office (e.g. Santa Fe, Clayton [originally Folsom], Roswell) with the homestead application number and the final certificate number;
- the certificate of title;
- a certificate of cash entry, if the homestead is being bought outright;
- one or more “non-mineral affidavits” in which some person who says he is acquainted with the land swears that there are no minerals on it (gold, silver, coal etc.);
- a homestead entry (application);
- a receipt for the required cash payment, which is to pay filing fees;
- a sworn statement from the applicant saying that he is a citizen, has never born arms against the United States, and that he is the person making the homestead application;
- testimony of a witness or witnesses as to the character of the land being applied for, when the claimant settled there, what improvements he has made (house, barn, well, etc.), whether he has continually resided on the land, whether he has left the land and if so for how long and why;
- testimony of the claimant himself to the same effect;
- a final affidavit of the claimant stating that he has made actual settlement on the land, has cultivated it and resided on it;
- a “Register and Receiver’s Report” as to the proofs that the homestead claim is bona fide. This includes, for example, reference to any absences of the claimant from the land claimed, and his explanation of them;
- receipts for any cash balance required to be paid by the homesteader.

If there are special circumstances - e.g., the land in question is or may be part of a land grant; the land may be within a platted townsite - there may be details or affidavits about these.

A request for a pre-July, 1908 homestead case file will require the name of the state, the name of the land office (e.g. Santa Fe, Roswell), the type of entry, the number of the final certificate and the name of the homesteader.

Land entries patented after July, 1908 do not require citation of the land office to retrieve the case file; they require only the patent number and the name of the homesteader. A post-1908 serial land-patent entry might read: Serial Land Patent No. 552839 [Esequiel Espinoza].

Case files cost a flat fee of \$40. They typically require six to eight weeks to obtain.

If a homestead was reacquired by the United States pursuant to the Bankhead-Jones Act, the National Archives will have a separate case file documenting the reacquisition. This will include an “Appraisal Report” describing the buildings on the property and how the land was being used

at the time of reacquisition. A map will show land use, soil types, and locations of buildings and other improvements. The file will also contain a complete title abstract. If there is such a file, it will be considered a separate request and will also cost \$40.

Note: These prices are subject to change.

The National Archives has all case files leading to patents post-1908, as well as some that were cancelled both before and after 1908. No one in the National Archives can state categorically which files they have. One reason for this, according to staff, is that the files were moved from Suitland, Maryland to the main archives building in Washington, D.C. in 1996 and have still not been fully catalogued in the new location. The simplest approach is to use “lr2000” in a given case. If a homestead entry was cancelled before 1908 you will need the legal description and the claim number. The National Archives staff can go to the regional headquarters tract books, which they have, and look the entry up for you. They can also check a name index for cancellations that happened post-1908 to look up the claim.

New Mexico Counties

Another indispensable source of information is the county courthouse (see list of addresses in Appendix C). County deed records show all subsequent land transfers. If you match the beginning and end archival dates for a homestead against the datable artifacts from the site, you may determine whether the homestead was abandoned or sold after being proved up, or whether it was occupied for a longer time.

For ranch properties as well as homesteads, check deed indices on file in the office of the County Clerk in the relevant county. A Deed Index lists grantors (the entity from whom the claim passed) and grantees (the entity the claim passes to) in approximately alphabetical and then chronological order. If you know the name of a person who once owned the property, you can use these records to reconstruct the chain of title to the land. You can also consult Probate Court Files, Mortgage Indices, and Marriage Affidavits for further references to the persons whose names appear in the chain of title.

State Engineer Office

You can also check at the State Engineer Office for records of wells throughout the state. This will help you to determine whether the property owner ever dug or drilled a productive well.

These records are in:

Water Rights Department
State Engineer Office
407 Galisteo Room 102, Bataan Building
Santa Fe, New Mexico 87501
Tel: (505) 827-6120
Fax: (505) 627 6682

The web address for the office is: www.ose.state.nm.us

This address will also link you to information concerning wells. That address is: <http://iwaters.ose.state.nm.us:7001/iWATERS/>

State Records Center and Archives

The State Records Center and Archives in Santa Fe is also an indispensable source of archival information. The address is:

State Records Center and Archives
1205 Camino Carlos Rey
Santa Fe, New Mexico 87505
Tel: (505) 476-4908
Fax: (505) 476-4909
e-mail: www.nmcpr@state.nm.us

The assessment rolls for each county are on file in the State Records Center and Archives. The rolls will list all property owners in any given year, in alphabetical order. They will describe the property by township, range and section and will state the value of real property, of personal property, of sheep, goats and cattle. This information is subject to a good deal of interpretation, but at the least, it will tell you who owned the property and for how long, and something about his or her livelihood.

New Mexico State Library

The New Mexico State Library is housed in the same building with the New Mexico State Archives. The address is:

New Mexico State Library
1209 Camino Carlos Rey
Santa Fe, New Mexico 87507
Tel: (505) 476 9700
Fax (505) 476-9701
e-mail: <http://www.stlb.state.nm.us>

The New Mexico State Library is the best source for county and regional newspapers and for issues of the New Mexico Business Directory, which can offer a portrait of a community, including the agricultural businesses and ranches that are part of it. The library's collections can be searched on the SALSA library catalogue. It contains the Southwest Special Collection, the Foundation Center Collection, the publications of the State of New Mexico, and the publications of the federal government.

Angélico Chávez History Library

An important resource in Santa Fe is the Angélico Chávez History Library and Photo Archive.

The address is:

Angélico Chávez History Library
120 Washington Avenue
Santa Fe, New Mexico 87501
Tel: (505) 476-5090
Fax: (505) 476-5104
e-mail: historylibrary@state.nm.us

The Chávez Library is a part of the Palace of the Governors, the history museum of the State of New Mexico. The library is important as a research facility and as the repository of a major photo collection covering the state of New Mexico.

Online Archive of New Mexico

The Online Archive of New Mexico (OANM) is part of the Rocky Mountain Online Archive, a tri-state collaborative project.

The OANM can be searched to locate numerous local archives and collections. The address is: <http://oanm.unm.edu>

Principal collections within the OANM are those of the Center for Southwest Research, University of New Mexico; the Zimmerman Library of the University of New Mexico; the New Mexico State Library and the New Mexico State Records Center and Archives.

Local Libraries and Historical Societies

You can also check local libraries and historical societies for city directories and files of local newspapers. See lists of addresses in Appendix C.

Local and regional libraries are sources for published and unpublished documents including biographies, autobiographies and memoirs. They sometimes have records deriving from local history projects, including oral histories. The local librarian can be an important source of historical information.

The New Mexico (State) Register of Cultural Properties

We have noted that National Register criteria are the federally-recognized criteria of site significance. Bear in mind that the National Register is designed to include locally or regionally significant historic properties, and that such properties are also eligible for nomination to the State Register of Cultural Properties. Nominations to the State Register are reviewed and approved by the Cultural Properties Review Committee, the policy/advisory committee of the

Historic Preservation Division. The Cultural Properties Review Committee may be contacted through the Historic Preservation Division (see above).

FINAL REPORT

The project will conclude with a final report. The final report reflects the research design and should at a minimum contain:

(1) a list of the prehistoric and historic sites identified in the area of effect, with a general description and categorization of these;

(2) a review of the site-specific recommendations, with reference to National Register criteria, that may be met by each site, including the recommendations for testing, archival research and /or excavation.

(3) a review of the theoretical orientation and methodological approach;

(4) a review of the research questions for the sites and the recommended methods of data recovery, which may include artifact collection and analysis, archival research, and/or excavation;

(5) a statement of project personnel, project scope and objectives, and standard field procedures, including description of testing, excavation, and the field forms used;

(6) site maps and artifact summaries for each site in the area of the undertaking;

(7) a discussion of the methods of analysis undertaken, including but not limited to radiocarbon samples, charcoal and faunal analysis, historic artifact analysis (e.g. manufacturers' marks), location of artifacts in relation to one another and to architectural features;

(8) a summary of methods and results, curation of materials and records, the museum or facility for curation, and a copy of the curation agreement.

This report should be filed in the Archeological Records Management System, Historic Preservation Division, State of New Mexico and with the federal authorizing agency.

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 1977 The Portales Forest Reserve. In *Greater Llano Estacado Southwest Heritage* 7(2): 2-11.
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 1967 Historic Archeology: Methods and Principles. In *Historical Archeology* 1:23-33.

- Wallace, Ernest and E. Adamson Hoebel
 1952 *The Comanches: Lords of the South Plains*. University of Oklahoma Press, Norman.
- Ward, Albert E., Emily K. Abbink and John R. Stein
 1977 *Ethnohistorical and Chronological Basis of the Navajo Material Culture*. In *Settlement and Subsistence along the Lower Chaco River: The CGP Survey*. Edited by Charles A. Reher: pp. 217-278. University of New Mexico, Albuquerque.
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 1931 *The Great Plains*. Ginn and Co., Boston.
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 1992 *The Spanish Frontier in North America*. Yale University Press, New Haven.
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 1948 *America's Sheep Trails*. The Iowa State College Press, Ames.
- Wessel, Richard L.
 1989 Programmatic Approach to the Management of Isolate Historic Refuse Deposits at Edwards Air Force Base, California. Draft for Review and Comment. On file, Historic Preservation Division, Department of Cultural Affairs, Santa Fe.
- Westphall, Victor
 1965 *The Public Domain in New Mexico 1854-1891*. University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque.
- Whatley, William J. and Robert W. Delaney
 1995 *Jemez: A Chronological History of the Cañon de San Diego Region of the Kingdom and Provinces of New Mexico*. Kwastiukwa Interdisciplinary Archaeological Research Project, Research Report No. 1. On file, Pueblo of Jémez.
- White, Richard
 1991 *It's Your Misfortune and None of My Own: A History of the American West*. University of Oklahoma Press, Norman.
- Whitlock, V.H.
 1970 *Cowboy Life on the Llano Estacado*. University of Oklahoma Press, Norman.
- Williams, Jerry ed.
 1986 *New Mexico in Maps*. Second edition. University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque.
- Williams, Jerry
 1980 Missouri Avenue on the Caprock. Unpublished ms. on file, Geography Department, University of New Mexico.
- Wills, Wirt H.
 1988 *Early Prehistoric Agriculture in the American Southwest*. School of American Research Press, Santa Fe.
- Wilson, Chris, Stanley Hordes and Henry Walt
 1989 *The South Central New Mexico Regional Overview: History, Historic Archaeology, Architecture and Historic Preservation*. New Mexico Historic Preservation Division, Santa Fe.

- Wilson, John P.
 1988 A Homestead and Its Records. In *The Kiva*, Vol. 53, No. 4, 1988.
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 1988 How the Settlers Farmed: Hispanic Villages and Irrigation Systems in Early Sierra County, 1850-1900. In *New Mexico Historical Review*, 63(4): 333-356.
- Wiseman, Regge N.
 2001 *Glimpses of Late Frontier Life in New Mexico's Southern Pecos Valley: Archaeology and History at Blackdom and Seven Rivers*. Archaeology Notes 233. Office of Archaeological Studies, Museum of New Mexico, Santa Fe.
- Witkind, Max
 2001 Cattle Ranching and Mining on Empire Ranch. In *Archaeology Southwest*, Vol. 15, no. 4, fall 2001, p. 9.
- Wooton, E.O.
 1915 Factors Affecting Range Management in New Mexico. U.S. Department of Agriculture Bulletin No. 211. Bureau of Plant Industry, Washington, D.C.
- Worster, Donald
 1979 *Dust Bowl: The Southern Plains in the 1930s*. Oxford University Press, New York.
- Wozniak, Frank E. and Peter Eschman
 1983 *The Payton Site (OCA:174:1): Excavations at an Historic Homestead in Northern Quay County, New Mexico*. Office of Contract Archeology, University of New Mexico.
- Writers' Program of the Work Projects Administration in the State of New Mexico
 1940 *New Mexico: A Guide to the Colorful State*. American Guide Series. Hastings House, New York.
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 1980 *Ketchup, Pickles, Sauces – 19th Century Food in Glass*. Mark West Publishers, Fulton.

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY BY SUBJECT

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY BY SUBJECT

Agriculture

Ford, Richard I.

- 1981 Gardening and Farming Before A.D. 1000: Patterns of Prehistoric Cultivation North of Mexico. In *Journal of Ethnobiology* 1(1):6-27.

A discussion of the beginnings of plant husbandry north of Mexico. Ford explains the diffusion of specific plants into the Southwest, and how various plants may be grouped into agricultural complexes.

Matson, R.G.

- 1991 *The Origins of Southwestern Agriculture*. University of Arizona Press, Tucson.

Sheck, Ree

- 1990 *Agriculture Made New Mexico Possible*. Revised 1992 by Jamey L. Simpson. Las Cruces: College of Agriculture and Home Economics, New Mexico State University.

Wills, Wirt H.

- 1988 *Early Prehistoric Agriculture in the American Southwest*. School of American Research Press, Santa Fe.

Wills presents a general economic explanation for the decision-making process that resulted in the adoption of fully domesticated plants by prehistoric hunter-gatherers in the American Southwest. His main concern is with the dispersal of food production strategies based on domesticated plants.

Environment: Climate, Physiography, Geography, Flora and Fauna

Brown, David E.

- 1982 Biotic Communities of the American Southwest – United States and Mexico. In *Desert Plants* 4(1-4); 169-179.

Buchanan, Bruce A.

- 1988 *Rangelands*. University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque.

Castetter, Edward Franklin

- 1936 Uncultivated Native Plants Used as Sources of Food. In *Ethnobiological Studies in the American Southwest I, University of New Mexico Bulletin 266, Biological Series 4(1)*. University of New Mexico, Albuquerque.

This paper discusses the cultivation of crops by Southwestern groups before the arrival of the Spanish, and the wild plants and animals which supplemented their diet.

Clark, Ira G.

- 1987 *Water in New Mexico*. University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque.

This study of the use and management of water in New Mexico and throughout the West gives a detailed history of water policy and use in New Mexico from prehistoric times to the 1980s.

Dewey, Kenneth F. (editor)

- 2001 The Weather of the West. *Journal of the West*, Vol. 40, No.3, Summer 2001.
Discusses distinguishing phenomena including physical geography, extremes of temperature, summer monsoon, thunderstorms, and the extraordinary climate diversity of the American West.

Hollon, W. Eugene

- 1966 *The Great American Desert: Then and Now*. Oxford University Press, New York.
This is a reassessment of the area between the Sierra Nevada and the midland plains first characterized as “the Great American Desert” by W.P. Webb in 1931. Hollon discusses the period of rapid development between the wars and in the 1950s.

Humphrey, Robert R.

- 1987 *90 Years and 535 Miles; Vegetation Changes Along the Mexican Border*. University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque.

Theis, Charles V. and A. Nelson Sayre

- 1942 Geology and Ground Water. In *The Pecos River Joint Investigation Reports of the Participating Agencies*, pp. 27-101. National Resources Planning Board, Washington, D.C.

Thornthwaite, C. Warren

- 1941 Climate and Settlement in the Great Plains. In *Climate and Man: Yearbook of Agriculture*, pp. 117-187. U.S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C.

Tuan, Yi-Fu, Cyril E. Everard, Jerold G. Widdison and Ivan Bennett

- 1973 *The Climate of New Mexico*. New Mexico State Planning Office, Santa Fe.

Webb, Walter Prescott

- 1931 *The Great Plains*. Grosset & Dunlap, New York.
This history presents a set of research questions (see Chapter 2).

Williams, Jerry ed.

- 1986 *New Mexico in Maps*. Second edition. University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque.
Maps and text provide a history of New Mexico from prehistoric times to the 1980s. See climatic data pp. 37-51 (by Iven Bennett); physiographic provinces pp. 23-27 (by John W. Hawley); soils pp. 64-66 (by Harry J. Maker and Leroy Daugherty); surface hydrology pp. 55-57 (by Rodman Snead and Steve Reynolds).

Wooton, E.O.

- 1915 Factors Affecting Range Management in New Mexico. U.S. Department of Agriculture Bulletin No. 211. Bureau of Plant Industry, Washington, D.C.

Government Publications

Betts, M.C. and W.R. Humphries

- 1920 Planning the Farmstead. Farmers' Bulletin No. 1132. U.S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C.

Hill, George C.

- 1906 Practical Suggestions for Farm Buildings. Farmer's Bulletin No. 106. U.S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C.

United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census

1975 *Historical Statistics of the United States: Colonial Times to 1970*. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

United States General Land Office

1875 *Circular from the General Land Office Showing the Manner of Proceeding to Obtain Title to Public Lands by Purchase, by Location with Warrants or Agricultural College-Scrip, by Pre-Emption, Homestead, and Timber Culture*. Issued June 17, 1875. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

A general explanation of the public land laws, means of obtaining public lands, and the homestead laws and rules.

United States General Land Office

1904 *The Manner of Proceeding to Obtain Title to Public Lands under the Homestead, Desert and Other Laws*. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

This update of the 1875 circular goes into greater detail regarding homestead procedure and reflects the experience gained over thirty years, covering such problems as crop failure, homestead claimants who become insane, leaves of absence, “climatic hindrances” and other aspects of homestead history.

United States General Land Office

1914 *Report to the Commissioner of the General Land Office, June 30, 1914*. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

United States General Land Office

1926 *Suggestions to Homesteaders and Persons Desiring to Make Homestead Entries*. Circular No. 541, Department of the Interior, General Land Office. Revised July 16, 1926. Government Printing Office. Washington. D.C.

Provides an update of the 1875 and 1904 circulars. This circular also references the acts and amendments of 1909 and 1916 (see Chronology).

Prehistory

Elliott, Michael L.

1991 Pueblo at the Hot Place: Archaeological Excavations at Giusewa Pueblo and San Jose de los Jemez Mission, Jemez State Monument, Jemez Springs, New Mexico. Prepared for Thomas Caperton, Director, New Mexico State Monuments, Museum of New Mexico, Santa Fe. MS. on file, Jemez Mountains Research Center, Albuquerque.

Holmes, W. H.

1905 Notes on the Antiquities of the Jemez Valley, New Mexico. *American Anthropologist* 7:198-212.

Holmes notes the presence of prehistoric “small stone houses” that have been interpreted as seasonally-occupied farmsteads. Later investigators have suggested a possible resemblance between these features and historic homesteads. See Chapter 2.

Scheick, Cherie L. (editor)

1996 *A Study of Pre-Columbian and Historic Uses of the Santa Fe National Forest: Competition and Alliance in the Northern Middle Rio Grande*. Report to Santa Fe National Forest, Santa Fe. Author’s collection.

Whatley, William J. and Robert W. Delaney

1995 *Jemez: A Chronological History of the Cañon de San Diego Region of the Kingdom and Provinces of New Mexico*. Kwastiukwa Interdisciplinary Archaeological Research Project, Research Report No. 1. On file, Pueblo of Jémez.

History

Adams, Eleanor and Chavez, Fray Angelico

1956 *The Missions of New Mexico, 1776*. University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque.

This is the report of Father Visitor Atanasio Dominguez. It deals not only with the missions and churches of the province, but with the communities they serve. As such, it is uniquely useful as an early comparative study of population and agricultural subsistence in New Mexico.

Anonymous

1892 Corry's New Mexico Gazeteer and Business Directory. George W. Crane and Co., Topeka, Kansas

Bailey, Lynn R.

1970 *Bosque Redondo: An American Concentration Camp*. Socio-Technical Books, Pasadena.

The story of the removal of the Navajo people from their homelands in Arizona and New Mexico to Fort Sumner on the Pecos. This experiment was designed to replace traditional social structure with what the United States authorities believed were the desirable traits of the newly dominant society.

Beck, Warren A. and Ynez D. Haase

1969 *Historical Atlas of New Mexico*. University of Oklahoma Press, Norman.

Billington, Ray Allen

1974 *America's Frontier Heritage*. University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque.

Bradfute, Richard Wells

1975 *The Court of Private Land Claims. The Adjudication of Spanish and Mexican Land Grant Titles*. University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque.

Brayer, Herbert O.

1939 *Pueblo Indian Land Grants of the "Rio Abajo," New Mexico*. University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque.

Briggs, Charles L. and John R. Van Ness, eds.

1987 *Land, Water and Culture: New Perspectives on Hispanic Land Grants*. University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque.

The authors note that the land grant was one of the central institutions brought to the Southwest by Spain and Mexico. This volume explores the law, history, anthropology and folklore of the grants.

Carlson, Alvar W.

- 1990 *The Spanish-American Homeland*. Johns Hopkins University Press, Baltimore.
An analysis of the Rio Arriba and its problems. Carlson shows how the Spanish Americans of this region became trapped in a subsistence economy by land use patterns, inheritance customs, overpopulation, folk culture and a limited land base. He examines the region's historical and cultural geography, explains why Spanish-American attachment to the land has been pervasive, and shows how the region's traditions are being replaced by a contemporary economy and mores. Carlson also explains traditional ranching practices and discusses homesteading as employed by the Hispanic people of the region.

Carleton, General James H.

- 1864 *Map of the Military Department of New Mexico*. Horn and Wallace, Albuquerque.

Carroll, H. Bailey and Haggard, J. Villasana, trs.

- 1942 *Three New Mexico Chronicles*. Quivira Society (University of New Mexico Press), Albuquerque.
Eye-witness accounts of culture, trade, agriculture and social structure in the New Mexico of the Mexican period.

Coan, Charles F.

- 1925 *A History of New Mexico*. 3 volumes. American Historical Society, Chicago.
A useful source for general historical information as a background for research questions.

Dick, Everett

- 1954 *The Sod-House Frontier: 1854-1890*. University of Nebraska Press, Lincoln.
A profile of the prairie region of Kansas, Nebraska and the Dakotas, useful as it relates to research issues having to do with the American frontier.

Dinwiddie, David H.

- 1986 *Indians, Hispanos, and Land Reform: A New Deal Struggle in New Mexico*. In *Western Historical Quarterly*, July, 1986.
Dinwiddie describes the "Rio Grande land project." A federal inter-agency Rio Grande Committee allocated public and grant lands among Indian tribes, Hispanic farmers and Anglo ranchers over a period of eight years (1934-1942). Dinwiddie relates the limited results achieved by this attempt to apply a democratic land policy to culturally distinct communities. This essay is essential background for understanding current federal and State land policy in New Mexico.

Forrest, Suzanne

- 1989 *The Preservation of the Village: New Mexico's Hispanics and the New Deal*. University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque.
This is the fourth volume of the New Mexico Land Grants series published by the University of New Mexico Press. This book places the New Mexico of the 1930s in a regional and national perspective, and discusses the major currents of social and political thought in the United States and how they influenced Hispanic New Deal programs.

- Gilman, Patricia Ann.
 1983 Changing Architectural Forms in the Prehistoric Southwest. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Department of Anthropology, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque.
- Hammond, George P. and Agapito Rey, eds.
 1953 *Don Juan de Onate: Colonizer of New Mexico* (2 vols.). University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque.
 In telling the story of New Mexico's first governor, Hammond and Rey explain the origins of European society in the province.
- Hancock, P.M.
 1992 Evidence of the Dinetah Phase in the La Plata River Valley, San Juan County, New Mexico. In "Current Research on the Late Prehistory and Early History of Northern New Mexico," edited by Bradley J. Vierra. Special Publication No. 1, pp. 287-297. New Mexico Archaeological Council, Albuquerque.
- Hogan, Patrick
 1989 Dinetah: A Reevaluation of Pre-Revolt Navajo Occupation in Northwest New Mexico. In *Journal of Anthropological Research* 45:53-66.
- Julian, George W.
 1887 Land Stealing in New Mexico. In *North American Review* 145:17-31.
 Julian was the reformer appointed New Mexico Surveyor General in 1885. This article condemns the land speculators of the Santa Fe Ring and promotes homesteading.
- Melzer, Richard
 1982 A Dark and Terrible Moment: The Spanish Flu Epidemic of 1918 in New Mexico. In *New Mexico Historical Review*, 57(3): 213-236.
 A history of this catastrophic event and its consequences. Melzer has it that the flu pandemic came from abroad – more recent scholarship suggests that it actually originated in Kansas. Catastrophic and special events form part of our list of research issues (see Chapter 2).
- Merlan, Thomas
 2001 Life at Trinity Base Camp. Prepared for White Sands Missile Range, New Mexico. Submitted by Human Systems Research, Inc. HSR Report No. 9831. White Sands Missile Range Archaeological Research Report No. 01-07. March 2001.
- Mosk, Sanford A.
 1942 The Influence of Tradition on Agriculture in New Mexico. In *The Tasks of Economic History and Other Papers*. Presented at the Annual Meeting of the Economic History Association. New York University Press, New York.
- Opler, Morris E.
 1983 The Apachean Culture Pattern and Its Origins. In *Handbook of North American Indians*, Vol. 10. Washington: Smithsonian Institution.
- Parsons, H.R.
 1953 In the District Court of the Ninth Judicial District, State Of New Mexico, County of De Baca. Mimeographed report. County Clerk's Office, Fort Sumner.

- Pearce, T.E.
 1965 *A New Mexico Place Names Dictionary*. University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque.
 This dictionary of place names offers a great deal of information about origins, associations, agriculture and commerce. It is a good place to begin an investigation of a given locality.
- Scholes, France V.
 1936 Church and State in New Mexico, 1610-1650, III. In *New Mexico Historical Review*, 1:9-76; 2:145-178.
 A discussion of religious and secular institutions and government in the New Mexico of the seventeenth century.
- Sheridan, Tom
 1875 *The Bitter River: A Brief Historical Survey of the Middle Pecos River Basin*. Bureau of Land Management, Roswell.
- Simmons, Marc
 1979 History of Pueblo-Spanish Relations to 1821. In *Handbook of North American Indians, Southwest*. Vol. 9, pp. 178-193. Volume editor Alfonso Ortiz. Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D.C.:
 This overview extends from first contact in 1539 to the emergence of the Mexican nation.
- Thomas, Alfred Barnaby
 1974 *The Mescalero Apache 1653-1874*. Garland Publishing Inc., New York and London.
- Wallace, Ernest and E. Adamson Hoebel
 1952 *The Comanches: Lords of the South Plains*. University of Oklahoma Press, Norman.
- Webb, Walter Prescott
 1931 *The Great Plains*. Ginn and Co., Boston.
 This early characterization of the "Great American Desert" includes research questions and issues (see Chapter 2).
- Wentworth, Edward Norris
 1948 *America's Sheep Trails*. The Iowa State College Press, Ames.
 A history of the development of America's sheep industry, including the introduction and raising of sheep in the Southwest.
- Wilson, John P.
 1988 How the Settlers Farmed: Hispanic Villages and Irrigation Systems in Early Sierra County, 1850-1900. In *New Mexico Historical Review*, 63(4): 333-356.
 A description of the type of irrigation system known as farming the river bends. This was a system apparently not employed elsewhere in New Mexico. Wilson notes that without the 1908 U.S. Reclamation Service map sheets, it might have been impossible to reconstruct this method of excavation of ditches or canals to convey water from a perennial stream to beds or lots bordered by light embankments.
- Worster, Donald
 1979 *Dust Bowl: The Southern Plains in the 1930s*. Oxford University Press, New York.

Writers' Program of the Work Projects Administration in the State of New Mexico

1940 *New Mexico: A Guide to the Colorful State*. American Guide Series. Hastings House, New York.

These guides – there was one for each state as well as others for major cities, rivers and other categories – were a Works Projects Administration (WPA) employment program for unemployed writers – just as the public works projects put unemployed Americans to work on public projects including roads, forest management and many other needed public works. This series is a set of histories including extensive local and regional detail.

Historical Theory

Downing, Theodore E.

1979 Explaining migration in Mexico and elsewhere. In *Migration across frontiers: Mexico and the United States*. Ed. F. Camara and R. Van Kemper. State University of New York, Contributions of the Latin American Anthropology Groups 3, Institute for Mesoamerican Studies, Albany.

Scheiber, Harry N.

1969 Turner's legacy and the search for a reorientation of western history: a review essay. In *New Mexico Historical Review* 44(3): 231-248.

Turner and the so-called Turner Thesis significantly influenced generations of historians of the American West. See Chapter 2.

Overviews

Pratt, Boyd C.

1986 *Gone But Not Forgotten: Strategies for the Comprehensive Survey of Architectural and Historic Archaeological Resources of Northeastern New Mexico*. With contributions by Jerry L. Williams. 2 vols. New Mexico Historic Preservation Division, Santa Fe.

This study is one of a series of regional overviews carried out by historians and archeologists working under the auspices of the Historic Preservation Division. This series was designed to provide overviews of the regions of New Mexico (there were seven: northeast, southeast, north central, south central, northwest, southwest, and the central New Mexico transportation corridor crossing the state) as a background for continuing survey and identification of significant prehistoric and historic properties.

This was the first in the series. It also happened to be the overview that dealt most extensively with homesteading.

These overviews are the best context statements available to archeologists and historians working in New Mexico. They address all the research issues set forth in Chapter 2, and they are specifically designed to facilitate the identification and analysis of architectural and historical archeological resources.

- Pratt, Boyd C. and David H. Snow
 1988 *The North Central Regional Overview: Strategies for the Comprehensive Survey of the Architectural and Historic Archaeological Resources of North Central New Mexico*. 2 vols. New Mexico Historic Preservation Division, Santa Fe.
 An overview of the environment, history and historic archeology of north central New Mexico.
- Pratt, Boyd C., and Daniel Scurlock
 1989 *Llano, River and Mountains: The Southeast New Mexico Regional Overview*. New Mexico Historic Preservation Division, Santa Fe.
 Ranching and homesteading in this region are dealt with mainly in Chapter 5 (pp. 91-132), specifically a discussion of Anglo-American settlement and land use.
 This overview and that for the northeast (Pratt 1986) are the most detailed and useful in the study of New Mexico ranches and homesteads.
- Wilson, Chris, Stanley Hordes and Henry Walt
 1989 *The South Central New Mexico Regional Overview: History, Historic Archaeology, Architecture and Historic Preservation*. New Mexico Historic Preservation Division, Santa Fe.
 Farming, ranching and homesteading are dealt with in an “analysis of economic sectors” (pp. 37-74) for the period 1880-1945.

The Ranch

- Anderson, H. Allen
 1981 Ernest Thompson Seton's First Visit to New Mexico, 1893-1894. In *New Mexico Historical Review* (56): 369-386.
 Seton, born in England in 1860, grew up in Ontario, Canada and first came to New Mexico in 1893. He worked as a wolf hunter in the Clayton area when the decline of the buffalo caused the predators to begin preying on cattle. Seton became a naturalist and popular author. His story of Lobo, a wolf who ranged the Corrupa area, was read and praised by Tolstoy. He established Seton Village east of Santa Fe and died in New Mexico in 1946.
- Baydo, Gerald Robert
 1970 *Cattle Ranching in Territorial New Mexico*. Unpublished PhD. Dissertation, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque.
- Baxter, John
 1987 *Las Carneradas: Sheep Trade in New Mexico, 1700-1860*. University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque.
 Baxter provides a history of New Mexico's sheep trade – one of the province's few export industries in the eighteenth century, with markets in interior Mexico and subsequently California.
- Bonney, Cecil
 1971 *Looking Over My Shoulder: Seventy-Five Years in the Pecos Valley*. Hall-Poorbaugh Press, Albuquerque.
 A history of Lincoln County, open-range ranching, and personalities in the region.

- Brooks, Connie
 1993 *The Last Cowboys: Closing the Open Range in Southeastern New Mexico 1890s-1920s*. University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque.
- Burleson, James (“Uncle Jim”)
 1984 Personal communication. Socorro County, New Mexico
- Byron, H. et al.
 1939 Types of Farming and Ranching in New Mexico. New Mexico Agricultural Experiment Station, Bulletin No. 261, Las Cruces.
- Cabeza de Baca, Fabiola
 1954 *We Fed Them Cactus*. University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque.
 A history of Hispanic settlers on the sixty-thousand square mile Llano Estacado of northeastern New Mexico and northwest Texas from buffalo and open range days to the twentieth century. A classic eye-witness account of the country and its people.
- Cormier, Steve.
 1994 Ranch Culture in the Twentieth Century. In *Essays in Twentieth Century New Mexico History*. Ed. Judith Boyce DeMark. University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque.
 Cormier discusses subsistence, gender, race and other trends in New Mexico ranch culture in the twentieth century. Useful in defining research issues.
- Eidenbach, Peter
 1989 *The West That Was Forgotten: Historic Ranches of the Northern San Andres Mountains, White Sands Missile Range, New Mexico*. Human Systems Research, Inc., Las Cruces.
- Eidenbach, Peter and Beth Morgan
 1994 *Homes on the Range: Oral Recollections of Family Ranch Life on the U.S. Army White Sands Missile Range, New Mexico*. Human Systems Research, Inchawth, Las Cruces.
- Gutierrez, Ramon A.
 1991 *When Jesus Came, the Corn Mothers Went Away: Marriage, Sexuality and Power in New Mexico, 1500-1846*. Stanford University Press, Stanford..
 The subtitle indicates the emphasis of the book. The author uses marriage as a means to a broader examination of social relations. He describes the Spanish conquest of America as it affected one indigenous group; the Pueblo Indians.
- Haley, J. Evetts
 1933 Men of Fiber. Carl Hertzog, El Paso.
 1949 Charles Goodnight, Cowman and Plainsman. University of Oklahoma Press, Norman.
- Hafen, Leroy R., ed.
 1950 Armijo’s Journal of 1829-30; the Beginning of Trade Between New Mexico and California. In *Colorado Magazine*, Volume XXVII, April, 1950, pp. 120-131.
 This brief journal indicates the route taken by Armijo, the first person to traverse the Old Spanish Trail all the way from New Mexico to the California coast.

- Gibson, Arrell M.
 1967 Ranching on the Southern Great Plains. In *Journal of the West* 6(1): 135-153.
 A discussion of ranching in western Oklahoma, eastern New Mexico and west Texas 1870s-c. 1912.
- Grant, Frank
 1993 *Farm and Ranch Survey and Context Report*. Gregory T. Hicks and Associates, Albuquerque.
- Hinkle, James F.
 1937 *Early Days of A Cowboy on the Pecos*. Roswell, New Mexico Reprinted by Stagecoach Press, Santa Fe, 1965.
 In 1885 the CA Bar began to move cattle from the Llano Estacado in Texas to the Rio Penasco in New Mexico. Hinkle was a cowboy with this outfit and subsequently its foreman. This is his account of open-range ranching along the Pecos River from the 1880s to about 1901. Hinkle became County Commissioner of Lincoln County in 1890, was elected to the New Mexico Territorial legislature in 1901, served as mayor of Roswell 1905-1906 and governor of New Mexico 1923-24. He was State Land Commissioner 1930-1932.
- Hinton, Harwood P.
 1956 John Simpson Chisum: 1877-84. In *New Mexico Historical Review*, 31(3): 177-205; (4):310-337.
 A biography of the best-known of all open-range cattlemen.
- Jordan, Terry G.
 1993 *North American Cattle Ranching Frontiers: Origins, Diffusion and Differentiation*. University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque.
 A discussion of ranching from origins in Europe and Africa to its establishment in the New World and in particular the American West. This is perhaps the best general study of North American ranching and ranch practices.
- Lea County Genealogical Society
 1984 *Then and Now: Lea County Families and History*. Craftsman Printers, Inc, Lubbock..
- Maloney, Thomas J.
 1966 Cattle Ranching As a Cultural Ecology Problem in San Miguel County, New Mexico. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Washington University, St. Louis.
- Mosely, May Price
 1973 *"Little Texas" Beginnings in Southeastern New Mexico*. Hall-Poorbaugh Press, Roswell.
- Muir, Emma Marble.
 1958 Pioneer Ranch. In *New Mexico Magazine*, 36(6): 20; 62-63.
 A description of the Bar T Ranch in the Playas Valley near Lordsburg. Muir explains how the ranch was formed by acquisition of homesteads
- Nimmo, Joseph
 1972 Report on the Cattle Industry. In The American Frontier, Readings and Documents, ed. Robert V. Hine and Edwin R. Bingham. Little, Brown and Company, Boston.

Raish, Carol and Alice M. McSweeney

2003 Economic, Social and Cultural Aspects of Livestock Ranching on the Española and Canjilon Ranger Districts of the Santa Fe and Carson National Forests: A Pilot Study. U.S. Forest Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture. Rocky Mountain Research Station, Fort Collins, Colorado.

This study examines current economic, social and cultural aspects of livestock operations owned by ranchers who hold federal permits on the two named ranger districts. The study examines ranch work and off-ranch (outside) work and income, ranch size, livestock management and breed selection, costs and returns in the ranches studied, the serious problem of vandalism by outsiders, including the random killing of livestock, problems and issues associated with ranching on federal leased land, community, family and family values and goals, the history of the lands and the issue of ethnicity - 97 percent of the people interviewed for the study were born in northern New Mexico, and “the vast majority of grazing permittees on the two Districts we studied were born in the area into families who have been ranching in the region long before the advent of public lands” (p. 31).

This study is a contemporary analysis that reveals both current problems and concerns and the historic and enduring needs, trials and meaning of ranching as a way of life. As such, it has basic value, extending far beyond the area examined, for the archeologist or historian concerned with cultural resources that are to be inventoried on a ranch.

Seton, Ernest Thompson

1977 *Wild Animals I Have Known*. Peregrine Smith, Santa Barbara. First published 1898.

Includes the story of Lobo, the wolf of the Corrupa, and the story of the pacing mustang. The background of these is northeastern New Mexico and open-range ranching in the 1890s.

Simmons, Marc

1985 The Chacon Economic Report of 1803. In *New Mexico Historical Review*, 60(1):81-88.

This overview of New Mexico and its economy at the beginning of the nineteenth century offers an important benchmark and basis of comparison with colonial New Mexico in the eighteenth century and the province as it emerged in the Mexican Period after Chacon. Its emphasis is on agriculture, dominant in New Mexico’s economy from earliest times into the twentieth century.

Spicer, Edward H.

1962 *Cycles of Conquest: The Impact of Spain, Mexico and the United States on the Indians of the Southwest, 1533-1960*. University of Arizona Press, Tucson.

Turner, Joe (“Uncle Joe”)

1972 Personal communication, Albuquerque, New Mexico.

Vogt, Evon Z. and Albert, Ethel M.

1967 *People of Rimrock*. Harvard University Press, Cambridge.

A classic study of the society, economy and mores of the community of Ramah, which owes its existence mainly to the Stock Raising Homestead Act of 1916.

Weber, David J.

1992 *The Spanish Frontier in North America*. Yale University Press, New Haven.

This history takes us from first Spanish-Indian contact through the establishment of the Spanish empire in North America from Florida to California. It also compares aspects of Spanish settlement, economy, and religious motive and practice with those of England and France.

Westphall, Victor

1965 *The Public Domain in New Mexico 1854-1891*. University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque.

An essential study of land tenure and use in New Mexico in the Territorial period.

White, Richard

1991 *It's Your Misfortune and None of My Own: A History of the American West*. University of Oklahoma Press, Norman.

Whitlock, V.H.

1970 *Cowboy Life on the Llano Estacado*. University of Oklahoma Press, Norman.

The Homestead

Barker, Leo N.

1969 *The Desert Land Act: Contemporary Criticisms of the First Congressional Reclamation Policy, and Its Operation in the Territories of New Mexico and Wyoming, 1877-1888*. Unpublished Master's thesis. Las Cruces: New Mexico State University.

Cleveland, Thelma Cone Childers

1982 *Growing Up: 1906-1922*. Unpublished manuscript. Box 419, manuscript collection, History Library, Palace of the Governors, Santa Fe.

This detailed account of the daily of a New Mexico homestead and of the economy and society of which it was a part has remained unpublished.

Conover, Milton

1923 *The General Land Office. Its History, Activities and Organization*. The Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore.

Deutsch, Sarah

1987 *No Separate Refuge: Culture, Class and Gender on an Anglo-Hispanic Frontier in the American Southwest, 1880-1940*. Oxford University Press, New York.

An excellent source in considering research issues relating to demography, culture and gender in this period.

Deyloff, Glenda

2001 Quay County Women Homesteaders. Unpublished Master's thesis, New Mexico Highlands University, Las Vegas, New Mexico.

The author provides an overview of the literature of women homesteaders and women on American frontiers. She then offers a "group portrait" of women homesteaders in Quay County, New Mexico and profiles four women in detail. The earliest patents date to 1882, but most homesteads applications in the county were filed after the arrival of the railroad in 1903. Although Deyloff's subject is women homesteaders, she also notes that "Women and men who homesteaded were not significantly different in many ways, including their reasons for filing claims..." (p. 3).

Dodge, William A.

2005 Historic Land Use Patterns ay Kirtland Air Force Base, New Mexico. Prepared by: Van Citters, Historic Preservation, LLC under contract with Albuquerque District, U.S. Army Corps of Engineers for Kirtland Air Force Base.

DuBois, James T. and Gertrude S. Mathews

1917 Galusha A. Grow, Father of the Homestead Law. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.

Gates, Paul Wallace

1963 The Homestead Act: free land policy in operation, 1862-1935. In *Land Use Policy and Problems in the United States*. Ed. Howard W. Ottoson. University of Nebraska Press, Lincoln.

1968 *History of Public Land Law Development*. U.S. Public Land Law Commission, Washington, D.C.

Hannaford, Charles A.

1981 The Roswell sites: archeological survey and testing of 24 sites along U.S. 70 in Chaves and Lincoln Counties, New Mexico. Museum of New Mexico, Laboratory of Anthropology Note 175.

Hawthorne, Lori S.

1994 *I Never Left A Place That I Didn't Clean Up: The Legacy of Historic Settlement on Lands Administered by Holloman Air Force Base*. Holloman Air Force Base Cultural Resources Publication No. 1. Air Combat Command, United States Air Force, United States Department of Defense October 1994.

Hogg, Jim

1988 *Pioneer Pride*. LMC Printing Service. Albuquerque.

Hurt, R. Douglas

1981 *The Dust Bowl: An Agricultural and Social History*. Nelson-Hall, Chicago.

Jensen, Joan M.

1982 Canning Comes to New Mexico: Women and the Agricultural Extension Service. In *New Mexico Historical Review*, 57:361-386.

1986 "I've Worked, I'm Not Afraid of Work": Farm Women in New Mexico, 1920-1940. In *New Mexico Historical Review*, 61:27-52.

Two fine examples of gender and subsistence as related research topics.

Keener, John W. (compiler)

1916 *Public Land Statutes of the United States*. United States General Land Office, Washington, D.C.

- Kraenzel, Carl F.
 1955 *The Great Plains in Transition*. University of Oklahoma Press, Norman.
 A good source for discussion of tools and equipment, with dates of invention and general adoption.
- Lazzell, Ruleen
 1979 Life on a Homestead: Memories of Minnie A. Crisp In *New Mexico Historical Review*, 54: 59-65.
- Lu, Max
 2007 Homesteading Redux: New Community Initiatives to Reverse Rural Depopulation in the Great Plains. In *Journal of the West*, Vol. 46, No.1, Winter 2007.
- MacMahon, Sandra Varney
 1999 Fine Hands for Sowing: The Homesteading Experiences of Remittance Woman Jesse de Prado MacMillan. In *New Mexico Historical Review*, 74(3): 271-294.
 This history of a woman homesteader in the Alamogordo vicinity 1902 - 1909 is untypical in several respects. MacMillan was a “property-inheriting younger sibling” – that is, financially independent; this is why the author refers to her as a “remittance woman.” She bought her homestead for cash; it had already been partly developed and planted. MacMahon concludes that class – financial independence – and gender – she notes that women were able to acquire homesteads independently under the 1862 Act – were central to MacMillan’s story. She shows how MacMillan succeeded by hard work and thrift; she also notes that the homestead was at a high altitude – 7500 feet – and had dependable water sources.
- Maxwell, Timothy D.
 1983 *Excavations at the Cavanaugh Site, Las Vegas, New Mexico*. Laboratory of Anthropology Notes 321. Museum of New Mexico, Santa Fe.
- McGehee, Ellen D., Kari M. Schmidt, and Steven R. Hoagland
 2006 *The McDougall Homestead: Excavations at LA 131,237, Los Alamos, New Mexico*. Report LA-UR-06-1760. Los Alamos National Laboratory, Los Alamos.
- Mosley, May Price
 1973 *Little Texas: Beginnings in Southwestern New Mexico*. Hall-Poorbaugh Press, Roswell.
- Myers, Lee
 1974 The Pearl of the Pecos: The Story of the Establishment of Eddy, New Mexico, and Irrigation on the lower Pecos River of New Mexico. Copy on file, Special Collections, Zimmerman Library, University of New Mexico.

Nostrand, Richard L.

2003 Homesteading by El Cerrito's Quintanas Near Variadero/La Garita. In *New Mexico Historical Review*, 78(3): 265-283.

A study and analysis of how three extended Hispanic families branched away from their parent village of El Cerrito within the San Miguel del Vado Grant (1794), using the homestead laws to acquire tracts that would enable them to ranch along the Pecos River. Between 1917 and 1939, 28 villagers patented 31 homesteads. Nostrand shows how some villagers acquired upland grazing yet could not acquire enough land for viable ranches, while several others "orchestrated the acquisition of contiguous homesteads to create several viable ranches (pp. 277-278)."

Vogt, Evon. Z

1955 *Modern Homesteaders*. Belknap Press of Harvard University Press, Cambridge.

The farming and ranching community of Ramah, New Mexico that Vogt identifies by the fictitious name Homestead was founded primarily under the provisions of the Stock Raising Homestead Act of 1916 (p. 38). Vogt discusses the various means by which land was acquired. This is a comprehensive study of social organization, economy, mores, ethnicity, religion and other characteristics of the community.

Vogt, Evon Z. and Albert, Ethel M.

1967 *People of Rimrock*. Harvard University Press, Cambridge.

A continuation and elaboration of the previous study.

Walker, Forrest A.

1977 The Portales Forest Reserve. In *Greater Llano Estacado Southwest Heritage* 7(2): 2-11.

Williams, Jerry

1980 Missouri Avenue on the Caprock. Unpublished ms. on file, Geography Department, University of New Mexico.

Wilson, John P.

1988 A Homestead and Its Records. In *The Kiva*, Vol. 53, No. 4, 1988.

This article describes a small stone house built by an early twentieth-century homesteader north of Springerville, Arizona. Beyond this, the article discusses homestead records in the National Archives.

Exemplars

These exemplars, or models, are particularly useful examples of multidisciplinary investigations of ranch and homestead sites in the Southwest.

Akins, Nancy

1995 *Excavations at the Orosco Homestead near San Lorenzo, New Mexico*. Archaeology Notes 90. Office of Archaeological Studies, Museum of New Mexico, Santa Fe.

Ayres, James E. and Gregory R. Seymour

1993 *Life on a 1930s Homestead: Historical Archaeological Investigations of the Brown Homestead on the Middle Agua Fria River, Yavapai County, Arizona.* SWCA Anthropological Research Paper Number 2. SWCA, Inc. Environmental Consultants, Flagstaff and Tucson, Arizona.

Charles J. Brown was a home builder in Phoenix who lost everything in the Depression, then homesteaded 160 acres on the Agua Fria River in central Arizona northwest of Phoenix. He squatted on the land in 1933 (it had not been surveyed and was not available for homesteading). He first filed his claim in 1941 – two years after he left the place – under the Homestead Act of 1862. He lived on the property from 1933 to 1939, surviving by selling firewood, gardening, hunting and gathering, and raising goats, chickens and pigs, also leasing some state land for grazing. The Brown family proved up and received a patent in 1942. About a year later Brown sold the place to a local rancher.

The authors note that the Great Depression caused some dispossessed families to turn to homesteading in the 1920s and 30s (p. 7).

The research issues discussed in this report are subsistence and food production, sociocultural behavior, and vernacular architecture. The method employed was archeological mapping, artifact collection, historical document research, and oral history (interviews of the Brown siblings).

This is an excellent short interdisciplinary report.

Curriden, Nancy T.

1981 *The Lewis-Weber Site: A Tucson Homestead.* Western Archeological Center, National Park Service, Tucson.

This historic homestead (the first Anglo occupants may have been there as early as c. 1863) lay within the city limits of Tucson. All surface structures were demolished in 1962, so the site's research potential lay solely in the identification and excavation of remaining subsurface features. The homestead was unusual in its close relationship to a growing city. The research questions outlined by the author (p. 4) are earliest date of non-indigenous occupation; whether artifact type and distribution have to do with change in the ethnic, religious or socioeconomic background of the site's occupants; the possible presence of a specialized economic activity (blacksmith, butcher etc.); trade and communication in the Tucson area as indicated by recovered artifacts; any relationship between the historic occupants and the indigenous people (Papago); contradictions among archival, informant and archeological data.

Eidenbach, Peter L. and Robert L. Hart

- 1994 *A Number of Things: Baldy Russell, Estey City, & the Ozanne Stage. Historic Ranching and Mining on the U.S. Army White Sands Missile Range, New Mexico.* Prepared for White Sands Missile Range, New Mexico. Human Systems Research, Inc., Tularosa, New Mexico.

This volume, written in a popular style, may serve as a primer for the recording of historic ranch sites. Legal documents are cited; there are artifact descriptions – of hinges, bottles, cartridge casings, etc. There are newspaper items from 1884 forward. The report also discusses Estey City – a once thriving copper mining community that included a smelter, processing plant, assay office, general store and post office.

Ferg, Alan

- 1984 Historic Archaeology on the San Antonio de las Huertas Grant, Sandoval County, NM. CASA Papers No. 3.

Fontana, Bernard L. and J. Cameron Greenleaf

- 1962 Johnny Ward's Ranch: A Study in Historic Archaeology. In *The Kiva* 28(1-2):1-115.

Levine, Frances, Terry Knight and Richard Wojcik

- 1980 The Use of Public Records and Ethnography in Historic Cultural Resources Management: A Case Study from Northwestern New Mexico. Paper presented at the 13th Annual Meeting of the Society for Historical Archaeology, Albuquerque. In *Forgotten Places and Things: Archaeological Perspectives on American History*, pp. 85-96.. Contributions to Anthropological Studies No. 3, Center for Anthropological Studies, Albuquerque.

This essay deal with a homestead community occupied between 1920 and 1940 in the Arroyo Chijuilla west and south of Cuba, New Mexico. Anglo homesteaders from Texas and the Midwest filed for 640-acre claims under the Enlarged Stock-Raising Homestead Act of 1916.

The authors note that there are three databases available to historical archeologists: historic or documentary records, ethnographic observations, and archeological and architectural data. The report then correlates field observation, documentary sources and informant interviews to identify and explain resources on the ground. It is all the more useful for being short.

Levine, Frances

- 1989 A Homestead in Ruins: Richard Wetherill's Homestead in Chaco Canyon. In *From Chaco to Chaco: Papers in Honor of Robert H. Lister and Florence C. Lister*. Edited by Meliha S. Duran and David T. Kirkpatrick. Archaeological Society of New Mexico: 15. Archaeological Society of New Mexico, Albuquerque.

Richard Wetherill, the avocational archeologist who worked at Mesa Verde, Grand Gulch and Chaco Canyon (the Listers conclude that his work met contemporary professional standards and has lasting value to Southwestern archeology) began work in Chaco in 1896 as foreman of the Hyde Exploring Expedition and settled there in 1897 (he filed a formal homestead claim in 1900). His claim was the subject of two special investigations by the General Land Office, and Dr. Edgar Lee Hewett of the Museum of New Mexico and other archeologists worked hard to discredit him. The claim was not patented until October 1912, when Wetherill had been dead for more than two years. The GLO investigative reports, with details of the homestead and improvements, have unintended value for historians.

The National Park Service dismantled the last of the Wetherill structures adjacent to Pueblo Bonito in 1958. Over 62 years the site was variously a home, a ranch headquarters, the office of the Eastern Navajo Indian Agency, a trading post, a guest ranch, an artist's studio and the administrative headquarters of the national park.

This paper demonstrates the use of archeological field observation, documentary records and informant interviews as mutually supportive data in historic archeological investigations. See also

Merlan, Thomas

- 1985 Richard Wetherill's Homestead at Chaco. Paper presented at Los Alamos Historical Society Conference on Homesteading, Los Alamos, New Mexico.

This serves as a companion to the previous paper.

McGuire, Randall H.

- 2004 Excavations at Rancho Punta de Agua. In *Archaeology Southwest*, Vol. 18, no. 4, fall 2004, p. 13. Center for Desert Archaeology Tucson.

The Contzen family established Rancho Punta de Agua about 3 miles south of San Xavier del Bac Mission in 1855. The Elias family acquired the ranch about 1868. This article describes the excavation of the Contzen ranch house.

Morris, Rick, Monique E. Kimball, Thomas F. Messerli and Harding Polk II

- 1994 Hot Nights, San Francisco Whiskey, Baking Powder, and A View of the River: Life on the Southwestern Frontier. In *Across the Colorado Plateau: Anthropological Studies for the Transwestern Pipeline Expansion Project*, Volume XIX.

Chapter 10 (pp. 405-450) discusses historic homesteads and non-Navajo campsites. An appendix (B-235-236) by Monique Kimball discusses selected bottle marks.

Oakes, Yvonne R.

1983 The Ontiberos Site: A Hispanic Homestead near Roswell, New Mexico. Laboratory of Anthropology Note No. 311, Museum of New Mexico, Santa Fe.

This report discusses an early twentieth century Hispanic homestead, which was part of a small Hispanic community. There is also a minor protohistoric component (c. 1660-70).

1990 The Wilson Homestead: An Early Twentieth-Century Site on the Canadian River, Quay County, New Mexico. Office of Archaeological Studies, Museum of New Mexico, Santa Fe.

Discussion of research issues and a detailed examination of this site, with results of a testing program. In this case, the author concludes that the significance, which is the research potential, of the site is realized with this investigation, and that no further important information on local or regional history is likely.

Oakes, Yvonne R.

1995 Pigeon's Ranch and the Glorieta Battlefield: An Archaeological Assessment. Archaeology Note 123, Museum of New Mexico, Office of Archaeological Studies, Santa Fe.

Pigeon's Ranch stands out as a New Mexico ranch that was the site of an event of national importance – a major Civil War battle. Accordingly, this report is useful both as a discussion of a ranch (which was also a farm, a stage stop, an inn and/or saloon – in short, a fine example of an especially diverse economic strategy) and an analysis of how this operation links to national events. “Perhaps no site in New Mexico has had as varied a pattern of land use as Pigeon's Ranch and the Glorieta Battlefield” the author remarks (p. 117). As stated in the title, this report is primarily a discussion of the archeology of the ranch. It employs archeology, documentary history, oral history (including eyewitness accounts of the Civil War battle) and a photographic record that shows us the changing pattern of the ranch structures over time.

Seaman, Timothy J.

2000 Excavations at the S.M. Butcher and A.E. Wyatt Homesteads. Museum of New Mexico, Office of Archaeological Studies, Laboratory of Anthropology Notes 323, Santa Fe.

The homestead sites discussed here are near Tukumcari, New Mexico. Seaman describes the report as follows: “The role of homesteading in the extremely rapid economic and demographic growth and decline of Tukumcari during the first fifteen years of its existence was investigated through the collection and analysis of archaeological and primary historical data. The research suggests that the impact of homesteading on this community was indeed significant and may well have been a primary cause of the Tukumcari boom between 905 and 1915” (Administrative Summary, p. iii).

Stein, Pat H.

- 1981 Wintersburg: An Archaeological, Archival and Folk Account of Homesteading in Arizona. In *The Palo Verde Archaeological Investigations*. Museum of Northern Arizona Research Paper 21, Flagstaff.

Stein uses archeology, records and documents and local informants to investigate a homestead community in Maricopa County, Arizona.

Wiseman, Regge N.

- 2001 *Glimpses of Late Frontier Life in New Mexico's Southern Pecos Valley: Archaeology and History at Blackdom and Seven Rivers*. Archaeology Notes 233. Office of Archaeological Studies, Museum of New Mexico, Santa Fe.

Witkind, Max

- 2001 Cattle Ranching and Mining on Empire Ranch. In *Archaeology Southwest*, Vol. 15, no. 4, fall 2001, p. 9.

This article states that the Empire Ranch began as a 160-acre homestead filed c. 1874. The homestead became a ranch headquarters during the drought of the 1890s, when the then owner bought up other homesteads. At its largest extent, the Empire Ranch covered some 1,000 square miles. The owners (Vail family) established the Empire Mining and Developing Company and bought the Total Wreck silver mine in the Empire Mountains in 1881. The Vail family operated the ranch until 1928, when they sold to the Chiricahua Cattle Company. The Chiricahua Cattle Company sold to the Gulf American Corporation in 1960.

Wozniak, Frank E. and Peter Eschman

- 1983 *The Payton Site (OCA:174:1): Excavations at an Historic Homestead in Northern Quay County, New Mexico*. Office of Contract Archeology, University of New Mexico.

The Payton site was a homestead near the town of Logan in northeastern New Mexico, first settled c. 1908 and sold by the original owner in 1917. The authors employ archeological testing and analysis, published regional histories, county assessors' records and warranty deed records to describe and assess the site.

Artifact Identification

The following are some of the most useful artifact reference works now available.

Barnes, Frank C.

- 1965 *Cartridges of the World*. Follett Publishing, Chicago.

Douglas, R.W. and Susan Frank

- 1972 *A History of Glass Making*. G. T. Foulis, Henley-on-Thames, Oxfordshire.

Fawcett, Clara H.

- 1964 *Dolls: A New Guide for Collectors*. Charles I. Branford.

Gates, William J., Jr. and Dana E. Ormerod

- 1982 The East Liverpool Pottery District: Identification of Manufacturers and Marks. *Historical Archaeology* 16 (1-2): 1-258.

- Godden, Geoffrey A.
 1964 *Encyclopedia of British Pottery and Porcelain Marks*. Bonanza Books, New York.
 As the title indicates, this is an encyclopedia of British pottery marks. See also Kovel below.
- Kovel, Ralph M. and Terry H. Kovel
 1953 *Dictionary of Marks: Pottery and Porcelain*. Crown Publishers, New York.
 A comprehensive listing of porcelain marks according to shapes, with about three thousand illustrations, to facilitate ease of identification. Covers European and American factories.
- Lehner, Lois
 1980 *Complete Book of American Kitchen and Dinner Wares*. Wallace – Homestead Book, Des Moines.
 1988 *Lehner's Encyclopedia of U.S. Marks on Pottery, Porcelain and Clay*. Collector Books, Paducah, Kentucky.
- Luscomb, Sally C.
 1967 *The Collector's Encyclopedia of Buttons*. Crown Publishers, New York.
- Putnam, H.E.
 1965 *Bottle Identification*. Worldwide Publishers, Salem, Oregon.
- Randall, Mark E.
 1977 *Identifying and Dating Nineteenth and Twentieth Century Marbles*. In *Southwest Folklore* 1/2:1-34.
- Toulouse, Julian Harrison
 1971 *Bottle Makers and Their Marks*. Thomas Nelson, Inc., Nashville.
- Ward, Albert E., Emily K. Abbink and John R. Stein
 1977 Ethnohistorical and Chronological Basis of the Navajo Material Culture. In *Settlement and Subsistence along the Lower Chaco River: The CGP Survey*. Edited by Charles A. Reher: pp. 217-278. University of New Mexico, Albuquerque.
- Zumwalt, Betty
 1980 *Ketchup, Pickles, Sauces – 19th Century Food in Glass*. Mark West Publishers, Fulton.

Method and Theory

- Hume, Ivor Noel
 1969 *Historical Archaeology*. Alfred Knopf, New York.
- Rathje, William L. and Wilson W. Hughes
 1974 The Garbage Project: a new way of looking at the problems of archaeology. In *Archaeology* 27(4):236-241.
- Schiffer, Michael S.
 1976 *Behavioral Archaeology*. Academic Press, New York.

South, Stanley

1977 *Method and Theory in Historical Archaeology*. Cadernic Press, New York.

Turner, Frederick Jackson

1893 The Significance of the Frontier in American History. In *Annual Report of the American Historical Association for the Year 1893*, pp. 199-227.

Walker, Iain C.

1967 Historic Archeology: Methods and Principles. In *Historical Archeology* 1:23-33.

Wessel, Richard L.

1989 Programmatic Approach to the Management of Isolate Historic Refuse Deposits at Edwards Air Force Base, California. Draft for Review and Comment. On file, Historic Preservation Division, Department of Cultural Affairs, Santa Fe.

This discussion has specifically to do with “isolate historic refuse deposits” that cannot be associated with a particular homestead or ranch. However, the details it offers about tin cans, glass containers and ceramic vessels are useful to a surveyor working on any recent historic site.

National Register Criteria

Boland, Beth Grosvenor

1991 National Register Bulletin 32: Guidelines for Evaluating and Documenting Properties Associated With Significant Persons. U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Interagency Resources Division. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

McClelland, Linda Flint, J. Timothy Keller, Genevieve P. Keller and Robert Z. Melnick

1989 (Revised 1999) National Register Bulletin: Guidelines for Evaluating and Documenting Rural Historic Landscapes. U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Cultural Resources, National Register, History and Education. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

McClelland, Linda F. (editor)

1997 National Register Bulletin: How to Complete the National Register Registration Form. U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Cultural Resources, National Register, History and Education. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

Parker, Patricia L. and Thomas F. King

1994 National Register Bulletin 38: Guidelines for Evaluating and Documenting Traditional Cultural Properties. U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Interagency Resources Division, National Register of Historic Places. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

Potter, Elizabeth Walton and Beth M. Boland

1992 National Register Bulletin 41: Guidelines for Evaluating and Registering Cemeteries and Burial Places. U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Interagency Resources Division, National Register of Historic Places. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

Savage, Beth L. and Sarah Dillard Pope (editors)

- 1997 National Register Bulletin: How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation. U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Cultural Resources, National Register, History and Education. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

Seifert, Donna

- 1995 National Register Bulletin 21: Defining Boundaries for National Register Properties. U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Interagency Resources Division, National Register of Historic Places. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

Sherfy, Marcella and W. Ray Luce

- 1996 National Register Bulletin 22: Guidelines for Evaluating and Nominating Properties That Have Achieved Significance Within The Past Fifty Years. U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Interagency Resources Division, National Register of Historic Places, Washington, D.C..

Townsend, Jan, John H. Sprinkle Jr. and John Knoerl

- 1993 National Register Bulletin 36: Guidelines for Evaluating and Registering Historical Archeological Sites and Districts. U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Interagency Resources Division, National Register of Historic Places, Washington, D.C.

Procedures for Research and Recording

Hawkins, Kenneth

- 2007 Research in the Land Entry Files of the General Land Office: Record Group 49. Reference Information Paper 114. National Archives and Records Administration, Washington, D.C.

Historic Preservation Division, Office of Cultural Affairs

- 1993 User's Guide: New Mexico Cultural Resource Information System. Guidelines for Submitting Archeological Records. Historic Preservation Division, Office of Cultural Affairs, State of New Mexico. July, 1993.

Stein, Pat. H.

- 1990 Homesteading in Arizona, 1862 to 1940: A Guide to Studying, Evaluating, and Preserving Historic Homesteads. State Historic Preservation Office, Arizona State Parks, Flagstaff.

A discussion of procedural issues and theoretical problems.

Site Preservation and Maintenance

Bureau of Land Management, Department of the Interior

- 1991 *Stabilization Assessment of Selected Homesteads*. Albuquerque District, New Mexico State Office, Bureau of Land Management. December, 1991.

This is not a research design nor an evaluation of significance. It details procedures for the assessment of the elements of a group of historic (ranch and homestead) structures in the Rio Puerco in New Mexico (many of the sites are in a wilderness area) and proposes four different levels of treatment: (1) stabilization and restoration; (2) replacement of some building elements and provision for structural integrity; (3) minimum investment in structural support to extend the life of the building; and (4) doing nothing, except some propping as circumstances may dictate.

Goodall, Harrison

- 1980 *Log Structures – Preservation and Problem-Solving*. American Association for State and Local History, Nashville, Tennessee.

Throep, Gail

- n.d. *Historic Buildings in Wilderness: A Search for Compatibilities*. Portland, Oregon. USDA Forest Service, Pacific Northwest Region.

Ranch Architecture and Physical Features

Baker, T. Lindsay

- 1985 *A Field Guide to American Windmills*. University of Oklahoma Press, Norman.
1987 *New Mexico Windmill Towers as Vernacular Architecture*. In *New Mexico Architecture*, July August:11-15.

Bunting, Bainbridge

- 1976 *Early Architecture in New Mexico*. University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque.

Bunting is New Mexico's best-known architectural historian. These three classic works offer an overview of New Mexico's traditional architecture.

- 1974 *Of Earth and Timbers Made: New Mexico Architecture*. University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque.
1964 *Taos Adobes: Spanish Colonial and Territorial Architecture of the Taos Valley*. Museum of New Mexico Press (Santa Fe) and Fort Burgwin Research Center, Taos.

Burroughs, Jean M. and Bill Dalley

- 1985 *Homestead Windmills*. Portales, New Mexico.

Gibbs, William E., Keith E. Gibson, Alberta W. Silva, Peggy L. Stokes, and Ernestine Chasser Williams

- 1985 *Treasures of History: Historic Buildings in Chaves County 1870-1935*. Chaves County Historical Society, Roswell.

Hinshaw, Gil

- 1976 *Lea, New Mexico's Last Frontier*. Hobbs Daily News-Sun, Hobbs, New Mexico.

Robinson, Willard B.

1979 Colonial Ranch Architecture in the Spanish-Mexican Tradition. In *Southwestern Historical Quarterly*, No. 83.

Urbanofsky, Elo J.

1973 Plaza de los Pastores, Oldham County, Texas: Feasibility Report. Texas Tech University, Department of Park Administration and Horticulture, Lubbock.

Oral History

Baum, Willa K.

1977 Transcribing and Editing Oral History. American Association for State and Local History, Nashville.

Briggs, Charles L.

1986 Learning How To Ask: A Sociolinguistic Appraisal of the Role of the Interview in Social Science Research. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Dunaway, David K. and Willa K. Baum, eds.

1984 Oral History: An Interdisciplinary Anthology. American Association for State and Local History, Nashville.

Kyvig, David E. and Myron E. Marty

1982 Nearby History: Exploring the Past Around You. American Association for State and Local History, Nashville. Reprinted 1996 by AtaMira Press.

APPENDIX A
HOMESTEADS AND RANCHES ON THE STATE
REGISTER OF CULTURAL PROPERTIES AND
NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES

APPENDIX A

HOMESTEADS AND RANCHES ON THE STATE REGISTER OF CULTURAL PROPERTIES AND NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES

Relatively few homesteads and ranches are presently (March 2008) entered in the State Register of Cultural Properties and/or National Register of Historic Places. The following list does not include archeological sites located on ranches. The properties are:

NAME	FILE #	COUNTY	CITY	SR DATE	NR DATE
Aguayo Family Homestead	1747	Lincoln	Nogal	9/17/1999	12/28/1995
Alamosa Ranch House and Blacksmith Shop	1023	Sierra	Truth or Consequences	6/8/1984	
Armijo, Juan Cristobal "New Homestead"	586	Bernalillo	Albuquerque	1/20/1978	9/30/1982
Bell Ranch Headquarters	133	San Miguel	Conchas l	11/21/1969	10/6/1970
Bouquet Ranch	212	Santa Fe	Pojoaque	5/21/1971	
CA Bar Ranch House (James Fielding Hinkle House)	1015	Chaves	Mayhill	6/8/1984	8/29/1988
Causey Ranch House	360	Chaves	Caprock	2/28/1975	
Church of the Immaculate Conception Ranch And Campo Santo	135	Harding	Gallegos	11/21/1969	
Circle Cross Ranch, Main House	775	Otero	Sacramento	8/29/1980	11/17/1980
Clemens Ranch House	378	Socorro	Magdalena	5/3/1975	4/18/1979
Diamond A Ranch House and Bunkhouse	1014	Chaves	Roswell	6/18/1984	8/29/1988
Flying H Ranch Buildings	1009	Chaves	Flying H	6/8/1984	9/14/1988
Hatch's Ranch	201	San Miguel	Chaperito	9/25/1970	
Homestead and Ranch School Era Roads and Trails Of Los Alamos MPL	1827	Los Alamos	Los Alamos	5/13/2003	9/20/2003
Homestead Crossing	1849	Los Alamos	Los Alamos	6/13/2003	
Homesteads in the Lincoln National Forest	1712	Lincoln	Multiple		12/28/1995
Kroenig, William Hay Barns #51 and #52	903	Mora	Watrous	12/1/1982	
Kroenig, William Hay Barns #53 and #54	904	Mora	Watrous	12/1/1982	
Kroenig, William Ranch Complex	900	Mora	Watrous	12/1/1982	
LC Ranch Headquarters	189	Grant	Gila	5/22/1970	12/6/1978
Las Golondrinas Ranch Site and Acequia System	219	Santa Fe	La Cienega	8/6/1971	2/1/1980
Lawrence, D.H. Ranch Historic District	1841	Taos	San Cristobal	8/8/2003	1/15/2004

NAME	FILE #	COUNTY	CITY	SR DATE	NR DATE
Los Alamos (Village) Ranch House	1613	San Miguel	Sapello	8/18/1995	
Los Alamos Ranch School	68	Los Alamos	Los Alamos	5/23/1969	
Los Pinos Ranch	1696	San Miguel	Cowles	5/8/1998	
Luhan, Martin Homestead	1854	Los Alamos	Los Alamos	8/8/2003	
Milne-Bush Ranch Ranch House and Barn	1013	Chaves	Roswell	6/8/1984	8/29/1988
NAN Ranch	1431	Grant	Dwyer (Faywood P.O.)	3/4/1988	5/16/1988
Orchard Ranch	149	Harding	Mills	2/20/1970	
Pigeon's Ranch	192	Santa Fe	Glorieta	5/22/1970	
Pino Family Hispanic Homestead	1880	Lincoln	Carrizozo vic.	6/10/2005	
Portillo, Maurice Homestead	1427	Grant	San Lorenzo	3/4/1988	5/16/1988
Ranch School Trail	1851	Los Alamos	Los Alamos	6/13/2003	
Ranchito de Natividad	1862	Rio Arriba	Abiquiu	2/13/2003	
Rancho Bonito	514	Torrance	Mountainair	7/15/1977	5/4/1977
Rancho de Carnue(LA 12315)	396	Bernalillo	Albuquerque	7/25/1975	5/4/1977
Rancho de Los Luceros (formerly Hacienda)	143	Rio Arriba	Alcalde	1/9/1970	10/20/1983
Rancho Torres	1484	Lincoln	Lincoln	7/8/1988	9/13/1988
Rayado Ranch (The) of Colfax County, New Mexico	1547	Colfax	Rayado	2/19/1993	6/23/1993
Salmon, George Homestead	513	San Juan	Farmington	9/29/1989	
Slaughter-Hill Ranch Log House (Cunningham Homestead)	1012	Chaves	Roswell	6/8/1984	8/29/1988
South Spring Ranch Outbuildings	1010	Chaves	Roswell	6/8/1984	4/24/1989
Tipton-Black Willow Ranch Historic District	1796	Mora	Watrous	7/21/2000	
Tipton-Black Willow Ranch Historic District	1796	San Miguel	Watrous	7/21/2000	6/29/2001
Valencia Ranch Historic/Archaeological District	925	San Miguel	Pecos	7/8/1983	2/9/1984
Vogt, Evon Zartman Ranch House	1509	McKinley	Ramah	8/4/1989	2/4/1993
Watrous, Joseph B Ranch	897	Mora	Watrous	12/1/1982	

APPENDIX B SITE FORMS

LABORATORY OF ANTHROPOLOGY SITE RECORD
HISTORIC CULTURAL PROPERTIES INVENTORY FORM
NIAF/NAIF INSTRUCTIONS
STATE REGISTER FORM
NATIONAL REGISTER FORM

These forms are available in electronic format at NMCRIS and HPD websites

APPENDIX C
COUNTY COURTHOUSES
PUBLIC LIBRARIES

APPENDIX C

NEW MEXICO COUNTY COURTHOUSES

<p><u>Bernalillo</u> Address: One Civic Plaza, NW, 6th Floor Albuquerque, NM 87102</p> <p>Phone: (505) 468-1290 Fax: (505) 768-4631 Email: Clerk@bernco.gov</p>	<p><u>Harding</u> Address: 35 Pine Street Mosquero, NM 87733</p> <p>Phone: (505) 673-2301 Fax: (505) 673-2922 Email: hardingcc@plateautel.net</p>	<p><u>Roosevelt</u> Address: Roosevelt County Courthouse, Rm. 106 Portales, NM 88130</p> <p>Phone: (505) 356-8562 Fax: (505) 356-3560 Email: jfraise@rooseveltcountry.com</p>
<p><u>Catron</u> Address: Catron County Courthouse Box 197 Reserve, NM 87830</p> <p>Phone: (575) 533-6400 Fax: (575) 533-6400 Email: cclerk@gilanet.com</p>	<p><u>Hidalgo</u> Address: Hidalgo County Courthouse 300 South Shakespeare St. Lordsburg, NM 88045</p> <p>Phone: (575) 542-9213 Fax: (575) 542-3193 Email: hidclck@aznexus.net</p>	<p><u>San Juan</u> Address: Box 550 Aztec, NM 87410</p> <p>Phone: (505) 334-9471 Fax: (505) 334-3635 Email: fhanhardt@co.san-juan.nm.us</p>
<p><u>Chaves</u> Address: Box 580 Roswell, NM 88202</p> <p>Phone: (575) 624-6614 Fax: (575) 624-6523 Email: dkunko@co.chaves.nm.us</p>	<p><u>Lea</u> Address: Box 1507 Lovington, NM 88260</p> <p>Phone: (575) 396-8623 Fax: (575) 396-3293 Email: mhughes@leacounty.net</p>	<p><u>San Miguel</u> Address: 500 W. National Avenue Las Vegas, NM 87701</p> <p>Phone: (505) 425-9331 Fax: (505) 454-1799 Email: smclerk@lasvegas-nm.com</p>
<p><u>Cibola</u> Address: 515 W. High Grants, NM 87020</p> <p>Phone: (505) 285-2535 Fax: (505) 285-2562 Email: eileenm@cia-g.com</p>	<p><u>Lincoln</u> Address: Box 338 Carrizozo, NM 88301</p> <p>Phone: (575) 648-2394 Fax: (575) 648-2876 Email: tammiamaddox@lincolncountynm.net</p>	<p><u>Sandoval</u> Address: Box 40 Bernalillo, NM 87004</p> <p>Phone: (505) 867-7572 Fax: (505) 867-7638 Email: sandovalclerk@aol.com</p>
<p><u>Colfax</u> Address: Box 159 Raton, NM 87740</p> <p>Phone: (575) 445-5551 Fax: (575) 445-4031 Email: colfaxclerk@bacavalley.com</p>	<p><u>Los Alamos</u> Address: Los Alamos Co. Municipal Bldg Los Alamos, NM 87544</p> <p>Phone: (505) 662-8010 Fax: (505) 662-8008 Email: clerk@lac.losalamos.nm.us</p>	<p><u>Santa Fe</u> Address: Box 1985 Santa Fe, NM 87504</p> <p>Phone: (505) 986-6280 Fax: (505) 995-2767 Email: vespinoza@co.santa-fe.nm.us</p>

<p><u>Curry</u> Address: PO Box 1168 Clovis, NM 88102-1168</p> <p>Phone: (575) 763-5591 Fax: (575) 763-4232 Email: mltrujillo@plateautel.net</p>	<p><u>Luna</u> Address: Box 1838 Deming, NM 88031-1838</p> <p>Phone: (575) 546-0491 Fax: (575) 546-4708 Email: clerk1@zianet.com</p>	<p><u>Sierra</u> Address: 100 N. Date Street Truth or Consequences, NM 87901</p> <p>Phone: (575) 894-2840 Fax: (575) 894-2516 Email: jsanchezclerk@riolink.com</p>
<p><u>De Baca</u> Address: Box 347 Fort Sumner, NM 88119</p> <p>Phone: (575) 355-2601 Fax: (575) 355-2441 Email: dbcclerknm@plateautel.net</p>	<p><u>McKinley</u> Address: Box 1268 Gallup, NM 87305</p> <p>Phone: (505) 863-6866 Fax: (505) 863-1419 Email: rpalochak@co.mckinley.nm.us</p>	<p><u>Socorro</u> Address: Box I Socorro, NM 87801</p> <p>Phone: (575) 835-0423 Fax: (575) 835-1043 Email: ajaramillo@co.socorro.nm.us</p>
<p><u>Dona Ana</u> Address: Dona Ana County Courthouse 251 W. Amador Avenue Las Cruces, NM 88005</p> <p>Phone: (575) 647-7428 Fax: (575) 647-7464 Email: ceciliam@donaanacounty.org</p>	<p><u>Mora</u> Address: Box 360 Mora, NM 87732</p> <p>Phone: (575) 387-2448 Fax: (505) 387-9022 Email: mora_clerk@yahoo.com</p>	<p><u>Taos</u> Address: 105 Albright St., Suite D Taos, NM 87571</p> <p>Phone: (575) 737-6380 Fax: (575) 737-6390 Email: elaine_montano@taoscounty.org</p>
<p><u>Eddy</u> Address: 101 West Greene, Suite 312 Carlsbad, NM 88220</p> <p>Phone: (575) 885-3383 Fax: (575) 234-1493 Email: jean@co.eddy.nm.us</p>	<p><u>Otero</u> Address: 1000 New York Ave., Rm. 108 Alamogordo, NM 88310-6932</p> <p>Phone: (575) 437-4942 Fax: (575) 443-2922 Email: mquintana@co.otero.nm.us</p>	<p><u>Torrance</u> Address: Box 767 Estancia, NM 87016</p> <p>Phone: (505) 246-4735 Fax: (505) 384-4080 Email: lkayser@torrancecountynm.org</p>
<p><u>Grant</u> Address: Box 898 Silver City, NM 88062 Phone: (575) 574-0042 Fax: (575) 574-0076 Email: masedillo@grantcountynm.com</p>	<p><u>Quay</u> Address: Box 1225 Tucumcari, NM 88401 Phone: (575) 461-0510 Fax: (575) 461-0513 Email: quaycountyclerk@hotmail.com</p>	<p><u>Union</u> Address: Box 430 Clayton, NM 88415 Phone: (575) 374-9491 Fax: (575) 374-2763 Email: unionclerk@plateautel.net</p>

<p><u>Guadalupe</u> Address: Guadalupe County Courthouse 420 Parker Avenue, Suite 1 Santa Rosa, NM 88435</p> <p>Phone: (575) 472-3791 Fax: (575) 472-4791 Email: msguadclerk@plateautel.net</p>	<p><u>Rio Arriba</u> Address: Box 1256 Española, NM 87532</p> <p>Phone: (505) 753-1780 Fax: (505) 753-1258 Email: rioarribacountyclerk@yahoo.com</p>	<p><u>Valencia</u> Address: Box 969 Los Lunas, NM 87031</p> <p>Phone: (505) 866-2073 Fax: (505) 866-2015 Email: clk@co.valencia.nm.us</p>
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APPENDIX C

NEW MEXICO PUBLIC LIBRARIES

CITY	LIBRARY NAME	LIBRARY SYSTEM	ADDRESS	PHONE
Abiquiu	Abiquiu Public Library	Abiquiu Public Library	County Rd. #187	5756854884
Alamogordo	Alamogordo Public Library	Alamogordo Public Library	920 Oregon Ave.	5754379058
Albuquerque	Alamosa/Robert L. Murphy Memorial Library	Albuquerque/Bernalillo County Library System	6900 Gonzales Rd. SW	5058360684
Albuquerque	Albuquerque/Bernalillo County Library System	Albuquerque/Bernalillo County Library System	501 Copper NW	5057685140
Albuquerque	Cherry Hills Library	Albuquerque/Bernalillo County Library System	6901 Barstow NE	5058578321
Albuquerque	Erna Fergusson Library	Albuquerque/Bernalillo County Library System	3401-A Monroe NE	5058888100
Albuquerque	Ernie Pyle Library	Albuquerque/Bernalillo County Library System	900 Girard Blvd. SE	5052562065
Albuquerque	Esperanza Branch	Albuquerque/Bernalillo County Library System	5600 Esperanza Dr., NW	5058360684
Albuquerque	Juan Tabo Library	Albuquerque/Bernalillo County Library System	3407 Juan Tabo Blvd. NE	5052916260
Albuquerque	Lomas Tramway Library	Albuquerque/Bernalillo County Library System	908 Eastridge NE	5052916295
Albuquerque	Los Griegos Library	Albuquerque/Bernalillo County Library System	1000 Griegos Rd NW	5057614020
Albuquerque	North Valley Library	Albuquerque/Bernalillo County Library System	7704 2nd St. NW	5058978823
Albuquerque	San Pedro Library	Albuquerque/Bernalillo County Library System	5600 Trumbull SE	5052562067
Albuquerque	South Broadway/Frances Parrish Library	Albuquerque/Bernalillo County Library System	1025 Broadway SE	5057641742
Albuquerque	South Valley Library	Albuquerque/Bernalillo County Library System	3904 Isleta Blvd SW	5058775170
Albuquerque	Special Collections Library	Albuquerque/Bernalillo County Library System	423 Central Ave. NE	5058481376
Albuquerque	Taylor Ranch Library	Albuquerque/Bernalillo County Library System	5700 Bogart NW	5058978816
Albuquerque	Westgate Library	Albuquerque/Bernalillo County Library System	1300 Delgado SW	5058336984
Albuquerque	Wyoming Library	Albuquerque/Bernalillo County Library System	8205 Apache NE	5052916262
Angel Fire	Shuter Library Of Angel Fire	Shuter Library Of Angel Fire	11 South Angel Fire Rd.	5753776755
Anthony	Valley Public Library	Valley Public Library	P.O. Box 1476 136 N. Main	9158865250
Artesia	Artesia Public Library	Artesia Public Library	306 W. Richardson	5757464252
Aztec	Aztec Public Library	Aztec Public Library	201 W. Chaco	5053349456
Bayard	Bayard Public Library	Bayard Public Library	525 Central Ave.	5755376244

CITY	LIBRARY NAME	LIBRARY SYSTEM	ADDRESS	PHONE
Belen	Belen Public Library	Belen Public Library	333 Becker Ave.	5058647797
Bernalillo	Sandia Pueblo Learning Resource Ctr.	Sandia Pueblo Learning Resource Ctr.	236 Sandia Day School Rd.	5057715074
Bernalillo	Santa Ana Pueblo Community Library	Santa Ana Pueblo Community Library	2 Dove Road	5058673301
Bernalillo	Town Of Bernalillo Public Library	Town Of Bernalillo Public Library	134 Calle Malinche	5058673311
Bloomfield	Bloomfield Community Library	Bloomfield Public Library	333 South First Street	5056328315
Bosque Farms	Bosque Farms Community Library	Bosque Farms Public Library	1455 West Bosque Loop	5058692227
Capitan	Capitan Public Library	Capitan Public Library	106 Lincoln Ave (Po Box 1169)	5753543035
Carlsbad	Carlsbad Public Library	Carlsbad Public Library	101 S. Halagueno St.	5758850731
Chama	Eleanor Daggett Memorial Library	Eleanor Daggett Memorial Library (Chama)	P.O. Box 786	5757562388
Clayton	Albert W. Thompson Memorial Library	Albert W. Thompson Memorial Library	17 Chestnut Street	5753749423
Cloudcroft	Michael Nivison Library	Michael Nivison Public Library	90 Swallow Place, Po Box 515	5756821111
Clovis	Clovis-Carver Public Library	Clovis-Carver Public Library	701 Main St.	5757697840
Cochiti Lake	Irene S. Sweetkind Public Library	Irene S. Sweetkind Public Library	6515A Hoochaneetsa Blvd.	5054652561
Cochiti Pueblo	Cochiti Pueblo Community Library	Pueblo De Cochiti Library	245 Cochiti St.	5054652885
Columbus	Columbus Village Library	Columbus Public Library	P.O Box 414	5755312663
Corrales	Corrales Community Library	Corrales Community Library	84 La Entrada West	5058970733
Cuba	Cuba Community Library	Cuba Public Library	P.O. Box 426	5752893100
Datil	Baldwin Cabin Public Library	Baldwin Cabin Public Library	Highway 60	5757725230
Deming	Marshall Memorial Library	Marshall Memorial Library	301 South Tin	5755469202
Dexter	Dexter Public Library	Dexter Public Library	115 E. Second Street	5757345482
Dixon	Embudo Valley Community Library	Embudo Valley Library	#2 Highway 75	5055799181
Dulce	Jicarilla Library	Jicarilla Public Library	P.O. Box 507	5757593616
Duncan, Az	Virden Public Library	Virden Public Library	Rt. 1 Box 162	5753582544
Eagle Nest	Eagle Nest Public Library	Eagle Nest Public Library	151 Willow Creek Dr. (P.O.B.168)	5753772486

CITY	LIBRARY NAME	LIBRARY SYSTEM	ADDRESS	PHONE
Edgewood	Edgewood Community Library	Edgewood Community Library	1943 E. Old Highway 66	5052810138
El Rito	El Rito Public Library	El Rito Public Library	P.O. Box 5	5055814789
Elida	Elida Public Library	Elida Public Library	703 Clark St.	5052746465
Espanola	Espanola Public Library	Espanola Public Library	314-A Onate St. NW	5057533860
Espanola	Santa Clara Pueblo Community Library	Santa Clara Pueblo Community Library	P.O. Box 580	5057537326
Estancia	Estancia Public Library	Estancia Public Library	10th And Highland	5053842708
Eunice	Eunice Public Library	Eunice Public Library	P.O. Box 1629	5053942336
Farmington	Farmington Public Library	Farmington Public Library	2101 Farmington Ave.	5055991270
Fort Sumner	Fort Sumner Public Library	Fort Sumner Public Library	P.O. Drawer D	5753557732
Gallup	Octavia Fellin Public Library	Octavia Fellin Public Library	200 W. Aztec	5058631291
Glenwood	Glenwood Community Library	Glenwood Community Library	P.O. Box 144 15 Menges Lane	5755392686
Grants	Mother Whiteside Memorial Library	Mother Whiteside Memorial Library	525 High St.	5052877927
Hatch	Hatch Public Library	Hatch Public Library	P.O. Box 289	5752675132
Hillsboro	Hillsboro Community Library	Hillsboro Community Library	Elenora Street	5758953349
Hobbs	Hobbs Public Library	Hobbs Public Library	509 N. Shipp	5753979328
Isleta	Isleta Pueblo Library/Resource Center	Isleta Pueblo Public Library	P.O. Box 1270	5058692597
Jal	Woolworth Community Library	Woolworth Community Library	3rd And Utah St.	5753952832
Jemez Pueblo	Jemez Pueblo Community Library	Jemez Pueblo Community Library	P.O. Box 9	5058349171
Jemez Springs	Jemez Springs Public Library	Jemez Springs Public Library	P.O. Box 247	5058299155
La Joya	Rio Abajo Community Library	Rio Abajo Community Library	28 South Calle De Centro	5058618289
Laguna	Pueblo Of Laguna Library	Laguna Public Library	P.O. Box 194	5055526280
Las Cruces	Thomas Branigan Memorial Library	Thomas Branigan Memorial Library	200 E. Picacho Ave.	5755261047
Las Vegas	Carnegie Public Library	Carnegie Public Library	500 National Ave.	5054541401
Lordsburg	Lordsburg-Hidalgo Library	Lordsburg-Hidalgo Library	208 E. Third St.	5755429646
Los Alamos	Los Alamos County Library	Los Alamos County Library System	2400 Central Ave.	5056628240
Los Alamos	White Rock Branch Library	Los Alamos County Library System	133 Longview Drive	5056628265
Los Lunas	Los Lunas Public Library	Los Lunas Public Library	P.O. Box 1209	5058656779
Lovington	Lovington Public Library	Lovington Public Library	115 South Main St.	5753963144
Magdalena	Magdalena Public Library	Magdalena Public Library	P.O. Box 86	5758542261

CITY	LIBRARY NAME	LIBRARY SYSTEM	ADDRESS	PHONE
Mescalero	Mescalero Community Library	Mescalero Community Library	101 Central Avenue	5754644500
Mora	David F. Cargo Public Library	David Cargo Public Library	P.O. Box 638	5753875029
Moriarty	Moriarty Community Library	Moriarty Community Library	P.O. Box 1917	5058326919
Mountainair	Mountainair Library	Mountainair Library	110 Roosevelt Ave. P.O. Box 100	5058472450
Navajo	Navajo Community Library	Navajo Community Library	Cleveland St.	5057772598
Portales	Portales Public Library	Portales Public Library	218 S. Avenue B	5753563940
Pueblo Of Acoma	Acoma Learning Center	Acoma Learning Center	P.O. Box 288	5055526108
Raton	Arthur Johnson Memorial Library	Arthur Johnson Memorial Library	244 Cook Ave.	5754459711
Red River	Red River Public Library	Red River Public Library	702 E. Main	5757546564
Reserve	Reserve Public Library	Reserve Public Library	Jake Scott Avenue	5755336276
Rio Rancho	Rio Rancho Public Library	Rio Rancho Public Library	P.O. Box 15670	5058917244
Roswell	Roswell Public Library	Roswell Public Library	301 N. Pennsylvania Ave.	5756223400
Ruidoso	Ruidoso Public Library	Ruidoso Public Library	P.O. Box 3539	5752574335
San Felipe	Pueblo Of San Felipe Library	Pueblo Of San Felipe Community Library	Hagan Rd. & I - 25 North	5058675234
San Ysidro	Zia Enrichment Library	Zia Enrichment Library	General Delivery	5058673304
Santa Fe	Library Bookstop	Santa Fe Public Library	4250 Cerrillos Road #1264 Villa Lin	5059552980
Santa Fe	Oliver La Farge Library	Santa Fe Public Library	1730 Llano Street	5059554860
Santa Fe	Pojoaque Pueblo Library	Pojoaque Pueblo Public Library	Rt. 11 Box 71	5054557511
Santa Fe	Santa Fe Public Library	Santa Fe Public Library	145 Washington Ave.	5059846789
Santa Fe	Southside Library	Santa Fe Public Library	6599 Jaguar Drive	5059552810
Santa Fe	Vista Grande Public Library	Vista Grande Public Library	14 Avenida Torreon	5054667323
Santa Rosa	Moise Memorial Library	Moise Memorial Library	208 Fifth Street	5754723101
Santo Domingo Pue	Santo Domingo Pueblo Library	Santo Domingo Pueblo Library	Tesuque Street	5054652214
Shiprock	Shiprock Branch Library	Farmington Public Library	Hwy 666	5054866308
Silver City	The Public Library	The Public Library (Silver City)	515 W. College Ave.	5755383672
Socorro	Socorro Public Library	Socorro Public Library	401 Park Street	5758351114
Springer	Fred Macaron Library	Fred Macaron Library (Springer)	Box 726	5754832848
Sunland Park	Sunland Park Community Library	Sunland Park Community Library	984 Mcnutt Road, Bldg. F-10	5758740873
Taos	Taos Public Library	Taos Public Library	402 Camino De La Placita	5757583063

CITY	LIBRARY NAME	LIBRARY SYSTEM	ADDRESS	PHONE
Tatum	Tatum Community Library	Tatum Community Library	Box 156	5753984822
Tijeras	East Mountain Library	Albuquerque/Bernalillo County Library System	P.O. Box 1570	5052818508
To'hajiilee	To'hajiile Community School Library	To'hajiile Community School Library	Exit 131 North To End Of Road	5058313426
Truchas	Truchas Community Library	Truchas Community Library	#60 County Road 75	5056892683
Truth Or Consequences	Truth Or Consequences Public Library	Truth Or Consequences Public Library	Box 311	5758943027
Truth Or Consequences	Truth Or Consequences Public Library, Downtown Branch	Truth Or Consequences Public Library	301 South Foch Street	5758947821
Tucumcari	Schlientz Memorial Library	Tucumcari Public Library	602 S. Second St.	5754610295
Weed	Weed Community Library	Michael Nivison Public Library	P.O. Box 511	
Zuni	Zuni Public Library	Zuni Public Library	27 E. Chavez Circle	5057825630