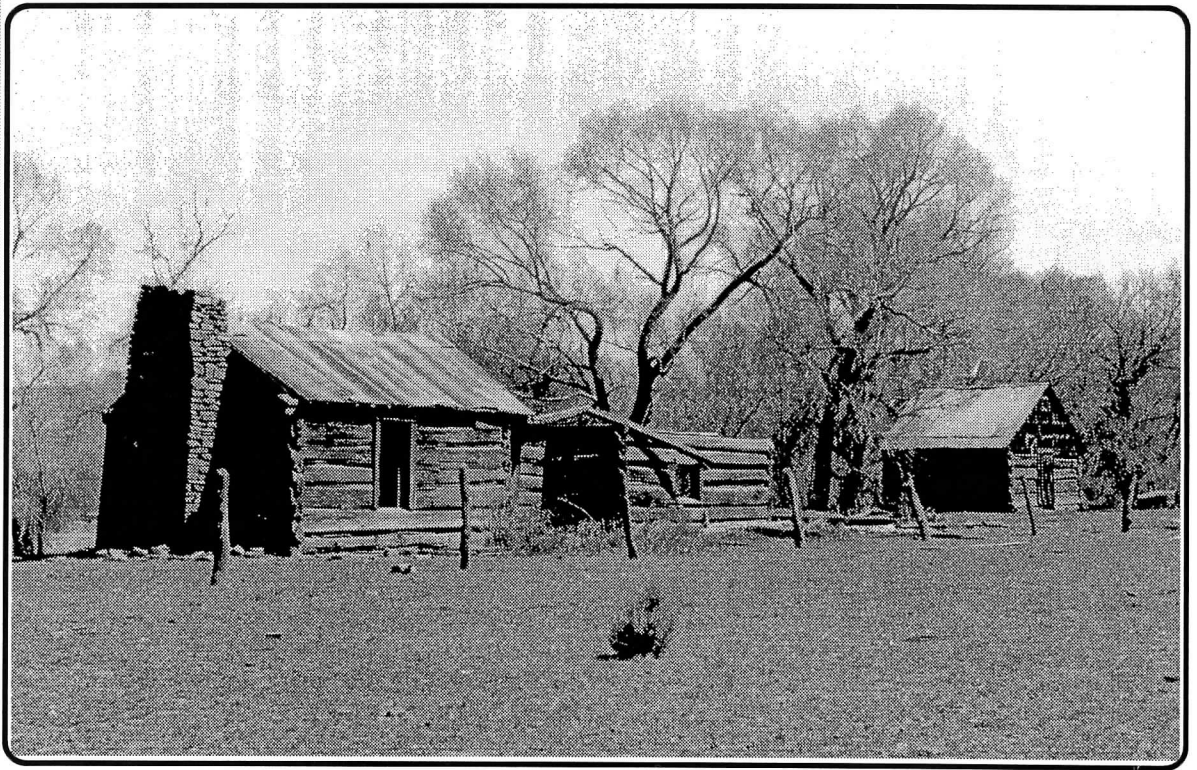

HOMESTEADING IN ARIZONA

1870-1942

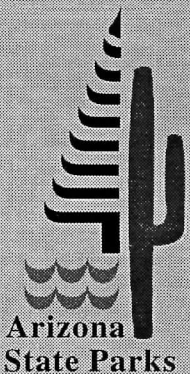


A Component of the Arizona Historic Preservation Plan

prepared for:
Arizona State Historic Preservation Office
Arizona State Parks Board
1300 W. Washington
Phoenix, AZ 85007

prepared by:
Pat H. Stein
Arizona State Historic Preservation Office

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Preface

One's first encounter with an Arizona homestead can be a discouraging experience. I remember mine. It was in June of 1975, it was in Wintersburg (site of the Palo Verde Nuclear Generating Station), and it would have been about 105 degrees in the shade if there had been shade. There were mounds of barbed wire, broken glass, and rusted cans everywhere. Not one artifact appeared to date earlier than 1920. The most exciting features were concrete slabs, the foundations of houses long ago carted away. "Now what, exactly," asked a representative from the Arizona Nuclear Power Project, fixing a sceptical eye on me, "are you going to do with all this stuff." I made up something, and I guess it sounded convincing, but deep down I wasn't sure. The homesteads seemed too new and the material at them looked too familiar to interest an archaeologist.

My situation was not unusual for an Arizona archaeologist in 1975. Recent legislation had required agencies to assess the effects of projects having federal involvement on properties eligible for the National Register of Historic Places and to develop measures to lessen the effects of such projects on Register-eligible resources. Archaeologists were becoming increasingly skilled at evaluating the significance of prehistoric and historic sites and proposing appropriate mitigation measures. But most of Arizona's homesteads dated to the 1910s, 1930s, and early 1940s. In the 1970s many were just reaching the critical fifty year mark when they could be considered potentially eligible for the National Register and thus afforded some protection. Archaeologists were forced to consider, probably for the first time, the historic, architectural, engineering, or scientific values that homesteads might possess.

Who are the "people" who could use such a study? The State Historic Preservation Office (SHPO) has several types of users in mind. The report as a whole is a module of the Statewide Comprehensive Historic Preservation Plan and, as such, suggests goals

* Prepared by Pat Stein, State Historic Preservation Office/Arizona State Parks.

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Thanks to the research of many individuals, homesteads have now come of age as cultural resources. They are increasingly recognized as exactly that -- *resources* - - because they are reserves of knowledge about our past. Some homesteads are symbols of that past, significant for their association with important events, processes, or individuals. A few are important because of their engineering or architectural merit. And many are capable of yielding important scientific and historical data which can provide a unique perspective on human behavior. The purpose of this report is to reveal the resource behind all the busted concrete, broken glass, and rusted cans, and to help people study, evaluate, and protect that resource.

and priorities for the SHPO in planning its own activities and expending its annual Historic Preservation Fund (HPF) allocation; the National Park Service requires that a preservation plan be prepared by the SHPO and that the plan be historic context-based. General readers will learn how the homesteading process worked and why it was important in the settlement of the state. The guidelines for evaluating the significance and integrity of homesteads should be most helpful to cultural resource managers. And archaeologists may gain new insight from the suggestions for research.

In 1987, a study by the Arizona State Land Commission reported that over 12 million acres of land in our state were privately owned and that twenty-five percent had been acquired as a result of homesteading. Unquestionably, homesteading was a major factor in the settlement and growth of Arizona. The SHPO hopes that this historic context study will provide a perspective on the process that, by 1915, turned rural Arizona into a sea of lantern lights.

Narrative

Homesteading: When, Where, and How It Occurred

People often apply the term "homestead" to any ranch, farm, or rural home in Arizona. The term implies a self-sufficient, usually rural, and often bucolic lifestyle. In this study, "homestead" is used in a more restricted sense. It refers only to properties that were settled pursuant to the Homestead Act of 1862 or any of three subsequent, related laws: the Forest Homestead Act of 1906, the Enlarged Homestead Act of 1909, and the Stock Raising Homestead Act of 1916. These acts shared common principles, rooted in the writings of Thomas Jefferson, Tom Paine, and the theory of natural rights: every citizen had a right to a share of the soil, and public lands should be granted to the people in small tracts. If you settled the land, you were entitled to the land: how simple a concept, yet how momentous its consequences. From 1862 until the repeal of its enabling legislation in 1976, homesteading would provide the vehicle for transferring over 270 million acres from public stewardship to private ownership.

To begin to understand homesteading, it helps to be aware of the public land laws which structured it. The following paragraphs summarize such legislation, but the reader is encouraged to consult Gates (1968) for a more detailed discussion. Anyone working with homesteading must always keep in mind that the law was constantly being amended and reinterpreted by the General Land Office (GLO) and the Department of the Interior. Three trends will become apparent as we review the acts, their amendments, and pertinent regulations. First, the legal framework changed through time so that one could homestead larger and larger tracts. In 1862, a claimant could homestead only 160 acres; by contrast, in 1916, a claimant could homestead 640 acres -- a full square mile or "section." Second, the laws evolved so that the claimant could fulfill the residency requirement and "prove up" (satisfy the legal requirements for) a homestead in shorter periods of time. Third, laws and regulations also evolved to allow homesteaders more time in which to make entries and prove up a claim. The

net effect of these trends was to make homesteading increasingly feasible on marginally productive lands of the West.

The first National Homestead Act, passed in 1862, entitled heads of households or persons at least 21 years of age to file for 160 acres otherwise sold by the government at \$1.25 per acre, or for 80 acres otherwise sold by the government at \$2.50 per acre. The more expensive land was that which lay within the limits of railroad grants. In states, railroad grants extended 20 miles to either side of track right-of-ways. In territories such as Arizona, the grants extended 40 miles to either side of the trackage. (The limitation that settlers could enter only 80 acres within railroad grant land was eventually removed by the Act of March 3, 1879). Only one entry was allowed per applicant. Aside from nominal filing fees, homestead land was free to those who fulfilled the residency and improvement requirements of the law; that is, the homesteader (commonly called the "entryman" - the man or woman who filed the claim) had to reside on the land continuously for five years and cultivate a portion of it for the final four years. Entrymen who failed to establish residency within six months risked losing their claims to later applicants.

All federal land was potentially available for homesteading, provided that it was non-saline and non-mineral in general character, was not previously withdrawn or reserved, was not occupied for trade or business purposes, and did not lie within an incorporated city or town. The government could cancel a claim if the claimant failed to show proof that he or she was complying with provisions of the act. The GLO had to bring specific charges before proceeding against a homesteader, and the claimant was given 30 days in which to rectify deficiencies in the claim. The entryperson then had the right to a hearing before officials of the local land office. If the decision rendered was unsatisfactory, the claimant could appeal the case to the Commissioner of the GLO, and then to the Secretary of the Interior. If this procedure failed to bring satisfaction, the case could be taken to Federal court.

A homesteader had the right to relinquish the claim (surrender it voluntarily) at any time. Alternatively, he or she could "commute" the claim: purchase it outright for the normal price of \$1.25 or \$2.50 per acre. A commutation was simply a legal substitution allowing the entryperson an alternative to the residence and cultivation that homestead law required. In making payment under the commutation clause, an entryperson could pay cash or use scrip of equal value. The scrip had to be either military land warrants (land certificates granted to veterans prior to the Civil War) or Agricultural College Scrip which was issued as a consequence of the Morrill Act of 1862. Gates (1968) provides a good discussion of both types of scrip.

Inspectors from the GLO were supposed to visit homesteads to check for compliance with the 1862 act (as well as subsequent homestead laws). The GLO did not establish a regular force of special agents until 1883. In practical terms, inspection did not always occur, for the special agent force was small and the distances involved in visiting claims were often vast. However, homestead laws did provide an additional check on the claimant's word. In a local newspaper of general circulation nearest the homesteader's claim, the GLO published for five weeks a notice of the claimant's intention to "prove up". Included in the notice was a list of witnesses, at least two of

whom were to appear before the GLO and testify on the homesteader's behalf. Members of the general public were expected to, and often did, contest questionable claims.

In 1872 an important change in homestead law occurred when veterans who had rendered service in the Civil War for the Union were given the right to count each year of military service toward the five-year residency requirement. However, they did have to reside on and cultivate the claim for at least one year. Provisions of the 1872 Act were later enlarged and 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 further expanded by the Act of February 14, 1920 (41 Stat. 434), which allowed them first choice on lands newly opened for homesteading.

Another significant change in homestead law occurred with passage of the Act of May 14, 1881 (21 Stat. 140), which permitted homesteaders to relate their rights back to the date of settlement if made prior to the date of entry. By using this law, a settler who had lived on the land for a relatively long period could sometimes proceed from "date of entry" to "final proof" in a matter of months, speeding the legal process considerably.

In the early twentieth century, many homesteads in central and northern Arizona were inholdings within Forest Reserves (non-Forest parcels surrounded by Forest Reserves), and the law which applied specifically to them was the Forest Homestead Act of 1906. The purpose of the law was to put tillable land into the hands of farmers, in order to cultivate it and not provide merely a ranch headquarters for running livestock. Regulations adopted by the Forest Service stated that a claim under the Forest Homestead Act would not be allowed if it contained less than 40 acres of arable soil in the ponderosa pine zone or less than 80 acres of arable soil in the pinyon-juniper belt. Less tillable acreage was allowed if the claim was irrigable.

Congress in 1909 passed the Enlarged Homestead Act, popularly called the Dry Farming Homestead Act. The act recognized that many lands which were too arid for growing highly water-dependent crops could be made productive through dry-farming methods long known to indigenous farmers of the Southwest but only recently discovered by horticulturalists. Dry-farming emphasized the cultivation of drought-tolerant crops, harrowing the soil in fallow years to keep weed levels down and preserve soil moisture, converting topsoil into a dust mulch, plowing deeply in the fall, and packing seeds firmly with drills. Its advocates stressed a 320-acre homestead unit as the optimum sized tract, and this tract became the cornerstone of the 1909 act. The claimant had to live on the land continuously and cultivate it in non-native grasses for five years, although, of course, years of military service could be counted toward this requirement. The United States Geological Survey (USGS) was delegated to classify lands which could be settled under the 1909 act. The entryperson was not allowed to commute this type of claim.

One of the most significant changes in homestead law occurred in 1912, when Congress reduced the residency requirement from five to three years. The same law gave the homesteader the option of being absent from the claim for five months of each

year. The claimant was to notify the GLO at the beginning and end of each leave of absence, and he or she had to prove up within five years.

To further promote the occupation of remnant lands not settled under any of the above acts, Congress in 1916 passed the Stock-Raising Homestead Act. This allowed entrymen to file on 640-acre parcels classified by the USGS as non-mineral, non-irrigable, non-timbered, and valued chiefly for their grazing and forage potential. In proving up, the entryperson had to submit evidence that his stock-raising improvements represented a minimum investment of \$1.25 per acre. Although residency was required, the cost of home construction could not be included in this figure. Homesteaders under previous acts were allowed to bring their total homestead holdings to 640 acres, as long as such tracts lay within 20 miles of their original entries. Again, the USGS was the agency responsible for designating lands which could be entered pursuant to this act. Commutation of a stock-raising claim was not allowed.

Of the various types of homesteads, stock raising ones proved the most administratively and economically troublesome. Mainly because of under-funding by Congress, USGS was slow to designate lands which could be settled pursuant to the act, and, by 1918, designation lagged far behind demand. A stop-gap measure was adopted. An individual could petition the government for designation of public land for entry under the law, setting forth why he or she believed the land was grazing land as defined by law. However, the USGS still had to make a determination before the entry was allowed.

Meanwhile, passage of a 1919 law had a significant impact in easing the burden of residence on all homestead claimants. By the Act of February 25, 1919 (40 Stat. 1153), homesteaders could, within one year of making entry and upon a proper showing that adverse climatic conditions made living on their entries for seven months a year a hardship, request a reduction of the time spent on the entry during the year. The time could be reduced to six months per year, but then the homesteader had to spend four years on the entry. Reduction to five months a year increased the time that had to be spent on the claim to five years. Of course, veterans' rights could be applied toward these residency requirements.

Congress excused absences from homesteads during the years 1929 through 1932 because of drought, but that time was not deducted from the homesteader's required residency. On the contrary, the entryperson had to make up the excused months, and this was done by extending the time in which final proof had to be submitted to a period equal to the absence time allowed. Similarly, Congress excused absences from homesteads from 1932 to 1936 because of poor economic conditions. For final proofs due during the period July 1, 1931 through December 31, 1936, Congress allowed settlers who could prove hardship due to climatic or economic conditions an additional two years in which to make final proof (previously, under the "Three-Year" Homestead Act of 1912, the period for submitting final proof could not exceed five years from date of entry).

In the 1920s and 1930s, discontent with the Stock-Raising Homestead Act continued to simmer. Cattlemen deplored the parceling of open range into small fenced ranches and argued that stock-raising homesteads decreased the carrying capacity of rangeland (indeed, when the Bankhead-Jones Act of 1937 allowed the government to buy back low-production lands, many of the lands thus reacquired in the Southwest were former stock-raising homesteads). By implication, the Stock-Raising Homestead Act was replaced by the Taylor Grazing Act of 1934, which provided for the allotment of public lands in economically feasible -- that is to say, larger -- acreages. Section 7 of the Taylor Grazing Act stated that public lands within grazing districts created as a consequence of the law were not subject to settlement or occupation as homesteads until after they had been classified as such and opened to entry. For lands to be classified as available for homesteading, they had to be "more valuable and suitable for the production of agricultural crops than native grasses and forage plants." Then, on November 26, 1934, President Franklin D. Roosevelt withdrew all the vacant, unreserved, and unappropriated public lands in Arizona and other western states from settlement, location, sale, or entry, and reserved them for "classification, and pending determination of the most useful purpose to which such land may be put in consideration of the [Taylor Grazing Act], and for the conservation and development of natural resources." As a consequence of the Act and FDR's withdrawal, homesteaders now had to petition for classification before making entry. Petitions had to show that the conditions of the area (topography, soil, climate, and so forth) gave reasonable assurance of successful farming. Gone were the days of indiscriminate entry on the land, and the number of allowed homesteads dropped dramatically.

In view of all the laws, amendments, and regulations cited above, it may come as no surprise that the early days of homesteading were not its heyday. Figures gathered by the Bureau of Land Management (BLM 1962) to commemorate the centennial of the Homestead Act demonstrate this point (Figure 1). Nationally, more than 70 percent of all successful homesteading was done in the 20th century. More than a quarter of the total acreage was transferred to private ownership in the 10-year period during and after World War I. However, this boom period in fact began in the early 1910s when massive numbers of entries were *filed* (note that Figure 1 reflects dates when entries were *proved up*) in direct response to the Enlarged Homestead Act. The timing of the 1909 law, coupled with the economic panic of 1907 and widespread fear that public land was vanishing, triggered an enormous response "somewhat akin to last-minute shopping on Christmas Eve" (Allen 1987: 136);

Anything would do. People who had never considered homesteading along with those who had tried it more than once before, became land-seekers, even though the lands opened under the Enlarged Homestead Act were, in the words of one bitter commentator, "the parings and scraps and crumbs of the Old West."

Although a comprehensive study of homesteading in Arizona has never been conducted, a variety of sources indicate the following figures and trends.

1. Arizona was one of only 31 states or territories to ever have homesteading. There were no homesteads in New England, virtually none east of the Mississippi, and very few in the first tier of states west of the river (BLM 1962: 1).

2. Homesteading had trouble establishing its roots here. A successful claim was not entered until the 1870s, when William H. Willey filed for and eventually received (patent dated May 16, 1878) 160 acres in the SE 1/4 of Section 18, Township 1 North, Range 5 East (personal communication, J. Cassidy, National Archives, June 27, 1989). Prior to that, scores of homesteads had been filed in the territory -- most of them along the Salt River Valley near present-day Phoenix, Tempe, and Mesa -- but all had been canceled or relinquished. Contrast this situation with that of Nebraska, where the first entry -- in fact, the first in the nation, the Daniel Freeman claim, filed on January 1, 1863-- culminated in the conveyance of a title patent, in 1869.

3. More homesteads failed than succeeded in our state. Records on file at the State Office of the Bureau of Land Management indicate that failures outnumbered successes throughout the history of the movement here.

4. Despite a high rate of failure, between 21,000 and 22,000 entries *were* successful in Arizona, resulting in the conveyance of title patents (BLM 1962: 2-28).

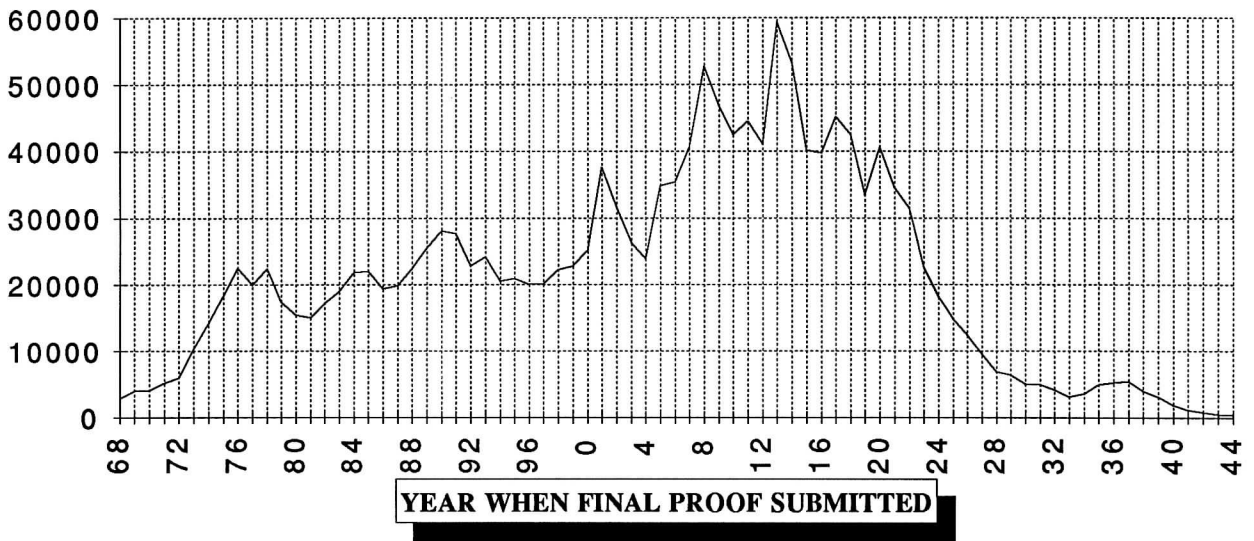
5. Over 4,748,000 acres in Arizona passed from public to private ownership through homesteading (BLM 1962: 2-28). Over 1 million of these were eventually repurchased by the government through the Bankhead-Jones Act, so that the land returned to public domain. Over 3 million acres *now* privately held in the state were acquired through homesteading.

6. Arizona as well as the nation as a whole experienced a peak in successful homesteading in the 1910s and a steady decline beginning around 1920 (Figures 1 and 2). The downward trend continued nationally *but reversed itself sharply in Arizona around 1930*. Our state then witnessed its second and final homesteading "boom" (from 1930 until around 1936) during the worst years of the Great Depression.

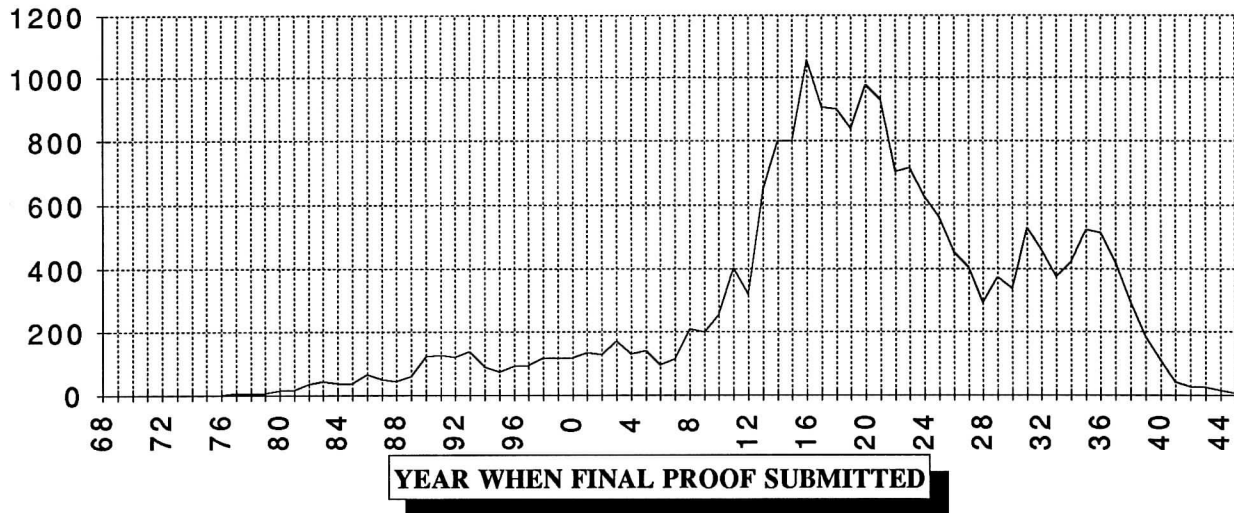
7. Railroads courted homesteaders assiduously. Increased settlement meant increased business along transportation routes, so companies such as the Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fe (ATSF) formed Colonization Departments which promoted the process. Colonization Departments published literature which provided considerable technical information to the prospective homesteader -- on methods of dry-farming, for example -- but also glorified and romanticized a return to the land (ATSF 1910). The unrealistically high hopes fanned by such propoganda stood in marked contrast to the cautious approach urged by most government officials (Allen 1987: 133).

8. Arizona's genial climate boosted homesteading. A haven for respiratory sufferers since the turn of the century, Arizona became especially attractive to World War I veterans, many of whom had been mustard gassed or had contracted tuberculosis. General Hospital 20 in Prescott specialized in treating veterans with pulmonary diseases. Targeted by homesteading propoganda, the hospital's patients often filed Arizona claims upon their discharge.

Figure 1:
Number of Successful Homestead Entries in the United States
and Its Territories, by Year, 1868 to 1944



**Figure 2:
Number of Successful Homestead Entries in Arizona,
by Year, 1868 to 1944**



9. In Arizona and the nation as a whole, minimal homesteading activity occurred after 1940 (Figures 1 and 2). Homesteading's "last stand" in Arizona appears to have occurred in Yuma from 1947 to about 1953, when the Bureau of Reclamation opened 107 family-sized units to entry under its "Gila" and "Yuma" projects (US Bureau of Reclamation 1952).

The effects of homesteading on our state and country were profound. It produced a stable and predictable relationship between government and citizen by which the latter could acquire land in exchange for conformance to the law; even in the most economically unstable times, homesteading offered an avenue toward advancement. Its battle cry, "Free land for the landless", drew pioneers from both home and abroad into a great migration. It promoted the development of small, family-sized farms and ranches, for decades the economic and sociological backbone of rural America. The homesteading process created a ripple effect in the economy which led to the formation of towns and cities. It reinforced the notion of America as a land of vast frontiers and limitless opportunities. And it strove to prevent the accumulation of very large holdings in the hands of a few people. The role of homesteading in strengthening the democratic nature of this country would be difficult to overstate.

The Distribution of Homesteads in Arizona

Plat books on file at the State Office of the Bureau of Land Management indicate that homesteading occurred in every county and nearly every township in the state. There were homesteads amid forested as well as treeless lands, in mountains and high plateaus as well as lowlands, and along riverine and non-riverine areas. There was hardly an ecological niche in Arizona that homesteading didn't attempt to invade. Sometimes the process would be pared back as the government realized that claims had been entered illegally on preempted or reserved land, as happened at Fort McDowell just after the turn of the century. In 1903, while establishing an Indian reservation on the lower Verde River, the government determined that a community of homesteaders had squatted on parts of a former military reservation that were reserved from entry. The homesteaders were dismayed to learn that they had no rights to the acreage whatsoever, despite the fact that they had settled upon and improved it. Although the government was under no obligation to do so, it did, as a gesture of good faith, pay the settlers for the improvements they had made -- then evicted them. The Indians then moved in and took up many of the houses, canals, and other trappings the squatters had left behind (Stein 1984: 33-48).

One might be tempted to think that homesteading occurred only on what is now private land, but such is not the case, for several reasons.

1. As stated above, some homesteaders claimed areas they had no right to: land that had been preempted or reserved from entry. In such cases, the government would cancel the claim when the error was discovered. Sometimes the

government would catch the error and cancel the claim before the entryman attempted to settle on the land. Unfortunately, in many cases, settlement would precede cancellation; the unhappy claimant would be forced to relocate, leaving behind any non-portable improvements he or she had made to the property.

2. Thousands of patented homesteads were eventually bought back by the government and returned to the public domain. The Bankhead-Jones Act of 1937 facilitated such action.

3. Land exchanges are common in Arizona. Some trades are simple, involving just two parties, some are more complex, involving a few parties, and some are so intricate that one needs a scorecard to keep track of the players and moves involved. Through exchange, much land once patented as homesteads passed to federal, state, county, city, or Indian ownership.

The Property Type: How To Identify a Homestead and What You Might Expect to Find at One

The property type associated with homesteading is a homestead. If you come upon an old building or structure*, the ruins or remains of a building or structure, or trash deposits, how can you tell if they were once part of a homestead? What specific features might you expect to find at one?

To begin to answer the first question, plot the location of your find on a USGS topographic map (a 7.5 minute map is best) and calculate the township, range, section, and 1/4 section in which the property occurs. Then check this legal description in the Public Room of the State Office of the Bureau of Land Management (3707 N. 7th Street, Phoenix). The books you'll need to see are formally called the Master Title Plats with their Historical Index; in Phoenix, the BLM clerks commonly refer to them as the "township-range plat books", so you might ask for them by this name. These tomes tell where, when, and by what means land was purchased, deeded, or leased from the government. They even record unsuccessful claims. If the plat book column entitled "Serial File or Record Number" contains an entry marked "HE", "FHE", "ELE", or "SRHE" (abbreviations for "Homestead Entry", "Forest Homestead Entry", "Enlarged Homestead Entry", or "Stock Raising Homestead Entry", respectively), then you may indeed have found an old homestead.

So far you've determined that your find matches the location of an old homestead claim. Next, you need to see if the date of the claim matches the date of your find (hereafter called "the property"). This is trickier and takes a bit more sleuthing.

* A "structure" is a construction not used for shelter.

Determine the date of the claim by checking the entries that appear in the last column of the plat books. In the case of homesteads, these will tell you the date the claim was cancelled, relinquished, or patented. You might then want to double-check the dates by looking at the patents and/or the Phoenix serial records referenced in the plat book. Patents are deeds to a claim; serial records are logs of the actions taken to administer that claim. Both are available on microfiche. Obviously, only successful claims will have patents. Successful and unsuccessful claims will have serial records, unless the file was claimed before July of 1908, the date when the "serial" system of record-keeping was established. If the claim in question was not patented *and* if it dates earlier than 1908, then you may need to consult the National Archives in Washington for any further information.

You can get some idea of the age of the property by examining its artifacts. But first, some words of caution. Do not remove any artifacts from the property. Unless you own the property or have the owner's permission, removing artifacts is illegal. Also, do not unearth any objects or move them around on the surface, for this would destroy fragile locational information (more will be said about this in the "Evaluation " section of this report). Instead, conduct your sleuthing by simply picking up an object from the surface, taking notes and drawing sketches of it, and then putting it back exactly as you found it. In this way, you will help to preserve the resource.

What, specifically, should you note? Are the nails square-cut or made from wire? What colors of glass occur? Make careful sketches of any manufacturers' marks on the bases of ceramic plates, basemarks on glass bottles, and brand names on containers. Reference books can then help you date the artifacts and estimate the age of the property. There are a number of good references that deal with the subject of dating artifacts from the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The following ones are especially recommended by historical archaeologists working in Arizona and can be found in many libraries: Fontana and Greenleaf (1962); Godden (1964); Toulouse (1971); Ward, Abbink, and Stein (1977); Herskowitz (1978); Lehner (1980); Teague (1980); Zumwalt (1980); Gates and Ormerod (1982); and Ayres (1984).

If the property had features made of concrete, check them carefully for inscriptions. Some homesteaders compulsively carved their initials and the date of their claim, partly because wet concrete is a temptation no human can resist, but also because an inscription would help legitimize a claim should it ever be visited by a government official. Thus, inscriptions are often found on house foundations, well casings, and equipment tie-downs. I've even seen crude globs of concrete whose only apparent purpose was to bear the homesteader's name and date of claim. Do not overlook such potentially rich sources of dating information.

If the dates of the artifacts and inscriptions closely match (say, within ten years) the date of the archival records, the chances are good that the property in

question is a homestead. What specific features might one expect to find at the homestead?

First, bear in mind the homestead's boundaries. These are clearly and neatly defined in BLM plat books, patents, and serial records. They will describe its size and location. Even though features may be separated by distances ranging from a few feet to (in the case of stock-raising homesteads) a mile, they may have been part of the same claim. The house you drove by ten minutes ago may have been functionally related to the cattle pen or stock tank before you now. If you know that the claim was for 160 acres, then looking at that quarter-section will help you gain an understanding of what the homestead was like. If you are an archaeologist conducting a survey pursuant to the National and State Historic Preservation Acts, you should make the effort to survey the entire area of the claim, even though parts of it may extend outside the proposed project area. Otherwise, you risk recording only part of the site and depriving yourself of valuable insight into how the site functioned.

If you decide to search the entire area of the claim, also keep at least mental notes of features alongside but legally *outside* its boundaries. Homesteaders occasionally erred in siting improvements. Imagine the frustration of sinking a well, only to discover later that you dug it on your neighbor's property!

The following are some of the features one would expect to find at a homestead. Although at least some usually occur at each homestead, rarely are all of them found on one claim.

1. A "habitable house" (or its remains). It is a common misconception that homesteaders had to build a house at least 12 by 12 feet. The laws and regulations stated only that the house be habitable, and "habitable" was liberally interpreted. In Arizona, some homestead houses were no more than dug-outs, with earthen floors, rock walls, and bermed roofs. Others, such as the unusually well-preserved Sun-Up Ranch near New River, were of masonry and more elaborate. Homesteaders were, by and large, pragmatic people of limited means, and they did not fail to take advantage of free, locally-available materials: logs in the forested mountains, adobe in the sun-baked deserts. Archival photos reveal yet another homesteader house type: the tent-house, that semi-portable, canvas-sided abode so popular in Arizona in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. At the twentieth century homesteads the author has studied, buildings tended to be of wood-frame construction, set on concrete slabs. Although the architectural style of houses was influenced to some extent by the materials used, these, too, tended to be diverse. A particularly popular style was the dog-trot house, known locally as the "Arizona house", consisting of two buildings connected by a breezeway. In Arizona, homestead houses were as diverse as the people who built them.

2. Structures for collecting and storing water. Water-related features at homesteads may be obvious, such as wells, pumps, windmills, and cisterns, or more subtle, such as small berms marking tanks or devices for catching rainfall

on roofs. A productive well was perhaps every settler's dream, but as water tables subsided, so, too, did many a homesteader's hopes. In the homesteading community of Wintersburg, shallow holes marking aborted digging attempts were more common than finished wells.

3. Outhouses. Most of Arizona's homesteads lacked indoor plumbing. The researcher should therefore be on the lookout for standing or collapsed buildings or shallow depressions marking outhouses. The latrines beneath them are of particular interest to archaeologists because they contain buried deposits. Latrines offer an environment conducive to the preservation of a variety of remains --such as cloth, leather, wood, seeds, and other plant and animal products -- which normally perish when deposited on the surface and subjected to the elements. Latrine deposits thus add a special dimension to the study of homesteading. Moreover, because the remains in latrines were laid down in layers, their stratigraphy provides insight into how homesteads changed through time.

4. Remnants of agricultural fields. Of all the man-made features at homesteads, agricultural fields are probably the most elusive. Furrows, irrigation ditches, fences, and remnants of equipment representing agricultural activity may be evident, but more subtle changes wrought by farming decades ago may be imperceptible to all but a paleobotanist or palynologist. The issue of agriculture on homesteads is a particularly interesting one and is discussed in the "Research Needs" section of this study.

5. Buildings and structures associated with livestock. Stock-raising homesteaders (those settled pursuant to the 1916 act) were not the only ones to keep animals. To increase self-sufficiency, all flavors of homesteaders raised animals such as chickens, turkeys, goats, cows, horses, and sheep. Bee-keeping was popular, both to provide honey which could be consumed, bartered, or sold, and to pollinate crops. It is not surprising, then, that the features and artifacts used in tending animals can be found at many homesteads. Such features and artifacts include barns, pens, tack (stable gear), corrals, stock tanks, beehives, fences, and the remains of these things.

6. Artifacts. The artifacts used by former occupants tell an important story about homesteads. They provide clues about diet, health conditions, the degree to which occupants were self-sufficient or dependent on the products of an industrialized world, to what extent they recycled and reused objects, and many other aspects of frontier life. They also provide important clues in determining when a homestead was occupied. Debris may be widely broadcast throughout the property or concentrated in dumps. Particularly informative are trash pits where homesteaders intentionally discarded the objects they no longer considered to be of use: archaeologists can learn much about length of occupancy and household economics from such trash pits. Particularly after the invention of the automobile, it became common for people to dump their trash at great distances from where they lived. A dump which occurs within the boundaries of a homestead property may not have been generated by the people who lived there, and so a conservative approach should be taken when trying to associate artifacts

with any particular homestead. Probably the best approach is to consider only the artifacts which occur near buildings and structures to have been used by the homesteaders who lived there.

Properties Already Identified as Homesteads

A previous section of this report stated that there were between 21,000 and 22,000 successful (patented) homesteads in Arizona and that there were even more unsuccessful than successful ones in our state. Given the large number of homesteads that once existed here, how many homestead properties have been identified as such?

The Arizona State Historic Property Inventory of the SHPO is the most comprehensive record of historic (including archaeological) resources in the state. Data is entered into it as the result of: (1) surveys required by agencies pursuant to federal and state laws and, occasionally, local ordinances; (2) surveys funded by the SHPO; and (3) information gathered by miscellaneous groups and individuals. The inventory thus represents a broad spectrum of resource identification and protection efforts across the state.

Table 1 indicates that only 35 historic properties in the inventory have been identified as homesteads. Not included in the table are an additional nine properties termed "homesteads" in common usage but which have not been studied archivally to see if they truly merit this designation. The nine questionable resources are: the Butler property in Apache county; the Fry and Clapp properties in Cochise county; the Gentry place in Gila county; the Creighton, Montgomery, and Henness properties in Maricopa county; the Cane Beds "Homestead House" in Mohave county; and the Wrightstown "Homestead" in Pima County.

Twenty-four of the 35 identified homesteads in the inventory have been recorded as a direct result of cultural resource surveys required by the National or State Historic Preservation Acts. Only one survey *not* legally mandated resulted in the recognition of a substantial number of homestead properties: Pendley's 1981 Oak Creek survey in Coconino county. That project was supported by a matching grant provided by the Historic Preservation Fund through the SHPO.

The state inventory suggests that a small fraction of Arizona's homestead properties have been identified. It is not surprising that over half (18) have been recorded in just one county, Maricopa: Euro-American settlement has historically been densest there, and the area has been subject to intense development, much of it preceded by legally-mandated surveys which have discovered homestead properties. It *is* surprising that only three homesteads have been identified in Pima county, for that area, too, has been the scene of dense Euro-American settlement, intense development pressure, and many archaeological surveys.

Table 1
 HISTORIC PROPERTIES IDENTIFIED AS HOMESTEADS
 IN THE ARIZONA STATE HISTORIC PROPERTY INVENTORY

<u>County</u>	<u>Name</u>	<u>Other Names/Numbers</u>	<u>Date*</u>	<u>Source</u>
Apache	Correjo		1899-1916	Wilson 1975
Coconino	Purtyman	Mission Rancho	ca 1897	Pendley 1981
Coconino	Thomas	Mayhew's Lodge Ruin		Pendley 1981
Coconino	Thompson		1930s	Pendley 1981
Coconino	Pendley	Falls Ranch	late 1920s	Pendley 1981
Coconino	Howard	Todd's/Garland's Lodge		Pendley 1981
Coconino	Kester	NA19,852	1910s	Dosh 1987
Gila	Haight	Winter's Ranch	1911-1916	Wilson 1977a
Maricopa	Petersen		1870s	Wilson 1977b
Maricopa		NA12,484	1930s	Stein 1981
Maricopa		NA14,369	1930s	Stein 1981
Maricopa		NA12,489	1930s	Stein 1981
Maricopa		NA12,501	1930s	Stein 1981
Maricopa	Stubblefield	AZ S:7:29(ASM)	1930-1935	Stein 1988
Maricopa	Mason	AZ S:7:3(ASM)	1919-1931	Stein 1988
Maricopa	Jacka	Sun-Up Ranch	1929-1938	Jacka 1988
Maricopa	Parker	AZ S:12:17(BLM)	1932	Stone 1988
Maricopa		AZ T:5:10(BLM)	1929-1935	Stone 1988
Maricopa		AZ T:5:18(BLM)	1920s/1930s	Stone 1988
Maricopa		AZ T:5:40(BLM)	1929-1936	Stone 1988
Mar./Yav.	Sweat	Buzzard Neck	1910-1916	Ayres 1988
Mar./Yav.	Cavness	Roderick/AZ T:4:54(ASM)	1912-1915	Ayres 1988
Mar./Yav.	Brown	AZ T:4:55(ASM)	1941-1942	Ayres 1988
Mar./Yav.	Avis	AZ T:4:56(ASM)	1933-1939	Ayres 1988
Mar./Yav.	Decker	AZ T:4:57(ASM)	1939-1942	Ayres 1988
Mar./Yav.	Wood	AZ T:3:40(ASM)	1928-1930	Ayres 1988
Navajo	Johnson	NA14,803/Jackson	1930s	Stein 1979
Pima	Freeman		1920s-1930s	Holland 1972
Pima	Lewis-Weber	AZ BB:13:117	1880s	Curriden 1981
Pima	Vail	VR Ranch/AZ EE:2:139(ASM)	1883-1908	Ayres 1984
Yavapai	Goodwin		1920s	Landis 1988
Yavapai	DeKuhn		1870s-1920s	Hall 1976
Yuma	Spitler	AZ X:8:15(ASM)	1923-1925	Bruder et al 1988
Yuma	Brooks	AZ Y:5:6(ASM)	1927-1931	Bruder et al 1988
Yuma	Batty?	AZ Y:5:7(ASM); Drone	1927-1930	Bruder et al 1988

* Approximate date when homesteaded

Inventory Assessment: Impacts and Threats to the Resource

Why have so few properties been identified as homesteads in Arizona? Several factors have contributed to this situation.

1. People who have recorded historic properties often have not done the archival research necessary to confirm or deny that such properties were homesteads. Hundreds of resources in the Arizona State Historic Property Inventory are recorded simply as farms or ranches. Were BLM archives consulted, then some properties might be shown to have been homesteads. In these cases, homestead properties have been *recorded* but have not been *recognized* for what they were.

Such oversight occurs for several reasons. First, many people who find and record historic resources simply do not know that BLM records exist, and it never occurs to them to check that source for information about a property in question. Second, our state has many more prehistoric than historic archaeologists working within its borders, and some of the former are "archive-shy" when it comes to gathering documentation about the historic sites they have found in the field. Third, some agencies sponsoring cultural resource surveys do not require that historic sites be fully identified and evaluated. For example, one federal agency with large landholdings in Arizona has its staff simply record and mark resources in the field. The agency then plans undertakings so as to avoid the resources without fully identifying them, evaluating them, and determining if they were worth saving in the first place. This practice is not in strict accordance with federal regulations, but it saves resources and is cost-effective for the agency, at least from a short-term perspective.

2. Homesteads are orphan resources. They have no constituency group lobbying to identify and protect them, and they get little attention. One leading preservationist (Tiller, personal communication) contrasts "orphan" resources with "sexy" ones, the kind that touch a collective heartstring or nerve when they are threatened. Some examples of Arizona resources currently enjoying "sexy" status are: train depots, which have various local groups exploring ways to save them; Route 66, which thrives on the current nostalgia craze and an attempt to boost towns which have been by-passed by an interstate; prehistoric ruins, which have watchful eyes and ears in the state's professional and amateur archaeological organizations; and Civilian Conservation Corps resources, which have achieved new visibility through the efforts of the National Association of CCC Alumni and the Brotherhood of X-CCers. But no one much notices when homesteads are there, or, for that matter, when they are no longer there.

3. People who have not been sensitized to the values that historic resources possess sometimes decide not to record early twentieth century resources during areal surveys that are otherwise purported to be "intensive." This misguided practice is rarer now than it was fifteen years ago, but it still exists. Such

intentional oversight discriminates against homesteads, since many of them date to precisely this period.

4. A thematic survey to identify, record, and evaluate significant homesteads in the state has never been conducted. Studies with a homestead focus have been conducted in only four localities: Oak Creek (Pendley 1981), Wintersburg (Stein 1981), Lake Pleasant (Ayres 1988) and White Tanks (Stone 1988).

5. An unknown number of homestead properties have been destroyed by natural factors, such as flooding, and cultural factors, such as construction and vandalism. Unquestionably, we have lost some of our most valuable homestead properties. Contrast our state's situation with that of Nebraska. The Cornhusker State's first patented homestead, that of Daniel Freeman, was purchased by the government in 1939 and became the Homestead National Monument. It continues to educate thousands of visitors yearly about the role of homesteading in national and state history. Arizona's first patented homestead, that of William Willey, was not preserved but rather bulldozed in the 1980s to make way for a housing development and Mesa shopping complex called, ironically, "Century Square." No resource in Arizona currently interprets homesteading to the public.

It is not known if Arizona's homesteads suffered the selective type of destruction so common in Oregon following passage of the 1937 Bankhead-Jones Act (Allen 1987). Settlers who sold their patented land back to the government under the terms of this act were allowed to move their buildings or tear them down for lumber. The rest of the improvements were either burned or used as targets for U.S. Army practice maneuvers during World War II. Allen (1987: 112) contends that a firebug delighted in torching homesteaders' shacks in order to pressure hold-outs into selling. Tired of struggling to wrest a living from marginal land in Oregon, many owners accepted the government's meager offer of fifty cents an acre and left.

6. Homesteading was an imperfect system. The understaffing of government offices and the inability of officials to inspect all claims meant that much trust was placed in the homesteader's word and that of his or her witnesses. There is evidence, at least from Wintersburg (Stein 1981), that homesteaders sometimes testified to having made improvements that did not, in fact, exist. If this fraudulent practice was widespread, then many patented claims may have left no physical remains for us to find today.

7. Even the most conscientious surveys to record all cultural resources in an area have occasionally -- accidentally-- missed some.

Despite the factors cited above, it appears that we, as a state, have only begun to study, evaluate, and preserve the homesteads that have played so important a part in our heritage.

Evaluating Significance

Hundreds, perhaps thousands, of homestead properties await discovery in Arizona. But which ones deserve protection and which do not? Which should we try to preserve and which do not warrant such protection? Which should be subjected to research, and toward what goals? The issue of evaluation lies at the heart of these questions.

The standard used to evaluate cultural resources in the United States is the National Register of Historic Places. The National Register forms the keystone of the historic preservation movement in that virtually all preservation law rests upon it. A property listed on or eligible for the Register receives a measure of consideration and protection in the face of undertakings having federal involvement. Register-listed or -eligible properties qualify for matching grants-in-aids, as available from the federal government through SHPOs. Tax incentives for rehabilitating historic commercial properties or donating easements pivot upon Register-eligibility or listing. Many state and local registers are modeled after the national one, and, in turn, form the basis for state and local historic preservation laws and ordinances. For example, in Arizona, the State Register of Historic Places and the State Historic Preservation Act parallel the National Register and the National Historic Preservation Act, providing historic properties with a measure of consideration and protection in the face of state undertakings. (The SHPO can provide information about any of these registers, laws, and programs.)

Generally, three conditions must be met in order for a property to be listed on or determined eligible for the National Register: it must be at least fifty years old; it must possess significance; and it must have integrity. This section of the report examines the concept of significance and how it may be applied specifically to homesteads. A later section discusses the issue of integrity.

A homestead may be said to possess significance if it meets one or more of the four National Register criteria:

- A. It is associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or
- B. It is associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or
- C. It embodies the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction, or that represents the work of a master, or that possesses high artistic values, or that represents a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or
- D. It has yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in history.

Under criterion "A", association with "events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history", a homestead may qualify for *listing*

in the Register because of its association with certain themes, termed "areas of significance" (NPS 1986: 65-67). For homesteads, common areas of significance to consider under criterion "A" are:

1. **AGRICULTURE**, defined as the process and technology of cultivating soil, producing crops, and raising livestock and plants (NPS 1986: 65). A homestead that was a leading producer in its region, county, or state may relate to this theme. Homesteads that raised experimental or otherwise unusual crops or livestock may also pertain to this topic. For example, some Arizona homesteads cultivated canaigre (a tuberous plant which yields a dye) and the vegetable dasheen, while others raised ostriches.

2. **ECONOMICS**, defined as the study of the production, distribution, and consumption of wealth; the management of monetary and other assets (NPS 1986: 66). If the homestead provides a good example of a rural economic unit for a particular locality and era, it may be significant. Its features (tanks, fields, corrals, work areas) should be well enough preserved to convey a sense of how the unit functioned and how it related to the outside world.

3. **EXPLORATION AND SETTLEMENT**, the investigation of unknown or little known regions; the establishment and earliest development of new settlements or communities (NPS 1986: 66). Did the homestead settle an area which had been uninhabited historically? Was the homestead part of a larger and more organized colonization effort, such as those spearheaded by the Mormons, the railroads, and some veterans' groups? Was the homestead one of the earliest (or one of the latest) entries in its region, county, or state? Was it filed during an era when homesteading was relatively rare (see Tables 1 and 2)? Did it represent a finite and short-lived period of occupation for the area? For example, the Arizona Strip, that now largely uninhabited region north of the Grand Canyon, witnessed its main influx of people in the early 20th century thanks to homesteading and Mormon colonization. Does the homestead form part of a district which exhibits a distinctive settlement pattern; for example, did members of an extended family file on adjacent claims, then "cluster" their houses around the point where the four claims came together?

4. **LAW**, the interpretation and enforcement of society's legal code (NPS 1986: 67). Was the property involved in a decision by GLO officials which rendered an unorthodox interpretation of homesteading regulations? Was the homestead involved in a legal case, the outcome of which had broader implications for water rights or agriculture in Arizona? Granted, to judge what was "unorthodox" or significant from a case law perspective, one would have to be very familiar with public land law. The opinion of a legal expert would probably be needed to assess this type of significance.

5. **SOCIAL HISTORY**, the history of society and the lifeways of its social groups (NPS 1986: 67). Some homesteads in Arizona were settled by members of social or religious groups with distinctive belief systems and philosophies. For example, many homesteaders in the plateau and mountain regions of Arizona were members of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints. A homestead or community of homesteads can symbolize the Mormons' attempt at self-sufficiency in isolated areas.

The above areas of significance are most common for homesteads, but the researcher should not overlook other areas which may pertain in unusual circumstances. "Literature" may seem an unlikely area of significance for a homestead, but it may be relevant if the property inspired the creation of prose or poetry during the historic period. For example, the Haught homestead in Gila County was the source of inspiration for characters in Zane Grey's Under the Tonto Rim (1926). Therefore "literature" was cited as an area of significance when the property was placed on the National Register in 1988.

Under criterion "B", association with "persons significant in our past," a homestead will possess significance if a person's importance is tied directly to the property. The requirements for applying criterion "B" to a property have tightened considerably in the past few years, and the reader is advised to consult Bulletin 32 before attempting to use this criterion. In general, though, to be eligible under criterion "B" a property must have a strong and lasting association with the productive period of the person's life. If a homesteader moved away from the claim and subsequently produced works which made him or her famous (at the local, state, or national levels), then the association would not be strong enough to render the homestead eligible under "B". If, on the other hand, the homestead was the main residence of the person during his or her productive years, then "B" would apply. Criterion "B" might also apply if the homestead was the only *surviving* property associated with the famous person's life.

Under criterion "C" a homestead possesses significance if it embodies "the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, a 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." The following areas of significance commonly apply to homesteads under criterion "C":

1. ARCHITECTURE, the practical art of designing and constructing buildings and structures to serve human needs (NPS 1986: 65). This will apply to a homestead property that is a good representative of an architectural style or method of construction -- including a vernacular style or method of construction. Thus Sonoran-style adobe abodes, log cabins, dog-trot style buildings, dug-outs, board-and-batten woodframe cottages, and post-and-beam barns are among the many types of buildings that could qualify under this criterion. Criterion "C" also applies if the property is a good example of an architect's work. An architect-designed homestead house would be so unusual in Arizona that it would probably qualify for listing by virtue of its very rarity. For example, a homestead property designed by Henry Trost would likely be eligible even if it were a relatively bad expression of Trost's aesthetic sense.

2. ENGINEERING, the practical application of scientific principles to design, construct, and operate equipment, machinery, and structures to serve human needs (NPS 1986: 66). The researcher should be particularly alert to the water procurement or distribution systems that were employed on a homestead. If such devices display ingenuity or innovation or are good representatives of a technological type, then the property may qualify for listing under Criterion "C".

3. LANDSCAPE ARCHITECTURE, the practical art of designing or changing land, bodies of water, and natural elements to enhance the physical environment. Homesteaders commonly manipulated their environment to create a niche which would transform the Arizona desert into home. "Home" to many of Arizona's homesteaders meant someplace else -- the lush greenery of the east, midwest, or California coast -- and they carried this aesthetic sense with them as they immigrated to the western desert. Some vegetation the homesteaders planted was highly water-consumptive, requiring careful tending, and died once the claim became abandoned. However, at homesteads occupied long enough for non-native plants to become established, the landscaping may have survived in a relatively intact state. The researcher should thus be alert to landscaping which expresses the aesthetic sense of immigrants to the western desert. Unusually well-preserved landscape architecture might render a homestead property eligible under criterion "C". For additional information on evaluating rural landscapes, please consult National Register Bulletin 30 (NPS n.d.)

Under criterion "D", a homestead is significant if it has yielded or is likely to yield information important in history. Under this criterion, the physical attributes of the property provide data relevant to various research topics; the research potential of the property is realized when the resource is scientifically studied. As we shall see in the section on "integrity", a homestead need not be totally in ruins to qualify under criterion "D", but this is its most common application.

The area of significance for criterion "D" is most always "ARCHAEOLOGY", the study of historic or prehistoric cultures through excavation and the analysis of physical remains (NPS 1986: 65). Homesteads are historical-archaeological remains, so it is therefore useful to modify this definition to provide a working one for historical archaeology: the study of historic cultures through excavation and analysis of physical remains, supplemented by written and oral-historical data as available. What, exactly, might be some "information important in history" that a homestead or group of homesteads could be expected to yield? This subject is addressed in detail in the section entitled "The Research Potential of Homesteads".

Evaluating Integrity

A property must possess integrity in order to be listed on or eligible for the National Register of Historic Places. Integrity is "the authenticity of a property's historic identity, evidenced by the survival of physical characteristics that existed during the property's historic or prehistoric period" (NPS 1982: 35). There are seven types, or qualities, of integrity, as listed in Bulletin 16 (NPS 1986): location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association. These are the Sevens Dwarfs of Historic Preservation; while many preservationists can name them, few can tell them apart. "Location", "setting", and "association" are particularly confusing, while "feeling" almost defies description.

The purpose of this section is to examine the qualities of integrity and to suggest ways each should be construed in relation to homesteads. Some qualities, we shall see, are of paramount importance in evaluating homesteads, while others are less essential. A

property need not possess all types of integrity in order to be of National Register caliber. For example, homesteads in an archaeological state may possess a different set of integrity qualities than homesteads in an architectural state, yet be of equal Register stature. Appropriate preservation treatments, too, may differ for the archaeological versus the architectural homestead.

But first, what are "homesteads in an architectural state" versus "homesteads in an archaeological state" and why is it important to distinguish the two? With the exception of trash and latrines, which are most always archaeological features, the elements of a homestead generally start out as architectural features and evolve into archaeological ones. Natural and cultural processes cause this change. Were they older properties and the erosional processes at them more advanced, then all homesteads might easily be classified as archaeological. However, these unruly youngsters most often fall into the grey realm between "architectural" and "archaeological" which does not easily oblige attempts to line-draw and hair-split.

While it is admittedly difficult to classify the features of a homestead as "architectural" or "archaeological", is it nonetheless possible to develop a workable and handy rule of thumb? The Secretary of the Interior's Standards for Rehabilitation and Guidelines for Rehabilitating Historic Buildings (NPS 1983: 12) offers some enlightenment. The guidelines suggest that the rehabilitation of an architectural property not replace or rebuild a major portion of its exterior; otherwise the property would no longer be historic and would essentially be new construction. From this guideline, the writer offers the following. *If an element (feature) of a homestead would need to have a majority of its exterior rebuilt or replaced in order to bring it back to useable condition, then it should be considered "archaeological." Conversely, if the element could be brought back to useable condition by rebuilding or replacing less than 50 percent of its exterior, then it should be considered "architectural."* "Useable" in this context could mean "habitable", but it could alternatively mean a condition that would allow public display of the property's historic resource values.

Why is it necessary to determine whether a homestead is "architectural" or "archaeological"? Cultural resources, including homesteads, are important not in and of themselves, but rather for the values they possess. An architectural element will generally possess different types of values and need to be evaluated differently than if it were an archaeological element, and vice versa. But more importantly, preservation treatments must be geared toward preserving the values which resources possess; otherwise the treatments are inappropriate. Resources possessing different types of values will likely require different types of preservation treatments. A homestead in an archaeological state will likely require different types of treatments than one in an architectural state.

LOCATION

The National Register consideration of "integrity of location" should be construed to mean that the features of the homestead property -- particularly the "habitable house" and other main features of the homestead compound, whether in a ruinous (archaeological) or relatively intact state -- are still located on the homestead claim.

If, for example, the "habitable house" has been moved to a new location off the claim, then the house on its new lot would not be eligible for the Register as a homestead, because the tie between the building and the property would have been terminated. However, if immovable portions of the "habitable house" --such as a cellar or concrete pad --still remain on the claim, then they may well be Register-eligible, as archaeological features, if they are over 50 years old and if they have the "ability to yield" (criterion D).

A word of caution is necessary: if a homestead house was moved 50 or more years ago, it may have achieved significance within a different context unrelated to homesteading. For example, if, in its new location, the house became the residence best associated with a famous person, then it might qualify for the National Register under criterion B. It would not, however, qualify for the Register as a significant expression of homesteading.

Integrity of location is of basic and paramount importance to homestead properties. Without it, the precious linkage between the land and settlement activity pursuant to the 1862 act (and its successors) is severed. All, or most all, homesteads should have integrity of location in order to be considered eligible for the National Register.

DESIGN

Design is the composition of elements that comprise the form, plan, space, structure, and style of a property (NPS 1982: 35). Design results from conscious decisions in the conception and planning of a property. Design can be further subdivided into considerations of functionalism versus aesthetics.

Most Arizona homesteads were built by people of serious intent but limited means; aesthetics took a back seat to functionalism on the frontier. Therefore, functionalism rather than aesthetics should be the standard by which a homestead's "integrity of design" should be judged. Are the main features of the homestead still arranged so that the visitor can perceive how the homestead functioned and how these features interrelated? If so, then the homestead may be said to possess "integrity of design." However, if heavy machinery has moved these features to the extent that the functional patterns between them can no longer be discerned, then this quality has been destroyed. Similarly, if only the "habitable house" but none of the features which sustained it have been preserved, then the property may also be said to lack integrity of design.

SETTING

Setting is the physical environment of a property. Whereas location refers to a particular place where a resource was built, setting illustrates the character of the place in which the resource played its historical role (NPS 1982: 36).

As we have seen in the "Narrative" section of this report, homesteads commonly consisted of tracts ranging in size from 40 to 640 acres. The essential thing to note in

appraising location of setting for a homestead is the extent to which post-historic civilization has encroached on the rural character of the property. To take an extreme case: if the buildings and structures of what was once a 40-acre homestead are now tightly sandwiched amid "Strip" development, then the homestead has lost its integrity of setting. This is not to say that the homestead need retain all 40 acres in an undeveloped state in order for it to possess this type of integrity. However, enough of a visual buffer must exist around the old structures and buildings to still convey a sense of the historic surroundings.

Similarly, in preparing a National Register nomination and deciding where to draw boundaries, the researcher should take into account the original boundaries of the homestead claim and try to include enough still-undeveloped acreage to capture the rural sense of the historic property. National Register Bulletin 30 (NPS n.d.) provides further information on defining the edges of rural properties.

MATERIALS

Materials are "the physical elements that were combined or deposited in a particular pattern or configuration to form a district, site, building, structure, or object in a particular period in the past" (NPS 1982: 36).

Integrity of materials is relatively important to homesteads in an architectural state but is of critical importance to homesteads in an archaeological state, because "ability to yield" (criterion D) hinges upon this quality;

The choice and combination of materials can provide information about the preferences of those who created the property and about the availability of particular types of materials and technologies. The presence of certain materials indigenous to a particular region or place often leads to traditions of use of those materials and thereby adds to the sense of place that a property conveys. The retention of the pattern of deposited materials is important in evaluating the integrity of materials in archaeological sites because often much of the important information that a site contains is based on the distribution of features and artifacts within the site (NPS 1982: 36).

Along with location, design, and association, integrity of materials is very important to homesteads in an archaeological state. An archaeological site that has lost other types of integrity will remain viable as an archaeological resource if these four qualities are present. Integrity of materials determines whether or not an authentic historic resource still exists.

There is a tendency among some land managers to "sanitize" historic sites, that is, to remove what is "trash" to the public's eye but what are "artifacts" from the archaeologist's vantage point. A sanitized homestead site -- one that has been picked clean of trash -- will lack integrity of materials and therefore will not be Register-eligible under criterion "D" unless it contains subsurface deposits (such as wells and latrines) that have escaped the wrath of such tidiness. However, subsurface deposits

are not essential to the Register-eligibility of a homestead in an archaeological state unless relatively undisturbed surface deposits are lacking.

Other forces may erode "integrity of materials" to a lesser extent. Relic collectors often loot homestead properties looking for bottles, coins, and other valuables. The degree of disturbance resulting from such action and the evaluation of resulting integrity of materials should be made on a case-by-case basis by a trained archaeologist, preferably an historical archaeologist.

WORKMANSHIP

Workmanship is "the physical evidence of the crafts of a particular culture or people...the evidence of craftsmen's labor and skill in constructing...or embellishing a site. Workmanship may be expressed in vernacular methods of construction and plain finishes or in highly sophisticated configurations and ornamental detailing...Examples of workmanship in historic buildings include tooling, carving, painting, graining, turning, or joinery (NPS 1982: 37)."

"Making do" by quickly erecting a habitable house and constructing the improvements required by law in order to "prove up" was probably foremost in homesteaders' minds. Therefore the researcher should not expect to find great artistry or craftsmanship in Arizona's homesteads; the absence of artistry and craftsmanship should not be construed to mean that an Arizona homestead lacks integrity of workmanship. Instead, the researcher should consider the historic appearance of the features and note the degree to which this has changed through time. Integrity of workmanship is present in a homestead when the fabric, form, and massing of the materials have been renewed in kind, so that it is still possible to see the homesteader's handiwork. The ultimate test of integrity would be to have the homesteader return to the property today and recognize it as the work of his or her own hand. This quality of integrity is of prime importance to homesteads in an architectural state, but is of less importance to those in an archaeological state.

FEELING

"Feeling" is the most elusive of the Seven Dwarfs of Historic Preservation ;

Feeling is the quality a historic resource has in evoking the aesthetic or historic sense of a past period of time. Although it is itself intangible, feeling depends upon the presence of physical characteristics to convey the historic qualities that evoke feeling. It may also require that an appropriate setting for the property be present. Because it is dependent upon the perception or imagination of each individual, integrity of feeling alone will never be sufficient to support listing in the National Register (NPS 1982: 37).

"Feeling" is thus a subjective quality, dependent upon the cultural and personal experiences one brings to a particular historic property, and difficult to test or measure. As the preceding paragraph suggests, integrity of feeling is nice to have at a

historic property but is not a strong enough dwarf to carry the burden of Register eligibility. To some extent, feeling depends on degree of preservation versus degree of deterioration. Extreme deterioration, the kind that would transform an architectural work to an archaeological site, would not interfere with the ability of the homestead to yield important information. A homestead in an archaeological state would probably lack integrity of feeling but could nevertheless be Register-eligible based on its ability to yield important data and the presence of other integrity traits.

ASSOCIATION

"Association is the direct link between a property and an event, or person, and so on, for which the property is significant. If a property has integrity of association then the property is the place where the event or activity occurred" (NPS 1982: 37).

The National Register consideration of "integrity of association" should be construed to mean that the physical remains of the homestead match homestead archives such as serial records, case files, and/or patents. The location of the resource must match the legal description indicated on archives. The dates of material remains at the property must closely match (within ten years) the dates indicated on homestead records. A technique for establishing this linkage has been described in a previous section of this report (see "The Property Type"). Without this match, the property lacks an association with the historic context of homesteading. The property may be eligible for the National Register through its association with another historic context important in the history of Arizona, but not through its association with homesteading.

The Research Potential of Homesteads

Homesteads are excellent laboratories for the study of human behavior, offering the diligent researcher several data sets -- archaeological, archival, and oral-historical -- with which to explore the past. Each yields its own perspective on what once occurred. Oral-historical data recalls history as the informant remembers it; archival data documents what the participant thought important enough at the time to record; and archaeological data provides a "ground-truth" view of the myriad details, living conditions, and quality of daily life.

Consider, for a moment, the research opportunity at hand. First, there is the government's perspective on what *should* have happened at homesteads, as stated in laws and regulations. Second, there is the homesteader's sworn testimony of what he or she *claimed* to have done to satisfy these legal requirements and attempt to take title to the land. Third, there is the homesteader's recollection, often many years after the fact, of what he or she remembers doing on the property. And fourth, there is the testimony of the physical remains themselves to act as an independent check on the homesteader's word. Sometimes these data sets coincide tidily to produce an unambiguous picture of the past. But more often they conflict, and it is at this collision point that the social scientist's fun begins.

So little has been done with homesteads in Arizona that it is safe to say the researcher's fun has just begun. A comprehensive study of the subject has never been undertaken. A small body of literature includes autobiographical accounts by Seargeant (1960) of her family's house by the Buckeye Road in Maricopa County; by Riddell (1980) of homesteading in the Tucson Mountains; by Young (1983) of his family's claim along the Hassayampa River; by Coor (1987) of life along the Blue River in the White Mountains; and by Francis (1989) of her parents' years on the Arizona Strip. In the past two decades, archaeologists have produced studies of homesteading in specific localities (including Oak Creek Canyon, Yuma, the White Tank Mountains, Wintersburg, and the Harquahala Valley), demonstrating that the study of physical remains can contribute much to our understanding of the homestead experience (Pendley 1981; Bruder and others 1988; Stone 1988; Ayres 1988; and Stein 1979, 1981, and 1988).

Before turning to a discussion of research issues which could be profitably addressed at homesteads, what are some archival sources that researchers can tap? The following are some of the most useful records for studying homesteads.

1. Plat Books, Serial Records, and Homestead Patents are on file at the State Office of the Bureau of Land Management in Phoenix. These have previously been mentioned under "The Property Type"; it should be added here that serial records also document the homesteader's periods of presence on and absence from the claim (pursuant to the 1912 amendment).

2. Deed Indices (indexes) are housed in County Recorders' offices. A Deed Index lists grantors (the entity a claim passes from) and grantees (the entity a claim passes to) in roughly alphabetical, then chronological, order. If you know the name of a person who once owned the homestead, you can use these records to reconstruct the chain of title for the parcel. Other county records of relevance include Probate Court Files, Mortgage Indices, and Marriage Affidavits.

3. The single best source of archival information about homesteads are Case Files. Case files contain detailed information from the date the homestead was first entered to the date the claim was patented, relinquished, or cancelled. Included in case files are details on acreages and crops cultivated, descriptions of improvements to the property, sworn testimonies of claimants and witnesses, and -- if the claimant was foreign-born or a veteran -- naturalization or military records. Some files also contain maps showing the boundaries of and improvements to the claim. Case files are obtained through the Suitland Reference Branch, Textual Reference Division (NNRR) of the National Archives, Washington, DC 20409 by specifying the township, range, and section of the claim, plus patent or serial number and claimant's name (data listed in state BLM records; see #1, above). Acquiring a case file can be expensive, since a file can be dozens of pages long and the National Archives charges \$0.35 per page. The process of obtaining a file also takes time, often several weeks. However, case file research is highly rewarding and well worth the effort.

4. If the homestead was eventually reacquired by the government pursuant to the Bankhead-Jones Act, then the National Archives will have a separate case file documenting that transaction. The documentation will include an "Appraisal Report" describing the buildings on the property and how the land was used at the time of re-acquisition. A map will show land use, soil types, and the locations of buildings and other improvements. The file will also include a complete title abstract.

5. Surveyor's notes and plats, on file at the State Office of the BLM, often contain information on the types of improvements found on or near subdivision lines within a township-range (a roughly 36-square-mile area of land). It is not unusual to find surveyor's notes that contain descriptions of buildings, fence lines, roads, and cultivated fields. Depending on the conscientiousness of the surveyor in recording observations, notes and plats can also provide a glimpse of what the natural environment was like at the time of early settlement. The "General Description" at the end of the notes can be useful, too, in presenting an overview of the township, assessing the agricultural potential of the area, and commenting upon settlement activity.

6. The Department of Library, Archives, and Public Records at the Arizona State Capitol Building can sometimes shed light on a particular homesteader (through its Biography Files) or a homestead community (through its Newspaper Index and extensive collection of local newspapers).

7. Old City Directories can help track the claimant's address and occupation through time. Check local libraries and historical societies for copies of these references. Current city directories, of course, may help the researcher contact homesteaders or their descendants for interviewing.

8. The Water Resource Division of the Subdistrict Office of the USGS and the Water Resources Department of the State of Arizona (both offices are in Phoenix) have records about wells throughout the state. These files can help a researcher determine if the homesteader ever sunk a productive well on his or her claim or on land adjacent to the claim.

9. BLM offices also house the special survey records sometimes made for Forest Homestead Act entries. Such 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 referenced in the BLM's township-range plat books ("Master Title Plat/Historical Index") by the number assigned to the survey. In Arizona, such survey records often show Forest Homestead entries to have had a highly irregular shape, snaking along creeks and streams or occupying non-timbered "parks" amid Forest lands.

Keeping these records, the homestead laws, informant data, and cultural resources in mind, what topics might one reasonably study concerning homesteading in Arizona? The following list is intended simply to stimulate thought and discussion and act as a point of departure for developing well-honed research questions. No one homestead

will "answer" any of these questions, but many homesteads will yield a useable sample of data which, through time and continued study, will shed light on many of these issues.

Research issue 1: *To what extent were homesteads economically self-sufficient?*

Encouraged by railroad-published propaganda, many homesteaders envisioned self-sufficiency when they established western claims. Yet many claims were unable to support even the most hard-working claimants. The change in law from 1862 to 1916 to allow progressively larger acreages reflects this realization by Congress.

How, exactly, did homesteaders manage to eke out an existence in Arizona's varied and often extreme climates? Were claimants full-time farmers and ranchers? Did they specialize in certain crops, livestock, or services which they bartered or sold to neighbors? To what extent were they dependent on the products of an industrialized world for their material needs? What were their cash needs and did they take jobs to meet these needs? How does consumptive behavior of the homesteading era compare to consumptive patterns today; to what extent did homesteaders tend to "make do" and adaptively re-use objects rather than throw them away?

Informant data, archival information, and material remains can be particularly revealing about these questions. For example, studies in Wintersburg and the Harquahala Valley suggested that Depression-era homesteaders were highly dependent on manufactured products, and that homesteaders took jobs -- when available, and often at great distances from the homestead -- to obtain the money to purchase such goods.

Research issue 2: *To what extent was agriculture practiced?*

With the exception of the 1916 Act, homestead law required certain prescribed acreages of claims to be cultivated. Serial records and case files from our state indicate that claimants often had trouble meeting this requirement, requesting repeated extensions of time in order to submit proof of cultivation. More intriguing are situations where homesteaders and their witnesses swore that agriculture had occurred, yet no traces of such activity can be seen on the land today.

Did homesteaders bend the truth to meet legal requirements and prove up, or are old fields simply invisible without bringing specialized analytical techniques and disciplines (such as thermographic aerial photography, palynology, and paleobotany) to bear on the subject? In the eyes of Arizona's GLO officials, what exactly constituted "cultivation"? Did a claimant need only break ground, pop in some seeds, and build a few token improvements in order to satisfy the government; did the claimant need to prove that he or she had tended the crops; or did the claimant have to submit proof that crops had matured and been harvested? What specialized agricultural crops or techniques, if any, were used to increase productivity? Is the notion of agrarian-based homesteading a myth or reality in Arizona?

Research issue 3: *What was the role of women?*

The contribution of women to the settlement of the American West has received increased attention in the past decade. Case files and oral histories suggest that the role of women may be a key to understanding how Arizona homesteads operated on a daily basis and, specifically, how homesteads satisfied the residency requirements of law.

Claimants in Arizona were typically male, more often married than single, and frequently veterans. After 1912, claimants were required to reside on the land for only seven months of each year, and to report the formal five-month leaves of absence permitted by law to GLO officials. During such leaves, homesteaders would typically take their families with them as they moved to areas offering less extreme climates and better educational facilities. But case files and oral histories indicate that less formal leaves of absence were also common (and, apparently, permitted by the GLO), when only the claimant would move off the land. Common reasons for these absences included: working as a laborer on a work crew building facilities distant from one's claim; holding down jobs in cities and towns; and hospitalization required as the result of a war-related disability (such as mustard-gassing following World War I). During these informal leaves of absence, it was typically the wife, with children, if any, who stayed behind to satisfy residency requirements.

Now let's give this issue an archaeological twist. How well (or poorly) is the presence of women and children on the homestead "marked" by age and gender-related artifacts? In cases where we know, from oral histories and case files, that women and children were present, -- and, indeed, that women may have played a crucial role in the homestead process -- how strongly is their presence in artifacts at the site? Are artifacts reliable or unreliable predictors of the composition of members of homesteading households? Is there a direct correlation between the size of a homesteading household and the square-footage of the "habitable house"? In providing a laboratory for testing these questions, homesteads provide insight into more general questions about estimating population size and composition on the basis of archaeological data.

Research issue 4: *What were the patterns of land use?*

Given a plot of 40, 160, 640 acres, what factors would the homesteader consider in siting various improvements? What role did features of the natural and built environments play in these decisions? Did "habitable houses" tend to be in the centers of claims or along section roads at the edges of claims? Were the houses nucleated around corners where adjacent claims met or were they dispersed, with houses sited far away from one another? Did the claimants have a sure grasp of the claims' boundaries, or did they err by siting improvements on neighbors' claims? Do desert homesteads exhibit a consistent pattern of land use which is distinct from mountain or plateau patterns of homestead land use?

Studies of land use patterns often provide insight into how homesteads were organized and how they functioned economically and socially. For example, in the remote

Arizona Strip, the author once visited four homesteads that had been settled by members of an extended family. The four family members had filed on adjacent claims lying in a block-like configuration, then had built their houses at the hub where the four claims met. A historian who had interviewed the old homesteaders related that the claimants had shared equipment and supplies on a daily basis, had worked one another's claims, and had usually eaten communally. What were four distinct claims on paper were, thus, managed "on the ground" as one larger economic and social unit.

Research issue 5: How did the social mores of particular groups evolve in response to life on the frontier?

Some areas of Arizona were homesteaded by members of particular religious, socio-political, or ethnic groups. Colonization organized by veterans groups occurred at least in the southeastern desert of the state, while settlement by followers of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints was common in the Arizona Strip and Little Colorado River Valley. Similarly, Granger (1960: 188) reports that Mobile, Arizona was settled by 40 Blacks from Mobile, Alabama who immigrated and started homesteading in 1925.

How common in Arizona was colonization by groups as opposed to settlement by individuals? In instances where colonization occurred, what institutions and customs, if any, developed to reinforce group identity on the frontier? What did people do during their formal leaves of absence from the claim? How did social activities vary between the "resident" and "on leave" periods of a homesteader's life? To what extent were social mores relaxed or tightened in rural settings? Is the incidence of containers for proscribed substances (tea, coffee, alcohol) greater at a Mormon homestead or at a Mormon home in a city/town? Did the vernacular architecture and material culture of Mobile, Alabama influence the architecture and material culture of Mobile, Arizona?

Research issue 6: What were the long-range goals, or motives, of homesteaders in staking claims in Arizona, and how successfully were these goals met?

Why did people take up homestead claims in Arizona? Did these motives change as the homesteader went through the process of "proving up"? Did the homesteader succeed in meeting his or her goals? Was homesteading a speculative venture -- with settlers liquidating their claims at the first opportunity -- or a venture characterized more by long-term commitment to the land? Informant interviews, chain-of-title searches, and the remains of improvements to the property can shed light on these questions.

Research issue 7: What factors contributed to the "success" of a homestead, as measured by the conveyance of a title patent from the government to the claimant?

Were certain kinds of homesteads (for example, stock-raising ones, filed pursuant to the 1916 act) more likely to succeed in certain areas of the state than other types of homesteads? If so, why? What were some common problems in submitting proof, as

revealed in case files? What do informants recall about the "proving up" process? How common were field checks by government officials? How carefully was the process of "proving up" monitored by the government? Which requirements were rigorously upheld and which were more liberally interpreted? What steps could a homesteader take to increase his or her chances of success? Which areas of Arizona (riverine versus desert, mountain versus desert, and so forth) had higher incidences of successful homesteading efforts and why?

Goals, Strategies, and Priorities for Management

Considering the important role that homesteads have played in settling our state, we Arizonans have done relatively little to identify, evaluate, and preserve them, and to educate people about them. There are, to be sure, deficiencies in our treatment of these properties. The State Historic Preservation Office should work to remedy these deficiencies whenever possible. The following section lists goals for the management of homestead properties and discusses strategies the SHPO should follow in accomplishing them. Time frames for implementing the strategies are also provided.

Goal 1: Increase efforts to identify homesteads. There were once between 21,000 and 22,000 successful homesteads in Arizona, and there were even more unsuccessful than successful ones here, but fewer than fifty of this total number have been identified.

Strategy 1: Improve survey standards so that homesteads (and other historic properties) will not be overlooked. Although the practice is becoming less common, some archaeologists still scrupulously record prehistoric properties while disregarding historic ones. In reviewing survey documentation, the SHPO should check to see that historic resources have been taken into account. If historic resources have not been taken into account, the SHPO should return the documentation with a request for more information. This policy is already in effect, but the SHPO should redouble its efforts so that historic sites do not "fall through the cracks" of CRM investigations.

Strategy 2: Improve archival documentation standards. Only through archival research can a homestead be recognized as such. When property information about a ranch or farm is submitted to the SHPO, whether in the course of compliance investigations or routine inventory work, the SHPO should check to see if the surveyor has conducted the archival research necessary to determine if the property in question was a homestead. If the surveyor has not conducted such research, then the SHPO should return the material to the surveyor (or responsible agency) with a request for more information. This procedure is necessary because proper identification is the key to assessing the significance and integrity of any resource and to developing appropriate treatments for it. The SHPO should implement this strategy immediately.

Strategy 3: Sponsor a thematic survey of homestead properties. Using its annual HPF allotment, the SHPO should sponsor a survey to record homesteads in Arizona -- not *all* homesteads, certainly, for that would be an unrealistically large task, but rather a community of them. It is recommended that the SHPO focus such effort on a locality of Arizona where the resources would be relatively undisturbed so that patterns of land use could still be observed. The Arizona Strip or the southeastern desert might be appropriate areas for study. An area subject to heavy development pressure, such as Mobile, might also make an excellent subject for a homestead survey. The SHPO should implement this strategy within the next five years.

Goal 2: Assist agencies and cultural resource professionals in evaluating the significance and integrity of homesteads. So little has been written about these properties that archaeologists and resource managers are often unfamiliar with them and at a loss to evaluate them.

Strategy 1: Distribute this study to resource managers and consulting archaeologists. Make it available to other interested parties upon request. The guidelines offered in this study may clarify the evaluation process and make it less mysterious. This strategy should be implemented by the SHPO immediately.

Goal 3: Nominate eligible homesteads to the National Register of Historic Places. Only three Arizona homesteads, Sun Up Ranch, the Haught homestead, and the Niels Petersen House, are currently entered on our nation's official list of properties worth preserving. The listing of properties increases their esteem in the public's eye and creates a climate favorable to preservation. If more homesteads were listed on the Register, they might move from "orphan" to "adopted" status. The availability of acquisition and development (A & D) grants after a nine year funding hiatus has re-created an incentive for listing, as federal A & D funds can be used to restore, stabilize, and rehabilitate only properties listed on the Register.

Strategy 1: As a division of Arizona State Parks, the SHPO should nominate all eligible homesteads within the State Parks system. The system contains one homestead, the Pendley property, which is considered eligible for but not yet listed on the Register. The SHPO is providing money from its FY 90 appropriation to prepare a nomination for this property.

Strategy 2: Consider developing a Multiple Property Documentation Form (MPDF) for "Homesteads in Arizona, 1862 to 1940." The present study could form the basis for the MPDF, which would facilitate the future listing of individual homesteads or districts of homesteads. One drawback might be that homesteads occupied for unusually long periods might relate to more than one "historic context" and the cover form would not be able to anticipate what these additional contexts might be. For example, the Pendley property had a significant association with local tourism after it was a homestead, and a MPDF dealing simply with "Homesteading" would not adequately describe each area of

significance for the property. This strategy should receive immediate consideration by SHPO.

Strategy 3: Incorporate elements of the rural landscape into homestead nominations. Nomination boundaries should be drawn to include not only buildings and structures of the homestead but also its orchards, fields, and other land sufficient to convey a sense of the rural past. The SHPO should implement this policy on all future nominations which it develops or processes.

Strategy 4: Eligible homesteads discovered by HPF-funded surveys should be nominated to the Register. The SHPO should provide HPF funds for preparing nominations. This strategy should be implemented whenever, in the future, eligible homesteads are discovered.

Goal 4: Develop, or assist in developing, preservation treatments consistent with the values that particular homesteads possess. From the range of preservation options, including stabilization, restoration, rehabilitation, maintenance, mitigation, and interpretation, the SHPO should help managers develop treatment plans which will preserve or enhance the values that particular homesteads possess.

Strategy 1: Make this study available to land managers charged with developing preservation treatment plans for homestead. This report has discussed ways that homesteads may possess significance and integrity and has mentioned forces that can impact these qualities. The SHPO should implement this strategy immediately.

Goal 5: Educate the public about the role of homesteading in Arizona history. No museum exhibit or historical site in Arizona interprets homesteading to the public. No popular booklet for public consumption exists on the subject. The SHPO must make the public more aware of the importance of homesteading in order to foster a preservation ethic conducive to the preservation of homestead properties.

Strategy 1: In conjunction with a land-management agency, SHPO should prepare a one-page information sheet on homesteads. The hand-out, which could be distributed to land users visiting agency offices, should state why homestead properties should not be disturbed. SHPO should implement this strategy within the next two years.

Strategy 2: SHPO staff should prepare, or provide information to a professional writer to prepare, an article suitable for a publication such as Arizona Highways or America West Magazine. The SHPO should work to see such an article in print within three years (by 1993).

Strategy 3: Using matching HPF funds, provide a matching grant to an entity to develop an interpretive plan for a homestead property in Arizona; the

interpretive plan should specifically develop the theme of homesteading. The SHPO should implement this strategy within the next five years.

Suggestions for Others

The five general goals defined in the preceding section are things the SHPO can do to preserve homesteads and educate people about them. This section contains suggestions of actions that could be undertaken by others in the preservation network to further an understanding and appreciation of such properties. Preservation is a broad field that encompasses a wide audience and includes many players. Each player in the network defines its own priorities and plans its own activities, so the following list is by no means comprehensive or mandatory. Rather, the suggested actions indicate ways in which preservationists throughout Arizona can work cooperatively to foster the preservation of our state's homesteads.

Suggestion 1: Add to the data base of homestead properties in Arizona.

Suggested Action 1: Report the discovery of a homestead to the agency which manages the property so that agency professionals can inventory, evaluate, and protect these resources.

Suggested Action 2: If you suspect that you may own an old homestead, research its history using the techniques suggested in this report. Report your findings to the SHPO.

Suggested Action 3: If you are a graduate student looking for a thesis or dissertation topic, consider writing it on homesteading, a relatively untouched subject in the history of our state.

Suggestion 2: Protect homesteads that are significant.

Suggested Action 1: If you own or manage a homestead, have it evaluated using the techniques suggested in this report. If it is found to be significant, protect and preserve the qualities which make it so. Be a good steward of the resource.

Suggested Action 2: Consider having a significant homestead in your ownership or control listed on the National Register of Historic Places. Listing on the National Register affords recognition of the property's place in history. It ensures a measure of consideration in the face of Federal- or State-funded or assisted undertakings, and creates some opportunities which foster preservation. For example, 50/50 matching funds are currently available from the SHPO to help groups rehabilitate or restore properties listed on the Register.

Suggestion 3: Educate others about the importance of homesteading and the history that homesteads represent.

Suggested Action 1: If you are an agency archaeologist or manager, print a hand-out to sensitize land users to the importance of homesteads and the need to protect them.

Suggested Action 2: Writers should consider publishing articles on the subject.

Suggested Action 3: If you are an agency manager or archaeologist, develop interpretive signage or other material to educate the public about these types of cultural resources. If interpretation is to result in greater visitation to specific resources, augment their protection as appropriate.

Suggested Action 4: Publish a color pamphlet on homesteading sites and the importance of homesteading to Arizona's settlement.

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