

NATIONAL HISTORIC LANDMARK NOMINATION

NPS Form 10-900

USDI/NPS NRHP Registration Form (Rev. 8-86)

OMB No. 1024-0018

CAMP NELSON HISTORIC AND ARCHEOLOGICAL DISTRICT

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United States Department of the Interior, National Park Service

National Register of Historic Places Registration Form

1. NAME OF PROPERTY

Historic Name: Camp Nelson Historic and Archeological District

Other Name/Site Number: 15Js78, 112, 130, 163, 164, 166; Structure #'s Js56 and Js187; Ariel/Hall.

2. LOCATION

Street & Number: 6614 Danville Pike

Not for publication: X

City/Town: Nicholasville

Vicinity: N/A

State: Kentucky County: Jessamine Code: 113

Zip Code: 40356

3. CLASSIFICATION

Ownership of Property

Private: X

Public-Local: X

Public-State: \_\_\_

Public-Federal: X

Category of Property

Building(s): \_\_\_

District: \_\_\_

Site: X

Structure: \_\_\_

Object: \_\_\_

Number of Resources within Property

Contributing

1

2

19

\_\_\_

22

Noncontributing

17 buildings

1 sites

2 structures

\_\_\_ objects

20 Total

Number of Contributing Resources Previously Listed in the National Register: 21

Name of Related Multiple Property Listing: N/A

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**4. STATE/FEDERAL AGENCY CERTIFICATION**

As the designated authority under the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended, I hereby certify that this \_\_\_\_ nomination \_\_\_\_ request for determination of eligibility meets the documentation standards for registering properties in the National Register of Historic Places and meets the procedural and professional requirements set forth in 36 CFR Part 60. In my opinion, the property \_\_\_\_ meets \_\_\_\_ does not meet the National Register Criteria.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature of Certifying Official

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
State or Federal Agency and Bureau

In my opinion, the property \_\_\_\_ meets \_\_\_\_ does not meet the National Register criteria.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature of Commenting or Other Official

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
State or Federal Agency and Bureau

**5. NATIONAL PARK SERVICE CERTIFICATION**

I hereby certify that this property is:

- \_\_\_\_ Entered in the National Register
- \_\_\_\_ Determined eligible for the National Register
- \_\_\_\_ Determined not eligible for the National Register
- \_\_\_\_ Removed from the National Register
- \_\_\_\_ Other (explain):

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature of Keeper

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date of Action

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**6. FUNCTION OR USE**

Historic:	DEFENSE	Sub:	military facility
	FUNERARY	Sub:	cemetery
Current:	RECREATION AND CULTURE	Sub:	museum
	AGRICULTURE/SUBSITENCE	Sub:	agriculture
	DOMESTIC	Sub:	single dwelling
	FUNERARY	Sub:	cemetery

**7. DESCRIPTION**

ARCHITECTURAL CLASSIFICATION: MID-19<sup>TH</sup> CENTURY      Sub: Greek Revival

**MATERIALS:**

Foundation: Limestone  
Walls: frame, weatherboard  
Roof: asphalt shingle  
Other: brick chimney

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**Describe Present and Historic Physical Appearance.**Introduction

Camp Nelson, Kentucky (1863-66) was one of the nation's largest recruitment and training centers for African American soldiers during the American Civil War, as well as a refugee camp for the wives and children of these African American soldiers. It began as a fortified U.S. Army supply depot, hospital, and garrison in 1863, and became a recruitment and training center for African American troops in the spring and summer of 1864. It was one of the nation's largest such individual centers in the number of regiments formed, only after Camp William Penn, in Philadelphia and perhaps New Orleans, Louisiana (documents are unclear as to how many individual camps were in New Orleans). Camp William Penn and the camps in New Orleans are now destroyed, both above and below ground. Today the above and below ground remains of Camp Nelson can provide nationally significant information on the lives of African American soldiers and their families as well as information on the lives of soldiers and civilians who occupied the camp. The property also represents the freedom sought by African American men, women and children through the enlistment and emancipation of thousands of escaped enslaved people.

The Camp Nelson Historic and Archeological District is significant under National Historic Landmark Criterion 1 in the areas of Civil War and African American history for its association with nationally significant events identified with and representative of broad patterns of American history and from which an understanding and appreciation of these patterns may be gained. Camp Nelson represents an essential component in the history of emancipation and African American contributions to the Civil War. The May-June 1864 enlistment and emancipation of hundreds of escaped enslaved people at Camp Nelson finally overturned the formerly restrictive U.S. Army enlistment policy and began what would give Kentucky the second largest number (23,703) of African American soldiers of any state behind only Louisiana, with 24,052 United States Colored Troops (U.S.C.T). Additionally, the November 1864 expulsion of 400 African American refugee women and children from Camp Nelson by the U.S. Army led to a national uproar and, eventually, the March 3, 1865 Congressional Act that freed the wives and children of the African American soldiers. The enlistment of soldiers (whereupon they were freed) and the passage of the March 1865 Act made Camp Nelson one of the largest emancipation centers in the United States. Today, the site of Camp Nelson has a well preserved landscape, earthen fortifications, depot magazine, historic roads, one period building, and archeological deposits.

Camp Nelson is also significant under National Historic Landmark Criterion 6 in the area of historical archeology, since the site has yielded and is likely to yield further information of major scientific importance affecting theories, concepts, and ideas about emancipation and the lives of escaped enslaved people, particularly the incredible persistence and survival of the African American women and children refugees who lived in these centers under extreme circumstances. Camp Nelson is the best preserved large Civil War depot, hospital, and recruitment and refugee camp in the nation in terms of landscape and archeological deposits. As such, the archeological resources at Camp Nelson have the potential to answer nationally significant questions about African American and white soldiers' living conditions, including material culture, ethnic and rank variability in these conditions; the military and civilian landscape; military supply services; military fortification and building architectural design and construction; civilian employee living conditions and variability in military camps. Further, the archeological remains related to the woman and children living as refugees have the potential to add significantly to our understanding of gender roles in military camps. The site speaks to the living and material conditions of these civilian refugees, which tells the story of their transformation from enslaved to free individuals whose extraordinary endurance was played out under the most difficult of circumstances. These

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research areas have the potential to inform the archeological and historical literature with regard to African American history, Civil War service, race, identity and gender to a major degree.

### Historic Condition

Between June, 1863 and June, 1866, Camp Nelson was a large Union Army depot and encampment and contained numerous buildings, corrals, forts, and tents. All or parts of five to ten regiments generally occupied the camp and over 1,000 civilian employees worked there, with some civilians housed in the camp's barracks. Fortunately, three historic maps of the camp as well as a collection of photographs exist. Together, these documents present a good picture of the camp's appearance. The maps are "Camp Nelson and its Defenses (1864)," "Defenses of Camp Nelson (1864)," and "Map of Camp Nelson (1866)" (Figures 1-3). Detailed engineer's plans of each fortification also exist. Numerous detailed written descriptions of the camp also exist in U.S. Army Quartermaster Corps records in the National Archives.

The total encampment area contained approximately 4,000 acres. It was bounded on its southern and western sides by the deeply entrenched Kentucky River and on the east by the entrenched Hickman Creek. This location made the camp easily defensible. The only vulnerable section of the camp was the northern edge. Here, a line of eight forts or batteries, connecting rifle pits, and *abatis* were constructed. These forts, from west to east, were named Forts Hatch, Nelson, Jackson, Putnam, Pope, Taylor, McKee, and Jones (Figure 2). All trees were cleared to the north of this line to a distance of 1,500 yards except on the slope between the two eastern forts (McKee and Jones) (Official Records, Series 1, Vol. 39, Part III:772-774). Additional fortifications were also constructed to the south along Hickman Creek (Fort Studdiford and the two Stone Forts) and near the bridge and ford across the Kentucky River (Fort Bramlette) (Figure 1).

The forts along the northern line were all of earthen and rock or timber construction, and all were lunettes or redans except Fort Jones, which was a redoubt. The forts had six to twelve cannon platforms and all except Fort Putnam had powder magazines. The forts were built from east to west and Fort Putnam, which is set back from the other forts, was constructed on a high point to cover the eastern line before Forts Pope, Taylor, McKee, and Jones were completed (Official Records, Series 1, Vol. 39, Part III:772-774). Only Forts Nelson, Jackson, and Taylor were armed with artillery. Each had six 12-pounder Napoleons and one 30-pounder Parrot Rifle. The Hickman Creek forts, Studdiford and two Stone Forts were smaller batteries. Fort Bramlette was also a redoubt with a powder magazine, bomb proof and cistern. It was by far the largest single fortification, being 350 feet long and 200 feet wide.

Within the camp, over 300 buildings were constructed which were associated with the functions of a quartermaster commissary depot, ordnance depot, recruitment center, and hospital. These buildings included dozens of warehouses to store rations, clothing, and equipment; stables, cribs, and sheds to house horses and mules and their feed; blacksmith shops; a harness shop, a wagon shop; offices; mess halls; the recruiting rendezvous (later U.S.C.T. barracks) and barracks (Figures 1, 3, and 4). The warehouses were placed in a natural sunken area in the center of the camp so they would not be visible from the road or other observation points outside the camp (Hall 1865a). Other buildings and structures included the ornate camp headquarters (Figure 5), the large quartermaster offices, the bakery (which baked 10,000 rations of bread daily), the saw mill, the Adam's Express Post Office, the woodworking machine shop, ordnance warehouses, the magazines, and a prison with its provost office.

The Nelson Hospital consisted of ten large hospital wards, a laundry, offices, nurses' quarters, dead houses, and a convalescent camp of tents (Figure 6). The hospital received running water from a 500,000 gallon reservoir located on the hill west of the hospital. Water was pumped up to the reservoir from the large pump house on

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the Kentucky River 470 feet below. Water from the reservoir was also pumped down to the warehouses and sheds, for fire prevention, and to the U.S. Sanitary Commission run Soldiers' Home (Figure 7). The Soldier's Home was used, "for the accommodation of soldiers temporarily sojourning the Camp en route to join their Regiments at the front" (Hall 1865a). The camp employed over 1,000 civilians, including European Americans and free African Americans, in the occupations of laborers, carpenters, blacksmiths, wagon makers, teamsters, and clerks, among others. Many of these civilians lived in barracks or tents in the camp (National Archives, RG 92, Box 720). Over 1,000 enslaved African Americans were also impressed into labor service for the Army at Camp Nelson and primarily worked on building fortifications, and improving roads within and south of camp.

Period photographs and archeological evidence indicate that most Camp Nelson buildings were of board and batten construction, had wooden shingle roofs, and were up on wooden piers. The camp headquarters was a more substantial building with horizontal weather boarding. The photographs and the map "Camp Nelson and its Defenses" (Figure 1) also illustrate numerous tents over the camp which were likely used for storage and housing. The photographs and maps indicate that the interior camp ground surface was grass or dirt, with few trees left.

A number of domestic structures within the camp were commandeered and used by the army. These included the Owens' house near the post office; the Oliver Perry house, also known as the "White House" (Figure 8), near Fort Jackson; the Mary Scott house near the hospital; and a tavern called the Camp Nelson House.

Four documented cemeteries were located at Camp Nelson after July, 1863. These included Graveyard #1, east of Fort Jackson; Graveyard #2 at the south central part of camp where the National Cemetery is now situated; and two smallpox cemeteries in unknown locations west of the hospital. Both Graveyards #1 and #2 are shown on Figure 1, with #1 shown as a square just east of Fort Jackson and #2 labeled "Cemetery." Graveyard #1 and #2 had 379 and 1,183 soldiers, respectively, interred between June-July, 1863 and February, 1866 and an unknown number of civilians. In 1866 Graveyard #2 was designated a National Cemetery by War Department General Order and was intended as a re-interment site for Union soldiers scattered throughout private cemeteries and battlefields in central Kentucky. The soldiers' remains from Graveyard #1 were moved here. The civilians buried in Graveyard #1 and the smallpox cemeteries are presumably still in their original locations.

When Kentucky finally allowed the enlistment of all able bodied African American men in spring 1864, Camp Nelson became Kentucky's largest recruitment and training camp for African American troops, designated United States Colored Troops (U.S.C.T.). These men were housed in various tents and barracks across camp, and toward the end of the camp's existence, in a multitude of buildings, including the hospital wards, the soldiers' home, and the recruiting rendezvous (Figure 9). These soldiers also brought their wives and children into camp and in December 1864, the Army established the "Home for Colored Refugees," which included 97 cottages, four wards, and numerous support buildings, in the southwestern corner of the camp. Teachers and missionaries were sent by the American Missionary Association to educate the refugees and doctors and nurses were provided by the U.S. Army.

The refugee camp was illustrated on the "Map of Camp Nelson" (Miller 1866, Figure 3), two maps in the Freedman's Bureau records, and in numerous period photographs (Figure 10). The refugee camp eventually contained 97 duplex cottages in three rows, a school, a mess hall, a hospital, a reception ward, a commissary, store rooms, a barracks, a laundry, a lime kiln, offices, and surgeons' and teachers' lodgings, and a private sutler's establishment. This camp was built to house, feed, and educate the families of the U. S. Colored Troops and at some points housed over 3,000 people (Fee 1891). These numbers led to the use of 60 tents and 60 huts located to the north of the cottages as additional housing (Fee 1891).

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Beginning in the late summer of 1865, the army began an inventory of buildings and equipment in preparation for dismantling and abandoning the camp. Multiple lists were made throughout the field with buildings classified as necessary and unnecessary. Unnecessary buildings were immediately dismantled and their lumber and other construction materials sold. Necessary buildings, particularly barracks, offices, and their support structures, were kept until the camp was finally abandoned in June 1866, at which time most of these were dismantled and sold. The only exceptions were the previous civilian buildings, such as the White House, and some of the Home for Colored Refugee buildings. The civilian buildings were referred to the previous owners, while the Home buildings were turned over to the Freedman's Bureau, which was charged with breaking up the refugee Home. Before the Home was completely dismantled, the Rev. John G. Fee, the Rev. Abisha Scofield, and many of the refugees fought to remain. In the late 1860s, Rev. Fee purchased much of the Home property and sold it back to the refugees. At this time approximately 20 to 30 duplex cottages, a ward, the mess hall, and the school remained. As the community evolved, the residents moved into larger lots, so that they could have gardens, and often built new houses. Over time all of the original duplex cottages and communal buildings were dismantled. The school was replaced by a block building in the early twentieth century.

The army-constructed buildings were always viewed as ephemeral, meant only to last the duration of the war. With one or two exceptions, these buildings were of light board-and-batten construction and placed on wooden piers. They had stoves rather than masonry chimneys. Once sold, the lumber, shingles, and possibly even some nails, were removed from the site by the purchaser and used in new buildings.

### Present Condition

The Camp Nelson Historic and Archeological District is made up of approximately 600 acres, in southern Jessamine County, six miles south of Nicholasville, Kentucky. This district includes the well-preserved archeological remains and landscape of a large Civil War era Union Army supply depot, recruitment camp, hospital facility, and African American refugee camp. The district consists of documented and as yet undocumented archeological remains within the entire area enclosed by the proposed boundaries. These archeological remains and the National Cemetery are counted as 2 contributing sites, the Camp Nelson Archeological Site and the Camp Nelson National Cemetery. The archeological investigations performed to date within the district, detailed below, have revealed the excellent, high, stratigraphic integrity of the entire district. The district also includes 1 building (Oliver Perry House/White House), 17 structures (the infantry entrenchment, 8 forts, an earthen ordnance magazine, the bakery oven foundations, the prison cistern, an ice house, a stone reservoir, three original roads, and two cemeteries (Graveyard #1, included as part of the archeological site and the Camp Nelson National Cemetery, mentioned above) at the main depot-encampment, plus one structure, an original street, at the former refugee Home (Figure 11). The forts include Jackson, Pope, Taylor, McKee, Jones, the northern stone fort, the southern stone fort, and Studdiford. The main depot-encampment area has high integrity of setting, feeling, association, and location and looks much as it did after the camp was dismantled. The former Home for Colored Refugees also has excellent integrity of setting, association, and location, but the viewshed to the south is somewhat interrupted by the present hamlet of Hall, an historic and modern community which became the home of the descendants of the refugee camp and contains approximately 25 late nineteenth- to middle twentieth-century dwellings. The northwestern and southern parts of the hamlet of Hall are not included in the district at this time. This area falls outside of the period of significance and has not had the intensive archeological or evaluative investigation needed for NHL documentation. However, if such work is done in the future, the nomination might be amended to extend the period of significance and include this area.

The present landscape of the main depot-encampment area is very similar to its appearance just before and after the Civil War, and presents a high degree of visual integrity. This area is primarily in pasture, and woods. The

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vegetation landscape has an appearance very much like that illustrated in the 1864 "Camp Nelson and Its Defenses" map (Figure 1) and in the 1864-1865 photographs of Camp Nelson. The viewsheds from the pasture lands on the eastern side of U.S. 27 present broad views of rolling park land or karst topography. Because of the undulating topography, these views vary considerably every few yards. The main concentrations of wooded lands occur in the Hickman Creek and Kentucky River ravines, in the sinkholes, and along the Lexington-Danville Turnpike. The above and below ground condition of Camp Nelson is especially remarkable when compared to other former large supply depots and recruitment and training centers across the nation. Most of the other centers were located in cities or towns, such as Louisville, Chattanooga, New Orleans, and Nashville, and have been destroyed by urban growth.

The most significant difference from the Civil War period is the absence of the Camp Nelson buildings, however, these structures were always seen as temporary by the Federal army and were largely gone by the end of the war, having mostly been dismantled by the army and sold for their lumber. Another change in the area is the present four-lane highway, U.S. 27, which parallels the original road, the old Lexington-Danville Turnpike (old U.S. 27) to the west. The viewshed to the southwest is somewhat impacted by a metal sided industrial building (ABC Corporation) and four large wooden distillery warehouses to the west of the highway. These structures are outside of the nominated NHL district and only visible from the southern end of the district. The highway is also outside the nominated area.

## **Contributing Resources**

### **Buildings**

#### **The Oliver Perry or White House: 1 Contributing Building**

The only remaining building from the Civil War era is the Oliver Perry house or "White House" as it was called by the Army. This two-story, hipped roofed, frame house of the Greek Revival style was built in 1855 by Oliver and Fannie (Scott) Perry and maintains an appearance very close to that of the Civil War period, having been renovated by Jessamine County Fiscal Court in 1998-1999 to its Civil War appearance (Figures 11 and 12, see also Figure 8). It was the Quartermaster and Commissary officers' quarters during the Camp Nelson era and is a contributing building to the district.

This house was built in ca. 1855 by Oliver H. Perry and Francis (Scott) Perry on land of Francis' mother Mary Scott. The house is a two-story Greek Revival frame house with a two-story T-addition on the rear. The house is of frame construction on a limestone foundation with horizontal weather boarding and a hipped roof. The main section of the house is 52 feet by 20 feet, one room deep, with two end rooms and a central hall on each floor. The front (west) of the main house has a full height entry porch within square vernacular (simplified) Doric columns. The rear addition consists of a two story 22 by 18 feet original attached wing and a later (1865) two story 16 feet square kitchen wing. The kitchen wing replaced a one story detached kitchen burned during the Civil War.

Both of these buildings have one room on the first and second floors, but the kitchen also has a one-story dropped 18 feet by 10 feet on its north side, and the original attached wing has a two-story porch on its south side and a one-story porch on its north side. The two-story porch extends southward to meet the south wall of the main house and the roof that covers this original wing and its two-story porch also meets the main house roof. The White House has three brick chimneys, one on each end of the main house, and one between the original wing and the kitchen.

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Outside alterations to the house include uncovering the two-story side porch, which had been enclosed during the early-twentieth century; replacing the full-height entry porch, which had been replaced by a one-story full-width porch in the late-nineteenth to early-twentieth century, laying the roof with new asphalt shingles, and repairing the northeast foundation wall of the main house. Recent interior alterations include replacing the floors in the first floor north room (parlor) of the main house, the first floor of the original wing, and the first floor of the kitchen wing. The original floors had rotted and partly collapsed. Modern utilities (heating and air-conditioning) and modern kitchen appliances have also been added.

## Structures

**Eight forts and the infantry entrenchment along the northern line and Hickman Creek, ordnance powder magazine, bakery oven, prison cistern, spring reservoir, ice house, the road northeast of the fortification, the road south of the fortification and the road near the middle of the main camp. A stone wall at the Camp Nelson National Cemetery and one road (Ison Street) at the former Home for Colored Refugees: 19 Contributing Structures**

Visible and contributing structures in the main depot-encampment site include the remains of five earthen fortifications and their connecting rifle entrenchment along the northern fortification line, and the remains of three earthen or stone fortifications further down Hickman Creek (Fort Studdiford and the Northern Stone Fort and the Southern Stone Fort), for a total of 9 (8 fortifications and the entrenchment). Other structures in the district include the remains of the main earthen ordnance powder magazine on the south end of the camp, the bakery oven foundations, the prison cistern, a limestone spring reservoir near the White House, an ice house, and the remnants of three Civil War era roads in the main camp, and one in the former "Home for Colored Refugees." Also, a stone wall at the Camp Nelson National Cemetery is included.

The conditions of the earthen fortifications vary from excellent (Forts Jones, Studdiford, and the northern Stone Fort) to good (Forts Jackson, McKee, Pope, Taylor and the southern Stone Fort). Since Fort Putnam has been reconstructed, it is counted as non-contributing (see below). The excellent condition of Fort Jones, Fort Studdiford, and the northern Stone Fort is due to their location in wooded environments and the lack of cultivation (Figure 13). Forts Jones and Studdiford have well preserved embankments, sometimes up to 10 feet tall and with only small amounts of erosion. Fort Jones has visible signs of well-preserved interior features such as the powder magazine and gun platforms and stone revetment. The northern Stone Fort consists of a well preserved limestone wall in the shape of an arc (Figure 14). Those forts that are in good condition generally also have well preserved embankments and ditches, especially in the central areas, but exhibit some erosion on the ends, where the relief differences are more in the area of 5 to 8 feet rather than 7 to 10 feet. Fort Jackson has a well preserved powder magazine, with no signs of roof (which would have been wood with earth on top) collapse (Figure 15). Forts Pope, Taylor, and the southern Stone Fort exhibit embankments that are from 1 to 3 feet high with shallow ditches and in the case of the southern Stone Fort, a low limestone wall (Figure 16). Fort Taylor has excellent archeological remains (see below). The rifle pits and entrenchments are well preserved, being between 2 feet to 6 inches deep between Fort Jones and Fort McKee and very well preserved north of the White House, where they are between 2 to 3 feet deep (Figure 17). These features tend to be better preserved when they occur near the forts (Figure 18).

The ordnance powder magazine consists of an elongated mound with a sunken center (where the roof collapsed) and is about 3 to 4 feet tall and 50 feet long (Figure 19). Although the roof has collapsed, the structure is primarily intact. The bakery oven foundation consists of dry laid cut limestone blocks that are now mostly covered with earth, so as to create a mound about 4.5 feet tall and 8 feet across (Figure 20). The prison cistern is circular, about 8 feet across, and constructed of dry laid limestone. The quartermaster ice house cellar is

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constructed of limestone, about 15 feet across and 14 feet deep (Figure 21). The limestone retaining wall was built by the army to create a reservoir at the base of what they called the "Officer's Spring" (Figure 22).

The remains of three Civil War era roads are visible within the main depot-encampment site. These occur north east of the northern fortification line, south of this fortification line, and near the middle of the property. These roads are generally eroded grass covered ditches 1 to 4 feet deep and 5 to 8 feet wide (Figure 23). The western part of the more central road is still a dirt farm road. These roads are all visible on the 1864 and 1866 maps of camp (Figures 1 and 3).

A four foot tall limestone wall that encloses the Civil War-era graves of the Camp Nelson National Cemetery is also included as a contributing structure. This wall encloses the original Camp Nelson Cemetery Number 2 (Sections A-D) and the re-interment area (Sections E-G) for Union Civil War dead from other sites.

The Home for Colored Refugees site is located on the northern edge of the present Hall community, which developed as an outgrowth of the refugee Home. The refugee Home site, which covers approximately 20 acres, contains archeological deposits from the refugee Home (15Js163), and one of the original streets, Ison Street (Figure 24), part of which remains in use today with the unused portion observable as slightly sunken linear features. Most of the refugee Home site is in grass or woods. Some parts of this area have been cultivated recently, but the northern slope has never been plowed.

## **Sites**

### **Camp Nelson Archeological Site and the National Cemetery: 2 Contributing Sites**

*The Camp Nelson Archeological Site (including all archeological resources within the district, counted as one contributing site)*

The Camp Nelson Historic and Archeological District has been the site of numerous past and ongoing archeological investigations (Janzen 1987; McBride 2005, 2010; McBride and McBride 2006; 2010a, 2010b; McBride and Sharp 1991; McBride et al. 2000, 2003). These investigations have included both ongoing research and preservation-oriented work on the present Camp Nelson Civil War Heritage Park and adjacent private properties, as well as four Section 106 compliance archeology projects. These archeological surveys and excavations have demonstrated both the diversity of sites and the excellent state of preservation found at Camp Nelson. This diversity and integrity make Camp Nelson unique and extremely significant for its potential to address numerous research questions and convey its national significance related to Civil War military and civilian conditions, including those of African American soldiers and African American refugees. While the archeological investigations detailed below have been done in discreet areas within the boundaries (and provided individual site numbers, see above and below), they demonstrate that the entire area nominated within the boundary holds incredible potential to include well preserved archeological remains. Additionally, because there has been little use of the area after the Civil War and the remains are temporally, chronologically, and geographically related, the archeological resources here are counted as one site. This one site includes site numbers 15Js78, 15Js163, 15Js164, 15Js166 as well as the area between these discreetly defined sites.

The first excavations at Camp Nelson were Section 106 compliance projects associated with an AT&T Fiber Optics line (McBride and Sharp 1991) and highway (U.S. 27) construction (Janzen 1987; McBride et al. 2003; Schock 1987). While most of the sites excavated as part of these projects are destroyed due to highway construction, they are mentioned because the tremendous number of sites, features, and artifacts encountered on these projects illustrates the research potential and great state of preservation at Camp Nelson. Sites excavated

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in the highway project include the Owens' House/Post Office/Sutler Store (15Js97), the Headquarters/USCT encampment (15Js96), the Machine Shop (15Js113), and the Barracks (15Js130) (Figure 25) (McBride and Sharp 1991; McBride et al. 2003).

Archeological investigations on the Camp Nelson Civil War Heritage Park, which is owned and operated by Jessamine County Fiscal Court, and adjacent private properties began in 1997 and continues to the present. These projects have been funded by Federal Transportation Enhancement Funds, Kentucky Heritage Council grants, University of Kentucky archeological field schools, and a grant from the National Underground Railroad Network to Freedom Program of the National Park Service. These investigations have included archeological survey of most of the park's 500 acres, survey and excavation at the former "Home for Colored Refugees," and more intensive excavations at the White House, Fort Putnam, Fort Taylor, the Prison, the government shops, the quartermaster office and mess houses, and the pre-expulsion refugee encampment (see Figure 11).

### Archeological Survey

Archeological survey has consisted of both systematic shovel test pit excavation and metal detecting and has resulted in the discovery of numerous sites over the property and at the refugee Home. This survey was directed towards locating archeological sites for research, interpretive, and preservation goals. Within the northern half of the property, intact Civil War era deposits have been located at the sites of the White House officers' quarters, the prison, the Berkely Sutler store, Fort Putnam, Fort Taylor, Fort Jones, and encampments east of the prison, south of Fort Taylor, and east of Fort Jones. All of these sites are within the archeological site 15Js78 designation (Figure 11). Artifacts found during survey at these sites include cut nails, plain and decorated whiteware, stoneware, bottle glass, tin cup and plate and can fragments, window glass, buttons (including U.S. Army eagle buttons), bullets (including .54 and .58 cal. Minie, Williams Type III, .44 cal. Ballard, .52 cal. Spencer, and .32 cal. and .69 cal. round balls), Ballard and Spencer cartridges, various military accoutrements, and animal bone. Features found during this survey include the magazine at Fort Taylor, a cellar pit at the prison, and a refuse filled pit or ditch at the Berkely Sutler store. While the soils in the north half of the park indicate plowing, all of the sites, except the White House, had only Civil War and prehistoric occupations.

Survey at the southern half of the property has identified shops, the warehouses, the bakery, the quartermaster office and mess houses, a pre-expulsion refugee encampment (all placed under the 15Js164 designation) and the ordnance depot (15Js166) (Figure 11). The government shops site produced cut nails, horseshoe nails, horse shoes, wagon and harness hardware, slag, coal, and blacksmith tools associated with the blacksmith shop, shoeing shop, and wagon shop. The warehouses, bakery, and ordnance depot produced cut nails, window glass, large architectural hardware (bakery), and harness and wagon hardware (ordnance depot). Certainly one of the most significant sites discovered during survey was the minimally documented pre-expulsion refugee encampment. Here more domestic artifacts, such as ceramics, bottle glass, window glass, cut nails, stove fragments, clothing items, animal bone, and a half dime were recovered. Features found during survey of 15Js164 include an ash pit at the refugee encampment, an ash midden at the bakery, and undisturbed refuse middens at the refugee encampment, the blacksmith shop, and the quartermaster office/mess houses sites. These middens indicated that none of the above sites had ever been plowed. Both the bakery and the ordnance magazine also had above ground features, namely a limestone bake oven foundation at the bakery and an elongated "O" shaped earthen mound (the wooden center had decayed and collapsed) magazine remnant. Soils in shovel test pits at these sites indicated that the entire bakery site and the magazine mound have not been plowed. Away from the mound, the remainder of the ordnance site has been plowed, but only contained Civil War era artifacts. This part of the ordnance site had contained two ordnance warehouses, sheds, and an office in 1863-66.

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The final area surveyed was the former "Home for Colored Refugees" (15Js163) which is the present hamlet of Hall (Figure 11). Here shovel test pits were excavated in areas where historic maps showed evidence for the refugee cottages, huts, school, wards, and where no recent buildings remained. While some of this area had mixed nineteenth and twentieth century artifacts, a number of primarily Civil War era deposits were identified in the northeastern part of Hall. A large assemblage of Civil War era material, including numerous eagle buttons, was found at the school site and a pit feature was found in the area where the historic maps show the refugee cottages. Soils in the Hall community suggest that much of the higher flat area has been plowed, while the steeper slopes to the north (where the huts were once located) have not.

### Archeological Excavations

As noted above, more intensive archeological excavations have occurred in some areas within Camp Nelson. These include the areas near the White House, the prison, Fort Putnam, Fort Taylor, the government blacksmith shop, the quartermaster office/mess houses, a pre-expulsion refugee encampment, and at hut and cottage sites in the Home for Colored Refugees (see Figure 11). At all of these sites larger test units (1 x 1 m, 1 x 2 m, or 2 x 2 m) were excavated stratigraphically by hand and all excavated soil sifted through ¼ inch wire screens. All subsurface features discovered were mapped and photographed and some were either partially or wholly excavated, while others were preserved in place. In addition, three backhoe trenches were excavated at Fort Putnam to investigate stratigraphy and locate features. Each of these will be discussed separately below.

### White House (15Js78A)

Excavations at the White House, which was an antebellum residence and then wartime officers' quarters, were focused on areas to be impacted by restoration work. This generally consisted of the rear foundation and the kitchen wing. The most significant discovery was the building and chimney foundation of the former detached kitchen (Figure 26). Removal of the present kitchen wing's floor allowed us access to the ground below. The detached kitchen had been burned down during the Civil War, after which the army constructed the present attached two-story kitchen wing onto the rear of the main house. This sequence of events sealed the original kitchen from subsequent activities, resulting in the recovery of a large quantity of ceramics, bottle glass, and animal bone, some of it burned, and dating exclusively to the antebellum and Civil War periods. The discovery of this deposit, which is again under the present kitchen floor, was especially significant given the long occupation (ca 1855 to present) of this standing structure.

### Prison (15Js78B)

The excavations of the prison have been some of the most extensive within the park (Mabelitini 2007). Over 50 1 x 1 meter to 1 x 2 meter units have been excavated here, and numerous features and artifacts have been discovered. Some of the most significant features discovered have been two cellar pits associated with dining and housing facilities, the prison stockade trench, and stone piers from the prison jail building (Figures 27 and 28). The cellar pits contained a large quantity of animal bone (over 20000 pieces), as well as some ceramics, bottle and table glass, tin cans, a stoneware crock, clothing items, military accoutrements, a broken bayonet, and a miniature carved rubber bible (Figures 29 and 30). The animal bones suggest a diet of beef stew made from joint meat.

Unit and hand trench excavations have produced evidence of all four walls of the prison stockade. This evidence consists of a deep stockade trench with darker post molds. The archeological evidence suggests that the stockade was 120 feet x 180 feet, which is somewhat at variance with the 1866 Miller map of the camp, which shows it being nearly square. Locating the stockade and having the Miller map facilitated a search for the jail building, itself. This resulted in the discovery of one large stone pier from the east wall and one from the south wall of the jail. A subplow zone midden was also found near the eastern pier of the jail. The discovery of

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these piers will help determine the exact footprint and construction methods of this building as well as provide a central place to relate overall prison site spatial patterning.

Other features discovered at the prison include a drip line and drainage ditch associated with the guard house and a number of small pits and post molds. Artifact patterning is strong at this site and has helped in finding the location of the former positions of the guard house, dining hall, a shed, and the guards' barracks/mess house.

#### Fort Putnam (15Js78C)

Fort Putnam has undergone extensive excavation and has now been reconstructed based on the archeology and historic engineer's map. This fort had been leveled with a bulldozer in the 1960s and few surface indications remained. The excavations resulted in the discovery and partial archeological excavation of the fort's ditch, revetment line, and three gun platforms. The revetment line consisted of a line of 111 post molds, or rather board molds, since the revetment posts were actually boards placed every two feet at a 19 degree angle to support a wooden wall (Figure 31). This construction method was uncommon and seems to have been a hallmark of its engineer, Capt. Orlando Poe. The gun platform remains consisted of yellow clay placed directly on the original dark brown topsoil. While this fort has been reconstructed and the outer ditch completely excavated, the new revetment line was off-set so that most of the revetment post molds and the gun platform still remain.

#### Fort Taylor (15Js78D)

At this fort the 1863 engineer's map (Simpson 1864) and surface remains of the parapet and ditch were used to locate the powder magazine. A test unit was excavated to look for the magazine entranceway, confirm its location, and identify its construction methods. The magazine entranceway feature was located within the one unit and consisted of a straight-sided trench backfilled with mottled soil and some artifacts, including cut nails, bottle glass, tin vessel fragments, and a canteen stopper (Figures 32 and 33). The excavation indicated that the magazine feature remains in excellent condition.

#### Government Blacksmith Shop (15Js164A)

This shop was part of what the army designated the government shops. Besides the blacksmith shop, they included a shoeing shop, a wagon shop, a harness shop, a coal shed, and a barracks/messhouse. Archeologically, the blacksmith shop consisted of a rectangular basin with stone piers along the walls and corners (Figure 34). A sample of the basin fill has been excavated, producing a large quantity of architectural artifacts (cut nails), shop fuel by-products (slag and coal), wagon and harness hardware, tool fragments, and forge remnants (brick). The large quantity of wagon and harness hardware and the absence of horseshoe nails and horseshoes indicate the division of labor practiced between the blacksmith and shoeing shops. A forge-related pit and an anvil stump hole and a number of post molds were also discovered at this site. Soils at this site indicate that the site has not been plowed.

#### Quartermaster Office and Mess Houses (15Js164B)

This site includes the quartermaster office site and the site of five mess houses located downhill from it and above the quartermaster and commissary warehouses. The quartermaster office was documented to have been completely burned down in November, 1864. Following survey, test units were excavated at the office site, which produced burned cut nails, melted window and bottle glass, plus a variety of clothing and personal items. The ashy soil in this area and parallel placement of cut nails indicated that this area had been virtually undisturbed since its burning.

Test units in the area of the mess houses also suggest that this area has not been plowed and is in an excellent state of preservation. Civil War period artifacts generally lay 0 to 15 centimeters below the present surface

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(Figures 35 and 36). Both architectural and foodways-related artifacts were recovered here. These mess houses were likely used by civilian employees and perhaps by officers within the quartermaster and commissary departments.

#### *Pre-Expulsion Refugee Encampment (15Js164C)*

This site is one of the most significant archeological discoveries to date because of its association with early refugee families and their expulsion from Camp Nelson. The refugee site is not illustrated on any historic maps and was discovered purely through archeological survey. The discovery of glass beads and porcelain doll fragments pointed to the presence of women and children at this site and led to additional archival research and the discovery of a reference to a pre-expulsion refugee encampment near the warehouses, which fits this site (McBride and McBride 2006; McBride 2010) (Figure 37). The later recovery of a pierced silver half dime and a circular rubber button with an inscribed “x” strongly suggests the presence of African Americans as these have been found on numerous African American sites (Davidson 2004; Dixon 2005; Fennell 2007; Ferguson 1992; James 2012; Wilkie 1995, 1997; Young 1996) (Figure 38). The recovery of a large quantity and variety of buttons, many of which are broken, along with glass seed beads, and a sad iron may reflect intensive clothes washing (DeCunzo 2004; Jordan 2006; Mullens 1999). The presence of army eagle buttons, some from officers and a wide variety of men’s and women’s buttons suggests that these women were doing others’ laundry, for money or barter. The spatial patterning of architectural artifacts and features (pits, hearths, and two foundation remnants) indicate that at least seven or eight hut sites have been discovered (Figures 39 and 40). The concentration of buttons and seed beads at three of these huts suggests that laundry may have been centered there.

Excavation of this site has produced a large quantity of cut nails, window glass, ceramics, bottle glass, more personal items such as a carpet bag frame, glass beads, doll fragments, marbles, and animal bone, while the soils indicate it has never been plowed. The differential distribution of nails and window glass suggests some variability in the construction of these huts while the distribution of ceramics suggests unequal access to goods. The faunal material shows a different pattern relative to other sites at Camp Nelson, with a high percentage of wild game as well as pigs. The wild game suggests that these women acquired their food, at least partly, through trapping or hunting on their own, or trading. Documents indicate that the women were not receiving army rations, and the faunal remains tend to confirm this.

#### *Home for Colored Refugees (15Js163)*

The most recent excavations have been focused on the “Home for Colored Refugees” where the sites of two refugee huts and four cottages have been investigated (McBride and McBride 2010). The huts were located on the northern edge of the Home and were built by the refugees themselves after the government-built cottages and hospital tents had been filled. These archeological excavations resulted in the discovery of intact and unplowed Civil War era strata, two refuse-filled drainage ditches, and a possible collapsed chimney remnant. (Figure 41) Artifacts recovered from these sites include ceramics, bottle glass, architectural items, and animal bone. A smaller number of clothing and personal items were also found. The ceramics, utensils, and animal bones suggest that at least at these hut sites, food preparation and consumption occurred, in contrast to the cottages, where these activities were forbidden by the Army (Figure 42). The paucity of food preparation (stoneware and cast iron pots) and consumption artifacts (refined ceramics) and absence of faunal material supported the historic record that cottage residents were required to eat in the government mess house.

In terms of protein, the faunal remains from the huts suggest that a diet focused on beef, including beef tongue (evidenced by hyoid bones) and low quality shank cuts, was followed at the Home huts, in contrast to the markedly pork-based diet evidenced at the earlier pre-expulsion refugee encampment. This suggests that the later hut residents may have received food, perhaps rations, from the army. Another difference between the

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Home huts and the earlier refugee encampment was the lack of evidence of commercial washing or any other commercial activity at the Home.

All of the areas within the property that have been investigated archeologically have a remarkable level of stratigraphic integrity. Most have no post-Civil War occupation and some, including the pre-expulsion refugee encampment, the Berkely sutler store, Fort Jones, the Ordnance magazine, and the Home huts sites, have never been plowed and contain intact stratigraphy as well as sub-surface features, as noted above. Even those sites that have been plowed or have some post-Civil War occupation have all produced Civil War era sub-surface features and therefore Civil war era research questions can be addressed at the most informative level.

*The National Cemetery: one contributing site*

To the south of the main depot-encampment area is Camp Nelson National Cemetery. The cemetery was founded in 1863 as a post cemetery for the Camp Nelson facility; it was established as a National Cemetery in 1866 per War Department General Order. In 1863, the cemetery comprised about 3 acres and was laid out in a rectangular area running east-west; this was developed as four burial areas—Sections A, B, C, and D (Figure 43). The cemetery originally contained the graves of soldiers and employees who died at the camp between 1863 and 1866, reputedly 1,615 in all; Sections B and C in the eastern half of the cemetery contained over 600 graves of U.S. Colored Troops. The cemetery was expanded to the northwest in the years after the war to include three irregular-shaped burial sections (E, F and G, Figure 43). These sections received the remains of Civil War soldiers buried in private cemeteries or on battlefields throughout Kentucky including Perryville, London, Richmond, Frankfort and Covington. Because this expansion was always planned for the Camp Nelson National Cemetery and because these graves are Civil War dead, Sections E, F, and G (along with Sections A, B, C, and D) are included as the contributing part of the cemetery. The graves were initially marked with numbered wooden boards or stakes. After 1873 the known graves received permanent marble headstones with rounded tops engraved with the name, rank (above private), and regimental information of each soldier; unknown graves were marked with 6-inch square marble blocks. The Federal government took title to the land the cemetery occupied—recorded as 7.25 acres—along with entrance road from the turnpike in 1872; another one acre parcel was added to the west of the cemetery in 1874 and was used for the superintendent's lodge and outbuildings.

The national cemetery was expanded in 1975 and 1988 by 10 and 10.44 acres, respectively. The additional land was developed to accommodate 18 burial sections (H-Z) along with a new main entrance and a committal shelter for burial services (Figure 43). In 1998, the entire acreage of Camp Nelson National Cemetery—30.2 acres—was listed on the National Register of Historic Places with a period of significance spanning 1866 to 1948. Since that time, in October 2011, an "L" shaped parcel containing 21 acres was added on the north side of the cemetery and adjacent to the post 1975 sections. As of 2012, the cemetery occupies 51.82 acres; approximately 30 acres have been developed for cemetery use, while the additional acreage (21+) is awaiting development. For purposes of this nomination, only the area within the stone walls (Sections A-G) is considered a contributing site. None of the built environment, including the superintendent's lodge (1875/1929), three utility buildings (1899, 1929, and 1997), and one committal shelter (1997), or the post-1975 expansion of the cemetery (sections H-Z and 2011 21-acre section), were present during the period of significance and thus are not considered contributing resources for this nomination.

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**Noncontributing Resources****Site: Sections H-Z and 2011 21-acre section of Camp Nelson National Cemetery: 1 site****Buildings: Interpretive center, reconstructed barracks, one house, nine barns, sheds, garages, a brick office, 3 brick utility buildings, church, sheet metal shop: 17 noncontributing buildings****Structures: Fort Putnum (reconstructed) and Cemetery committal shelter: 2 noncontributing structures**

Present within the boundary of the proposed historic district are the Camp Nelson Civil War Heritage Park interpretive center, the reconstructed barracks, the reconstructed Fort Putnam, one house, one church, the National Cemetery office, and 12 outbuildings which postdate the period of significance (1863-66) and are therefore noncontributing (Figure 44). The majority of these are barns or small sheds, which do not seriously detract from the integrity of setting. The residence is an early 1900s frame farm house which, like a nearby barn and shed, does not detract significantly from the camp landscape (Figure 45). The park interpretive center and the reconstructed barracks are located close together to the east of the White House (Figures 46 and 47). Archeological survey was conducted before they were built and no archeological deposits were found. An early twentieth century buggy shed/garage is also located near the White House (Figure 48). The reconstructed Fort Putnam is near the site of the original fort, which had been bulldozed, but offset. A large scale excavation took place here which aided the reconstruction (Figure 49).

One twentieth-century tobacco barn is located well east of Fort Putnum (Figure 50). Two barns (tobacco and stock), a shed, and a small wooden office are located on the southern end of the main encampment area, but like those buildings above, do not seriously detract from the camp landscape (Figures 51, 52, and 53).

Within Camp Nelson National Cemetery, there are a number of noncontributing resources. However, these resources are in keeping with the cemetery function, and are not considered to affect the overall integrity of the Camp Nelson Historic and Archeological District. These resources include four noncontributing buildings, one noncontributing structure, and one noncontributing site (later interment areas) that date to after the period of significance. These include the Second-Empire-style superintendent's lodge constructed in 1875 and three utility buildings dating to 1899, 1929 and 1991; and the committal shelter (1997); and sections H-Z and the as yet undeveloped 21-acre parcel of the cemetery (Figure 54).

Noncontributing elements within the nominated area of the Home for Colored Refugees in the Hall community include one post-Civil War church and one post-Civil War sheet metal shop (Figure 55). The main part of the contemporary Hall community is south of the original Home and nominated area, and contains approximately 25 post Civil War houses or house trailers. Part of the original refugee camp that has several twentieth-century houses and outbuildings is excluded from the nominated boundaries, because of integrity issues.

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**8. STATEMENT OF SIGNIFICANCE**

Certifying official has considered the significance of this property in relation to other properties:

Nationally: X Statewide:    Locally:   

Applicable National

Register Criteria:           A X B    C    D X

Criteria Considerations

(Exceptions):               A    B    C    D X E    F    G

NHL Criteria:               1, 6

NHL Theme(s):             Shaping the Political Landscape  
                                  Creating Social Institutions and MovementsAreas of Significance:     Archeology-Historic Non-Aboriginal  
                                  Military  
                                  Ethnic Heritage-African American

Period(s) of Significance: 1863-1866

Significant Dates:         1864, 1865

Significant Person(s):

Cultural Affiliation:       European-American, African American

Architect/Builder:         Hall, Capt. Theron E., (QM),  
                                  Poe, Capt. Orlando, (Engineer)  
                                  Gilliss, John (Engineer)

Applicable Theme Study:  N/A

Historic Contexts:         VI. THE CIVIL WAR  
                                  B. War in the East  
                                  E. Political and Diplomatic Scene  
                                  XXXI. SOCIAL AND HUMANTIARIAN MOVEMENTS  
                                  D. Abolitionism

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**State Significance of Property, and Justify Criteria, Criteria Considerations, and Areas and Periods of Significance Noted Above.**Summary

Camp Nelson, Kentucky (1863-66) was one of the nation's largest recruitment and training centers for African American soldiers during the American Civil War, as well as a refugee camp for the wives and children of these African American soldiers, and a large fortified U. S. Army supply depot and hospital. Eligible under NHL Criteria 1 and 6, the above and below ground remains of the property can provide nationally significant information about the lives of military and civilian occupants, including African American soldiers and their families as well as compelling information on the struggle for freedom sought by African American men, women and children through the enlistment and emancipation of thousands of escaped enslaved people, due in part to their high integrity.

Camp Nelson's history began in the spring of 1863 when a location on the north side of the Kentucky River in Jessamine County, Kentucky was chosen for a major U.S. Army supply depot and hospital. This camp was initially established to supply and support Major General Ambrose Burnside's 1863 Knoxville Campaign and continued to operate until June 1866. During its existence, the camp contained hundreds of wooden buildings and eleven protective earthen fortifications, was garrisoned by 2,000 to 8,000 troops, and employed 1,000 to 2,000 civilians, including enslaved African Americans who provided impressed labor. The camp's most significant events occurred after May 1864, however, when it became one of the nation's largest recruitment and training centers for African American soldiers (known as United States Colored Troops, or U.S.C.T.) as well as a large refugee center for the wives and children of these U.S.C.T. Eight regiments of U.S.C.T. were organized at Camp Nelson, and five others organized elsewhere in Kentucky performed garrison duty at the camp. Thousands of enslaved men, women, and children were emancipated at Camp Nelson in 1864 and 1865. In 1866 the camp was officially closed, although the Freedmen's Bureau and the American Missionary Association operated the refugee home for a number of years afterward (McBride 2005; Sears 2002).

Camp Nelson qualifies for National Historic Landmark designation under NHL Criteria 1 and 6. Its history falls under Theme II of the NHL Thematic Framework, Creating Social Institutions and Movements for its abolitionist, emancipation, and Underground Railroad activities, and Theme IV, Shaping the Political Landscape, for its function as a military institution and center of political ideas and activities during the Civil War. Camp Nelson is significant under Criterion 1 as not only Kentucky's largest, and one of the nation's largest recruitment centers for African American troops, but also as the site where escaped African American enslaved people entered the camp in such large numbers (400) that it led the U.S. Army to change its African American enlistment policy. The original policy, which began in February 1864, only allowed for the enlistment of free blacks and enslaved people with their owners' permission. Confrontations at Camp Nelson forced a change in this policy and eventually allowed 23,703 mostly formerly enslaved African American men to join the army and gain freedom (Sears 2002:xxxviii; Thomas 1864a). With this change in policy, Kentucky enlisted the second greatest number of African American soldiers of any state in the United States.

Camp Nelson is also nationally significant for its African American refugee story. Here, from the spring to fall of 1864, hundreds of African American women and children escaped slavery to find refuge at Camp Nelson with the Union Army, only to be ejected in late November 1864. These women and children were primarily the wives and children of the enlisting U.S.C.T., but they were not emancipated along with the men, or through the Emancipation Proclamation, since the latter only freed enslaved people in the "states in rebellion," and Kentucky was not considered a "state of rebellion." Since these women and children were still legally enslaved, official U.S. Army policy, set by Maj. Gen. Lorenzo Thomas, was to not allow them to stay in Kentucky

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military encampments (Berlin et al. 1982). The November expulsion led to the death of 102 of the 400 refugees through disease and exposure, causing a national uproar that eventually led to a March 3, 1865 Congressional Act that emancipated all wives and children of the enlisted U.S.C.T. The “Home for Colored Refugees” was established within Camp Nelson after this reversal of U.S. Army and Governmental policy towards these women and children. The home eventually housed over 3000 women and children (Berlin et al. 1982; Lucas 1898, 1992; Sears 2002).

By the time Camp Nelson was officially closed in June 1866, the majority of government-built buildings had already been dismantled, and sold. The refugee cottages and a few other buildings at the “Home for Colored Refugees” were exceptions; these were turned over first to the Freedmen’s Bureau and then to the American Missionary Association. Remaining civilian buildings were returned to the original owners. Today, most of the Camp Nelson landscape remains in pasture, as it did before, during, and after the Civil War, and is in a remarkably good state of preservation, particularly when compared to other Civil War army depots and large U.S. Colored Troop recruitment/training centers, such as Camp William Penn, Pennsylvania, or camps in and around New Orleans, Louisiana, or Louisville, Kentucky. Most of the other centers were in or near urban centers and have long since been destroyed by urban growth. Preserved above ground structures or features at Camp Nelson include numerous earthen forts and infantry entrenchments, the “White House” officers’ quarters (Oliver Perry House), the main powder magazine, limestone bakery ovens, the prison cistern, a dry-laid stone spring reservoir, the quartermaster ice house, and numerous original road beds.

Camp Nelson also meets NHL eligibility under Criterion 6 because it has yielded and is likely to yield information of major scientific importance. The excellent archeological integrity of Camp Nelson has and can continue to provide nationally significant data on questions related to the economic conditions, social relationships, settlement patterns, material supply, and the daily life of its racially and socially diverse military and civilian populations, as well as data on questions related to military camp, fortification, and building design and layout. Perhaps most significantly, archeological resources here have the potential to add significantly to the archeological literature on African American history, Civil War service, race, identity and gender. In particular, archeological information about the lives of African American women and children at the camp has recently been recovered and studied and provides unrecorded information about the transformation of these families from enslaved to free and the survival and persistence of their families and culture in the face of incredible adversity (McBride 2010; McBride and McBride 2010; Sears 2002). Toward the end of the Civil War, Camp Nelson covered over 4,000 acres and housed nearly 10,000 people, including both black and white soldiers, and civilian men, women, and children.

Archeological surveys and test excavations have located numerous sites of varying functions at Camp Nelson, many with intact features, such as chimney and pier foundations, cellar pits, trash pits, prison stockade trenches, and fortification ditches, post molds, and magazines, all with artifactual assemblages associated with the camp’s occupation of 1863-1866. The areas within the NHL district that have been intensely investigated include the “White House” officer’s quarters, military encampments, earthen forts, the ordnance magazine, the prison, the bakery, government workshops, the quartermaster office, warehouses, a sutler store, a pre-ejection African American refugee encampment, and the “Home for Colored Refugees.” Further investigations of these sites, and others, can address nationally significant questions within historical archeology such as those related to camp life, and military operations and policies mentioned above, as well as questions related to how material culture, power relations, and racial identity interact. In the case of both the African American soldiers and refugees, Camp Nelson provides an opportunity to study the creation of new identities as free people, albeit in the context of a U.S. Army base.

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As noted above, Camp Nelson's historical and archeological significance falls under the NHL themes for Shaping the Political Landscape and Creating Social Institutions and Movements. It is included under Shaping the Political Landscape as an important U.S. Army military installation of the Civil War that functioned as a supply depot, hospital, and enlistment/training camp for African American soldiers and a refuge for other escaped enslaved people. As such it is a physical manifestation of the changing political landscape that the war and Federal government compelled upon the nation. As an African American refugee camp, Camp Nelson also became one of the Civil War Underground Railroad bastions of freedom. As the Rev. John G. Fee (missionary with the American Missionary Association, founder of Berea College) stated in 1868, "Camp Nelson was the rendezvous of soldiers, and birthplace of liberty to Kentucky. It is hallowed in the minds of thousands" (Fee 1877).

Because of it functioned as an emancipation center for enlisting African American soldiers, and later for their wives and children, Camp Nelson is also included under the theme of Creating Social Institutions and Movements, for its national significance within the abolitionist movement, not simply for the struggle of emancipation that took place at Camp Nelson, but also in regard to debates on the transition or process of change from slavery to freedom for recently emancipated African Americans and how much this should be assisted or guided by the government and benevolent agencies. As Dr. George Andrew of the U.S. Sanitary Commission stated in a letter to Commission officer Dr. Elisha Harris, "The Freedmen's Camp [at Camp Nelson] is one of the peculiar developments of our present transition stage...Mr. [John G.] F[ee] will gladly undertake any work tending to throw light upon the questions connected with the negro in this transition state from the condition of a slave to that of a soldier; - from that of a chattel to that of a man" (Andrew 1865).

Nationally known abolitionist minister Rev. John G. Fee of the American Missionary Association (AMA), and others, including Rev. Abisha Scofield of the AMA, Dr. Andrew, and Thomas Butler of the U.S. Sanitary Commission, and Chief Quartermaster Capt. Theron E. Hall, worked tirelessly to help ensure the success of the African American enlistment center and refuge home of Camp Nelson, and wrote extensively on this – sometimes for publication in newspapers, pamphlets, and newsletters (New York Herald 1864; Newberry 1871; Warfield 1865). Through the participation of these abolitionists and their writings, Camp Nelson was thrust into this national discussion.

In summary, the events associated with the enlistment and emancipation of the African American men and the treatment and emancipation of African American women and children within Camp Nelson, and the high level of preservation of its above ground landscape make the Camp Nelson Historic and Archeological District eligible under Criterion 1. Camp Nelson is also eligible under Criterion 6 because its large variety of military and civilian site types, and their high level of archeological integrity, allow for the examination of nationally significant military, social, and ethnic research questions.

### Criterion 1

#### Shaping the Political Landscape – Military Institutions

The founding of Camp Nelson was very much part of a larger 1863 strategy in the Civil War's Western Theatre to capture and hold eastern Tennessee. In the winter of that year, Maj. Gen. Ambrose Burnside had been sent west with his North Corps as commander of the newly formed Army of the Ohio, headquartered in Cincinnati. Burnside had explicit orders to launch a campaign against Knoxville, Tennessee and relieve mostly pro-Union eastern Tennessee from Confederate occupation. The capture of Knoxville would also deprive the Confederacy of the most direct railroad connection between Virginia and the Western Theatre. Burnside's movement toward

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Knoxville was to correspond with Maj. Gen. William Rosecrans, and his Army of the Cumberland's movement from Murfreesboro to Chattanooga.

Upon his arrival in Cincinnati, Burnside's forces actively pursued Confederate cavalry raiders and strengthened defenses around Kentucky's urban areas and strategic transportation points such as railroad bridges. Burnside also organized Union troops already within Kentucky into the Twenty-third Corps, which consisted of white troops from Kentucky, Tennessee, and various Midwestern states. Burnside also constructed a forward supply depot in Central Kentucky for the planned Knoxville Campaign. This depot was Camp Nelson, located on a major turnpike (now U.S. 27) crossing of the Kentucky River. Because of the lack of railroads between Central Kentucky and Knoxville, the men and supplies for this campaign traveled over roads, many very rough.

While Rosecrans began his movement toward Chattanooga in June, 1863, Burnside was delayed because he had to send most of his Ninth Corps to Vicksburg to assist Maj. Gen. U.S. Grant with his siege. Finally, in mid-August, Burnside, and three divisions of the Army of the Ohio, about 20,000 men, began their march toward Knoxville, which they entered unopposed on September 2-3, 1863. As part of this campaign, Burnside's forces also captured the Cumberland Gap on September 9, the last Confederate position in Kentucky. From November 15-29, 1863, Burnside and his troops delayed the northward movement of Confederate Lt. Gen. James Longstreet's 15,000 man force, who had moved up from Chattanooga, and finally successfully defended Knoxville at the Battle of Fort Sanders. The departure of Longstreet's force had significantly weakened the Confederate positions around Chattanooga, and certainly aided Maj. Gen. U.S. Grant's victories at Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge. After the Knoxville and Chattanooga battles, Eastern Tennessee remained in Union hands throughout the remainder of the war. Soldiers of the Army of the Ohio, whether stationed in Tennessee, Kentucky, northern Alabama, or northern Georgia, continued to be supplied from Camp Nelson.

Construction for Camp Nelson began in June 1863 with orders from Maj. Gen. Ambrose Burnside. Southern Jessamine County was chosen due to its location on a major turnpike and river. A bridge across the Kentucky River and natural defenses provided by the 400 foot limestone palisades on the Kentucky River and Hickman Creek were also factors. As Chief Quartermaster Capt. Theron E. Hall (1865) stated:

"It is naturally fortified on three sides by the river and creek, the cliffs of which average four hundred feet high and perpendicular. Across the narrow neck from the river [the only exposed part of camp] are fortifications of a most formidable character connected by rifle pits and protected by abatis. Every approach to the camp is commanded by mounted guns and so far as its natural defenses are concerned it is one of the most impregnable points in the country."

Once completed, Camp Nelson consisted of over 300 wooden buildings and tents, and nine forts spread over 4000 acres on both sides of the Lexington-Danville Turnpike, the present US 27 (Hall 1865a). There were 20 warehouses for rations, clothing and equipment, and facilities to stable and corral 14,000 horses and mules and their feed. Six large workshops were built where wagons, ambulances, and harnesses were made and repaired; horses shod and lumber sawed and finished. Two ordnance warehouses and a large powder magazine were also on site. Administrative buildings included the camp headquarters, quartermaster and commissary offices, and the provost marshal's office. Housing and support facilities included two large barracks, tents, mess halls and a large bakery that produced 10,000 bread rations a day. A waterworks consisting of a steam driven pump on the river and a 500,000-gallon reservoir were constructed. In addition to the government buildings, there were also private businesses including saloons, hotels and stores (Hall 1865a, Restieaux 1865).

Another important function of Camp Nelson was as a major hospital. This facility consisted of the ten-ward, 700-bed Nelson General Hospital, a measles hospital, a small pox hospital, the refugee camp hospital, and the

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prison hospital. The camp also employed between 1,000 and 2,000 civilian workers. This number included many impressed enslaved people, carpenters, blacksmiths, teamsters, cooks, and laborers, all of whom were necessary to operate and maintain the facilities, build roads, and haul supplies.

Camp Nelson normally garrisoned 2,000 to 8,000 soldiers and provided supplies for camps in Central and Eastern Kentucky and East Tennessee (National Archives 1863-65). The first regiments recruited here were made up of men from Eastern Kentucky and East Tennessee. Various regiments from Ohio, Indiana and Illinois were garrisoned at the camp.

Camp Nelson was also the staging ground and supply depot for three important campaigns: the August-November 1863 Knoxville campaign led by Maj. Gen. Ambrose E. Burnside; the October 1864 Southwestern Virginia campaign led by Maj. Gen. Stephen G. Burbridge; and Burbridge's wing of Maj. Gen. Stoneman's December 1864 Southwestern Virginia Campaign. The camp also provided thousands of horses and mules for the Spring-Summer 1864 Atlanta Campaign led by Maj. Gen. William T. Sherman.

### Shaping the Political Landscape – Political Ideas and Activities

When the Civil War began, President Lincoln and the Federal government resisted the enrollment of African Americans into the military despite intensive pressure from abolitionists such as Frederick Douglass. The government was concerned about antagonizing the pro-Union slave states such as Kentucky. This situation began to change in summer and fall 1862 with the passage of the Second Confiscation Act and the Militia Act, which allowed for the employment or even enlistment of African Americans into the military, and the issuance of the preliminary Emancipation Proclamation (Berlin et al. 1982:7-9).

State African American regiments were soon (August-October 1862) organized in Union-held coastal South Carolina and Louisiana, with Secretary of War Stanton's approval and in Kansas without Federal or state approval (Berlin et al. 1982:39-44). The organization of African American regiments accelerated after early 1863 with the passage of the Emancipation Proclamation, which declared that "Such persons of suitable condition, will be received into the armed service of the United States..." (Lincoln 1863). . In May 1863 the Bureau of Colored Troops was created to oversee and encourage the organization of Federal African American regiments, known as United States Colored Troops (U.S.C.T.).

The organization of Federal African American regiments began following the creation of the Bureau of Colored Troops in 1863 in all Union and Union-held states except one, Kentucky. Kentucky politicians and powerful loyal slave owners lobbied Washington successfully to exempt their state (Berlin et al. 1982:191). Since Kentucky, like the other so called "border states," as well as some Union occupied Southern states, was not affected by the Emancipation Proclamation, the vast majority of Kentucky's African American men were still enslaved. Federal authorities continued to fear Kentucky's possible secession from the Union and initially bowed to the state's wishes, only allowing African Americans to be drafted by the government as laborers to construct Federal supply routes (Berlin et al. 1982:191; Sears 2002: xxxvii, note 101). The government's need for soldiers continued to grow, however, and by February 1864 an amendment to the Federal Enrollment Act was passed, allowing for the drafting of both free blacks and enslaved men nationwide (Berlin et al. 1982:192; Sears 2002:xxxvii, note 105). Upon enlistment, men who had been enslaved were emancipated. This caused a crisis among the white population in Kentucky, and the Federal government eventually agreed that, while it would continue to place African Americans on their enrollment lists, it would not draft any as long as Kentucky's whites filled their required quotas (Berlin et al. 1982:193). By spring 1864 pressure mounted from the Federal government to begin enlisting African Americans in Kentucky, so Maj. Gen. Stephen G. Burbridge, Commander of the District of Kentucky, issued General Order 34. This order was still a compromise and

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limited enlistment to free blacks and enslaved men with the approval of their owners (Berlin et al 1982; Sears 2002: xxxvii, notes 108-109). This order also stipulated that the African American enlistees were to be immediately sent out of the state, so as not to disrupt the sensibilities of the white population or encourage other enslaved people to leave their farms (Berlin et al. 1982:193; Burbridge 1864).

Throughout Kentucky in the early spring of 1864, except for far western Kentucky, which was administered from Tennessee, enslaved men who entered army camps to enlist were turned away. As former slave Peter Bruner (1918) stated, "When I had run off before and wanted to go in the army and fight they said that they did not want niggers, that this was a white man's war."

This army enlistment policy continued in Kentucky until late May 1864, when hundreds of escaped enslaved men entered Camp Nelson to enlist. Thomas Butler (1864) of the U.S. Sanitary Commission described the initial arrival of potential enlistees, as follows.

"On the 23rd of May 1864, about two hundred and fifty able-bodied and fine looking men assembled in Boyle County, Ky., at the office of the Deputy Provost Marshal, all thirsting for freedom. When this body of colored recruits started from Danville for Camp Nelson, some of the citizens and students of that educational and moral center assailed them with stones and the contents of revolvers. On their arrival at Camp Nelson, they created great excitement, for they were the first body of colored recruits that had yet come forward. Reporting to Colonel A. H. Clarke, Commandant of the Post, he refused to accept them, stating that he had no authority for so doing.

There was, at this early stage of the question, great indecision and incompetency shown by those directed to manage the enlistment of the colored men...From May 23, 1864, recruits arrived every day from the counties lying about Camp Nelson, so that early in June I had over fifteen hundred colored men ready for enlistment." (Sears 2002:58).

Within a few days the number of potential recruits had reached 400 (Butler 1864 cited from Sears 2002:58). A frustrated Col. Andrew H. Clark, Commander of Camp Nelson, wrote on May 27 that, "If it is the object of the Government to Encourage the Enlistment of Negroes four hundred (400) could have been Enlisted at this Post in the last three days....Unless the Recruiting business is better managed it will cost the Government a great deal of money and very few Negroes will be Recruited." (Clark, May 27, 1864).

After a week the number of African American men in camp had reached 1,500 (Butler 1864), and these numbers were forcing the army to make a decision. The U.S. Army finally relented in early June and allowed Col. Clark to begin enlisting and emancipating these men. Finally, on June 13, the army officially changed its policy in Kentucky and removed the earlier restrictions (Berlin et al 1982). Later in the summer eight U.S. Colored Troop enlistment centers, including Camp Nelson, Louisville, Louisa, Covington, Henderson, Owensboro, Bowling Green, and Paducah, were created in Kentucky (Berlin et al. 1982:194). So, because of the action of these escaped enslaved people entering Camp Nelson on their own and in great peril, all able bodied adult African American men, whether free or slave, would be enlisted. By August 1864, 2,000 African American men had enlisted and been emancipated at Camp Nelson and by the end of 1865, 5,700 had joined the army at this camp alone (Lucas 1989: 441-442). The escaping families risked capture, violence, and even death on their journey.

William Jones (cited in Berlin et al. 1982) of the 124th U.S. Colored Infantry described his escape and capture:

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“Desiring to enlist and thus free my wife and serve the Government during the balance of my days I ran away from my master in the company of my wife on Saturday March 11 between nine and ten Oclock [*sic*] at night...On our way to Camp Nelson we arrived at Lexington about Three Oclock [*sic*] next morning Sunday march 12th 1865 where we were accosted by the Capt of the night watch James Cannon, who asked us where we were going. I told him I was going to see my daughter. He said I was a damned liar, that I was going to Camp Nelson. I told him I was going to Camp Nelson whereupon he arrested us, took us to the Watch House where he searched us and took our money.”

The meaning of this enlistment and emancipation is perhaps best conveyed by the U.S.C.T. themselves. Corporal George Thomas of Camp Nelson’s 12th U.S. Colored Heavy Artillery articulated his thoughts on the meaning of freedom when he said, “I enlisted in the 12th U.S. Colored Artillery in the Fall of 1864, and my only sorrow is that I did not enlist sooner... and behold, the time has come, and I see, as it were a nation born in a day- men and women coming forth from slavery’s dark dungeons to the noonday sunshine of the greatest of God’s gifts- Liberty.” (cited in Redkey 1992: 189).

Similarly, an unnamed U.S.C.T. Sergeant perhaps stated his feelings best, noting “See how much better we are now than we was four years ago. It used to be five hundred miles to get to Canada from Lexington, but now it is only eighteen miles! Camp Nelson is now our Canada” (Simpson 1865).

This act at Camp Nelson, and the change in army policy, allowed for the eventual enlistment of 23,703 African American soldiers from Kentucky, the second most (after Louisiana) of any state. These men participated in numerous battles and made significant contributions to the Union war effort.

Eight regiments of U.S.C.T. were organized at Camp Nelson, making it the second or third largest African American recruitment center in the country after Camp William Penn near Philadelphia and perhaps New Orleans, Louisiana (the exact number of camps in New Orleans is unknown). The Camp Nelson regiments were the 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> U.S. Colored Cavalry, the 12<sup>th</sup> and 13<sup>th</sup> U.S. Colored Heavy Artillery, and the 114<sup>th</sup>, 116<sup>th</sup>, 119<sup>th</sup>, and 124<sup>th</sup> U.S. Colored Infantry. Five other U.S.C.T. regiments, the 72<sup>nd</sup>, 117<sup>th</sup>, 120<sup>th</sup>, 121<sup>st</sup>, and 123<sup>rd</sup>, were organized elsewhere in Kentucky, but were also stationed at Camp Nelson for a time. Of all the large U.S.C.T. recruitment centers, which include Camp William Penn (11 regiments), New Orleans (as many as 10-15 regiments), Camp Nelson (8 regiments) and Louisville (7 regiments), only Camp Nelson is in a rural area and in an excellent state of above and below ground preservation. Most of the smaller recruitment centers were also in or near urban areas and are also destroyed.

Five of the Camp Nelson original regiments, or parts of them, including the 119<sup>th</sup> and 124 U.S.C.I., some companies of the 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> U.S.C.C., and a battalion of the 12<sup>th</sup> U.S.C.H.A.A., spent much time doing garrison duty at Camp Nelson. A battalion of the 123<sup>rd</sup> also spent most of its existence at Camp Nelson.

Camp Nelson organized U.S.C.T. regiments saw action in the major battles of Saltville (1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup>), Marion, Petersburg, and Richmond, Virginia as well as numerous skirmishes in Kentucky. The first battle of Saltville, Virginia, in October 1864, was the first major action by Camp Nelson’s U.S.C.T. Here, like other African American soldiers before them, they had to prove to white soldiers and the white public that they would fight (Brisbin 1864; Mays 1995). As Col. James S. Brisbin, later commander of the 5<sup>th</sup> U.S. Colored Cavalry stated,

“On the march the colored soldiers, as well as their white officers, were made the subject of much ridicule and much insulting remarks by the white troops...These insults, as well as the jeers and taunts that they would not fight, were borne by the colored troops patiently...Of this

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fight [first Saltville] I can only say that the men could not have behaved more bravely. I have seen white troops fight in 27 battles and I never saw any fight better...On the return of the forces, those who had scoffed at the colored troops on the march out were silent.” (Brisbin 1864).

The first battle of Saltville was a defeat for the U.S. forces and was the scene of a massacre event on the day following the battle. About 45 wounded and captured men from the 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> U.S. Colored Cavalry regiments were murdered after the Union defeat by Confederate Tennessee soldiers (Davis 1971; Mays 1995). The second Battle of Saltville and the battles of Marion, Petersburg, and Richmond were Union victories. All of these battles added to the acceptance by whites that African Americans made good soldiers and fought as well as white soldiers. The broad significance and ramifications of enslaved men becoming good soldiers was communicated by Confederate General, and former U.S. Secretary of the Treasury, Howell Cobb:

“You cannot make soldiers out of slaves or slaves of soldiers. The day you make soldiers of them is the beginning of the end of the revolution. If slaves will make good soldiers, then our whole theory of slavery is wrong” (Keegan 2009:292).

The two Camp Nelson regiments stationed at Petersburg and Richmond, Virginia were the 114<sup>th</sup> and 116<sup>th</sup> U.S.C.I. These regiments became part of the old African American 25<sup>th</sup> Corps of the Army of the James. The 116<sup>th</sup> was one of the first regiments to enter Petersburg and was involved in the pursuit of Gen. Robert E. Lee’s Army of Northern Virginia to Appomattox Court House, and were present during the surrender. As Sergeant Major Thomas Boswell of the 116<sup>th</sup> U.S.C. Infantry stated, “We are Kentucky boys, and there is no regiment in the field that ever fought better (Redkey 1992:203). The 25<sup>th</sup> Corps was later sent to the Rio Grande River of Texas and its men were not mustered out until 1867.

Following the end of the Civil War, African American soldiers continued to be enlisted at Camp Nelson and other posts in Kentucky. This was done primarily to emancipate these men and their families, who were freed after the March 3, 1865 Congressional Act (see below) and to continue the destruction of slavery in Kentucky. Kentucky was not affected by the Emancipation Proclamation. It remained a state where slavery was not outlawed until the passage of the 13<sup>th</sup> Amendment in December 1865.

The enlistment and emancipation of African American men at Camp Nelson, which began in earnest only after they entered camp in large numbers during May 1864, began the destruction of slavery in Kentucky. These men performed garrison duty throughout Kentucky and in other parts of the south and were involved in a number of significant battles in southwestern and eastern Virginia that helped reinforce and prove that these formerly enslaved men made good soldiers. The destruction of slavery began in Kentucky with the enlistment of the U.S.C.T., and accelerated with the March 3, 1865 Congressional Act which freed their wives and children. This is also a Camp Nelson story and will be discussed in the next section.

### Creating Social Institutions and Movements – Reform Movements

The emancipation story of Camp Nelson is not restricted to African American soldiers. When these men escaped slavery to join the army, they were often accompanied by their wives and children, who were also escaping slavery. In addition, African American woman and children entered the camp separately from their husbands. Sometimes this was following threats and beatings by their owners (Sears 2002:186-190). Although the men were emancipated upon enlistment, their wives and children were not. The women and children nevertheless entered camp with the intent of finally escaping slavery, gaining control of their labor, and creating a new life. The journey towards this goal, although ultimately successful for most, had many barriers

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and even, for some, death. The women and children did have allies, however, particularly abolitionist reformers such as Rev. John G. Fee and Rev. Abisha Scofield of the American Missionary Association, members of the U.S. Sanitary Commission, abolitionist members of Congress, and even some U.S. Army officers, particularly Theron E. Hall, Chief Quartermaster of Camp Nelson and later Superintendent of Camp Nelson's Home for colored Refugees. The treatment and conditions of these women and children, who were referred to as refugees at the time, and their ultimate emancipation and community establishment were hotly debated by these reformers and army and political policy makers. Much of this debate is found in preserved correspondence and some even made it into print and contributed to the national debate on emancipation and the post-emancipation conditions, treatment, potential, and civil right of these newly freed people (New York Herald 1864; Newberry 1871; Sears 2002; Warfield 1865).

Although the Federal government, and therefore U.S. Army, had early in the war established policies of accepting escaped enslaved people (legally classified as "contraband of war") within army bases located in the seceding states, these policies did not extend into Kentucky or other loyal slave states, since their slaveholders were theoretically loyal and their enslaved people and other property were not "contraband of war". Even as late as June 1864 the army still did not have a clear policy for escaped African American refugee women and children and issued contradictory orders regarding whether they would be allowed to stay in Camp Nelson. For instance, on May 23, camp commander Col. Andrew Clark ordered "the negro [sic] women here without authority will be arrested and sent beyond the lines, and if they return, the lash awaits them" (Sears 2002:64). But a June 17 order states "that a body of women are quartered near the commissary warehouses...[and] You are directed to place the whole kit beyond the lines for five (5) miles with the parting injunction to not return on pain of being imprisoned" (Clark 1864). This indicates that the army let some women and children establish an encampment at Camp Nelson. Did the refugees have the "authority" and how did they get it? Interestingly, on June 20, District of Kentucky commander Brig. Gen. Stephen G. Burbridge ordered Capt. Theron E. Hall, Chief Quartermaster, to "Establish a contraband camp at Camp Nelson. The Women and children cannot be left to starve" (Dickson 1864). Since no other orders or letters mention this "contraband camp," it is unlikely that this order was ever followed. In fact, most orders illustrate that the army did not want the women and children in camp. Col. Clark was caught in the paradox of Civil War Kentucky; a slave state in a war to end slavery.

Because Camp Nelson was in a slave state and orders on how to deal with the enslaved women and children entering camp were ambiguous, the army often let slave owners into camp to search for their property. One account published in the *National Anti-Slavery Standard* on June 18, 1864 demonstrates the danger the escaped enslaved people faced: "The owner of the girl, with a guard, went to the [Convalescent] Camp and seized the girl, and amid her cries and frantic appeal for protection were taking her away. She fell upon her knees and begged the guards to shoot her on the spot, saying her master would whip her to death if he got her away" (quoted in Sears 2002:63-64). The patients at the Convalescent Camp, where the girl was employed as a cook, rescued her from the guard and hid her. (Sears 2002:64).

By early July 1864 orders originating with Adjutant General Lorenzo Thomas, who was in charge of African American recruitment in the Mississippi Valley, and carried out by district commander Brig. Gen. Speed Fry, clarified that only women "in Government employ" were allowed to stay in camp (Hanaford 1864b). All others were ordered or escorted back "home" to slavery, where according to Gen. Thomas, "Under the state law their respective masters are bound to take care of them" (Thomas 1864). Gen. Thomas' statement shows a naïve view of slavery, to say the least. Some officers had difficulty following these ejection orders as the following letter from Col. Clark's adjutant, Lt. George Hanaford to Gen. Burbridge's adjutant illustrates:

"General Fry...instructed me to have all of the colored women and children brot here, to give passes to all that desired to return home. There is not one among two hundred (200) that

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want to go...They are laboring under the impression that they will be killed by their masters if they return and cannot be assured to the contrary. Please reply giving definite instructions.” (Hanaford 1864c).

Unfortunately, Brig. Gen. Burbridge supported the orders from Fry and Thomas. But the women and children just kept returning to Camp Nelson, and the ejection orders had to be reissued at least seven times between July and November 1864, when a more dramatic ejection occurred. The Rev. John G. Fee, a leading abolitionist working with the refugees, stated on September 22 that "For months the officials have tried the experiment of sending the women and children out of camp. Like flies they soon come back..." (Fee 1864). Exactly how the women and children were able to remain or return to camp despite these orders is unclear, but there is mention of the women bribing guards (Fry 1864a). It is also probable that sympathetic officers hid the women and children and/or used the "government employ" exception to keep the women in camp. Only two legitimate employment opportunities are mentioned in the military documents: washerwomen and cooks (Fry 1864b; Scofield 1864). Given that between 200 and 400 women and children are documented to have been in Camp Nelson at this time, it is doubtful that more than a small percentage of the women were "officially" employed by the government and in fact, no African American women are listed in the quartermaster employee rolls at all. But the women may have been operating more independently. A large number may have been continually removed from camp and just kept returning, as Rev. Fee stated.

During the Spring and Fall of 1864 the women and children lived in refugee encampments scattered over the camp. One such encampment is mentioned as being near the commissary warehouses (Hanaford 1864a, 1864b). This encampment has been archeologically located and partially excavated (McBride 2010). The types of housing utilized by the refugees and their most common means of employment are mentioned by the Rev. Abisha Scofield (1864) as washing and cooking. Scofield also mentions their living situations saying, "The families of the colored soldiers who were in camp lived in cabins and huts erected by the colored soldiers or at the expense of the women. During my labors among them I have witnessed about fifty of these huts and cabins erected, and the material of which they were constructed was unserviceable to the Government" (Scofield 1864: 8).

Private John Higgins of the 124<sup>th</sup> U.S. Colored Infantry also mentions refugee housing when he notes: "In company with another man I built a small hut where I resided with my family... While my family were in Camp they never eat a mouthfull off the Government. My wife earned money by washing" (Higgins 1864:8) Higgins' statement is significant in that it mentions that he lived with his family in the hut. This would have been clearly against army regulations. The presence of military accoutrements and ammunition at the refugee encampment archeology site supports the presence of some soldiers, possibly the husbands. Like Scofield, Higgins also mentions washing clothes as an occupation for the women.

Unfortunately, the housing and economic situation the refugees had established was not to last. On November 22-25, 1864, District Commander Brig. Gen. Speed Fry, (a native Kentuckian and slave owner himself) succumbed to pressure from slave owners and expelled all of the enslaved women and children who had made a home at the camp. Fry utilized armed white troops to forcibly load the women and children onto wagons and escort them out of camp.

One of the most poignant descriptions of the ejection is from Private Joseph Miller of the 124th U.S. Colored Infantry. According to Pvt. Miller:

“About eight O’clock Wednesday morning November 25” a mounted guard came to my tent and ordered my wife and children out of Camp. The morning was bitter cold. It was freezing

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hard. I was certain that it would Kill my sick child to take him out in the cold. I told the man in charge of the guard that it would be the death of my boy. I told him that my wife and children had no place to go and I told him that I was a Soldier of the United States. He told me that it did not make any difference. He had orders to take all out of Camp. He told my wife and family that if they did not get up into the wagon which he had he would shoot the last one of them. On being thus threatened my wife and children went into the wagon. My wife carried her sick child in her arms. When they left the tent the wind was blowing hard and cold and having had to leave much of our clothing when we left our master, my wife with her little ones was poorly clad. I followed them as far as the lines. I had no Knowledge where they were taking them. At night I went in search of my family. I found them at Nicholasville about six miles from Camp. They were in an old meeting house belonging to the colored people. The building was very cold having only one fire. My wife and children could not get near the fire, because of the number of colored people huddled together by the soldiers. I found my wife and children shivering with cold and famished with hunger. They had not received a morsel of food during the whole day. My boy was dead. He died directly after getting down from the wagon.....” (Sears 2002:135-136).

Following the ejection, white soldiers under orders destroyed and burned the refugee cabins (Scofield 1864; Vetter 1864). There is strong archeological evidence of this destruction and burning at the refugee encampment in the form of heavy ash deposits with burned artifacts, including thousands of nails, window glass, container glass and ceramics (McBride and McBride 2010).

While this ejection was a tragedy for the women and children, it was not the end of the struggle for emancipation and to make a home within Camp Nelson. The harshness of this action, which caused the death of 102 refugees from exposure and disease, created an uproar that the women's allies used to reach the ear of high ranking Washington officials and the northern public. For instance, an article written by Theron Hall and printed in the *New York Tribune* on November 28 and reprinted in William Lloyd Garrison's *The Liberator* on December 9 described the ejection and its ramifications as follows (Sears 2002:138-140):

Cruel Treatment of the Wives and Children of U.S. Colored Soldiers  
(Correspondent of the *N.Y. Tribune*)  
Camp Nelson, Ky., Nov. 28, 1864

“This camp has recently been the scene of a system of deliberate cruelty, which in ferocity of design and brutality of execution, suggests painful misgiving as to whether we, indeed, live in an enlightened age and a Christian land. At this moment over *four hundred* helpless human beings—frail women and delicate children—having been driven from their homes by *United States soldiers*, are now lying in barns and mule sheds, wandering through woods, languishing on the highway, and literally starving, for no other crime than their husbands and fathers having thrown aside the manacles of slavery to shoulder Union muskets. These deluded creatures innocently supposed that freedom was better than bondage, and were presumptuous enough to believe that the plighted protection of the Government would be preserved inviolate.”

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The Home for Colored Refugees

The natural uproar over the expulsion of the refugees eventually led to a reversal in the army's policy toward the refugees and the construction of the "Home for colored Refugees" (hereafter Home) at Camp Nelson. Soon after the expulsion of the Camp Nelson refugees occurred, a bill to emancipate the wives and children of the U.S. Colored Troops was created. This bill was introduced into the Senate by Sen. Henry Wilson of Massachusetts on December 13, 1864. Wilson had introduced similar legislation before, unsuccessfully, but thought that after the emotional reaction to the Camp Nelson expulsion, the bill had a better chance of passage (Taylor 2009:17). Joseph Miller's affidavit of the experience of his family during the expulsion was even entered into the Congressional Record by Wilson's colleague Sen. Benjamin Wade of Ohio, who also argued that U.S.C.T. enlistment would not rebound until after the wives and children were freed (Congressional Globe 38<sup>th</sup> Congress, 2<sup>nd</sup> Session, Jan. 9, 1865, p.161; Taylor 2009:18). On the same day this affidavit was introduced, the bill easily passed the Senate, and two weeks later, with little debate, passed the House (Senate Journal 38<sup>th</sup> Congress, 2<sup>nd</sup> Session, January 9, 1865, pp57-58; House Journal 38<sup>th</sup> Congress, 2<sup>nd</sup> Session, February 22, 1865, pp309-311; Taylor 2009:19). On March 3, 1865 the wives and children of the U.S.C.T. were "forever free."

This act had an immediate effect on enlistment and refugee camps, including Camp Nelson. The number of refugees increased as did the number of U.S.C.T. recruits, who now had an even greater incentive for enlisting. As Corporal George Thomas of the 12<sup>th</sup> US Colored Heavy Artillery stated, "Our wives are now cared for by our government, homes for them being already prepared at Camp Nelson, and we felt like men, and are determined to be men, and do our duty to our government..."(cited in Redkey 1992:189-190).

Of course there was much resistance by slave owners to the March 3<sup>rd</sup> Act, so women and children often still needed to escape. One example of this was reported by Frances Johnson (Berlin et al. 1982:694-5),

"I am the wife of Nathan Johnson a soldier in Company F. 116th U.S. C. Infty. I have three children and with them I belonged to Matthias Outon Fayette County Ky.....After such treatment [whippings] I determined to leave my master ....At day break next morning I started for Lexington. My youngest child was in my arms the other walked by my side. When on the Pike about a mile from home I was accosted by Theophilus Bracey my master's son-in-law who told me that if I did not go back with him he would shoot me. ...I returned with him to his (Bracys) house carrying my children as before..... I knew Bracey would not give me my children or allow me to go away myself so at daybreak on the following morning Sunday March 12 I secretly left Bracey's, took to the woods in order to elude pursuit, reached Lexington and subsequently arrived at Camp Nelson. My children are still held by Bracey. I am anxious to have them but I am afraid to go near them knowing that Bracey would not let me have them and fearing lest he would carry out his threat to shoot me."

The army also helped the emancipation of the families by making lists of the wives and children and sometimes escorting them to Camp Nelson or other camps (National Archives, RG 94: 119<sup>th</sup>, 123rd U.S. Colored Inf. Regimental Papers).

By early December, 1864, the refugees were allowed back in camp and began to be resettled in the "Home." Captain Theron E. Hall, who had fought Brig. Gen. Fry over the expulsion, resigned as Chief Quartermaster and became Superintendent of the Home. To assist Capt. Hall, administrators and teachers from the American Missionary Association, including Rev. John G. Fee, Rev. Abisha Scofield, Lester Williams, and Ann Williams, took positions at the Home, or helped in its operation.

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With the creation and operation of the Home, different ideas and philosophies began to surface and create tension between Capt. Theron Hall, who now represented the army and government, and AMA missionaries, particularly Rev. John Fee, and U.S. Sanitary Commission personnel. This debate really centered on views regarding the intelligence and capabilities of recently emancipated African Americans, and particularly how independent versus dependent, they should or needed to be. This debate over how best to assist the former enslaved people in this transition was a national one and the program and community established at the Home played a part in this national debate.

Although Capt. Hall was a passionate abolitionist and supporter of the refugees, he had a very paternalistic and regimented, or military, solution for the Home. Initially, Capt. Hall viewed the home as consisting of barracks, a school, a mess hall, and administrative buildings (Sears 2002). Hall felt that the refugees, whom he referred to as “inmates,” needed to be closely supervised, educated, and cared for. His view is made clear when he stated,

“...most of these people are field hands and know comparatively nothing of cooking and sewing...It is not sufficient that these people be taught to read. They must be taught how to care for themselves” (Hall 1865b).

Rev. Fee viewed the refugees as much more skilled, independent and self-sufficient and opposed Hall’s plan and lobbied for the construction of family-sized cottages for the refugees. He wanted the refugees to live as families rather than in dormitory style. Fee’s emphasis on independence and familial organization is evident in his statement,

“Let the government give title and protection and then hands off. The habits of these people must be considered. They have been accustomed to the fireplace and cabin [and]...basic foodstuffs [should] be distributed to each family to cook themselves” (Fee 1865).

This debate reached high level officials in the AMA, U.S. Sanitary Commission, and the army. Eventually a compromise was reached, and 97 duplex cottages were built, as well as four barracks for single women and the sick. Hall still insisted on the large mess hall to feed the refugees and insisted that the cottages not have fireplaces or back doors. He was insistent on neatness and cleanliness. The cottages were to have limestone floors so that they could be more easily cleaned. Some cottages had stoves, but these were for heating rather than cooking.

The cottages were laid out in four long rows perpendicular to the barracks, mess hall, and school. Each cottage was 32 x 16 feet, with two 16 x 16 ft rooms, one per family. Each room often had 8 to 12 people living in it. The husbands of the refugee women were supposed to cover the cost of the cottages.

Sergeant Elijah P. Marrs of the 12<sup>th</sup> U.S. Colored Heavy Artillery presented a rather idyllic view of the Home, when he stated, “Down through the streets of the city of Refuge we went, the scene presented being a beautiful one. Every door was opened, and in each of them stood someone with a torch in hand to light us our way. There was no room for us in the neat little cottages, but abundant shelter had been provided in tents for my troop of females, two families being assigned to each tent. It was late and I was compelled to leave them in the hands of the Lord and the under the care of the commanding officer” (Marrs 1885:64).

By middle 1865 over 3,000 women and children lived in the Home, which finally included the school, the mess hall, a hospital, four dormitories, 97 duplex cottages, 50 hospital tents, a superintendent’s office and apartment, teachers apartments, and eventually about 60 huts/cabins. The tents and huts/cabins were brought in or

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constructed because the 97 cottages could not hold all of the refugees who eventually entered Camp Nelson. The tents were brought in by the army and placed beside the cottages while the huts/cabins were located downhill from the cottages and constructed by the refugees or their husbands/fathers. While this Home was a place of sanctuary, and after the March 3, 1865 Congressional Act, a place of freedom for the refugees, it was never a healthy place. Illness and death from disease was a serious problem at the Home.

In a July, 1865 inspection of the Home, Dr. George Andrew of the U.S. Sanitary Commission described the much higher mortality rate of the camp's duplex cottages (the "camp") compared to the homemade "huts" down hill:

"I have no hesitation in ascribing the increased mortality in the "camp" [cottages] over that among the "huts" to the change of the usual habits of living in the one case, and their preservation in all particulars in the other. In the one case the community system has supplanted that of the family; in the other the family arrangement has been preserved as perfectly as consists with the military service. – To be more precise I believe the causes of the increased sickness and mortality is owing to; 1. The construction of their houses differing so materially from that of those from which they have been accustomed.....And

2. The change in the elements of their food and the mode of its preparation. In the one case they are furnished with wheaten bread..., together with such other portions of the soldiers' ration as may be convenient. It is prepared in the public kitchen, and served in the general dining – hall ... the women and children are boarders spread with food different and differently prepared from that which life-long custom and habitual usage has rendered necessary for their health. The corn-bread and bacon with an occasional chicken, garnished with vegetables and prepared by themselves, in their own way and at their own open fire-places kept them in a physical condition which will be looked for in vain under the new regime (Andrew 1865).

So, according to Dr. Andrew, when the refugees were left on their own within the Home for Colored Refugees, particularly with their own housing and foodways, they were much healthier. With his observation that the "family arrangement" of the huts was much healthier than the "community system" of the cottages and tents, Dr. Andrew entered the independence vs. dependence debate firmly on the side of Rev. Fee, whom he elicited to help monitor and improve the unhealthy conditions at the Home. The control and regimentation of the army was actually unhealthy for the refugees, although this was not purposeful. A combination of ignorance toward health issues and a paternalistic view of African Americans as somewhat child-like and needing the supervision of whites, led to very unhealthy living conditions at the Home. Fortunately, the death rate at the Home did improve after mid-summer 1865, perhaps the result of Dr. Andrew's inspection and actions by Rev. Fee (Sears 2002:228).

Another action by Rev. Fee at the Home which had broad repercussions was the hiring of an African American teacher, Belle Mitchell, to teach at the Home school. Fee, who wanted this teacher to be a role model for the students, hired her unilaterally and brought her into the teacher's mess hall unannounced. The appearance of this African American teacher caused a great reaction among the white (abolitionist) teachers and many stormed out in protest. Numerous letters, some later published, went back and forth from Camp Nelson to AMA headquarters and a formal investigation ensued (Sears 2002). Although this investigation resulted in the firing of most of the protesting teachers by the AMA, who paid them, Home superintendent Lester Williams and Freedmen's Bureau district superintendent Col. J. E. Jaquers removed Belle Mitchell from Camp Nelson while Rev. Fee was away tending to other business (Sears 2002).

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After the Civil War ended the Home was supervised by the Freedman's Bureau and then by the Rev. John G. Fee and Abisha Scofield and the American Missionary Association (AMA). When the Freedmen's Bureau took over the Home, their main goal was to break it up. They attempted to resettle the refugees as farm laborers in the Midwest and, surprisingly, in the deep South. They were somewhat successful at this, but met strong resistance by Rev. Fee, Rev. Scofield, and the refugees. Fee, Scofield and some of the refugees wanted to establish a permanent community at the Home. One reason, besides creating a new home, that the refugees wanted to stay, was that many of their husbands were still in the army and would remain so until 1867. The women and children were afraid that their husbands/fathers would not be able to find them if they left the Home. Fortunately, John and Matilda Fee were able to purchase the Home for Colored Refugees property and sell lots to the African American families at a very low cost. Thus the community of Ariel, now known as Hall, was created. Through these actions, the Fees began the AMA policy of purchasing land and selling it to the freedman (McPherson 1964). The Hall community still remains today, although it is of mixed ethnicity.

Many other camps for escaped enslaved people were established within U.S. Army camps throughout the South, the loyal slave states, and even some northern states during the war. Escaping enslaved people rushed to the Union army lines from the beginning of the war, sensing the possibility of freedom. The army did not initially have a policy on how to treat the freedom seekers, but once the enslaved people from the Confederate states were declared "contraband of war," at least these people were generally allowed to stay. It took somewhat longer to develop a standard policy in the loyal slave states because the enslaved people in these regions were not viewed as "contraband of war" since their owners were loyal. This was especially the case in Kentucky, as noted above.

Probably the earliest and one of the largest "contraband camps" (as those in the Confederate states were classified by the U.S. Government) was established in May 1861 at Fortress Monroe in present day Hampton, Virginia. This fort remained in Union hands throughout the war, and was the location of the first declaration of southern enslaved people as "contraband of war". This was done by the fort's commander Brig. Gen. Benjamin Butler. This camp was designated "the Grand Contraband Camp" and held over 10,000 people over four years in what is now part of downtown Hampton (Berlin et al. 1982).

Other early "contraband camps" were established in the Sea Islands of South Carolina and Roanoke Island, North Carolina in 1862 and around New Orleans in 1863. These areas were captured by the Union early in the Civil War, and contained a large number of enslaved people who lived in the area and refugees who escaped from nearby plantations. The islands around Port Royal Sound, South Carolina contained a number of "contraband camps" that were administered by the army, and like Camp Nelson, the American Missionary Association (Rose 1964). Mitchelville on Hilton Head was one of these camps and is presently listed on the National Register of Historic Places. The African Americans on these Sea Islands were part of what is called the "Port Royal Experiment," whereby an African American community was established to determine whether or not former enslaved people would work "profitably" for wages and be able to govern themselves (Rose 1964). Similar issues were at stake on Roanoke Island, where a community was established in 1862 after Maj. Gen. Ambrose Burnside accepted and enacted Butler's "contraband of war" policy. Missionaries from the American Missionary Association and National Freedmen's Relief Association came to this island and worked with the "contraband" African Americans in their quest for freedom and citizenship under the supervision of Rev. Horace James. By the end of the war, the population of this community was about 3000 (Click 2001).

Later in the war large "contraband centers" were established in Nashville, Memphis, Clarksville, and Chattanooga, Tennessee; Corinth, Mississippi; Washington, D.C.; and northern Virginia (Tennessee Encyclopedia 2002; Walker 1974). In Corinth, the camp was organized September-October of 1862 and eventually held about 3600 men, women, and children (Walker 1974). Like Mitchelville, South Carolina, the

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camp was laid out with streets, had commercial buildings, and its own elected officials (Walker 1974). This camp was initially organized and supervised by army chaplains and like Camp Nelson, had teachers and ministers from the American Missionary Association. The 55th U.S.C.I. was organized from the men living at Corinth (Walker 1974). The Corinth “contraband camp” was closed in January 1864 and moved to Memphis.

In Kentucky, the only other large refugee camp besides Camp Nelson was in Louisville. Smaller, often temporary, ones were established at smaller cities, such as Bowling Green and Columbus, but these people were often transferred to Camp Nelson or Louisville (Marrs 1885; Sears 2002). Camp Nelson is the only former Kentucky refugee camp that remains in a rural and hamlet setting, and hence the best preserved one.

### Criterion 6

#### Nationally Significant Archeological Research Questions

The complexity and archeological integrity of Camp Nelson allows for the investigation of nationally significant research questions. Given the camp’s military function and its powerful African American story, these questions are best organized and explored under the broad themes of military archeology and African American archeology. An important topic, or sub-topic, which cross-cuts both of these themes and is particularly relevant to Camp Nelson, is landscape, or more precisely landscapes of power, since how people of different ranks, genders, and races, as well as the cultural features they created, were distributed over space can be shown to have both reflected and influenced power relations across Camp Nelson.

The investigation of military sites of the seventeenth to nineteenth centuries has a long practice within historical archeology, particularly the investigation of fort sites (Cleland 1970; Grimm 1970; Harrington 1957; Hanson and Hsu 1975; Huey 1959; Maxwell and Binford 1960; Stone 1974). More recently, archeological investigations have continued on fort sites, but have expanded to include a greater variety of sites, including encampments, hospitals, prison camps, battlefields, and associated civilian sites, such as manufacturing centers (Bush 2000; Fisher 1983; Fox and Scott 1991; Scott and Fox 1987; Shackel 1996; Starbuck 1999).

Recently there has also been an expansion in interest and publication on the American Civil War by archeologists (Geier and Winter 1994; Geier and Potter 2000; Geier, Orr, and Reeves, 2006; Geier, Babits, Scott and Orr 2011; Jenson 2000; Legg and Smith 1989). The creation and expansion of battlefield archeology has been particularly striking and successful in the investigation of troop positions, movement, and organization or disorganization (Scott and Fox 1987; Lees 1994; Cornelison 2000; Sterling and Slaughter 2000; Smith et al. 2003; Reeves 2011). Within the fort or encampment setting, the examination of architecture and spatial organization has revealed how order and power were communicated among varied personnel (Balicki 2006, 2011; Fisher 1983; Feister 1984; Monks 1992; Orr 2006; Whitehorse 2006). Other developing topics of archeological study on military sites include consumption variability by rank, class, gender, and familial structure; gender issues such as the roles and statuses of women within military camps, the effects of war on civilian populations, memory and memorialization (Scott 1989; Seifert 1991; Clements 1993; Fisher 1995; Martin et al. 1997; Bush 2000; Galke 2000a; McBride et al 2000; Seifert and Parsons 2000; Shackel 2003; Starbuck 1004; Stewart 2011).

African American, or African Diaspora, archeology also has a relatively long history within the discipline. Since the late 1960s and 1970s, slave plantations in the American South, as well as a few sites in the northern U.S., have been the focus of archeological examination (Ascher and Fairbanks 1971; Deetz 1977, Handler and Lange 1978, Baker 1980, Otto 1984; Singleton 1985). African American archeology is still very biased toward southern plantations, although more postbellum urban, northern, and industrial sites are being investigated

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(Bastion 1999; Cabak et al. 1995; Fennell et al. 2010; Shackel and Larsen 2000; Wilkie 2000a). Only a few sites within African American military occupations have been examined archeologically (see below for more discussion), but some plantations on battlefields have been studied (Martin et al. 1997; Seibert and Parsons 2000).

The field of African American archeology has evolved from examining and describing the material variability of African American sites to identifying “Africanisms,” to addressing broader cultural questions related to cultural interactions, change and identity formation (including “creolization” and syncretism), religion and ritual, gender, and power relations and resistance (Armstrong 1990; Brown and Cooper 1990; Dawdy 2000; Fennell 2007; Ferguson 1992; Franklin and Fester 1999; Franklin and McKee 2004; Galke 2000b,; Leone and Fry 1999; Orser 1988; Singleton 1999; Stine et al. 1996; Wheaton and Garrow 1985; Wilkie 1995, 1997, 2000a; Young 1996). An increased concern for gender and landscape, particularly landscapes of meaning and power, has been a recent trend in African American archeology. These studies have examined gendered spaces within plantations; gender variability in labor, consumption, ritual, medicine, and social interactions; and how the spatial arrangements of plantations can both reinforce authority and inequality, but also be redefined into resistance and new meanings (Battle-Baptise 2010; Delle 1998; Galle and Young 2004; Heath 2004; McBride 2010; Rotman and Savulis 2003; Wilkie 2000b, 2004; Young 2003). Another new trend in African American archeology is an increased concern with present day social action, particularly dealing with race and racial politics, including descendent communities in research, and public interpretation (Epperson 2004; Little 2007; McDavid and Babson 1997; Mack and Blakely 2004; Mullins 1999; 2008).

Given the history, size, functional complexity, demographic complexity, and demonstrated archeological integrity of Camp Nelson, nearly all of the above mentioned military sites research topics, excluding battlefield-related topics, are applicable to Camp Nelson, as are many of the current topics in African American archeology. Issues related to spatial organization (particularly in relation to power, authority, gender, and resistance), consumption variability, identify formation (including the transition from slavery to freedom), gender relations, African and creolized ritual practices, familiar organization, and the evolution of military defensive design, are particularly applicable to Camp Nelson. In fact, questions related to landscape, consumption patterns, ritual practices, and resistance, have been, and continue to be investigated at Camp Nelson (McBride et al. 2000; McBride and McBride 2006; and McBride 2010).

How power and authority were communicated and reinforced through material culture, particularly architecture, landscape, and more personal items such as clothing and foodways, is of particular interest at Camp Nelson. Because of its size, complexity, and changing demographics, maintaining order was a constant challenge for Camp Nelson’s officers. Divisions of rank have always been rigidly enforced in the military, with differences in insignia, uniforms, weapons, housing, dining and socializing arrangements, and pay used to reinforce the hierarchy of ranks. Also, in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries there was a strong class element to these ranks. Officer corps were filled with men from the middle and upper classes, while enlisted men were primarily from the working classes, with some younger middle class men also in the enlisted ranks. How these differences in ranks were reflected and reinforced materially and how they may have changed over time is of archeological and historic interest. For instance, with the beginning of African American recruitment, officers’ power and authority may have been blatantly exercised to counter the resistance and resentment of local white civilians and white soldiers. For example, the officers’ power was conspicuously confirmed at this time by the construction of a new, more ornate, cross-shaped headquarters building with an ornamental fountain in the center of camp (McBride et al. 2003). Were other shows of authority taken to control white resentment and black and white interaction? Were spatial separation and segregation practices present in housing or the distribution of supplies? The recruitment of African Americans was not the only event that may have fostered organizational changes potentially observable in the archeological record. Archeology may reveal specific changes that followed after

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the November 1864 refugee expulsion, the creation of the “Home for Colored Refugees,” and the closing of the camp between late 1865 and summer 1866.

Although a number of maps and photographs of Camp Nelson exist, archeology has provided evidence of sites not illustrated in these sources (McBride and McBride 2010). Archeology has documented that some sites that were linked with a function early in the camp’s history later changed to different functions as the camp’s organization changed. Where certain sites were located in space, why they were located there, and how their functions may have changed over time are questions that archeology can help answer. The location of certain buildings or encampments may relate to a variety of factors, including transportation, available resources (such as water), defense, or politics. Changes in building function may relate to either external war needs or internal camp developments.

The issue of control is of constant concern on an army post, especially one as complex as Camp Nelson. The functional complexity of the camp meant that civilian employees, private merchants, soldiers, officers, refugee women and children, and convicted criminals (both soldiers and civilians) were all present and could create rather chaotic conditions, particularly from a military perspective. The spatial considerations that were of critical importance to the management of the camp can provide answers to nationally significant research questions related to political and social changes during the war.

Fortification design and construction methods were quite variable throughout the Civil War, given ever changing armaments and different levels of engineering expertise. Although engineers’ maps are extant for Camp Nelson’s forts, and surface remains exist for most of them, archeological excavations can still add much information to questions of design and construction. For instance, at Fort Jones, the engineers’ plans were not fully followed in the outer ditches placement, and at Fort Putnam, undocumented details on revetment and gun platform construction were revealed only through archeology. The presence of two different methods of revetment construction at Fort Putnam, closely spaced angled boards and widely spaced posts, is unusual and may relate either to idiosyncrasies of its designer, Capt. Orlando Poe, or the fact that this fort was built as a “training exercise” for the engineer battalion. Other important variables in fort design and construction include location, proximity to building materials, and natural conditions such as depth of bedrock and slope. The Camp Nelson District contains five forts along its northern line and three forts along Hickman Creek, plus the connecting infantry entrenchment. All afford archeological potential to gain an understanding of the vagaries of Civil War fort construction, under the pressure of changing technology and political goals.

The industrial aspect of Camp Nelson is another area of archeological interest. The camp contained numerous workshops, some operated by steam engines. Although there is some archival documentation on these sites, archeological investigations, such as those conducted at the Camp Nelson machine shop and blacksmith shop, can add significant new insights into the technology available at the camp and the types of production being conducted.

As noted above, the conditions and adaptations of the African American soldiers and refugees and the white refugees are of great interest and have great potential for archeological examination. How did the formerly enslaved men adapt and assimilate into their new status as soldiers? Was this a smooth transition? Did they attempt to continue some behaviors and beliefs from their former lives as enslaved people? Documents suggest that the men enthusiastically embraced their new status and identity as soldiers (Marrs 1885; Redkey 1992) but are these accounts truly representative? What does the material culture have to say relatively to more conservative cultural traits such as foodways and religion? Also, the presence of refugee wives and children within camp provided an opportunity for non-military, nuclear family living conditions, which seems to have been an adaptation for survival. How did this situation affect daily life and material culture?

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In terms of the refugees, both black and white, what does the material culture say about their conditions and adaptations, and about gender relations? Where were the refugees living and in what types of housing? Were these women and children marginalized or incorporated more into the working of the camp? What were their jobs and where did they perform them? How much did they interact with their husbands and/or fathers? Did they receive army rations or were they eating more of a civilian diet? How were they acquiring material goods? How did their presence and activities change the overall camp? The adaptations of the African American women were particularly critical because the army initially did not want them in camp and evicted them, or attempted to evict them, numerous times before the final expulsion in November 1864. There is little historical documentation on issues like these and on gender relations at refugee camps; archeology at Camp Nelson is critical to their investigation.

Even after the Home for Colored Refugees was constructed, variability in conditions continued to exist, with some people housed in barracks, some in cottages, and some in home-made huts. While those in barracks and cottages are known to have eaten in a mess hall, the people in the huts apparently cooked their own food. The archeological remains so far support this and also provide the opportunity to investigate health in relation to housing, and issues of resistance and cooperation and identity formation.

At Camp Nelson, material culture availability and acquisition can also be examined more generally. Basically what types of goods and equipment were available to the soldiers and civilians within Camp Nelson and how did this vary by rank, race, ethnicity, or military versus civilian status? Did officers have greater access to goods than enlisted men? If so, which goods, and was this variability clearly related to price or wealth, or were there other factors such as military restrictions? How were material goods used to reflect and reinforce these various statuses? What about African American soldiers? Did they have the same equipment and arms as white soldiers? Did they have similar access to material goods and consumption of personal items? Were the foodways of white and black soldiers the same? Much is made in the literature of African American soldiers receiving inferior arms and equipment, but was this the case at Camp Nelson?

In contrast to what was normal for soldiers, did civilian employees have similar or different diets and access to personal items? Is there much variation in consumption patterns by employees of different occupations? What about the refugee women and children, and their access to consumer items? Did they consume many personal items and if so, what kinds? Were they receiving army rations or was their diet more similar to their earlier farm or plantation diet? The investigation of material culture variation, both in consumer goods and military distributed items, can open a window not only on the economic conditions of Camp Nelson's occupants, but also their cultural values and beliefs, as well as the beliefs and political needs of those in power at the camp.

Again, the history, scale, complexity, and archeological integrity of Camp Nelson allow for the investigation of many significant research questions. Sites previously investigated within Camp Nelson, such as the pre-expulsion refugee encampment, the Home for Colored Refugees, the Berkely sutler store, the prison, the government shops, the quartermaster office and mess houses, and numerous forts, show a very high level of archeological integrity, with well-preserved features and stratigraphy, and usually an exclusively Civil War era occupation.

### Comparative Archeological Sites

It is difficult to find perfect comparisons to Camp Nelson among archeologically investigated Civil War military or refugee /"contraband camps", because of Camp Nelson's size and functional and historical complexity. Perhaps the most comparable overall among archeologically investigated Civil War sites is Hilton Head Island, South Carolina. This large U.S. Army supply depot also contained a U.S.C.T. encampment (Camp

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Baird) and a community of escaped enslaved people (Mitchelville) which lasted well after the Civil War (Legg et al 1991; Trinkley 1986, 1995). A few more permanent Civil War encampments and fortifications have been excavated, including Fort C.F. Smith (Balicki 1995) and Fort Pillow, Tennessee (Mainfort 1980). Two excavated Civil War encampments at Folly Island, S.C. (Legg and Smith 1989) were occupied by African American troops and therefore may have some comparative value because of Camp Nelson's strong U.S.C.T. associations. Comparisons with these sites can aid us in understanding the degree of variability between these sites, find explanations for this variability, and identify where and how Camp Nelson was unique or similar to other Civil War military sites.

Camp Baird, Hilton Head Island, S.C. was the fall 1864 encampment of the 32nd U. S. Colored Infantry. Excavation here revealed six streets of platform tents, nine major refuse pits, four privies, nine walk-in wells, and one shaft well (Legg et al. 1991; Espenshade et al. 2002:47). Over 15,200 artifacts and a large quantity of animal bone were recovered in this Section 106 compliance archeology project. The artifacts included a large assemblage of military clothing, accoutrements, and arms/ammunition artifacts, but a relatively low amount of consumer goods, suggesting only minor interaction with local merchants. The faunal remains, which are 98.3% beef and mostly hindquarters and forequarters, also suggest a rigid army diet with next to no supplementation with local seafood, chickens, or wild game (Legg et al. 1991; Espenshade et al. 2002:48). The foodways and consumer goods, particularly the low quantities of alcohol and canned foods, patterns are very different from those found at Camp Nelson and suggest more rigid control of the soldiers' behavior at Camp Baird and perhaps less access to consumer goods. These differences with Camp Nelson's U.S.C.T. encampment are significant and reflect possible variability between sites in different geographical locations, of different occupational length, and perhaps different levels of military rigidity.

Mitchelville was a well-organized and laid out community of escaped enslaved African Americans on Hilton Head Island, South Carolina. Unlike Camp Nelson's early refugee camp or the Home for Colored Refugees, Mitchelville was occupied by whole families, men, women, and children. Many of its occupants worked for the government, some doing agriculture, others doing skilled or unskilled labor (Trinkley 1986). The community consisted of houses of varying design, built by the occupants and laid out in a grid with three churches, two schools, and a few stores (Trinkley 1986).

Archeological excavations exposed chimneys, tabby foundations, brick piers, and post molds from four to five houses. A large number of trash pits associated with these houses was also discovered and excavated. The site produced over 25,000 artifacts, most dating to the nineteenth century. These artifacts include a large number of buttons, including military buttons, some beads, much bottle glass, especially alcoholic bottles, much ceramics, and a large quantity of animal bone. The military buttons are interpreted as evidence that the residents were receiving military clothing. The refined ceramics show evidence of consumption variability by cost, suggesting perhaps status/class variability within the community. The site also has a low overall proportion of bowls, a pattern contrary to many slave cabin sites (Trinkley 1986).

The faunal remains from Mitchelville suggest a diet dominated by pork, followed in descending order by beef, chicken, fish, and then wild game. The wild game included deer, rabbit, raccoon, and opossum. The beef remains suggest that they were probably purchased or rationed, as individual cuts of meat, while the pigs were mostly raised and butchered by the householders, although some could have been obtained as rations (Trinkley 1986).

The Mitchelville pattern shows some similarities to the Camp Nelson refugee camp, particularly in ceramic vessel cost variability, in the abundance of alcohol bottles, and in the abundance of buttons. The possibility that some, or many, of the buttons could have been associated with laundry was not discussed in the Mitchelville

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report but this could have been the case. The variety of animals consumed at Mitchelville is different from Camp Nelson, but the dominance of pig is similar. As noted above, a major difference between Mitchellville and Camp Nelson is the presence of whole nuclear families at Mitchellville. Can the presence of exclusively female-headed households at Camp Nelson explain differences between these sites? Also, the Camp Nelson refugee sites have greater archeological integrity because of their early abandonment. Could the post-bellum occupation of the Mitchellville sites be a factor in its differences with Camp Nelson? Unfortunately, because of modern development, little is now left of Hilton Head's Civil War occupation.

Folly Island, South Carolina, produced archeological evidence of African American soldiers' occupation. At Folly Island a cemetery consisting of nineteen graves of soldiers for the 55<sup>th</sup> Massachusetts (colored) Infantry and 1<sup>st</sup> North Carolina Colored Infantry was excavated (Legg and Smith 1989). Some of these men were buried in their uniforms while others were buried only in their underwear or with a blanket. Physical anthropology suggests that these were young, previously healthy men who died of unknown causes, but probably from diseases, since no evidence of violent death was found.

Two encampments were also located and excavated on Folly Island (Legg and Smith 1989). While these encampments were probably occupied by African American soldiers, this is not clear from the documentation. Artifacts recovered at these encampments suggest a spartan existence, with primarily military artifacts, few personal items, and a near absence of ceramics. Fragments of bottles that contained alcohol were the only exception, in terms of consumer goods. Faunal material from the two encampments showed distinctive patterns. One encampment had a dominance of beef cuts, including many high quality cuts, while the other encampment showed similar proportions of pork and beef, with mostly low quality cuts (Legg and Smith 1989). The lack of clear association with African American troops somewhat weakens the comparative strengths of this site relative to Camp Nelson, but its more ephemeral nature, lower quantity of artifacts, and functional variability make it useful in understanding the range of variation of Civil War encampments.

At Fort Pillow, Tennessee, excavations were directed at understanding the construction and interior activity areas of the 1864 Union fort. This fort was constructed and manned by members of the 6<sup>th</sup> U.S. Colored Heavy Artillery and the 2<sup>nd</sup> U.S. Colored Light Artillery, and was the site of an April 1864 Confederate victory and massacre of African American soldiers (Mainfort 1980). Excavations here were successful in discovering numerous fort structural features such as revetment post molds, wooden drain pipes, and gun platforms, as well as documenting the original profiles of the fort's parapet, glacis, and ditch. Interior features such as hearths and trash pits were excavated and produced a large assemblage of artifacts, including refined and coarse ceramics, bottle glass, table glass, tin cans, military and civilian buttons, smoking pipes, military uniform insignia, military accoutrements, small arms and artillery ammunition, arms parts, and faunal material. The large quantity and variety of ceramics and glassware was more similar to Camp Nelson than to the temporary encampments. Fragments of bottles that contained alcohol were common, as also were medicine, ink, foodstuff, and condiment bottles. The faunal material showed a great preponderance of beef, although pork was present. Because of its relatively long occupation, Fort Pillow demonstrates artifact patterning more similar to Camp Nelson, although it is a much smaller and less diverse site. The fortifications have now been excavated and reconstructed.

Fort C.F. Smith was an 1863-1865 Union fort and encampment with numerous wooden buildings including barracks, mess houses, cook houses, and a headquarters, that was located in Washington, D.C. (Balicki 1995). At least ten different artillery units manned this fortification during its existence. Excavations here focused on a refuse and perhaps encampment area located down hill from the cook and mess houses and barracks buildings. Civil War era midden and refuse pits were discovered and excavated in this area which produced a large assemblage of Civil War artifacts. These artifacts included refined and coarse ceramics, bottle glass, table

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glass, tin cans, military and civilian buttons, smoking pipes, military uniform insignia, various military accoutrements, poncho and tent grommets, small arms ammunition, gun parts, and faunal material. The bottle glass included alcohol, foodstuff, condiment, and medicine bottle fragments. The assemblage of ceramics and table glass is like that found at Camp Nelson and Fort Pillow. The amount and variety of these artifacts reflect the permanence of the camp. Although Fort C.F. Smith is comparable to some areas of Camp Nelson, it was never as diverse a site and the excavations were focused on a small section of the original fort, most of which has now been destroyed (Balicki 1995).

More detailed analysis and comparisons of artifacts from these sites and Camp Nelson will greatly assist in attaining a deeper understanding of Civil War military ideas, conditions, and activities, particularly those more mundane day-to-day conditions and actions that filled so much time of the war's participants' time. Camp Nelson is uniquely suited to archeological investigation, due to the tremendous variety of activities present, due to its occupational, gender, and ethnic complexity, and due to its excellent state of preservation. Few sites in the United States have as much light to shed on the complex and evolving nature of middle-late nineteenth century warfare as well as the tremendous social and political changes brought about by and during the Civil War. The transition from enslaved men to soldiers and from enslaved women and children to free women and children are perhaps Camp Nelson's most dramatic stories and ones that can be addressed more deeply through the combination of documents and well preserved archeological remains.

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**10. GEOGRAPHICAL DATA**

Acreage of Property: 600

UTM References:	Zone	Easting	Northing
A	16	0709430	4186325
B		0712807	41861381
C		0712849	4184306
D		0709480	4184234

Verbal Boundary Description:

**Main Encampment and Camp Nelson National Cemetery:** (See Figure 56). The boundary around the main encampment encircles the area on the east side of old US 27 (former Lexington-Danville Turnpike) shown to have had forts, buildings, and concentrations of tents on the historic maps and photographs of Camp Nelson and to have significant archeological remains, one period building and 18 above ground structures. The boundary begins at Point A on old US 27 northwest of the White House and just north of the fortification line and extends eastward 1000 m to Point B just west of the Ebenezer Church. From here the boundary bends to the southwest, then east, then southeast 800 m on the Sugar Creek Road to Point C. The boundary then extends 800 m to the southwest to a sharp bend in Hickman Creek (Point D). The boundary then continues to follow Hickman Creek another 400 m and then turns uphill and west toward the Camp Nelson National Cemetery's southern boundary, which it follows another 1000 m to the intersection of the cemetery road and US 27 (Point E). From Point E the boundary extends northeastward following old US 27 670 m and then angles around three modern houses about 400 m until the highway is again reached. The boundary then extends northeastward 600 m to Point A.

**Hall- "Home for Colored Refugees":** (See Figure 56). The Home/Hall site includes the best preserved landscape and archeological remains of the former Home for Colored Refugees. The home boundary begins north of Ison Street at Point F and extends to the southeast 300 m to Point G at the head of the drain. The boundary line then extends to the southwest 150 m to the Hall Road and then follows this road to the west 150 m to Point H. The boundary line then follows Church Street and Ison Street 350 m towards the north and northwest and finally returns to Point F.

Boundary Justification:

The boundaries drawn around the main encampment area and the refugee home sites encircle the best preserved above and below ground areas of Camp Nelson and include the Camp Nelson National Cemetery. The encampment area boundary is drawn to include the best preserved earthworks of the northern line of fortifications, and the engineer's camp site on the north, and then bends around to include Fort Jones, the two Stone Forts, Battery Studdiford along Hickman Creek and the Camp Nelson National Cemetery on the east and south. The boundary then follows the old highway to the northeast, but excludes a cluster of three modern houses and their outbuildings. Besides the above mentioned forts and sites, the main encampment area also includes the White House officers' quarters, the prison cistern, the officers' spring reservoir, the ice house foundation, the bake oven foundations, the ordnance magazine mound, and archeological sites 15Js 78, 164, and 166. These sites, and their functionally distinct sub-sites, can best address the significant themes discussed above in this nomination.

**CAMP NELSON HISTORIC AND ARCHEOLOGICAL DISTRICT****Page 55**

The boundary lines for the Home for Colored Refugees site are drawn to enclose the best preserved area where buildings such as the wards, school, hospital, cottages, tents, and huts existed, and exclude more recent buildings. The archeological remains discovered here have a high degree of integrity and have been designated site 15Js163.

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**11. FORM PREPARED BY**

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Date: August 2012

Edited by: Dr. Erika Martin Seibert  
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NATIONAL HISTORIC LANDMARKS PROGRAM  
September 5, 2012

**CAMP NELSON HISTORIC AND ARCHEOLOGICAL DISTRICT**

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**List of Figures and Figure Identification Information.**

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| 1) Name of Property:                     | Camp Nelson Historic and Archeological District |
| 2) County:                               | Jessamine County, Kentucky                      |
| 3) Description:                          | See Below                                       |
| 4) Name of Photographer or cartographer: | See Below                                       |
| 5) Date:                                 | See Below                                       |
| 6) Figure Number                         | See Below                                       |

Figure #	Description	Date	Photographer or Map cartographer
1	Camp Nelson and its Defense, 1864, by James H. Simpson	1864	James H. Simpson
2	Northern Line of Fortifications, 1864, by George B. Nicholson	1864	George B. Nicholson
3	Map of Camp Nelson, Ky, 1866, by A. B. Miller	1866	A. B. Miller
4	Historic photograph of Warehouse area	c. 1865	G. W. Foster
5	Historic photograph of Headquarters	c. 1865	G. W. Foster
6	Historic photograph of Hospital	c. 1865	G. W. Foster
7	Historic photograph of Soldier's Home	c. 1865	G. W. Foster
8	Historic photograph of the White House	c. 1865	G. W. Foster
9	Historic photograph of Barracks – Recruiting Rendezvous	c. 1865	G. W. Foster
10	Historic photograph of Home for Colored Refugees	c. 1865	G. W. Foster
11	Map of Contributing Resources, Little Hickman USGS Quadrangle <b>REDACTED</b>	2012	W. Stephen McBride
12	The White House	2011	W. Stephen McBride
13	Fort Jones	2011	W. Stephen McBride
14	Northern Stone Fort	2011	W. Stephen McBride
15	Fort Jackson	2011	W. Stephen McBride
16	Fort Pope	2011	W. Stephen McBride
17	Infantry Entrenchment near the White House	2011	W. Stephen McBride
18	Infantry Entrenchment near Fort Jones	2011	W. Stephen McBride
19	Ordnance Magazine	2011	W. Stephen McBride
20	Bake Oven	2011	W. Stephen McBride
21	Ice House Cellar Foundation	2011	W. Stephen McBride
22	Spring Reservoir	2011	W. Stephen McBride
23	Contemporary photograph of historic road bed	2011	W. Stephen McBride
24	Ison Street in the Hall community	2011	W. Stephen McBride
25	Map of Ky Transportation Cabinet archeological sites	2012	W. Stephen McBride
26	White House kitchen chimney base	1998	W. Stephen McBride
27	Prison site, excavated cellar feature	2011	W. Stephen McBride
28	Prison site, excavated pier from the jail	2006	W. Stephen McBride
29	Prison site, ceramics	2009	W. Stephen McBride
30	Prison site, buttons	2009	W. Stephen McBride
31	Fort Putnum revetment posts	1998	W. Stephen McBride
32	Fort Taylor, magazine	1997	W. Stephen McBride
33	Fort Taylor, artifacts	1997	W. Stephen McBride
34	Blacksmith shop, midden	2001	W. Stephen McBride
35	Quartermaster mess houses, ceramics	2001	W. Stephen McBride
36	Quartermaster mess houses, faunal remains	2001	W. Stephen McBride
37	Refugee encampment, beads, doll parts, and coin	2005	W. Stephen McBride
38	Refugee encampment, x marked button	2005	W. Stephen McBride

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39	Refugee encampment, hearth remains	2002	W. Stephen McBride
40	Refugee encampment, pier remains	2006	W. Stephen McBride
41	Home for Colored Refugees, huts area, faunal remains	2010	W. Stephen McBride
42	Home for Colored Refugees, huts area, utensils	2010	W. Stephen McBride
43	Camp Nelson National Cemetery	2011	Unknown
44	Map of Noncontributing Resources, Little Hickman USGS Quadrangle <b>REDACTED</b>	2012	W. Stephen McBride
45	Noncontributing resources: house, barn, and shed	2011	W. Stephen McBride
46	Noncontributing resources: Interpretive Center	2011	W. Stephen McBride
47	Noncontributing resources: reconstructed barracks	2011	W. Stephen McBride
48	Noncontributing resources: buggy shed/garage	2011	W. Stephen McBride
49	Noncontributing resources: reconstructed Fort Putnum	2011	W. Stephen McBride
50	Noncontributing resources: eastern tobacco barn	2011	W. Stephen McBride
51	Noncontributing resources: southern office and stock barn	2011	W. Stephen McBride
52	Noncontributing resources: southern tobacco barn	2011	W. Stephen McBride
53	Noncontributing resources: southern shed	2011	W. Stephen McBride
54	Noncontributing resources: National Cemetery Office	2011	W. Stephen McBride
55	Noncontributing resources: Hall church	2011	W. Stephen McBride
56	Camp Nelson NHL Boundary Map <b>REDACTED</b>	2012	W. Stephen McBride

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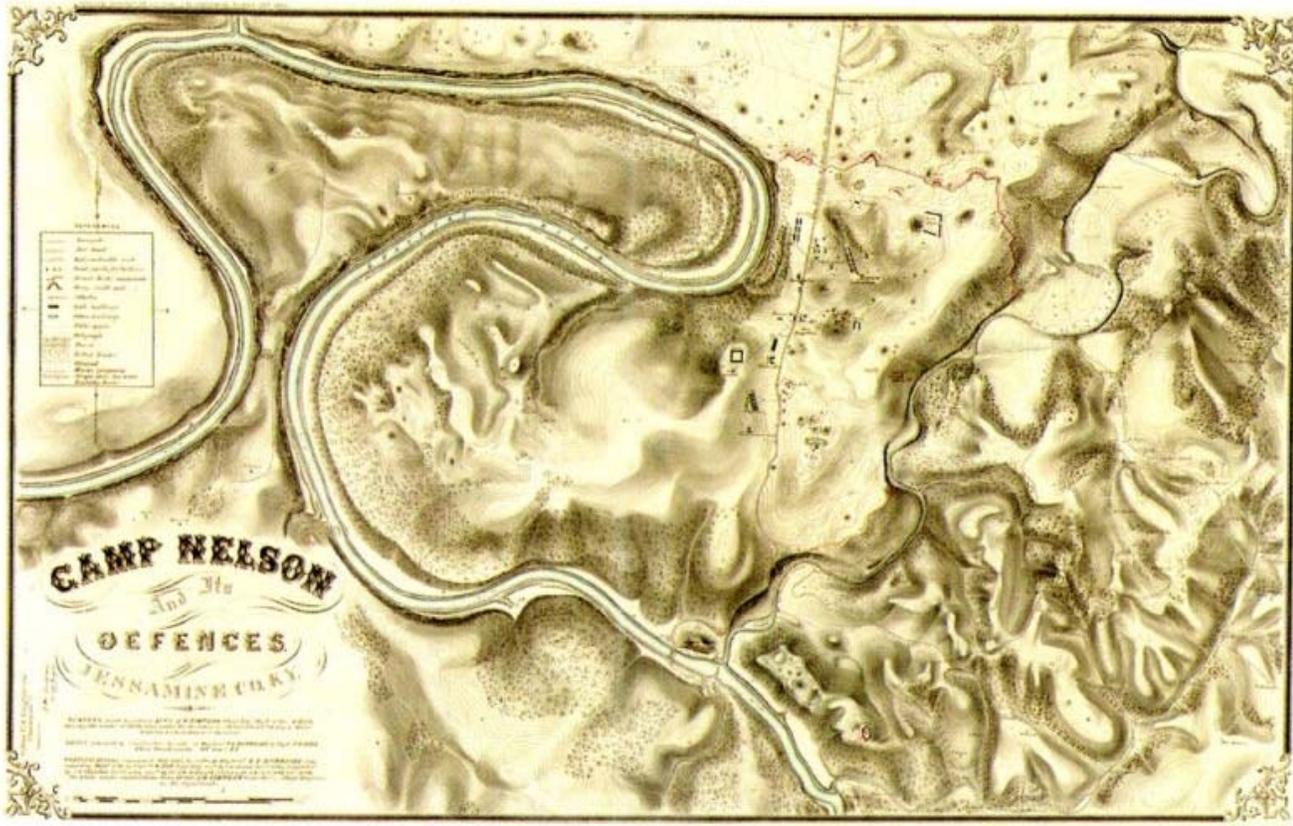


Figure 1. Camp Nelson and its Defenses, 1864, by James H. Simpson.

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Figure 2. Northern Line of Fortifications, 1864, by George B. Nicholson.

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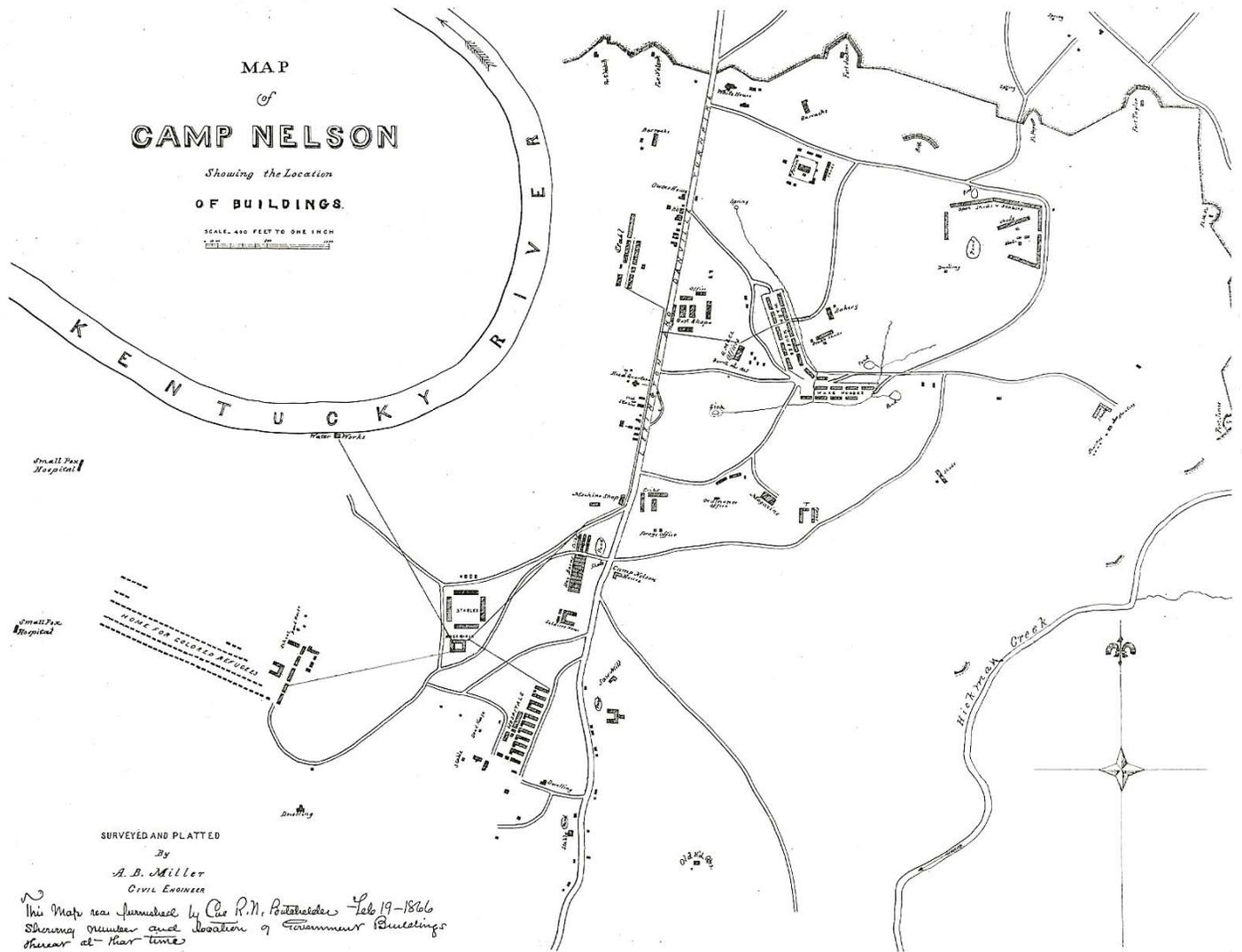


Figure 3. Map of Camp Nelson, Ky, 1866, by A. B. Miller.

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Figure 4. Historic photograph of Warehouse area.

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Figure 5. Historic photograph of Headquarters.

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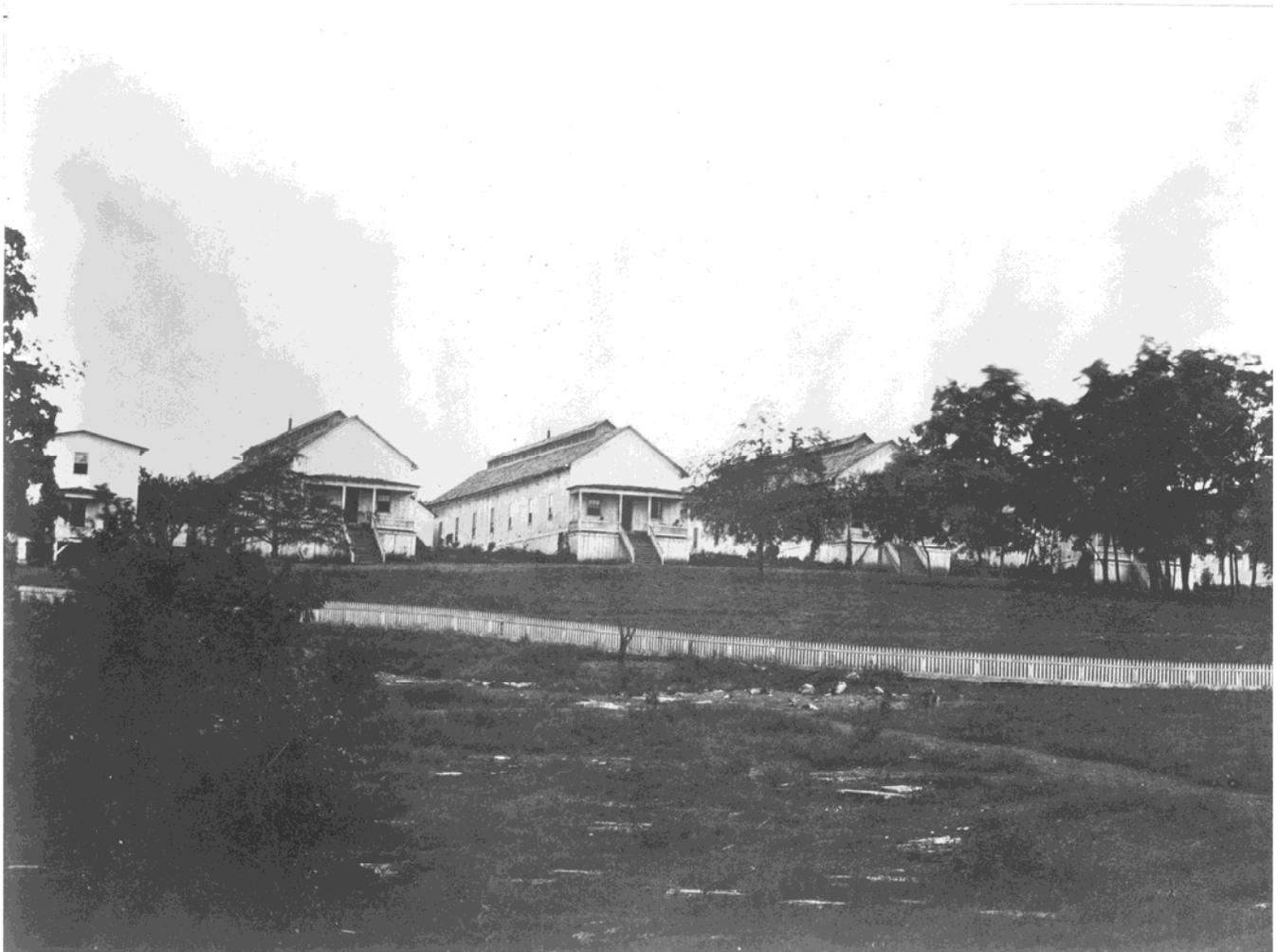


Figure 6. Historic photograph of Hospital.

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Figure 7. Historic photograph of Soldier's Home.

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Figure 8. Historic photograph of the White House.

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Figure 9. Historic photograph of Barracks – Recruiting Rendezvous.

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Figure 10. Historic photograph of Home for Colored Refugees.

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**National Historic Landmarks****Property Name:** Camp Nelson Historic and Archeological District

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Some information about this property is restricted under law:

National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended, section 304, 16 U.S.C. 470w-3(a)

- *Confidentiality of the location of sensitive historic resources*

Section 304

*[16 U.S.C. 470w-3(a) – Confidentiality of the location of sensitive historic resources]*

(a) The head of a Federal agency or other public official receiving grant assistance pursuant to this Act, after consultation with the Secretary, shall withhold from disclosure to the public, information about the location, character, or ownership of a historic resource if the Secretary and the agency determine that disclosure may –

- (1) cause a significant invasion of privacy;
- (2) risk harm to the historic resources; or
- (3) impede the use of a traditional religious site by practitioners.

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Figure 12. The White House.

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Figure 13. Fort Jones.

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Figure 14. Northern Stone Fort.

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Figure 15. Fort Jackson.

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Figure 16. Fort Pope.

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Figure 17. Infantry Entrenchment near the White House.

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Figure 18. Infantry Entrenchment near Fort Jones.

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Figure 19. Ordnance Magazine.

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Figure 20. Bake Oven.

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Figure 21. Ice House Cellar Foundation.

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Figure 22. Spring Reservoir.

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Figure 23. Contemporary photograph of historic road bed.

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Figure 24. Ison Street in the Hall community.

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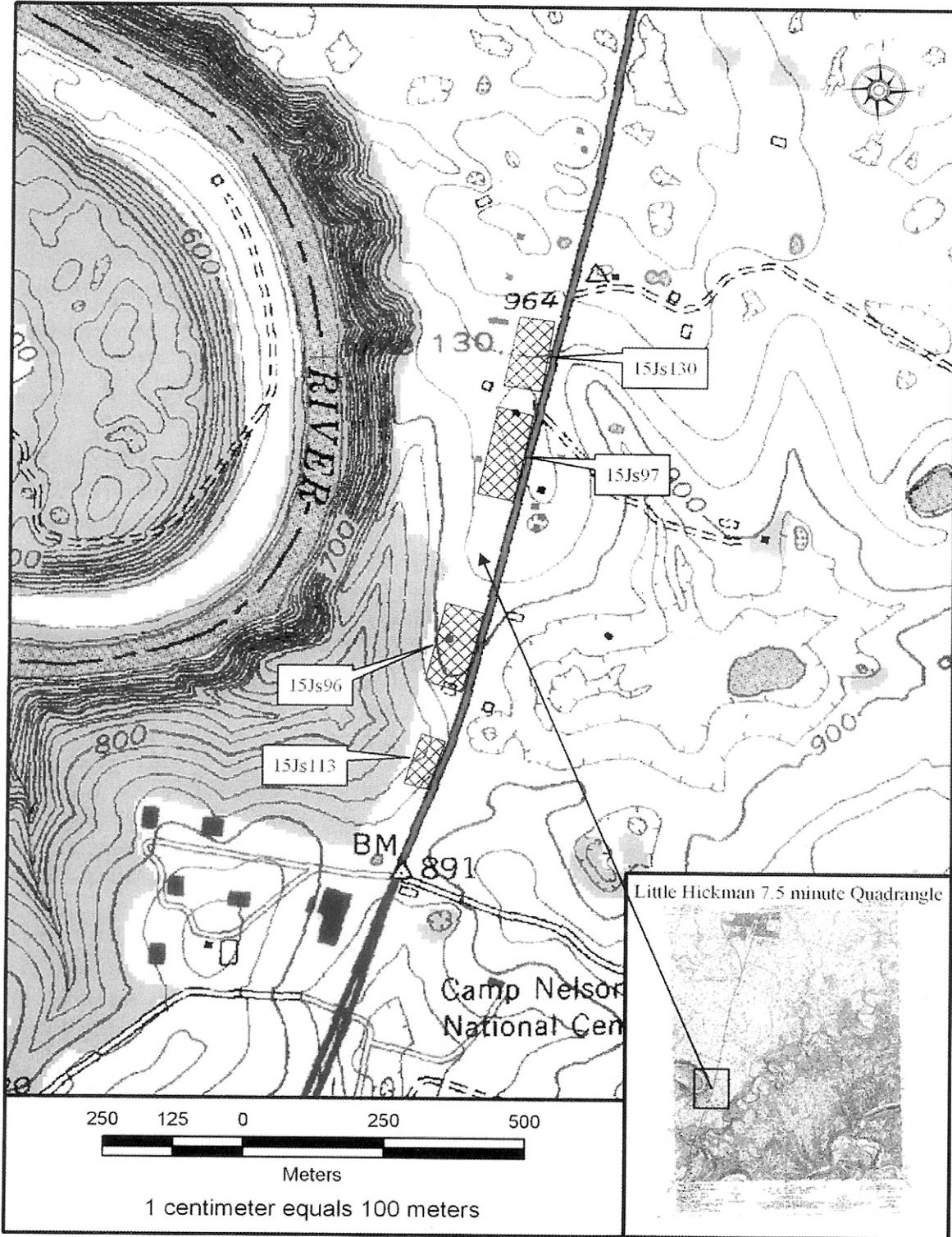


Figure 25. Map of Ky Transportation Cabinet archeological sites.

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Figure 26. White House kitchen chimney base.

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Figure 27. Prison site, excavated cellar feature.

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Figure 28. Prison site, excavated pier from the jail.

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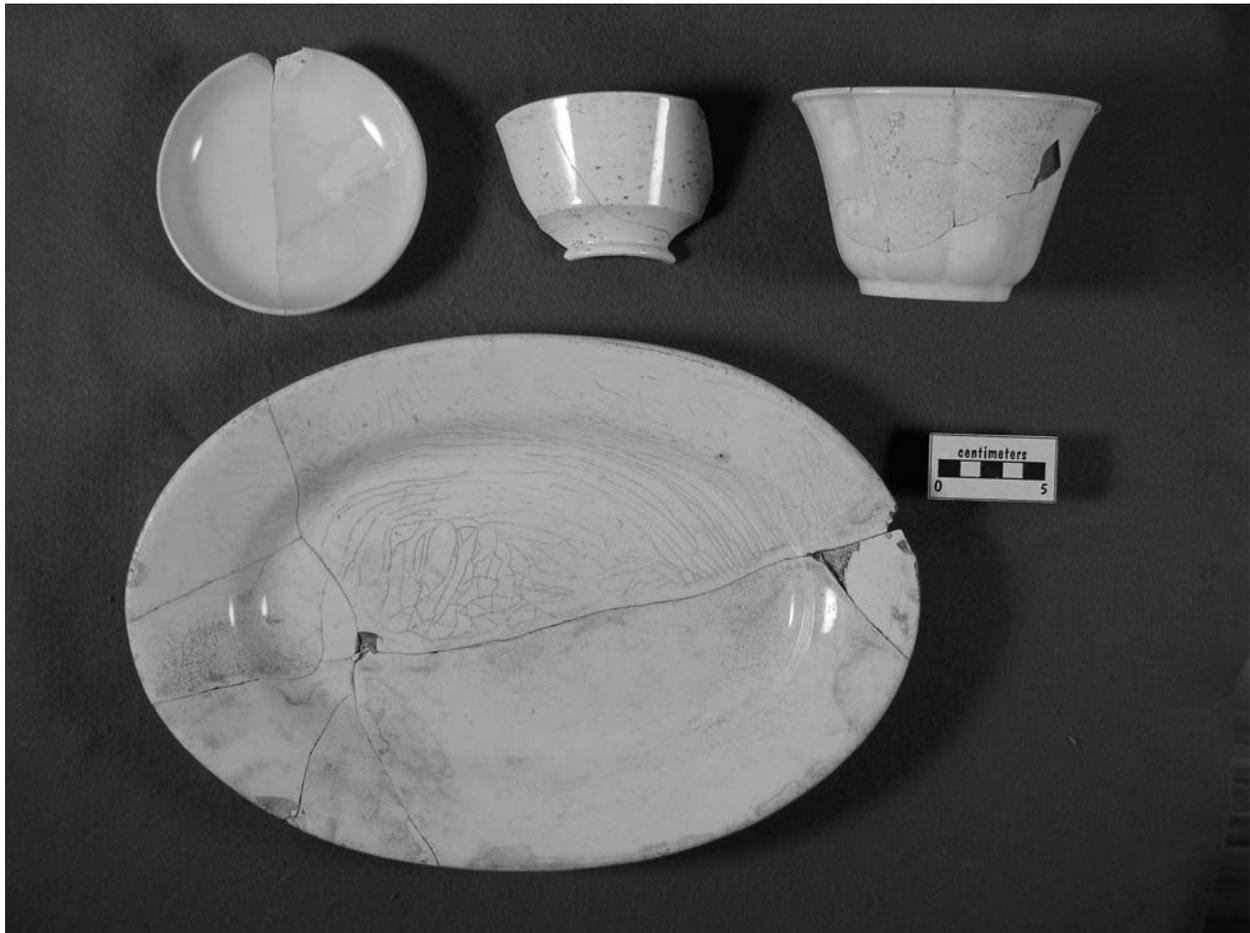


Figure 29. Prison site, ceramics.

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Figure 30. Prison site, buttons.

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Figure 31. Fort Putnum revetment posts.

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Figure 32. Fort Taylor, magazine.

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Figure 33. Fort Taylor, artifacts.

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Figure 34. Blacksmith shop, midden.

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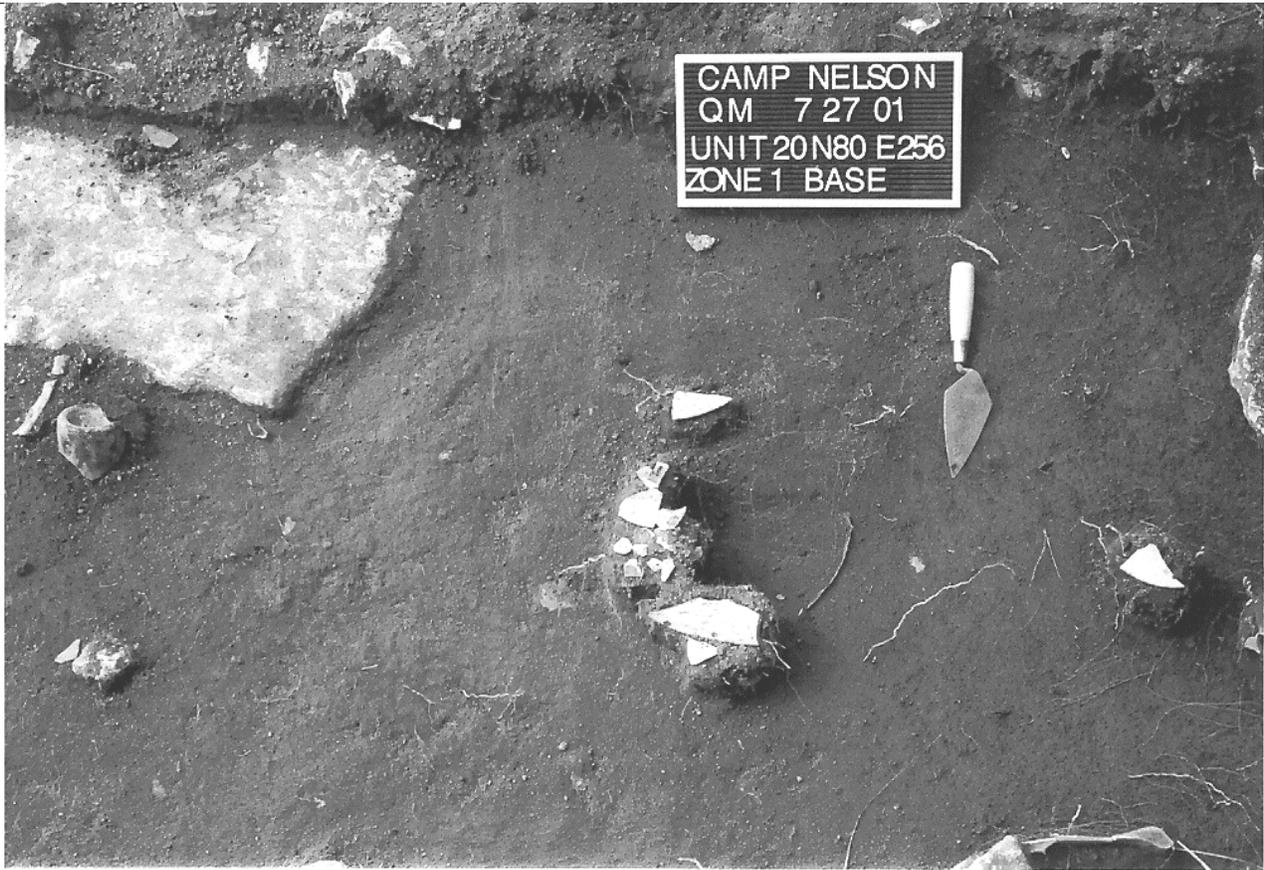


Figure 35. Quartermaster mess houses, ceramics.

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Figure 36. Quartermaster mess houses, faunal remains.

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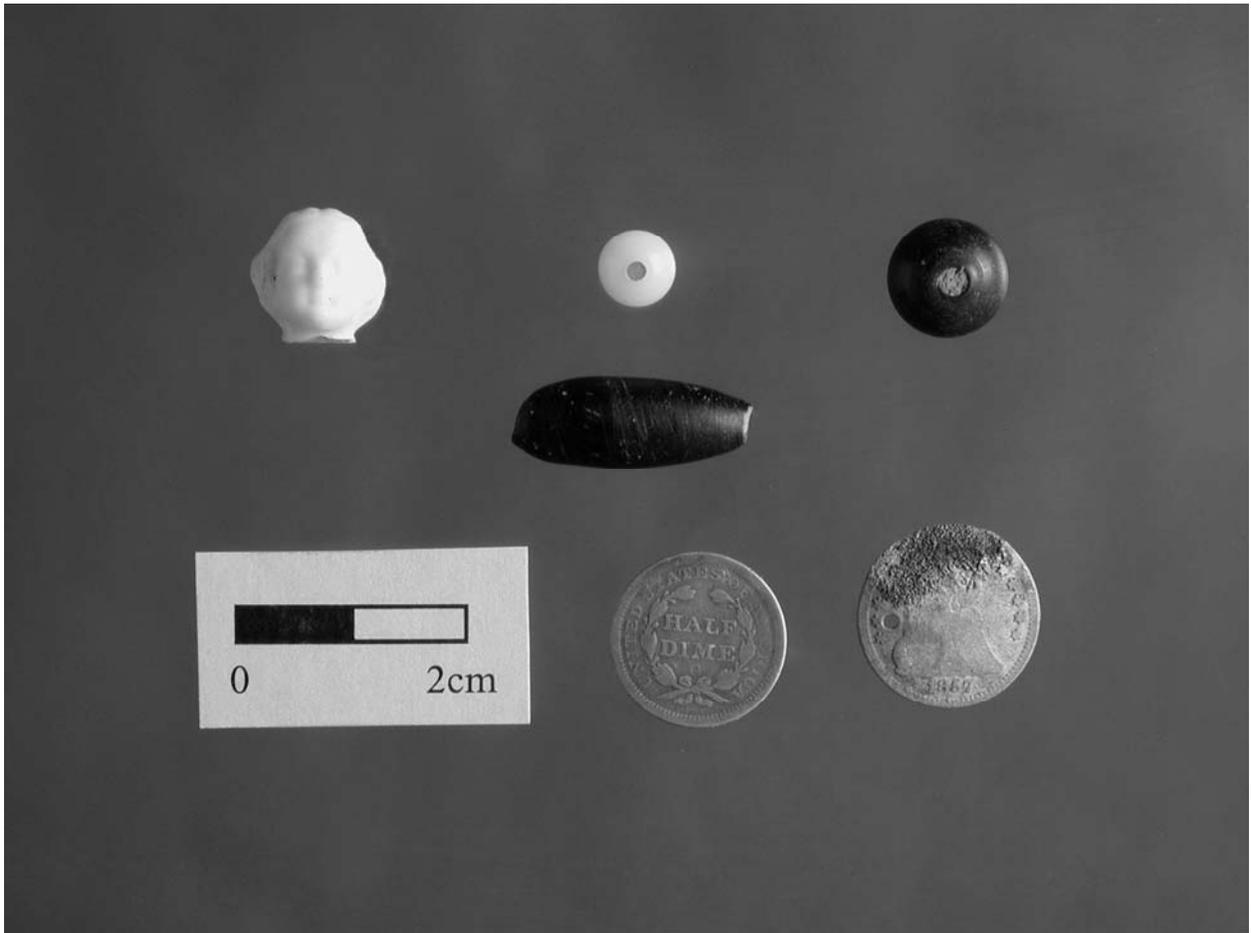


Figure 37. Refugee encampment, beads, doll parts, and half dimes.

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Figure 38. Refugee encampment, x marked button.

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Figure 39. Refugee encampment, hearth remains.

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Figure 40. Refugee encampment, pier remains.

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Figure 41. Home for Colored Refugees, huts area, faunal remains.

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Figure 42. Home for Colored Refugees, huts area, utensils.

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United States Department of the Interior, National Park Service

**Maps, Figures, Photos**

National Register of Historic Places Registration Form

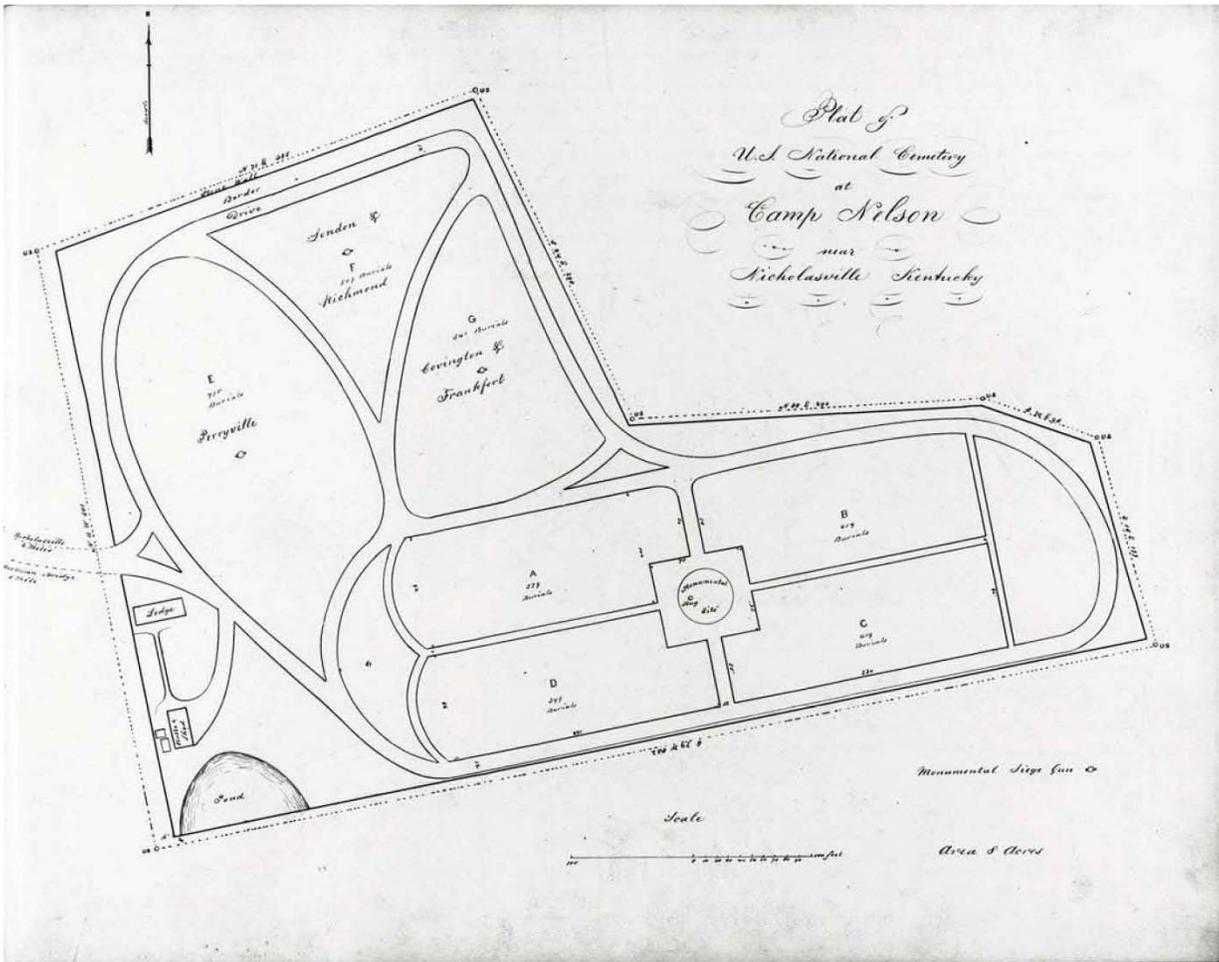


Figure 43. Camp Nelson National Cemetery.

**CAMP NELSON HISTORIC AND ARCHEOLOGICAL DISTRICT**

United States Department of the Interior, National Park Service

**Maps, Figures, Photos**

National Register of Historic Places Registration Form

**National Historic Landmarks****Property Name:** Camp Nelson Historic and Archeological District

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Some information about this property is restricted under law:

National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended, section 304, 16 U.S.C. 470w-3(a)

- *Confidentiality of the location of sensitive historic resources*

**Section 304**

*[16 U.S.C. 470w-3(a) – Confidentiality of the location of sensitive historic resources]*

(a) The head of a Federal agency or other public official receiving grant assistance pursuant to this Act, after consultation with the Secretary, shall withhold from disclosure to the public, information about the location, character, or ownership of a historic resource if the Secretary and the agency determine that disclosure may –

- (1) cause a significant invasion of privacy;
- (2) risk harm to the historic resources; or
- (3) impede the use of a traditional religious site by practitioners.

**CAMP NELSON HISTORIC AND ARCHEOLOGICAL DISTRICT**

United States Department of the Interior, National Park Service

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Figure 45. Noncontributing resources: house, barn, and shed.

**CAMP NELSON HISTORIC AND ARCHEOLOGICAL DISTRICT**

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Figure 46. Noncontributing resources: Interpretive Center.

**CAMP NELSON HISTORIC AND ARCHEOLOGICAL DISTRICT**

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Figure 47. Noncontributing resources: reconstructed barracks.

**CAMP NELSON HISTORIC AND ARCHEOLOGICAL DISTRICT**

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Figure 48. Noncontributing resources: buggy shed/garage.

**CAMP NELSON HISTORIC AND ARCHEOLOGICAL DISTRICT**

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Figure 49. Noncontributing resources: reconstructed Fort Putnum.

**CAMP NELSON HISTORIC AND ARCHEOLOGICAL DISTRICT**

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Figure 50. Noncontributing resources: eastern tobacco barn.

**CAMP NELSON HISTORIC AND ARCHEOLOGICAL DISTRICT**

United States Department of the Interior, National Park Service

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Figure 51. Noncontributing resources: southern office and stock barn.

**CAMP NELSON HISTORIC AND ARCHEOLOGICAL DISTRICT**

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Figure 52. Noncontributing resources: southern tobacco barn.

**CAMP NELSON HISTORIC AND ARCHEOLOGICAL DISTRICT**

United States Department of the Interior, National Park Service

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Figure 53. Noncontributing resources: southern shed.

**CAMP NELSON HISTORIC AND ARCHEOLOGICAL DISTRICT**

United States Department of the Interior, National Park Service

**Maps, Figures, Photos**

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Figure 54. Noncontributing resources: National Cemetery Office.

**CAMP NELSON HISTORIC AND ARCHEOLOGICAL DISTRICT**

United States Department of the Interior, National Park Service

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Figure 55. Noncontributing resources: Hall church.

**CAMP NELSON HISTORIC AND ARCHEOLOGICAL DISTRICT**

United States Department of the Interior, National Park Service

**Maps, Figures, Photos**

National Register of Historic Places Registration Form

**National Historic Landmarks****Property Name:** Camp Nelson Historic and Archeological District

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**PAGE REMOVED****Figure Number:** Figure 56**Page:** Maps, Figures, Photos

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Some information about this property is restricted under law:

National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended, section 304, 16 U.S.C. 470w-3(a)

- *Confidentiality of the location of sensitive historic resources*

**Section 304**

*[16 U.S.C. 470w-3(a) – Confidentiality of the location of sensitive historic resources]*

(a) The head of a Federal agency or other public official receiving grant assistance pursuant to this Act, after consultation with the Secretary, shall withhold from disclosure to the public, information about the location, character, or ownership of a historic resource if the Secretary and the agency determine that disclosure may –

- (1) cause a significant invasion of privacy;
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