

HISTORICAL ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY: NEW RIVER GORGE NATIONAL RIVER AND GAULEY RIVER NATIONAL RECREATION AREA

By

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Kentucky Archaeological Survey
REPORT 143

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Cover photo Dundee industrial remains near Ephraim community, New River Gorge National River

ABSTRACT

This study was undertaken to assess the nature of historical archaeological resources within New River Gorge National River (NERI) and Gauley River National Recreation Area (GARI). Specifically the goals of this study were to (1) document the location, condition, and research potential of a sample of historical archaeological sites within NERI and GARI; (2) conduct limited exploratory archeological investigations of representative historic sites; (3) create sites descriptions, maps and summarize other data (historic maps and photographs, archival records, and secondary resources) relating to these sites; and (4) identify research questions that these historic and other historic resources located in NERI and GARI have the potential to address.

Based on an examination of 20 archaeological sites in the NERI and 15 archaeological sites in the GARI, it is clear that both parks contain a wealth of historic archaeological resources. These sites include, coal towns, lumber towns, farmsteads, houses, cemeteries, schools, transportation related properties, and one possible logging operation and one hospital. Many of the sites in NERI contained multiple property types. Of particular importance are those sites that are the remains of late nineteenth-early twentieth century coal, lumber mining towns and farmsteads. All of these resources represent a slice of the history of not only the New River Gorge and Gauley River, but the growth of the nation. The late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries saw some of the most sweeping changes in the nation's history through the rise of transportation systems, technology, and industrialization which is preserved in the archaeological record in both the NERI and GARI.

A number of recommendations were developed as a result of the study. The majority of the sites are potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places and should be protected with all available means. In order to better define the nature and extent of the archaeological resources, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, it is recommended that a more intensive archaeological survey of the sites be undertaken in conjunction with an historical assessment and cultural landscape inventories. Depending on the results of those surveys, more intense archaeological investigations may be necessary. It is also recommended that public programming be developed for both parks. A multitude of activities can be incorporated into a comprehensive educational program, including site specific interpretative signage, brochures, booklets, public activities including, cultural heritage days, archaeology weekends, curriculum for local teachers. All of this can help preserve the important and dynamic history of the parks.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | |
|--|-----|
| Abstract | ii |
| Acknowledgements | iii |
| List of Figure | vi |
| List of Tables | xvi |
| Chapter 1: Introduction | 1 |
| Chapter 2: Environmental and Historic Background | 9 |
| Chapter 3: Historic Resource Types | 26 |
| Chapter 4: NERI Resources | 34 |
| Ames | 35 |
| Berry Farm/Big Branch Cemetery | 43 |
| Beury | 51 |
| Beurytown | 64 |
| Cadle Ridge | 70 |
| Caperton | 74 |
| Ephraim | 86 |
| Fayette Station | 104 |
| Fire Creek | 112 |
| Glade Creek Burin Martin Farmstead | 122 |
| Hamlet | 132 |
| Hump Mountain | 148 |
| McKendree Hospital | 154 |
| Quinnimont | 173 |
| Red Ash/Red Ash Island | 185 |
| Royal | 197 |
| Secoma/Steinbeck | 216 |
| Sewell Knob | 223 |
| Stonecliff | 233 |
| Thayer Cemetery | 252 |
| Chapter 5: GARI Resources | 259 |
| 1888 House | 259 |
| Albion Cemetery | 264 |
| Arnet Church and Cemetery | 273 |
| Bucklick Chimney | 280 |
| Carnifex Ferry | 285 |
| Clark Cemetery | 298 |
| Copeland Cemetery | 303 |
| Copeland School | 308 |
| Koontz Bridge and Tunnel | 314 |
| Koontz Bend Resources | 320 |
| Legg Farmstead | 336 |
| Milam Grave Plot | 343 |
| Pine Grove School | 348 |
| Sugar Creek Site | 353 |
| Wood's Ferry | 359 |

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

| | |
|---|-----|
| Chapter 6: Prehistoric Survey | 363 |
| Chapter 7: Directions for Future Research | 372 |
| Chapter 8: Summary and Conclusions..... | 383 |
| References Cited | 391 |
| Appendix A: Field and Laboratory Methods | 405 |

LIST OF FIGURES

| | | |
|------|---|----|
| 1.1 | Location of New River Gorge National River and Gauley River National Recreation Area | 2 |
| 1.2 | New River Gorge National River West Virginia..... | 3 |
| 1.3 | Historic archaeological sites visited in New River Gorge National River | 4 |
| 1.4 | Historic sites visited in Gauley River Nation Recreation Area | 5 |
| 1.5 | Prehistoric site survey areas..... | 6 |
| 4.1 | Location of Ames mine complex on 1976 Fayetteville WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map..... | 36 |
| 4.2 | Location of Ames mine complex on 1928 Fayetteville WVUSGS 15' Topographic Map..... | 36 |
| 4.3 | Remains of the Michigan mine ventilation shafts in and around Michigan mine headhouse. | 39 |
| 4.4 | Michigan mine portal near the Michigan mine headhouse | 39 |
| 4.5 | Michigan mine headhouse (see Figure 4.1(1)) | 40 |
| 4.6 | Mine portal and probably cap and powder houses at Michigan (see Figure 4.1(3))..... | 40 |
| 4.7 | Possible well house at Ames mine complex (see Figure 4.1(4)) | 41 |
| 4.8 | Map of Ames mine complex (1959). | 41 |
| 4.9 | Location of Berry Farm and Big Branch cemetery on Hinton WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map | 43 |
| 4.10 | Site map of Big Branch Cemetery and Berry Farm..... | 44 |
| 4.11 | Field stone marker at the Big Branch cemetery | 45 |
| 4.12 | Overall view of Big Branch cemetery (see Figure 4.9(1))..... | 45 |
| 4.13 | Stone line trail near Big Branch cemetery | 46 |
| 4.14 | Foundation at Berry Farm (see Figure 4.9(2)) | 46 |
| 4.15 | Falls at Berry Farm where possible mill was located | 47 |
| 4.16 | Stone pier at Berry Farm..... | 47 |
| 4.17 | Remains of icehouse at Berry Farm..... | 48 |
| 4.18 | Typical Shovel Probe at Berry Farm (SP2) | 48 |
| 4.19 | Location of Beury on 1988 Thurmond WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map | 52 |
| 4.20 | Location of Beury on 1929 Beckley WV USGS 15' Topographic Map | 52 |
| 4.21 | 1945 aerial of Beury..... | 53 |
| 4.22 | View of Beury from North side of New River (Photo on file at the New River Gorge National River Headquarters Library) | 54 |
| 4.23 | Inside of Beury Mansion date unknown (Photo on file at the New River Gorge National River Headquarters Library) | 55 |
| 4.24 | Inside of Beury Mansion date unknown (Photo on file at the New River Gorge National River Headquarters Library) | 55 |
| 4.25 | The Beury Company Store in 1909 (Photo on file at the New River Gorge National River Headquarters Library) | 56 |
| 4.26 | Remains of coke ovens at Beury (see Figure 4.19(2&5))..... | 57 |
| 4.27 | Ruins of the Beury store (see Figure 4.19(4))..... | 57 |
| 4.28 | Remains of terraces at Beury (see Figure 4.19(3)) | 58 |
| 4.29 | Ruins at Beury (see Figure 4.19(1))..... | 60 |

LIST OF FIGURES (Continued)

| | | |
|------|--|----|
| 4.30 | 2002 map of the remains at Beury | 61 |
| 4.31 | Location of Beurytown on 1996 Meadow Creek WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map..... | 64 |
| 4.32 | Location of Beurytown on 1912 Meadow Creek WV USGS 15' Topographic Map..... | 65 |
| 4.33 | Site map of Beurytown | 66 |
| 4.34 | Foundation remains at Beurytown (see Figure 4.31(2)) | 66 |
| 4.35 | Foundation remains at Beurytown (see Figure 4.31(1)) | 71 |
| 4.36 | Foundation remains at Beurytown looking toward modern homes (see Figure 4.31(2))..... | 71 |
| 4.37 | Bridge abutment crossing Meadow Creek to Railroad tracks at Beurytown (see Figure 4.31(3))..... | 72 |
| 4.38 | Location of Cadle Ridge on 1988 Thurmond WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map | 70 |
| 4.39 | Location of Cadle Ridge on 1929 Beckley WV USGS 15' Topographic Map..... | 71 |
| 4.40 | Family visiting area near Cadle Ridge known as Flag Rock (Photo on file at the New River Gorge National River Park Headquarters Library)..... | 72 |
| 4.41 | Concrete building near Cadle Ridge (see Figure 4.38(1)) | 73 |
| 4.42 | Location of Caperton on 1976 Fayetteville WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map..... | 74 |
| 4.43 | Location of Caperton on 1929 Fayetteville WV USGS 15' Topographic Map..... | 75 |
| 4.44 | 1945 aerial photograph of Caperton | 75 |
| 4.45 | Hand drawn map of Caperton by Harold Green 1985 (on file at New River Gorge National River Headquarters library)..... | 76 |
| 4.46 | Tipple incline at Caperton (picture from Vertical file at New River Gorge National River headquarters library) | 77 |
| 4.47 | Chimney remains at Caperton (see Figure 4.40(2))..... | 79 |
| 4.48 | Collapsed structure at Caperton | 79 |
| 4.49 | Standing structure at Caperton..... | 80 |
| 4.50 | Remains of tipple foundations at Caperton (see Figure 4.40(3))..... | 80 |
| 4.51 | Ruins of coke ovens along railroad at Caperton (see Figure 4.40(5)) | 81 |
| 4.52 | Foundation remains in Caperton (see Figure 4.40(2)) | 81 |
| 4.53 | Typical shovel probe profile at Caperton (SP1) | 82 |
| 4.54 | Location of Ephraim on 1988 Thurmond WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map..... | 87 |
| 4.55 | Location of Ephraim on 1929 Beckley WV USGS 15' Topographic Map..... | 87 |
| 4.56 | 1945 aerial photograph of Ephraim | 88 |
| 4.57 | Site map of current resources in Lower and Middle Ephraim | 90 |
| 4.58 | Storage silos near railroad at Lower Ephraim..... | 91 |
| 4.59 | Storage silos at Lower Ephraim and railroad tracks | 91 |
| 4.60 | Foundation remains for the Ephraim tipple in Middle Ephraim..... | 92 |

LIST OF FIGURES (Continued)

| | | |
|------|---|-----|
| 4.61 | Dundee building remains (see Figure 4.54(7)) | 92 |
| 4.62 | Remains of building at Dundee (see Figure 4.54(7))..... | 93 |
| 4.63 | Profile of shovel probe from Middle Ephraim..... | 93 |
| 4.64 | Site Map of Upper Ephraim mining operation | 94 |
| 4.65 | Upper Ephraim, mining industry building remains (see Figure 4.54(1)) | 95 |
| 4.66 | Upper Ephraim, mining industry tipple equipment remains (see Figure 4.54(1))..... | 95 |
| 4.67 | Possible powder house constructed in natural rock outcrop, Upper Ephraim (see Figure 4.57(1))..... | 96 |
| 4.68 | Road cut in Upper Ephraim in mining area (see Figure 4.54(2)) | 96 |
| 4.69 | Tipple remains, Upper Ephraim in mining area (see Figure 4.54(1))..... | 97 |
| 4.70 | Tipple remains, Upper Ephraim in mining area (see Figure 4.54(1))..... | 97 |
| 4.71 | View of New River from Upper Ephraim mining area (see Figure 4.54(1))..... | 97 |
| 4.72 | Ephraim mine portal (see Figure 4.54(4))..... | 98 |
| 4.73 | Upper Ephraim village and mine portal..... | 98 |
| 4.74 | Building remains Upper Ephraim village site (see Figure 4.54(5&6))..... | 99 |
| 4.75 | Foundation remains at Upper Ephraim village site (see Figure 4.54(5&6))..... | 99 |
| 4.76 | Row of house lot remains at Upper Ephraim village site (see Figure 4.54(5&6))..... | 100 |
| 4.77 | Roadway in village, Upper Ephraim (see Figure 4.54(5&6))..... | 100 |
| 4.78 | Mining activity artifact remains, Upper Ephraim (see Figure 4.54(5&6)).... | 101 |
| 4.79 | Artifacts observed in Upper Ephraim village site (see Figure 4.54(5&6)).... | 101 |
| 4.80 | Artifacts observed in Upper Ephraim village site (see Figure 4.52(5&6)).... | 101 |
| 4.81 | Location of Fayette Station on 1976 Fayetteville WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map..... | 105 |
| 4.82 | Location of Fayette Station on 1929 Fayetteville WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map..... | 105 |
| 4.83 | Coal mining structures at Fayette Station (see Figure 4.81(6)) | 107 |
| 4.84 | Structures near the railroad at Fayette Station (see Figure 4.81(6)) | 107 |
| 4.85 | Collapsed house near mine portal Fayette Station (see Figure 4.81(near 1)) | 108 |
| 4.86 | Fan house at Fayette Station mine (see Figure 4.81(3)) | 108 |
| 4.87 | Electric motor car used on bench at Fayette mine (see Figure 4.81 (near 3))..... | 109 |
| 4.88 | Fayette Station mine portal (see Figure 4.81(1)) | 109 |
| 4.89 | Location of Fire Creek on 1988 Thurmond WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map..... | 113 |
| 4.90 | Location of Fire Creek on 1929 Beckley WV USGS 15' Topographic Map..... | 113 |
| 4.91 | Fire Creek depot (photo on file at New River Gorge National River Headquarters library) | 114 |
| 4.92 | Account receipt from minor at Fire Creek (copies on file at New River Gorge National River headquarters library) | 115 |

LIST OF FIGURES (Continued)

| | | |
|-------|---|-----|
| 4.93 | Site map of Fire Creek | 116 |
| 4.94 | Map of houses at Fire Creek (date unknown, copy on file at New River Gorge National River Headquarters library)..... | 116 |
| 4.95 | Foundation remains in Fire Creek (see Figure 4.89(near 1))..... | 117 |
| 4.96 | Coke ovens at Fire Creek (see Figure 4.89(4)) | 117 |
| 4.97 | Stone wall remains at Fire Creek (see Figure 4.89(near 3)) | 118 |
| 4.98 | Masonry foundation at Fire Creek (see Figure 4.89(2)) | 118 |
| 4.99 | Road cut across Fire Creek | 121 |
| 4.100 | Location of Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead on 1989 Prince WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map | 122 |
| 4.101 | Location of Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead on 1929 Prince WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map | 123 |
| 4.102 | 1945 aerial photo of Burin Martin's Glade Creek farmstead | 123 |
| 4.103 | Site map of Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead | 125 |
| 4.104 | House foundation remains at Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead facing west | 126 |
| 4.105 | House foundation remains at Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead facing south..... | 126 |
| 4.106 | Possible outbuilding remains at Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead facing south..... | 127 |
| 4.107 | Possible privy at Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead facing west | 127 |
| 4.108 | Representative shovel probe profile from Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead..... | 128 |
| 4.109 | Location of Hamlet on 1989 Prince WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map | 132 |
| 4.110 | Location of Hamlet on 1929 Beckley WV USGS 15' Topographic Map | 133 |
| 4.111 | 1945 aerial photograph of Hamlet | 133 |
| 4.112 | Drawing of layout of Hamlet by C. Ray (original on file at New River Gorge National River Headquarters library)..... | 134 |
| 4.113 | Hamlet sawmill, date unknown (Photo on file at New River Gorge National River Headquarters library)..... | 136 |
| 4.114 | Logs at Hamlet, date unknown (Photo on file at New River Gorge National River Headquarters library)..... | 136 |
| 4.115 | Wall near log wash at Hamlet, date unknown (Photo on file at New River Gorge National River Headquarters library)..... | 137 |
| 4.116 | Houses at Hamlet, date unknown (Photo on file at New River Gorge National River Headquarters library)..... | 138 |
| 4.117 | Hamlet sawmill and railroad, date unknown (Photo on file at New River Gorge National River Headquarters library)..... | 139 |
| 4.118 | Site map of Hamlet | 140 |
| 4.119 | Structural remains of boarding house at Hamlet (see Figure 4.109(7&8))..... | 141 |
| 4.120 | Remains of log washing pond at Hamlet (see Figure 4.109(1)) | 141 |
| 4.121 | Ruins at Hamlet (see Figure 4.109(5))..... | 142 |

LIST OF FIGURES (Continued)

| | | |
|-------|---|-----|
| 4.122 | Foundations at Hamlet (see Figure 4.109(5)) | 142 |
| 4.123 | Remains of bridge across New River between Glade and Hamlet (see Figure 4.109(6))..... | 143 |
| 4.124 | Representative shovel probe from Hamlet (SP 3)..... | 144 |
| 4.125 | Location of Hump Mountain on 1996 Meadow Creek WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map..... | 148 |
| 4.126 | Location of Hump Mountain on 1912 Meadow Creek WV USGS 15' Topographic Map..... | 149 |
| 4.127 | Hump Mountain mining operation company housing at Claypool (also known as Humco) | 149 |
| 4.128 | Incline at Hump Mountain Coal Company mining operation (on file at New River Gorge National River Headquarters library)..... | 150 |
| 4.129 | Site Map of Hump Mountain industrial remains | 151 |
| 4.130 | Mining operations foundations at Hump Mountain (see Figure 4.125(2))..... | 151 |
| 4.131 | View of mine conveyor incline above Hump Mountain tipple (see Figure 4.125(near 2))..... | 152 |
| 4.132 | Mine conveyor piers above Hump Mountain Tipple (see Figure 4.125(near 2))..... | 152 |
| 4.133 | Location of McKendree Hospital on 1988 Thurmond WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map..... | 155 |
| 4.134 | Location of McKendree Hospital on 1929 Beckley WV USGS 15' Topographic Map..... | 155 |
| 4.135 | 1945 aerial photograph of McKendree Hospital..... | 156 |
| 4.136 | Nursing students at McKendree Hospital (Photo from Vertical file at New River Gorge National River Park Library) | 159 |
| 4.137 | Garage at McKendree (see Figure 4.133(2)) | 162 |
| 4.138 | Standing buildings at McKendree (see Figure 4.133(5))..... | 162 |
| 4.139 | 1928 map of McKendree Hospital and other buildings | 163 |
| 4.140 | Site map of McKendree Hospital remains | 164 |
| 4.141 | Headstone at McKendree cemetery, reads Giustino Iezzi, died Feb 22, 1910..... | 165 |
| 4.142 | Cemetery at McKendree | 166 |
| 4.143 | Foundation remains at McKendree (see Figure 4.133(near 5)) | 166 |
| 4.144 | McKendree hospital front steps (see Figure 4.133(6)) | 164 |
| 4.145 | Artifact scatter on surface at McKendree (see Figure 4.133(near 8))..... | 167 |
| 4.146 | Road cut near McKendree Hospital remains (see Figure 4.133(near 6)) | 167 |
| 4.147 | McKendree Hospital front entrance road and overlook walkway (see Figure 4.133(near 6)) | 168 |
| 4.148 | Front steps to McKendree nurses dormitory or doctor's building (see Figure 4.133(4))..... | 168 |
| 4.149 | Typical shovel probe (SP 3) at McKendree..... | 169 |
| 4.150 | Location of Quinnimont on 1989 Prince WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map..... | 173 |

LIST OF FIGURES (Continued)

| | | |
|-------|--|-----|
| 4.151 | Location of Quinnimont on 1929 Beckley WV USGS 15' Topographic Map..... | 174 |
| 4.152 | Quinnimont rail yard, date unknown (Photo on file at New River Gorge National River Park Headquarters Library). | 175 |
| 4.153 | Remains of Quinnimont Furnace (photo by David Fuerst) | 176 |
| 4.154 | Quinnimont train depot, torn down 1981-82 (Photo on file at New River Gorge National River Park Headquarters Library)..... | 177 |
| 4.155 | Quinnimont site map..... | 178 |
| 4.156 | Foundation ruins at Quinnimont (see Figure 4.150(7)) | 179 |
| 4.157 | More foundation ruins at Quinnimont (see Figure 4.150(7)) | 179 |
| 4.158 | Remains of rock wall at Quinnimont (see Figure 4.150(near 7)) | 180 |
| 4.159 | Shed or possible privy at Quinnimont (see Figure 4.150(near 7))..... | 180 |
| 4.160 | Extant wire fence at Quinnimont (see Figure 4.150(near 7)) | 181 |
| 4.161 | Missionary Baptist Church at Quinnimont (see Figure 4.150(6)) | 181 |
| 4.162 | Coke oven remains at Quinnimont along Laurel creek (see Figure 4.150(4))..... | 182 |
| 4.163 | Possible tipple remains at Quinnimont (see Figure 4.150(1)) | 182 |
| 4.164 | Location of Red Ash/Red Ash Island on 1988 Thurmond WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map..... | 186 |
| 4.165 | Location of Red Ash/Red Ash Island on 1929 Beckley WV USGS 15' Topographic Map..... | 186 |
| 4.166 | 1945 aerial of Red Ash | 187 |
| 4.167 | Red Ash Island panoramic view | 188 |
| 4.168 | Red Ash Island ball field as shown on 1945 aerial | 189 |
| 4.169 | Red Ash Island cemetery (see Figure 4.164(1)) | 191 |
| 4.170 | Headstone at Red Ash Island (see Figure 4.164(1)) | 192 |
| 4.171 | Map of main concentration of burials at Red Ash Island | 192 |
| 4.172 | Possible foundation remains on Red Ash Island..... | 193 |
| 4.173 | Building foundation at Red Ash (see Figure 4.164(near 2))..... | 194 |
| 4.174 | Railroad grade at Red Ash (see Figure 4.164(near 3)) | 194 |
| 4.175 | Stone wall at Red Ash (see Figure 4.164(near 5)) | 195 |
| 4.176 | Location of Royal on 1989 Prince WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map | 197 |
| 4.177 | Location of Royal on 1929 Beckley WV USGS 15' Topographic Map | 198 |
| 4.178 | 1945 aerial photo of Royal..... | 198 |
| 4.179 | View of Prince from Royal, date unknown (Photo on file at New River Gorge National River Park Headquarters Library). | 199 |
| 4.180 | Royal Coal Company Tipple in 1908 (Photo on file at New River Gorge National River Park Headquarters Library). | 200 |
| 4.181 | Site map of Royal..... | 203 |
| 4.182 | Foundation remains at Royal (see Figure 4.176(8)) | 204 |
| 4.183 | Foundations and possible piers at Royal (see Figure 4.176(near 9))..... | 204 |
| 4.184 | Stone wall at Royal (see Figure 4.176(7)) | 205 |
| 4.185 | Another stonewall at Royal (see Figure 4.176(6))..... | 205 |
| 4.186 | Unknown foundation remains at Royal (see Figure 4.176(near 9))..... | 206 |

LIST OF FIGURES (Continued)

| | | |
|-------|--|-----|
| 4.187 | Prince side of Royal operations and earthen ramp for tramway | 206 |
| 4.188 | Earthen ramp on Prince side of New River for Royal tramway | 207 |
| 4.189 | Tipple Remains at Royal (see Figure 4.176(near 3))..... | 207 |
| 4.190 | Shovel probe 1 at Royal..... | 208 |
| 4.191 | Field stone marker at Royal cemetery (see Figure 4.176(near 4))..... | 209 |
| 4.192 | Map of Cemetery at Royal..... | 210 |
| 4.193 | Formal marker at Royal cemetery (see Figure 4.176(4))..... | 210 |
| 4.194 | Kay cemetery at Royal..... | 211 |
| 4.195 | Site map of Kay cemetery | 212 |
| 4.196 | Headstone of Thomas Kay in Kay cemetery | 213 |
| 4.197 | Location of Secoma on 1996 Meadow Creek WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map..... | 216 |
| 4.198 | Location of Secoma on 1912 Meadow Creek WV USGS 15' Topographic Map | 217 |
| 4.199 | Site map of resources at Secoma | 218 |
| 4.200 | Stone piers at Secoma (see Figure 4.197(1)) | 219 |
| 4.201 | Edge of possible log pond at Secoma (see Figure 4.197(2)) | 219 |
| 4.202 | Possible foundation at Secoma (see Figure 4.197(1)) | 220 |
| 4.203 | Possible road bed in Secoma (see Figure 4.197(west of 2)) | 220 |
| 4.204 | Building foundation in background at Secoma (see Figure 4.197(west of 2)) | 221 |
| 4.205 | Location of Sewell Knob on 1988 Thurmond WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map..... | 223 |
| 4.206 | Location of Sewell Knob on 1929 Beckley USGS 15' Topographic Map.... | 224 |
| 4.207 | 1945 aerial of Sewell Knob..... | 224 |
| 4.208 | Site map of Sewell Knob village | 225 |
| 4.209 | General topography of Sewell Knob village showing road cuts (see Figure 4.205(1))..... | 226 |
| 4.210 | View from Sewell Knob village looking toward Thurmond (see Figure 4.205(near 1))..... | 226 |
| 4.211 | Road cut in Sewell Knob village (see Figure 4.205(1))..... | 227 |
| 4.212 | Remains of powder house at Sewell Knob village (see Figure 4.205(4)) | 227 |
| 4.213 | Chimney remains at Sewell Knob (see Figure 4.205(3))..... | 228 |
| 4.214 | Building at railroad grade possibly associated with Sewell Knob mining operations..... | 228 |
| 4.215 | Stone wall at railroad grade possibly associated with Sewell Knob..... | 229 |
| 4.216 | Railroad grade at Sewell Knob | 229 |
| 4.217 | Location of Stonecliff on 1988 Thurmond USGS WV 7.5' Topographic Map..... | 234 |
| 4.218 | Location of Stonecliff on 1929 Beckley WV USGS 15' Topographic Map..... | 234 |
| 4.219 | Coal miners housing at Stonecliff (from "Stone Cliff, West Virginia" by Murray Shuff, on file at New River Gorge National River Headquarters library)..... | 235 |

LIST OF FIGURES (Continued)

| | | |
|-------|--|-----|
| 4.220 | Stonecliff train depot, date unknown (Photo on file at New River Gorge National River Park Headquarters Library). | 236 |
| 4.221 | Site map of Stonecliff | 238 |
| 4.222 | Coal operation foundations at Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(5)) | 239 |
| 4.223 | Remains of masonry piers at Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(11)) | 239 |
| 4.224 | Remains of coke ovens at Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(4))..... | 240 |
| 4.225 | Inside of coke oven at Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(4))..... | 240 |
| 4.226 | Foundation of railroad car turnaround at Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(9)).... | 241 |
| 4.227 | House foundation at Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(8)) | 241 |
| 4.228 | Remains of house at Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(8)) | 242 |
| 4.229 | Powder house at Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(7)) | 242 |
| 4.230 | Masonry pier remains at Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(11))..... | 243 |
| 4.231 | Remains of company store at Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(6)) | 243 |
| 4.232 | Conveyor Incline up to mine at Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(near 5)) | 244 |
| 4.233 | Map of Black cemetery at Stonecliff | 245 |
| 4.234 | Example of headstone from Black cemetery at Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(1&2))..... | 246 |
| 4.235 | Example of headstone from Black cemetery at Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(1&2))..... | 247 |
| 4.236 | View of Black cemetery at Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(1&2))..... | 242 |
| 4.237 | Location of Thayer on 1988 Thurmond WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map..... | 252 |
| 4.238 | Location of Thayer on 1929 Beckley WV USGS 15' Topographic Map..... | 253 |
| 4.239 | 1922 C&O map of area west of Thayer | 254 |
| 4.240 | 1918 picture of meeting at Thayer | 255 |
| 4.241 | Site map of Thayer cemetery | 256 |
| 4.242 | Thayer cemetery (see Figure 4.237(1&2))..... | 257 |
| 4.243 | Upper portion of Thayer cemetery with field stone markers (see Figure 4.237(1&2))..... | 258 |
| 4.244 | View of Thayer from cemetery | 251 |
| 5.1 | Location of 1888 House on 1976 Ansted WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map..... | 260 |
| 5.2 | Location of 1888 House on 1928 Fayetteville WV USGS 15' Topographic Map..... | 260 |
| 5.3 | 1888 House | 261 |
| 5.4 | 1888 House chimney..... | 262 |
| 5.5 | Close-up of 1888 House chimney | 262 |
| 5.6 | Location of Albion cemetery on 1976 Ansted WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map | 264 |
| 5.7 | Location of Albion cemetery on 1928 Fayetteville WV USGS 15' Topographic Map..... | 265 |
| 5.8 | Site map of Albion Cemetery. | 267 |
| 5.9 | Albion cemetery | 268 |
| 5.10 | Grave with unreadable inscription in Albion cemetery | 268 |

LIST OF FIGURES (Continued)

| | | |
|------|--|-----|
| 5.11 | Legg family grave in Albion cemetery | 270 |
| 5.12 | Legg family grave in Albion cemetery | 270 |
| 5.13 | Location of Arnet Church and Cemetery on 1976 Ansted WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map..... | 273 |
| 5.14 | Location of Arnet Church and Cemetery on 1928 Fayetteville WV USGS 15' Topographic Map..... | 274 |
| 5.15 | Arnet Church..... | 277 |
| 5.16 | Arnet cemetery | 277 |
| 5.17 | Headstones at Arnet cemetery | 278 |
| 5.18 | Location of Bucklick Chimney on 1976 Ansted WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map..... | 280 |
| 5.19 | Location of Bucklick Chimney on 1928 Fayetteville WV USGS 15' Topographic Map..... | 281 |
| 5.20 | Site map of Bucklick Chimney site | 282 |
| 5.21 | Bucklick Chimney remains (looking south) | 282 |
| 5.22 | Location of Carnifex Ferry on 1976 Summersville Dam USGS 7.5' Topographic Map..... | 286 |
| 5.23 | Location of Carnifex Ferry on 1914 Winona WV USGS 15' Topographic Map | 286 |
| 5.24 | Patterson house at Carnifex Ferry (Photo on file at the New River Gorge National River Park Headquarters Library | 289 |
| 5.25 | View of Carnifex Ferry (Photo on file at the New River Gorge National River Park Headquarters Library | 289 |
| 5.26 | Carnifex [sic] Ferry plans and profile by the Atlantic and Western Railroad Company (On file at the New River Gorge National River Park Headquarters Library | 290 |
| 5.27 | Site map of Carnifex Ferry | 291 |
| 5.28 | Road leading into Carnifex Ferry | 292 |
| 5.29 | Possible house foundation at Carnifex Ferry | 292 |
| 5.30 | Possible house or tavern foundation at Carnifex Ferry looking south (See Figure 5.27)..... | 293 |
| 5.31 | Possible house or tavern foundation at Carnifex Ferry looking west (See Figure 5.27)..... | 293 |
| 5.32 | Large boulder incorporated into wall of possible mill at Carnifex Ferry (See Figure 5.27)..... | 294 |
| 5.33 | Possible mill foundation at Carnifex Ferry facing east (See Figure 5.27)..... | 294 |
| 5.34 | Road cut in Carnifex Ferry | 295 |
| 5.35 | Road cut across Meadow River from Carnifex Ferry | 295 |
| 5.36 | Artifact found on surface at Carnifex Ferry..... | 296 |
| 5.37 | Location of Clark cemetery on 1976 Ansted WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map | 298 |
| 5.38 | Location of Clark cemetery on 1928 Fayetteville WV USGS 15' Topographic Map | 299 |

LIST OF FIGURES (Continued)

| | | |
|------|--|-----|
| 5.39 | Site map of Clark cemetery..... | 300 |
| 5.40 | Clark cemetery | 301 |
| 5.41 | Inscribed concrete headstone of Burt Clark..... | 301 |
| 5.42 | Location of Copeland cemetery on 1976 Ansted WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map | 303 |
| 5.43 | Location of Copeland cemetery on 1928 Fayetteville WV USGS 15' Topographic Map..... | 304 |
| 5.44 | Site map of Copeland cemetery | 305 |
| 5.45 | Copeland cemetery with fieldstone markers identified | 306 |
| 5.46 | Location of Copeland School on 1976 Ansted WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map | 308 |
| 5.47 | Location of Copeland School on 1928 Fayetteville WV USGS 15' Topographic Map..... | 309 |
| 5.48 | Copeland School site map..... | 310 |
| 5.49 | Copeland School site setting looking west | 311 |
| 5.50 | Possible masonry foundation at Copeland School site looking east..... | 311 |
| 5.51 | Location of Koontz Bridge and Tunnel on 1976 Ansted WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map..... | 314 |
| 5.52 | Location of Koontz Bridge and Tunnel on 1928 Fayetteville WV USGS 15' Topographic Map..... | 315 |
| 5.53 | Koontz Bridge facing west..... | 316 |
| 5.54 | Koontz Bridge from confluence of Peter's Creek and the Gauley River | 316 |
| 5.55 | Koontz Bridge and Tunnel facing north | 317 |
| 5.56 | Koontz Tunnel facing east | 317 |
| 5.57 | Koontz Tunnel facing west | 317 |
| 5.58 | 1910 on eastern end of Koontz tunnel | 318 |
| 5.59 | Location of Koontz Bend Resources on 1976 Ansted WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map..... | 320 |
| 5.60 | Location of Koontz Farmstead on 1928 Fayetteville WV USGS 15' Topographic Map..... | 321 |
| 5.61 | 1945 aerial of Koontz farmstead..... | 321 |
| 5.62 | Road leading to Koontz Farmstead cemetery | 323 |
| 5.63 | Foundation near road to Koontz Farmstead cemetery (looking east)..... | 323 |
| 5.64 | Road cut in Koontz bend..... | 324 |
| 5.65 | Site Map of Chimney Fall..... | 325 |
| 5.66 | Chimney remains looking west..... | 325 |
| 5.67 | Possible cistern in foreground and chimney fall in background..... | 326 |
| 5.68 | Koontz Farmstead site map..... | 327 |
| 5.69 | Koontz Farmstead house looking north (see Figure 5.68)..... | 328 |
| 5.70 | Koontz Farmstead house looking east (see Figure 5.68) | 328 |
| 5.71 | Possible barn at Koontz farm (looking north) (see Figure 5.68) | 329 |
| 5.72 | Koontz Farmstead cemetery planview..... | 330 |
| 5.73 | Koontz cemetery (looking north)..... | 331 |

LIST OF FIGURES (Continued)

| | | |
|-------|---|-----|
| 5.74 | Samuel B. Koontz headstone in Koontz cemetery | 331 |
| 5.75 | Location of Legg Farm on 1976 Ansted WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map..... | 335 |
| 5.76 | Location of Legg Farm on 1928 Fayetteville WV USGS 15' Topographic Map | 336 |
| 5.77 | Site map of Legg Farmstead | 337 |
| 5.78 | Overall view of Legg house site (looking west) (see Figure 5.74)..... | 337 |
| 5.79 | Legg Farmstead house chimney (see Figure 5.74) | 338 |
| 5.80 | Close up of Legg house chimney..... | 338 |
| 5.81 | Remains of Legg farmstead outbuilding (looking east) (see Figure 5.74) | 339 |
| 5.82 | Artifacts on surface at Legg farmstead (see Figure 5.74)..... | 339 |
| 5.83 | Location of Milam Grave plot on 1976 Ansted USGS 7.5' Topographic Map | 342 |
| 5.84 | Location of Milam Grave plot on 1928 Fayetteville USGS 15' Topographic Map..... | 343 |
| 5.85 | Planview map of Milam Grave plot | 344 |
| 5.86 | Milam's grave | 344 |
| 5.87 | Close-up of Ebenezer Milam's Headstone | 345 |
| 5.88 | Location of Pine Grove School on 1976 Ansted WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map..... | 347 |
| 5.89 | Location of Pine Grove School on 1928 Fayetteville WV USGS 15' Topographic Map..... | 348 |
| 5.90 | Site map of Pine Grove School..... | 349 |
| 5.91 | Pine Grove School site looking south..... | 349 |
| 5.92 | Depression (possible privy) at Pine Grove School site (looking south) (see Figure 5.90). | 350 |
| 5.93 | Location of Sugar Creek site on 1976 Ansted WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map..... | 352 |
| 5.94 | Location of Sugar Creek site on 1928 Fayetteville WV USGS 15' Topographic Map..... | 353 |
| 5.95 | Old school on road into Sugar Creek area | 354 |
| 5.96 | Former road or rail bed in Sugar Creek | 354 |
| 5.97 | Road to beach at Sugar Creek..... | 355 |
| 5.98 | Road in Sugar Creek | 355 |
| 5.99 | Road cuts in Sugar Creek..... | 356 |
| 5.100 | Location of Wood's Ferry on 1976 Ansted WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map..... | 358 |
| 5.101 | Location of Wood's Ferry on 1928 Fayetteville WV USGS 15' Topographic Map..... | 359 |
| 5.102 | Crossing at Wood's Ferry | 360 |
| 5.103 | Wood's ferry site tunnel (looking south) | 360 |
| 5.104 | Landing at Wood's Ferry | 361 |
| 6.1 | Beech Run/Flynn Tract Survey Areas | 364 |

LIST OF FIGURES (Continued)

| | | |
|------|--|-----|
| 6.2 | Beech Run Survey Area 1 at northern edge of survey area showing gas well..... | 364 |
| 6.3 | Beech Run Survey Area 1 showing road leading up to ridgetop..... | 365 |
| 6.4 | Beech Run Survey Area 1: Jeep trail | 365 |
| 6.5 | Beech Run Survey Area 1: Another jeep trail | 365 |
| 6.6 | Beech Run Survey Area 2..... | 366 |
| 6.7 | Koontz Survey Area..... | 367 |
| 6.8 | Koontz Bend Survey area | 367 |
| 6.9 | Koontz Bend Survey area | 368 |
| 6.10 | Albion survey area | 368 |
| 6.11 | Sketch map of Albion shove survey area (not to scale)..... | 369 |
| 6.12 | Albion survey area (looking east) | 369 |
| 6.13 | Bucklick Creek surface isolated find | 370 |
| 6.14 | Site map Bucklick Creek isolated find..... | 371 |

LIST OF TABLES

| | | |
|------|---|-----|
| 3.1 | Historic sites in NERI and GARI..... | 32 |
| 4.1 | Historic sites in NERI | 34 |
| 4.2 | Formal Headstones from Chestnutburg Road cemetery | 37 |
| 4.3 | Artifacts Recovered from Berry Farm/Big Branch..... | 49 |
| 4.4 | Formal Headstones from Beury Mountain cemetery..... | 58 |
| 4.5 | Artifacts recovered from Beury | 61 |
| 4.6 | Artifacts Recovered from Caperton | 83 |
| 4.7 | Artifacts Recovered from Fire Creek..... | 119 |
| 4.8 | Artifacts Recovered from Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead..... | 129 |
| 4.9 | Artifacts Recovered from Hamlet | 145 |
| 4.10 | Artifacts Recovered from McKendree Hospital | 170 |
| 4.11 | Formal Headstones from Red Ash Island cemetery | 186 |
| 4.12 | Coal Tonnage Production Figures for Royal Mine..... | 202 |
| 4.13 | Formal Headstones from the Royal cemetery..... | 209 |
| 4.14 | Artifacts Recovered from Royal | 213 |
| 4.15 | Artifacts Recovered from Sewell Knob | 230 |
| 4.16 | Formal Headstones from the Black cemetery in Stonecliff..... | 247 |
| 4.17 | Formal Headstones from the White cemetery in Stonecliff..... | 248 |
| 4.18 | Artifacts Recovered from Stonecliff..... | 249 |
| 5.1 | Historic Sites in GARI | 259 |
| 5.2 | Formal Headstones from Albion (also known as Legg Cemetery #1)..... | 266 |
| 5.3 | Formal Headstones from Arnet Church cemetery | 275 |
| 5.4 | Artifacts Recovered from Bucklick | 283 |
| 5.5 | Formal Headstones from Carnifex cemetery | 287 |
| 5.6 | Artifacts Recovered from Carnifex Ferry | 296 |
| 5.7 | Formal Headstones from Clark cemetery | 299 |
| 5.8 | Artifacts Recovered from Copeland School | 312 |
| 5.9 | Artifacts Recovered from Chimney Fall site | 326 |
| 5.10 | Koontz Family Cemetery | 330 |
| 5.11 | Artifacts Recovered from Koontz | 332 |
| 8.1 | Historic Resources in NERI and GARI | 383 |
| 8.2 | Historic Resources in NERI to be relocated and inventoried | 386 |

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The New River Gorge National River (NERI) is located in the lower New River and encompasses 73,000 acres extending from Hinton, West Virginia downriver 105 km to Ansted, West Virginia. The NERI was designated a National River in 1978. The Gauley River National Recreation Area (GARI) encompasses 26,607 acres extending from Summersville Dam, West Virginia downriver 43 km to Gauley Bridge, West Virginia. The GARI was designated as a National Recreation area in 1988. The National Park Service maintains both parks and the park headquarters are located in Glen Jean (Figures 1.1 and 1.2).

Both parks contain innumerable biological, ecological, mineral and historical resources. This study was undertaken to assess the character of historical archaeological resources within the parks and draws heavily on previously developed historic contexts for the NERI area (Unrau 2002, Workman et al. 2005). These previous works have developed in depth historic contexts for the NERI and have presented foundations for identifying and evaluating historic properties as well as ways to integrate preservation planning into park planning processes (Unrau 2002). In these works, archaeological resources were discussed and in some instances initial evaluations were given. While these works are specific to the NERI, much of the context and some types of resources are also present in the GARI and thus these resources speak to both park areas. More specific to the GARI is Miller (1992). Miller (1992) briefly described the history of GARI, and identified some avenues for future archaeological working the GARI.

Specifically the goals of this study were to (1) document the location, condition, and research potential of a sample of historical archaeological sites within the parks; (2) conduct limited exploratory archaeological investigations of representative historic sites; (3) create sites descriptions, maps and summarize other data (historic maps and photographs, archival records, and secondary resources) relating to these sites; and (4) identify research questions that these historic and other historic resources located in the parks have the potential to address. This information will support the broader park planning process including recommendations for developing or refining historic contexts. These data will also support future planning efforts, academic research, and Section 106 and 110 compliance in the park.

The site selection process began with construction of a base map of the known historic communities or sites within the parks, and consultation with cultural resource specialist David Fuerst. The selected sites were documented, photographed, and mapped. During the course of four weeks of fieldwork, 20 sites in the NERI were examined. These sites consisted of the industrial and domestic remains of coal (n=14), lumber (n=2), agricultural resources (n=2), as well as one cemetery and one hospital (Figure 1.3). For the GARI, during the course of two weeks of fieldwork, 15 historic sites were examined. These 15 sites consisted of the remains of houses (n=3), farmsteads (n=2), cemeteries (n=4), schools (n=2), transportation related sites (n=3), and one possible logging

operation (Figure 1.4). During the course of the GARI fieldwork, approximately 109 acres were surveyed in an attempt to locate prehistoric resources (Figure 1.5).

Unrau (1996) previously evaluated several of the sites or portions of NERI sites examined during the course of this study for their integrity as above ground historic resources. These sites include, the Stone Cliff powder house, turntable ruins and building ruins (Park Structure Number N-056), McKendree Hospital ruins (Park Structure Number N-076), Beury icehouse remains, Fire Creek store and coke ovens ruins, and Quinnimont ruins (Park Structure Number S-055-071). At that time, Unrau concluded that many of

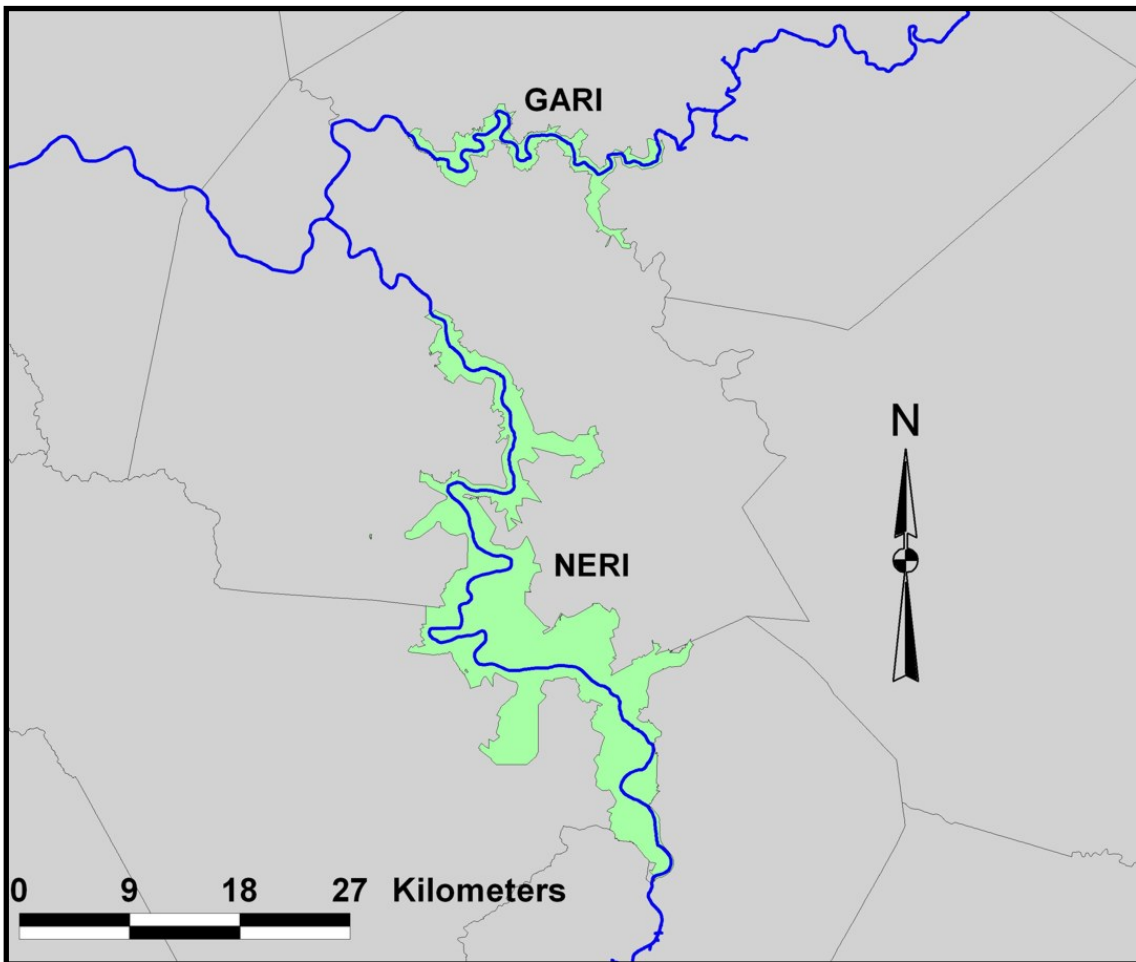


Figure 1.1. Location of Gauley River National Recreation Area (GARI) relative to the New River Gorge National River (NERI).

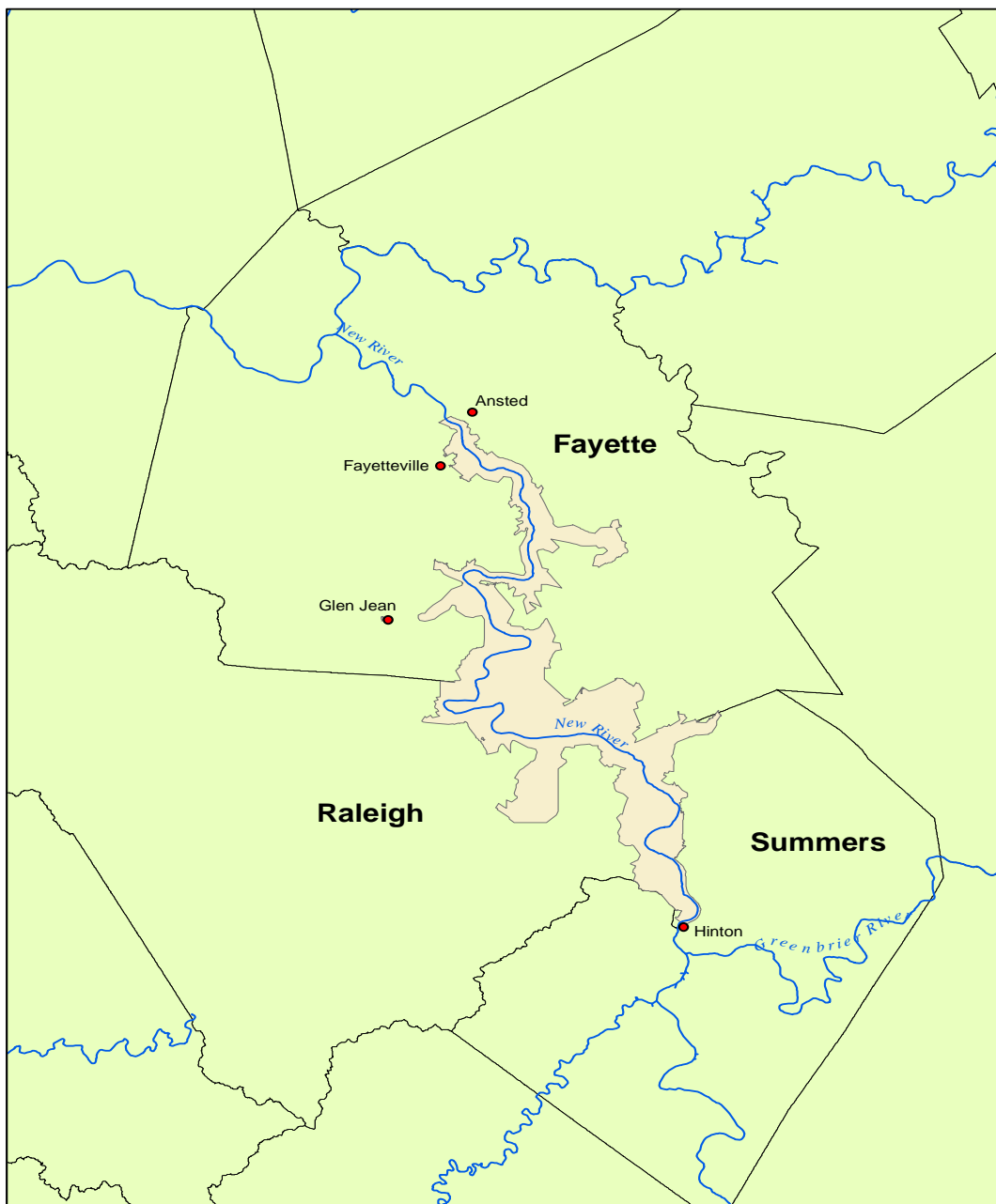


Figure 1.2. New River Gorge National River, West Virginia.

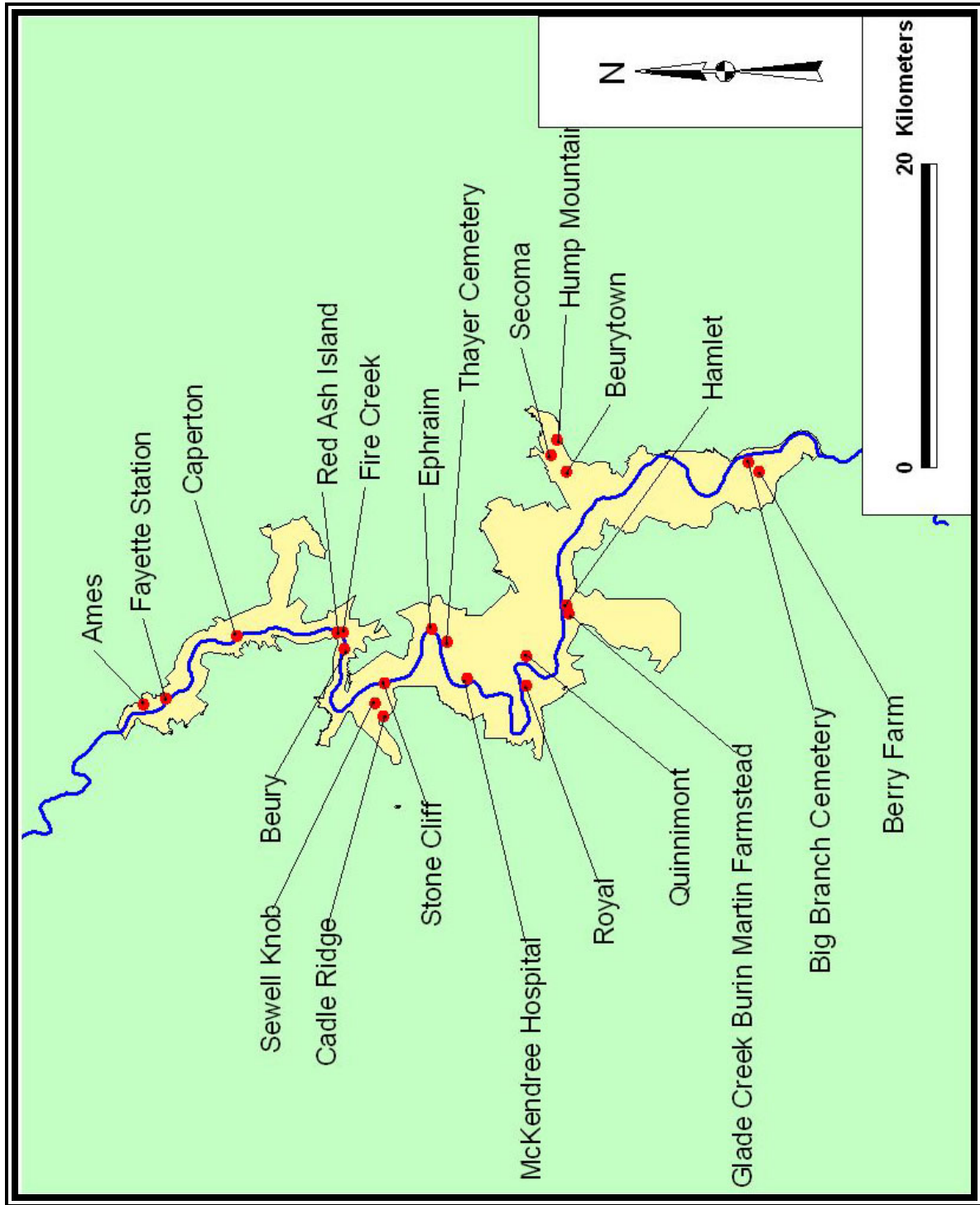


Figure 1.3. Historic Sites visited in New River Gorge National

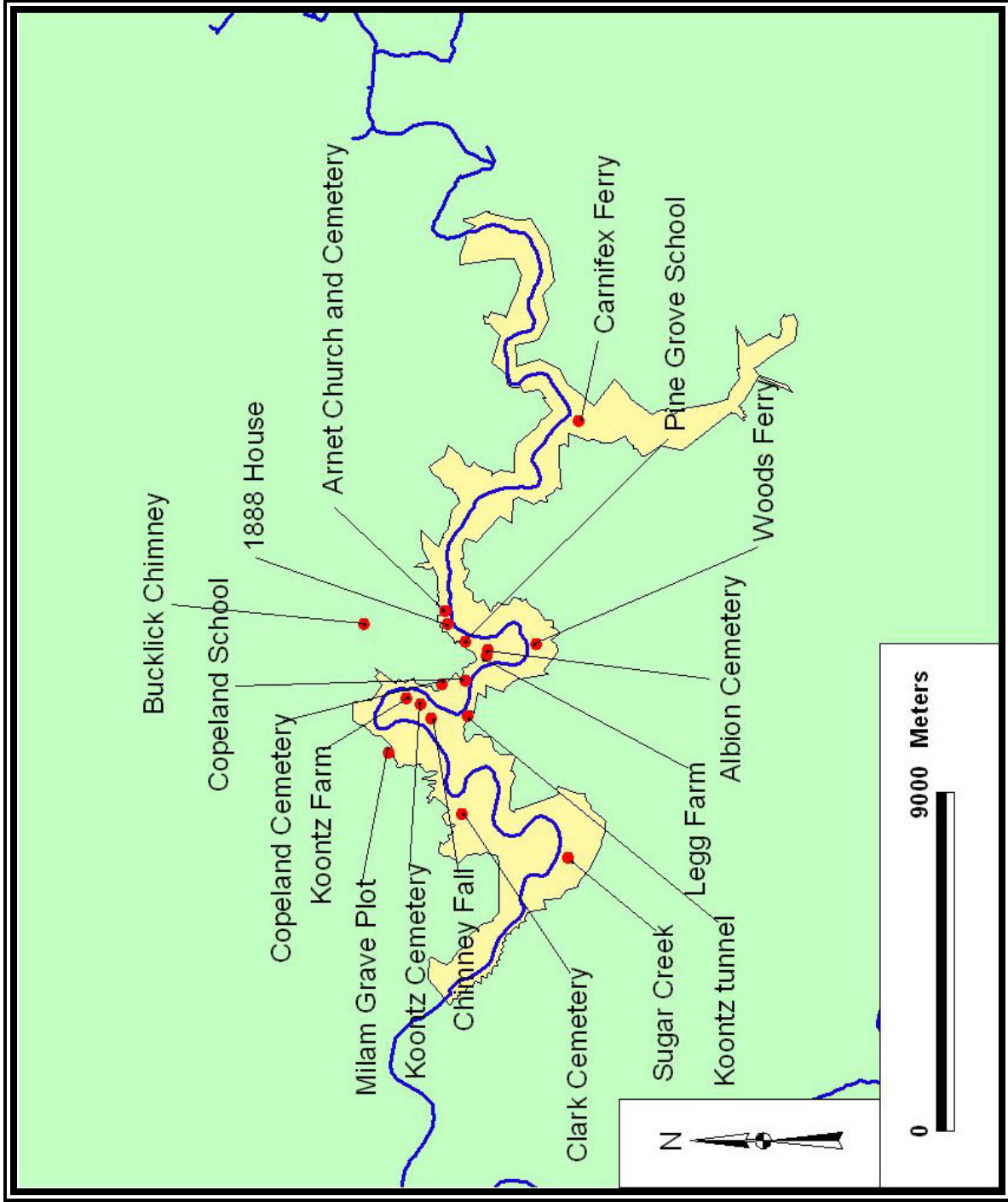


Figure 1.4. Historic sites visited in Gauley River National Recreation Area.

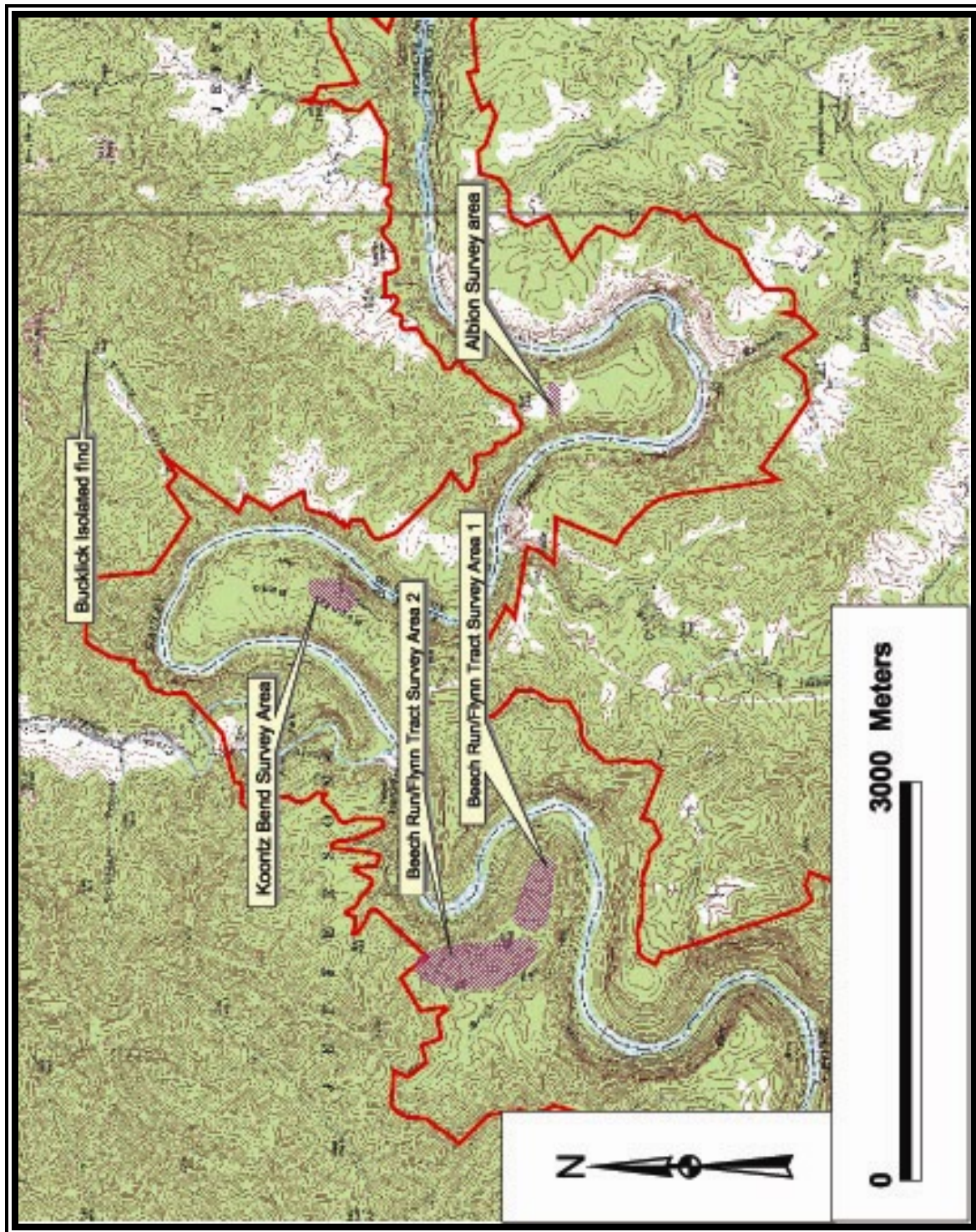


Figure 1.3. Prehistoric site survey areas.

these sites were not eligible for listing in the National Register of historic places. It should be noted, however, that Unrau had not been charged with evaluating these properties for their archaeological integrity (below ground deposits) or their research potential. Workman et al. (2005) also identified many of these sites as cultural resources and ranked them according to their level of significance and integrity. Workman's

decisions on integrity were based on whether a site was a good example of property types defined by Unrau (1996). Since Unrau's property type definitions focus on above ground resources, and do not articulate the archaeological correlates that might be expected at these resources, it is not surprising that Workman et al. concluded that many of these properties had little or no integrity. Several of the sites or portions of GARI sites examined during the course of this study had been previously discussed by Miller (1992). These sites include Carnifex Ferry, Albion, Koontz Bend, and Wood's Ferry. Like the previously mentioned studies, Miller did not assess the National Register eligibility of any of the sites.

When viewed from an archaeological perspective, the fact that an historic site has little or no remaining above ground standing resources is not indicative of its potential to contain significant intact below ground surface deposits. Thus, while Workman et al. may have classified a resource as having little integrity because of the absence of above ground standing structures or only a few of Unrau's property types, in this report the same resource (e.g., Beury) may be considered to have a high potential to contain significant intact archaeological deposits. The site assessments presented in this report specifically evaluates these resources for their archaeological potential. As such, our focus is on Criterion D (scientific data content) of the National Register of Historic Places criteria for eligibility for listing in the National Register. Though some of the properties also may be eligible for listing in the National Register under Criterion A (local history) or Criterion C (architecture).

The inventory of historic archaeological resources requires in-depth historical research. It also involves a long and concerted effort. This study is the first systematic attempt to identify and evaluate the parks historic archaeological resources. Based on an examination of these 35 archaeological sites, it is clear that both parks contain a wealth of largely undocumented historic archaeological resources. Of particular importance are those sites that include the remains of late nineteenth to early twentieth century coal and lumber mining towns and farmsteads. The towns and farmsteads represent a slice of the history of not only the New River Gorge, but the growth of the nation. The late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries saw some of the most sweeping changes in the nation's history through the rise of transportation systems, technology, and industrialization.

Because this era is still 'recent', it remains relatively unexamined, particularly from an archaeological perspective. These invaluable resources represent a unique opportunity to examine archaeologically the rise of industrialism, increased immigration, racial segregation, the explosion of technological advances, among many other subjects, in a relatively short time span. That the properties have been included within the parks boundaries has ensured their long-term protection. As such, not only do they represent an important record of the past, but also future archaeological research at these sites has the potential to contribute to our understanding of the history and development of the industry, technology, labor, immigration, racial constructs, ethnicity, consumerism, and health. Gaining an understanding of these things speaks directly to the park's goal of preservation and interpretation of its historic resources.

The following chapter gives a brief overview of the environmental and geographic history of the NERI and GARI, as well as a discussion of both areas' history. The chapter concentrates on coal mining, the timber industry, and the railroads, the three main industrial forces within the area. Next, property types are defined and archaeological correlates described. In the following chapters, specific attention is given to each evaluated site in the NERI and GARI. These site descriptions include physical descriptions, photographs, historic maps, modern maps, aerial photographs, site maps, archival information if available, artifact analysis, and specific recommendations for each site. The next chapter discusses current research on relevant topics, and sets out goals and priorities for future investigations of these specific sites and others that are similar. The final chapter concludes with management and interpretation recommendations for the treatment of the park's historic archaeological sites.

CHAPTER 2: ENVIRONMENTAL AND HISTORIC BACKGROUND

NEW RIVER PHYSIOGRAPHY AND GEOLOGY

The headwaters of the New River begin at the Blue Ridge summit in extreme northwestern North Carolina. From there the river flows in a northerly direction for 465 km across southwest Virginia and into West Virginia to its confluence with the Gauley River. Below the confluence it is known as the Kanawha River. The “Gorge” of the New River extends roughly from Sandstone Falls (11 km downstream of Hinton, West Virginia) to a short distance above the confluence of the Gauley River, a river distance of approximately 100 km. The course of the river through the gorge is tortuous, containing many boulders and bedrock ledges.

The New River is unique in that it is the only river to cut across the Appalachian Plateaus Provinces in a north-northwesterly direction. Other rivers with their headwaters in this portion of the Appalachian Mountains flow in a southwesterly direction parallel to the Valley and Ridge Province and form the headwaters of the Tennessee River system. The New River owes its unique drainage pattern to the fact that the New and Kanawha rivers are situated within the original valley of the ancient Teays River system that originated more than 250 million years ago (mya). Glacial advances in Ohio, Indiana and Illinois filled the lower Teays River and following deglaciation the drainage was replaced by the Ohio River system (Fridley 1950). It is debated whether the ancient Teays valley, now deeply buried under glacial till in Ohio, flowed westward to the Mississippi River, or flowed northward through central Ohio where it connected to the ancestral Erigan River in what is now the Lake Erie basin (Hansen 1987; Melhorn and Kempton 1991). Notwithstanding the true course of the lower Teays River, the upper ancestral Teays River cut the valley now known as the New and Kanawha rivers.

Flowing from the Blue Ridge Province in Virginia, the New River breaches the Allegheny Front, a prominent geologic feature that runs northeast-southwest approximately along the West Virginia/Virginia border, and enters the Appalachian Plateaus Province. The Appalachian Plateaus Province, which makes up two thirds of West Virginia, is a dissected, northwestward tilting tableland composed of Mississippian- and Pennsylvanian-age sedimentary rocks. The older Mississippian-age strata (345-310 mya) are exposed in the southeast portion of the state but eventually are covered by the younger Pennsylvanian-age rocks (310-280 mya) as the strata dip to the northwest. The differences between these two geologic strata affect the character of the New River valley. For example, the gradient of the upper New River is relatively benign, dropping an average of 0.7 m/km between Radford, Virginia, and Hinton, West Virginia. Downstream from Hinton, however, the river becomes much rougher as it begins cutting through the Pennsylvanian-age formations. From Hinton to Gauley Bridge, West

Virginia, the river drops approximately 2.2 m/km, forming a series of riffles or rapids and pools.

The Mississippian rock formations to the southeast are comprised primarily of ancient near shore, intertidal, and marine deposits of shale, siltstone, smaller amounts of sandstone and limestone, and a few thin beds of coal and associated underclay (Englund et al. 1982:136). These late Mississippian-age strata, known as the Mauch Chunk Group, include the Bluefield, Hinton, Princeton, and Bluestone formations that include the chert bearing Hillsdale member of the group. The Pennsylvanian formations to the northwest are comprised primarily of non-marine, coal-bearing sequences of sandstone, siltstone, shale, and underclay (Englund et al. 1982:136). These early and middle Pennsylvanian-age strata, known as the Pottsville Group, include the Pocahontas, New River, and Kanawha formations. These formations are described in detail below.

The New River Gorge varies from 200 to 450 m in depth. At the rim, it ranges from 1 km wide in the northern part to 1.5 km or more in the southern part. In the northern part, at river level the gorge is less than 200 m wide and is filled mostly by the river channel (Englund et al. 1982:136). Toward the southern part, the valley is broader where the river has cut through the generally softer Mississippian formations. The narrow valley, steep walls, and dense forest coverage make access from the rim to the river difficult in most places. Travel into and out of the gorge by foot within the park boundaries would primarily be through the tributary valleys, including Lick Creek, Meadow Creek, Laurel Creek, and Manns Creek on the right bank (going downstream), and Farley Creek, Glade Creek, Piney Creek, Dunloup Creek, and Wolf Creek on the left bank.

GAULEY RIVER PHYSIOGRAPHY AND GEOLOGY

The Gauley River National Recreation Area (GARI) is situated near the center of several physiographic zones. Because of this unique geographic position, the project area has a relatively complicated natural setting. This portion of the Gauley River valley is highly constricted and the valley walls are characterized by steep to sheer cliff lines. A sense of the constricted character of this part of the valley can be acquired from a view of the abrupt changes in elevation from the river floor to upland settings along the valley. Within a one-kilometer distance from the Gauley River, upland areas rise to elevations of nearly 700 m (2300 ft) AMSL. From the Summersville Dam downriver to its confluence with the New River, the Gauley River descends from an elevation of approximately 410-425 m (1350-1400 ft) to about 230 m (755 ft) AMSL.

Along this constricted portion, the Gauley River has two major tributaries. The Meadow River joins the Gauley from the south at the historic Carnifex Ferry site and farther downstream on the west side of Koontz Bend, Peters Creek empties into the Gauley drainage from the north. Several secondary drainages, such as Ramsey Branch, Laurel Creek and Sugar Creek in Fayette County, and Mason and Bucklick Branches in Nicholas County, are also present in this portion of the River. In this section of the Gauley River, several rapids and falls are present. The first relatively unconstricted area

of the Gauley Basin within the study area is near Swiss, West Virginia, where Laurel and Little Elk creek (Nicholas County) join the Gauley River.

The GARI is situated within two physiographic regions of West Virginia as defined by Outerbridge (1987). The section of the recreation area from the Summersville Dam downriver to about the Sweets Falls and Mason Branch is included in the Allegheny Plateau region. The remaining portion of the study area is situated in the Logan Plateau region. Outerbridge (1987:3) characterizes the Allegheny Plateau as an upland with hilltop elevations between about 550 and 915 m (1800-3000 ft) AMSL. "Relief is low to moderate, generally about 100-400 m [300-1200 feet], with rounded hills and wide flat valleys developed on sandstone of the New River Formation of Early Pennsylvanian age." The surface of the Allegheny Plateau is generally stable and streams have a dendritic pattern. The Logan Plateau encompasses highly dissected portions of Kentucky, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia. Outerbridge (1987:2) states that the Allegheny and Cumberland Plateaus, and the newly defined Ohio and Parkersburg Plateaus, surround the Logan Plateau. Narrow valleys and ridges, with steep gradients and average slopes of about 50 percent characterize the Logan Plateau. Ridges rise to hilltops with elevations generally from 410 to 960 m (1350-3150 ft) AMSL. Streams within the Logan Plateau also have a dendritic pattern but have many straight reaches. The boundary between the Allegheny and Logan Plateaus is defined based on differences in the "deeply dissected sandstone and shale of the Kanawha Formation and the sandstone flats of the underlying New River Formation" (Outerbridge 1987:3).

The Cumberland, Kentucky, and Big Sandy Rivers in Kentucky and, the Guyandotte and Kanawha Rivers in West Virginia drain the Logan Plateau. Farther east, the New and Gauley Rivers join to form the Kanawha drainage just east and south of the Kanawha Black Flint source area. The overriding characteristic of these river valleys is that they are actively down-cutting bedrock formations. Along the lower reaches of these drainages, high rates of sedimentation are evident and with few exceptions, alluvial fill is less than 3 m thick (Outerbridge 1987). In the upper reaches of these drainages, such as the Gauley River valley, slopes tend to be steeper, cutting through underlying sandstones. The Gauley River Basin is typical of streams in the upper portions of the Logan Plateau drainage system in that according to Outerbridge (1987), these streams and rivers are usually steep-sided valleys with little sedimentation occurring along the valley floors. Rivers like the Gauley that traverse bedrock formations have small areas of alluvial deposits along their course. In the Gauley River National Recreation Area, these areas of deposition usually occur where rapids, falls, or stream confluences are located.

Based on a single profile from the sandbar-like area at Ramsey's Branch, it is suggested that because of the steepness of the Gauley River valley and its high rate of flow, these areas of deposition probably represent repeated episodes of flooding and erosion. In any case, such deposition is not dramatic in terms of large amounts of sediments being deposited during a single flooding event like that observed along the lower reaches of the Kanawha River Basin. How these repeated episodes of deposition and erosion affected cultural occupation or use of such areas in the project area is currently unknown.

ENVIRONMENT, FLORA, AND FAUNA FOR THE NERI AND GARI

Modern climatic conditions in West Virginia, like much of central North America, is classified as temperate, affected seasonally by warm, moist air masses from the Gulf of Mexico and cold, dry air from Canada (MacDonald et al. 2001). Mixed Mesophytic forest characterizes the modern taxa regimen in the region of the New and Gauley River valleys. While oak, chestnut, and pine varieties dominate the Mesophytic forest; other varieties, such as beech, tulip, and sugar maple, also are present in significant numbers. Modern forests in the region are secondary growth following deforestation during the late 1800s and early 1900s. Based on observations made during these investigations, these hardwood forests containing moderate densities of undergrowth and large stands of rhododendron on narrow ridges and along exposed cliff lines, characterize upland settings. On the other hand, in lowland settings, mixed hardwoods also were present but with greater densities of evergreen varieties. In these areas, it was observed during the fieldwork phase of these investigations that undergrowth tended to be dense and trees somewhat smaller. Rhododendron and mountain laurel was present in lowland areas where rock fall (or modern rock debris) is concentrated.

While West Virginia was not glaciated during the last glacial episode, climatic conditions were associated with the effects of the colder climate present throughout North America. During the terminal Pleistocene-Early Holocene transition period (ca. 12000-10000 B.C.), tundra like conditions were present in upland areas, but within the major river valleys, mixed forest environments were beginning to become established. During the Hypsithermal (ca. 6000-2000 B.C.), these forests became more diverse and by the end of this period, the environment was essentially similar to that present at the time of contact with Europeans.

TOPOGRAPHY

The topography of both parks can be considered mountainous and forms part of the most rugged land in Appalachia. Plateaus and tablelands, suitable for farming and settlement, characterize the eastern highlands of the New River region. These flat areas are divided by the gorges of the New and Gauley Rivers. The New River gradually drops 750 feet in elevation between Hinton at the south end and Gauley Bridge at the north end. It averages a drop in elevation of 12 feet per miles, resulting in whitewater that provides some of the best sport whitewater rafting and kayaking in the eastern United States. The Gauley River has a steeper drop of 26 feet per mile and is considered on of the most technically challenging rivers to navigate in the United States. The high elevation changes depict the rugged quality of the terrain found in both parks. Much of the land is forested with secondary growth forests. In general, the land is too steep to support large-scale farming or residential development.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The Gauley River and New River valleys are situated in the northern portion of what commonly is referred to as southeast West Virginia. The rivers join and form the Kanawha River. These rivers acted as transportation routes from prehistoric to modern times. Both prehistoric and historic surveys were undertaken during this project. As such, this chapter provides a brief overview of both prehistoric and historic settlement in area. The prehistoric information primarily is derived from Trader's (2003) and Burdin's (1999) prehistoric cultural historic overviews of Summers County, West Virginia and the Middle-to-Lower Ohio Valley respectively. Historic information comes from Workman et al. (2005) and Unrau's (2002) works on the NERI and Miller's (1992) history report on the GARI, as well as numerous primary and secondary resources.

The prehistoric cultural chronology of the Eastern United States is divided into a series of periods that broadly correspond to major shifts in subsistence and procurement strategies, social organization, and settlement-mobility patterns. These periods are the Paleoindian (before 8000 B.C.), Archaic (8000-1000 B.C.), Woodland (1000 B.C.-A.D. 1000), and the Late Prehistoric (A.D. 1000-1700). These periods are linked to distinct material culture styles, such as projectile point morphology, site structure, and ceramic vessel form and decoration. The periods presented below form a general framework for discussing the chronology of the study area. Like the prehistoric periods, the historic era was separated into a series of periods that broadly correspondence to major shifts in economic and transportation developments in the area and throughout the nation. These periods are the Pre-Industrial Period (1798-1873), Industrialization and Boom 1873-1925 and Decline (1925-1962). These periods, both prehistoric and historic, are referred to throughout this report to place the materials recovered into the broad contexts of West Virginia's past.

Prehistoric Sequence

Paleoindian Period (Before 8000 B.C.)

The initial occupation of the southeastern United States probably occurred between 15,000 and 11,000 years ago and is attributed to groups of Native Americans known as Paleoindians. During this period, dramatic climatic change was occurring as temperatures gradually became warmer. This climatic change resulted in the transition from a Late Pleistocene to an early Holocene environment. Spruce and pine boreal forests were replaced by mesic oak and hickory hardwood forests (Lane and Anderson 2001:93). Paleoindian studies along the Cumberland Plateau in Tennessee and Kentucky suggest that this was the time of initial colonization, establishment, and finally the adaptation of Paleoindian populations in the region (Lane and Anderson 2001:98).

Little, if any Paleoindian research has been conducted in regions surrounding the project area. Based primarily on the isolated occurrences of such diagnostic projectile points, McMichael (1968:6) suggests that Paleoindian groups in West Virginia date to at

least 10,000 years ago. Although several of the landforms discussed above are present within the project area, no Paleoindian sites were identified during these investigations.

Archaic Period (8000 – 1000 B.C.)

The Archaic period is associated with the onset of a general warming-and-drying trend marking the beginning of the Holocene (Jefferies 1996:40). The Archaic tradition “is roughly a 7,000 year continuum of cultural development and diversification following the Paleoindian period and prior to the ceramic-bearing cultures of the Woodland tradition” (Smith 1989:29). After the rapid extinction of the megafauna during the terminal Pleistocene, the prehistoric peoples of the Eastern Woodlands had to adapt to a progressively warmer climate and a more diverse environment. Archaic peoples turned from a strategy based in large part on big game hunting and the exploitation of smaller animals like deer, raccoon, turkey, fish, and mollusks instead vegetable foods became an increasingly important part of their diet.

Increasing degrees of economic stability, social change, and a variety of technological innovations generally mark these new adaptations. Because of the length of time and the changing human- environment relationship, this period is customarily divided into three sub periods distinguished by different stone tool kits and related technologies, changes in subsistence strategies, increase in trade: the Early Archaic (8000-6000 B.C.), Middle Archaic (6000-2500 B.C.), and the Late Archaic (2500-1000 B.C.). Archaic sites in West Virginia include the Mill Pond Site (46Me2) Pence Springs Archaeological Complex and the Green Sulphur Springs Site Complex (see Broyles 1964:16, 34, O’Malley 1985:47-49, Pollack and Ison 1983)

Woodland Period (1000 B.C.– A.D. 1000)

Traditionally three changes mark the onset of the Woodland period in the Eastern Woodlands: the introduction of pottery, elaborations in ceremony and ritual, including the construction of burial mounds, and increased sedentism. Like the Archaic Period, the Woodland Period is divided into phases. These phases consist of the Early Woodland (1000-400 B.C.), the Middle Woodland (400 B.C.-A.D. 400), and the Late Woodland (A.D. 400-1000/1200). Fuerst’s (1988) overview of the Woodland period divides the state into five study units based principally on the major river drainages in West Virginia. Fuerst (1988:50) defines the Woodland Period as ranging between 800 B.C. and A.D. 1200. In the Kanawha Basin, Trader (n.d.) has placed the beginning of the Woodland period at 1000 B.C. and the end around A.D. 1000.

Little is known regarding Woodland ceramics in the Gauley River but comparative data exists from surrounding regions. West of the Gauley River in the Kanawha River valley, McMichael and Mairs (1969) defined the Kanawha tradition, which later was refined by Wilkins (1977). Mound and earthwork construction occurred during the early Middle Woodland sub period and that they are related to the spread of Adena manifestations into the Kanawha River Basin rather than connections to the Hopewell

complex culture from Ohio. Woodland sites in West Virginia include, the Pence Springs Complex and Green Sulphur Springs Complex, Site 46Su3, and Mount Carbon Village (46Fa7) (see Applegarth et al. 1978:43, Ison et al. 1985, McMichael (1962, 1965), O'Malley 1985).

Late Prehistoric Period (A.D. 1000 – 1700)

The Late Prehistoric period in West Virginia is referred to as the Fort Ancient tradition. Fort Ancient is distinguished by changing ceramic technologies and dependence on maize, beans, and squash. This period is characterized by large villages containing a central plaza, ringed by houses and enclosed by palisades (McMichael 1968; Sharp 1996:161), otherwise referred to as circular villages. Wide bottomlands along the Bluestone and New Rivers supported large villages, such as the Snidow site and Site 46Su3. Fort Ancient has been divided into several phases, traditions, or foci that are based primarily on distinctive ceramic types (Graybill 1981:25).

Ceramics diagnostic of this period are shell-tempered, cordmarked, or plain, with little decoration. However, incised guilloche designs often have been viewed as the hallmark of Fort Ancient ceramics (Graybill 1981:23). Late Prehistoric diagnostic projectile points are small and triangular and include Madison and Hamilton Incurvate (Justice 1987). Other chipped-stone artifacts include triangular knives, teardrop-shaped endscrapers, drills, and celts (McMichael 1968:41). Subsistence during the Fort Ancient period was dependent upon agriculture and supplemented by hunting, fishing, and plant gathering. Important animals species include deer, elk, and bear (Sharp 1996:178). Therefore, there is little or no evidence of the role agriculture played in Fort Ancient lifeways along the New River Basin.

Contact Period (Ca. A.D. 1600 - 1700)

Little is known about the contact period in West Virginia aside from the presence of European trade goods in a few locations. Several scholars (e.g., MacDonald et al. 2001; Trader 2003) have suggested that this period represents a continuation of Late Prehistoric settlement-subsistence strategies. According to Trader (2003), only a handful of sites in southeastern West Virginia have yielded European trade items. In southeast West Virginia, documented sites that contain European trade goods include the Snidow (46Mc1) (Grumet 1995; Fuerst 2001, 2002; McMichael 1969; Solecki 1949), Sites 46Su3, 46Su9 and 46Su17, and possibly Pence Spring (O'Malley 1985). These sites yielded items, such as glass beads, iron axes, and metal figurines. Other known protohistoric Fort Ancient sites, include Buffalo (46Pu31), Orchard (46Ms61), Clover (46Cb40), and Rolf Lee (46Ms51) (Macdonald et al. 2001). Due to the scarcity of Protohistoric/Contact period sites in West Virginia, it has been suggested that there was a depopulation of the area (McMichael 1968; Graybill 1987). Others suggest that the apparent absence of contact period sites is a reflection of inadequate archaeological survey or visibility of such sites (MacDonald et al. 2001). In any case, linkages between Late Prehistoric people and historically documented groups such as the Shawnee, Delaware, Cherokee, and Iroquois are tenuous at best.

Historic Sequence

West Virginia is the only state wholly within the Appalachia region, an extensive area that extends along the east and west flanks of the Appalachia Mountains from northern Pennsylvania to Georgia. Appalachian studies have long described the mountainous areas of the region as sparsely settled, isolated from major transportation routes and trade, and characterized by an agricultural, subsistence economy until after the Civil War. Only with the construction of railroads into the mountainous areas was the region thrust into the industrial age. This in turn brought capitalists looking for investments and moneymaking endeavors and numerous immigrants to work not only the railroads but also the extractive industries that the railroad made possible. Once the extractive coal and timber industries began to decline by the 1920s from a combination of new technology and resource depletion, the region experienced widespread poverty and out-migration (Eller 1982).

While these studies generally describe the area, more recent scholarship has shown that a nuanced perspective better characterizes the economics, industry, and culture of the area (See Salstom 1994, Conti 1995, Simon 1978, Trotter 1990, Thomas 1998, Weiner 2006, Fones-Wolf and Lewis 2002). Historical archaeological perspectives have also undergone a similar awakening. Employing a distinctly anthropological viewpoint, historical archaeologists use archaeological data in concert with archival data, oral histories, and the documentary record to further a nuanced examination of their subjects. By doing this, historical archaeologists are able to address more in depth and sophisticated relationships and theoretical questions. Archaeological studies of resources within the parks are particularly suited to examine these in depth, multivariate relationships between the industries, communities, ethnic groups and economic classes.

A brief chronological framework for the area is presented below. Because the majority of the resources examined for this project date to the industrialization of the area, the framework addresses the history of the area through the boom and decline of the triumvirate of the post-Civil War lumber, coal, and railroad industries.

Pre-Industrial Period: 1798-1873

This long era in West Virginia is generally characterized by initial settlement by Euro-Americans, slow population growth, and subsistence farming. Neither the New nor Gauley River areas were conducive to large agricultural endeavors or plantations that characterized other more eastern states. Although isolated, trade was still important. Trade relies upon transportation and the ability to move goods and people from place to place. During this period, great advancements were made in transportation in West Virginia, most through construction of railroads through the state and more specifically through the New River Gorge.

In the early half of the eighteenth century, European settlement in present day West Virginia was sparse. European presence was mainly in the form of exploration of the Appalachian region such as the Batts and Fallam expedition of 1671. In 1744, Virginia officials purchased Iroquois lands in West Virginia. The results of the French and Indian War (1755-1763) gave the English all of the French lands in North America. While hostilities with the French ceased, Native American groups continued to resist English settlement. European settlers in West Virginia continued to be attacked until the end of the Revolutionary War in 1782.

The first known English settlement in Fayette County and in Nicholas County occurred between 1773 and 1775. Major William Morris first settled in Fayette County at Cedar Grove in 1774 but in 1775, resettled on Peters Creek near the Gauley River in Nicholas County. In 1786, the Koontz Wagon road was opened from Lewisburg to the Kanawha near the juncture of Rich Creek at Jodi, West Virginia (Ison et al. 1985). Aside from Morris' settlement at Peters Creek, the first recorded settlements near or in the project area of the Gauley River valley were at present-day Peters Creek, Carnifex Ferry, and areas between Gauley Bridge & Swiss between 1778 and 1786 (Nicholas County Historical and Genealogical Society 1985). Fayette and Nicholas Counties were created in 1831 and 1818, respectively, by acts of the Virginia General Assembly. Settlement of areas around the project area (Fayette and Nicholas Counties) continued relatively uninterrupted until the beginning of the Civil War in 1861.

Transportation

Early surveyors agreed that the New River offered a natural transportation route to the west because it was the only adequate waterway that completely penetrated the Appalachian Plateau from New York to Chattanooga. However, the many rapids and falls along the New River as well as its narrow passage between Cotton Hill and Gauley made dependable navigation along its route nearly impossible.

Before the Civil War, efforts had been made to fund the construction of a railroad line connecting the western region of Virginia (now West Virginia) to the eastern cities of Virginia. The goal was to link transportation to salt furnaces in the Kanawha Valley. In 1853, Virginia authorized the construction of a railroad, the Covington and Ohio, from Covington, Virginia through the New River Gorge to the Ohio River. This railroad was organized as an extension of the Virginia Central, which had been incorporated in 1850 as the successor of the Louisa Railroad, which had received its charter in 1836 (Unrau 1996:55). Then, in 1861, war began and although some construction was completed during the first year of the war, increased hostilities in the area stopped the railroad expansion project (Unrau 1996:55). Before and during the Civil War efforts were made to make the New River more navigable using bateaux boats.

Almost immediately after the war ended, efforts again turned to the construction of a railroad. The plan was to connect the Virginia Central near Covington, Virginia to the Ohio River near the mouth of the Great Kanawha River via the Greenbrier and New Rivers (Workman et al. 2005:48).

To help with the cost of construction, in 1867 the commonwealth of Virginia and the state of West Virginia appointed commissioners to enlist capitalists to secure financial aid. However, it was not easy to find investors willing to put money into such a risky and expensive endeavor. In August of that year, the Virginia Central Railway Company contracted to take the construction through the New River Gorge. After this, the name of the railroad was changed to the Chesapeake and Ohio (Workman et al. 2005:48).

The construction work was divided into six districts: Allegheny, Greenbrier, First New River, Second New River, Kanawha, and Western. The section along the New River was so difficult that it was divided into two sections (Unrau 1996:55). Most of the laborers on the project were newly freed slaves from Virginia, while many of the workers on the Engineering Corps were retired officers from both the Confederate and Union armies (WVa-USA.com 2001). The construction of the line through the New River was a major engineering challenge (Unrau 1996:56), but was eventually completed by 1872.

Industry

Salt was the first West Virginia mineral industry to be developed. In 1797, Elisha Brooks erected the first salt furnace in the Kanawha Valley at the mouth of Campbell's Creek. He produced as much as 150 bushels of salt a day and sold it to settlers to be used for curing butter and meats. By 1808, David and Joseph Ruffner succeeded in drilling to 59 feet, where they secured a good flow of strong brine. Also in that year, the first salt was shipped west, by river, on a log raft. A younger Ruffner brother, Tobias, suspected that a vast saline reservoir existed under the Kanawha Valley and, drilling to a depth of 410 feet, tapped an even richer brine. This discovery set off a veritable frenzy of drilling and by 1815 there were 52 furnaces in operation in the "Kanawha Salines", many using enslaved African Americans for labor. In 1817, David Ruffner experimented with the use of coal in his furnaces, and soon all saltmakers had switched from wood to coal. Salt production reached its peak in 1846, yielding 3,224,786 bushels that year. At that time, the Kanawha Valley was one of the largest salt manufacturing centers in the United States. In 1861, the Kanawha Valley was flooded and the Civil War signaled the decline of the salt industry in the area (Eggleston 1996). While no industrialized salt manufacturing sites are present in NERI, the salt industry used both timber and coal, two resources plentiful in the region.

Timber

Individual settlers, who either harvested the timber they needed or purchased it from small-scale loggers, did the first logging in West Virginia. The salt industry also used vast amounts of timber as fuel to extract the salt from water. By 1835, at least two sawmills were operating in Fayette County, but timber cutting on a large scale for commercial use did not begin until 1885 (Peters and Carden 1926:315).

The topography of Fayette County promotes the growth of valuable forests, especially in the lowlands along the Gauley and Great Kanawha Rivers. Here, prized tree species such as yellow poplar, black and white walnut, white and red oaks, sweet buckeye, basswood, cucumber and white ash grow plentifully. Other, less valuable tree species, such as sweet gum (liquidambar), sycamore, river birch, and honey locust are common too. Maples, white oak, and beech grow in the higher areas while hemlock thrives along waterways and pitch and scrub pine grow on the dry ridges and sandstone outcrops (Peters and Carden 1926:313).

Loggers used crosscut saws first, but they were inefficient and labor-intensive. Before long, water-powered cutting mills were constructed. Around 1777, the circular saw was invented and along with the invention of the steam engine, processing mills began to appear across West Virginia.

Coal

Like timber, coal was known and used during the early periods of West Virginia's history. Although coal was known to occur throughout most of West Virginia (53 of the 55 counties in West Virginia contain coal seams (West Virginia Office of Miners' Health Safety and Training 2003). These seams were not intensively mined until the mid-nineteenth century. A variety of factors contributed to this delay. First, timber was plentiful throughout the region, so there was little incentive to mine coal for heating or power production. In addition, few manufacturing industries in the area needed coal for power. Finally, there were very few roads through the mountains; the roads that did exist were frequently little more than dirt paths. Without roads, transportation of large amounts of coal was not economically feasible.

The earliest record mentioning the presence of coal in West Virginia comes from John Peter Salley, who, in 1742 left his home in Augusta County to explore the lands west of the Allegheny Mountains. While traveling along a tributary of the Kanawha River, he noticed an outcropping of coal and subsequently named the tributary the Coal River (Peters and Carden 1926:252; Eggleston 1996).

Although the coal of West Virginia was first discovered in 1742, an effective exploration of the coal deposits did not occur until nearly a century later. In 1835, Dr. Samuel P. Hildreth of Marietta Ohio published an account of the deposits within some small mines in Siliman's "Journal of Sciences" (Peters and Carden 1926:252). This analysis caught the attention of Professor William B. Rogers, the foremost geologist of Virginia, who, in 1836 visited the mines (two of which were the Big and Little Sewell Mines) and analyzed the coal in eight counties (Harrison, Monongahela, Taylor, Fayette, Mineral, Grant, Preston, and Kanawha) in West Virginia (Peters and Carden 1926:253; West Virginia Office of Miners' Health Safety and Training 2003).

Before large-scale mining began, West Virginia coal was used only by local crossroads blacksmiths or by settlers whose cabins were located near the outcrops

(Callahan 1913). In 1810, the residents of Wheeling began to use coal to heat their homes. In 1811, the New Orleans, a steamboat of the Ohio River, became the first to use coal that the captain, Nicholas Roosevelt, had discovered on the banks of the Ohio River two years earlier (Callahan 1913; West Virginia Cyclopedia 2006). In 1817, coal was discovered in the upper portions of the Great Kanawha Valley and began to replace charcoal as the fuel source for many Kanawha Valley salt furnaces. Previously, timber had been used, but intensive logging for the salt furnaces had left all the nearby hills stripped and the timber supply exhausted. In that same year, John P. Turner of Pittsburgh opened a mine at Burning Springs Run, two miles above the town of Malden, and signed a contract with one of the salt companies. Other salt companies began adopting coal as a better fuel source and soon it was all that was used (Peters and Carden 1926:253).

By 1840, the total coal production of West Virginia was 300,000 tons, 200,000 of which were used in the Kanawha salt furnaces. The residents of Wheeling used the rest to heat their homes (Callahan 1913; Eggleston 1996; Peters and Carden 1926:253).

As the salt industry waned the mining of cannel coal rose to prominence with the investment of foreign capital attracted by Rogers' report. Between 1840 and 1860, many coal companies were organized and corporations were created to encourage financial investments from foreign countries. Between 1848 and 1856, several companies were operating on the Kanawha River. By 1857, two corporations, the Crescent Coal Company and the Mount Carbon Mining Company, were operating in Fayette County (Peters and Carden 1926:254). This growth was interrupted by the outbreak of the Civil War. During the war, many mines closed in the Kanawha Valley and locks and dams along the river were destroyed when the Confederate Army set up camps (Eggleston). Other mines, such as those in the Elkins and Fairmont fields remained active, providing coal for the Union army via the Baltimore and Ohio (B&O) Railroad. This coal was used in Union army locomotive engines and for heating homes in the east (Eggleston 1996).

Civil War

Two major Civil War incidents occurred in or near the Gauley River National Recreation Area – the burning of the Gauley Bridge by retreating Confederate troops in 1861 and the Battle of Carnifex Ferry in September of 1861. The burning of Gauley Bridge occurred on July 17, 1861 after Confederate forces learned that Union troops in the area were soon to be re-enforced and the Confederates were short of ammunition. Confederate Brigadier General Henry Wise retreated by way of Gauley Bridge and burned the bridges as he left. The Battle of Carnifex ferry also occurred in the early days of the Civil War on September 10, 1861. Union troops led by Brigadier General William S. Rosecrans advanced against the Confederates camped on Henry Patterson's farm overlooking Carnifex ferry. The Confederates retreated across the Gauley River during the night. The battle marked the failure of the Confederates to regain control of the Kanawha valley and allowed the movement for West Virginia statehood to proceed without major interference from the Confederates (See McKinney 1988).

Industrialization and Boom: 1873-1925

The New River Gorge experienced great change with the coming of the Chesapeake & Ohio Railroad through the gorge in 1873. The era saw the rise of industry encouraging many immigrants to move to the area. The boom in industry led to the growth of nearby urban centers and introduction of new technologies into the area.

Transportation

After the Civil War, the development of railway systems catalyzed an industrial revolution. Rail lines opened communication with world markets and attracted capital to exploit the plentiful coalfields and timber loads in West Virginia generally and in the New River Gorge specifically (Peters and Carden 1926: 243). The Chesapeake and Ohio (C&O) was the first major railroad in southern West Virginia to link the Atlantic coast with the Midwest agricultural region and its completion transformed the New River Gorge from wilderness into one of the world's most important coal mining regions (Unrau 1996:52; NewRiverWV.com 2006). Many coal fields owed their success to the C&O. As the railway expanded its spur lines up Laurel and Piney creeks, for example, coal became more accessible and more easily available for marketing. As a result, the extractive industries in the New River valley prospered.

Railroad Development

The main line of the C&O Railroad nearly bisects Fayette County in a northeast-southwest direction following the Kanawha and New River valleys. The line is mostly double tracked and runs for 57 miles in Fayette County. The first coal was shipped over the C&O from Quinnimont mine in September 1873. By the end of the nineteenth century, coal became the commodity of greatest importance to the C&O and the line became the world's greatest coal carrier (Unrau 1996:52). After the completion of the main line, several smaller branch lines were constructed up the larger tributaries of the Kanawha and New Rivers to tap the extensive coal fields (Peters and Carden 1926:245).

Although the C&O was the main line through West Virginia, several smaller rail lines and branches were constructed. Like the main C&O line, these other rail lines also stimulated the economic growth of West Virginia. In 1890, the C&O began constructing the first branch line in the New River Region (Unrau 1996:64). However, the earliest short rail line of the C&O's main line was built in 1863; it was a short feeder line that was constructed 1.5 miles up Laurel Creek by the Low Moor Iron Company's for its iron furnace at Quinnimont (Eller 1982, Workman et al. 2005:54). After 1890, however, major branch lines were built wherever there was access off the main trunk to coal deposits. Some branches were constructed by the C&O, while others were built by coal and timber companies and later taken over by the railroad companies. Other branch lines were jointly owned and/or operated; others still were constructed as independent competitors with the C&O but were eventually absorbed by it (Workman et al. 2005:54).

The C&O board of directors constructed the Gauley Branch in 1893-1894. The line extended eight miles from Gauley Junction north along the Gauley River. In September 1904, an extension was completed to Caterboro; later, in 1916, the line was extended to the Gauley and Rich Creek Subdivision (Unrau 1996:65). It was an important freight feeder for the main line and it transported large quantities of lumber and coal (Peters and Carden 1926:246).

In 1888-1889, the C&O constructed a bridge over the New River at Thurmond that enabled an early section of this branch from Arbuckle Creek to connect with the C&O mainline at Thurmond. Approximately five miles of this branch became part of the south mainline after the mainline bridge was built near Sewell in 1907 (Unrau 1996:65).

The Loup Creek Branch was completed by the C&O in 1893-1894 and is often called Dunloup Creek to distinguish it from the Loup Creek. It extended 11 miles from Southside Junction opposite Thurmond to Glen Jean and to Macdonald across from Mount Hope, WV. (Unrau 1996:66).

The Laurel Creek was the site of early spur line development in the New River area. In 1873, almost as soon as the C&O was completed, the Low Moor Iron Company constructed a 1.5-mile rail line from Quinnimont on the C&O mainline up Laurel Creek to its mines above the river. In 1890, a branch line was extended 4.8 miles to Brownwood to tap the coal mining operations. On January 1, 1899, C&O made an agreement with the Quinnimont Coal Company to take over operation of the railroad when the company went into receivership. On June 30, 1902 the coal company resumed operation of the railroad and began extending it to Layland. The extension was completed in 1904, making the branch 6.3 miles in length and ascending 900 ft on a continuous grade. On January 1, 1905 the C&O began operating the line as its Laurel Creek Branch with the understanding that the railway company would change the main line rates for transporting the coal from the mines, the majority of which were located in the Fire Creek Seam. Since January 1, 1905, the C&O has operated the line as its Laurel Creek Branch. To this day, the branch is still in place, but the mines are now inactive (Huddleston 1993; Unrau 1996:67).

Industry

This period includes the rise of industry and its golden age within the New River Gorge. Companies prospered, continued to extract their products from the land, and contributed to the continued growth of a service economy in nearby towns. Prosperity helped immigration remain high. Even though jobs were available, workers began to attempt unionization.

Timber

Large-scale timbering was only possible after the railroads were built to haul the lumber to regional markets. In 1852, the B&O had completed a line through Wheeling. In 1873, the C&O finished its line through the New and Kanawha River Valleys to Huntington. At this time, the railroad tycoons would not risk extending the lines any deeper into the rugged West Virginia forests; however, smaller, in-state capitalists did. Senators Johnson Newlon Camden, Henry G. Davis, and Stephen B. Elkins financed smaller railroad systems that branched from the main lines into the forest interior (Ward 1996).

Until the invention of the coal-fired, steam-powered Shay-gear locomotive, only rod locomotives were available to the logging industry. Throughout the 1870s, the industry relied on rod locomotives, very rigid vehicles that required a well-graded and well-laid track to operate, not something easily created in the New River valley. As a result, logging lines were costly and developed slowly. The invention of the Shay-gear locomotive made it possible to operate the locomotive on track that was no better than that formerly used by animal-powered tramways. In 1909, at the peak of the lumber operations, 83 band sawmills and 1441 other lumbering establishments were operating in the state.

Coal

Many of the coalfields of West Virginia (including those along the New River) owed their success to the C&O Railroad. As the railway expanded its lines, the coalfields became more accessible, coal became more available for marketing, and the coalfields prospered (Peters and Carden 1926:258). The heyday of the coal industry in West Virginia lasted from the 1880s to the beginning of the 1920s.

Colonel Joseph L. Beury opened and operated many of the New River mines. He became the manager of the New River Coal Company, the first coal company organized in the New River Coal Field. In September 1873, Beury operated the Quinnimont mines with Jenkins Jones and John Freeman. That same year, the first steam coal was shipped from the mine. Next, Beury went to Fire Creek and opened a mine in 1876; from there, he went to Hawk's Nest and opened a mine. Beury temporarily operated what are now the Gauley Mountain Coal Company's Ansted mines. After this, he opened the Caperton Mine with John Cooper in 1880. Beury also opened mines at Echo, now known as Beury, in 1881; in 1876, he opened a mine at South Caperton. Beury's sons opened the Cadle Ridge mine (Peters and Carden 1926:258).

The production of coal rose quickly. In 1863, West Virginia produced 444,648 short tons of coal. Ten years later when the C&O railroad opened, mines in the state produced 1 million short tons. In another ten years, production increased to 2,335,833. In 1893, mines in West Virginia produced 10,708,578 tons; in 1903 they produced 29,337,241 (Callahan 1913). By 1924, coal production had reached 156,570,631 tons.

Decline 1925-1962

As the demand for coal was slowing, the increased mechanization of the coal industry reduced the number of miners needed. The process began in the 1890s and progressed slowly, but steadily. At first, miners were concerned that the machines would replace them (which they eventually did) and coalmine operators did not want to pay for the expensive equipment (West Virginia Geological and Economic Survey 2007). As new methods and machines were introduced, however, they came into greater use and by 1925 West Virginia led the nation in the production of machine loaded coal. In the 1930s, machine mining became even more economical and productive. As a result, mechanization greatly increased once again. By the 1950s, 95 percent of West Virginia coal was machine cut and 85 percent was machine loaded. By this time, one coal miner operating one machine could produce as much coal as 4 to 7 miners using picks and shovels (West Virginia Cyclopedia 2006).

As the coal operations in the gorge played out and the C&O turned from steam to diesel locomotives, the region's socioeconomic forces changed. People left the area, human activity declined, and forests reclaimed the mountain slopes. The branch rail lines and many of the structures associated with the operation of the C&O mainline were no longer needed and fell into disuse and decay. Virtually the entire track on the branch lines has been removed, leaving only remnants of rail line cuts, embankments, trestles, and culverts. Many of the early railroad structures associated with the operation of the C&O mainline that are no longer needed for modern rail operations have been razed. While the C&O Railroad remains, its functions have changed. Nevertheless, it is still the primary access to many parts of the gorge and for the foreseeable future will remain the primary freight transportation artery through the region (Unrau 1996:75).

By 1920, most of the virgin timber was gone and the lumber industry began a steady decline. By the 1950s, production had dropped to about 1/4 the production in the pre-World War I era. Otis K. Rice, in *West Virginia: A History*, notes that "In spite of efforts at reforestation and conservation, timbering and related industries, like coal mining and other extractive industries, left a legacy of depleted resources, scarred terrain and fleeting prosperity."

Ronald L. Lewis, in a series of articles about the effects of the timber industry on the environment and people states that

Then, with the trees gone, the railroads pulled up their tracks and left the newly market-dependent mountain population stranded. When it was all over, the countryside was a forlorn sea of stumps, industrial refuse and commercially devastated people... (Ward 1996).

Even worse, after the trees were logged, their branches and tops were stripped and left on the forest floor. The tiniest spark could ignite this dry timber and because it was everywhere, huge infernos could (and repeatedly did) sweep the countryside. In 1908 alone, 710 fires burned more than 17 million acres, or 1/10 of the entire surface of West

Virginia and 1/5 of the forested area. In addition, the fires destroyed the deep humus soils and many areas in the higher elevations were reduced to bare rock. In a 1911 report for the West Virginia Geological Survey, conservationist A.B. Broass blamed deforestation for increased flooding and droughts across the state (Ward 1996).

CHAPTER 3: HISTORIC RESOURCE TYPES

In *Special History Study/Historic Context Study of the New River Gorge*, Unrau developed property or resource types for each of the five contexts he identified: coal, railroad, lumber, early agriculture/settlement, and state parks/recreation. Workman, et al. (2005) continued to employ these descriptions in their comparison and evaluation of resources in the NERI. With this in mind, ten resource types (farmstead, house lot, cemetery, commercial, education, industrial, religious, social, transportation, and unassigned) and their archaeological correlates were defined for NERI and GARI. Each of these broad functional resource types has been or may be expected to be found within the parks. In developing these resource types we drew heavily on the types delineated by Unrau and the information gained through fieldwork for this project. An effort was made to model these types after those defined by the National Register of Historical Places. It was thought that by so doing it would be possible to facilitate the consistent evaluation and nomination of significant historic archaeological sites to the National Register of Historic Places.

Given the nature of NERI resources and large quantity of archival records associated with these sites, use of these resource definitions should allow for distinction between resource types at even the survey level, but it should be noted that this might not always be possible. Unlike the NERI resources, the GARI resources and the corresponding lack of extensive archival records, identification of specifically defined resources may not be possible through pedestrian survey methods. Many of these sites consist of demolished foundation remains that may fit any number of the resource definitions. It may not be possible to classify every resource or to gain an accurate picture of the relationship between neighboring archaeological sites until excavation can be done. Even though the known archival record is very different between the two parks, it is important that a review of archival data (e.g., deeds, wills, census records, and historic maps), oral histories, and photographic records, be conducted as part of any effort to classify a particular archaeological resource or site within the parks.

All of the resource types defined in this section can occur on the landscape as individual sites. Most of the sites examined for the NERI survey, however, consisted of entire historic industrial communities. As such, it was recognized that most of these communities would have contain several different resource types. For instance, it is expected that coal towns, at a minimum will contain house lots, commercial resources, cemeteries, and industrial resources. Thus, for the purposes of this study, resource type should not be equated with site type. For example, in the site type descriptions, different resource types will be referred to as representing specific archaeological remains within a site.

In the remainder of this section, each resource type is defined. The general characteristics of each resource type are described, and archaeological correlates that serve to distinguish these types from each other are presented. By no means are these

correlates meant to be exhaustive. They simply represent examples of the types of diagnostic artifacts or artifact assemblage composition that can be used to distinguish one resource type from another.

Farmsteads

As their name implies, farmsteads are associated with agricultural pursuits and are comprised of a primary residence, domestic outbuildings and other structures needed for agricultural production. Domestic outbuildings generally support the primary residence and would likely consist of small sheds, barns, work/storage buildings, and store houses. Because of the topography of the New River Gorge, most outbuildings will be located close to the primary residence. Unrau's agricultural property types include all the elements listed above, but also included agricultural processing facilities such as tanneries, gristmills and distilleries. These resources have significantly different artifact correlates and in this document are classified as industrial properties.

In general, artifact assemblages recovered from these types of sites contain large quantities of domestic artifacts, including items related to food preparation, storage, and service. Faunal remains, ceramic tablewares, teawares and storage containers, and glass cups, stemware and bottles are examples of domestic artifacts recovered from farmsteads. Other artifacts present at these types of sites include personal possessions, personal care and hygiene, clothing, sewing, and entertainment related items. Examples of these types of items, include smoking pipes, coins, combs, toothbrushes, buttons, pins, game pieces, marbles, and doll parts. Domestic artifacts are usually concentrated around the primary residence, and nearby support buildings.

Within farmstead, artifact assemblages associated with other types of buildings and artifact areas, such as barns, sheds, work/storage buildings, and storehouses exhibit a more restricted range of artifact types. For example, one would expect to find high concentrations of agricultural equipment, tools, and machinery at agricultural buildings, such as barns, sheds and work buildings, and large amounts of storage containers, such as crocks and jars, at springhouses, dairies, and icehouses. Large quantities of faunal remains would be expected to be found at buildings used for meat processing, such as smokehouses and meat houses. Features associated with farmsteads, include building foundations, cellars, postholes, trash pits/dumps, privies, wells, and cisterns.

A good example of late nineteenth century Appalachian frontier mountain farmstead within the park is the Trump-Lilly Farmstead. The Trump-Lilly farmstead is a 202-acre farm overlooking the New River. This farmstead was placed in the National Register of Historic Places in 1990. The farmstead has numerous structures including a single residence and agricultural outbuildings. The outbuildings consist of a meat shed, a laundry, a grainery, a springhouse, a main barn, a bank barn, and a sheep barn. While this resource provides a good comparison for determining the type of new resources, the definition can include much smaller properties.

House Lots

House lots primarily function as residences and are characterized by a dwelling and associated domestic support buildings, such as small sheds, carriage houses, and stables. The primary difference between this resource type and farmsteads is a much reduced land parcel and lack of more intensive agricultural pursuits. House lots may have an associated garden plot, but these garden plots supplement the occupier's subsistence rather than being the primary source of food. This property type includes private residences and company housing. House lots can be found within towns as well as more rural locations. Archival resources, such as historic photographs that depict locations of dwellings, census information on the occupants, oral histories that describe properties, tax records indicating property value, improvements, and other items of value will help identify this kind of resource.

Overall artifact assemblages recovered from house lots contain a large amount of domestic artifacts similar to those found at farmsteads. Features associated with house lots, include building foundations, cellars, postholes, trash pits/dumps, privies, wells, and cisterns. In some instances it may be possible to relate houselots to specific families. One example is the Beury Mansion. In company housing house lots, this kind of detailed association may not be possible.

Cemeteries

Cemeteries are plots for human burials. They range from small family burial plots to large community burial grounds. Archival resources, such as maps, deeds, and oral histories contain information that will help identify cemetery resources types. For example, topographic maps often include cemetery locations. Cemeteries are characterized archaeologically by headstones, footstones, monuments, crypts, mausoleums, fences, graves, coffins, caskets, grave goods, and human remains. These types of sites are associated with agricultural complexes, towns, communities, and churches. The town of Stonecliff had separate cemetery for the black and white residents of the town. Black cemeteries are sometimes located in less desirable locations, such as adjacent to railroad tracks.

Commercial Resources

Commercial resources function as buildings in which a variety of economic activities took place. Among these types of sites are general stores, taverns, hotels, restaurants, banks, doctor's offices, and law offices. Some commercial sites, such as a general store with an attached living quarters, hotels, and taverns, have residential components. Commercial sites are similar to house lots, but may have fewer associated outbuildings.

Archival resources will be important for distinguishing commercial sites from other property types. These resources may include historic maps that show building function, historic photographs, census information on the occupants and their

occupations, oral histories that describe stores, tax records indicating property value, improvements, and stock, will help make type determinations. For example, oral histories conducted of residents who lived near a property may describe a store associated with the family who owned the property or census records may indicate that the occupant of the property was a storekeeper.

Though many of the same types of artifacts may be recovered from commercial and house lot sites, artifact assemblages associated with the commercial resources tend to contain fewer domestic artifacts. But some types of domestic artifacts occur with greater frequency at these types of sites than at house lots. For instance, one would expect to recover more service related artifacts like platters or soup tureens and institutional service wares from a hotel, and larger amounts of mugs, tankards, and smoking pipes from a tavern as compared to a house lot. Other commercial sites are characterized by a more restricted range of artifacts. For example, the remains of a doctor's office would produce higher concentrations of pharmaceutical bottles relative to house lot sites. Features associated with commercial sites, include building foundations, cellars, privies, and trash pits/dumps. Commercial sites are likely to be centrally located in localities that facilitate access to the public.

Education Sites

Schools, colleges, and libraries are good examples of education sites. Schools vary in size and function. In rural contexts, most schools and libraries will tend to be of the one-room variety, with all grade levels present. Some schools, such as high schools can be multi-room or multi-building education facilities. Domestic residences are associated with some education sites. Archival resources can help identify school locations. These resources may include oral histories, photographs and historic maps. For example, oral histories often contain descriptions of and discussions about specific schools.

Artifact assemblages recovered from education sites contain greater quantities of writing utensils, inkbottles, and slate boards as well as children's toys, such as marbles, doll parts, and jacks than residence/house lot sites. Features associated with education sites consist of building foundations (e.g., primary teaching facility, support offices, residences, and storage sheds) and school activity areas, such as playgrounds. Other types of features associated with education sites, include privies, wells, and cisterns. Education sites tend to be centrally located within a community or region, but may have different buildings for black and white students. These separate locations may indicate segregated areas within communities or towns.

Industrial Sites

Industrial sites are associated with the extraction, production, and distribution of commodities and are a key property type within the project area. Industrial sites include coal-mining operations, lumber processing operations, as well as smaller industries such as blacksmith shops, sawmills, gristmills, meat packer, bottlers and distilleries.

As many of the sites within the parks contain standing remains of industrial resources, they should be relatively easily identified. Even so, archival resources such as historic maps, census records, and oral histories can help identify industrial sites. Examination of topographic maps and railroad maps will aid efforts to identify industrial sites within the project areas.

Artifact assemblages from these types of sites are dominated by industrial-related artifact types, such as mining infrastructure and equipment, and machine parts as well as fuel and raw materials (coal and coke) used to production and the by-products (slag) of the manufacturing process. Features associated with industrial sites, include millraces, reservoirs, large cisterns, building foundations, and footers for machinery or equipment. Industrial sites in the parks are located near natural resource extraction areas, or along major transportation modes, such as rivers, railroads, and major roads.

Religious Sites

These types of sites represent buildings or spaces associated with organized religion. Good examples of religious buildings are churches used for worship; offices used for business and administration; and living quarters. Open spaces consist of special use areas where religious ceremonies were conducted. These resources may be associated with a specific religious denomination or be interdenominational.

Archival resources such as, maps, oral histories, and church histories can help distinguish religious sites from other property types. In general, these types of sites contain artifacts that are representative of a specific religion or were used in religious activities. Good examples of these types of artifacts are rosaries, crucifixes, pendants, stained glass pieces, glass votive candleholders, and other types artifacts with iconic symbols. Features associated with religious sites, include building foundations, cellars, postholes, privies, wells, cisterns, and trash pits or dumps. Religious sites are usually centrally located within are community.

Social Sites

Social sites are buildings or spaces where people congregated for public or private events. Lodges, halls, and retreat camps are good examples of social buildings. Social spaces consist of parks, preserves, sporting venues and fairgrounds.

Archival resources such as, oral histories and old photographs can help identify social sites. For example, the oral histories may contain references to social sites and can help distinguish social sites from other property types.

Since these types sites represent localities where people gathered for social functions, personal and clothing items, such as smoking pipes, coins, buttons, and cuff links are well represented in assemblages recovered from social sites. These types of sites also may contain large amounts of glass beverage containers. Features associated

with social sites, include building foundations, cellars, postholes, privies, and trash pits/dumps.

Transportation Sites

Transportation sites are localities associated with the movement of people and/or goods. Good examples of transportation sites, include roads, boat landings and ferry crossings, bridges, railway lines, tunnels, train stations, and toll houses.

Archival resources such as historic maps and oral histories can help identify transportation sites. For example, historic maps map show the old rail lines, both standard and small gauge, and roads that once traversed the parks and the locations of rail stations. Specifically related to the project area are the C&O Railroad in Clifton Forge, Virginia and the Colis P. Huntington Railroad Association in Huntington, West Virginia.

Transportation sites usually contain small quantities of artifacts. Objects recovered from these types of sites, include railroad spikes and rails, railroad equipment (tools, locomotive parts, and switching/signal parts), horseshoes, wagon/buggy parts, and nautical equipment (mooring rings, chains, and capstans). Features associated with transportation sites, include pavement, road cuts/beds, fence lines, building foundations, bridge abutments, docks, and wharves.

Unassigned

These types of sites represent artifact assemblages or features that cannot be assigned to another property type. In general, they are characterized by small artifacts assemblages and limited archival data, or represent a small segment of a much larger site. As more work is conducted at these sites, it may be possible to assign them to another property type.

SUMMARY

A total of ten historic archaeological property types was defined for the parks, including agricultural complex, house lot, cemetery, commercial, education, industrial, religious, transportation, and unassigned. These property types represent the range of historic archaeological resources that have been or are likely to be found within the boundaries of the parks and the surrounding area. When attempting to classify historic archaeological sites within the parks it is important that researchers recognize that a particular archaeological site may contain two or more property types. It also important that such studies utilize both archaeological and archival data in making property type determinations.

The property types defined in this chapter are intended to guide future archaeological investigations at parks. It is recognized that as more work is conducted within the parks that some or all of the definitions presented in this chapter will need to be revised and updated. As research progresses it also may be possible to determine that

some of these property types, while expected may never have been present within the boundaries of the parks.

The connections and relationships between resources should also be considered when determining resource types. For example, although the Thurmond Historic District is listing in the National Register of Historic Places because of its association with the history of the C&O railroad, it also served the surrounding coal mining towns or Stone Cliff, Newlyn, Cadle Ridge and others.

Finally it is recognized that it may not always be possible to confidently classify every site, and that many sites will be classified as unassigned. But by making an attempt to classify previously documented as well as newly recorded historic archaeological sites, researchers working in the parks will be able to gain new insights into the history and the people that have lived in this region for more than 200 years.

Table 3.1 Historic Sites in NERI and GARI.

| Site | Site Type | Property Type(s) | Location |
|--------------------------------|---------------------|--|-----------------|
| Ames | Coal town | Industrial | NERI |
| Beury | Coal town | House lots, commercial, industrial | NERI |
| Beurytown | Coal town | Industrial, possible house lots | NERI |
| Big Branch cemetery/Berry Farm | Cemetery/Farmstead | Cemetery/farmstead | NERI |
| Cadle Ridge | Coal town | Industrial | NERI |
| Caperton | Coal town | House lots, Industrial, commercial | NERI |
| Ephraim | Coal town | House lots, industrial, commercial | NERI |
| Fayette Station | Coal town | Industrial | NERI |
| Fire Creek | Coal town | House lots, industrial | NERI |
| Glade Creek | Farmstead | Farmstead | NERI |
| Hamlet | Lumber town | House lots, industrial, commercial | NERI |
| Hump Mountain | Coal town | Industrial | NERI |
| McKendree | Hospital | House lots, commercial, transportation | NERI |
| Quinnimont | Coal town | House lots, industrial, commercial, religious | NERI |
| Red Ash | Coal town | House lots, industrial, commercial, social, cemetery | NERI |
| Royal | Coal town | House lots, industrial, cemetery | NERI |
| Secoma | Lumber town | Industrial, possible house lots | NERI |
| Sewell Knob | Coal town | House lots, industrial | NERI |
| Stone Cliff | Coal town, cemetery | House lots, industrial, commercial, cemetery | NERI |
| Thayer Cemetery | Cemetery | Cemetery | NERI |
| 1888 House | House lot | House lot | GARI |
| Albion Cemetery | Cemetery | Cemetery | GARI |
| Arnet Church and Cemetery | Religious, cemetery | Religious, cemetery | GARI |

| | | | |
|-----------------------------|---|--|------|
| Carnifex Ferry | Transportation, commercial, house lot | Transportation, commercial, house lot | GARI |
| Clark Cemetery | Cemetery | Cemetery | GARI |
| Copeland Cemetery | Cemetery | Cemetery | GARI |
| Copeland School | Educational | Educational | GARI |
| Koontz Bridge and Tunnel | Transportation | Transportation | GARI |
| Koontz Bend resources | Farmstead | Farmstead | GARI |
| Legg Farmstead | Farmstead | Farmstead | GARI |
| Milam Cemetery | Cemetery | Cemetery | GARI |
| Pine Grove School | Educational | Educational | GARI |
| Sugar Creek | Industry | Industry | GARI |
| Woods Ferry | Transportation | Transportation | GARI |
| 1888 House | House lot | House lot | GARI |

CHAPTER 4

HISTORIC SITE DESCRIPTIONS

The following site descriptions include physical descriptions, photographs, historic maps, modern maps, aerial photographs, site maps, archival information if available, artifact analysis, and specific recommendations for each site. The sites are listed in alphabetical order.

Table 4.1. Historic sites in NERI.

| Site | Site Type | Property Type(s) | Location /ASIMS # |
|------------------------------------|---------------------|--|-------------------|
| Ames | Coal town | Industrial | NERI/400 |
| Berry Farm/Big Branch Cemetery | Cemetery/Farmstead | Cemetery/farmstead | NERI/403 |
| Beury | Coal town | House lots, commercial, industrial | NERI/402 |
| Beurytown | Coal town | Industrial, possible house lots | NERI/403 |
| Cadle Ridge | Coal town | Industrial | NERI/404 |
| Caperton | Coal town | House lots, Industrial, commercial | NERI/405 |
| Ephraim | Coal town | House lots, industrial, commercial | NERI/406 |
| Fayette Station | Coal town | Industrial | NERI/407 |
| Fire Creek | Coal town | House lots, industrial | NERI/408 |
| Glade Creek Burin Martin Farmstead | Farmstead | Farmstead | NERI/409 |
| Hamlet | Lumber town | House lots, industrial, commercial | NERI/410 |
| Hump Mountain | Coal town | Industrial | NERI/411 |
| McKendree | Hospital | House lots, commercial, transportation | NERI/412 |
| Quinnimont | Coal town | House lots, industrial, commercial, religious | NERI/413 |
| Red Ash | Coal town | House lots, industrial, commercial, social, cemetery | NERI/414 |
| Royal | Coal town | House lots, industrial, cemetery | NERI/415 |
| Secoma | Lumber town | Industrial, possible house lots | NERI/416 |
| Sewell Knob | Coal town | House lots, industrial | NERI/417 |
| Stone Cliff | Coal town, cemetery | House lots, industrial, commercial, cemetery | NERI/418 |
| Thayer Cemetery | Cemetery | Cemetery | NERI/419 |

Ames

| | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Site Type: | Historic coal town |
| Property Type: | Industrial |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4215024 E 492786 |
| Proximity and name of nearest stream: | New River 25m |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | Unknown |
| Previous Disturbance: | Demolition |
| ASIMS #: | 400 |

Site Description

The Ames site is located in the New River Gorge National River, Fayette County, West Virginia (Figures 4.1 and 4.2). Ames was a small coal town along the New River by the railroad tracks whose name is an acronym from the Ajax, Michigan, Elmo, and Sunnyside mines. The site was occupied in the very late nineteenth through the early twentieth century and was abandoned in the 1950s. The remains of the Michigan mine head house and portals are located on the incline above where the domestic dwellings would have been located (Figures 4.3-4.7). Only industrial resources were recorded at Ames. While there were undoubtedly other property types present, they will not be readily apparent without further archaeological work.

The 1928 Fayetteville USGS 15 minute quad depicts about 12 structures situated just south of the Michigan Mine. The houses were linked to the Chesapeake & Ohio (C&O) Railroad main line by a rail line or inclined plane (Workman et al. 2005:38). The 1976 Fayetteville USGS 7.5 minute map shows no standing structures here.

There is a cemetery near the Ames site, called the Chestnutburg Road cemetery (Table 4.1) (Robert L. Arther 2004). It is located one half to three fourths of a mile west of Ames. Nineteen grave markers were legible and documented. However, there were about 50 unmarked graves, and approximately 30 to 40 graves that were not documented. This cemetery was not relocated as part of this project.

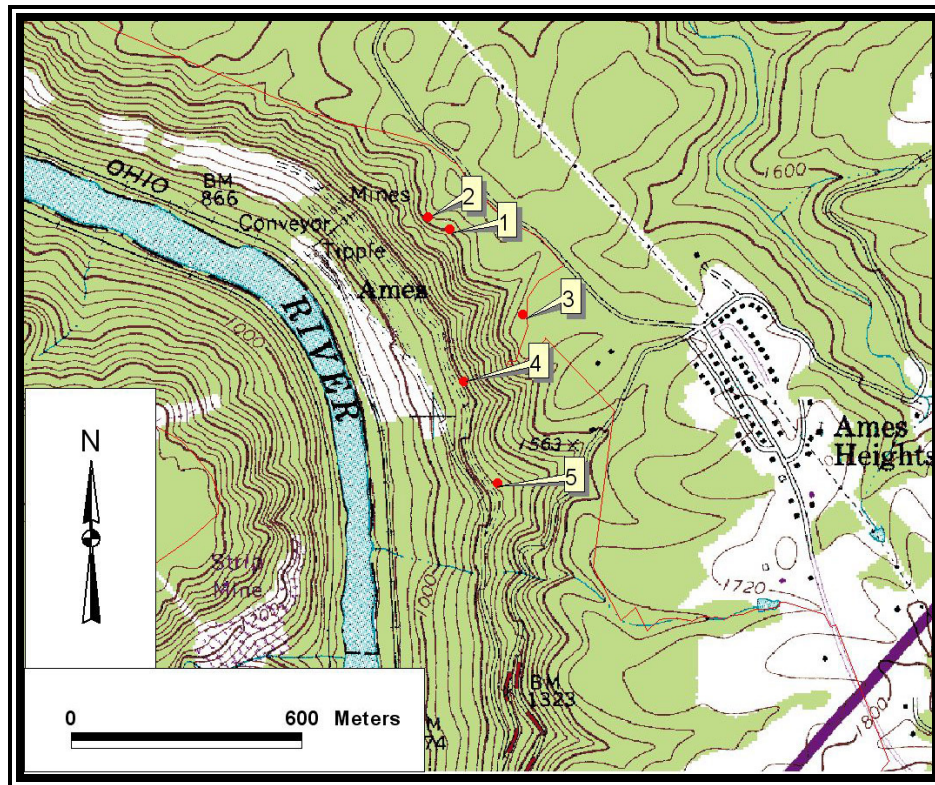


Figure 4.1. Location of Ames Mine Complex on 1976 Fayetteville, WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map: (1) Tipple complex; (2) Mine complex; (3) Mine portal and buildings; (4) structure remains; (5) structure remains.

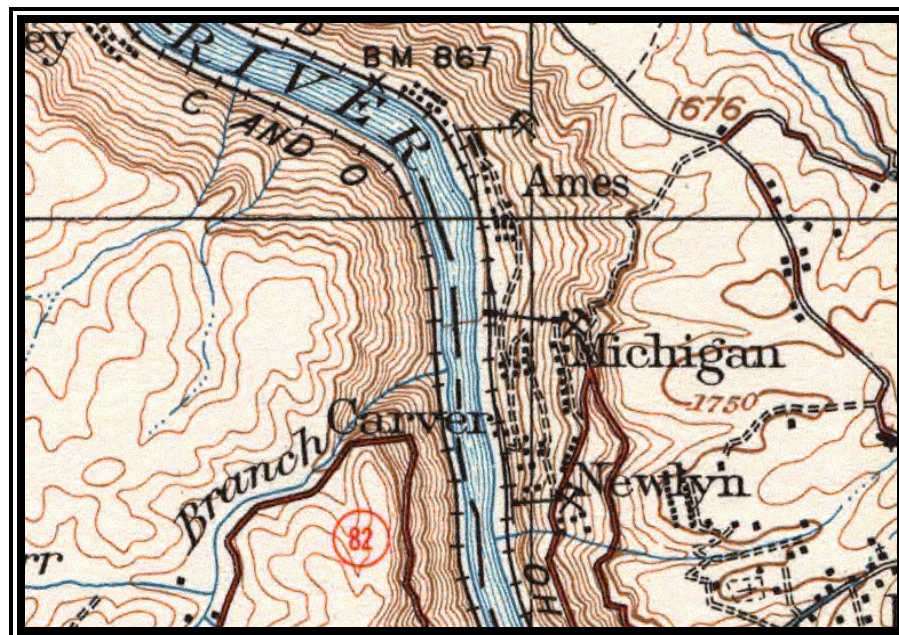


Figure 4.2. Location of Ames Mine Complex on 1928 Fayetteville, WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.

Site History

Ames is the name given to a conglomerate of mines located at the abandoned Sunny Side Mine. Ames stands for Ajax, Michigan, Elmo, and Sunnyside (Towns of the New River Gorge – manuscript on file at New River Gorge National River Headquarters library). The mine was in operation between 1900 and approximately the late 1950s.

The Ajax Mine was established by the Ajax Coal Company. The mine had a drift opening into the Sewell coal seam, which had a thickness of three feet. The superintendent of the mine was Aaron Carver and G. H. Disney was the foreman. The company employed 68 men who worked 166 days (Peters and Carden 1926:288). Only machine mining was used by 38 miners who produced 29,593 tons of coal (Peters and Carden 1926:288). Three mining machines, two electric motor locomotives, and six mules were used in mining and moving the coal to the headhouse.

The Michigan Mine was in the Sewell seam and was established around 1900 by the Michigan Coal Company. No coke ovens were at the mine. According to the 1904 mine inspector's report, a large furnace was used to ventilate the mine. By 1923, the Michigan Mine was under the operation of the New River Export Smokeless Coal Company. The settlement surrounding the mine was never large and no post office was built. The closest post office was at Newlyn (on the New River), which is south of the mine.

The Elmo Mining Company operated the Elmo mine, which had a drift opening into the Sewell coal seam that measured two feet eight inches thick. The superintendent of the mine was Daniel K. Flynn and Herman Dews was foreman. The company employed 55 men who worked 131 days, producing 19,005 tons of coal (Peters and Carden 1926:290). Four machines were used in mining the coal, which was moved by three locomotives and five mules.

Table 4.2. Formal Headstones from Chestnutburg Road cemetery.

| Name | Date of Birth | Date of Death | Comments |
|---------------------|----------------------|----------------------|---|
| Adkins, Myrtle | Unknown | Unknown | |
| Baby - Farrell | 1956 | 1956 | |
| Baby - Farrell | 1958 | 1958 | |
| Brown, Velda | 1930 | 1952 | |
| Dempsey, Wm | Unknown | Unknown | |
| Johnson, Josephine | Unknown | Oct. 1917 | Age 3 years. Daughter of Jack & Essie Johnson |
| Kelly, Carl Edward | 1945 | 1945 | |
| Kelly, Delma Danese | 1957 | 1957 | |
| Kelly, Edgar J. | 1897 | 1923 | |
| Kelly, Raymond T. | 1923 | 1958 | |
| Neal, Buddy Dale | 1952 | 1952 | |
| Newton, George | 1896 | 1911 | |
| Newton, Lucy | 1904 | Unknown | Age 7 years |

| | | | |
|------------------|---------|---------|--|
| Newton, Powell | 1876 | 1947 | |
| Pridmore, Sam | 1867 | 1949 | |
| Reed, Harold | Unknown | Unknown | Son of George & Mary Ann Reed. Twin brother of Mary Sue. |
| Reed, Mary Sue | Unknown | Unknown | Daughter of George & Mary Ann Reed. Twin sister of Harold. |
| Wood, Jessie N. | 1900 | 1973 | |
| Wood, Shirlee E. | 1930 | 1982 | |

Census records were examined for more information about those buried at the Chestnutburg Road cemetery. The primary censuses examined were the 1900, 1910, 1920 and 1930 United States Federal Censuses. The earliest record found was in the 1900 United States Federal Census for George Newton (age 4) who lived with his parents George (age 55) and Susen [sic] (age 44) Newton in the Township of Mountain Cove in Fayette County, West Virginia. The household also included sons Pawel (age 24), James (age 20), Ebenezer (age 16), Elliot [sic] (age 12), and daughter Mary (age 6). George Sr. and the four oldest sons are all listed as being coal miners, while the daughter is listed as being a grade school student. The Newtons rented their home and were all listed as being unable to read and write.

In the 1920 United States Federal Census, records were found for Josephine Johnson (age 3) who lived with her parents Jack (age 44) and Essie (age 32) Johnson in the Township of Fayetteville in Fayette County, West Virginia. The household also included daughter Mary (age 7) and son Charles (age 5), as well as two boarders Walter Cart (age 28) and Cecil Crist (age 30). Jack's occupation is listed as coal miner and he rented his family's home. Jack, Essie, Walter, and Cecil are all listed as being able to read and write.

A record for Jessie Wood was found in the Social Security Death Index. Jessie lived from August 1, 1900 to January 1973. His social security number was issued in West Virginia before 1951. His last residence was listed as being in the Township of Summersville in Nicholas County, West Virginia.

Archaeological Fieldwork

The Ames site was examined by a pedestrian survey that included observing and photodocumenting any structural remains. No shovel probes were excavated at this site and no site map was created as the elements of the site were extremely spatially disjointed.



Figure 4.3. Remains of the Michigan mine ventilations shafts in and around the Michigan mine headhouse.



Figure 4.4. Michigan mine portal near the Michigan mine headhouse.



Figure 4.5. Michigan head house (see Figure 4.1(1)).



Figure 4.6. Mine portal and probable cap and powder houses at Michigan (see Figure 4.1(3)).



Figure 4.7. Possible well house at Ames Mine Complex (see Figure 4.1(4)).



Figure 4.8. Map of Ames Mine Complex (1959).

Artifacts Collected or Observed

No artifacts were observed on the surface, but the ruins of approximately nine structures were observed during the pedestrian survey. These structural remains included the mine head house, and mine portals and ventilation shafts

Summary and Recommendations

Based on this investigation, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Ames site. The site relates to the coal industry historic context developed by Unrau (1996) for the New River Gorge National River.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Ames site may contain intact archaeological industrial site remains, and it should be protected with all available means.
2. At this time, we are not recommending further archaeological work given that the majority of the archaeological remains at Ames appear to be industrial. With no other property types readily apparent, we recommend additional and more intensive archival work on the settlement and the people who lived and worked at Ames. The results of this work can and should be used to compare what we know about other locations in the New River valley. Such comparisons should be made in view of the relationship(s) that the town of Ames had with other communities in the New River valley and of those located in the surrounding uplands. This information could lead to a later recommendation of further archaeological work.

Based on the intact industrial remains, the Ames site is considered to be potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D as a contributing element for a multiple resource nomination of coal mining communities with regards to Unrau's (1992) Coal Mining Industry Historic Context for the New River Valley.

Berry Farm/Big Branch Cemetery

| | |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| Site Type: | Historic farm and cemetery |
| Property Types: | Farmstead, cemetery |
| UTM Coordinates: | Berry Farm: Zone 17: N 4173983 E 508368 Cemetery: Zone 17: N 4174667 E 508998 |
| Proximity and name of nearest stream: | Big Branch Creek 5m |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | Berry Farm: 11 acres Cemetery: 1 acre |
| Previous Disturbance: | Demolition |
| ASIMS # | 401 |

Site Description

Berry Farm and Big Branch cemetery are situated on a bench on the west side of the New River at an elevation of 1880 feet in the New River Gorge National River, Summers County, West Virginia (Figure 4.9). The farm is located directly on a small tributary of the New River, Big Branch creek. All that remains of the farmstead are various foundations for the homestead and outbuildings (Figures 4.10-16). The cemetery is located on a modern hiking trail near Big Branch creek (Figure 4.10-11), although spatially separated. The cemetery was most likely a small family cemetery and is marked only with unmarked fieldstones, which have been disturbed. Since the cemetery is believed to have been associated with the Berry family, both were treated as one site.

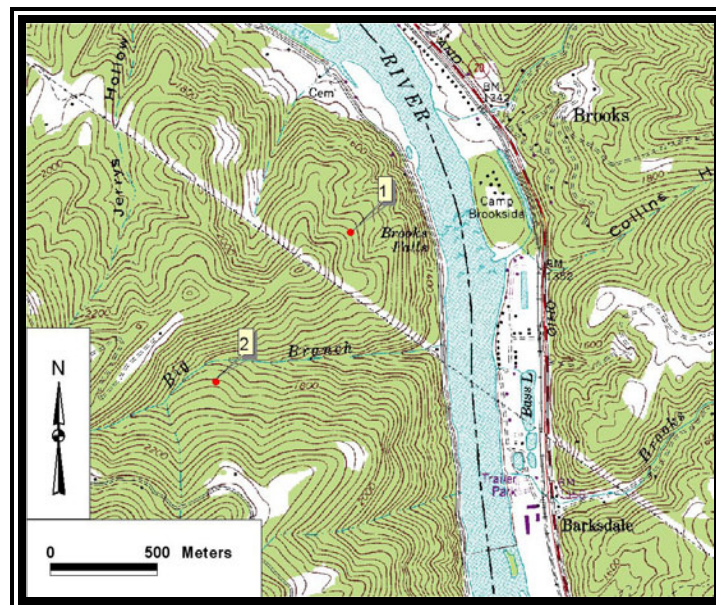


Figure 4.9. Location of Berry Farm and Big Branch cemetery on Hinton, WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map: (1) Big Branch Cemetery; (2) Berry Farm.

Site History

Little is known about either Berry Farm or the Big Branch cemetery. No archival information on either the farm or the cemetery was found. Oral history may be obtained regarding this resource; unfortunately, this study was unable to pursue informants for interviews.

Archaeological Fieldwork

The Berry farm site was examined by pedestrian survey and shovel probes. Shovel probes were placed near structural remains to determine if intact cultural deposits were present. These structures may be the ruins of the farmhouse and outbuildings. Shovel probes averaged 30 to 35 cm in diameter and were excavated until sterile subsoil was encountered. Soil from all shovel probes was screened through 6.35 mm hardware cloth. Information that consisted of location, size, depth, and soil profile was recorded for positive shovel probes.

Three shovel probes were excavated at the Berry farm site. Artifacts were only recovered from shovel probe 2. In general, the upper stratum consisted of 10YR3/3 dark brown silt loam with and the lower stratum was 10YR5/4 yellow brown clay (Figure 4.18).

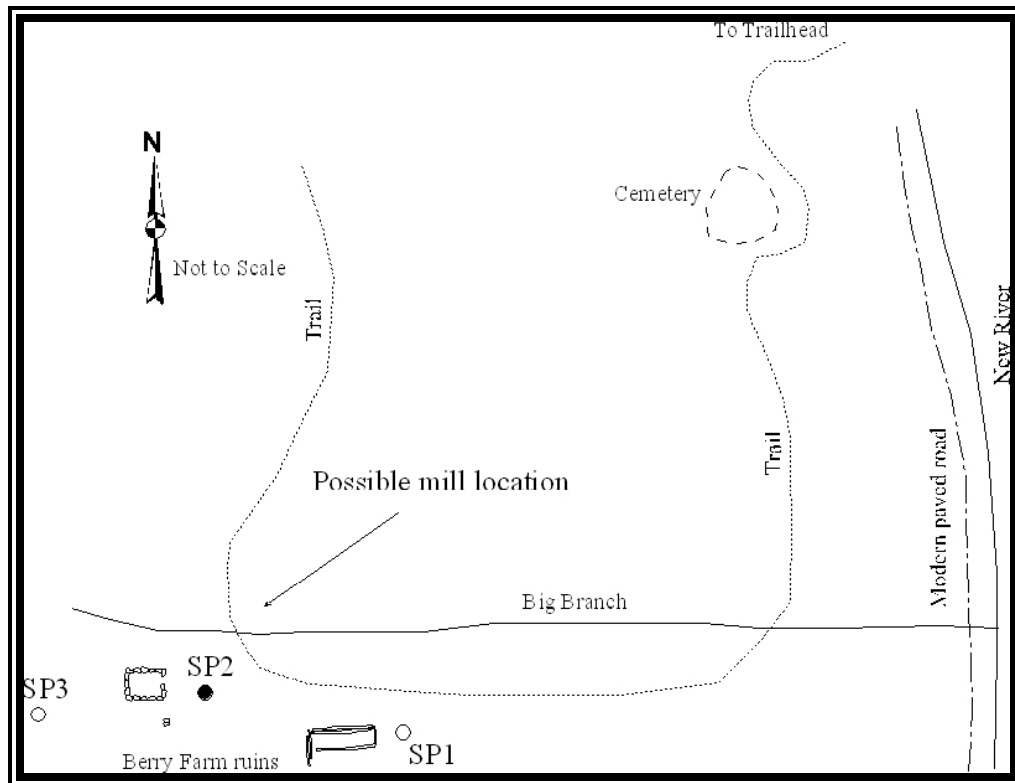


Figure 4.10. Site map of Big Branch cemetery and Berry farm.



Figure 4.11. Field stone marker at the Big Branch cemetery.



Figure 4.12. Overall view of Big Branch cemetery (see Figure 4.9(1)).



Figure 4.13. Stone line trail near Big Branch cemetery.



Figure 4.14. Foundation at Berry Farm (see Figure 4.9(2)).



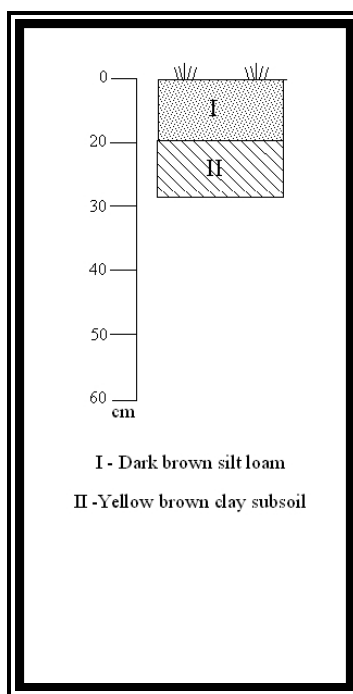
Figure 4.15. Falls at Berry Farm where possible mill was located.



Figure 4.16. Stone pier at Berry Farm.



Figure 4.17. Remains of icehouse at Berry Farm.



**Figure 4.18. Typical Shovel
Probe profile at Berry Farm (SP2).**

Artifacts Collected or Observed

Materials recovered from the Berry Farm/Big Branch site consist of an undecorated ironstone base fragment, a milk glass lid liner fragment, and an unidentified

metal object, which has tentatively been identified as a furniture wheel castor (Table 4.3). The only diagnostic artifact recovered from this site is ironstone, which dates from 1842 to 1930 (Miller 1991:10; 1993:5-6).

Table 4.3: Artifacts Recovered from Berry Farm/Big Branch.

| Context | Provenience | Artifact Class/Subclass | # | Comments |
|---------|-------------|-------------------------------|---|---------------|
| 137-1 | SP2 | Milk glass lid liner fragment | 1 | |
| 137-2 | SP2 | Ironstone | 1 | Base fragment |
| 137-3 | SP2 | Furniture wheel castor | 1 | Wheel missing |

Summary and Recommendations

Based on this investigation, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Berry Farm and Big Branch cemetery sites. The site is classified as a farmstead and may contain many of the typical outbuildings, including small sheds, barns, work/storage buildings, and storehouses. In addition to the domestic artifacts from the Berry Farm's 1900-1940 occupation, extensive domestic foundation remains were documented. The shovel probes also show that it has potential to contain intact archaeological deposits. The Big Branch cemetery represents a small family cemetery most likely dating to the late nineteenth to twentieth centuries that is typical of the New River Gorge area.

Because there are intact archaeological remains present at the Berry Farm site, it represents an opportunity to study one of the agricultural resources of the region. These remains are primary refuse relating to a relatively short-term occupation (1900-1940). In that regard, further investigations of the Berry Farm site might provide important information about Appalachian farming. Another avenue of research could include intra-community relationships among farms that were connected primarily by the railroad and by their particular roles in the rapid development of the New River valley at the turn of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The farmstead provides an example of a very different way of life than that experienced in the nearby lumber and coal towns. The Berry Farm could also be compared to the nearby Trump-Lilly farm, which is listed in the National Register of Historic Places.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. Both the Berry Farm and the Big Branch cemetery should be protected with all available means. Both sites contain archaeological deposits that are relatively undisturbed and sensitive to episodes of looting, development, or natural disturbances like flooding. This is particularly important, as both are located near or on a modern hiking trail.
2. To better define the nature and extent of the archaeological resources at the Berry Farm, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine its eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, it is recommended that phase

- 1 testing and mapping of the site be undertaken in conjunction with a cultural landscape inventory. This work should include systematic shovel probing across the entire site. After the site's landscape features are mapped, the goals of shovel probing should include the identification of the locations containing subsurface cultural materials and indicate their spatial relationship to building ruins and landscape features. Finally, site boundaries should be refined based on historical records and the distribution of archaeological remains.
3. Depending on the results of the survey, phase 2 exploratory archaeological investigations may be necessary. This work should assess the integrity of cultural deposits at the farmstead by excavating several test units. The results of these kinds of investigations should produce data from which interpretations about the life of the people who lived there can be articulated.
 4. The results of the above investigations can and should be used to compare what we know about other locations in the New River valley. Once accomplished, such comparisons should be made in view of the relationship(s) of the inhabitants of the farmstead had with other communities in the New River valley, particularly with Hamlet, and of those located in the surrounding uplands.
 5. This information should be utilized to develop signage providing historical data on the site for the hikers using the trail.
 6. The Big Branch cemetery should be maintained and possibly fenced. Archival research might be able to associate the cemetery with the inhabitants of Berry Farm. We recommend appropriate signage be developed for the benefit of hikers along the trail.

Given these investigations, the Berry Farm and Big Branch cemetery sites should be considered potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D with regards to Unrau's (1992) Early Agricultural/Settlement Historic Context. The recommended archaeological and archival research should be able to provide additional information on the size of this site and the nature of the associated archaeological deposits. Taken together the recommended archival research and field investigations should produce the information needed to more fully evaluate the significance of this site.

Beury

| | |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| Site Type: | Historic coal town |
| Property Types: | House lots, commercial, and industrial |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4201198 E 496521 |
| Proximity and name of nearest stream: | New River 30m |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | 5 acres |
| Previous Disturbance: | Demolition |
| ASIMS # | 402 |

Site Description

The Beury site is located in the New River Gorge National River, Fayette County, West Virginia; about 3 miles upriver from Thurmond on the south side of the New River (Figures 4.19-4.21). The site was occupied from the 1880s to the mid-twentieth century. The remains of the town of Beury include foundations of worker houses, a mansion, a church, a company store (Figure 4.22-25), a tavern, and other buildings. Some mining structures remain, such as the coke ovens and tipple. The property types present include house lots, commercial sites, and industrial resources.

There is also a cemetery, the Beury Mountain cemetery, which is located on top of the mountain adjacent to the Bill Bragg farm one-half mile south of Fire Creek on the Chesapeake & Ohio (C&O) Railroad. It was documented by Mr. and Mrs. Walter Ignatovich and Mrs. Richard Ashley in 1982 (Vertical file, New River Gorge National River library). At that time, 50 markers were legible and were documented (Table 4.3). There were about 75 to 100 grave depressions with unreadable stone markers. This cemetery was not documented during the current project.

The 1916 West Virginia Geological Survey map and the 1929 Beckley USGS 15 minute map depict a mine and conveyor system approximately 0.5 mile east of Beury. It is unclear if this is the Echo Mine. A comparison of these maps shows more structures at Beury in 1916 than in 1929, which suggests a decline in the settlement. No structures are depicted on the 1988 Thurmond USGS quad although strip-mining activity along the contours may have obliterated any remnants of the historic mine (Workman et al. 2005:23).

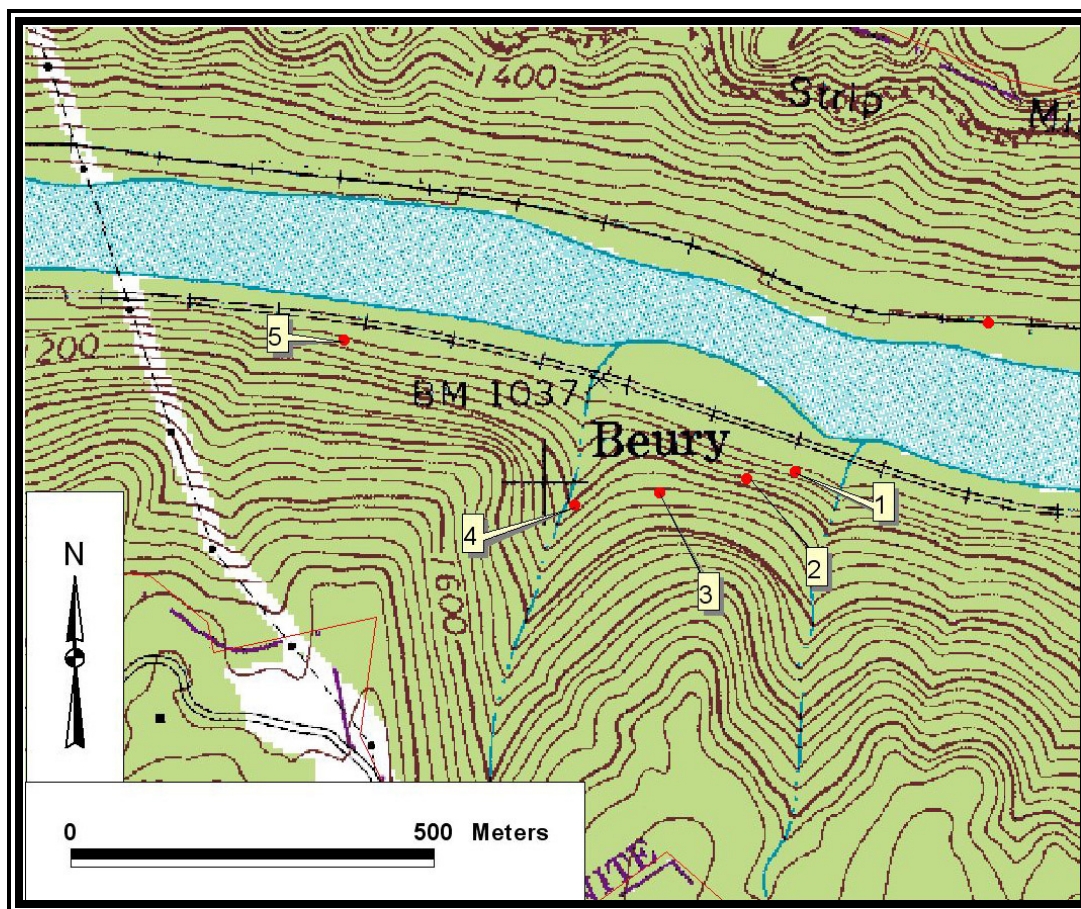


Figure 4.19. Location of Beury on 1988 Thurmond, WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map: (1) Structure remains; (2) Coke ovens; (3) Rock wall; (4) Wall for reservoir; (5) Coke ovens.

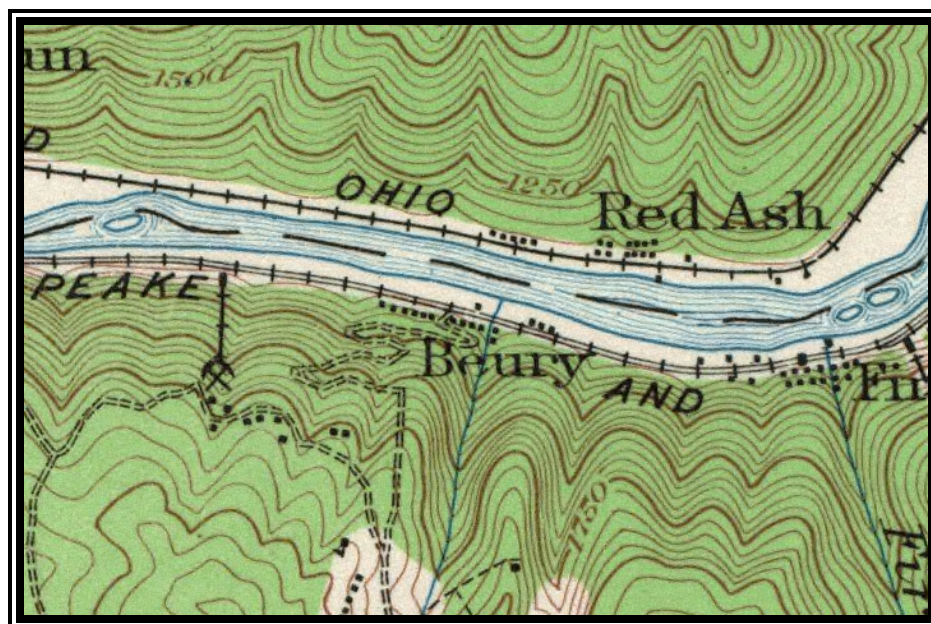


Figure 4.20. Location of Beury on 1929 Beckley, WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.

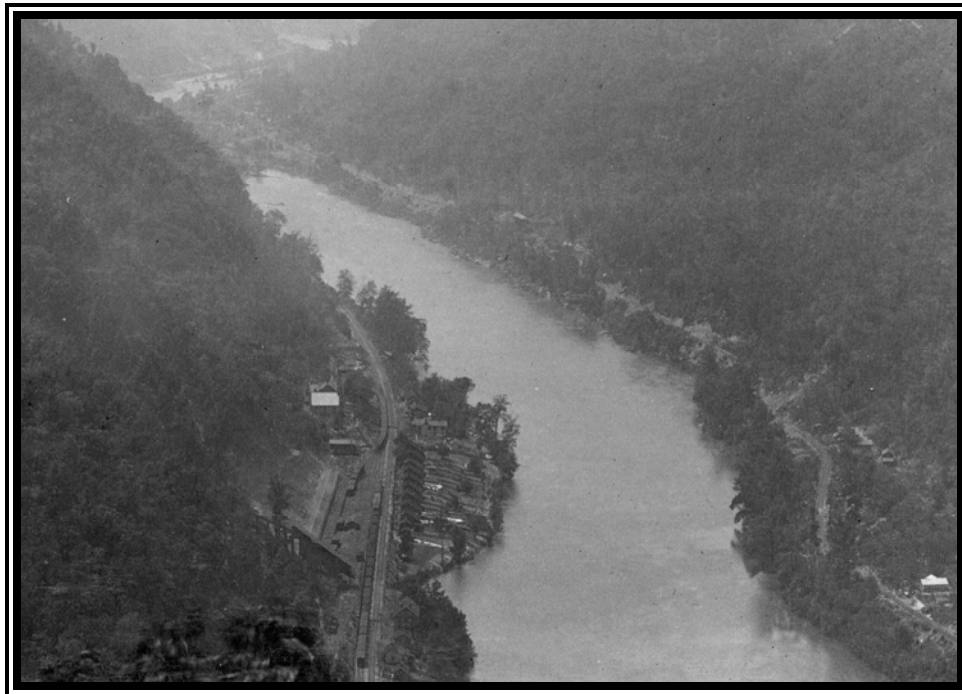


Figure 4.21. 1945 aerial of Beury.

Site History

The history of Beury is linked to the development of the coal industry in the New River Gorge. More specifically, its history is directly linked to the endeavors of Joseph L. Beury who is considered one of the pioneers of coal operations in the New River. Continuing his successful mining endeavors in the region, Beury opened the Echo Mine in 1881. About a half mile upriver, he built the Echo Mining camp to house his miners (Bragg 1989), which would later become known as the town of Beury (Bragg 1994).

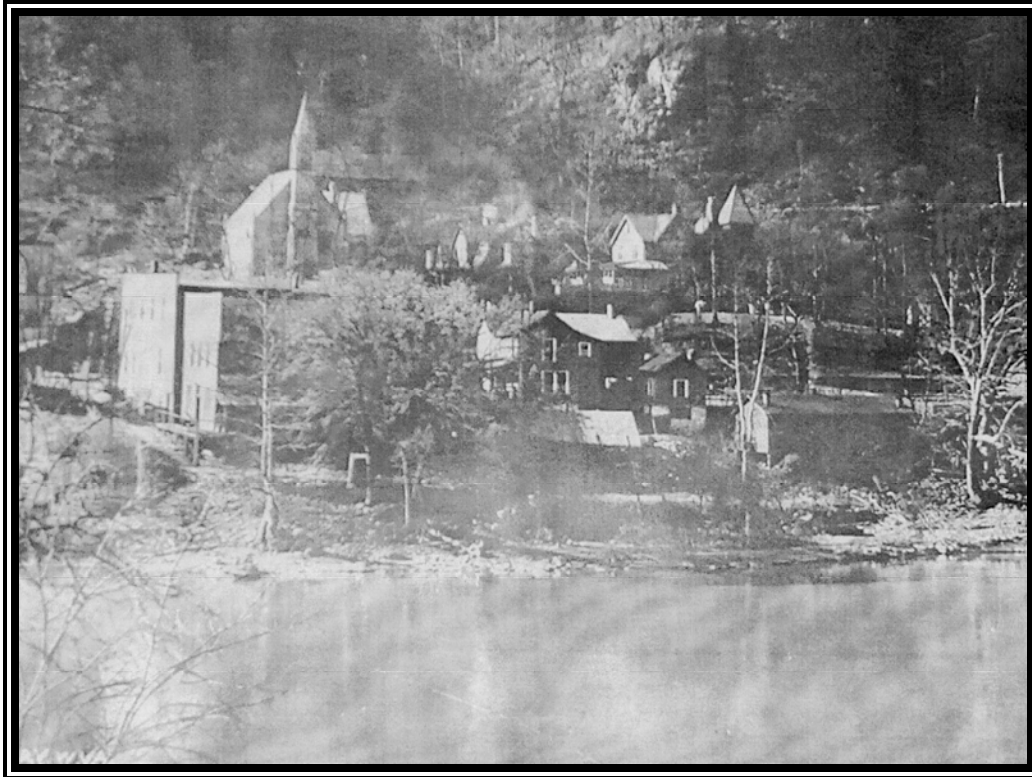


Figure 4.22. View of Beury from north side of New River (Photo on file at New River Gorge National River Headquarters).

Beury opened the Echo Mine, which was first operated by William Beury, Cooper & Company, then around 1898, by the Echo Coal & Coke Company. The Echo Smokeless Coal Company later operated the mine. By 1910, the mine at Beury became known as the Beury Brothers Coal & Coke Company. Coal from the mine was lowered onto monitor cars on an inclined plane to the C&O Railroad. There were 50 coke ovens at Beury. Miners here were prominent in the early labor movement: a Knights of Labor National Trade Assembly was established at Beury around 1890, with a resident, N. Miller, appointed as organizer for the New River district (Workman et al. 2005:23). The assembly was later reorganized as United Mine Workers of America Local No. 988.

In 1888, a post office was opened in Beury. Joseph Beury chose this community as the location where he and his family lived (Figure 4.20). By 1895, he moved his family to Beury having completed the construction of his twenty-three-room mansion (Figures 4.21-4.22). He also built a company store (Figure 4.23), a beer-bottling factory known as the Fayette Liquor Company, a lumber mill, and a church. In 1892, the Masons established one of its earliest lodges in Beury, which drew residents from throughout the New River Gorge (Bragg 1994).

By the beginning of the twentieth century, the town of Beury was a popular gathering place and a thriving community. Around 1895, over 100 families resided at Beury, by 1900, the town had a population of 500, and in 1919, it was 495. However, during the 1920s, the coal boom was ending in the New River valley. Because the Beury



Figure 4.23. Inside of Beury Mansion (Photo on file at the New River Gorge National River Park Headquarters library).



Figure 4.24. Inside of Beury Mansion (Photo on file at the New River Gorge National River Park Headquarters library).



Figure 4.25. The Beury Company Store in 1909 (Citation unknown).

area was relatively isolated from other industries, businesses, and easy transportation routes to available jobs outside the coal industry, its population began to dwindle as people moved to find other work. The post office was closed in 1925 and that same year, the Mason's lodge burnt and was never rebuilt, eventually being reopened in Thurmond.

John L. Beury died in 1903, but his family lived at the family mansion in Beury until the early 1930s. In 1932, the Robert King family moved to the mansion as tenant/caretakers and remained there until 1936. The mansion burned sometime in the late 1930s (Miller 2005). Even though a few small farms operated on Beury Mountain in the 1920s and 1930s (Bragg 1994), by the early 1940s, the town of Beury was abandoned like many small communities in the New River Gorge whose life was based on the coal and timber industries. Ruins of the Beury mansion were covered with rubble in a 2001 flood event.

Archaeological Fieldwork

The Beury site was examined by a pedestrian survey that included observing and photodocumenting any structural remains (Figure 4.26-). No shovel probes were excavated at this site.



Figure 4.26. Remains of coke ovens at Beury (see Figure 4.19(2&5)).



Figure 4.27. Ruins of the Beury store (see Figure 4.19(4)).



Figure 4.28. Remains of terraces at Beury
(see Figure 4.19(3)).

Table 4.4: Formal Headstones from Beury Mountain cemetery.

| Name | Date of Birth | Date of Death | Comments |
|-------------------------------|---------------|---------------|--------------------------------------|
| Bales, Alma C. | June 28, 1917 | Jan 14, 1923 | |
| Berry, Elmer | Dec 3, 1903 | Dec 18, 1907 | Son of H. & H. Berry |
| Bragg, Elizabeth | Jul 3, 1876 | Jan 5, 1944 | |
| Bragg, James | May 22, 1888 | Nov 24, 1953 | |
| Collins, James L. | Unknown | Feb 24, 1904 | Age 32 years-8 months-10 days |
| Copley, William Edward | 1953 | 1959 | |
| Cross, Ellen | Unknown | Jul 9, 1890 | Age 38 years. Wife of William Cross |
| Dixon, Charles W. | Nov 24, 1939 | Mar 24, 1959 | |
| Estep, Father of Arthur Estep | Unknown | 1924 | |
| Estep, Mother of Arthur Estep | Unknown | 1927 | |
| Fink, C. Augusta | Feb 24, 1881 | May 5, 1894 | |
| Fink, W. E. | June 12, 1876 | Jul 11, 1888 | |
| Fitzpatrick, Sadie A. | Jul 10, 1891 | Jan 23, 1908 | Daughter of William & J. Fitzpatrick |
| Frame, Tom | Aug 11, 1871 | Oct 26, 1929 | |

| Name | Date of Birth | Date of Death | Comments |
|------------------------|-------------------|---------------|---|
| Gross, Ellen | Unknown | Jul 9, 1890 | Age 38 years. Wife of William Gross |
| Hall, Mrs. N. C. | Jul 7, 1884 | Oct 6, 1901 | |
| Harman, Alice May | Mar 24, 1908 | Mar 26, 1909 | Daughter of William J. & Ada Harman |
| Hicks, John William | Nov 5, 1923 | Aug 1, 1925 | Son of Clarence & Fauna Hicks |
| Higginbottom, Lawrence | Jan 2, 1921 | June 26, 1941 | |
| Higginbottom, Mae | Mar 14, 1886 | May 14, 1923 | |
| Huffman, John | Apr 29, 1884 | Aug 8, 1906 | Son of Lawrence & Rachel Huffman |
| Huffman, Rachel | Oct 10, 1886 | Jan 20, 1905 | Daughter of L. H. & Rachel Huffman |
| Jones, Charlie W. | Feb 28, 1879 | Mar 30, 1909 | Son of S. E. & S. Jones |
| Jones, Jacob | Aug 2, 1875 | Mar 30, 1901 | |
| Jones, Samuel | Unknown | Oct 7, 1898 | Age 64 years |
| Jones, Sarah | June 10, 1842 | Oct 16, 1922 | |
| Keffer, Ernest T. V. | Unknown | Aug 5, 1899 | Age 19 years-26 days. Son of Matt & Delpha Keffer |
| Kraus, Anna M. | Jul 19, 1843 | Jan 23, 1916 | |
| Kraus, Helen | May 7, 1907 | Apr 21, 1908 | Daughter of C. J. & R. E. Kraus |
| Kraus, Peter | Unknown | Dec 3, 1895 | Age 61 years-2 months-13 days |
| Light, Henry | Unknown | May 15, 1905 | Age 5 years-4 months-2 days |
| Lynch, Homer E. | 1891 | 1923 | |
| McCaskey, George W. | Dec 14, 1865 | Jul 26, 1901 | |
| McClaskey, Pearl G. | Dec 18, 1896 | Dec 11, 1928 | Son of George & Sadie McClaskey |
| McDaniels, L. M. | Dec 13, 1878 | May 18, 1942 | Age 81 years-5 months-5 days. Wife of G. D. McDaniels |
| Martin, Walter F. | Sept 26, 1881 | Dec 13, 1941 | |
| Ramsey, Lionel | Apr 7, 1902 | Oct 11, 1905 | |
| Ritter, Jessie Ann | 1948 | 1949 | |
| Ross, Baby | 1941 | 1941 | |
| Schoal, Lilly | Aug 18, 1893 | June 9, 1894 | |
| Scholl, Willie | Aug 8, 1893 | June 9, 1894 | |
| Smith, Louisa A. | 1865 | 1942 | |
| Smith, W. A. | Unknown | June 2, 1900 | Age 25 years-2 months-29 days |
| Wardrep, Absolam H. | Feb 5, 1862 | May 4, 1936 | Born in Hickory, NC |
| Withrow, Nellie | 1940 | 1940 | |
| Young, George | Oct 7, 1864 | Apr 3, 1893 | Husband of Kate Young |
| Young, George | Dec 7, 1894 [sic] | Jan 1, 1901 | Son of George & Kate Young |
| Young, Mary | Feb 11, 1833 | Feb 10, 1913 | Wife of Valentine Young |
| Young, Phillip Green | Dec 28, 1880 | Nov 22, 1969 | Note: Dentist for years at Thurmond, WV |
| Young, Valentine | Dec 24, 1829 | Apr 26, 1914 | |
| Young, Valentine | Unknown | Dec 26, 1891 | Age 10 years-3 months-26 days. Son of W. & A. M. Young |



Figure 4.29. Ruins at Beury (see Figure 4.19(1)).

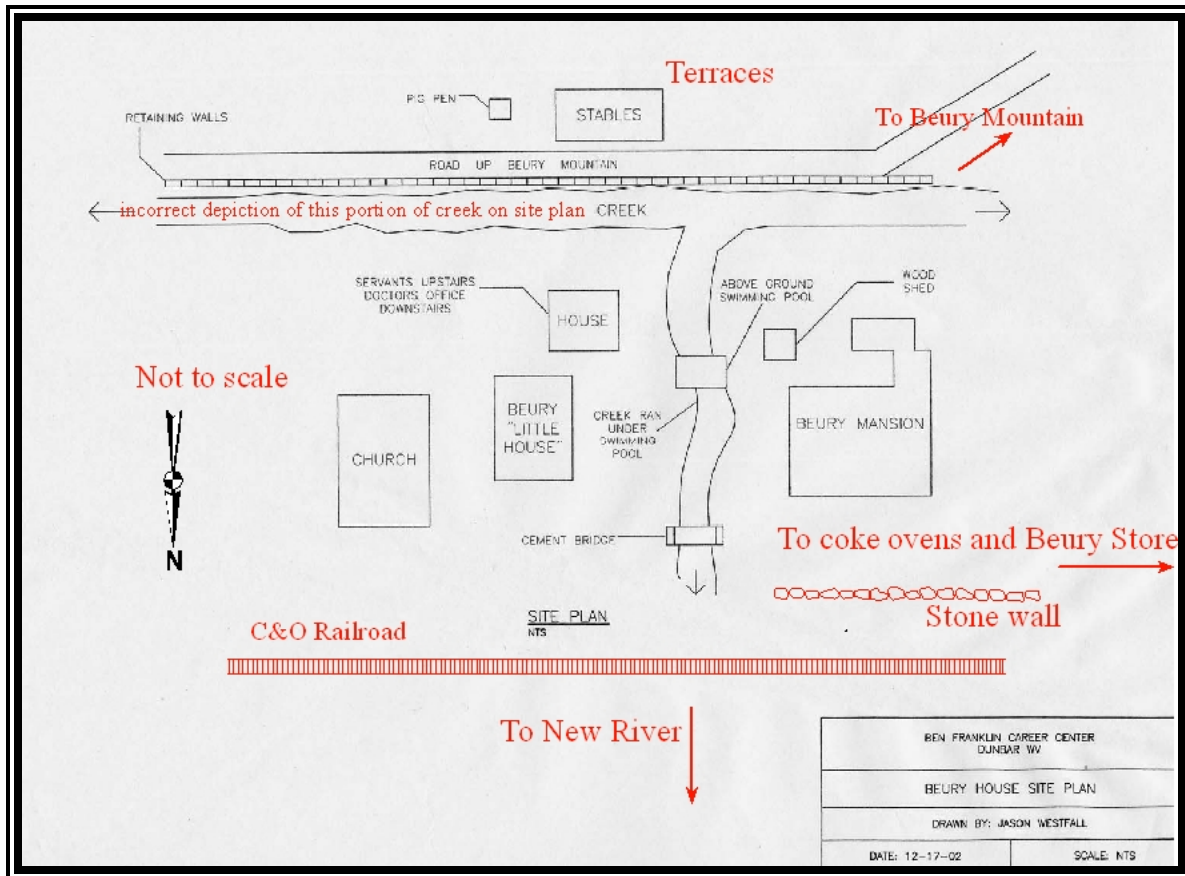


Figure 4.30. 2002 map of the remains at Beury.

Artifacts Collected or Observed

A white milk glass lid liner, embossed “[Mas] on Jars”, was recovered from the Beury site near the mansion (Table 4.4). Lid liners, manufactured from white milk glass, were invented in 1869 to protect the food in a glass jar from the metal cap (Toulouse 1969:350). This specimen is a Boyd liner. The name Boyd was used by the Illinois Glass Co. from 1902-1930 on fruit jars and lids in honor of Lewis Boyd, the 1869 inventor of opal lid liners (Toulouse 1972:92). The name changed from Boyds to Boyd around 1915. Due to the fragmentary nature of this specimen, the spelling of the name “Boyd” is not visible. However, this type of liner was manufactured from 1902-1930 (Toulouse 1972:92). Fruit jars were frequently reused for canning and food preservation purposes. Therefore, this specimen may date later than 1930. This artifact’s period of use is consistent with the Beury site’s period of occupation (1880-1940).

Table 4.5: Artifacts recovered from Beury.

| Context | Provenience | Artifact Class/Subclass | # |
|---------|----------------------------|-------------------------------|---|
| 138 | Surface near Beury mansion | Milk glass lid liner fragment | 1 |

Summary and Recommendations

Based on this investigation, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Beury site. The site contains a number of different property types, including, house lots, commercial, transportation and industrial resources and relates to the coal industry historic context developed by Unrau (1996) for the New River Gorge National River. The Beury site has a high potential to contain intact archaeological deposits due to the recovery of domestic artifacts on the surface from the occupation period (1880-1940) and the presence of extensive domestic and commercial foundation remains.

Because there are intact archaeological remains present at the Beury site, it offers an opportunity to study one of the more significant early coal mining communities of the region. In that regard, further investigations of the Beury site might provide important information about intra-community relationships among places that were connected primarily by the railroad and by their particular roles in the rapid development of the New River valley at the turn of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The Beury site offers insight on the use of early mining technology. The remains of the Beury mansion would help provide insight into the more personal paternal involvement of the owner/operator of the mines. In addition, the mansion could be compared to the domestic remains of company housing addressing questions related to class differences within coal towns. The town's variety of commercial, industrial, and community oriented structures show a greater engagement of owners in community affairs.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Beury site should be protected with all available means. It is historically unique and the archaeological deposits are intact and sensitive to episodes of looting, development, or natural disturbances.
2. To better define the character and extent of the archaeological resources at this site, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine its eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, it is recommended that phase I testing and mapping of the site be undertaken in conjunction with a cultural landscape inventory. This work should consist of systematic shovel probing across the site. After the site's landscape features are mapped, the goals of the shovel probing should include the identification of the locations containing subsurface cultural materials and indicate their spatial relationship to building ruins and landscape features. Finally, site boundaries should be refined on a basis of historical records and the distribution of archaeological remains.
3. Depending on the results of the survey, phase II exploratory archaeological investigations may be necessary. This work should assess the integrity of cultural deposits at the Beury site by excavating several test units throughout the site. The results of these kinds of investigations should produce data from which interpretations about the life of the people who lived there can be articulated.

4. The results of the above investigations can and should be used to compare what we know about other locations in the New River valley. Once accomplished, such comparisons should be made in view of the relationship(s) that the town of Beury had with other communities in the New River valley and of those located in the surrounding uplands.

Given these investigations, the Beury site should be considered potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D. The recommended archaeological and archival research should be able to provide additional information on the size of this site and the nature of the associated archaeological deposits. Taken together the recommended archival research and field investigations should produce the information needed to more fully evaluate the significance of this site.

Beurytown

| | |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Site Type: | Historic coal town |
| Property Types: | Industrial, possible house lots |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4186676 E 508393 |
| Proximity and name of nearest stream: | Meadow Creek 25m |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | 24 acres |
| Previous Disturbance: | Demolition |
| ASIMS # | 403 |

Site Description

Beurytown is an early nineteenth century coal mine and town site located in the New River Gorge National River, Summers County, West Virginia along Clay Pool Road on the northeast side of Meadow Creek (Figures 4.31 and 4.32). The site includes the town of Beurytown and the coal operation (Figures 4.33-37). Beurytown, a small coal-mining town that included a powerhouse, company store and access to the railroad, mined the same Pocahontas seam as coal mined at the Hump Mountain mine upstream (Fuerst, personal communication). Part of the old town site is now open fields. Remains of foundations of possible dwellings and coal mining related structures are present at the site. The property types present at the site include, house lots and industrial resources.

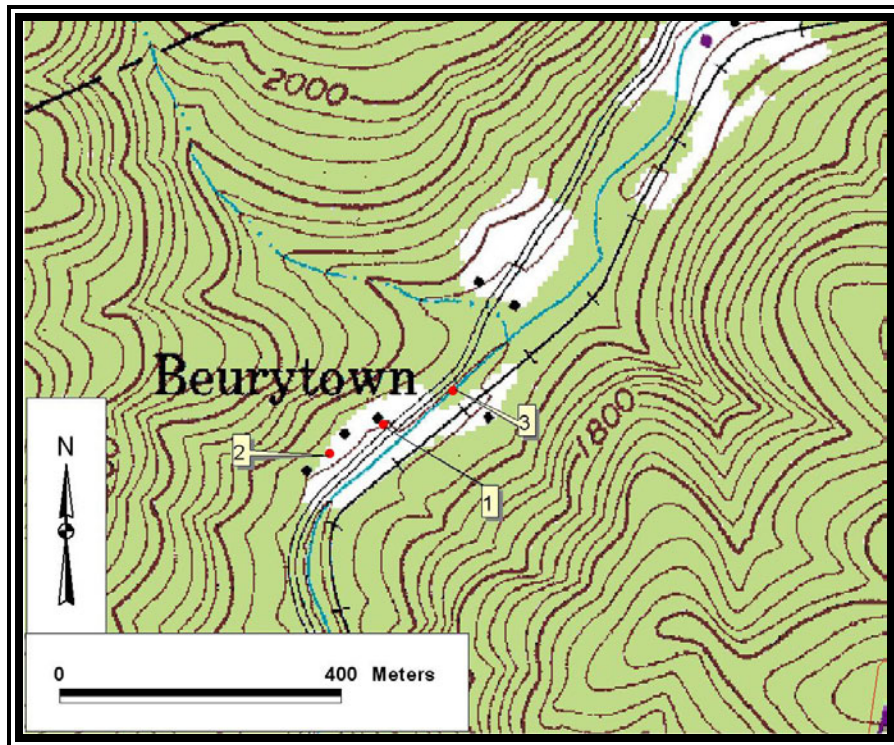


Figure 4.31. Location of Beurytown on 1996 Meadow Creek, WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map: (1) Power house foundation; (2) Foundation; (3) Bridge abutment.

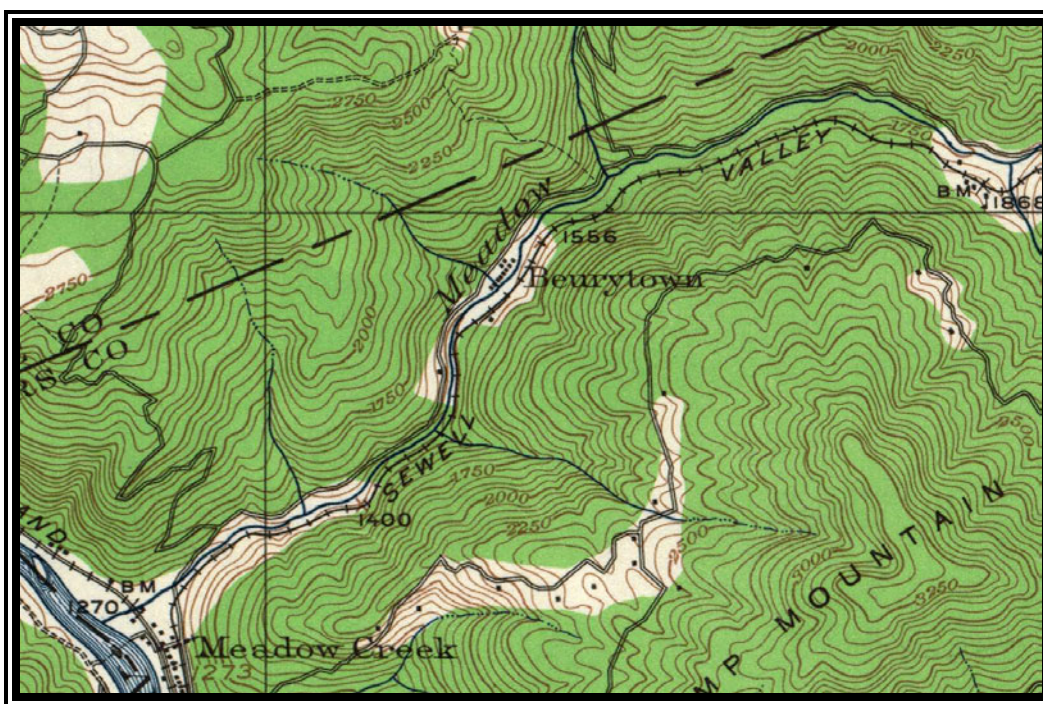


Figure 4.32. Location of Beurytown on 1912 Meadow Creek, WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.

Site History

The Sewell Valley Coal Company operated the Beurytown mine beginning around 1900. The mine had a drift opening in the Pocahontas No. 6 coal bed, which had a thickness of four feet (Peters and Carden 1926:293). The superintendent of the mine was J. E. Decker and S. C. Ferrell was its foreman. Twenty-eight men were employed by the company and worked for 200 days. An output of 6,800 tons of coal was produced using four pick miners and fourteen machine miners (Peters and Carden 1926:293). Three locomotives and one mining machine were used for mining and moving the coal. The mine did not stay in operation long.

Archaeological Fieldwork

The Beurytown site was examined by a pedestrian survey that included observing and photodocumenting any structural remains. No shovel probes were excavated at this site. One local resident reported that he found and filled the foundation of what was possibly the company store.

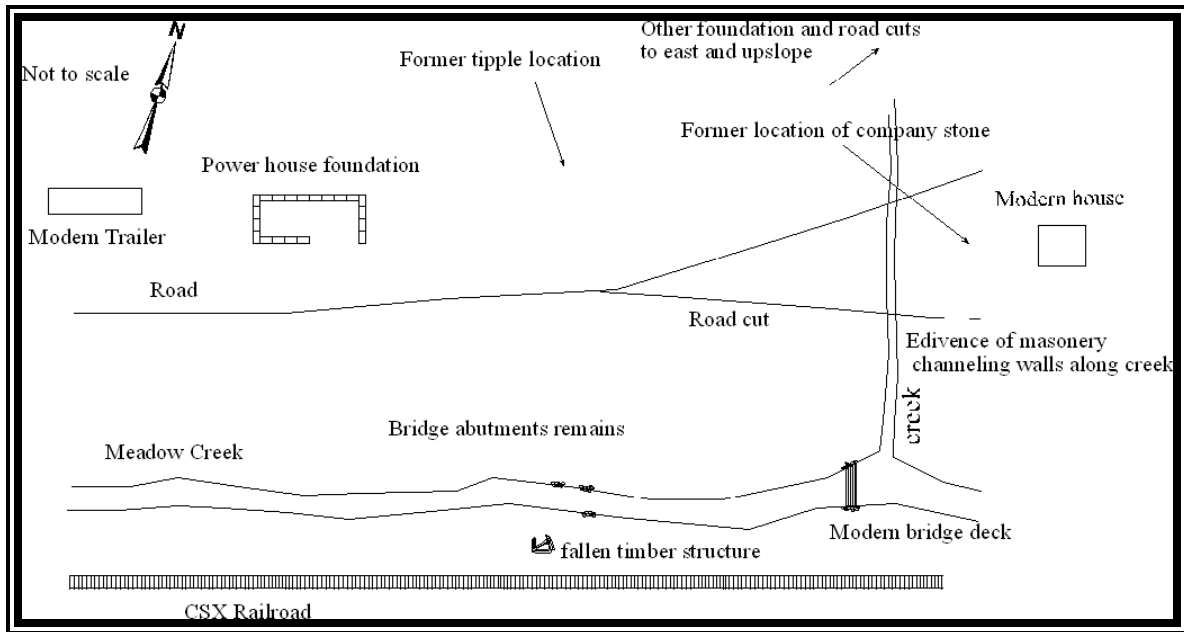


Figure 4.33. Site map of Beurytown.



Figure 4.32. Concrete power house foundation remains at Beurytown looking north (see Figure 4.31(1)).



Figure 4.33. Foundation remains at Beurytown (see Figure 4.31(2)).



Figure 4.34. Power house foundation remains at Beurytown looking west toward modern homes (see Figure 4.31(1)).



Figure 4.35. Bridge abutment crossing Meadow Creek to Railroad tracks at Beurytown (see Figure 4.31(3)).

Artifacts Collected or Observed

No artifacts were observed or collected; however, concrete and masonry ruins, walls, bridge abutments, and road cuts were documented, mapped, and photographed.

Summary and Recommendations

Based on this investigation, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Beurytown site. This site contains both residential and industrial resources and the presence of building foundations, indicates that this site has the potential to contain intact subsurface archaeological deposits dating to its period of occupation. The site relates to the coal industry historic context developed by Unrau (1996) for the New River Gorge National River.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Beurytown site may contain intact archaeological deposits and should be protected with all available means.

2. We recommend additional and more intensive archival research on the settlement and the people who lived and worked at Beurytown. Phase I testing and mapping of the site's landscape features are also recommended. The results of this work can and should be used to compare what we know about other locations in the New River valley. Such comparisons should be made in view of the relationship(s) that the town of Beurytown had with other communities in the Meadow Creek drainage such as Hump Mountain, Tina and Secoma. This information could lead to the development of recommendations for additional archaeological investigations of this site.

Given these investigations, the Beurytown site requires more archaeological work to determine its integrity and potential for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D. The recommended archival research and phase I testing should be used to direct additional fieldwork at this site. Taken together the recommended archival research and field investigations should produce the information needed to more fully evaluate the significance of this site.

Cadle Ridge

| | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Site Type: | Historic coal town |
| Property Types: | Industrial |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4198690 E 492288 |
| Proximity and name of nearest stream: | New River 1km |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | Unknown |
| Previous Disturbance: | Demolition |
| ASIMS # | 404 |

Site Description

The Cadle Ridge site is located in the New River Gorge National River, Fayette County, West Virginia (Figures 4.38 and 4.39). The site is located on a knob between Dunlop Creek and the New River, near Sewell Knob. Only a small portion of the site was identified during this assessment.

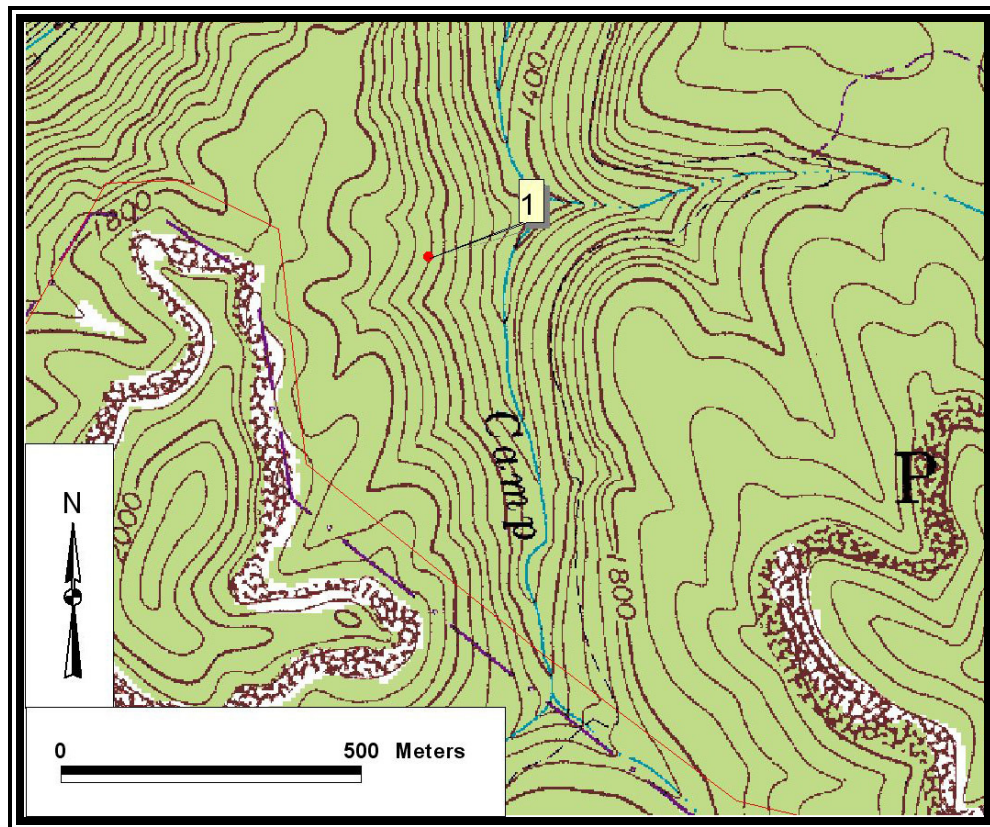


Figure 4.38. Location of Cadle Ridge on 1988 Thurmond, WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map: (1) Powder house.

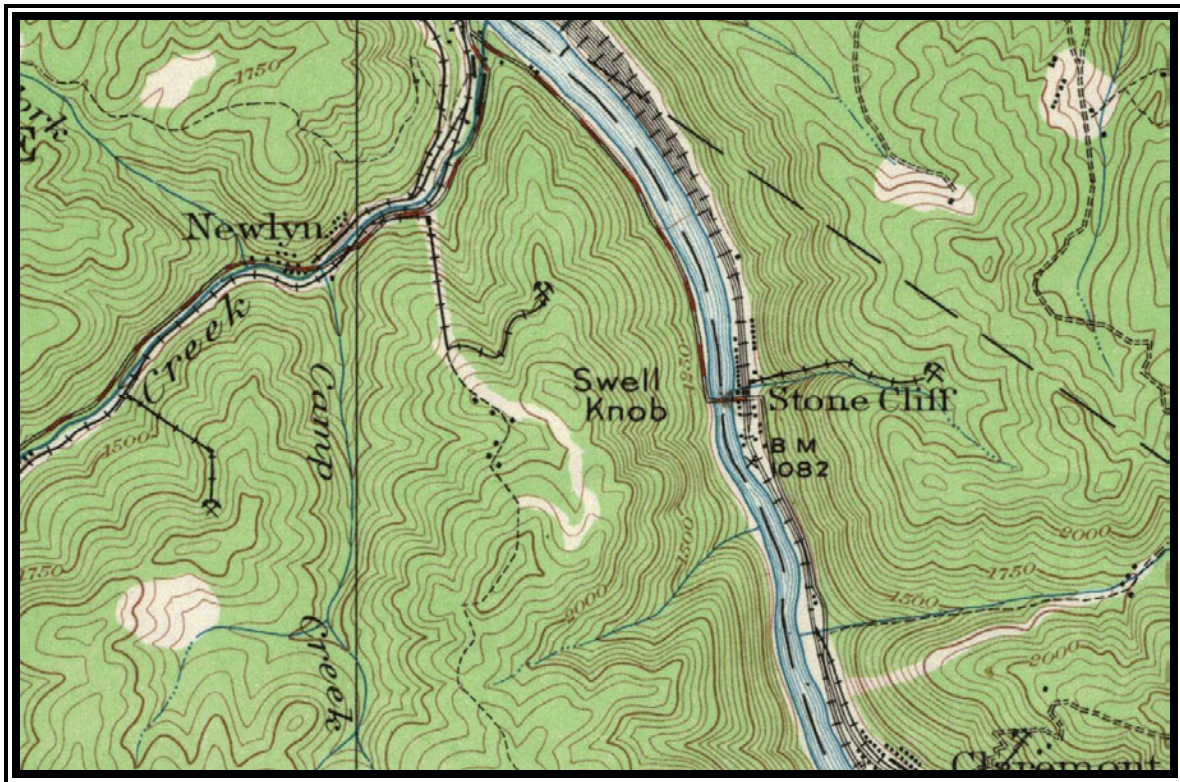


Figure 4.39. Location of Cadle Ridge on 1929 Beckley, WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.

Site History

Little archival information could be found about the mining operations or associated town at Cadle Ridge. What was found indicated that the Cadle Ridge Coal Company operated the Nos. 2, 3, and 4 Cadle Ridge mines. These mines have drift openings in the Sewell coal bed, which had a thickness of five feet two inches. E. J. Casey was the mine superintendent and the mine foreman was R. J. Morton. The company employed 87 men who worked 116 days in the mines (Peters and Carden 1926). With eight pick miners and forty machine miners, 57,919 tons of coal was produced (Peters and Carden 1926). The company also used two machines, two locomotives, and twelve mules to mine and move the coal.



Figure 4.40. Family visiting area near Cadle Ridge known as Flag Rock (Photo on file at the New River Gorge National River Park Headquarters Library).

Archaeological Fieldwork

During the course of this study only one feature associated with the site was identified (Figure 4.40). This consisted of a small concrete building, possibly used for blasting powder storage. New River National River employees, however, have previously visited the site and noted the remains of several structures. These features were not relocated during this investigation. No shovel probes were excavated at the site.

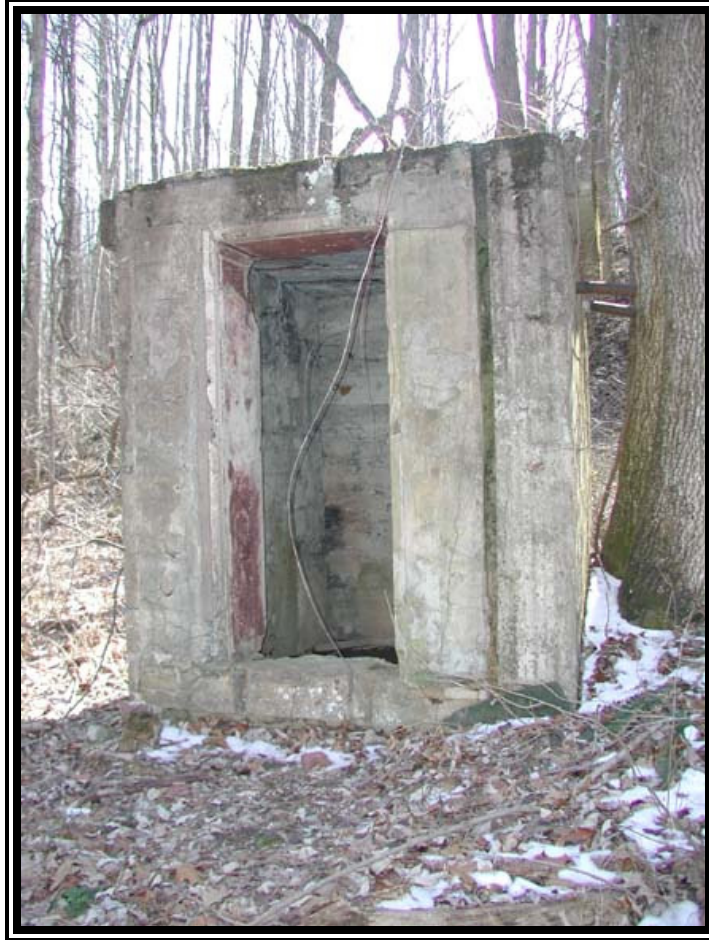


Figure 4.41. Concrete building near Cadle Ridge (see Figure 4.38(1)).

Artifacts Collected or Observed

No artifacts were observed or collected at this site.

Summary and Recommendations

The Cadle Ridge site should be revisited with New River National River employees familiar with the site, and resources should be photographed and mapped. Once this is accomplished, a determination can be made at how the Cadle Ridge site might fit within a more intensive study of the New River Gorge.

Caperton

| | |
|---------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Site Type: | Historic coal town |
| Property Types: | House lots, Industrial, commercial |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4208282 E 497698 |
| Proximity and name of nearest stream: | New River 45m |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | Unknown |
| Previous Disturbance: | Demolition |
| ASIMS # | 405 |

Site Description

The Caperton site is located in the New River Gorge National River, Fayette County, West Virginia (Figures 4.42-44). It is situated on the north side of the New River across from South Caperton. Caperton is located on the east side of the New River about 1½ miles south of the confluence of Keeney Creek. Another mining town, Elverton, is located on the west side of the New River about one mile north of South Caperton.

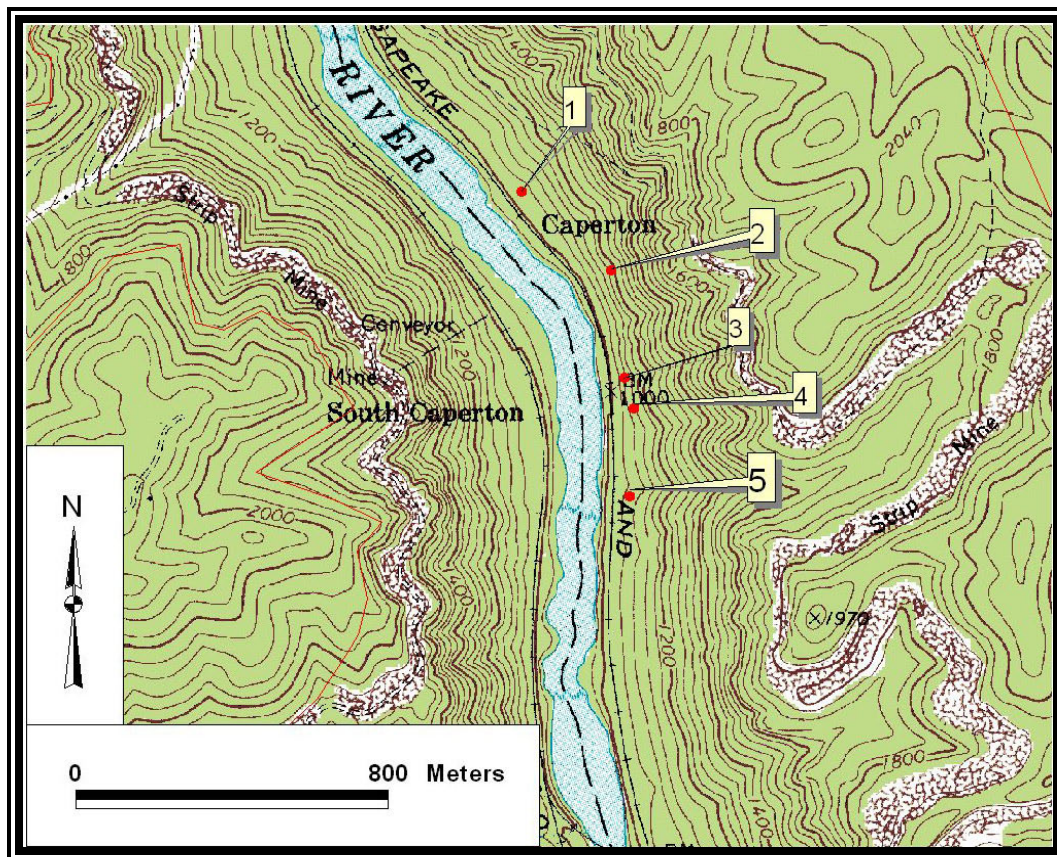


Figure 4.42. Location of Caperton on 1976 Fayetteville, WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map: (1) Rock wall; (2) Possible structures; (3) Tipple; (4) Coke ovens; (5) Coke ovens.

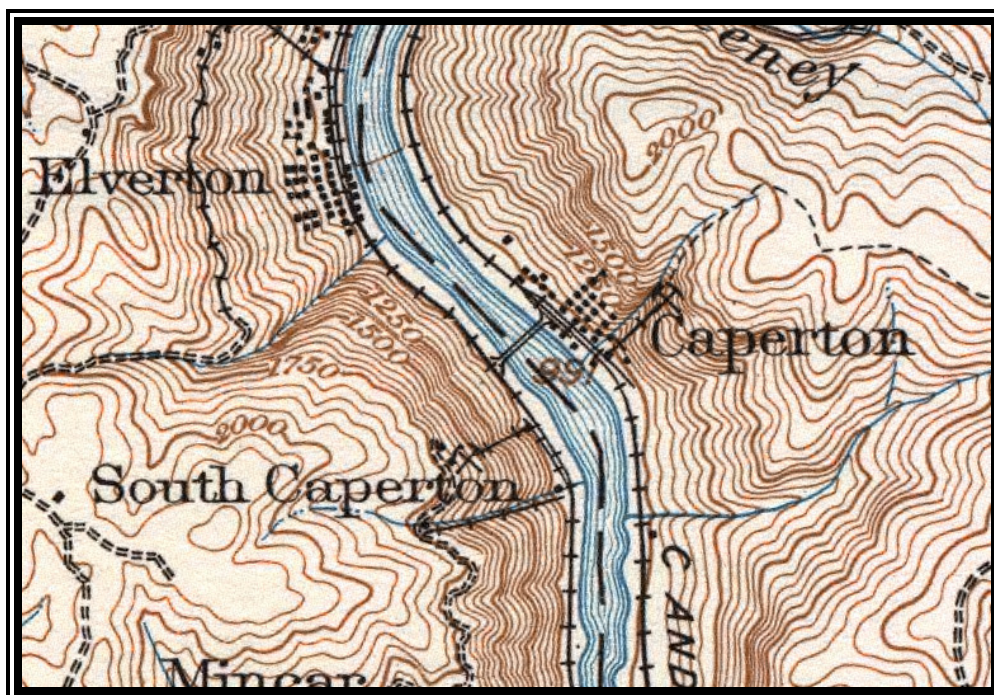


Figure 4.43. Location of Caperton on 1929 Fayetteville, WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.

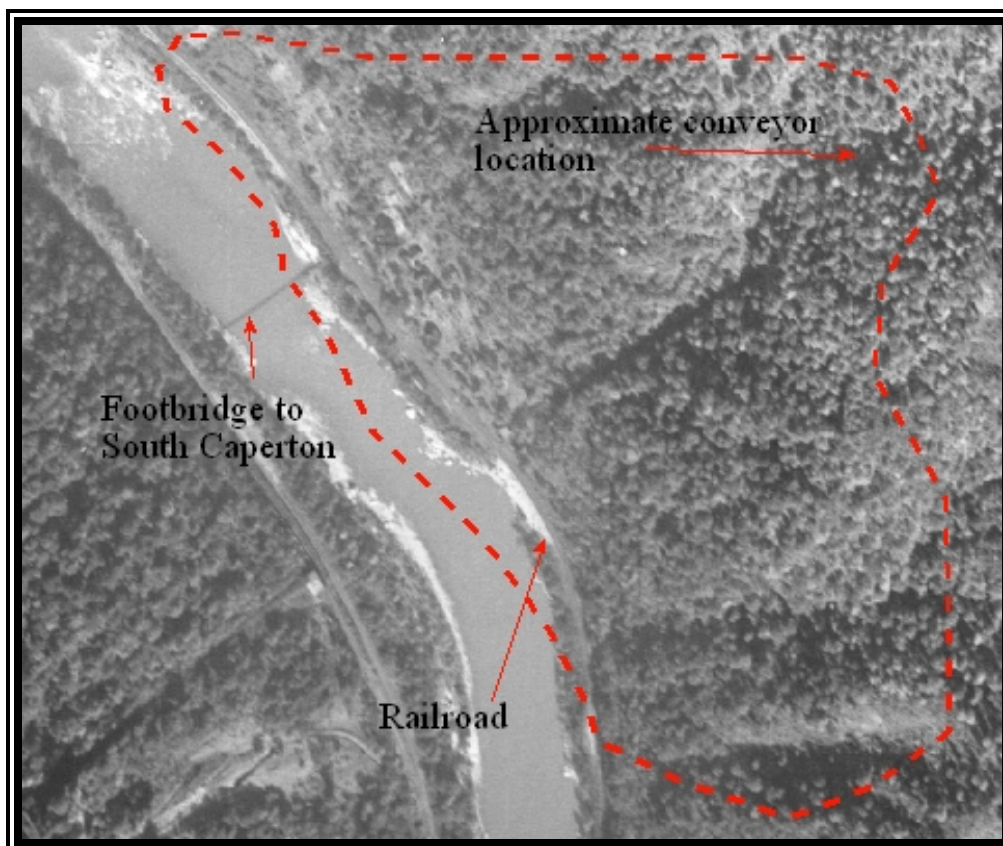


Figure 4.44. 1945 aerial photograph of Caperton.

Site History

Caperton was one of the earliest mining operations and settlements in the New River Gorge and is associated with coal pioneers John L. Beury and George Henry Caperton (Figures 4.43-4.44). After establishing mines at Quinnimont, Fire Creek, and operating the Ansted mines, Joseph Beury joined with John Cooper (Beury, Cooper & Company) to open the Fire Creek seam at Caperton in 1880. Originally known as Ellen or Elm, the settlement was later renamed Caperton, after George Henry Caperton (Workman et al. 2005:36). This endeavor proved to be the most successful mining operation in the New River Coal Field (White 1903). A local assembly of the Knights of Labor, National Trade Assembly 135, was established at Caperton in the 1880s (Workman et al. 2005:36). In the 1890s, the New River Coke Company opened a mine at Caperton and a second across the New River. By 1899, the company had 212 coke ovens at Caperton (Workman et al. 2005). As a result, between 1910 and 1920 a second part of the Caperton settlement developed across the New River and was referred to as South Caperton.

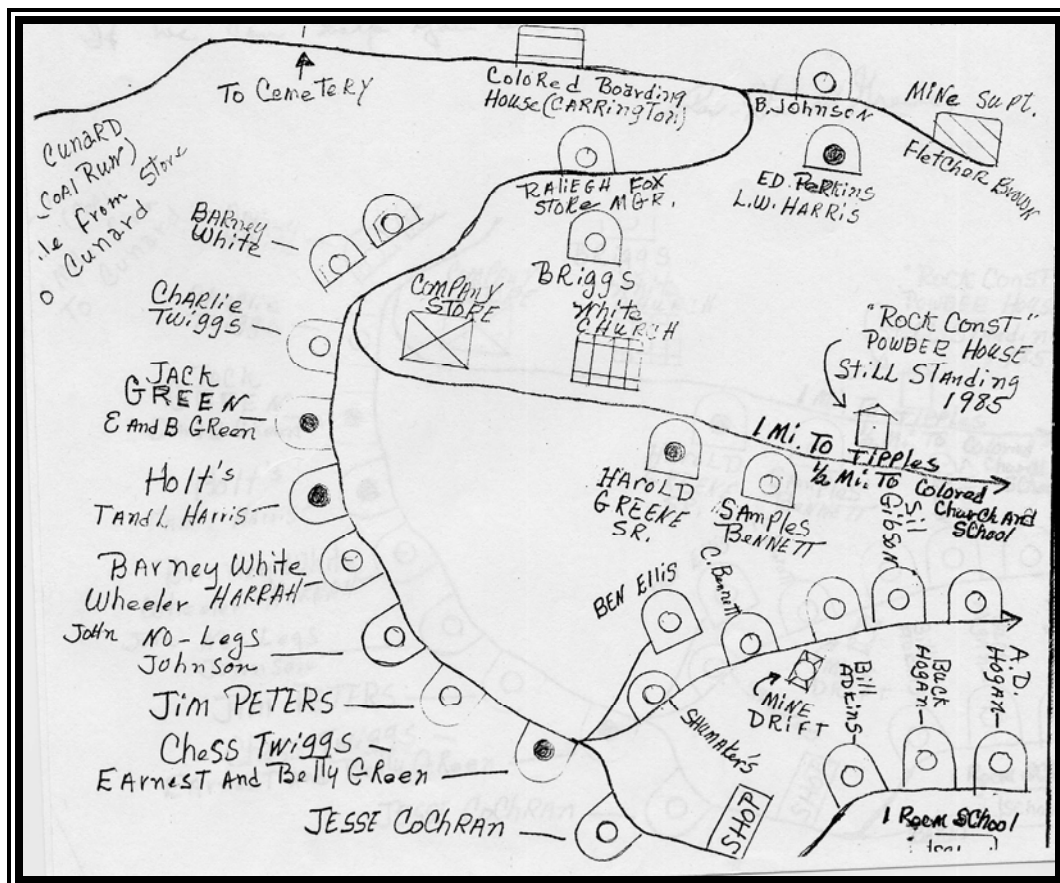


Figure 4.45. Hand drawn map of Caperton by Harold Green 1985 (on file at New River Gorge National River Headquarters library).



Figure 4.46. Tippie incline at Caperton (picture from Vertical file at New River Gorge National River headquarters library).

Beury and Cooper developed a unique monitor car to move the coal down hill by an inclined plane measuring 1,460 feet long to the mining plant at Caperton. The monitor cars consisted of a large plate or boiler-iron cylinder about ten feet long and four feet in diameter mounted on four wheels. To move these monitor cars up and down the incline, the Caperton mine used a tail rope haulage of 4,000 feet in length, with the engines for the haulage plant located at the foot of the mountain near the tippie (Workman et al.

2005:36). Across the river, the South Caperton mine used a suspended cable line 18,000 feet long to transport coal across the river to the tipple at Caperton. A similar coal haulage system was used at the mine in Royal, a number of miles south of Caperton.

While situated on opposite sides of the New River, the settlements of Caperton and South Caperton functioned as though they were one, linked primarily by the coal operations, but also by the C&O railroad that provided the only means of transportation to other locations in the New River Gorge and beyond. The construction of a 500 foot suspended footbridge between these communities circa 1915 (Cavalier 1985) allowed the two settlements to be a single community (Workman 2005).

The town of Caperton included the Caperton mansion, employee houses, a boarding house, a post office, a school for white children, a company store, a powder house, and a whites-only church. In 1899, there were 526 people at Caperton (History of Fayette Co. WV 1993). While there are no known records from Caperton, Green (1985) states that sometime around the 1930s or 1940s, there were about 60 employee houses in South Caperton that rented for one dollar per room per month. Electricity was one dollar per month and coal for heating and cooking was two dollars per month. It is reasonable to assume similar arrangements were in place across the river at Caperton.

In 1919, the population at Caperton was 250 (Workman et al. 2005:37), which is consistent with the end of the large coal boom period in the New River. Like many other mining communities in the New River Gorge, operations at the local mines continued after 1920, but on a limited basis and its population slowly dwindled until the town was abandoned. The mine closed in the late 1940s or early 1950s. The school for white children closed in 1952 and the post office closed in 1954. The town was abandoned shortly after 1954.

Archaeological Fieldwork

The Caperton site encompasses the mining town of Caperton, evidenced by structural foundations (Figure 4.47), fence post and wire, road beds, rock walls, house pillars, a collapsed structure (probably the Caperton mansion; Figure 4.48), a standing structure in disrepair (probably the boarding house; Figure 4.49), and artifact debris on the surface. Evidence of the mining operation at Caperton includes the tipple foundation, the remains of a monitor car, the monitor car hoist, and the remains of the coke ovens. The abutments and anchors for the footbridge across the New River are also present.

The 1928 Fayetteville USGS 15 minute quad indicates that at one time at least 30 structures were present at Caperton, including a mine on the hillside linked to the railroad with an inclined plane (Workman et al. 2005:37) (Figure 4.43). The settlement was arranged in a grid pattern, which was unusual for New River gorge mining communities (Workman et al. 2005:37). No structures were shown on the 1976 Fayetteville USGS 7.5 minute map even though the boarding house is still standing and the mansion was standing as late as 1984 (Figure 4.42) (DellaMea 2005).

The Caperton site was examined by pedestrian survey and shovel probes. Shovel probes were placed near structural remains to determine if intact cultural deposits were present. These structures may be the company housing where miners and their families resided. Shovel probes averaged 30 to 35 cm in diameter and were excavated until sterile subsoil was encountered. Soil from all shovel probes was screened through 6.35 mm hardware cloth. Information that consisted of location, size, depth, and soil profile was recorded for positive shovel probes.

Three shovel probes were excavated at the Caperton site. In general, the upper stratum consisted of 10YR2/1 black silt loam with coal inclusions throughout and the lower stratum was 10YR5/4 yellow brown clay (Figure 4.53).



Figure 4.47. Chimney remains at Caperton (see Figure 4.42(2)).



Figure 4.48. Collapsed structure at Caperton.



Figure 4.49. Standing structure at Caperton.



Figure 4.50. Remains of tibble foundations at Caperton (see Figure 4.42 (3)).



Figure 4.51. Ruins of coke ovens along railroad at Caperton (see Figure 4.42(5)).



Figure 4.52. Foundation remains in Caperton (see Figure 4.42(2)).

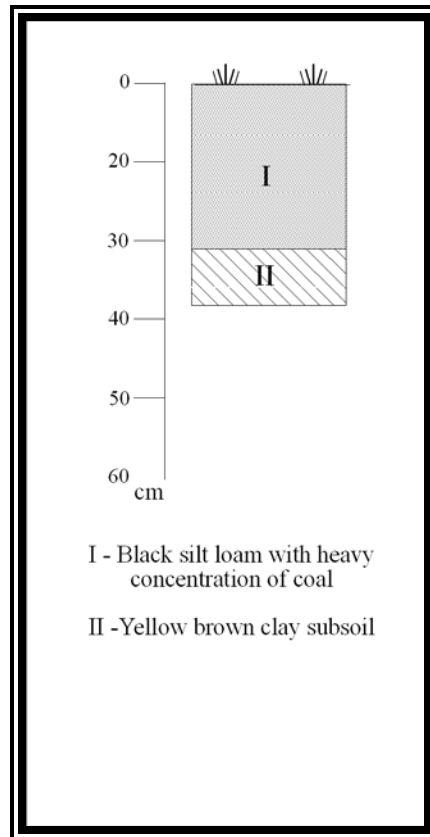


Figure 4.53. Typical Shovel Probe profile at Caperton (SP1).

Artifacts Collected or Observed

A total of 33 artifacts were recovered from Caperton (Table 4.5). These materials consist of whiteware (n=1), ironstone (n=12), English hard-paste porcelain (n=3), Albany slipped stoneware (n=1), container glass (n=11), window glass (n=4), and a white four-hole porcelain Prosser button.

Whiteware was initially manufactured in England beginning in 1805, although it was not commonly a part of American ceramic assemblages until after 1820 (des Fontaines 1990:4). Whiteware dates from approximately 1820 to 1900 (South 1977:211). Ironstone, properly termed “stone china” (Godden 1964) and referred to by nineteenth century Staffordshire potters as “white granite”, is a white-bodied, refined earthenware which is more vitrified than whiteware. Although Charles Mason is generally regarded to have initially produced ironstone as Mason’s ironstone china in 1813 (Noel Hume 1969:131), it continued to be manufactured into the twentieth century. Generally, ironstone dates from 1842 to 1930 (Miller 1991:10; 1993:5-6). Porcelain recovered from this site is highly vitrified English hard-paste porcelain, which has a long period of production and is not temporally diagnostic (Godden 1965; Ketchum 2000).

An Albany slipped stoneware body sherd was recovered. Albany slip is a very smooth, dark, glossy, black or brown clay coating over stoneware (Mullins 1988:57). Albany slip decorated American stonewares were largely produced between about 1800 and 1940 (Azizi et al. 1996:19).

Table 4.6. Artifacts Recovered from Caperton.

| Context | Provenience | Artifact Class/Subclass | # | Comments |
|---------|-----------------------|--------------------------|---|---------------------------------|
| 140-1 | Surface near cemetery | Porcelain Prosser button | 1 | Four holes |
| 140-2 | Surface near cemetery | Bottle | 1 | Base missing |
| 140-3 | Surface near cemetery | Bottle neck and lip | 1 | |
| 140-4 | Surface near cemetery | Glass rim section | 1 | |
| 140-5 | Surface near cemetery | Window glass | 2 | |
| 140-6 | Surface near cemetery | Container glass | 7 | |
| 140-7 | Surface near cemetery | Pearlware | 2 | |
| 140-8 | Surface near cemetery | Whiteware | 4 | 2 rim fragments |
| 140-9 | Surface near cemetery | Porcelain | 1 | Base fragment |
| 140-10 | Surface near cemetery | Ironstone | 4 | 1 rim fragment |
| 141 | SP1-south of cemetery | Whiteware | 1 | |
| 142-1 | Surface | Bottle neck and lip | 1 | |
| 142-2 | Surface | Window glass | 2 | |
| 142-3 | Surface | Ironstone | 2 | Rim fragments |
| 142-4 | Surface | Porcelain | 2 | 1 base fragment, 1 rim fragment |
| 142-5 | Surface | Stoneware | 1 | Albany slipped |

Diagnostic container glass recovered from this site consists of aqua, amethyst, and clear fused applied bottle lips, as well as an amethyst container body sherd. Bottles featuring a fused applied lip date from approximately 1870 to 1920 (Deiss 1981). Amethyst glass recovered from this site dates from 1880 to 1925 (Newman 1970:74), and is associated with the use of manganese oxide as a decolorizing agent in glass production. Glass with manganese turns purplish after extended exposure to the ultraviolet rays of the sun (Jones and Sullivan 1989:13). The decline of amethyst glass is associated with the change to selenium, which began by 1915 and was almost exclusively used as a decolorizing agent after German imports of manganese were suspended in 1918 (Deiss 1981:82-83).

Porcelain buttons have been manufactured since the eighteenth century, but it was not until Richard Prosser patented machinery in 1840 that they were machine made (Epstein and Safo 2001:74). The button recovered from this site dates from 1840 to the twentieth century. Window glass recovered from this site ranges from 2.28 to 3.01 mm in thickness and dates to the twentieth century.

The stratigraphy revealed by the shovel probes indicates a possible midden surrounding the house lots and industrial resources at Caperton. Coal was the heaviest inclusion in that midden.

Summary and Recommendations

Based on this investigation, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Caperton site. The site contains a number of different property types, including, house lots, and commercial and industrial resources. In addition to the domestic artifacts from the Caperton site's 1880-1940 occupation, extensive domestic and commercial foundation remains were documented. These facts, along with the intact archaeological deposits make the site potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places.

Because there are intact archaeological remains present at the Caperton site, it represents an opportunity to study one of the coal mining communities of the region. The site relates to the coal industry historic context developed by Unrau (1996) for the New River Gorge National River. In that regard, further investigations of the Caperton site might provide important information about intra-community relationships among places that were connected primarily by the railroad and by their particular roles in the rapid development of the New River valley at the turn of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. In addition, the remains of the of the boarding house could be compared to the domestic remains of company housing addressing questions related to class differences within coal towns.

The Caperton site represents the development of a community almost entirely to support the coal boom between 1880 and 1920. Because there are significant archaeological remains still present at the Caperton site, it represents an opportunity to study the dynamics involved in these special purpose communities within the coal industry.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Caperton site should be protected with all available means. Its associated archaeological deposits are relatively undisturbed and sensitive to episodes of looting, development, or natural disturbances.
2. To better define the nature and extent of the archaeological resources at this site, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine its eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, it is recommended that phase I testing and mapping of the site be undertaken in conjunction with a cultural landscape inventory. This archaeological work should consist of systematic shovel probing across the site. After the site's landscape features are mapped, the goals of shovel probing should include the identification of the locations containing subsurface cultural materials and indicate their spatial relationship to building ruins and landscape features. Finally, site boundaries should be refined on the basis of historical records and the distribution of archaeological remains.
3. Depending on the results of the survey, phase II exploratory archaeological investigations may be necessary. This work should assess the integrity of cultural

deposits at the Caperton site by excavating several test units throughout the site. The results of these kinds of investigations should produce data from which interpretations about the life of the people who lived there can be articulated.

4. More intensive archival and literary research should also be undertaken to identify the inhabitants of Caperton and official documents that may provide some insight into their lives, such as, but not limited to, tax records, census records, mining company payrolls, and company store credit lists.
5. The results of the above investigations can and should be used to compare what we know about other locations in the New River valley. Once accomplished, such comparisons should be made in view of the relationship(s) that the town of Caperton had with other communities in the New River valley and of those located in the surrounding uplands.

Given these investigations, the Caperton site should be considered potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D. The recommended archaeological and archival research should be able to provide additional information on the size of this site and the nature of the associated archaeological deposits associated. Taken together the recommended archival research and field investigations should produce the information needed to more fully evaluate the significance of this site.

Ephraim

| | |
|---------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Site Type: | Historic coal town |
| Property Types: | House lots, Industrial, Commercial |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4195664 E 498362 |
| Proximity and name of nearest stream: | New River 50m |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | Unknown |
| Previous Disturbance: | Demolition |
| ASIMS # | 406 |

Site Description

The Ephraim site is a historic coal town located in the New River Gorge National River, Fayette County, West Virginia (Figures 4.54 - 56). The site was divided into three areas: Upper Ephraim, Middle Ephraim, and Lower Ephraim to delineate the main concentrations of archaeological and structural remains. The remains of the head house and a small group of residences were located at Upper Ephraim. There was another area of residences at Middle Ephraim. The Lower Ephraim area consists primarily of a portion of the conveyor, the tipple, silos, and associated buildings, which may be coal-related or industry-related sites. There are also standing structures and partially standing structures near the CSX railroad tracks along the river banks.

The 1916 WVGS 15 minute map shows a mine located approximately 0.5 mile above the Chesapeake & Ohio (C&O) Railroad, and a settlement at Ephraim, that had about 20 structures; these structures were situated on a slope above the gorge (Workman et al. 2005:29). The 1929 USGS 15 minute map shows the same features, along with another mine connected to the C&O by a 0.5 mile rail line or monitor and a small settlement of about 10 structures about 0.5 mile north of Ephraim (Workman et al. 2005:29) (Figure 4.55). The possible site of Dundee, located on the flat terrace below Ephraim, is located between the remains associated with the Ephraim mining operation and the town of Thayer. Upper Ephraim underwent a significant amount of strip mining in the mid- to late twentieth century.

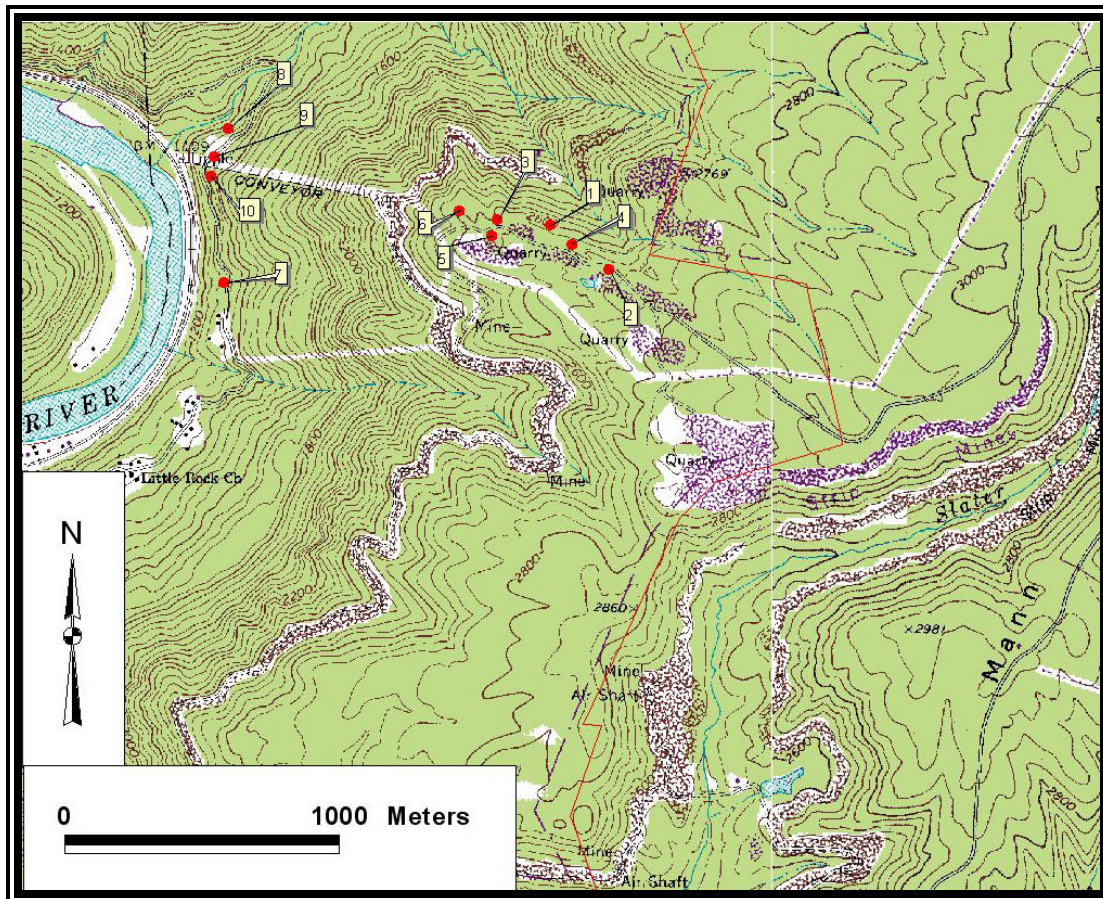


Figure 4.54. Location of Ephraim on 1988 Thurmond, WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map: (1) Head house area; (2) Historic road; (3) Conveyor line; (4) Mine entrance; (5) Upper Ephraim town site; (6) Upper Ephraim town site; (7) Dundee; (8) Buildings above Buffalo Creek; (9) Conveyor foundation; (10) Water tower.

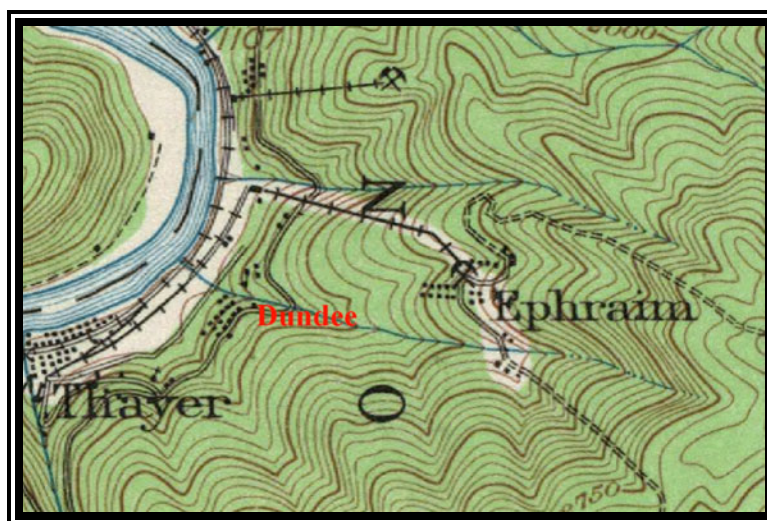


Figure 4.55. Location of Ephraim on 1929 Beckley, WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.

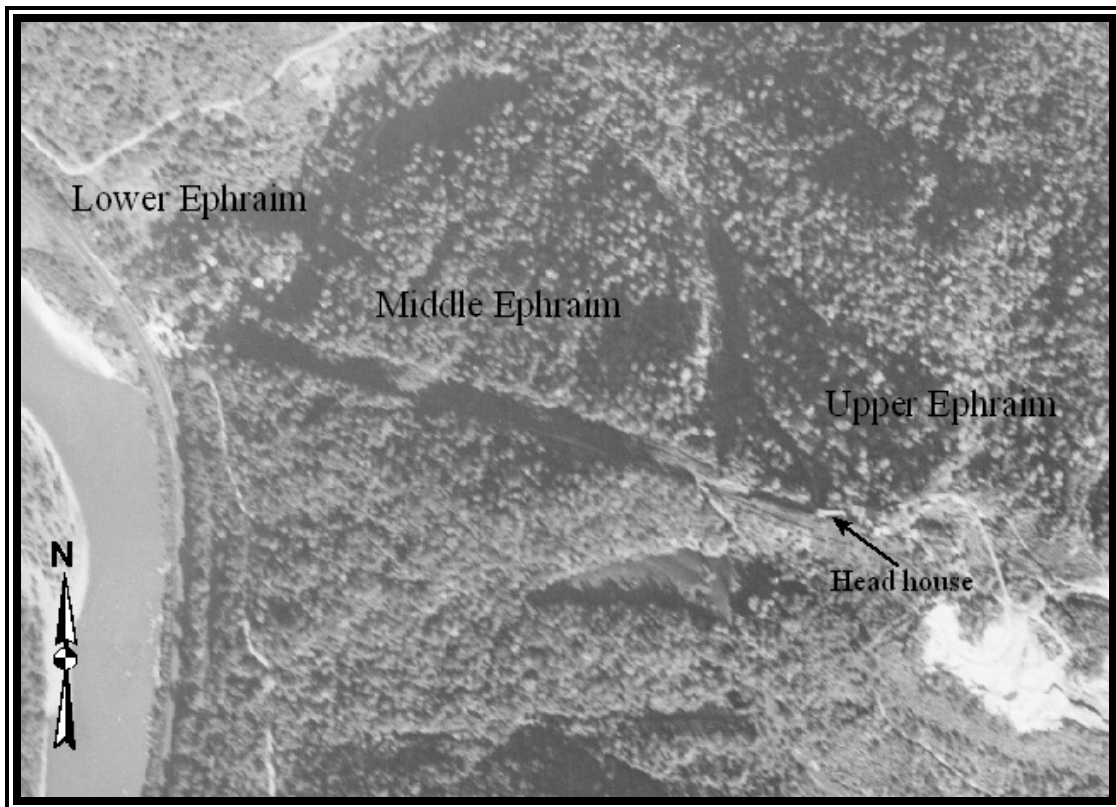


Figure 4.56. 1945 aerial photograph of Ephraim.

Site History

The Ephraim Creek Coal and Coke Company opened the mine and settlement of Ephraim in 1902. The superintendent of the mines was C. E. Rollyson with J. H. Carter as its foreman. The company operated the Buffalo and Slater mines, which have drift openings in the Fire Creek seam with a thickness of three feet seven inches (Peters and Carden 1926:283). The company had 121 employees working in the mines for 135 days. With 6 pick miners, forty-four machine miners, and five machines an output of 57,353 tons of coal was produced (Peters and Carden 1926:283). Both mines were linked to the C&O main line by incline planes with fourteen locomotives moving the coal (Workman et al. 2005:29). The New River Coal Company began operating the mines in 1926.

The New River Silica Company quarried sandstone from Mann Mountain, located half a mile northeast of Ephraim, and processed it for sale to glass plants (Workman et al. 2005:29). The sandstone lies in the Upper Raleigh Sandstone ledge, which offers an abundant supply of high-grade glass-sand. The quarry face was about 300 feet long and 25 to 30 feet high. The stone was transported off the mountain by two 6-ton monitors over an incline railway that was 3300 feet in length to a crushing and washing plant on the main line of the C&O railroad, just above the mouth of Buffalo Creek. There it was crushed, washed, screened, and dried.

Operation of the plant began in the summer of 1915 and in October of 1916, 25 to 30 men were employed at the quarry and crushing plant. The average daily output was about 150 tons of prepared sand, which was sold for \$1.50 per ton. The sand was sold mostly to glass manufacturing plants in West Virginia at Dunbar, St. Albans, and Huntington where it was used to make window and flint glass ware. There are remains of a conveyor system on top of the mountain along with the remains of buildings associated with the quarry operation. Along the C&O main line there are four silos that were used for storing both sand and coal. The C&O train stop used by the New River Silica Company for loading sand was known as Dundee (Workman et al. 2005:29). However, Dundee is also referred to as the Dundee sand-processing plant.

A sand manufacturing plant was opened a half-mile below Thayer by the Sun Sand Company. It was in operation while the Ephraim Creek Coal Company was mining coal and continued even after the mines closed. The Sun Sand Company employed only twelve men, however, 4,000 to 5,000 tons of sand were shipped each month. Sandstone was taken from a rock quarry located on top of the mountain, a quarter of a mile from the C&O railroad. There the sandstone was drilled, shot, and hauled to 1,000-ton bins, where it was crushed into six-inch rock size pieces (Scott nd). The sandstone was then sent down the mountain in monitors and crushed into one and a half inch rock size pieces in a jaw crusher. Next it was conveyed to a bin close to the river and ground into sand. It was washed three times, classified, and screened. The sand passed through conveyors to seven drainage bins and into a direct heat drier. Once dry, the sand was screened again, put into storage bins, and ready for shipment. The sand was shipped in four grades determined by fineness and chemical quality. The company only shipped to Charleston, West Virginia and most of the sand was sold to the glass making industry. However, the coarsest grade of sand was sold to the mine companies for mine motor use (Scott nd). The sand manufacturing business, like other industries, had its obstacles. Two chief impediments to the sand industry were iron and titanium. The iron could be extracted from the sand by a sulfuric acid process, which dissolves it. Titanium, which is a widely distributed dark-gray metallic element found in many chemicals, does not dissolve in sulfuric acid. The Sun Sand Company maintained their own laboratories to perform experiments in an effort to remove the titanium from the sand, but they were unsuccessful at the time (Scott nd).

Archaeological Fieldwork

The Ephraim site was divided into three areas: Upper Ephraim, Middle Ephraim and Lower Ephraim (Figures 4.57 and 4.64) to delineate the main concentrations of archaeological and structural remains. These areas were examined by a pedestrian survey that included observing and photodocumenting any structural remains.

Middle and Lower Ephraim

One shovel probe was excavated at the Middle Ephraim area (Figure 4.63). It was placed within what is believed to be a house lot to test for domestic midden and ended at a depth of 34 cm. Layer one was 10YR3/1 very dark gray silt clay loam topsoil. Layer

two was 10YR4/3 brown silty clay loam subsoil. The area behind the house appeared undisturbed. One unidentifiable nail and a fragment of window glass were recovered but not retained. The structure was covered with kudzu and had no roof.

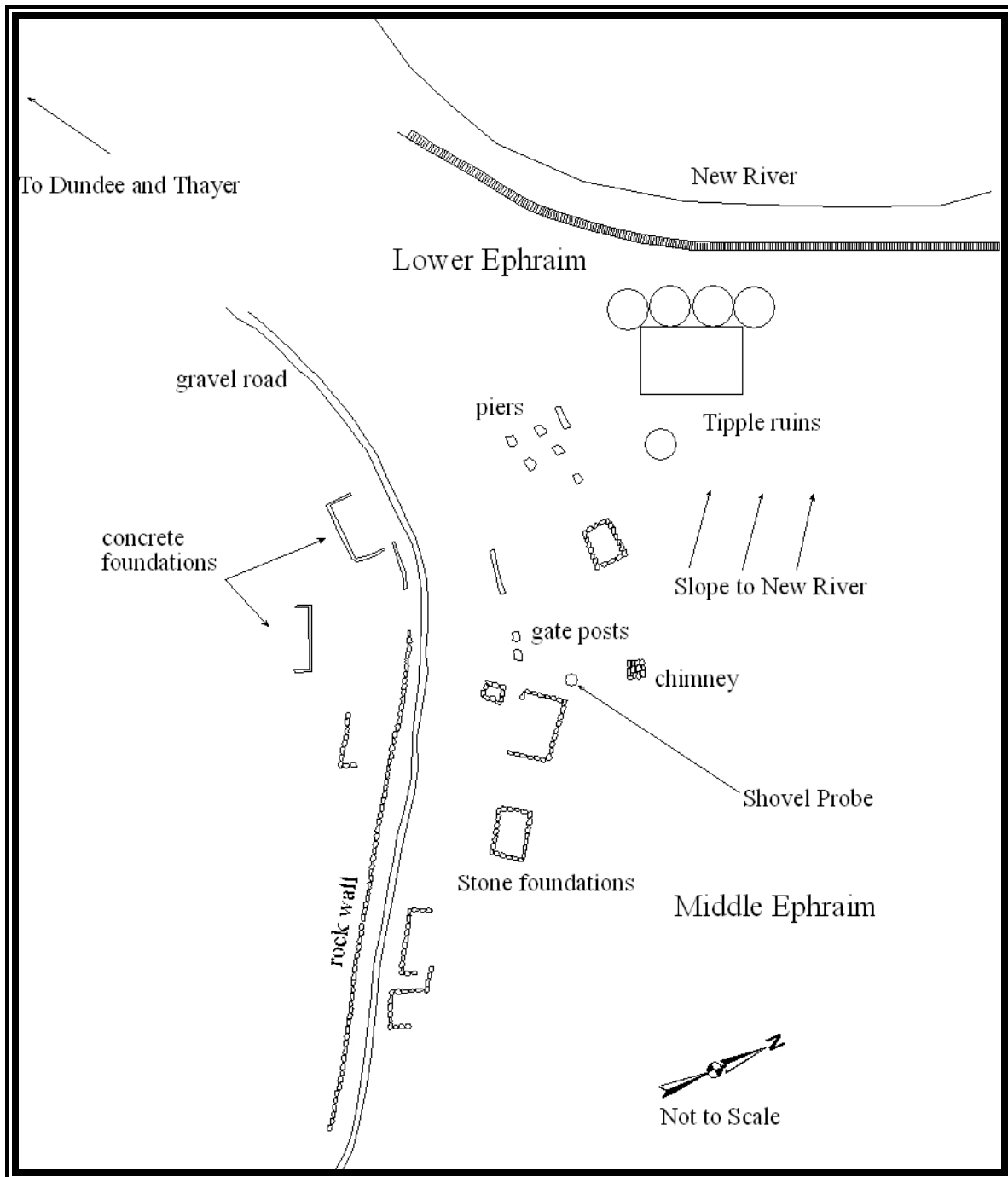


Figure 4.57. Site map of current resources in Lower and Middle Ephraim.



Figure 4.58. Storage silos near railroad at Lower Ephraim.



Figure 4.59. Storage silos at Lower Ephraim and railroad tracks.



Figure 4.60. Foundation remains for the Ephraim tipple in Middle Ephraim.



Figure 4.61. Dundee building remains (see Figure 4.54(7)).



Figure 4.62. Remains of building at Dundee (see Figure 4.54(7)).

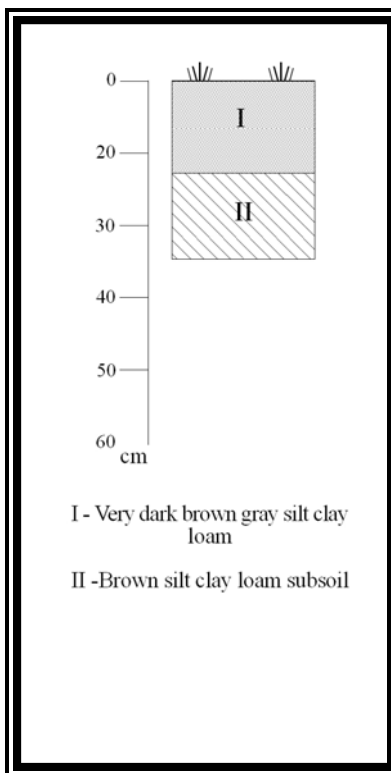


Figure 4.63. Profile of shovel probe from Middle Ephraim.

Upper Ephraim

Upper Ephraim includes two distinct areas: one consisting of structures related to the mining operation, including the mine portal, head house, powder house and tippie remains; and one containing the remains of a number of small dwellings, most likely company housing for the coal miners and their families (Figure 4.65-80).

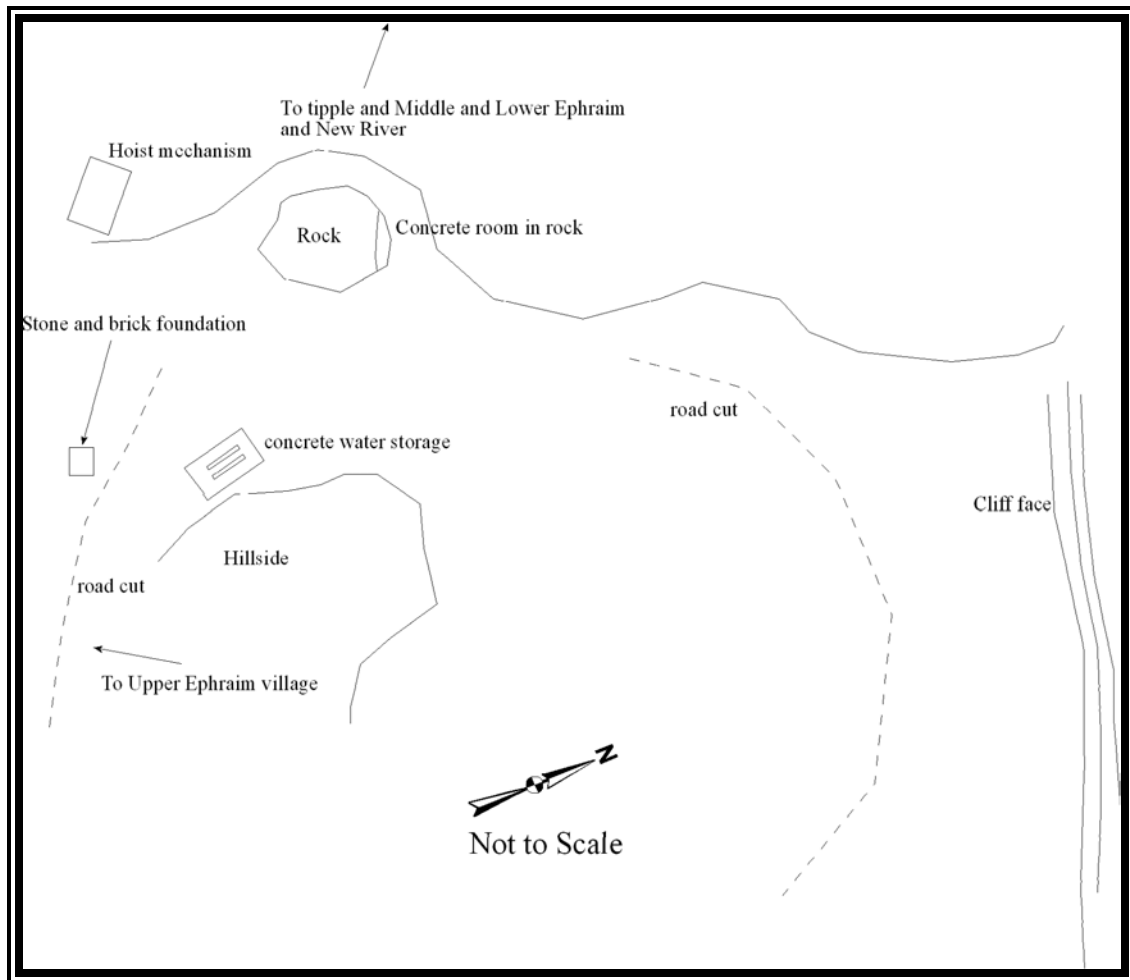


Figure 4.64. Site map of Upper Ephraim mining operation.



Figure 4.65. Upper Ephraim, mining industry building remains (see Figure 4.54(1)).



Figure 4.66. Upper Ephraim, mining industry tipple equipment remains (see Figure 4.54(1)).

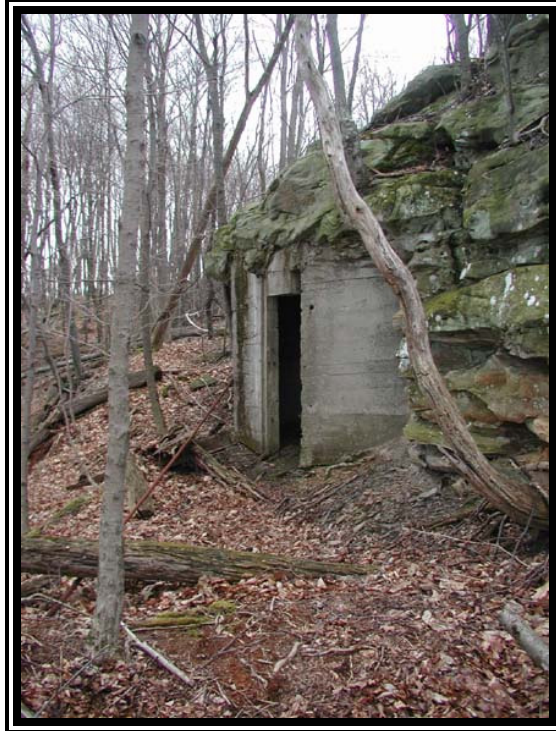


Figure 4.67. Possible powder house constructed in natural rock outcrop, Upper Ephraim (see Figure 4.54(1)).



Figure 4.68. Road cut in Upper Ephraim in mining area (see Figure 4.54(2)).



Figure 4.69. Tibble remains, Upper Ephraim in mining area (see Figure 4.54(1)).



Figure 4.70. Tibble remains, Upper Ephraim in mining area (see Figure 4.54(1)).



Figure 4.71. View of New River from Upper Ephraim mining area (see Figure 4.54(1)).



Figure 4.72 Ephraim mine portal (see Figure 4.54(4)).

The Upper Ephraim village site occupies a ridge below the mine portal and head house. The remains of the dwellings are organized in two rows along the ridge as pictured in the 1929 Beckley USGS 15 minute Topographic Map (Figure 4.73). The remains of the dwellings consisted of foundation stones, chimney foundations, random bricks, and a scatter of artifacts (Figures 4.74-80). A road cut was present between the two rows of dwellings (Figure 4.76). No shovel probes were excavated but artifacts were visible on the ground surface (Figures 4.79-4.80). It is likely that these small dwellings housed coal miners and their families, and could have been company housing

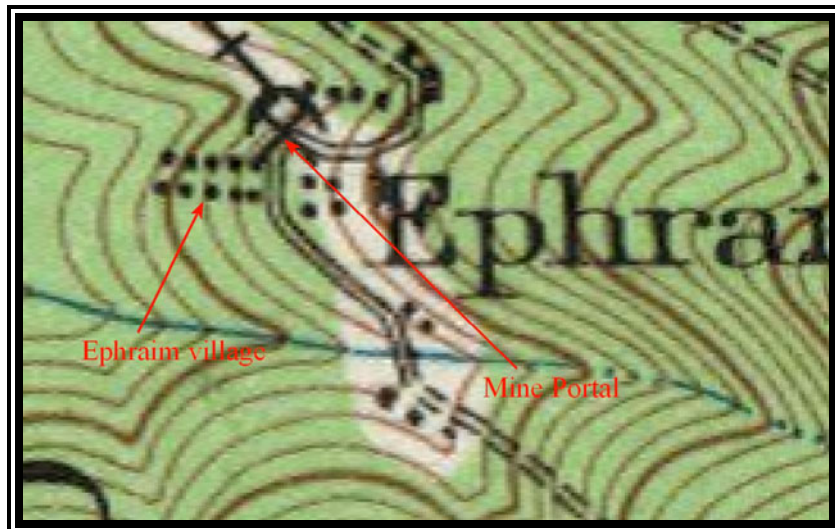


Figure 4.73. Upper Ephraim village and mine portal.



Figure 4.74. Building remains Upper Ephraim village site (see Figure 4.54(5&6)).



Figure 4.75. Foundation remains at Upper Ephraim village site (see Figure 4.54(5&6)).



Figure 4.76. Row of house lot remains at Upper Ephraim village site (see Figure 4.54(5&6)).



Figure 4.77. Roadway in village, Upper Ephraim (see Figure 4.54(5&6)).



Figure 4.78. Mining activity artifact remains, Upper Ephraim (see Figure 4.54(5&6)).



Figures 4.79 and 4.80. Artifacts observed in Upper Ephraim village site (see Figure 4.54(5&6)).

Artifacts Collected or Observed

One nail of undetermined type and a sherd of window glass were observed in the excavated shovel probe. They were not retained. Artifacts were also observed in Upper Ephraim (see Figures 4.79 and 4.80) but not collected. These artifacts are typical of early nineteenth century domestic materials including handpainted ceramics and glass electrical insulators. The artifacts indicate that occupation era deposits are likely in all areas of Ephraim.

Summary and Recommendations

Based on this investigation, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Ephraim site. The site contains a number of different property types, including, house lots, and commercial and industrial resources and relates to the coal industry historic context developed by Unrau (1996) for the New River Gorge National River. The Ephraim site has a high potential to contain intact archaeological deposits due to the recovery of domestic artifacts from the occupation period (1900-1940) and the presence of extensive domestic and commercial foundation remains.

Because intact archaeological remains may be present at the Ephraim site, it represents an opportunity to study one of the coal mining communities of the region. In that regard, further investigations of the Ephraim site might provide important information about intra-community relationships among places that were connected primarily by the railroad and by their particular roles in the rapid development of the New River valley at the turn of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. In addition, the remains of the Ephraim village could be compared to the domestic remains of other company housing such as Sewell Knob and Stonecliff possibly addressing questions related to class differences within coal towns, racial segregation and consumerism.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Ephraim site should be protected with all available means. Its associated archaeological deposits are relatively undisturbed and sensitive to episodes of looting, development, or natural disturbances.
2. In order to better define the nature and extent of the archaeological resources at this site, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine its eligibility for listing in the National Register of Historic Places, it is recommended that phase I testing and mapping of the site be undertaken in conjunction with a cultural landscape inventory. This work should consist of systematic shovel probing across the entire site. After the site's landscape features are mapped, the goals of shovel probing should include the identification of the locations containing subsurface cultural materials and indicate their spatial relationship to building ruins and landscape features. Finally, site boundaries should be refined on the basis of historical records and the distribution of archaeological remains.
3. Depending on the results of the survey, phase II exploratory archaeological investigations may be necessary. This work should assess the integrity of cultural deposits at the Ephraim site by excavating several test units in areas determined through results of the archaeological survey to have a high potential for containing intact deposits. The results of these kinds of investigations should produce data from which interpretations about the life of the people who lived there can be articulated.

4. The results of the above investigations can and should be used to compare what we know about other locations in the New River valley. Once accomplished, such comparisons should be made in view of the relationship(s) that the town of Ephraim had with other communities in the New River valley and of those located in the surrounding uplands.

Given these investigations, the Ephraim site should be considered potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D. The recommended archaeological and archival research should be able to provide additional information on the size of this site and the nature of the associated archaeological deposits. Taken together the recommended archival research and field investigations should produce the information needed to more fully evaluate the significance of this site.

Fayette Station

| | |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| Site Type: | Historic coal town |
| Property Types: | Industrial, commercial, transportation |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4212827 E 493824 |
| Proximity and name of nearest stream: | New River |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | Unknown |
| Previous Disturbance: | Demolition |
| ASIMS # | 407 |

Site Description

The Fayette Station site is located in the lower (downriver) portion of the New River Gorge National River, Fayette County, West Virginia (Figures 4.81 and 4.82). The site is located between Lansing and Fayetteville and is situated on the east side of the New River. The town was intimately connected through mining and the local economy with the historic community of South Fayette on the opposite side of the New River. The iron truss Fayette Station Bridge connected these communities and a historical replacement that is still in use today. Several structural remains, mine openings, a few pieces of mining equipment, sections of rails, the tipple, the head house, and sections of rock walls, are still visible (Figure 4.83-88). The modern road system into Fayette Station generally follows the route of the historic roads established in the early twentieth century.

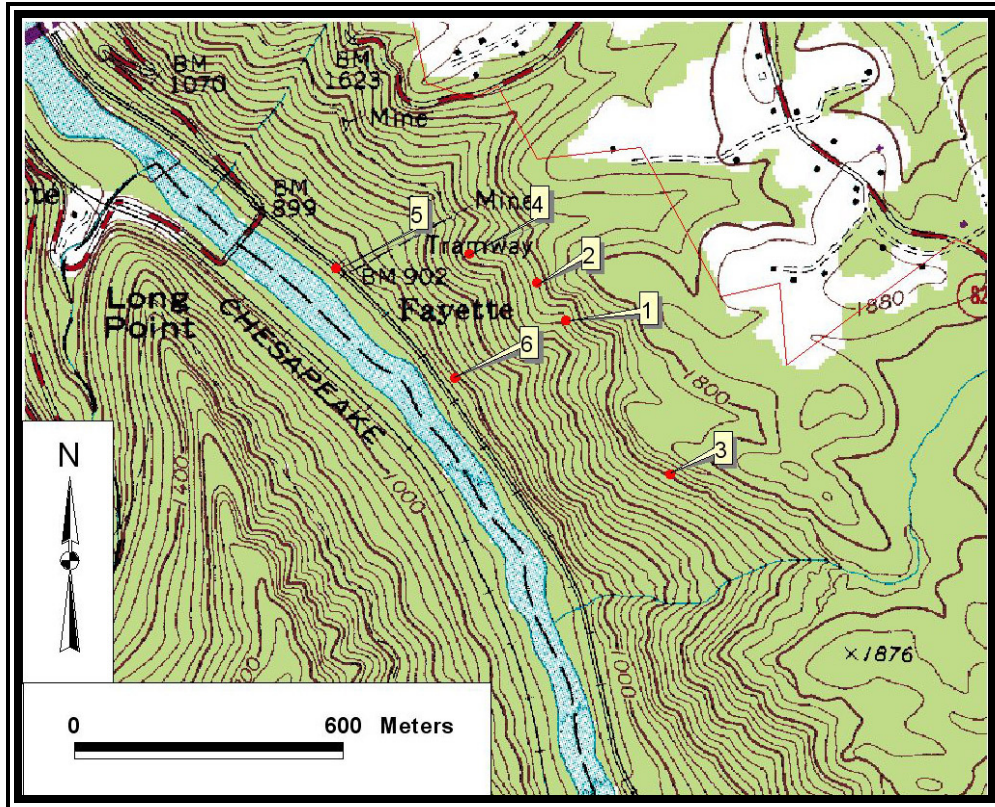


Figure 4.81. Location of Fayette Station on 1976 Fayetteville, WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map: (1) Mine entrance 1; (2) Mine entrance 2; (3) Fan house; (4) Mine entrance 3; (5) Structure remains; (6) Tipple.

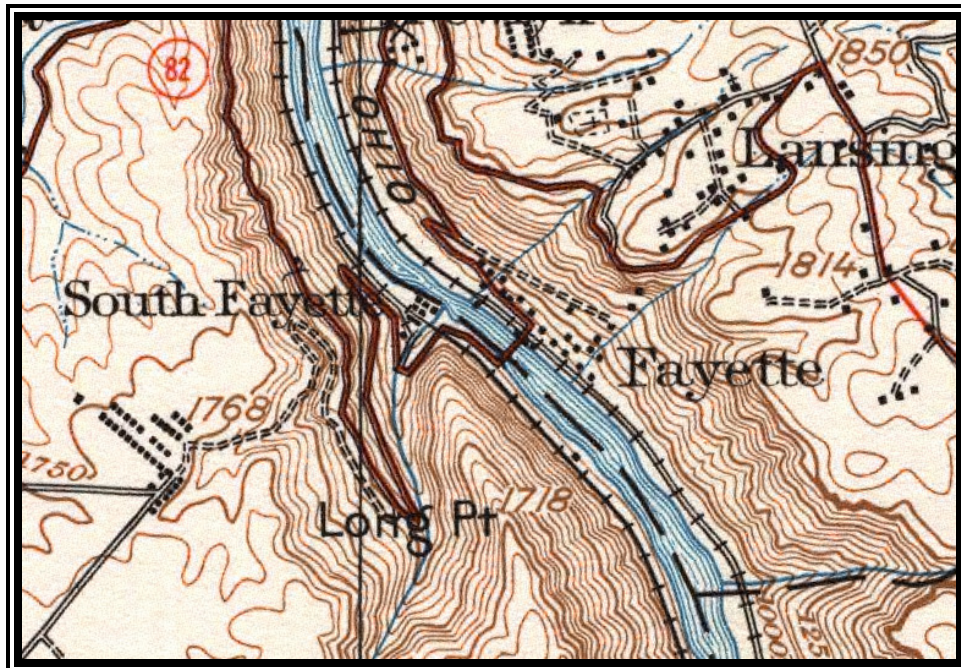


Figure 4.82. Location of Fayette Station on 1929 Fayetteville, WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.

Site History

Martin Blume established Fayette and opened a mine around 1873. Mining remained the principal employment for the residents of Fayette. The name of the town changed from Fayette to Fayette Station in 1894 (WV Archives and History 2007). Blume negotiated a right-of-way agreement with the Chesapeake & Ohio (C&O) Railroad in exchange for free passenger service (Workman et al. 2005:54). Blume and his descendants were given passenger rights for as long as the trains were in use. A post office was established at Fayette in 1875.

The Fayette mine was operated by the E. G. Blume Coal Company. The mine had a drift opening in the Sewell coal bed that is three feet thick. E. G. Blume was the superintendent of the mine and L. D. Miller was mine foreman. Neither of these men was found in the census (1880, 1900, 1910 and 1920) although a Blume family is listed as living in Nuttall which may actually be Nuttallburg, just south of Fayette Station. The company employed twenty-three men who worked 130 days; with eight pick and eight machine miners an output of 8,850 tons of coal was produced (Peters and Carden 1926:292). One mining machine, one locomotive, and two mules were used to mine and move the coal (Peters and Carden 1926:292). In 1910, Fayette had a population of 410 people.

The Fayette Station Bridge was constructed in 1889, and connected Fayette Station to South Fayette. The Low Moor Iron Company established the town of South Fayette, located across the New River from Fayette Station around this time. Also in 1889, a large freight house and depot were constructed by the railroad at South Fayette. In the early 1900s, a road, current State Route 82, was built into the gorge to accommodate vehicular traffic. By 1918, a new paved road was constructed and is still used today. In 1906, the C&O erected a section foreman's house at South Fayette on land acquired from the Low Moor Iron Company. Fayette Station was the stopping point for people who rode in on the trains when they had business in the county seat, Fayetteville (Fayette Station vertical file). Fayette Station was the center of several mines nearby including Ajax, Michigan, Royal, and Newlyn.

The Blume company store was the main commercial establishment in Fayette Station. The store had three floors. The top floor was the living quarters of the Blume family. The ground or track level was the store. The basement held a saloon with gambling devices, pool tables and even a slot machine (Fayette Station vertical file). The basement also served as a store house for coffins sold by the Blume store (Fayette Station vertical file). The town also had a train depot, a car garage and a number of dwellings extending up the hill toward the mine. Other structures near the railroad tracks were the engine house and coal tipple. At the mouth of the mine, remains of a mine portal and tracks are still visible.

The depot and freight house were destroyed in the 1960s. The section foreman's house was demolished in the late 1990s to construct the Fayette Station rafting access points.

Archaeological Fieldwork

The Fayette Station site was examined by a pedestrian survey that included observing and photodocumenting any structural remains. No shovel probes were excavated at this site.



Figure 4.83. Coal mining structures at Fayette Station (see Figure 4.81(6)).



Figure 4.84. Structures near the railroad at Fayette Station (see Figure 4. 81(6)).



Figure 4.85. Collapsed house near mine portal Fayette Station (see Figure 4.81(near 1)).



Figure 4.86. Fan house at Fayette Station mine (see Figure 4.81(3)).



Figure 4.87. Electric motor car used on bench at Fayette mine (see Figure 4.81(near 3)).



Figure 4.88. Fayette Station mine portal (see Figure 4.81(1)).

Artifacts Collected or Observed

No artifacts were observed or collected. However, structural remains of the tipple, head house, and mine car were photographed.

Summary and Recommendations

Based on this investigation, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Fayette Station site. The site contains a number of different property types, including, commercial, industrial and transportation related resources and relates to the coal industry historic context developed by Unrau (1996) for the New River Gorge National River. The Fayette Station site has a high potential to contain intact archaeological deposits due to the recovery of domestic artifacts from the occupation period (1870-1940) and the presence of extensive domestic and commercial foundation remains.

Because there are intact archaeological remains present at the Fayette Station site, it represents an opportunity to study one of the coal mining communities of the region. In that regard, further investigations of the Fayette Station site might provide important information about intra-community relationships among places that were connected primarily by the railroad and by their particular roles in the rapid development of the New River valley at the turn of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. In addition, the extensive industrial remains can provide immense information on the coal mining industry.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Fayette Station site should be protected with all available means. It contains archaeological deposits that are relatively undisturbed, but sensitive to episodes of looting, development, or natural disturbances.
2. To better define the nature and extent of the archaeological resources at this site, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine its eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, it is recommended that phase I testing and mapping of the site be undertaken in conjunction with a cultural landscape inventory. After the site's landscape features are mapped, goals of shovel probing should include the identification of the locations with subsurface cultural materials and indicate their spatial relationship to building ruins and landscape features. Finally, site boundaries should be refined on the basis of historical records and the distribution of archaeological remains.
3. Depending on the results of the survey, phase II exploratory archaeological investigations may be necessary. This work should assess the integrity of the cultural deposits at the Fayette Station site by excavating several test units. The

results of additional investigations should produce data from which interpretations about community life can be articulated.

4. More intensive archival and literary research should also be undertaken.
5. The results of the above investigations can and should be used to compare what we know about other locations in the New River valley. Once accomplished, such comparisons should be made in view of the relationship(s) that the town of Fayette Station had with other communities in the New River valley and of those located in the surrounding uplands.

Given these investigations, the Fayette Station site should be considered potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D. The recommended archaeological and archival research should be able to provide additional information on the size of this site and the nature of the associated archaeological deposits. Taken together the recommended archival research and field investigations should produce the information needed to better evaluate the significance of this site.

Fire Creek

| | |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Site Type: | Historic coal town |
| Property Types: | House lots, industrial |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4201173 E 497677 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | Adjacent to Fire Creek and New River |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | Unknown |
| Previous Disturbance: | Demolition |
| ASIMS # | 408 |

Site Description

The Fire Creek site is located in the New River Gorge National River, Fayette County, West Virginia, at the confluence of Fire Creek and the New River (Figures 4.89-90). It is situated on the south side of the New River almost exactly half way between Beury and Ephraim Creek (about $\frac{3}{4}$ of a mile from each). The site includes the remains of a coal tipple, several coke ovens, and foundations associated with mining operations and the town. The site is located on a terrace situated along the modern CSX line, which basically coincides with the route of the old Chesapeake & Ohio (C&O) line; it sits on the west side of Fire Creek. The coke ovens are approximately 400 to 500 meters northeast of the town. The mine conveyor was located to the east of town and extended up to the mine opening near the top of the bluff line. The portion of the site that sits on the west side of Fire Creek has been disturbed by modern railway construction.

The 1929 Beckley, WV USGS map depicts a mine about 1.5 miles above the town settlement along Fire Creek, as well as about 25 structures (Workman et al. 2005:24) (Figure 4.90). The 1988 Thurmond, WV USGS map, however, shows no such structures (Figure 4.89).

Site History

Colonel Joseph L. Beury opened the Fire Creek mine in the Fire Creek seam after opening the Quinnimont mine in 1873. Operating under the name Fire Creek Coal and Coke Company, he established the Fire Creek community in 1876. The Fire Creek mine was the third oldest mining enterprise on the New River ("Towns of the New River Gorge" – manuscript on file at New River Gorge National River Headquarters library). The town eventually consisted of a company store made of brick, a church and school for whites, a combination black church/school, a post office, train depot, and at least twenty employee houses. A few houses might have been located near the shop area of the mining operations (Smith 1991). The post office opened in 1877 and continued to operate until it was closed in 1947.

Fire Creek is also credited with having some of the earliest coke ovens in the gorge. Originally, there were 70 beehive ovens, but the number increased to 96 by 1899.

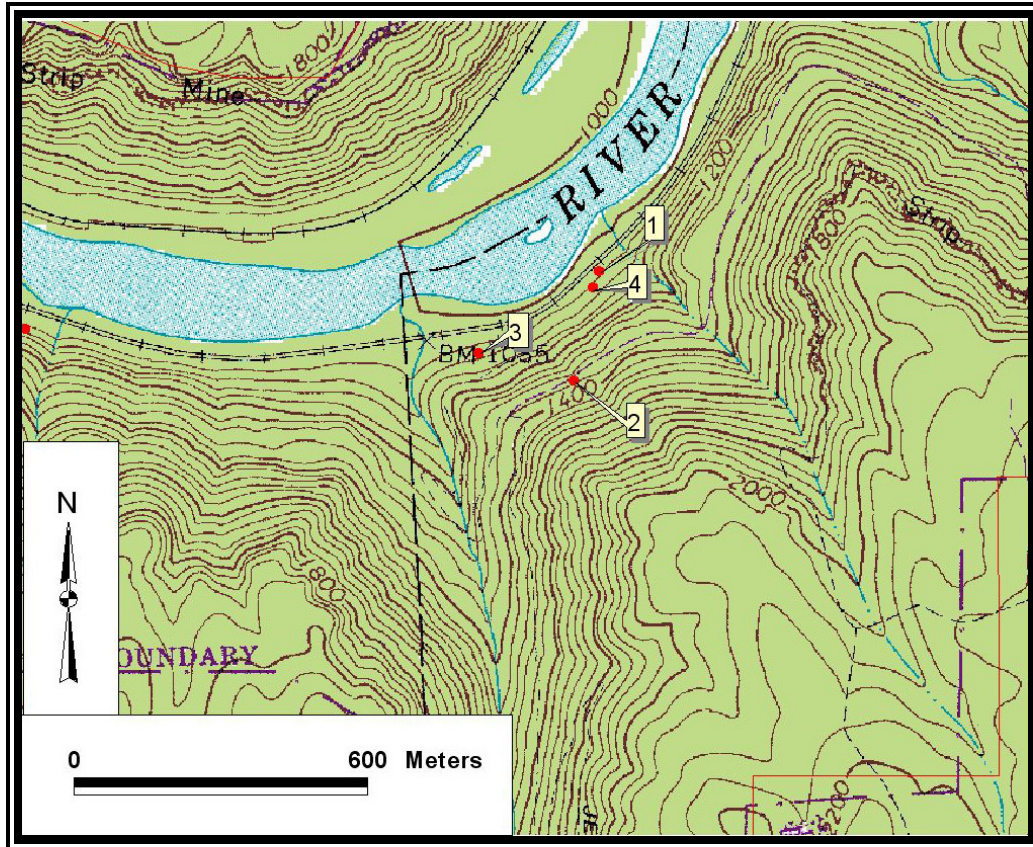


Figure 4.89. Location of Fire Creek on 1988 Thurmond, WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map: (1) Coke ovens; (2) Stone foundation; (3) House remains; (4) Coke ovens.

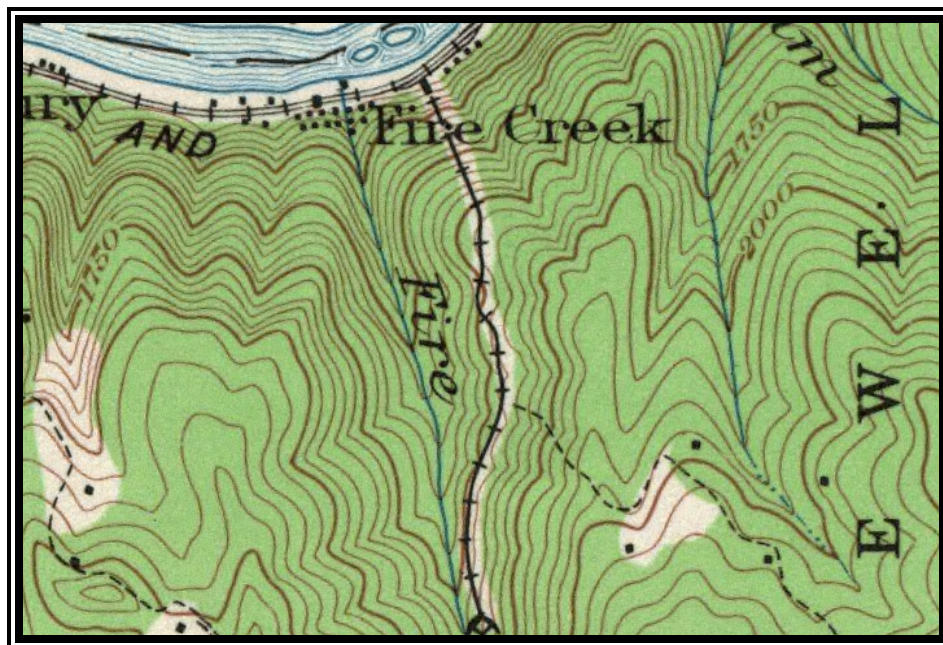


Figure 4.90. Location of Fire Creek on 1929 Beckley, WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.

A conveyor was used to transport the coal from the mine to the C&O Railroad. Coal was taken from the mine and put into mine cars on a conveyor 4,500 feet long to the pinnacle or head house of an inclined plane. The coal was then transferred to a bin from which it was drawn into the monitor and lowered 1,280 feet down the incline to the tipple at the C&O railroad.

Fire Creek was important in the early labor movement in the New River coal field (Workman et al. 2005:24). In 1879, a local assembly of the Knights of Labor was formed at Fire Creek. In 1880, during the first strike in the gorge, the Fire Creek miners were the only ones to join strikers in the area. The miners commandeered a C&O train in order to induce miners at Hawks Nest to join the strike, but to no avail (Workman et al. 2005:24). The Fire Creek miners were also involved in the United Mine Workers of America-sponsored strike in 1894.

By 1919, Fire Creek had a population of 260, which remained relatively stable until the 1940s. The Fire Creek Mine was sold to the New River and Pocahontas Coal Company in 1945. The community of Fire Creek continued under the auspices of the South Side Coal Company then under the Charleston Coal Company, but by 1957, the town had been reduced to the point that the train depot was razed. Like most mining communities in the New River, Fire Creek was abandoned and by 1970s, little evidence remained of its existence.

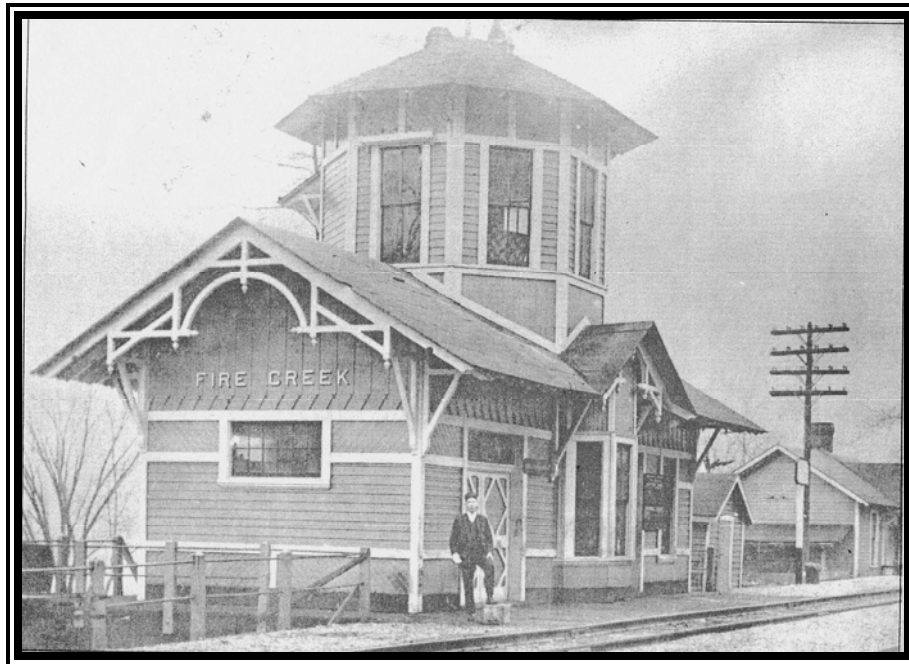


Figure 4.91. Fire Creek depot in the early 1900s (photo on file at New River Gorge National River Headquarters library).

| PAY ROLL CREDITS | | STATEMENT OF MERCHANDISE ACCOUNT | |
|----------------------|----|----------------------------------|-------|
| Cwt. or Cars | \$ | Balance Brought Forward | 7266 |
| " | " | Published on Account | |
| O. T. Shift | " | Tolls | |
| Yards | " | Payments on Account | |
| " | " | Balance Carried Forward | 40509 |
| " | " | Merchandise Account | |
| " | " | Wire Account | 17188 |
| Days | " | Sales Tax | 47 |
| " | " | Overdrawn Previous Pay Roll | 8352 |
| " | " | Mine Checks | |
| " | " | Rent | 400 |
| " | " | Lights | 1100 |
| " | " | Coal | |
| " | " | Hauling | |
| " | " | Societies Tax | |
| " | " | Crack Weighman | |
| Gross Earnings | | U. M. W. of A. Dues | |
| Employee | | U. M. W. of A. Int. Fee | |
| | | Taxes | |
| | | State Fund | |
| | | Doctor | |
| | | Hospital | |
| | | Insurance | |
| Net Earnings Taxable | | Withholding Tax | |
| Cash | | High Room | |
| Mine Checks | | War Bond Fund | |
| Transfer | | Transfer | |
| Total Credits | | Total Charges | 8685 |
| Balance Due Company | | Balance Due Employee | |

Figure 4.92. Account receipt from minor at Fire Creek (date unreadable, copies on file at New River Gorge National River Headquarters library).

Archaeological Fieldwork

The Fire Creek site was examined by a pedestrian survey that included observing and photodocumenting any structural remains (Figures 4.93-99). No shovel probes were excavated. Structural remains of possible house lots, the coal tipple and the coke ovens were documented, mapped, and photographed. The site map developed for this project (Figure 4.93) and a map of houses at Fire Creek (Figure 4.94) are comparable, giving locations of industrial resources and indicating where house lots were located.

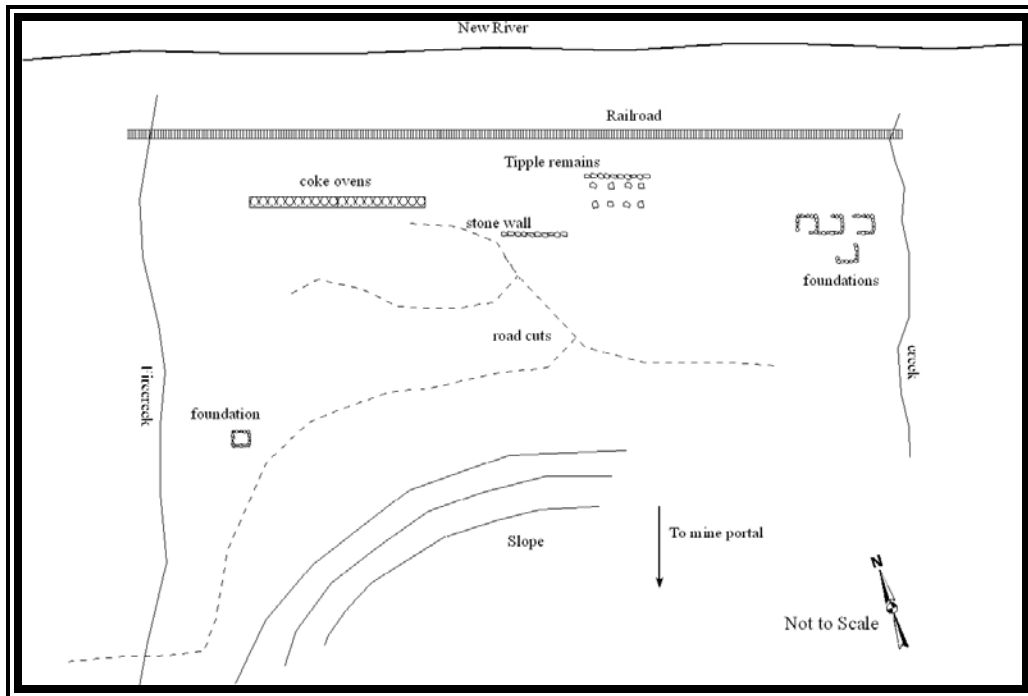


Figure 4.93. Site map of Fire Creek.

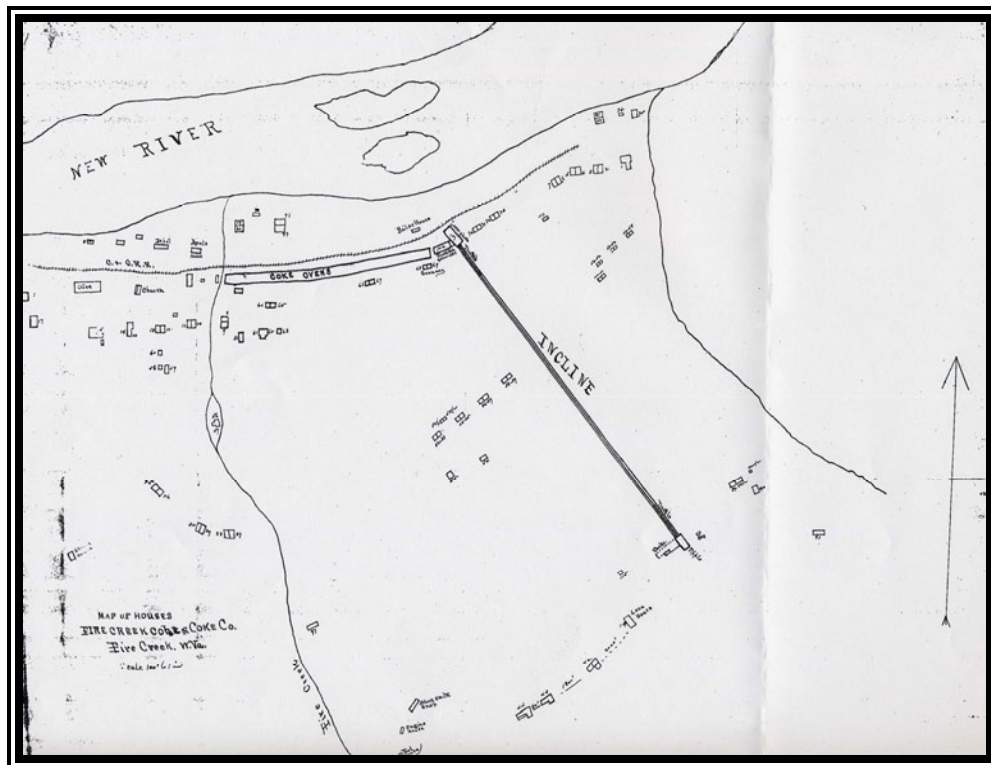


Figure 4.94. Map of houses at Fire Creek (date unknown, copy on file at New River Gorge National River Headquarters library).



Figure 4.95. Foundation remains in Fire Creek (see Figure 4.89(near 1)).



Figure 4.96. Bank of coke ovens at Fire Creek looking southeast with CSX railroad track to the right (see Figure 4.89(4)).



Figure 4.97. Stone wall at Fire Creek (see Figure 4.89(near 3)).



Figure 4.98. Masonry foundation at Fire Creek (see Figure 4.89(2)).



Figure 4.99. Road cut across Fire Creek.

Artifacts Collected or Observed

Only one artifact was collected from the surface at the Fire Creek site. It (Table 4.7) consisted of an ironstone cup or bowl base fragment. Ironstone, properly termed “stone china” (Godden 1964) and referred to by nineteenth century Staffordshire potters as “white granite”, is a white-bodied, refined earthenware which is more vitrified than whiteware. Although it is generally accepted that Charles Mason first produced ironstone as Mason’s ironstone china in 1813 (Noel Hume 1969:131), ironstone continued to be manufactured into the twentieth century. Ironstone dates from 1842 to 1930 (Miller 1991:10; 1993:5-6).

Table 4.6: Artifacts Recovered from Fire Creek.

| Context | Provenience | Artifact Class/Subclass | # | Comments |
|---------|---------------------------|-------------------------|---|---------------------------|
| 139 | Surface near 4 structures | Ironstone | 1 | Cup or bowl base fragment |

Summary and Recommendations

Based on this investigation, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Fire Creek site. The site contains a number of different property types, including, house lots, and commercial and industrial resources and relates to the coal industry historic context developed by Unrau (1996) for the New River Gorge National River. The Fire Creek site has the potential to contain intact archaeological deposits due to the recovery of domestic artifacts from the occupation period (1875-1940) and the presence of domestic and commercial foundation remains. Some initial interpretations of

these remains can be made using archival information such as aerial photographs and Smith's history of Firecreek, *From Fire Creek: A New River Mining Community*.

Because there are intact archaeological remains present at the Fire Creek site, it represents an opportunity to study one of the coal mining communities of the region. In that regard, further investigations of the Fire Creek site might provide important information about intra-community relationships among places that were connected primarily by the railroad and by their particular roles in the rapid development of the New River valley at the turn of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The company housing located at Fire Creek can provide an interesting contrast to the nearby Beury mansion located just west of the town.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Fire Creek site should be protected with all available means. Its archaeological deposits are relatively undisturbed and sensitive to episodes of looting, development, or natural disturbances.
2. To better define the nature and extent of the archaeological resources at this site, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine its eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, it is recommended that phase I testing and mapping of the site be undertaken in conjunction with a cultural landscape inventory. After the site's landscape features are mapped, the goals of shovel probing should include the identification of the locations containing subsurface cultural materials and indicate their spatial relationship to building ruins and landscape features. Finally, site boundaries should be refined on the basis of historical records and the distribution of archaeological remains.
3. Depending on the results of the survey, phase II exploratory archaeological investigations may be necessary. This work should assess the integrity of cultural deposits at Fire Creek by excavating several test units at the site. The results of these investigations should produce data from which interpretations about the life of the people who lived there can be articulated.
4. More intensive archival and literary research should also be undertaken.
5. The results of the above investigations can and should be used to compare what we know about other locations in the New River valley. Once accomplished, such comparisons should be made in view of the relationship(s) that the town of Fire Creek had with other communities in the New River valley and of those located in the surrounding uplands.

Given these investigations, the Fire Creek site should be considered potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D. The recommended archaeological and archival research should be able to provide additional information on the size of this site and the nature of the associated archaeological

deposits. Taken together the recommended archival research and field investigations should produce the information needed to more fully evaluate the significance of this site.

Glade Creek Burin Martin Farmstead

| | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Site Type: | Historic farm |
| Property Types: | Farmstead |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4186688 E 498516 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | New River 1km |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | Unknown |
| Previous Disturbance: | Demolition |
| ASIMS # | 409 |

Site Description

The Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead is located in the New River Gorge National River, Raleigh County, West Virginia (Figures 4.100-102). The farmstead is located on a floodplain at the confluence of Glade Creek and the New River. It is currently within the park's Glade Creek campground and west of the historic lumber town of Hamlet. The most visible remains include the house foundations, the remains of various barns and outbuildings, and a family cemetery. Archaeological deposits include domestic sheet midden documented around the main house, various foundation remains, the family cemetery and a possible privy. A historical aerial photograph indicates that the farm fields extended east and west of the farmstead house (Figure 4.102).

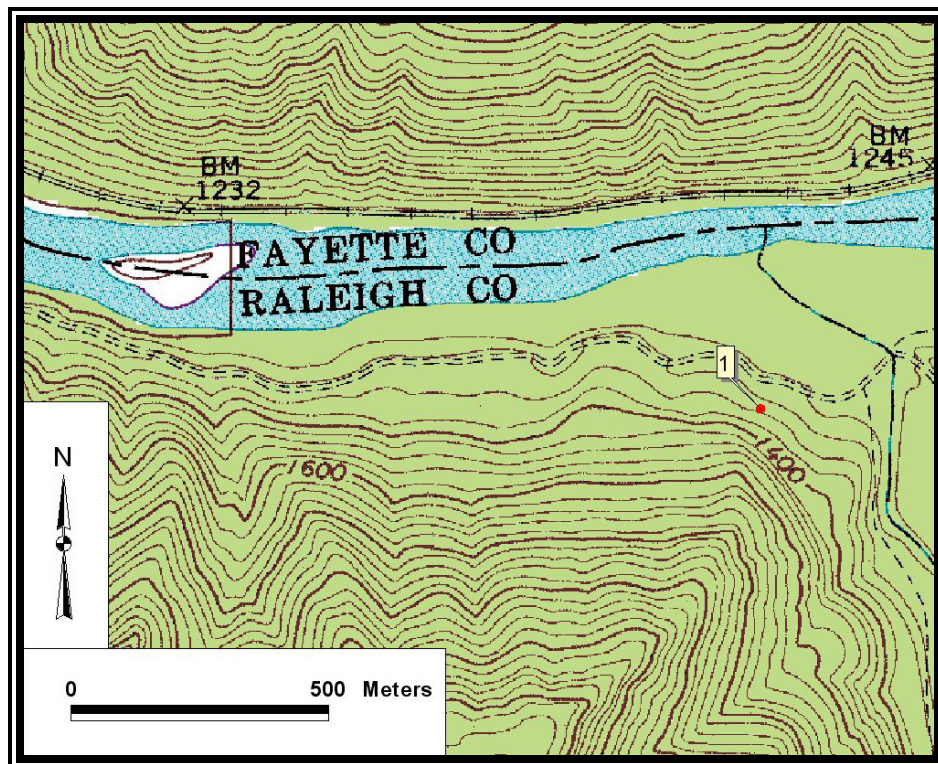


Figure 4.100. Location of Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead on 1989 Prince, WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map.

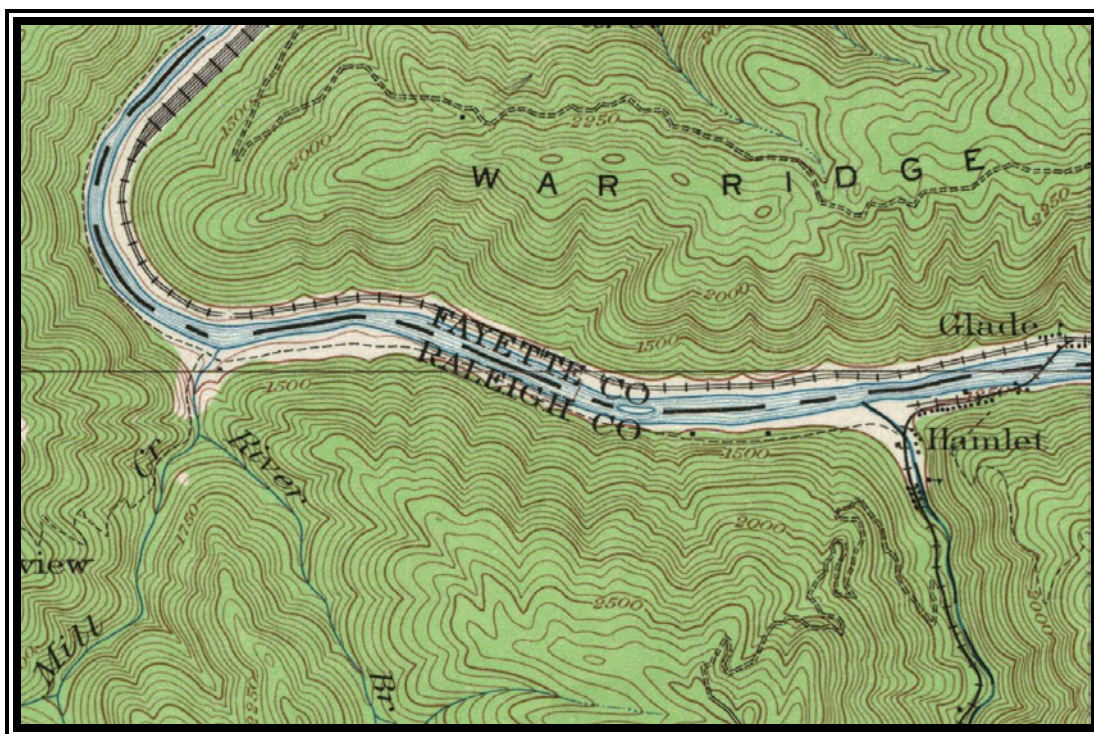


Figure 4.101. Location of Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead on 1929 Beckley, WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.

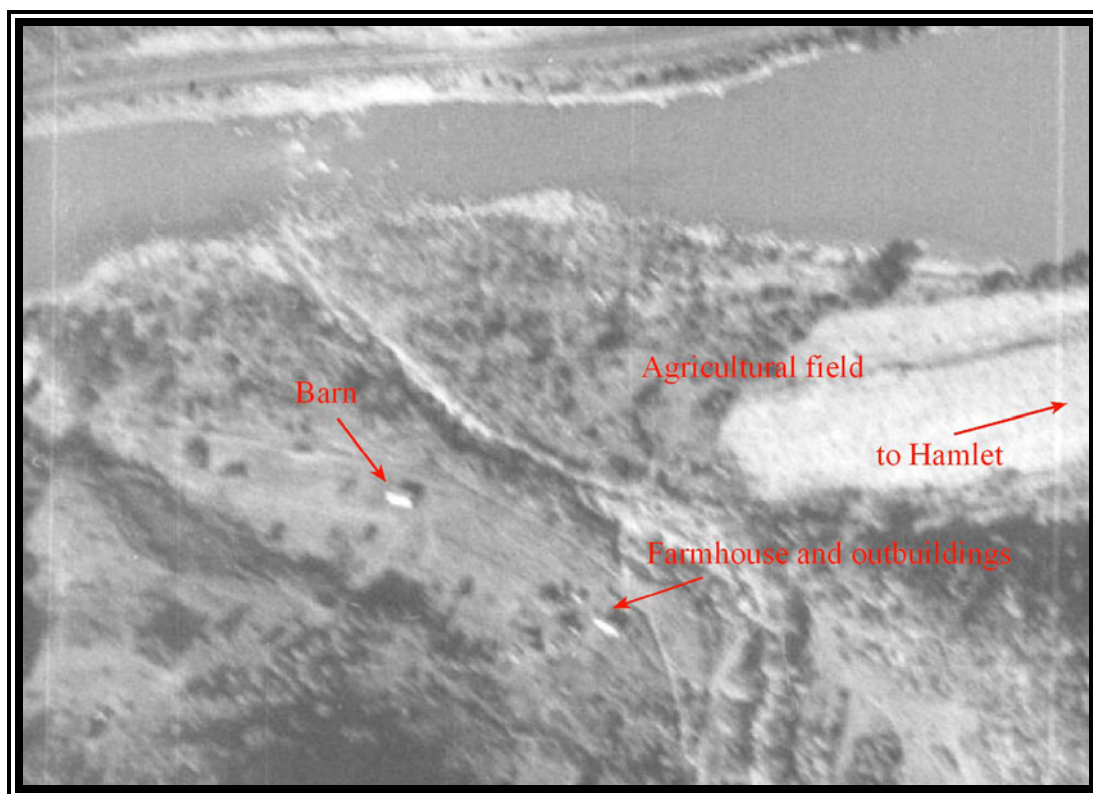


Figure 4.102. 1945 aerial photo of Burin Martin's Glade Creek farmstead.

Site History

In depth archival research was not done, hence little is known about the Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead and its inhabitants. No census information was obtained about Burin Martin. A number of Martins were located in the area, but connection with Burin Martin could not be confirmed at this time.

Archaeological Fieldwork

The Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead was examined by pedestrian survey and shovel probes. Pedestrian survey included observing and photodocumenting any structural remains and landscape features. Shovel probes were placed near building foundations to determine the extent of domestic deposits that may be present at the site. Shovel probes averaged 30 to 35 cm in diameter and were excavated until sterile subsoil was encountered where possible. Soil from all shovel probes was screened through 6.35 mm hardware cloth. Information, consisting of location, size, depth, and soil profile was recorded for positive shovel probes. The site was mapped and documented (Figure 4.103-107).

Four shovel probes were excavated at the farmstead's main house foundation. The typical profile of the shovel probes exhibited 10YR3/3 dark brown sandy clay loam topsoil (0-17 cm) and a 10YR6/4 medium brown sandy clay subsoil (Figure 4.108). One probe was excavated within what is believed to be a privy. Excavation of that shovel probe was terminated at 40 cm as no soil color change was noted and soil probes showed that no change was evident in the next 50 cm. Construction of the campground in the 1980s may have affected archaeological remains at the site.

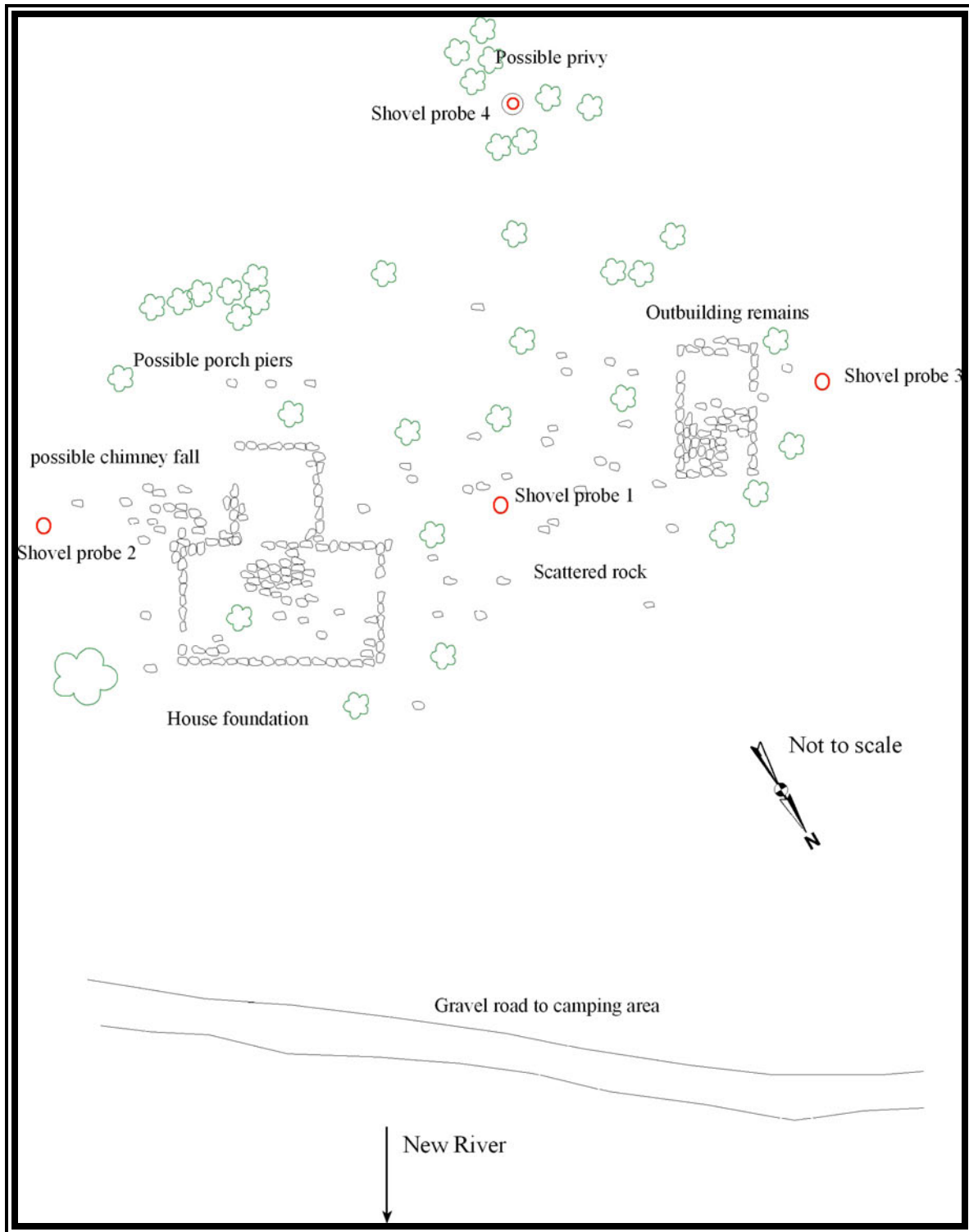


Figure 4.103. Site map of Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead.



Figure 4.104. House foundation remains at Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead facing west.



Figure 4.105. House foundation remains at Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead facing south.



Figure 4.106. Possible outbuilding remains at Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead facing west.



Figure 4.107. Possible privy at Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead facing south.

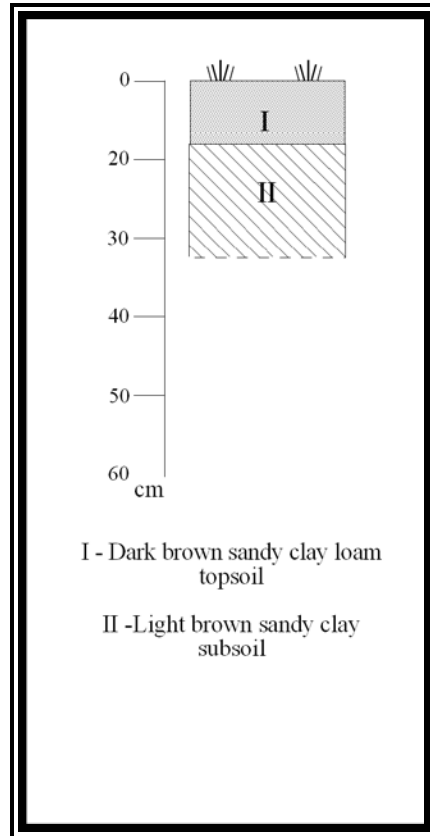


Figure 4.108. Representative shovel probe profile from Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead.

Artifacts Collected or Observed

Materials recovered from the Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead consist of undecorated ironstone body sherds (n=3), stoneware sherds (n=2), container glass (n=23), white milk glass lid liner fragments (n=2), a pressed glass tableware fragment, window glass (n=5), wire nails (n=11), a tack, tin can fragment (n=3), and unidentified metal fragments (n=6) (Table 4.8).

The ironstone recovered from this site dates from 1842 to 1930 (Miller 1991:10, 1993:5-6). Two fragments of an exterior Bristol slipped/interior Albany slipped stoneware crock also was recovered from this site. Albany slip is very smooth dark glossy black or brown clay coatings over stoneware (Mullins 1988:57). Albany slip decorated American stonewares were largely produced between about 1800 and 1940 (Azizi et al. 1996:19). Bristol slips were the last form of glaze to become popularly used for stonewares. Bristol slips date from 1835 to the present day (Oswald et al. 1982:19). Although originally developed in Bristol, England, potters from Ohio introduced a form of this glaze at the New Orleans Exposition of 1884. The most popular form prior to 1920

was the combination of white Bristol slip on the exterior with the brown Albany slip on the interior (Greer 1981:211-212).

Other diagnostic materials include wire nails and container glass (Table 4.7). Wire nails date from 1880 to the present (Nelson 1968:7). Diagnostic container glass consists of a crown cap bottle lip, two machine-made standardized screw top bottle lips, and a machine-made bottle base. Fully machine-made bottles came into existence in 1903 when Michael J. Owens patented the first automatic bottle-making machine (Deiss 1981:79). Bottles are often characterized by machine-made standardized screw threads on the rims. Production of standardized threads first began in 1919; they are still used today (Deiss 1981:95). Bottles featuring a crown cap seal date from 1892 to the present (Lief 1965:17). White milk glass lid liners were invented in 1869 to protect the food in a glass jar from the metal cap (Toulouse 1969:350). The recovered specimen dates to after 1869.

The investigations conducted at the Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead indicate that intact archaeological deposits are present at the site and are typical of a late nineteenth to early twentieth occupation. The deposits in and around the domestic buildings indicate the possibility of a general sheet midden of late nineteenth and early twentieth debris. While only one possible feature was identified, there is a high potential for other subsurface features such as, midden, cellars, trash pits, activity areas and privies throughout the Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead site.

Table 4.8. Artifacts Recovered from Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead.

| Context | Provenience | Artifact Class/Subclass | # | Comments |
|---------|--------------------|-------------------------------|---|-------------------------|
| 125-1 | Surface | Porcelain | 1 | |
| 125-2 | Surface | Stoneware | 2 | Both are base fragments |
| 125-3 | Surface | Container glass | 1 | |
| 126-1 | SP1 | Ironstone | 1 | |
| 126-2 | SP1 | Window glass | 1 | |
| 126-3 | SP1 | Container glass | 5 | |
| 126-4 | SP1 | Tack | 1 | |
| 126-5 | SP1 | Nails, wire | 3 | |
| 126-6 | SP1 | Nail fragments | 5 | |
| 127-1 | SP2 | Milk glass lid liner fragment | 1 | |
| 127-2 | SP2 | Bottle lip section | 1 | |
| 127-3 | SP2 | Window glass | 4 | |
| 127-4 | SP2 | Container glass | 5 | |
| 128-1 | SP3 | Ironstone | 1 | |
| 128-2 | SP3 | Container glass | 7 | |
| 128-3 | SP3 | Milk glass lid liner fragment | 1 | |
| 128-4 | SP3 | Nails, wire | 3 | |
| 128-5 | SP3 | Screwdriver | 1 | |
| 129-1 | SP4-possible privy | Ironstone | 1 | |
| 129-2 | SP4-possible privy | Pressed glass | 1 | Tableware fragment |
| 129-3 | SP4-possible privy | Container glass | 4 | |

| | | | | |
|-------|--------------------|-------------------|---|--|
| 129-4 | SP4-possible privy | Nails, wire | 5 | |
| 129-5 | SP4-possible privy | Nail fragments | 4 | |
| 129-6 | SP4-possible privy | Tin can fragments | 3 | |

Summary and Recommendations

Based on this investigation, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead site. The site is classified as a farmstead and may contain many of the typical outbuildings including, small sheds, barns, work/storage buildings, and store houses. In addition, to the domestic artifacts from the occupation period (1900-1940) recovered from the Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead, extensive domestic foundation remains were documented. The shovel probes also show that it has a high potential to contain intact archaeological deposits.

Because there are intact archaeological remains present at the Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead site, it represents an opportunity to study one of the agricultural resources of the region. The site relates to the coal industry historic context developed by Unrau (1996) for the New River Gorge National River. In that regard, further investigations of the Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead site might provide important information about intra-community relationships among places that were connected primarily by the railroad and by their particular roles in the rapid development of the New River valley at the turn of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The farmstead provides an example of a very different way of life than that experienced in the nearby lumber and coal towns.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead site should be protected with all available means. Its archaeological deposits are relatively undisturbed and sensitive to episodes of looting, development, or natural disturbances. This is particularly important as the farmstead sits within a modern campground.
2. To better define the character and extent of the archaeological resources at this site, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine its eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, it is recommended that phase I testing and mapping of the site be undertaken in conjunction with a cultural landscape inventory. This work should consist of systematic close-interval shovel probing across the entire site as defined by the site map prepared for this report. After the site's landscape features are mapped, the goals of shovel probing should include the identification of the locations containing subsurface cultural materials and indicate their spatial relationship to building ruins and landscape features. Finally, site boundaries should be refined on the basis of historical records and the distribution of archaeological remains.

3. Depending on the results of the survey, phase II exploratory archaeological investigations may be necessary. This work should assess the integrity of cultural deposits at the farmstead by excavating several test units within the site's boundaries. The results of these kinds of investigations should produce data from which interpretations about the life of the people who lived there can be articulated.
4. The results of the above investigations can and should be used to compare what we know about other locations in the New River valley. Once accomplished, comparisons should be made in view of the relationship(s) the inhabitants of the farmstead had with other communities in the New River valley, particularly with nearby Hamlet, and of those located in the surrounding uplands.

Given these investigations, the Glade Creek Burin Martin farmstead site should be considered potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D. The recommended archaeological and archival research should be able to provide additional information on the size of this site and the nature of the associated archaeological deposits. Taken together the recommended archival research and field investigations should produce the information needed to more fully evaluate the significance of this site.

Hamlet

| | |
|---------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Site Type: | Historic lumber town |
| Property Types: | House lots, industrial, commercial |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4186565 E 499485 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | New River 20m |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | Unknown |
| Previous Disturbance: | Demolition |
| ASIMS # | 410 |

Site Description

Hamlet is a former lumber mill and town that is located in the New River Gorge National River, Raleigh County, West Virginia (Figures 4.109-112). Hamlet is on a floodplain situated in and around the confluence of Glade Creek and the New River. A 1936 planview map (Figure 4.105, on file, New River Gorge River Headquarters library) of Hamlet shows a lumber mill, saw mill, mill pond, machine shop, boarding house, ice house, barber shop/doctor's office, company store, school/church, and about 22 houses.

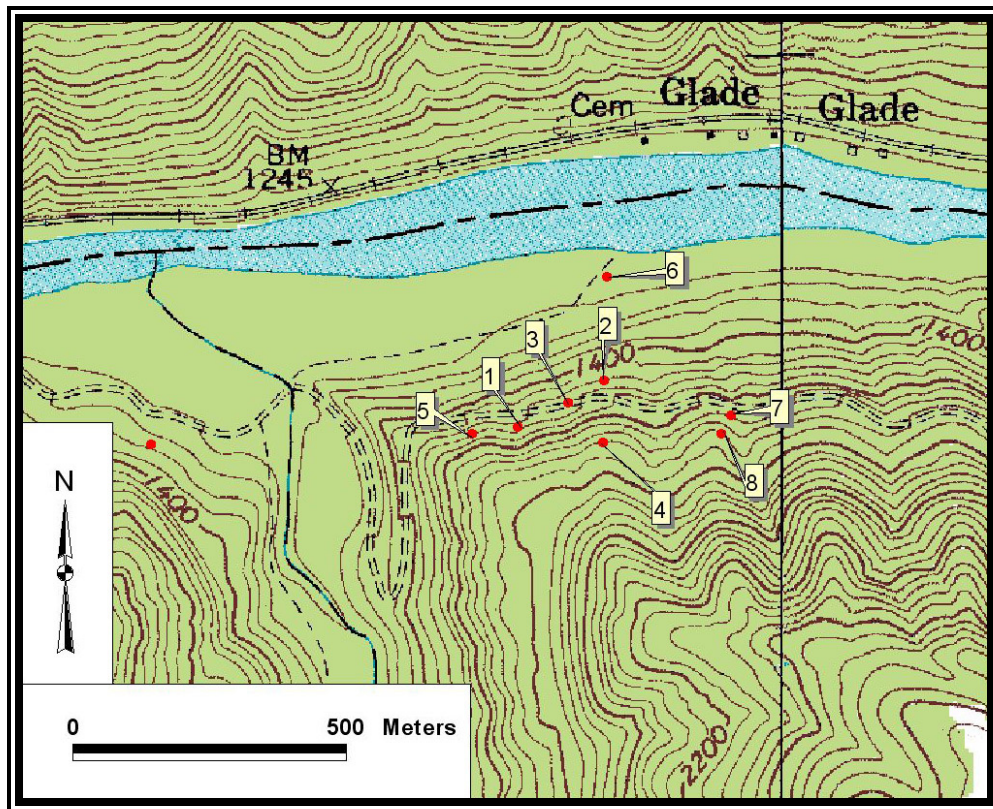


Figure 4.109. Location of Hamlet on 1989 Prince, WV 7.5' USGS Topographic Map: (1) Log wash; (2) Stone piers; (3) Structure remains; (4) SP4; (5) Saw mill; (6) Bridge across New River; (7) SP1; (8) SP2.

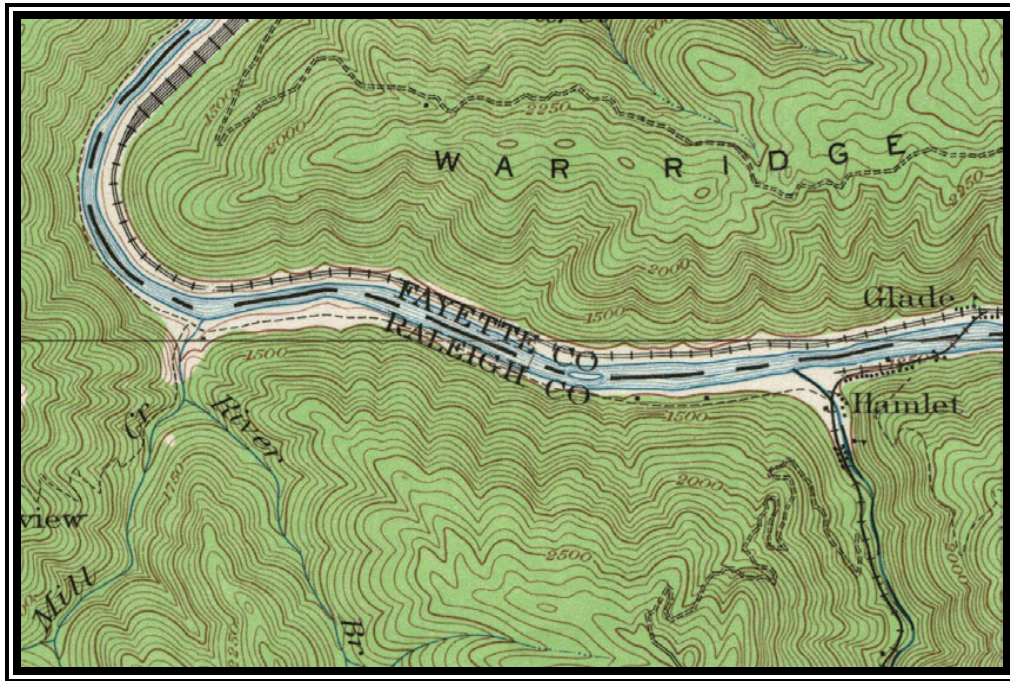


Figure 4.110. Location of Hamlet on 1929 Beckley, WV 15' USGS Topographic Map.

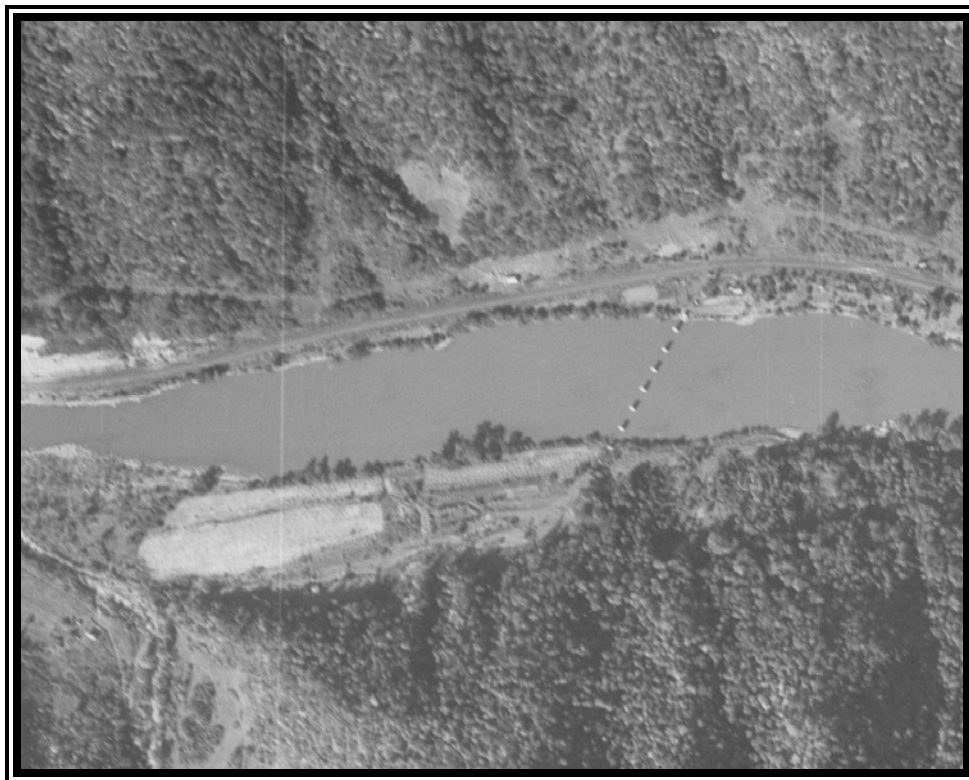
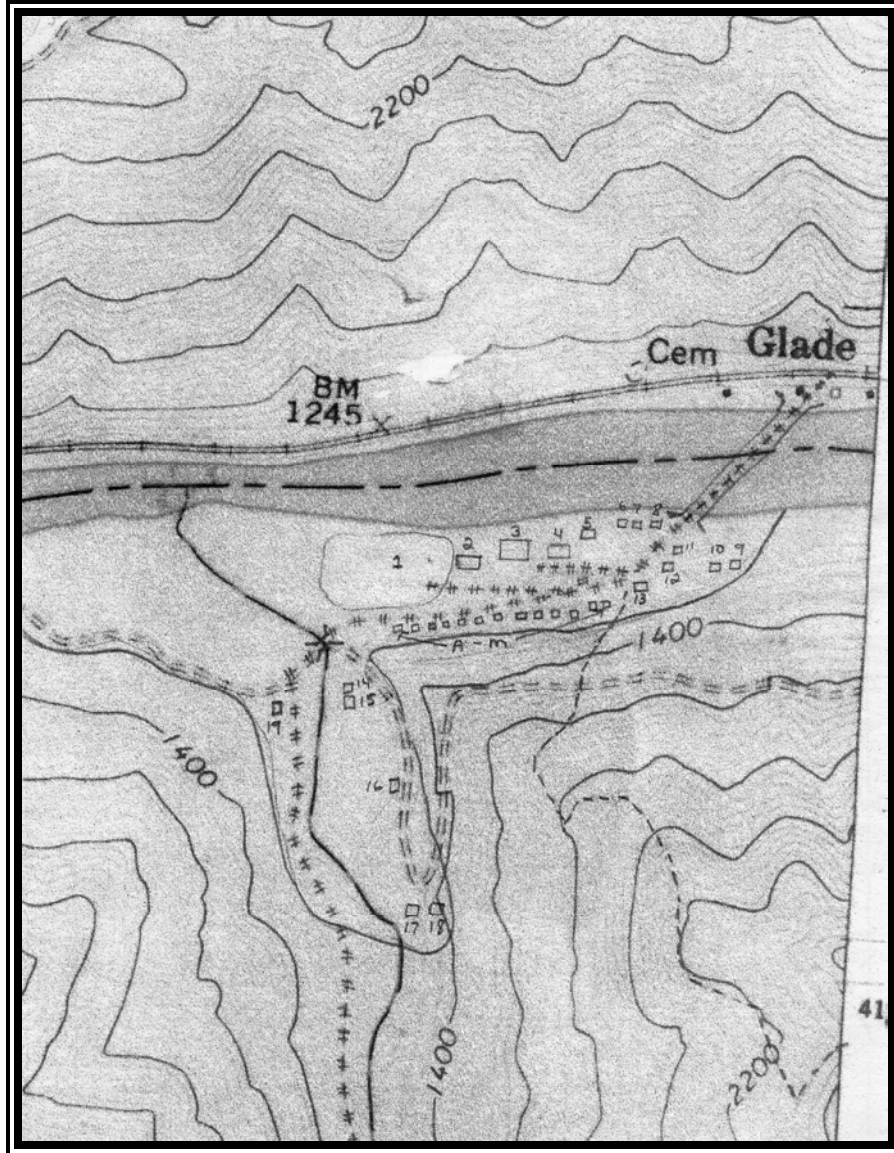


Figure 4.111. 1945 aerial photograph of Hamlet including piers following removal of Railroad Deck.



**Figure 4.112. Drawing of layout of Hamlet by C. Ray
(original on file at New River Gorge National River
Headquarters library).**

The residential areas are located east of the mill, up Glade Creek, and at the base of the slope along the tracks near the mill. The most visible existing remains are of the mill foundation, the millpond, and the piers for the Glade Creek & Raleigh Railroad, which crosses the New River at Hamlet. Structural remains of the boarding house, the company store, and the school were also noted during these investigations. The property types present include house lots, commercial sites, and industrial resources.

Site History

The history of the town of Hamlet is inextricably linked to the development of the timber industry in the New River. As with other communities, it also was affected by the coal and railroad industries. In 1873 the Chesapeake & Ohio (C&O) rail line through the New River valley was completed and by the 1890s, several branch lines had been constructed to move coal and timber to the major shipping points along its length. Between the 1880s and 1910, the timber industry boomed along the New River; Thurmond, Hinton, Quinnimont, and Prince had become the largest lumber shipping sites in the valley.

By the late 1880s, several timber companies were operating in the New River, but movement of timber and cut lumber was logistically difficult due to the lack of transportation facilities. Before the construction of branch rail lines, timber had to be moved to mills by wagon and then to the New River for shipment. Efforts to improve the movement of both raw logs and cut lumber gave rise to three communities within the lower New River watershed; Hamlet, Glade (also known as Glade Station and Kriso Post Office), and Landisburg (Workman 2005). These communities are unique because timber companies expressly built them to support the growing lumber industry. In contrast, most other communities in the New River Valley arose because of coal mining operations.

Before the timber boom in the New River area, the Glade Creek and Pine River valleys contained about 50,000 acres virgin pine and substantial stands of Yellow Poplar and Oak (Brooks 1910, in Unrau 1996). One of the early successful timber companies was the Blue Jay Lumber Company, which operated sawmills at Hamlet and Glen Morgan. In 1898, the company built a 3 foot narrow gauge rail line up Glade Creek to connect these mill operations; the rail line stretched 13 miles. The construction of this rail line facilitated the movement of timber from both the upland areas around Glen Morgan and from the steep and narrow Glade Creek valley. In its heyday, the rail line up Glade Creek operated “four locomotives, one passenger, 33 freight, and 24 other types of cars” moving both people and lumber between these locations (Long and Huddleston 1992:3). Upon arrival and processing at Hamlet, lumber was ferried across the New River to Glade where it was shipped via the C&O railway to the major shipping points previously discussed.

Around 1917, the lumber boom had ended and Hamlet began to decline as families and workers left to find new employment opportunities. By 1921, only a few families lived in Hamlet as well as across the river in Glade. Reportedly, only five homes were left in Hamlet by this date (Long and Huddleston 1992:7). In addition, by 1921, the C&O Railway had closed its depot at Glade; those who remained in Hamlet and Glade were employed by the C&O Railway or by coal mines (Long 1991). However, in 1921 the Glade Creek Coal and Lumber Company announced plans to build a bridge across the New River between Glade and Hamlet, to construct a single band sawmill at Hamlet, and to install a standard gauge rail line up Glade Creek. While taking advantage of the

remaining stands of virgin timber, the primary goal was to connect to the Great Flat Top Mountain region in Raleigh and Mercer Counties where large seams of New River coal were located (Long and Huddleston 1992).

Work began almost immediately to construct the sawmill and to grade the rail bed up Glade Creek (Figure 4.113). The American Bridge Company was contracted to build a 750 foot long, seven-pier girder bridge between Glade and Hamlet, which was completed in early 1923. While the rail line eventually extended to Crow, West Virginia and the vicinity of Pluto, West Virginia near White Oak Mountain, it never spanned the Great Flat Top Mountain region as originally planned (Figure 4.123). Furthermore, coal was never mined along this route. In 1929, the Glade Creek Coal and Lumber Company sold its property to the Babcock Coal and Timber Company, which was headquartered at



Figure 4.113. Hamlet sawmill, date unknown (Photo on file at New River Gorge National River Park Headquarters Library).



Figure 4.114. Logs at Hamlet, date unknown (Photo on file at New River Gorge National River Park Headquarters Library).

Clifftop and Landisburg (Long and Huddleston 1992). The Babcock Coal and Coke Company used a narrow gauge railroad on the plateau above Hamlet in the Kates and Poll Branch areas.

Babcock Coal and Timber continued to operate the rail line and sawmill at Hamlet until September 1, 1936. On that same day, the post office was closed and moved across the river to Glade. The mill burned down in 1936. When Babcock Coal and Timber went out of business, they removed the rail from the line that connected Hamlet with other communities in the surrounding uplands. Even so, a few families continued to live in Hamlet, but by the early 1940s, the metal girder bridge that linked the town to Glade and other communities in the New River was disassembled for the WWII war effort (Long and Huddleston 1992; Long 1991).

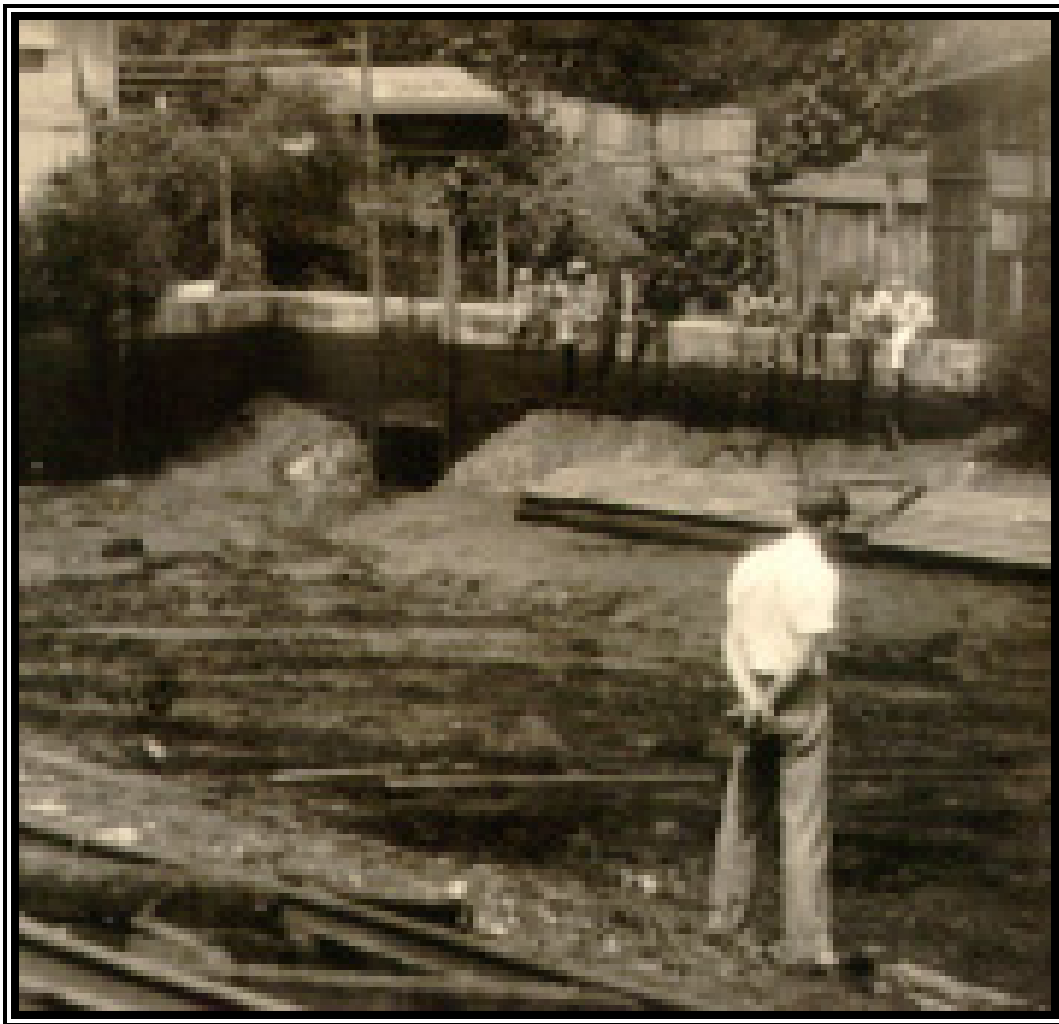


Figure 4.115. Wall near log wash at Hamlet (Photo on file at New River Gorge National River Park Headquarters Library).

Cut off from local transportation routes and with no local industries, Hamlet was abandoned and largely dismantled. The remains of this once thriving community have been relatively undisturbed since the 1940s and its location remained relatively remote until the National Park Service acquired the property. Today the visible remains of Hamlet include foundations associated with the mill; the grade of the railroad that serviced the mill; the mill pond; the piers of the bridge across the New River; the foundation of what is thought to be the boarding house; and other above ground features such as a fire hydrant. Of interest herein is that Long and Huddleston report that Babcock Coal and Timber maintained a logging camp about 2 ½ miles up Glade Creek from Hamlet (1992:7; cf. Nyden 1980). Moreover, Long (1991) states that four individuals were interred at a small cemetery at Hamlet: Cleve Plumley, a man named Rader, Sam Kincaid, and the infant baby of Aubrey Redden.



Figure 4.116. Houses at Hamlet, date unknown (Photo on file at New River Gorge National River Park Headquarters Library).



Figure 4.117. Hamlet sawmill and railroad tracks, date unknown (Photo on file at New River Gorge National River Park Headquarters Library).

Archaeological Fieldwork

The purpose of investigations at Hamlet was to identify extant structural remains and assess its potential intact cultural deposits. The investigation involved a combination of pedestrian survey and shovel probing. Shovel probes averaged 30 to 35 cm in diameter and were excavated until sterile subsoil was encountered. Soil from all shovel probes was screened through 6.35 mm hardware cloth. Information, consisting of location, size, depth, and soil profile was recorded for positive shovel probes. During the pedestrian survey, several structural remains, historic artifact scatters, the mill pond, and remnants of the sawmill and railroad were observed and photographed (Figure 4.119-124).

Four shovel probes were excavated in the mill and residential area on the east side of Hamlet (Figure 4.118). The shovel probes were placed to determine if intact cultural deposits were present near known foundations. Shovel Probe (SP) 1 was placed inside the boarding house foundation to a depth of 34 cm. The soil consisted of 10YR3/3 dark brown silt loam that was about 28 cm below the surface and was underlain by 10YR6/4 medium brown silt clay that extended downward to the limits of excavation. Shovel Probe 2 was placed inside the cellar of the boarding house to a depth of 39 cm. Below the dark brown silt loam was a medium brown silt clay subsoil. Shovel Probe 3 was placed outside the boarding house and excavated to a depth of 31 cm. The upper stratum consisted of dark brown silt loam and was about 20 cm thick (Figure 4.124). Finally, Shovel Probe 4 was excavated inside the lumber mill piers to a depth of 26 cm. In this

shovel probe the upper stratum consisted of 10YR2/1 black silty clay that was 14 cm thick. It was underlain by medium brown silt clay subsoil.

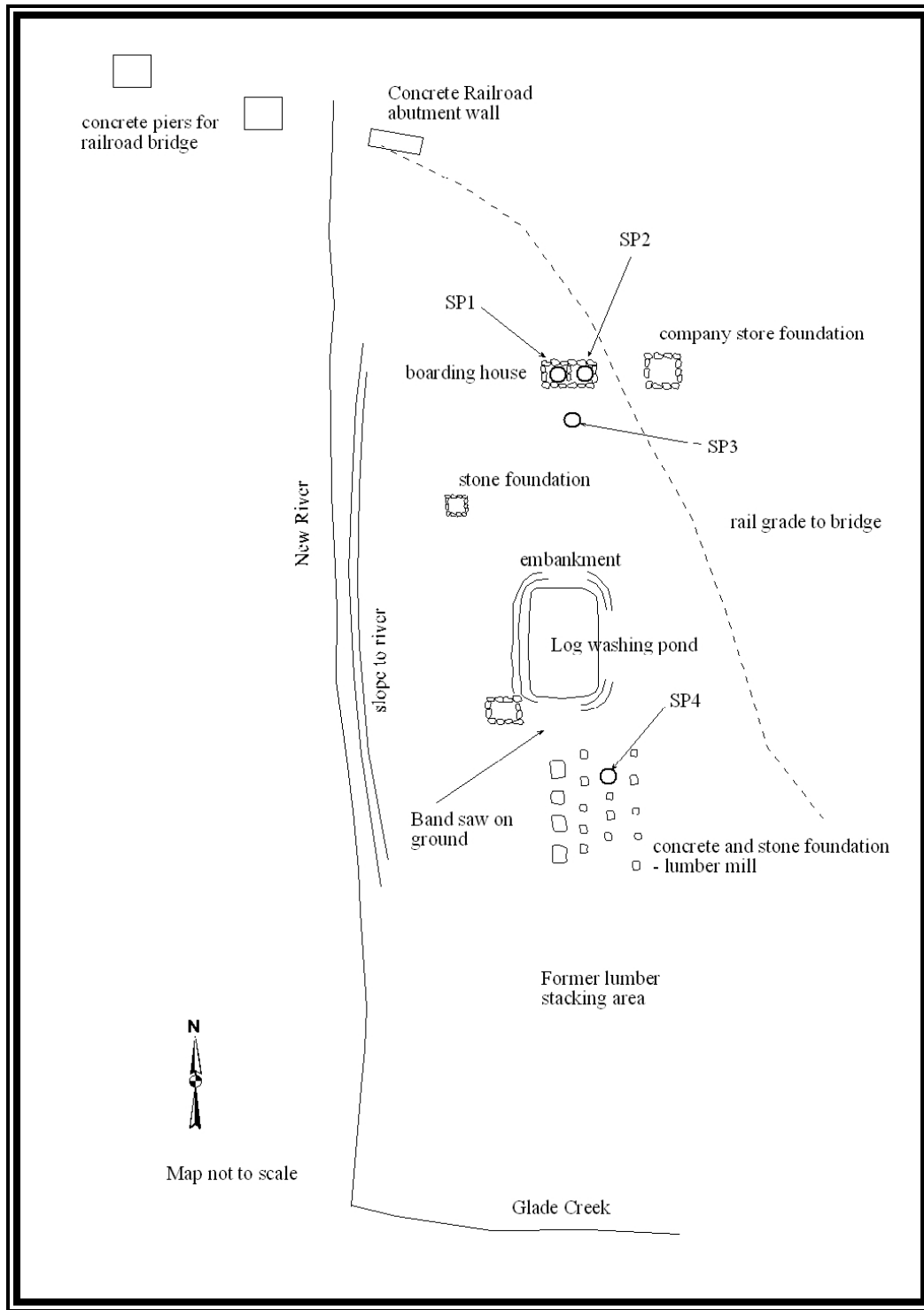


Figure 4.118. Site map of Hamlet.



Figure 4.119. Structural remains of boarding house at Hamlet (see Figure 4.109(7&8)).



Figure 4.120. Remains of log washing pond at Hamlet (see Figure 4.109(1)).



Figure 4.121. Ruins of lumber mill at Hamlet (see Figure 4.109(5)).



Figure 4.122. Concrete piers of lumber mill at Hamlet (see Figure 4.109(5)).



Figure 4.123. Concrete piers for former railroad bridge across New River between Glade and Hamlet, which connected to the C&O Railroad (see Figure 4.109(6)).

Shovel Probes (SP) 1 and 3 revealed the accumulation of cultural and natural deposits since the site's abandonment to a depth of about 25 cm below the surface. These probes contained unidentified metal fragments, window and container glass: artifacts typical of an early twentieth century site. Shovel Probes 2 and 4 reflect features or activity areas at the site. For example, a possible cellar feature is suggested by the results of Shovel Probe 2. In the probe, the dark silt loam noted in SPs 1 and 3 is more substantial than encountered in probes 1 and 3 (39 cm). The artifacts found in Shovel Probe 2 include metal, window glass and a nail. The inferred creation of, use, and subsequent filling of a cellar could explain the difference in stratigraphy in this confined context. The black silty clay in the upper strata of Shovel Probe 4 is consistent with sawmill operations that would have produced large quantities of sawdust, which settled beneath the floor of the mill. This shovel probe also contained window glass, metal and nails.

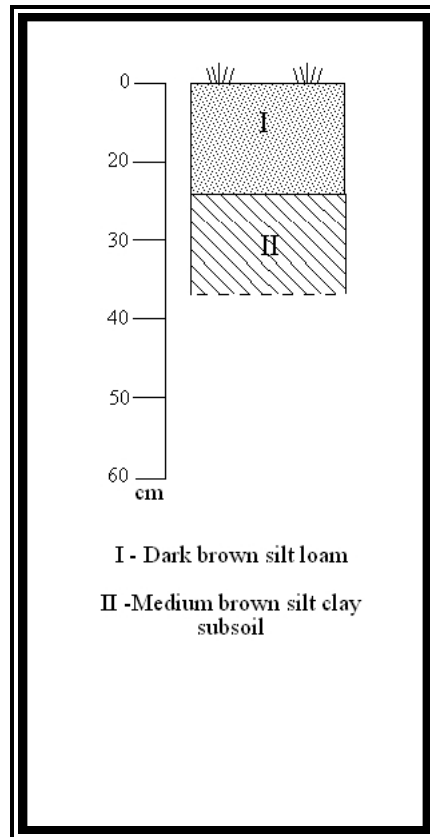


Figure 4.124. Profile of Shovel Probe 3 from Hamlet.

Artifacts Collected or Observed

A total of 48 artifacts was recovered from the shovel probes at Hamlet. The artifacts recovered consisted of container glass (n=3), wire nails (n=5), unidentified nails (n=6), window glass (n=22), metal fragments (n=10) and two metal strap fragments (Table 4.8). Although most of the nails were too rusted to determine their method of manufacture, wire nails that date from 1880 to the present day (Nelson 1968:7) were recovered. Diagnostic container glass consists of a fruit jar lip with a beaded seal that dates from approximately 1915 to the present day (Toulouse 1969:394), a machine-made clear bottle base, and a white press molded bottle embossed "POND'S" on its base. The clear bottle base exhibits an Owen's suction scar and an Owens Illinois Glass Company manufacturer's mark. This specimen dates from 1929 to 1954 (Toulouse 1972:403-404). The white press molded container is a Pond's Cold Cream bottle. Pond's Cream was invented in 1846 by Theron T. Pond, and the T. T. Pond Company was formed in 1849. However, it was not until the twentieth century that the company began to market Pond's Cold Cream. The technique of press molding was not widely used for manufacturing commercial containers until the mid-nineteenth through the twentieth century (Jones and Sullivan 1985:34). This specimen dates to the twentieth century. The window glass recovered from this site ranges from 1.77 to 3.09 mm in thickness and dates to the

twentieth century. All of these artifacts are typical of the early twentieth century and indicate that possible midden and other features may be present at Hamlet.

Table 4.9. Artifacts Recovered from Hamlet.

| Context | Provenience | Artifact Class/Subclass | # | Comments |
|---------|-----------------------------------|------------------------------|----|---------------------------------|
| 130-1 | SP1-Boarding House Foundation | Container glass | 1 | Lip fragment |
| 130-2 | SP1-Boarding House Foundation | Unidentified metal strap | 1 | |
| 130-3 | SP1-Boarding House Foundation | Unidentified metal fragments | 7 | |
| 131-1 | SP2-Boarding House Cellar | Window glass | 15 | |
| 131-2 | SP2-Boarding House Cellar | Nail | 1 | |
| 131-3 | SP2-Boarding House Cellar | Unidentified metal fragment | 1 | |
| 132-1 | SP3-Outside Boarding House | Window glass | 6 | |
| 132-2 | SP3-Outside Boarding House | Unidentified metal fragments | 2 | |
| 133-1 | SP4-Inside Lumber Mill Foundation | Window glass | 1 | |
| 133-2 | SP4-Inside Lumber Mill Foundation | Nails | 4 | |
| 133-3 | SP4-Inside Lumber Mill Foundation | Nail fragments | 6 | |
| 134-1 | Surface | Glass bottles | 2 | 1 whole, 1 missing neck and lip |
| 134-2 | Surface | Nail, wire | 1 | Clenched |

Summary and Recommendations

Based on this investigation, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Hamlet site. Hamlet is the only location in the New River valley that represents the development of a community almost entirely to support the timber boom between 1880 and 1920. The two other known towns in the New River that were developed in this manner, Glade and Landisburg, have all but disappeared from the landscape and, at best, only minimal evidence of these communities remains. Because there are intact archaeological materials still present at Hamlet, it represents an opportunity to study the dynamics involved in these special purpose timber-related communities. The site relates to the lumber industry historic context developed by Unrau (1996) for the New River Gorge National River. In that regard, further investigation of Hamlet has the potential to generate important information about intra- and inter-community relationships among places that were connected primarily by the railroad. In addition, Hamlet is important in the rapid development of the New River valley at the turn of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

As coal seams were exhausted and tracts of timber were cut, the fortunes of communities throughout the New River valley rose and fell. Small towns like Hamlet were probably impacted to a greater degree and more immediately than were the larger communities, such as Thurmond and Hinton. At Hamlet, the opportunity exists to study daily life in an industrial community that changed with the waxing and waning of the timber industry.

The town of Hamlet represents development in the New River Gorge that can be related to the specific effects of the timber industry within the region and the New River

valley in particular; investigated archaeologically in the context of a relatively tight historical chronology, since the periods of occupation are well-documented, and in terms of its overall function involving primarily the timber industry and to a lesser degree, the coal industry; where the archaeological materials present at the town's location have remained relatively undisturbed since the early 1940s and thus, have a high potential to not only inform about Hamlet's overall function, but also about its relationship to other contemporary communities in the New River valley; and where further studies can also provide significant insight about the daily lives of the people who lived and worked in this section of the New River.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. Hamlet should be protected with all available means. It is historically unique and the archaeological deposits are intact and sensitive to episodes of looting, development, or natural disturbances.
2. To better define the nature and extent of the archaeological resources at this site, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine its eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, it is recommended that phase I testing and mapping of the site be undertaken in conjunction with a cultural landscape inventory. This work should consist of systematic shovel probing across the site. After the landscape's features are mapped, the goals of the shovel probing should include the identification of the locations containing subsurface cultural materials and indicate their spatial relationship to building ruins and landscape features. Finally, site boundaries should be refined on the basis of historical records and the distribution of archaeological remains.
3. Depending on the results of the survey, phase II exploratory archaeological investigations may be necessary. This work should assess the integrity of cultural deposits at the Hamlet site by excavating several test units throughout the site. The results of these kinds of investigations should produce data from which interpretations about the life of the people who lived there can be articulated.
4. The results of the above investigations can and should be used to compare what we know about other locations in the New River valley. Once accomplished, such comparisons should be made in view of the relationship(s) that the town of Hamlet had with other communities in the New River valley and in the surrounding uplands.
5. Finally, consideration should be given to a long-term plan to reconstruct as much of the town of Hamlet as possible as an educational facility/attraction of the New River Gorge National River. Such a location will provide the Park Service a facility that represents a relatively accurate reconstruction of life at the turn of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries in the New River and can specifically address the impact of the timber boom that lasted from about 1880 to 1920. This is the

only location in the Park's boundaries along the New River where this particular aspect of its history can be presented in such a manner.

Given these investigations, the Hamlet site should be considered potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D. The recommended archaeological and archival research should be able to provide additional information on the size of this site and the nature of the associated archaeological deposits. Taken together the recommended archival research and field investigations should produce the information needed to more fully evaluate the significance of this site.

Hump Mountain

| | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Site Type: | Historic coal mine |
| Property Types: | Industrial |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4187423 E 510497 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | Meadow Creek 50m |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | 114 acres |
| Previous Disturbance: | Demolition |
| ASIMS # | 411 |

Site Description

Hump Mountain is located in the New River Gorge National River, Summers County, West Virginia (Figures 4.125-126). The lower area of the site along the railway and Meadow Creek contain coal related foundation remains. The conveyor line and tipple remains are near the railroad. The conveyor line crosses the road towards the top of the mountain, which is not on Park property. The miners at the Hump Mountain mining operation lived in the town of Claypool, which is east of the mine and not on Park property.

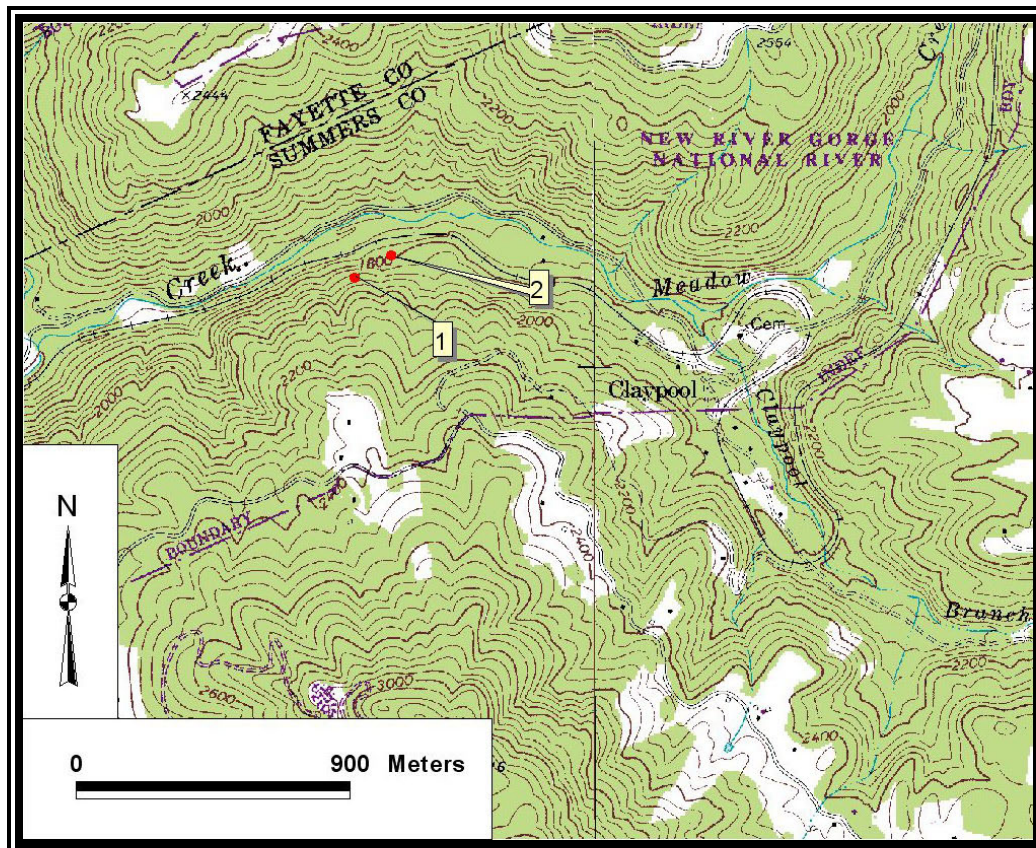


Figure 4.125. Location of Hump Mountain on 1996 Meadow Creek, WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map: (1) Possible foundation remains; (2) Tipple.

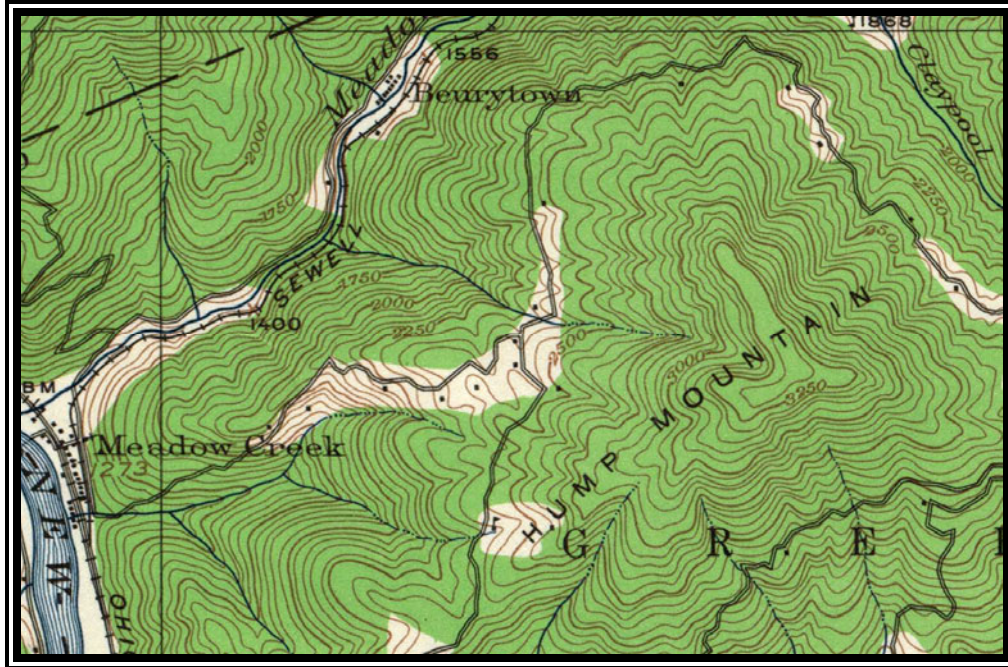


Figure 4.126. Location of Hump Mountain on 1912 Meadow Creek, WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.

Site History

Little is known about the Hump Mountain mining operation. Little archival information on either the mining operation or the inhabitants of the associated town was located. These two pictures were discovered by New River National River employees (Figures 4.127 and 4.128).

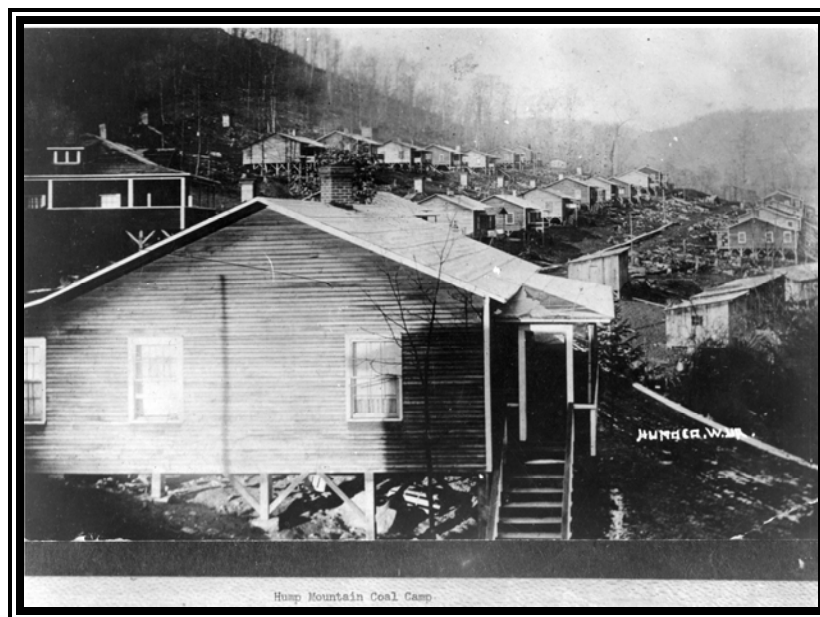


Figure 4.127. Hump Mountain mining operation company housing at Claypool (also known as Humco).

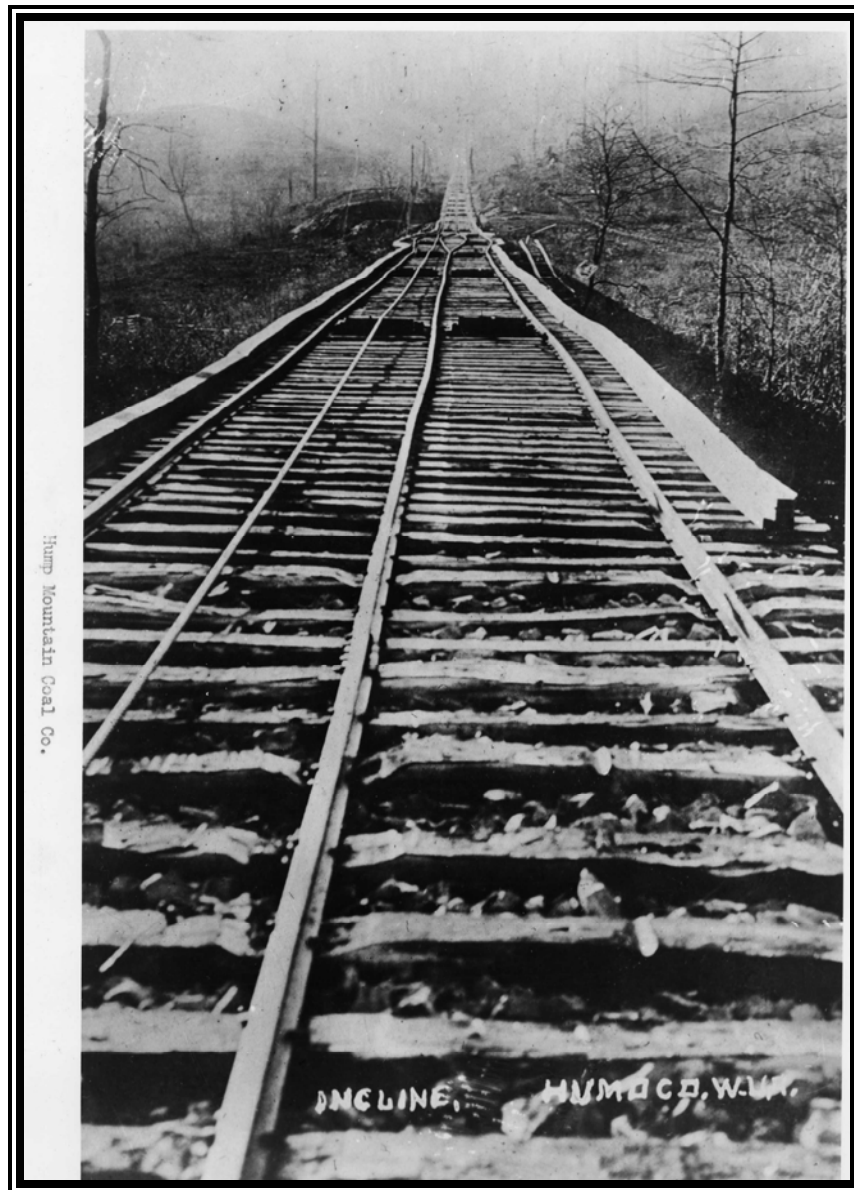


Figure 4.128. Incline at Hump Mountain Coal Company mining operation (on file at New River Gorge National River Headquarters library).

Archaeological Fieldwork

Hump Mountain was examined by a pedestrian survey that included observing and photodocumenting any structural remains (Figures 4.129-132). Structural remains of coal mining operations at Hump Mountain were documented and consisted of rail grade siding, foundations of conveyor and tipple, road grade from Claypool/Humoco town site, and a structure and outbuilding near the tipple. No evidence of the company town pictured in Figure 4.127 was located. This may be because the housing area is outside the surveyed area and outside park boundaries, or that materials were salvaged when the company town was dismantled.

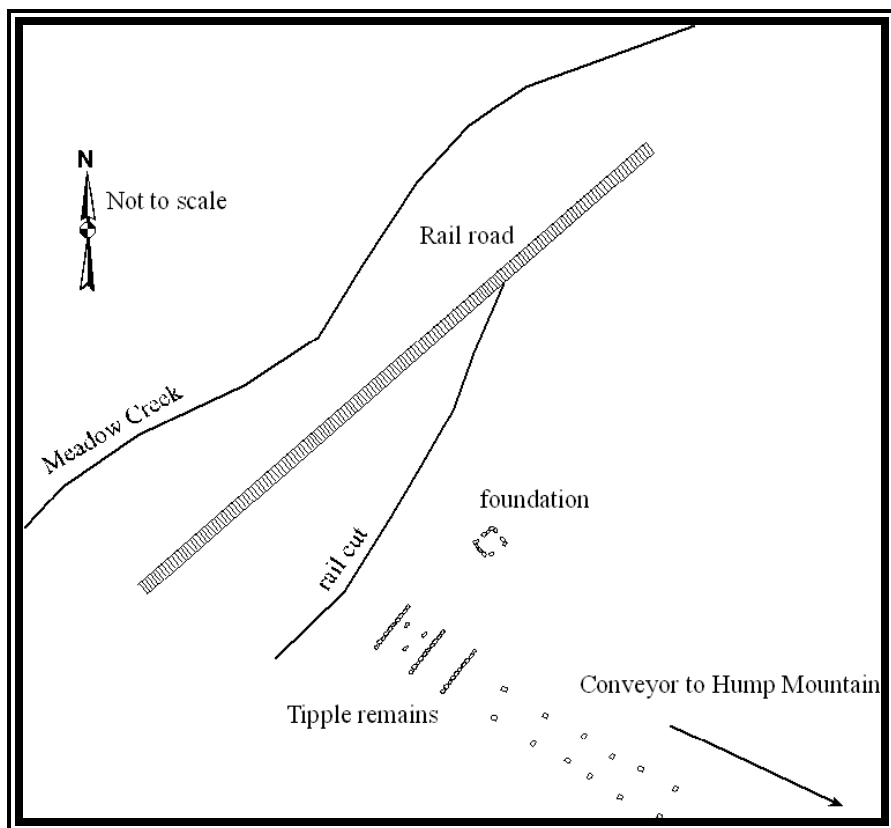


Figure 4.129. Site map of Hump Mountain industrial remains.



Figure 4.130. Mining operations foundations at Hump Mountain (see Figure 4.125(2)).



Figure 4.132. View of mine conveyor incline above Hump Mountain tippie (see Figure 4.125(near 2)).



Figure 4.132. Mine conveyor piers above Hump Mountain tippie (see Figure 4.125(near 2)).

Artifacts Collected or Observed

No artifacts were observed or collected during fieldwork. No shovel probes were excavated. The site was not mapped.

Summary and Recommendations

Based on this investigation, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Hump Mountain site. The Hump Mountain site represents development in the New River Gorge that can be related to the coal industry within the region and the New River valley generally.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Hump Mountain site may contain intact archaeological industrial site remains and should be protected with all available means.
2. At this time we are recommending that minimal shovel probing be done in and around the possible house or outbuilding foundation. We recommend additional and more intensive archival research on the settlement and the people who lived and worked at Hump Mountain. The results of this work can and should be used to compare what we know about other locations in the New River valley. Such comparisons should be made in view of the relationship(s) that the town of Claypool/Humoco had with other communities in the New River valley and in the surrounding uplands. This information could lead to a later recommendation of further archaeological work.

The Hump Mountain site should be revisited and minimal shovel probing done to determine the extent of possible deposits. Once this is accomplished, a determination can be made at how the Hump Mountain site might fit within a more intensive study of the New River Gorge.

McKendree Hospital

| | |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| Site Type: | Historic hospital |
| Property Types: | House lots, commercial, transportation, cemetery |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4193195 E 494758 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | New River 60m |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | 40 acres |
| Previous Disturbance: | Demolition |
| ASIMS # | 412 |

Site Description

McKendree is located in the New River Gorge National River, Fayette County, West Virginia (Figures 4.133-135). Situated on a bench below State Route 25, McKendree Hospital Road and above the existing CSX railroad line, the site lies nine miles south of Thurmond and three miles north of Prince West Virginia. The site consists of the McKendree hospital complex and the McKendree depot. The hospital complex consists of the ruins of the hospital, houses, boarding house, water tower structure, roads, walls and other structures. There is also a cemetery on the hill near the remains of the water reservoir. There is also the McKendree train depot near the existing CSX railroad.

The 1929 Beckley WV USGS 15 minute map depicts four structures on the terrace that are connected to the railroad by an access road (Workman et al. 2005:32) (Figure 4.134). A structure is also shown at the end of the access road near the railroad. There are also two structures beside the railroad, most likely a store and railroad depot. State Road 25 that connects the hospital to Prince and Thurmond is also depicted. The 1969 Thurmond WV USGS 7.5 minute map, updated in 1988, depicts the access road and McKendree Road, but no structures (Workman et al. 2005:32) (Figure 4.133).

Site History

With the rapid growth of the coal industry in the New River Gorge, the State of West Virginia decided to embark on a project that provided badly needed hospital care for employees injured in hazardous occupations. The state legislature passed a law providing for the establishment of three miners' hospitals on February 24, 1899. Miners Hospital No. 1 was to be located in the Flat Top coal region, in either McDowell or Mercer County, while Miners Hospital No. 2 was to be located in the New River coal region, in either Fayette or Kanawha County. Miners' Hospital No. 3 would be located in the Fairmont region of Marion County. To choose a building site, Governor George W. Atkinson appointed a four member board for each hospital. Each board was comprised of a physician, someone engaged in mining, someone engaged in shipping coal, and a practical miner. The main requirement for the sites of the new hospitals was that they be convenient to railroad transportation (Bragg 1992:2).

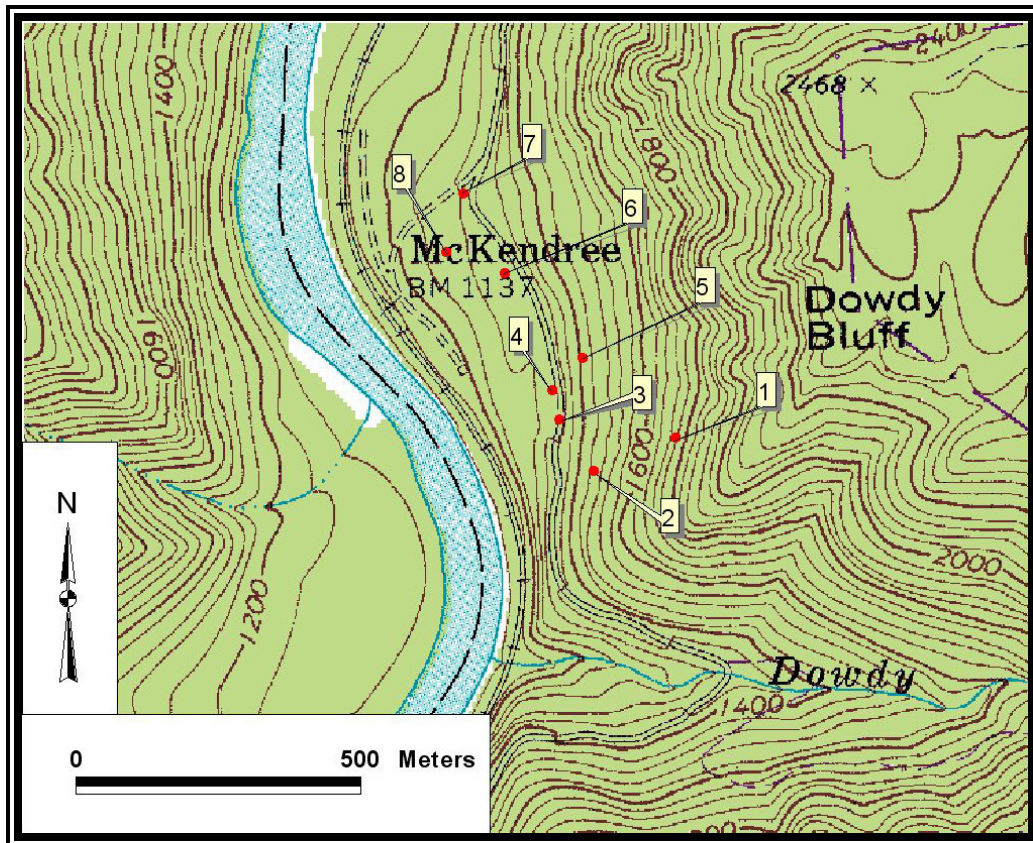


Figure 4.133. Location of McKendree Hospital on 1988 Thurmond, WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map: (1) Dump site; (2) Garage; (3) Building; (4) Doctor's and nurses office; (5) Building 2; (6) Hospital remains; (7) Road to river; (8) Possible dormitory.

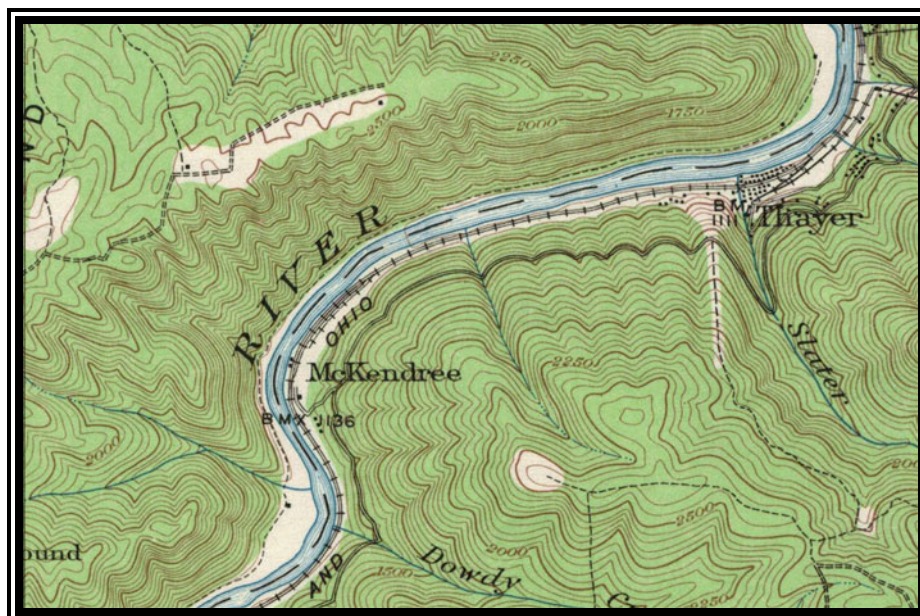


Figure 4.134. Location of McKendree Hospital on 1929 Beckley, WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.



Figure 4.135. 1945 aerial photograph of McKendree Hospital.

The site chosen for Miner's Hospital No. 2 in the New River coal field was a small lumber community known as McKendree, located on the main line of the C&O Railroad. At the time, the McKendree community had approximately fifty citizens and consisted of a boarding house, a store, a railroad depot, post office, and several homes. The boarding house was constructed to provide a place for family and friends of patients to stay. The store was owned by Loomis Gwinn and was known locally as a "jot-'em-down" store because of the wide variety of items that could be purchased there. One of the homes was a large house between the hospital and the depot, which was owned by the Withrow family. These resources were not located during fieldwork.

Miner's Hospital No. 2, renamed McKendree Hospital, was located on a shallow bench running parallel to the New River at a height of 75-100 feet above the water's edge (Ripley 1963). It was built on six and a half acres of land donated to the state by coal operator Joseph Beury, along with the donation of a five-year supply of coal. The hospital had three stories; it was constructed of red brick, and sat on a limestone foundation. Stone walls hand-crafted by Italian stone masons enclosed the grounds, which were landscaped with terraces, lawns, and plantings (Workman et al. 2005:32). The original hospital building contained patient wards, administrative offices, the superintendent and staff's homes, supply rooms, kitchen, employee's rooms, and the local post office (Kirchgeßner 1997).

The hospital opened in 1901; anyone in the state who was accidentally injured while on the job was treated free of charge. The hospital had 42 patient beds; of which most were filled immediately after it opened. Patients who were injured away from the job site were to be admitted only if room was available. The Superintendent of the hospital set the treatment fee at one dollar per day. Those afflicted with infectious or contagious diseases were not granted admission to the hospital. However, patients with such ailments were often diagnosed after admission and had to receive care.

Lighting for the hospital was provided from an underground storage room at the rear in which a formula of carbide and water mixture formed a gas, piped into the facility until electricity was available (Ripley 1963). Coal-burning fireplaces were in each room to heat the hospital. Eventually a furnace was installed in the basement providing steam heat throughout the hospital. For many years, the hospital obtained its water supply from Dowdy's Creek, about a mile and a half away (Ripley 1963). The water was transported through wooden pipes about four inches in diameter and ten to twelve inches in length. The wooden pipes were wrapped with steel and then buried in the ground.

From December 1901 to December 1902, the hospital treated 171 patients (Bragg 1992:2). The majority of the patients were miners; they constituted 77 percent, or 132, of the patients seen that year. Other patients included laborers, farmers, carpenters, railroad accident victims and mine guards. The patient nationalities included American, English, German, Irish, and Hungarian. Thirty of the patients seen that year suffered from gunshot wounds, eight of which died as a result (Bragg 1992:3). Burns, however, were the most common injury. The cost of maintaining a patient for one day in 1902 was \$1.59 (Cox 1981:40).

McKendree Hospital had many problems from the beginning. One of the most serious problems was the lack of an adequate water supply (Bragg 1992:3). Originally, the hospital was to be supplied with fresh water from a nearby spring, however, the spring was dry for several months a year. The hospital was forced to install pumping stations on the New River, while applying for state funding to dig a well. The funding was never approved and instead, a 25,000 gallon water reservoir was constructed followed by the addition of a 40,000 gallon reservoir. Another serious problem was the lack of adequate facilities for boiling and sterilizing contaminated linen. The hospital had to send its laundry by rail to Charleston for sterilization.

The superintendent of the hospital wrote biennial reports to the West Virginia Board of Control. In January of 1903, the first president of the hospital board, Justus Collins, reported to Governor E. B. White that McKendree Hospital had to be closed temporarily due to a smallpox epidemic (Bragg 1992:3). The epidemic had begun when an infected miner was admitted with serious injuries from a mine accident. The new hospital board president W. R. Reed reported more problems for the years 1904 to 1906. He reported the need for several structural repairs at the hospital including the replacement of all its wooden and iron water pipes.

From January of 1903 to September of 1904, the number of patients admitted to McKendree Hospital totaled 414 (Cox 1981:38). Of these, 65 percent, or 269, were miners, while 16 percent were laborers and almost 8 percent were railroad employees (Cox 1981:38). In 1921, the hospital had enough beds for 64 patients. The average age of the patient population was 24 years old. There were two doctors, one registered nurse, and about eight or ten student nurses. There was one day orderly and one night orderly. Four cooks worked in the kitchen. The facility grew many of its vegetables and fruit and much of the meat used consisted of ham and other pork products that were raised and butchered on the grounds (Ripley 1963).

Nurses worked ten to twelve hour shifts and had one hour of free time daily. They had one free afternoon each week, as well as, two weeks annual vacation. Day nurses usually worked from 8 a.m. to 8 p.m., while night nurses worked from 8 p.m. to 8 a.m. Day nurses were required to be in bed by 10 p.m. and night nurses were required to stay in bed from 9 a.m. to 5 p.m. Nurses were responsible for cleaning the bedpans and the utility rooms, and often had to scrub the bathroom and the beds. They washed the water pitchers and glasses, fixed the patients' food trays and carried them to the rooms, and sterilized the syringes.

A nursing school was established in McKendree on March 1, 1910 to help supplement the staff (Figure 4.136). Requirements for admission, which were determined by the Board of Directors, included personal interviews with both the superintendent of the hospital and the superintendent of nurses. By 1920, applicants were required to have a high school diploma. Students were also required to complete a two-month probationary period before being accepted to the two year program. They received room, board, and laundry, as well as ten dollars per month for purchasing uniforms, textbooks, and other supplies. The qualifications for McKendree nurses were strict and required that they be of the highest moral standards, intelligent, have a good basic education, and be healthy (Bragg 1992:3).

The students were inspected every day before going on duty. Their uniforms were striped gingham princess-style dresses with white aprons, cuffs, collar, cap, and shoes, which had to be clean and worn correctly. If they failed the inspection, the students had to correct the problem and the time used was deducted from their break time (Wells 1984). Classes were conducted at night and consisted of six lectures a week from October 1 to May 30. The superintendent of nurses and the medical staff gave the lectures. The student nurses were also graded on neatness, obedience, and general deportment (Bragg 1991). Any time off duty had to be spent either outdoors for exercise or confined in the parlor or their rooms. When on duty, student nurses had to stay in their designated work area and were responsible for keeping the area clean. The McKendree Nursing School had an exceptional reputation throughout the region and graduates easily found employment.

The nurses' training school progressed well and by 1915 the second floor of the hospital, which housed the staff, had grown too crowded (Bragg 1992:3). In 1916, a Nurses' Home building was constructed about 200 feet west of the hospital. It opened in

October of 1917 and contained seventeen rooms and a fenced tennis court. Like the hospital, the nurses' home was constructed of red brick on a rock foundation. It had two floors and a basement. On the first floor, quarters for the superintendent and his family and a reception room for nurses were provided, while the second floor contained nine bedrooms, common areas, and two bathrooms for the nurses (Ripley 1963). It also had a porch with a swing.

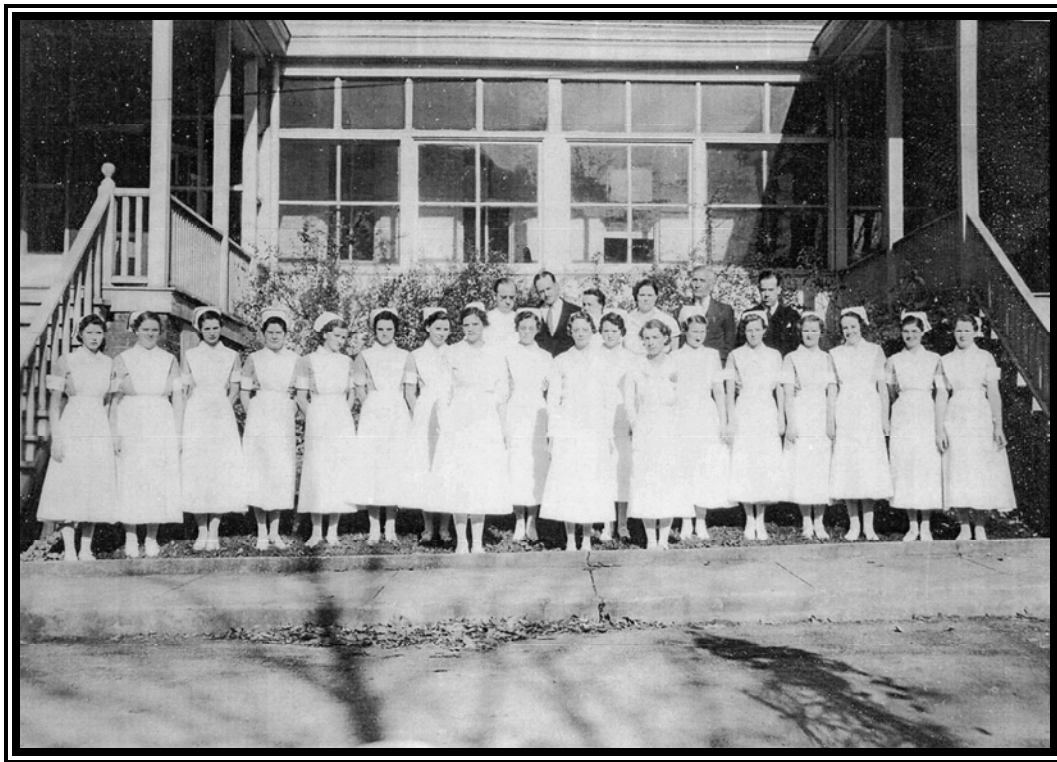


Figure 4.136. Nursing students at McKendree Hospital (Photo from Vertical file at New River Gorge National River Park Library).

By 1917, McKendree Hospital was treating many more patients annually than had been anticipated when the hospital was constructed (Bragg 1992:3). During this period, fourteen passenger trains passed McKendree daily on the C&O main line, and each was met by hospital attendants to receive incoming patients. The main hospital building had expanded due to the addition of the Nurses' Home. The basement held the laundry and furnace rooms. The main floor housed the white ward on the east end of the building and the colored ward on the west end (Bragg 1992:3). In the center of the main floor were the offices, dining room, kitchen, store rooms, and toilets. The second floor contained private rooms for patients, the superintendent of nurses, and the house surgeon. The third floor contained the operating room, sterilizing room, and three small ward rooms for white female patients. The hospital was, however, still in need of repair. Dr. H. L. Goodman, the new superintendent, reported that additional help had to be hired just to keep the hospital clean. All of the rooms needed new plaster, and floors. In addition, new heating and plumbing systems were needed, along with linens, supplies and a new

icehouse. Dr. Goodman made what changes he could, including raising the staff salaries and installing a Delco Lighting plant to light the institution and operate the x-ray machine.

By 1919, Dr. Goodman reported an immense improvement in the physical plant at the hospital. The walls had been replastered, the heating and plumbing systems were repaired, and a new bathroom was installed in the women's ward. The Governor helped to get the hospital a government ambulance and a truck. Dr. Goodman's report in 1920 still called for new equipment for the laundry, kitchen, and operating rooms and it reiterated the need for a new icehouse. The hospital was appropriated \$25,000 per year to cover operating costs (Bragg 1988). Also in 1919, the hospital experienced a welcome decline in the number of patients. Within the previous two years, two private hospitals had been constructed in the area, one at Oak Hill and one at Montgomery (Bragg 1992:4). The Oak Hill Hospital assumed the care of the New River Companies employees while the hospital at Montgomery cared for patients from the western part of the county.

Patients arrived by train during the first twenty years. Then, in the 1920s, a road, named McKendree Road, current State Road 25, was built from Thurmond to Prince to provide automobile access to the facility and to connect McKendree with the main highways, State Road 41 and 16. By 1930, the hospital had also been remodeled and modernized. The main floor now included an x-ray room, drug room, laboratory, emergency room, kitchen, and dining room, in addition to the black and white wards (Bragg 1992:4). The second floor still housed private rooms while the third floor contained the operating room, sterilizing room, three doctors' dressing rooms, fracture room, and diathermy (Bragg 1992:4). By the 1940s, adequate hospital facilities had been established in the New River coal field, but many of the mines had already closed down. Coal miners and their families moved to other areas of the county where new mines had opened. Improved roadways eliminated the necessity of living so close to the railroad line. The automobile was quickly becoming the favored mode of transportation.

The hospital treated an average of 1,250 patients annually for forty years (Workman et al. 2005:32). Data taken from various West Virginia annals report the 60-bed hospital admitted an average 1,250 patients annually during its "heyday" and approximately 45 surgical operations were performed each month (Ripley 1963). Patient records describe accidents such as explosions, cave-ins, and slate falls resulting in crushed limbs, skulls, and backs. Skull fractures could be surgically repaired, however, patients suffering from spinal injuries and paralysis were far less likely to survive.

Though blood products, intravenous fluids, and adrenaline were available treatments for the management of shock, there is no record that they were being utilized at McKendree (Kirchgessner 1997). Other treatments may have been used in place of those previously mentioned. One method of managing shock, aside from adrenaline, was to keep the patient quiet and warm and to lower the patient's head. In surgical cases, morphine was administered prior to the anesthesia to help prevent shock. Hemorrhaging could be treated with strychnia and whiskey accompanied by warm blankets, lowering the head, and keeping the patient quiet. Anesthesia used in surgical cases at McKendree

Hospital was either chloroform or ether. Nitrous oxide would be used later in this era and by 1912 it is mentioned in textbooks as a form of anesthesia (Kirchgeßner 1997).

However, some of the injuries sustained were so severe that the patients would merely be cleaned and comforted in their final hours. Even if the patients survived extensive surgery or treatment, infection still threatened their lives. These were the years prior to the advent of antibiotic therapy and infections were treated with such compounds as mercurials, phenol, alcohol, and arsenic (Kirchgeßner 1997). Mercury compounds were considered one of the most powerful germicides and arsenic was found to be helpful with skin infections. Patients with burns often responded well to treatment but they were often challenged by secondary infections. Most severely burned patients succumbed to septicemia (Kirchgeßner 1997). Silver nitrate and zinc oxide ointments or pastes were commonly used to treat burns. Morphine, laudanum, and ether were given to burn patients to ease their pain. Creosote inhalations were given to patients if the burn affected the respiratory tract.

The Second Biennial Report of 1912 lists conjunctivitis, eczema, gastritis, orchitis, and nephritis as a few of the medical diagnoses treated (Kirchgeßner 1997). Though patients with infectious diseases were not generally admitted to the hospital, outbreaks of malaria, tuberculosis, and typhoid were present in the community. With McKendree being the only health care facility in the area, the staff may have had to respond to these outbreaks to prevent the spread of these diseases. Patients afflicted with infectious diseases required constant care to allow the body to gain strength and to heal. Nutrition was closely monitored and specific diets were prescribed; diets consisted mostly of liquids (Kirchgeßner 1997). Aspirin and ice baths were used to help control fevers. Enemas were used to administer medications, provide nourishment, and evacuate bowels (Kirchgeßner 1997). Silver nitrate enemas were given to patients with typhoid fever as an intestinal astringent, which reduced the diarrhea that often accompanied intestinal illnesses.

Women and children were also treated at McKendree Hospital; this suggests that nurses not only needed surgical and medical knowledge, but also knowledge in women's health and pediatrics. The hospital's Biennial Reports show that the medical staff treated gynecological problems that included salpingitis, ectopic pregnancies, and vaginitis. Vulvitis and urethritis were also treated.

McKendree Hospital officially closed its doors and stopped serving patients on September 13, 1941 (Bragg 1992:4). Later that year the state converted the hospital to the West Virginia Home for Aged and Infirm Colored Men and Women. The home had a population of about ninety-seven people; it was maintained by sixteen staff members (Bragg 1988). However, following the *Brown vs Board of Education* decision mandating integration in 1956, the patients were moved to Huntington.

Archaeological Fieldwork

The McKendree site was examined by pedestrian survey and shovel probes. Pedestrian survey included observing and photodocumenting any structural remains (Figures 4.137-149). Five shovel probes averaged 30 to 35 cm in diameter and were excavated until sterile subsoil was encountered. Soil from all shovel probes was screened through 6.35 mm hardware cloth. Information, consisting of their location, size, depth, and soil profile was recorded for positive shovel probes.



Figure 4.137 Garage at McKendree (see Figure 4.133(2)).



Figure 4.138. Standing buildings at McKendree (see Figure 4.133(5)).

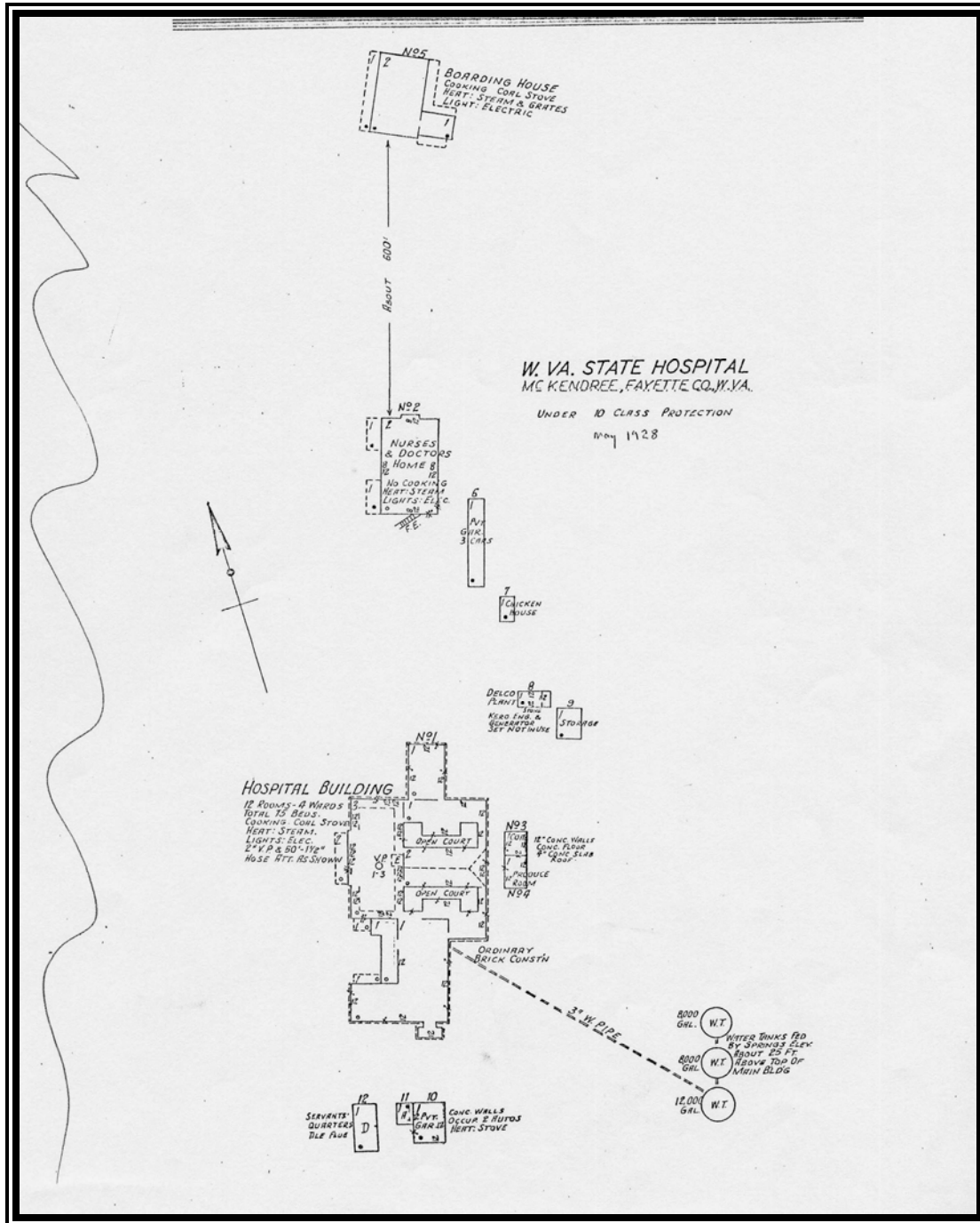


Figure 4.139. 1928 map of McKendree Hospital and other buildings (On file at New River Gorge National River Headquarters Library).

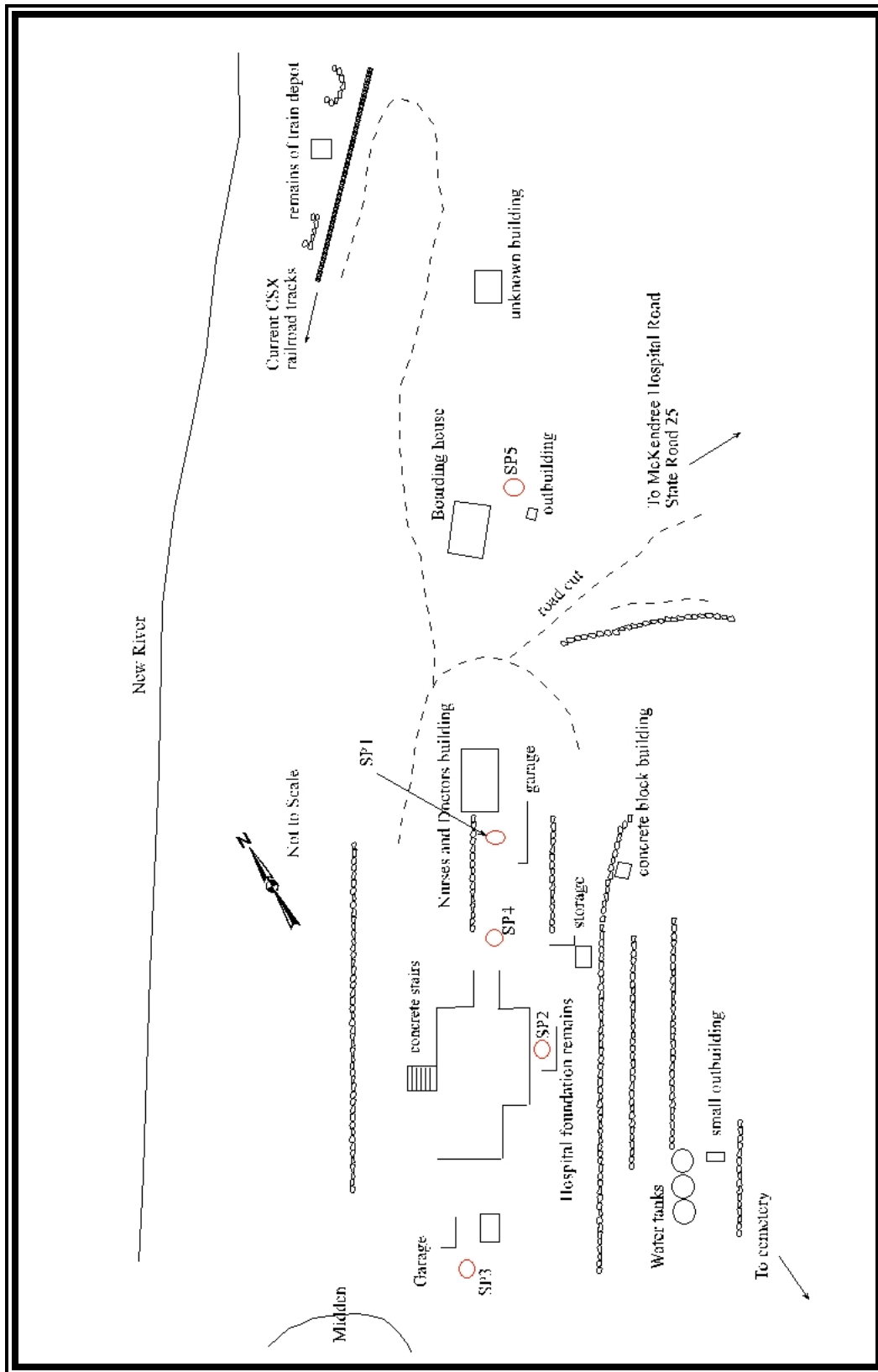


Figure 4.140. Site map of McKendree Hospital remains.



Figure 4.141. Headstone at McKendree cemetery, reads Giustino Iezzi, died Feb. 22, 1910.



Figure 4.142. Cemetery at McKendree.



Figure 4.143. Foundation remains at McKendree (see Figure 4.133(near 5)).



Figure 4.144. McKendree hospital front steps (see Figure 4.133(6)).



Figure 4.145. Artifact scatter on surface at McKendree
(see Figure 4.133, near 8, possible nursing students dormitory).



Figure 4.146. Road cut near McKendree Hospital remains (see Figure 4.133(near 6)).



Figure 4.147. McKendree Hospital front entrance road and over-look walkway (see Figure 4.133(near 6)).



Figure 4.148. Front steps to McKendree nurses dormitory or doctor's building (see Figure 4.133(4)).

The shovel probes were located near structural remains to determine if intact cultural deposits were present (Figure 4.140). Shovel Probe (SP) 1 was located near the southwest corner of the doctor's house and excavated to a depth of 28 cm below the surface. Layer one was a 10YR3/3 dark brown silty clay loam and layer two was a 10YR5/6 medium yellow brown silt clay subsoil. Shovel Probe 2 was located behind the hospital in front of the produce room and ended at a depth of 7 cm below the surface. Shovel Probe 3 was located south of the concrete garage and ended at a depth of 29 cm below the surface. Layer one was 20 cm thick, and a dark brown silt clay loam with a high concentration of rocks. Layer two was a medium brown silt clay subsoil with rocks (Figure 4.149). Shovel Probe 4 was located between the hospital and the doctor's building and ended at a depth of 30 cm below the surface. Layer one was a dark brown silt clay loam and layer two was a medium brown silt clay subsoil. Shovel Probe 5 was located north of the boarding house and excavated to a depth of 28 cm below the surface. Layer one was a dark brown silt clay loam and layer two was a medium brown silt clay subsoil.

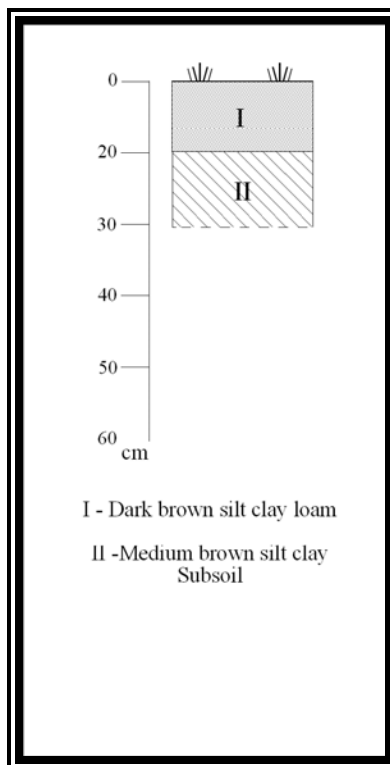


Figure 4.149. Typical Shovel Probe (SP 3) at McKendree.

Artifacts Collected or Observed

A total of 12 artifacts was recovered from the McKendree Hospital site (Table 4.10). No artifacts were collected from Shovel Probes 1 or 4. Brick and rock rubble

from the demolition of some of the buildings was found in Shovel Probe 2 but not collected.

Materials recovered from this site consist of an ironstone cup or bowl base, an ironstone body sherd, an overglaze painted English hard-paste porcelain base fragment, window glass fragments (n=5), amethyst and amber container glass fragments, and an unidentified ceramic object (Table 4.10).

Table 4.9: Artifacts Recovered from McKendree Hospital.

| Context | Provenience | Artifact Class/Subclass | # | Comments |
|---------|-------------|-------------------------|---|-----------------------|
| 135-1 | SP5 | Container glass | 3 | Bottle base included |
| 135-2 | SP5 | Window glass | 2 | |
| 135-3 | SP5 | Decal porcelain | 1 | Base fragment |
| 135-4 | SP5 | Ironstone | 2 | 20th century cup base |
| 136-1 | SP3 | Window glass | 2 | |
| 136-2 | SP3 | Container glass | 1 | |
| 136-3 | SP3 | Stoneware | 1 | Salt glazed |

Ironstone ceramics date from 1842 to 1930 (Miller 1991:10; 1993:5-6). Porcelain recovered from this site is highly vitrified English hard-paste porcelain, which has a long period of production and is not temporally diagnostic (Godden 1965; Ketchum 2000). Amethyst glass recovered from this site dates from 1880 to 1925 (Newman 1970:74), and is associated with the use of manganese oxide as a decolorizing agent in glass production. Glass with manganese turns purplish after extended exposure to the ultraviolet rays of the sun (Jones and Sullivan 1989:13). The end of amethyst glass is associated with the change to selenium, which began by 1915 and was almost exclusively used as a decolorizing agent after German imports of manganese were suspended in 1918 (Deiss 1981:82-83).

A recovered amber bottle base fragment exhibits an Owens Illinois Glass Company and Duraglass mark. Bottles manufactured by the Owens Illinois Glass Company bearing the “Duraglass” mark have been manufactured since 1940 (Toulouse 1972:403).

The domestic function of the site is obvious through the types of artifacts recovered. All are typical of the early twentieth century. The trash midden to the west of the hospital foundations contained many artifacts and may contain hospital refuse that may indicate types of medicines, cleaning supplies, bandages among many other things, all of which could speak to health care for coal miners in the New River Gorge.

Summary and Recommendations

Based on this investigation, several observations and recommendations can be made about the McKendree Hospital site. The McKendree Hospital site contains the

remains of the only hospital and nursing school in the New River area. Because there are intact archaeological remains still present at the McKendree site, it represents an opportunity to study the healthcare of the region. In that regard, further investigations of McKendree might provide important information about early twentieth century treatment of coal mining related injuries and education in the New River coal fields.

The McKendree site represents development in the New River Gorge that can be related to the specific health effects of the coal industry within the region and the New River valley in particular; that can be investigated archaeologically in the context of a relatively tight historical chronology, since the periods of occupation are well-documented, and numerous documents regarding the hospital exist; where the archaeological materials present at the hospital's location have remained relatively undisturbed since the early 1940s and thus, have a high potential to inform about health care practices and treatment; and where further studies also can provide significant insight about the health and the daily lives of the people who lived and worked in this section of the New River.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The McKendree site should be protected with all available means. It is historically unique and the archaeological deposits are intact and sensitive to episodes of looting, development, or natural disturbances.
2. To better define the nature and extent of the archaeological resources at this site, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine its eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, it is recommended that phase I testing and mapping of the site be undertaken in conjunction with a cultural landscape inventory. This work should consist of systematic shovel probing across the site. After the site's landscape features are mapped, the goals of the shovel probing should include the identification of the locations containing subsurface cultural materials and indicate their spatial relationship to building ruins and landscape features. Finally, site boundaries should be refined on the basis of historical records and the distribution of archaeological remains.
3. The phase I testing should also include a goal of locating and documenting pre-hospital components.
4. Depending on the results of the survey, phase II exploratory archaeological investigations may be necessary. This work should assess the integrity of cultural deposits at the McKendree Hospital site by excavating several test units throughout the site. The results of these kinds of investigations could produce data on healthcare, technological advancements in the area, the lives of those who worked at the hospital, diet, and education.
5. As the only state healthcare facility in the New River Gorge, McKendree Hospital represents a wealth of archival resources. Interviews of nurses and doctors are

available as well as patient information. More intensive archival research is recommended to compliment the archaeological efforts. The archival data used in conjunction with archaeological information can help more fully develop research goals into coal mining, healthcare, technology, diet and education in the New River area. Comparisons should be made between the hospital's mission and treatment to private/company healthcare at coal mining and lumbering operations.

6. Finally, consideration should be given to a long-term plan for interpretation of McKendree as an educational facility/attraction of the New River Gorge National River. Such a location will provide the Park Service a facility that represents a relatively accurate reconstruction of life at the turn of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries in the New River and can specifically address the impact of coal mining on the health of the miners and their families.

Given these investigations, the McKendree site should be considered potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D. The recommended archaeological and archival research should be able to provide additional information on the size of this site and the nature of the associated archaeological deposits. Taken together the recommended archival research and field investigations should produce the information needed to more fully evaluate the significance of this site.

Quinnimont

| | |
|---------------------------------------|---|
| Site Type: | Historic coal/railroad town |
| Property Types: | Industrial, house lots, commercial, religious |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4189554 E 496189 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | New River |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | Unknown |
| Previous Disturbance: | Demolition |
| ASIMS # | 413 |

Site Description

Quinnimont is located in the New River Gorge National River, Fayette County, West Virginia (Figures 4.150 and 4.151). The town of Quinnimont is located on a bench along State Road 41 at the mouth and upstream areas of Laurel Creek. The site includes the remains of coal mining and coke production facilities, a railroad yard, an iron furnace, and railroad depot, as well as, the remains of residences, stores, post office, high school, and churches. The house lot remains and the industrial remains are separated by approximately 400 m. The property types present at Quinnimont, include house lots, industrial, commercial and religious sites.

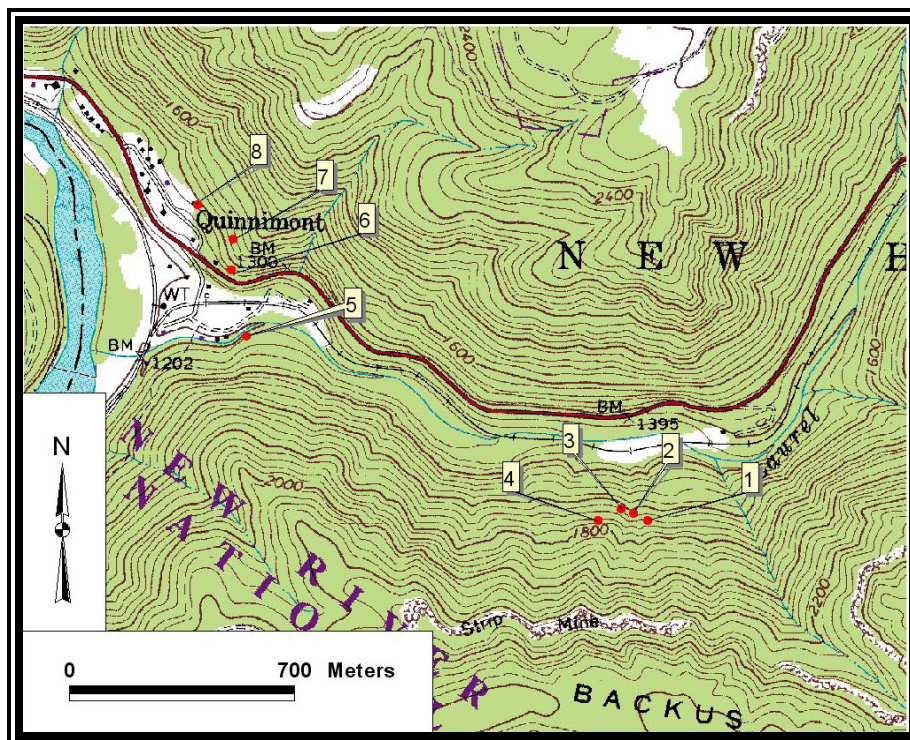


Figure 4.150. Location of Quinnimont on 1989 Prince, WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map: (1) Tipple; (2) Coke ovens Row 2; (3) Coke ovens Row 1; (4) Coke ovens Row 3; (5) Furnace; (6) Church; (7) Structure remains; (8) Structure remains.

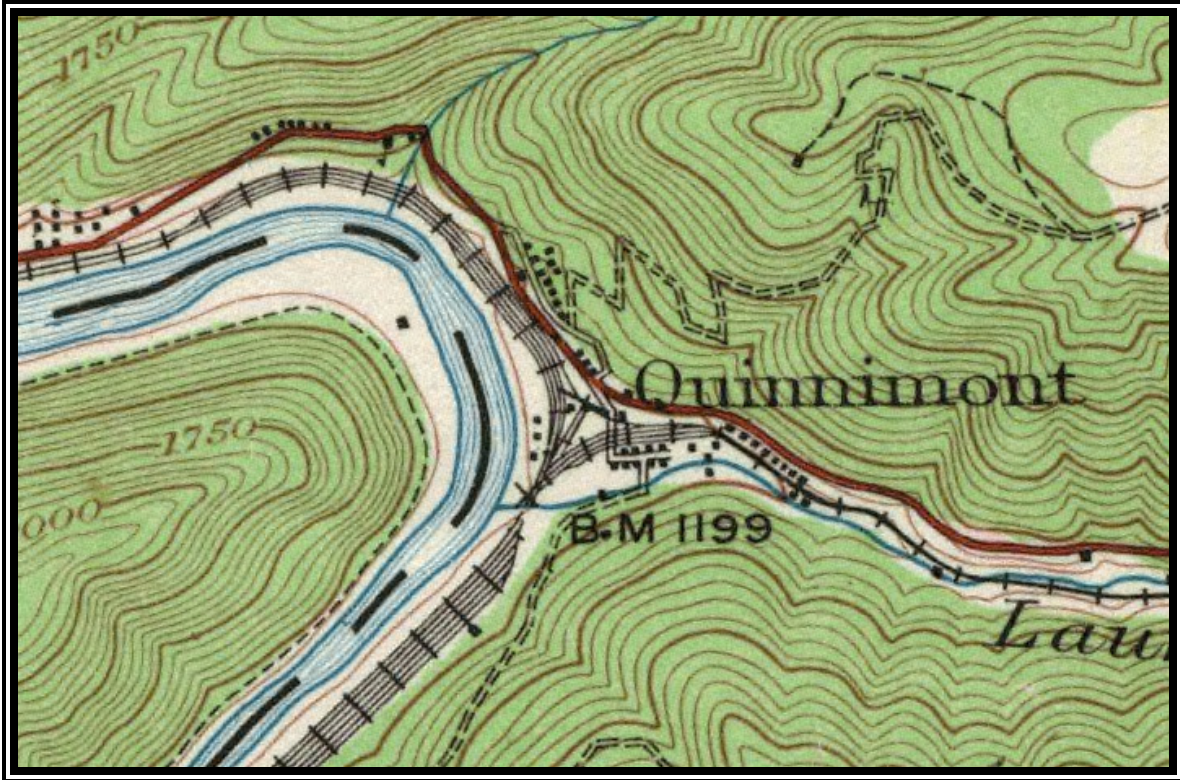


Figure 4.151. Location of Quinnimont on 1929 Beckley, WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.

Site History

The first settlers to arrive in Quinnimont were Jacob Smith and his wife in 1827. Smith purchased an approximately 300 acre tract of bottomland and built a log cabin. He made a living farming, hunting, and fishing. He was married three times and raised 24 children (History of Fayette Co., WV 1993). Within a few years, several families began settling nearby on Laurel Creek and Mann Mountain. Following the Civil War, the Smith tract passed to General Alfred Beckley and then, in 1873, to William Prince. The settlement continued to grow with the completion of the Chesapeake & Ohio (C&O) Railroad in 1873 (Figure 4.150). Quinnimont was the site of the first coke-fired blast furnace erected along the C&O Railway's right-of way and is recognized as the first place to ship out coal from the New River Gorge on the railroad in 1873. A granite monument was erected for Joseph Beury as the proprietor of the first coal mine to ship out of the Gorge. The mountains and valleys surrounding Quinnimont were also heavily timbered and valuable lumber was cut and shipped for several years.

The completion of the C&O Railroad through the New River Gorge attracted northern capitalists who began purchasing coal lands near Prince in 1872 (Athey 2005:60). The West Virginia Legislature incorporated the New River Car Company (NRCC) in 1872. The NRCC was empowered by the legislature to buy and sell real estate; mine coal, iron ore and limestone; and to build car shops, furnaces, sawmills and other manufacturing facilities (Maddex 1995). In 1873, the NRCC acquired 2500 acres

of coal lands and began construction of the Quinnimont furnace with financial support from the Charter Oak Insurance Company of Hartford, Connecticut. The furnace was completed in late 1874 and was used to manufacture common pig iron. Several additional structures were associated with the furnace operation: a casting house, stockhouse, the boiler and engine house, and a railroad siding to facilitate the receipt of raw materials and the shipment of produced goods. There also was a foundry and machine shop nearby. The foundry complex eventually contained a company store/office, a blacksmith shop, tool house, and stable.



Figure 4.152. Quinnimont rail yard, date unknown (Photo on file at New River Gorge National River Park Headquarters Library).

Located east of the C&O mainline, the masonry block furnace stood sixty feet tall and measured fifteen feet across the bosh (the widest part of the furnace's interior) (Figure 4.151). The furnace was built by the Low Moor Company of Clifton Forge, Virginia. The lower three-quarters of the pyramidal furnace were made of native Nuttall Sandstone. On each face of the lower furnace were brick-lined arches and crowning the furnace was a cylindrical iron trunnel head with a closed top using a single bell arrangement. The furnace had an annual capacity of 8000 net tons or approximately 22 net tons per day. It required a continuous feeding of iron ore, limestone, and coke 24 hours a day to maintain operation. A charging hoist, an elevator-like system, was used to keep the furnace operating continuously. On the west side of the furnace was a tall, enclosed charging elevator that delivered measured portions of limestone, iron ore, and coke from an adjacent stockhouse to the top of the furnace. The hoist was connected to the furnace by a charging bridge over which ran a mechanical dumping system. Jutting out from the south side of the furnace, at a right angle, was the downcomer. The downcomer directed hot furnace gases through Player and Ford stoves, which

superheated the blast air. The hot blast was then blown into the furnace hearth by an eighty-four inch blowing cylinder.



Figure 4.153. Remains of Quinnimont Furnace (Photo by David Fuerst).

The Quinnimont furnace required a continuous supply of iron ore, limestone and coke, which generated heavy pressure on the suppliers. The NRCC brought Col. Joseph L. Beury to oversee the construction and operations of the coalmines and coke ovens along Laurel Creek (Maddex 1995). Beury is credited for naming Quinnimont, Latin for ‘five mountains’ the peaks of which could be seen from the community. In 1873, Beury shipped the first coal from Quinnimont mines, which was the first coal shipped anywhere in the New river field over the C&O railroad. The New River coalfield held a seemingly boundless supply of high quality “smokeless” coal, which was also ideal for the manufacturing of metallurgic coke due to its low volatile content and high fixed carbon (Maddex 1995:78). The coke was used as fuel in iron production. Beury left the Quinnimont area in 1874 to open the Fire Creek mines discussed herein.

The NRCC was indebted to the Charter Oak Insurance Company. Failure to pay those debts resulted in the Charter Oak Insurance Company gaining control of the furnace in 1876. The NRCC failed to liquidate its debts by 1879 and the Quinnimont furnace passed to the Pennsylvania and Virginia Iron and Coal Company (Athey 2005:61). The furnace was conveyed to the Quinnimont Coal and Iron Company in 1883 and remained in use until 1887 when the furnace failed due to a lack of profitability and the invention of a new process of making steel known as the Bessemer process. After changing ownership several times, the iron furnace at Quinnimont was shut down in 1887.

While the industrialization of Quinnimont began with the iron furnace operation, it also became a timber, mining, and rail center. By 1882, Quinnimont had grown to have a population of 500 people. It also had a C&O depot (Figure 4.139), a Methodist Church, a Catholic Church, two hotels, a free school, three general stores, and two bars (Maddex 1995:82). By this time, there were three large tenant houses and several houses for key personnel associated with the operations of the furnace and coalmines. In the early 1890s, Quinnimont became an important rail yard and due to its proximity to both the Piney and Laurel creek branch lines, it became a pick-up point for coal from mines along these lines. Quinnimont had a population of 400 by 1900. Since Quinnimont was one of the busiest points along the C&O railroad during World War I, its population grew to 500 by the end of the decade. The Coal Associates in the New River Gorge erected a stone monument commemorating Colonel Beury, at Quinnimont in 1930. Quinnimont began to decline during the 1930s due to the Great Depression and the decline was further hastened with the introduction of diesel rail engines in the 1950s (Workman et al. 2005:51). Most of the remaining inhabitants moved from Quinnimont when the National Park Service purchased the town in the 1980s. Some areas of the original town are currently occupied and the rail yards are owned and used by CSX.

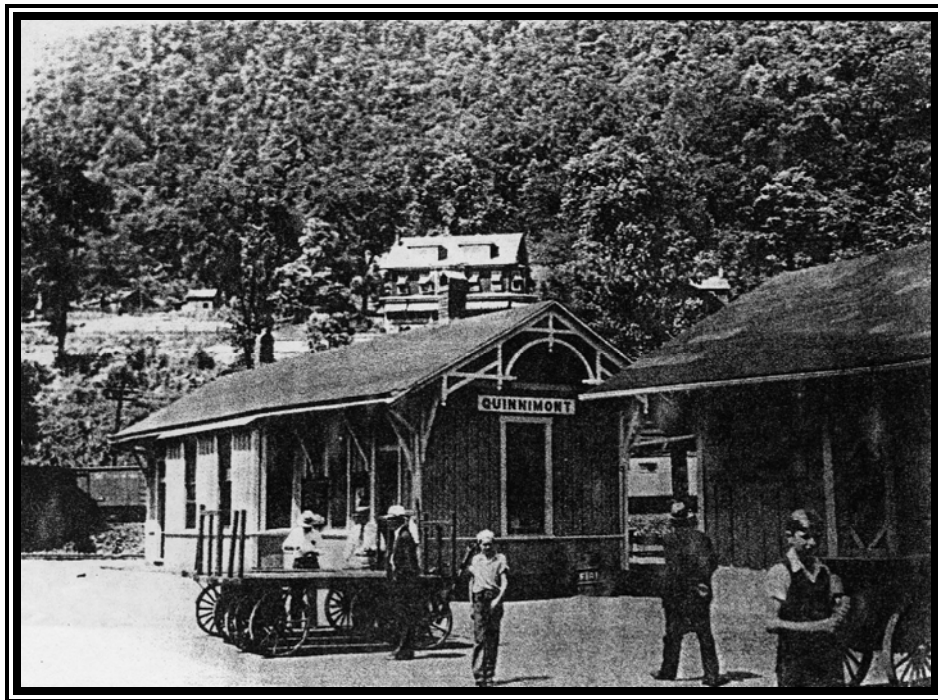


Figure 4.154. Quinnimont train depot, torn down in 1981-82 (Photo on file at New River Gorge National River Park Headquarters Library).

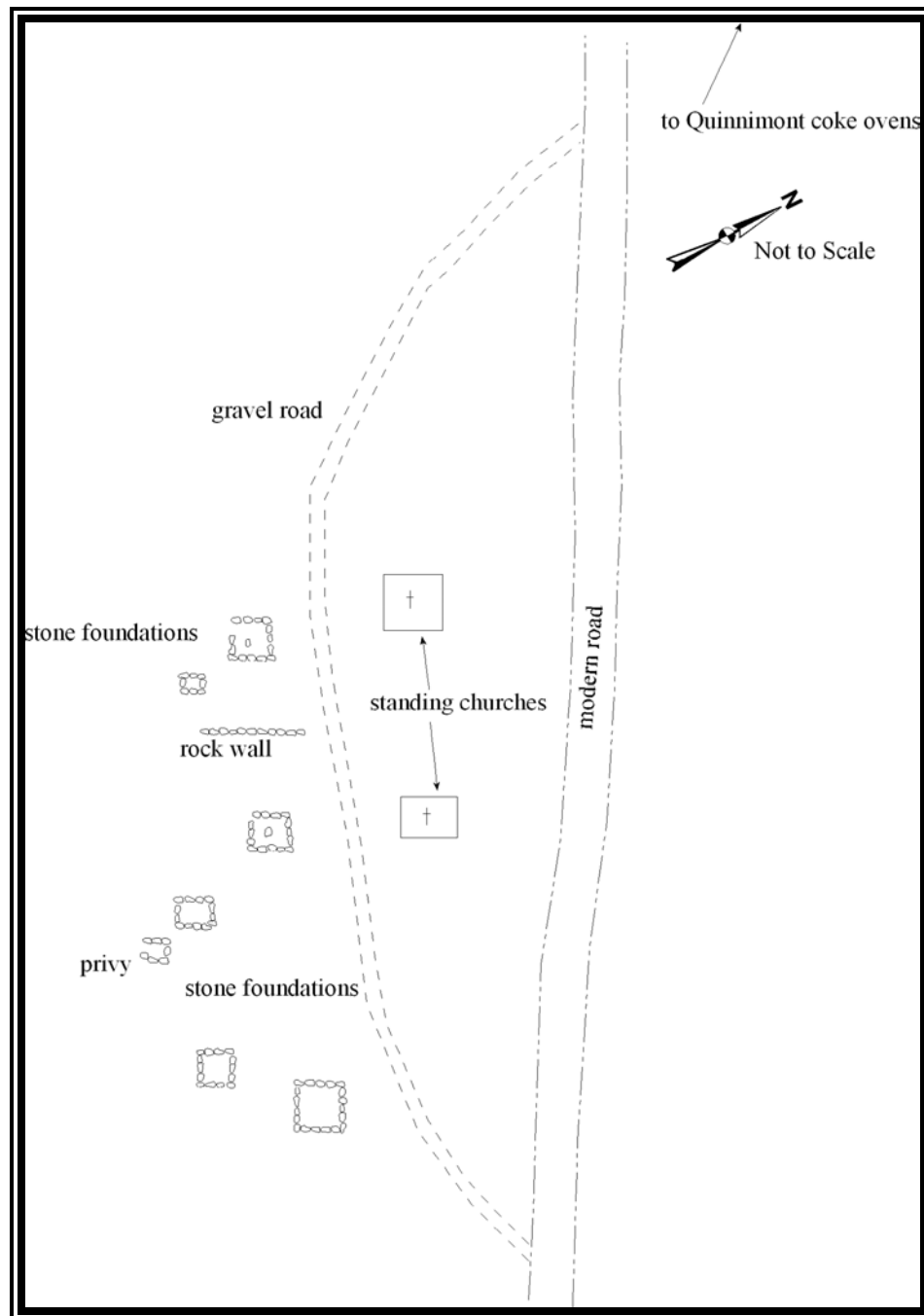
Archaeological Fieldwork

Quinnimont was examined by a pedestrian survey that included observing, mapping and photodocumenting any structural remains (Figure 4.155-163). No shovel probes were excavated. A few structures that were considered part of Quinnimont still

stand and are occupied, including two churches (Figure 4.161). There are also several house and outbuilding foundations, as well as the remains of the rail yard, coke ovens and other mining operation foundations.

Artifacts Collected or Observed

No artifacts were collected or observed at this site.



4.155. Quinnimont residential area site map.



Figure 4.156. Foundation ruins at Quinnimont (see Figure 4.150(7)).



Figure 4.157. More foundation ruins at Quinnimont (see Figure 4.150(7)).



Figure 4.158. Remains of rock wall at Quinnimont (see Figure 4.150(near 7)).



Figure 4.159. Shed or possible privy at Quinnimont (see Figure 4.150(near 7)).



Figure 4.160. Extant wire fence at Quinnimont (see Figure 4.148(near 7)).



Figure 4.161. Missionary Baptist Church at Quinnimont (see Figure 4.150(6)).



Figure 4.162. Coke oven remains at Quinnimont along Laurel Creek (see Figure 4.150(4)).



Figure 4.163. Possible tipple remains at Quinnimont (see Figure 4.150(1)).

Summary and Recommendations

Based on this investigation, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Quinnimont site. Because there are intact archaeological remains still present at the Quinnimont site, it represents an opportunity to study a coal mining/railroad community of the region. The site relates to the coal mining industry historic context developed by Unrau (1996) for the New River Gorge National River. In that regard, further investigations of Quinnimont might provide important information about intra-community relationships among places that were connected primarily by the railroad and by their particular roles in the rapid development of the New River valley at the turn of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

As the first coal operation to ship coal out of the New River Gorge, the Quinnimont site represents early development in the New River Gorge that can be related to the specific effects of the coal industry within the region. The site contains both industrial and residential remains that can be investigated archaeologically in the context of a relatively tight historical chronology, since the period of occupation is well-documented and the archaeological materials have remained relatively undisturbed since the early 1940s. The archaeological remains at Quinnimont have the potential to inform about community land use and organization, from both household and industry viewpoints and the changes in steel and coal technology. Because living areas have been identified, investigations into the daily lives of the people who lived and worked in this section of the New River, including foodways, consumption patterns, and gender, racial and ethnic issues.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Quinnimont site should be protected with all available means. Its archaeological deposits are relatively undisturbed and sensitive to episodes of looting, development, or natural disturbances like flooding.
2. To better define the character and extent of the archaeological resources at the Quinnimont site, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine its eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, it is recommended that phase I testing and mapping of the site be undertaken in conjunction with a cultural landscape inventory. This work should consist of systematic, close-interval shovel probing across the entire site. After the site's landscape features are mapped, the goals of shovel probing should include the identification of the locations containing subsurface cultural materials and to the location of as many industrial and residential structures as possible. Finally, site boundaries should be refined on the basis of historical records and the distribution of archaeological remains.
7. Depending on the results of the survey, phase II exploratory archaeological investigations may be necessary. This work should assess the integrity of cultural

deposits at the Quinnimont site by excavating several test units throughout the site.

3. The results of the above investigations can and should be used to compare what we know about other locations in the New River valley. Quinnimont should be compared to other coal towns such as Beury, Firecreek, Stonecliff and to lumber operations such as Hamlet. Once accomplished, such comparisons can speak to the relationship(s) that the town of Quinnimont had with other communities, as well as community development and influence within the New River valley and in the surrounding uplands.

Given these investigations, the Quinnimont site should be considered potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D as an individual site. The recommended archaeological and archival research should be able to provide further information for determination of eligibility.

Red Ash/Red Ash Island

| | |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| Site Type: | Historic coal town/historic cemetery |
| Property Types: | House lots, industrial, commercial, social, cemetery |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 497051 E 4201719 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | New River |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size | Unknown |
| Previous Disturbance: | Demolition, construction |
| ASIMS # | 414 |

Site Description

The town of Red Ash and Red Ash Island are located in the New River Gorge National River, Fayette County, West Virginia. The town of Red Ash is located on the northern bank of the New River east of Beury and west of Firecreek on the southern side of the river. Red Ash Island is located just downstream from the town of Red Ash. The “island” is separated from the mainland by a slough. Red Ash Island is also on the north side of the New River, across from where Fire Creek enters the river. The sites encompass the coal operations at Red Ash, the town of Red Ash and Red Ash Island (Figures 4.164-167).

The site includes the remains of coal mining and coke production facilities, as well as the remains of the town of Red Ash, which consisted of homes, churches, schools businesses, and cemeteries. The island contains a cemetery with an unknown number of burials, the remnants of a ball field and one stone building foundation. The Red Ash mine was situated about 450 feet above the river, with coal moved to the railroad by an incline 1350 feet long. The operation also included approximately 80 to 94 coke ovens. The coal mining operations at Red Ash are represented by the remains of coke ovens and tipple remains. The Chesapeake & Ohio (C&O) Railroad connected the mining operation and town to other communities and provided shipping routes to get coal to market. The remains of the town of Red Ash, includes stone foundations of dwellings, walls, foundation piers and railroad and road beds. The town, coal mining operation and possible health care buildings on the island have been partially destroyed. Foundations and other remnants remain visible. The property types present at the sites include, house lots, industrial, commercial and social resources.

Site History

The Red Ash mining operation was established by the Red Ash Coal & Coke Company in 1891. A few years earlier, the nearby Rush Run mining operation began. The Rush Run mine connected underground to the Red Ash mine; the two mines were operated by the same company under different names (Workman et al. 2005:35). Red Ash was the location of early union activity by an affiliate of the UMWA, the Knights of

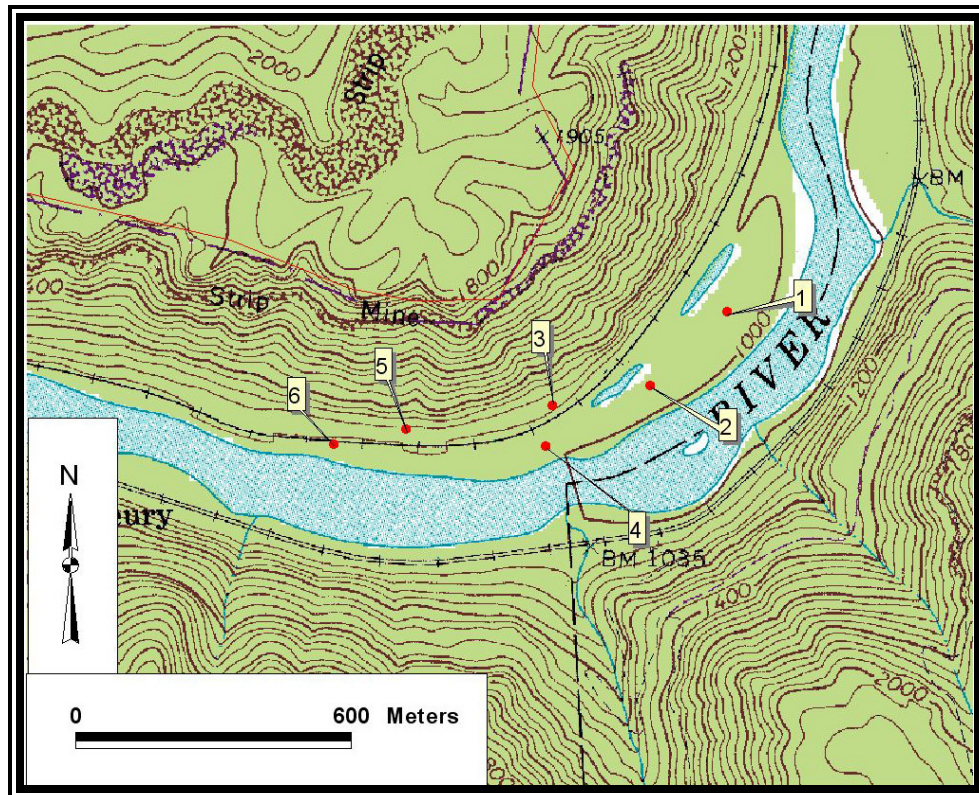


Figure 4.164. Location of Red Ash/Red Ash Island on 1988 Thurmond, WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map: (1) Cemetery; (2) Possible structure; (3) Possible chimney fall; (4) Stone foundation; (5) Piers; (6) Possible structure.

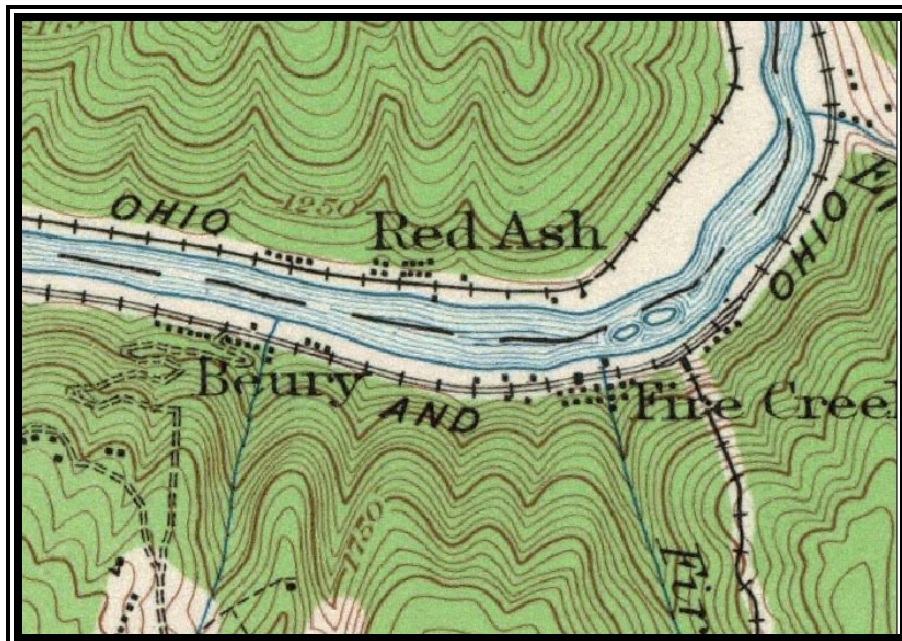


Figure 4.165. Location of Red Ash/Red Ash Island on 1929 Beckley, WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.



Figure 4.166. 1945 aerial of Red Ash.

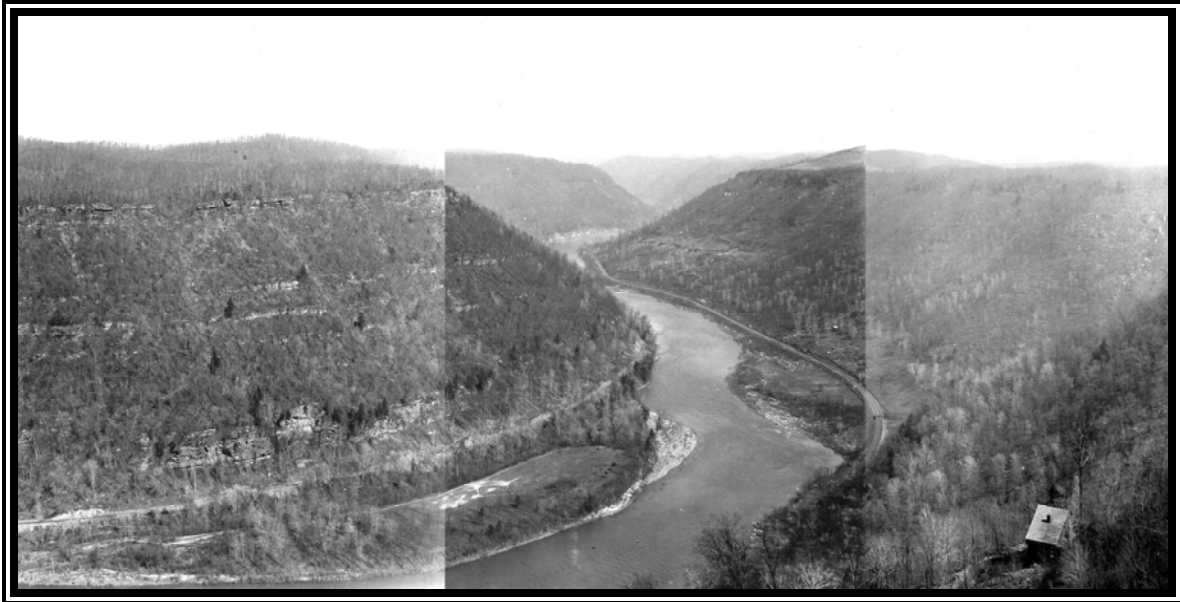


Figure 4.167. Red Ash Island panoramic view, with the Red Ash ball field visible.

Labor, who organized there in 1893. They generally sought to improve both wages and working conditions (McLean 1982:181).

Red Ash, as well as Rush Run, is best known for the mining disasters that occurred in 1900 and 1905. Many early mining accidents were caused by improper ventilation that lead to a build up of explosive gases, particularly methane. Miners used dynamite and open flame torches and head lamps that in turn could ignite the built up gases. On March 6, 1900 a particularly devastating methane explosion killed 46 miners in the Red Ash mine. In 1905, a mine disaster struck both the Red Ash and Rush Run mines. A methane gas and coal dust explosion ignited by a miner's dynamite blast killed eight men in Rush Run and five in the Red Ash mines. Rescue teams were sent in but the entire rescue team was killed in a second explosion (Bragg 1995).

During the late nineteenth century, smallpox victims were quarantined and treated on Red Ash Island. Historical accounts discuss three structures associated with the housing and care of the smallpox victims (Bragg 1995). These buildings may include a building for men, a building for women and children, and one for the doctor. C&O personnel buried the small pox patients that died on the island; most were placed in graves marked with only fieldstone markers or in unmarked graves. The cemetery may also contain the remains of a soldier from General Andrew Lewis' army that fought the Shawnee at Point Pleasant, Virginia in 1774. From the early 1900s to the 1940s, the island was used only as a cemetery. In the 1940s, a baseball diamond was built next to the cemetery to provide a place for miners to participate in recreational activities (Figure 168)

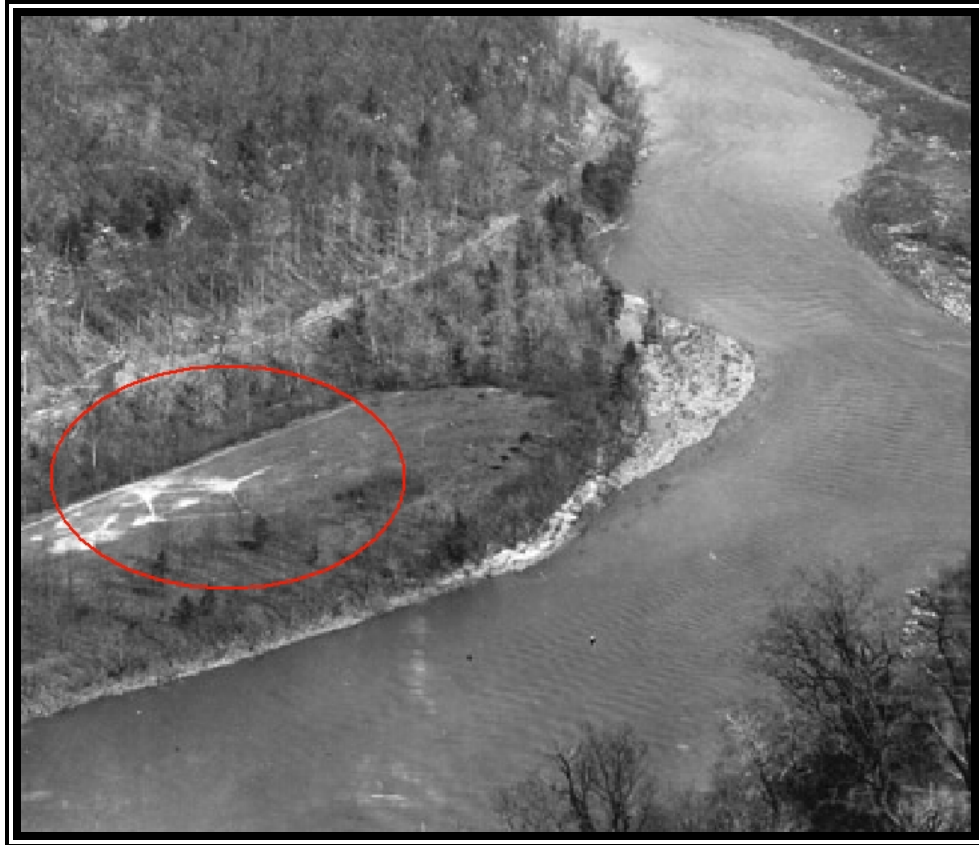


Figure 4.168. Red Ash ball field as shown on 1945 aerial of Red Ash Island.

Archaeological Fieldwork

Red Ash and Red Ash Island were examined by a pedestrian survey that included observing and photodocumenting any structural remains. No shovel probes were excavated at this site. The primary goals of the pedestrian survey were to find the historic cemetery, any building foundations, evidence of the 1940s period baseball diamond, and to begin documentation of the town and associated mining activity.

On Red Ash Island the most visible cemetery area was mapped and photographed, information was collected on each formal headstone (Table 4.11, Figures 4.169 - 4.175), and GPS information was recorded. A total of 16 formal headstones was documented on Red Ash Island (Table 4.11). There may be other burials marked with rough field stone markers, which were not discovered and therefore not documented. All of the headstones that were legible date to the early 1900s. Many marked the graves of young children, who were probably residents of the town of Red Ash rather than small pox victims from the surrounding region. There may be many more unmarked burials or burials only marked with innocuous field stones.

Also documented on the island was a building foundation that may be part of the small pox hostel at the western end of the island (Figure 4.172). A building is shown in this general location on the 1929 Beckley 15' quadrangle map (Figure 4.165). Little

evidence of the mid-twentieth century ball field was observed, although the area west of the cemetery was void of older growth trees, possibly indicating the general location of the activity area (Figure 4.168). Because the ball field was probably ephemeral, very little evidence of the feature would be observable. The ball field may have disturbed some of the unmarked or field stone marked graves on the island, but no other evidence of disturbance, besides general neglect, was observable.

Table 4.11. Formal Headstones from Red Ash Island cemetery.

| Name | Date of Birth | Date of Death | Funeral Home | Comments |
|---------------------|---------------|---------------|----------------------|--|
| Broughman, A.W. | Jul 21, 1871 | Aug 28, 1914 | Unknown | “Although He Sleeps His Memory Doth Live” |
| Broughman, Grace M. | Jun 8, 1902 | Aug 24, 1902 | Unknown | “In this little grave world wide hopes are buried” |
| Broughman, Susie | Apr 17, 1901 | Apr 17, 1901 | Unknown | “In this little grave world wide hopes are buried” |
| Carter (baby) | 1940 | 1940 | Collins Funeral Home | |
| Dunn, Charlie | May 27, 1887 | Aug 11, 1911 | Unknown | |
| Edison, Starling | 1882 | 1940 | Collins Funeral Home | |
| McAllister, Freda | Unknown | June 8, 1927 | Unknown | “Our Baby” |
| McComas, Elsie M. | Aug 22, 1907 | May 31, 1909 | Unknown | |
| McComas, Frank | Unknown | May 25, 1898 | Unknown | Age 20 years, 2 months, 1 day |
| Moore, Daisy A. | 1882 | 1942 | Collins Funeral Home | |
| Paige, Robert | Unknown | 193? | Collins Funeral Home | |
| Pierce, Rutha | Unknown | Nov 28, 193? | Collins Funeral Home | |
| Riley, Mrs. Mamie | Unknown | Apr 5, ? | Collins Funeral Home | Age 49 years |
| Shanklin, Oscar | Unknown | Jan 16, 1936 | Collins Funeral Home | |
| Wright, C. | Unknown | Unknown | Collins Funeral Home | |
| Wright, Rena | 1906 | 1943 | Collins Funeral Home | |

Census records were examined for more information about those buried on Red Ash Island. The primary censuses examined include the 1900, 1910, 1920 and 1930 United States Federal Censuses. The earliest record documented was for Arthur W. Broughman (age 26) and his wife Sarah (age 20). The two were listed as renters living in the Fayetteville Township in Fayette County, West Virginia. Arthur’s sister-in-law, Margie (age 18), was listed as living with the couple. Arthur’s occupation is listed as “monitor man” or possible “motor man”. A monitor is a large container connected to the tippie that carried coal from the mouth of the mine to bottom of the hill. The Broughman family is also listed in the 1910 census. At that time, Arthur (age 36) was listed as an electrician for a coal mine and rented his family’s home. The household also consisted of Sarah (age 30) and Joseph (age 5), as well as two boarders Fred (age 27) and Ada (age 19) Paulitch. Fred Paulitch was employed in a coke yard. Both Arthur and Fred were listed as being able to read and write.

The other census information comes from the 1930 United States Federal Census. In 1930 Rena Wright (age 26) was married to John Wright and had five children, Bertha L. (age 7), John R. (age 5), Richard A. (age 4), Aron E. (age 2 years and 3 months), and Linwood (age 10 months). Rena's husband was listed as a coal mine worker and the family rented their home for six dollars per month.

In 1930, Oscar Shanklin (age 30) was married to Marion (age 18). The couple had no children and Oscar is listed as a coal mine worker. In 1930, Daisy A. Moore (age 38) was married to Preston B. Moore and had three children, Sylvester A. (age 19), David (age 18), and William A. (age 15). Daisy's husband is listed as a coal mine worker and the family rented their home for six dollars per month.



Figure 4.169. Red Ash Island cemetery (see Figure 4.164(1)).



Figure 4.170. Headstone at Red Ash Island (see Figure 4.164(1)).

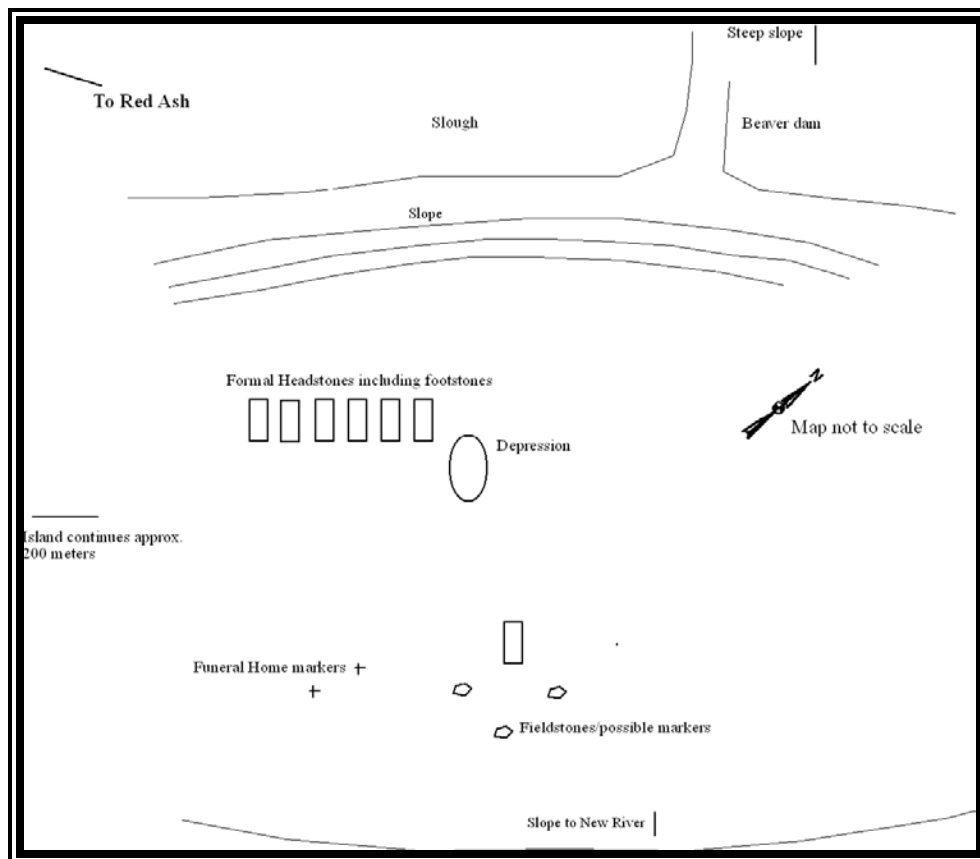


Figure 4.171. Map of main concentration of burials at Red Ash Island.



Figure 4.172. Possible foundation remains on Red Ash Island.

The town of Red Ash was examined by pedestrian survey. In addition, all visible features were photographed and GPS readings were taken (Figures 4.173-4.175). No shovel probes were excavated and no artifacts were observed on the surface of this site. Stone foundation piers, wall ruins and foundation stones were found throughout Red Ash. The mine is located west of the Red Ash settlement towards Rush Run. The foundations recorded correspond to the general locations of buildings shown on the 1929 Beckley WV 15' quadrangle (Figures 4.165). It was difficult to determine if the foundations represent houses, businesses, or mine related structures. Most of the domestic and coal mining related buildings were disassembled in the mid-twentieth century. This appears to have involved the removal of wood, some brick, windows and roofing materials. The remaining foundations appear to be intact; this suggests that removal of these buildings did not involve a great deal of ground disturbance. As such, this site has a high potential to contain subsurface features.



Figure 4.173. Building foundation at Red Ash (see Figure 4.164(near 2)).



Figure 4.174. Railroad grade at Red Ash (see Figure 4.164(near 3)).



Figure 4.175. Stone wall at Red Ash (see Figure 4.164(near 5)).

Artifacts Collected or Observed

No artifacts were observed or collected during fieldwork. No shovel probes were excavated. Only the cemetery area was mapped.

Summary and Recommendations

Based on this investigation, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Red Ash sites. The sites contains a number of different property types, including, house lots, commercial, social and industrial resources and he site relates to the coal mining industry historic context developed by Unrau (1996) for the New River Gorge National River. While no artifacts were collected from the site, extensive, intact archaeological remains in the form of domestic and commercial foundations were documented, and it is likely to have a high potential to contain intact archaeological deposits.

Because there are intact archaeological remains present at the Red Ash sites, it represents an opportunity to study one of the coal mining communities of the region. Because Red Ash Island was once a recreational area and treatment area for contagious illnesses, further investigations of both the island and the town might provide important information about intra-community relationships different from communities without these contexts. In addition, the archaeological remains at Red Ash may be able to speak to the effects of labor unionization or lack thereof, as well as reactions and consequences of mining disasters.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Red Ash site should be protected with all available means. It is historically unique and the archaeological remains are intact and sensitive to episodes of looting, development, or natural disturbances.
2. To better define the nature and extent of the archaeological resources at this site, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine its eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, it is recommended that phase I testing and mapping of the site be undertaken in conjunction with a cultural landscape inventory. This work should consist of systematic shovel probing across the site. After the site's landscape features are mapped, the goals of the shovel probing should include the identification of the locations containing subsurface cultural materials and indicate their spatial relationship to building ruins and landscape features. This testing should also include shovel probing of potential primary refuse deposits associated with residential and industrial structures. Finally, site boundaries should be refined on the basis of historical records and the distribution of archaeological remains.
3. Depending on the results of the survey, phase II exploratory archaeological investigations may be necessary. This work should assess the integrity of cultural deposits at the Red Ash site by excavating several test units throughout the site. The results of these kinds of investigations should produce data from which interpretations about the life of the people who lived there can be articulated.
4. More intensive archival research should also be undertaken to identify the inhabitants of Red Ash and official documents that may provide some insight into their lives, such as, but not limited to, doctor's notes, patient records, tax records, census records, mining company payrolls, and company store credit lists.
5. The results of the above investigations can and should be used to compare what we know about other locations in the New River gorge, such as nearby Beury and Firecreek. Once accomplished, such comparisons should be made in view of the relationship(s) that the town of Red Ash had with other communities in the New River valley and in the surrounding uplands.

Given these investigations, the Red Ash sites should be considered potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D. The recommended archaeological and archival research should be able to provide additional information on the size of this site and the nature of the associated archaeological deposits. Taken together the recommended archival research and field investigations should produce the information needed to more fully evaluate the significance of this site.

Royal

| | |
|---------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Site Type: | Historic coal town |
| Property Types: | House lots, industrial, cemetery |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4189321 E 494386 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | New River 20m |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | Unknown |
| ASIMS # | 415 |

Site Description

Royal is located in the New River Gorge National River, Raleigh County, West Virginia (Figures 4.176-178) on the south side of the New River, south and southwest of Prince. The WVGs 1916 15 minute quad and the 1929 Beckley WV USGS 15 minute quad show approximately 30 structures at Royal (Figure 4.177), with a mine opening on the hillside above linked to a short spur of the Piney Creek Railway by a rail line or inclined plane (Workman et al. 2005:33). However, the 1969 Thurmond WV 7.5 minute map, which was updated in 1988, shows only two structures at Royal. The property types present at the site include house lots, cemetery and industrial resources.

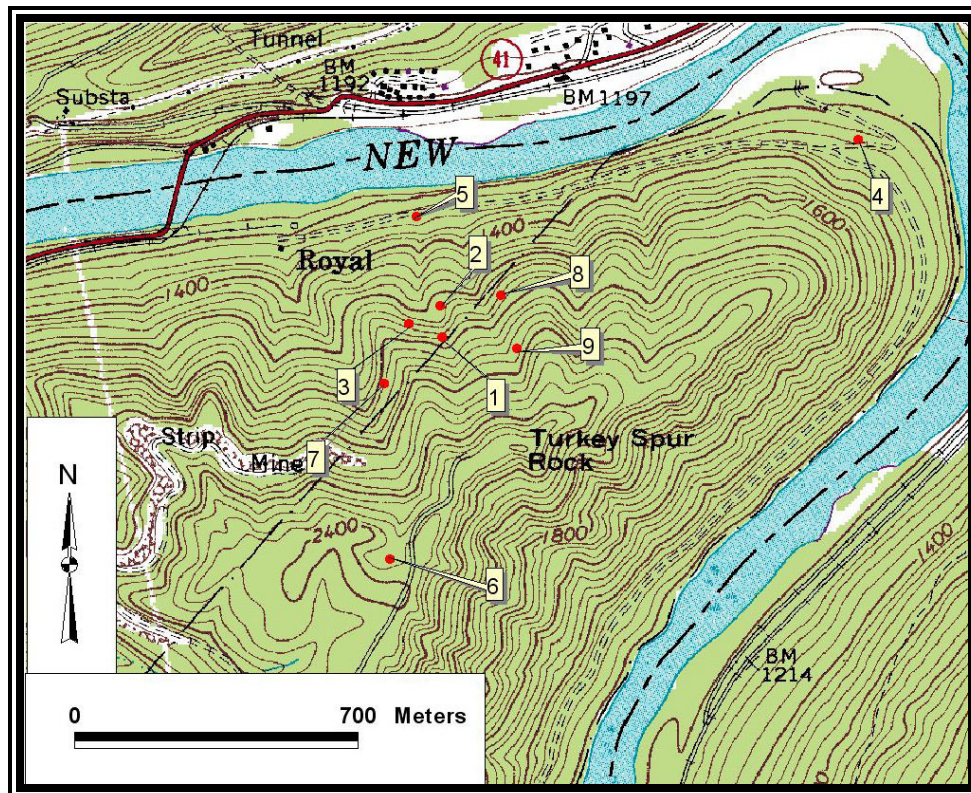


Figure 4.176. Location of Royal on 1989 Prince, WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map: (1) SP1; (2) SP2; (3) SP3; (4) Tombstone of David Waddell; (5) Ramp for coal conveyor to Prince; (6) Stone wall; (7) Stone wall; (8) Structure; (9) Structure 2.

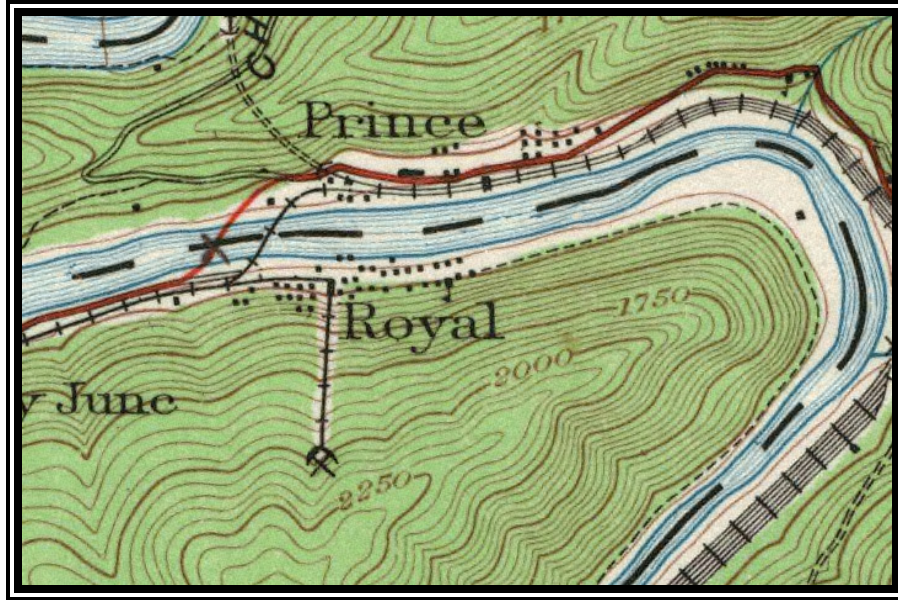


Figure 4.177. Location of Royal on 1929 Beckley, WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.



Figure 4.178. 1945 aerial photo of Royal and Prince, WV.

The site includes the settlement of Royal, which consists of numerous house sites and town related structures. There are also remains of the tipple and other coal facilities. Across the New River is Prince where the coal was unloaded and shipped. The entrance to the mine was 820 feet up the mountainside across the New River from the Chesapeake & Ohio (C&O) railroad (Athey 2005:100). There are remains of the head house complex at the top of the hill. A cemetery with several relocated burials is situated on a hillside

bench on the road to the Grandview Sandbar Campground about one mile east of the settlement.

Site History

The Royal Coal and Coke Company was incorporated in 1890 and established the mine and settlement at Royal in 1891. The company's principal stockholders were J. Fred Effinger, William Prince, J.B. Berkeley, and C.M. Figgott, all from Virginia. James Kay and his brother-in-law James Laing opened and developed the mine on the south side of the New River. Kay served as superintendent of the town, its buildings and utilities. Laing served as the mine foreman and was in charge of underground operations (Athey 2005).

The first buildings constructed on site were the necessary company buildings. The main office was at Prince from 1888-1890 and Kay built shelters for managers and workers. Permanent homes for workers were not built until after the mine was in operation. Until accommodations were built, some workers commuted from Prince or nearby farms on the Royal side of the New River. The post office was not established until 1910 in Prince (Figure 4.179).



Figure 4.179. View of Prince from Royal, date unknown (Photo on file at New River Gorge National River Park Headquarters Library).

Because coal from the mine had to be transported across the New River to the C&O main line at Prince, an aerial tramway was installed in 1890-91 under the supervision of James Kay. Royal was the first mine in West Virginia to use an aerial

tramway to transfer coal (Athey 2005:103). The system was invented by a European engineer and was known as the Bleichert system. The Bleichert system employed two cables, the track cable and the traction cable. The track cable supported buckets loaded with coal that moved on the cable by a wheel with a grooved rim. A clutch with a special grip held the buckets of coal to the track cable so there was less danger of slippage. The traction cable was a lighter endless traveling cable. Powered by gravity generated from the weight of the loaded buckets, the traction cable moved the cable and buckets from the loading terminal at the mine to the discharge terminal at the C&O Railroad on the north or Prince side of New River where there were many coke ovens along the C&O railroad tracks.

The Bleichert tramway was more efficient than other transport systems due to increased carrying capacity. One thousand pounds of coal could be transported without difficulty in one bucket, which was considerably more than any single-cable system (Athey 2005:102). Since the track cable did not move, it was less likely to fall from its support tower.

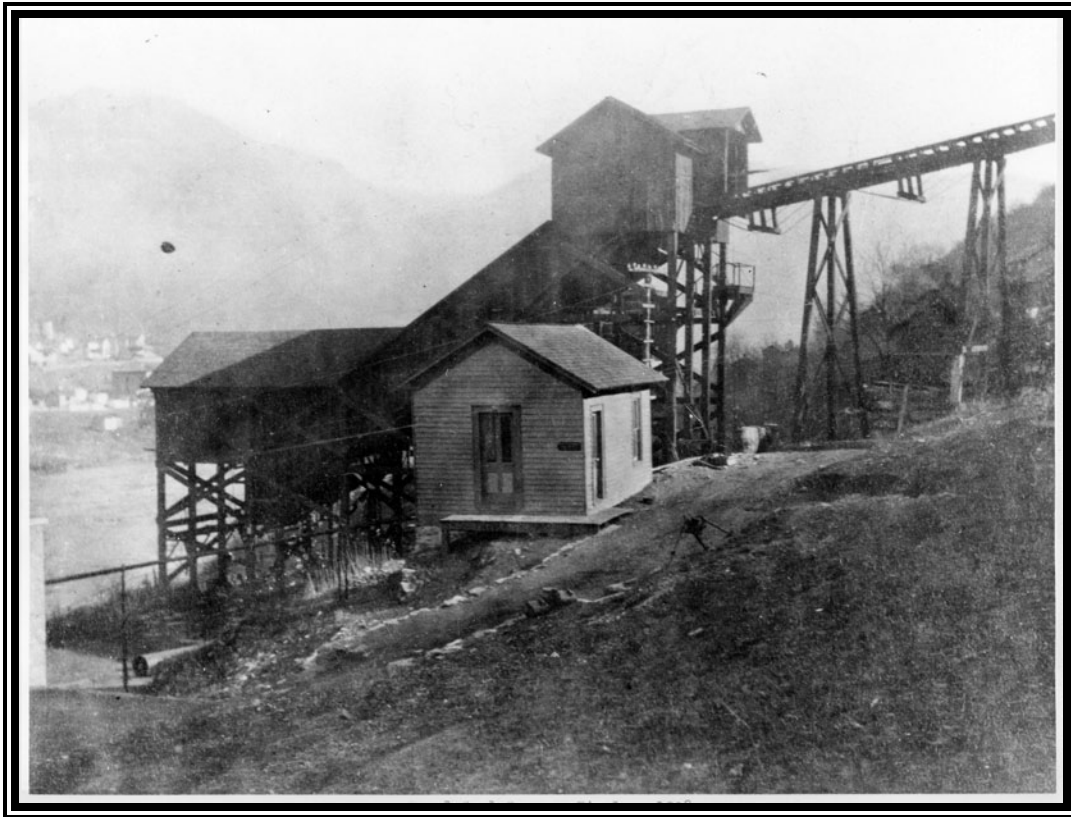


Figure 4.180. Royal Coal Company Tipple in 1908 (Photo on file at New River Gorge National River Park Headquarters Library).

Preparation for the installation of the tramway at Royal began in 1888-89. Land had to be cleared of trees to make a 100-foot-wide path down the mountain to prevent interference with the cables and buckets of the tramway. Ten or eleven stone foundations had to be built for the wooden towers supporting the cables. James Kay was an

experienced Scottish stonemason so his skill proved invaluable to building the stone foundations. The loading terminal at the mine entrance and the discharge terminal at the rail siding were also built before attaching the wire cables and buckets.

Additional towers were necessary along the steep descent to prevent the buckets from hitting the side of the hill where the cable sagged between the towers. A separate stone foundation and tower had to be constructed on the Prince side of the New River, which was 665 feet from the tower on the Royal side of the river. The towers were made from timber harvested at the site. All of the stone foundations, towers, and preparation for attaching the cables to the towers had to be completed before the arrival of the wire cables and buckets from the Trenton Iron Company.

Preparation for the installation of the tramway was completed in 1890. The wire cables arrived on spools on the C&O railroad from the Trenton Iron Company. The track cable was installed first, which was over 5600 feet long. The spool was most likely mounted to the discharge terminal on the Prince side of the river so the cable could be slowly unwound and pulled across the river by a boat, then up the mountainside and back down. Once the cable was in place with the necessary couplings installed, it was raised onto saddles located at each end of the tower support arms. This was probably done using a system of pulleys mounted on the towers. Once the track cable was installed, it was carefully stretched to a pre-calculated tension to maximize safety and to reduce the cable sag between the support towers. The same process was used to install the traction cable.

To complete installation, three drum safety brakes were added to the tramway to assure safe operation with a continuous stream of water flowing onto the brakes to prevent overheating. A single empty bucket, weighing 700 pounds, was sent up and down the cables to test the system. When completed, all thirty-two buckets were put into use on the 2800 foot long tramway. Since the Trenton Iron Company manufactured the system and necessary wire cables for the Royal tramway, it became known as the Trenton Bleichert tramway. Four hundred tons of coal could be carried across the New River in ten hours using this tramway. The tramway's total output capacity was rated at 80 tons of coal per hour, but it never reached that rate of production (Athey 2005:111).

The loading terminal at the mine entrance and the discharge terminal at the rail siding were also built before the wire cables and buckets were attached. The loading terminal contained a hopper to hold coal, a loading chute, a track for the bucket, an automatic traction cable uncoupler, and a platform where men oversaw the process (Athey 2005:107). When an empty bucket approached the loading terminal, the traction cable uncoupled automatically and traveled around a large pulley system while the bucket shifted to a track that led it through the terminal to a chute where it was loaded with coal. The bucket was then moved to its departure point from the structure and was reattached to the traction cable that carried the bucket downhill to the discharge terminal. Buckets reached a speed of three or four miles an hour, generating almost 50 horsepower, in the steep descent down the mountain to the discharge terminal (Athey 2005:102, 111).

The discharge terminal, located next to a rail siding on the Prince side of the river, contained the circuitous bucket track, an automatic uncoupler, a large pulley that allowed the traction cable to continue its endless loop, a coal hopper, the coal chute leading to the rail car, and a platform where workers operated the system (Athey 2005:107). When a loaded bucket arrived at the discharge terminal, the traction cable automatically uncoupled and routed the bucket around the large pulley system. Workers shoved the bucket from the track cable onto a fixed circuitous rail that led it to the front of the hopper where it emptied automatically. The bucket was then pushed around the loop of the fixed track and back onto the track cable. The traction cable was reattached to the bucket and it was returned to the loading terminal. The traction cable operated as a continuous moving loop that moved the buckets up and down the tramway (Athey 2005:110).

By 1900, a C&O bridge across the New River had been built with a rail spur running into the town of Royal. The Piney Creek Railway was built in 1901, which linked Royal and other mines to the C&O main line. The tramway was replaced by a traditional inclined conveyor with tracks leading down the mountain from the headhouse to a new tipple along the track that extended up Piney Creek. Coal was dumped from the tipple into coal cars on the rail siding.

In 1902, Royal miners participated in the national United Mine Workers of America-sponsored strike. When workers willing to work despite the strike were brought in to replace union miners at Royal, snipers from across the New River at Prince fired upon them (Workman et al. 2005:33). In 1903, 142 strikers passed through Royal as they marched from Quinnimont, up Piney Creek to Atkinsville, near Beckley. Then, at Stanaford City, the strikers were drawn into a gun battle in which seven were killed. This battle ended efforts by the United Mine Workers of America to organize the New River field for ten years.

Royal produced Fire Creek coal continuously from its opening in 1891 until 1928. The mine was closed from 1928 to 1936, and then operations resumed until the mine closed permanently in 1940. Annual production figures from 1892 to 1900 are shown in Table 4.11 (Athey 2005:112). There were 78 coke ovens in Prince across from Royal in 1899.

Table 4.12. Coal Tonnage Production Figures for Royal Mine.

| Year | Gross Tons of Production* |
|-------------|----------------------------------|
| 1892 | 92,330 |
| 1893 | 88,836 |
| 1894 | ? |
| 1895 | 94,933 |
| 1896 | 99,992 |
| 1897 | 71,345 |
| 1898 | 79,315 |
| 1899 | ? |
| 1900 | 68,360 |

*One gross ton is 2240 pounds

Archaeological Fieldwork

Royal was examined by pedestrian survey and shovel probes. Pedestrian survey included observing and photodocumenting any structural remains (Figures 4.181-196). Shovel probes averaged 30 to 35 cm in diameter and were excavated until sterile subsoil was encountered. Soil from all shovel probes was screened through 6.35 mm hardware cloth. The location, size, depth, and soil profile was recorded for positive shovel probes.

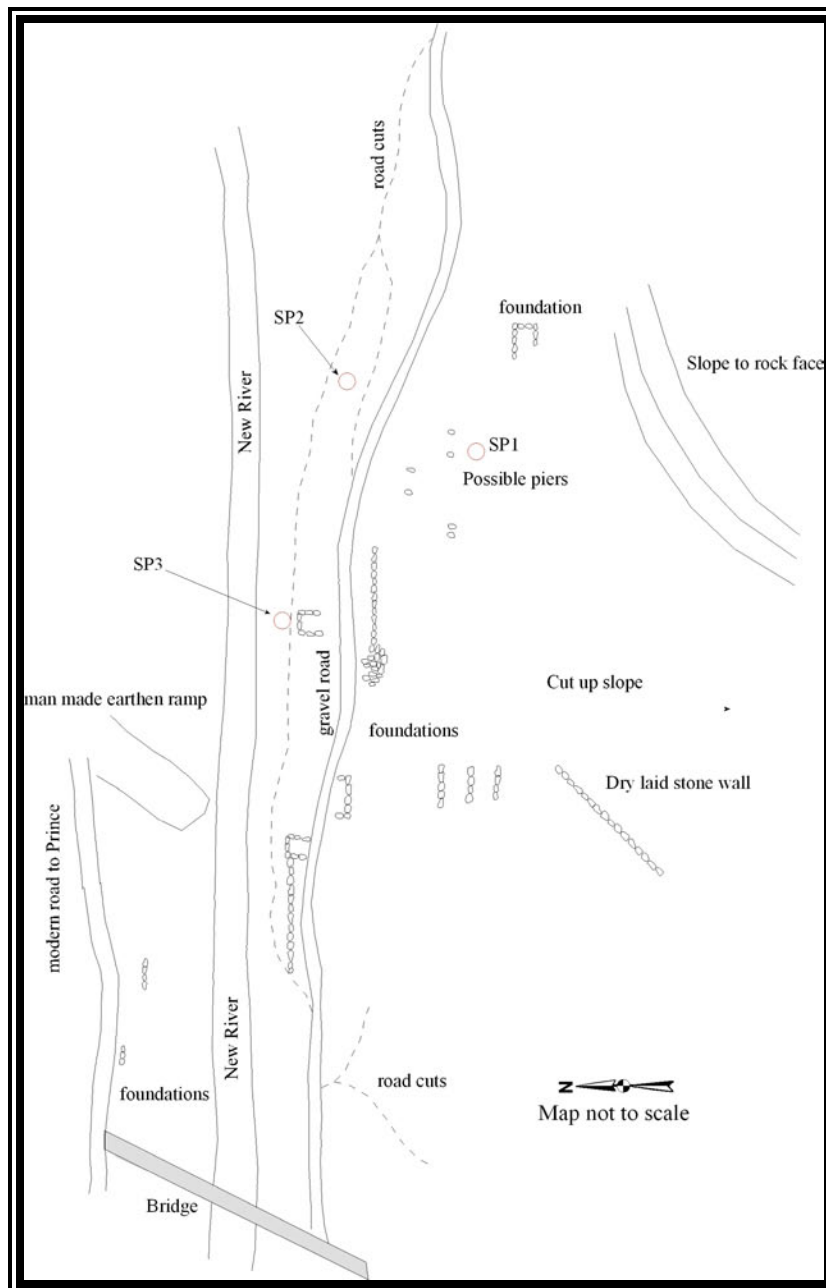


Figure 4.181. Site map of Royal.



Figure 4.182. Foundation remains at Royal (see Figure 4.176(8)).



Figure 4.183. Foundations and possible piers at Royal (see Figure 4.176(near 9)).



Figure 4.184. Stone wall at Royal (see Figure 4.176(7)).



Figure 4.185. Another stone wall at Royal (see Figure 4.176(6)).



Figure 4.186. Unknown foundation remains at Royal (see Figure 4.176(near 9)).



Figure 4.187. Prince side of Royal operations and earthen ramp for tramway.



Figure 4.188. Earthen ramp on Prince side of New River for Royal tramway.



Figure 4.189. Tipple remains at Royal (see Figure 4.176 (near 3)).

Three shovel probes were excavated at Royal (Figure 4.190) to determine if intact cultural deposits were present. Shovel Probe 1 was located on the hillside where the possible house lots were dug to a depth of 57 cm below the surface (Figure 4.190). Layer 1 was 10YR3/3 dark brown topsoil, layer two was a 10YR3/3 dark brown silt clay loam with rock, and layer three was 10YR3/3 dark brown clay loam subsoil. Shovel Probe 2 was located at the bench towards the river below the road and ended at a depth of 30 cm below the surface. Layer 1 was 10YR3/3 dark brown topsoil, layer two was 10YR5/6 medium brown silt clay with small gravel rock and coal, and layer three was a coal layer. Shovel Probe 3 was located in front of a stone building and ended at a depth of 49 cm below the surface. Layer 1 was a coal layer and layer two was a dark brown silt clay loam with rock. Intact deposits were identified in each shovel probe relating to the historic occupation of the site.

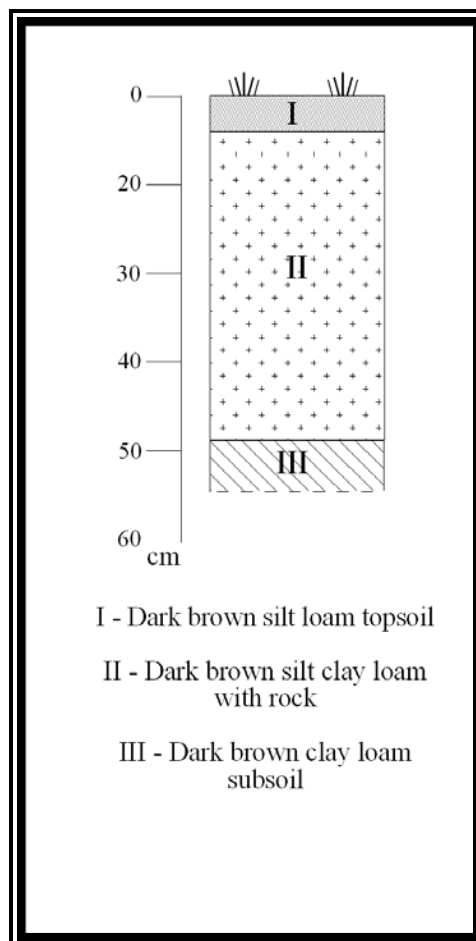


Figure 4.190. Shovel Probe 1 at Royal.

The buildings were wooden, board and batten structure built on piers. When the mining operation closed, most of the building materials were removed to be used elsewhere. Remaining structures include possible piers, a masonry stone building, tipple foundation, three stone foundations, a stone powder house, and a stone wall. Structures across the New River near Prince include a stone, brick, and concrete block building, a rock wall/foundation, and a man-made earthen ramp which was part of the tramway from Royal (Figures 4.187-188).

A small re-located cemetery was also associated with Royal (Figure 4.191-193). This cemetery was documented, mapped and photographed (Table 4.12).

Table 4.13. Formal Headstones from the Royal cemetery.

| Name | Date of Birth | Date of Death | Funeral Home | Comments |
|---------------|---------------|---------------|--------------|---|
| David Waddell | Unknown | Jan. 15, 1895 | Unknown | Son of John & Mary Burns. Aged 1 yr-2 months-10 days. "Peaceful be thy silent slumber. Peaceful in the grave so ... Thou no more will join our slumber. Thou no more... |
| D. B. L. | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Illegible |
| E. D. P. | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Illegible |
| G. ? K. | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Illegible |
| C.?G.?F.?T.? | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | Illegible |



Figure 4.191. Field stone marker at Royal cemetery (see Figure 4.1746(near 4)).

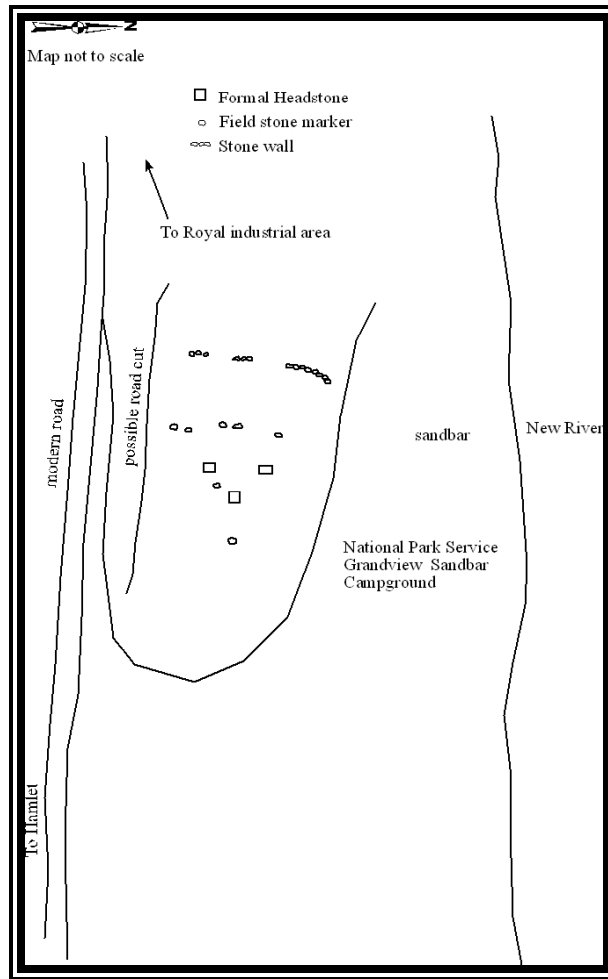


Figure 4.192. Map of Cemetery at Royal.



Figure 4.193. Formal marker at Royal cemetery (see Figure 4.176(4)).

In addition to the Royal cemetery, another associated with the Kay family sits on the bluff that overlooks Royal. This cemetery was documented, mapped and photographed (Figures 4.194-196).



Figure 4.194. Kay cemetery at Royal.

Census records were examined for more information about those buried at the Kay Cemetery. The primary censuses examined include the 1900, 1910, 1920 and 1930 United States Federal Censuses. The earliest record found was in the 1851 Scotland Census for Thomas Kay who was born in Lanark in 1813. His occupation is listed as sawer. He lived with his wife Janet Kerr Kay who was also born in Lanark in 1813. They lived in Croslaw Cottage and had eight children. The Kay family moved to the United States in 1870. They lived in Cordova, Maryland until 1884, moving to West Virginia after that. Thomas Kay owned a farm in Table Rock, West Virginia until 1890 when the family moved to Royal.

In the 1880 United States Federal Census, records for Andrew Kay who lived with his parents William and Elizabeth Kay in the township of Brookfield in Trumbull, Ohio. The household also included Elizabeth (age 6) and Thomas (age 3). The family moved to West Virginia in 1881. William Kay purchased a farm at Table Rock and his occupation is listed as carpenter. William and Elizabeth had four more children William Kerr, James, Janet, and John McKinley. Thomas and Andrew both drowned in Glade Creek on July 11, 1892; they are buried in Kay Cemetery.

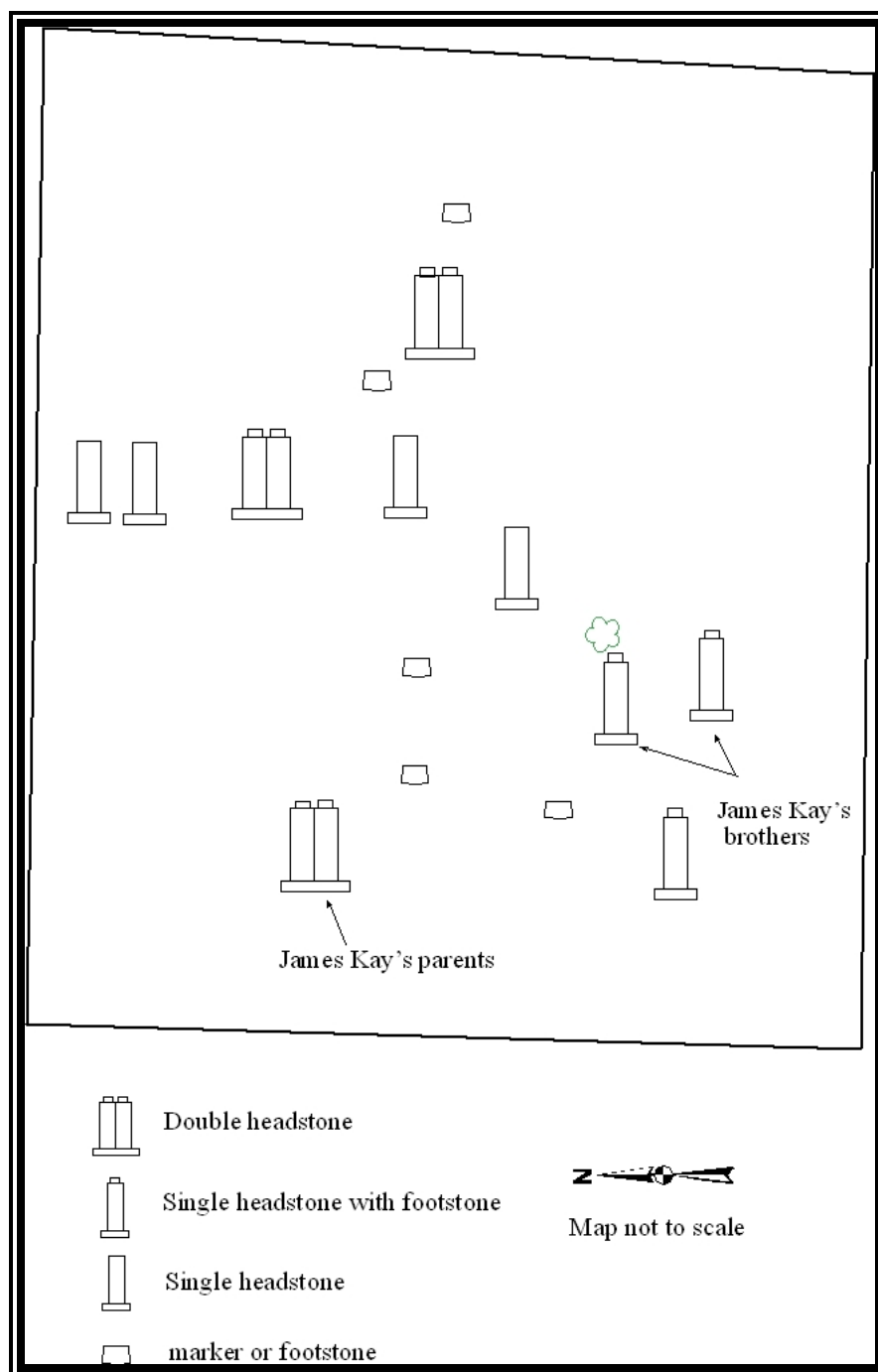


Figure 4.195. Site map of Kay cemetery.



Figure 4.196. Headstone of Thomas Kay in Kay cemetery.

Artifacts Collected or Observed

A total of 76 artifacts was recovered at the Royal site (Table 4.14). Materials recovered from the Royal site consisted of undecorated ironstone body fragments (n=2), container glass (n=54), window glass (n=1), a wire nail, a bolt, a nut, and unidentified metal (n=16).

Table 4.14. Artifacts Recovered from Royal.

| Context | Provenience | Artifact Class/Subclass | # | Comments |
|----------------|--------------------|--------------------------------|----------|-----------------|
| 120 | SP3 | Unidentified metal | 1 | |
| 121-1 | SP3 | Container glass | 43 | |
| 121-2 | SP3 | Miscellaneous metal | 15 | |
| 121-3 | SP3 | Ironstone | 2 | Body fragments |
| 121-4 | SP3 | Bolt | 1 | |
| 121-5 | SP3 | Wire nail | 1 | |
| 122 | SP2 | Container glass | 6 | |
| 123-1 | SP1 | Window glass | 1 | |
| 123-2 | SP1 | Container glass | 3 | |
| 123-3 | SP1 | Metal fragment | 1 | |
| 124-1 | Surface near SP1 | Bottle neck and lip | 1 | |
| 124-2 | Surface near SP1 | Soda bottle | 1 | Base fragment |

Diagnostic artifacts include ironstone, which dates from 1842 to 1930 (Miller 1991:10; 1993:5-6), and a wire nail that dates from 1880 to the present day (Nelson 1968). Diagnostic container glass consists of two fully machine-made soda bottle fragments, and one fruit jar lip fragment with a beaded seal. A clear soda bottle base, embossed with “Beckley W. VA Property of Coca Cola Bottling Works”, was recovered. This fragment also exhibits fully machine-made mold seams and an Owens Illinois Glass Company manufacturer’s mark. This mark was used from 1929 to 1954 (Toulouse 1972:403). A bottle lip was also recovered that features a continuous thread twist-off seal and mold seams that extend the length of the bottle. This specimen dates from 1920 to the present (Newman 1970:72). Fruit jars with a beaded seal came into existence about 1915 and continue to be manufactured today (Toulouse 1969:394).

The historic artifacts included a range of domestic material that is indicative of residential occupation. That information coupled with the architectural remnants of the industrial foundations suggests intact archaeological deposits are present at the site.

Summary and Recommendations

Based on this investigation, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Royal site. The site contains a number of different property types, including, house lots, and industrial resources. The Royal site has a high potential to contain intact archaeological deposits due to the recovery of artifacts from the occupation period (1891-1940) and the presence of extensive domestic and industrial foundation remains.

Because there are intact archaeological remains present at the Royal site, it represents an opportunity to study one of the coal mining communities of the region. The site relates to the coal mining industry historic context developed by Unrau (1996) for the New River Gorge National River. In that regard, further investigations of the Royal site might provide important information about intra-community relationships among places that were connected primarily by the railroad and by their particular roles in the rapid development of the New River Gorge at the turn of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. In addition, the remains of the domestic architecture at Royal can be compared to the many other domestic remains within the NERI.

The Royal site represents development in the New River Gorge, specifically innovative coal transportation technology. The Royal site contains both industrial and domestic archaeological remains which have remained relatively undisturbed since the early 1940s. James Kay was a well known figure in the New River area (Athey 2005) and archival information about his life is available. Comparisons between Kay and his employees, through both the archival record and archaeologically could illuminate class distinctions within coal operation in the Gorge. Royal also had a symbiotic relationship with Prince, directly across the river. This relationship may illustrate the development of community and social ties between New River coal mining towns.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Royal site should be protected with all available means. It is historically unique and the archaeological deposits are intact and sensitive to episodes of looting, development, or natural disturbances.
2. To better define the nature and extent of the archaeological resources at this site, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine its eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, it is recommended that phase I testing and mapping of the site be undertaken in conjunction with a cultural landscape inventory. A phase I testing plan should also be devised for Prince, because of its importance to the mining operations at Royal. This work should consist of systematic shovel probing across the site. After the site's landscape features are mapped, the goals of the shovel probing should include the identification of the locations containing subsurface cultural materials and indicate their spatial relationship to building ruins and landscape features. Finally, site boundaries should be refined on the basis of historical records and the distribution of archaeological remains.
3. Depending on the results of the survey, phase II exploratory archaeological investigations may be necessary. This work should assess the integrity of cultural deposits at the Royal site by excavating several test units throughout the site. The results of these kinds of investigations should produce data from which interpretations about the life of the people who lived there can be articulated.
4. The results of the above investigations can and should be used to compare what we know about other locations, particularly Kaymoor, Thurmond, and Stonecliff. Once accomplished, such comparisons should be made in view of the relationship(s) that the town of Royal had with other communities in the New River valley and in the surrounding uplands.

Given these investigations, the Royal site should be considered potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D. The recommended archaeological and archival research should be able to provide additional information on the size of this site and the nature of the associated archaeological deposits. Taken together the recommended archival research and field investigations should produce the information needed to more fully evaluate the significance of this site.

Secoma/Steinbeck

| | |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Site Type: | Historic lumber town |
| Property Types: | Possible house lots, industrial |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4187599 E 509380 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | Meadow Creek 25m |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | unknown |
| Previous Disturbance: | Demolition |
| ASIMS # | 416 |

Site Description

Secoma is located in the New River Gorge National River, Summers County, West Virginia (Figures 4.197-198). The site, which is also referred to as Steinbeck, is situated on Meadow Creek just northeast from Beurytown and Meadow Bridge, WV. The site is not well defined and includes some remnants of a possible logging operation. Little remains of any industry or housing at the site. The property type present at the site is provisionally industrial. While there may be other remains, they were unidentifiable.

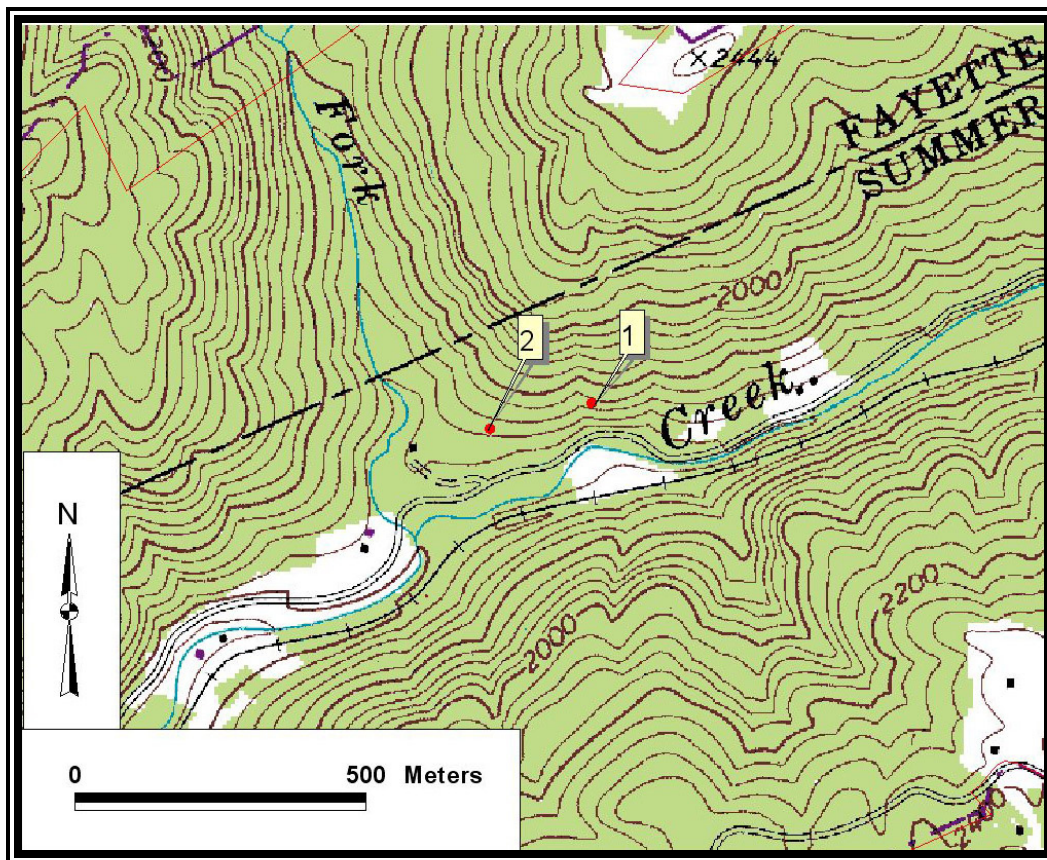


Figure 4.197. Location of Secoma on 1996 Meadow Creek, WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map: (1) Possible house foundation; (2) Possible log pond.

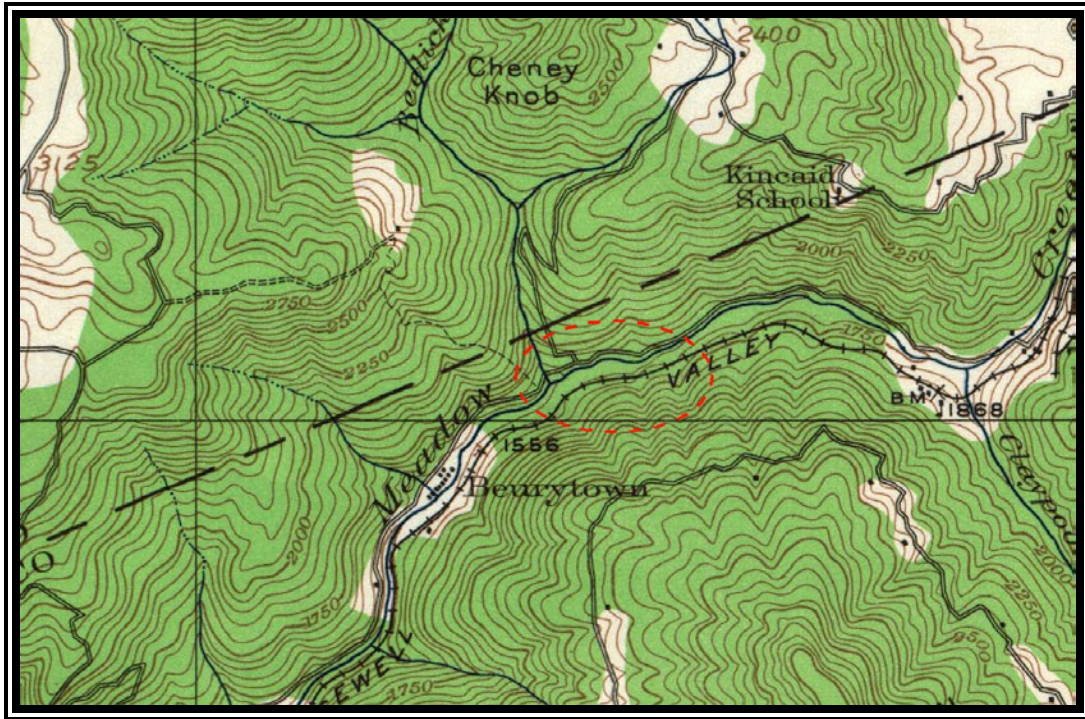


Figure 4.198. Location of Secoma on 1912 Meadow Creek, WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.

Site History

Little is known about the Secoma lumber or grist mill operation. No archival information on either the logging operation or the inhabitants of any associated town were located. National Park Service have obtained some information about a school associated with the settlement from Hensley Harrah of Meadow Bridge, WV (David Fuerst, personal communication 9/19/2007).

Archaeological Fieldwork

Secoma was examined by a pedestrian survey that included observing and photodocumenting any structural remains (Figures 4.197-202). No shovel probes were excavated at this site. The primary goals of the pedestrian survey were to find evidence of the lumber or mining operations, identify any building foundations, and to begin documentation of the town and associated mining activity.

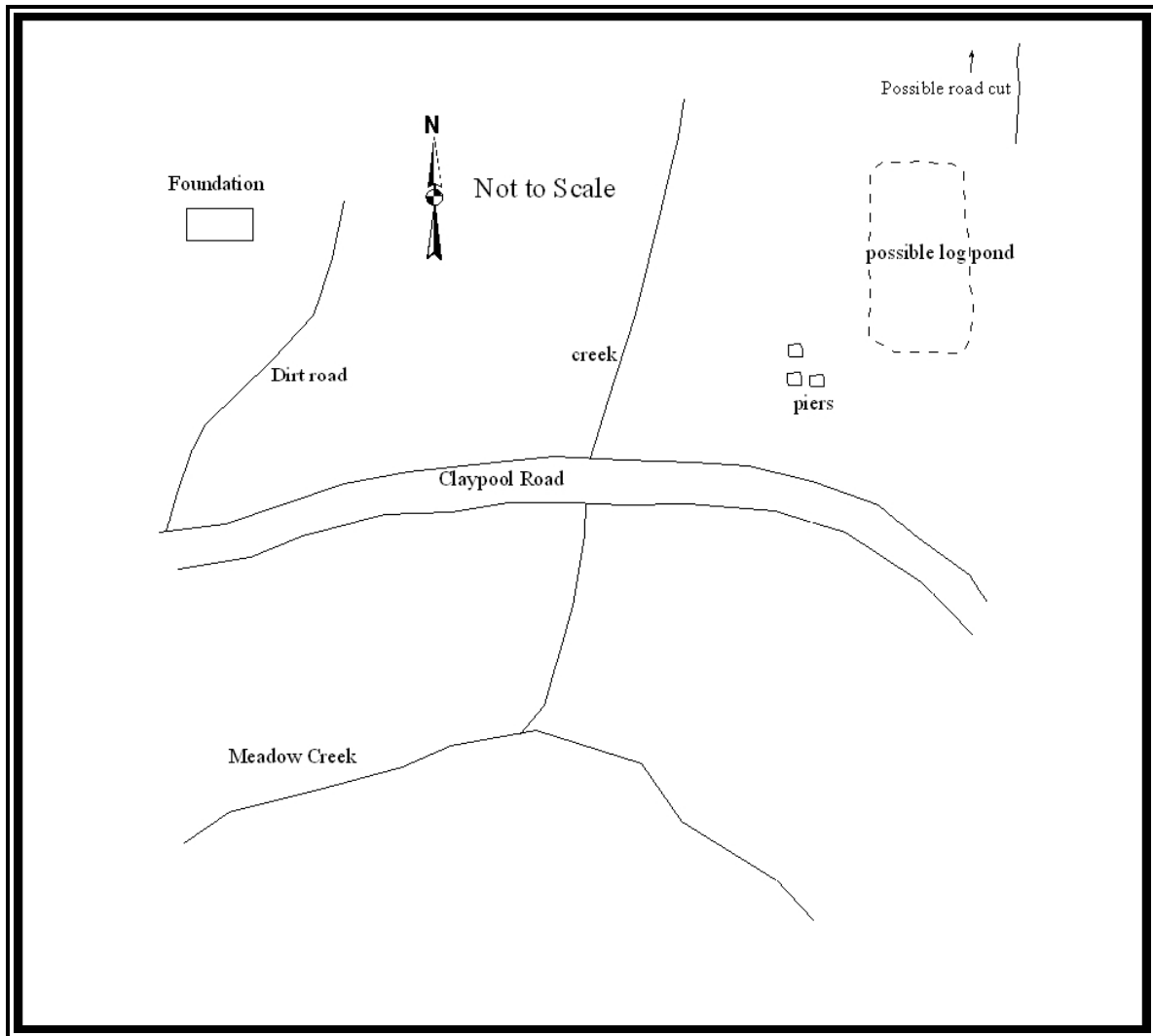


Figure 4.199. Site map of resources at Secoma.



Figure 4.200. Stone piers at Secoma (see Figure 4.197(1)).



Figure 4.201. Edge of possible log pond at Secoma (see Figure 4.197(2)).



Figure 4.202. Possible foundation at Secoma(see Figure 4.197(1)).



Figure 4.203. Possible road bed in Secoma (see Figure 4.197(west of 2)).



Figure 4.204. Building foundation in background at Secoma (see Figure 4.197(west of 2)).

Artifacts Collected or Observed

No artifacts were observed or collected, but structural remains were documented, mapped, and photographed (Figures 4.200 – 4.204). Piers and a possible log washing pond were photographed. A possible road cut to the north of log pond was observed (Figure 4.203). To the west of the piers and log pond, a concrete foundation was documented.

Summary and Recommendations

Based on this investigation, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Secoma site. The Secoma site, while rather ephemeral, represents development of small communities in the New River Gorge.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Secoma site may contain intact archaeological industrial site remains and it should be protected with all available means. It should be noted that much of the Secoma area is privately owned.
2. At this time, we are not recommending further archaeological work given that the majority of the archaeological remains at Secoma appear to be industrial. With no other property types readily apparent, we recommend additional and more intensive archival research on the settlement and the people who lived and worked at Secoma. The possibility for oral history is high, given that National Park Service employees have already established contact with those who can remember

Secoma. The results of this work can and should be used to compare what we know about other locations in the New River valley and help determine if more archaeological work is needed.

Based on the information gained for this study, the Secoma site is not considered potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D at this time.

Sewell Knob

| | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Site Type: | Historic coal town |
| Property Types: | House lots, industrial |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4199057 E 493257 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | Dunloup Creek 1 km |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | Unknown |
| Previous Disturbance: | Demolition |
| ASIMS # | 417 |

Site Description

Sewell Knob is a coal mining operation and town located in the New River Gorge National River, Fayette County, West Virginia on a knob above the confluence of the New River and Dunloup Creek (Figures 4.205–207). The town was also known as Dun Glen (David Fuerst, personal communication 9/19/2007). The site includes a small settlement near the top of the mountain where there are remains of several houses. A powder house and tipple rail grade also are present. The property types present at the site include house lots and industrial resources.

The 1929 Beckley WV USGS 15 minute map identifies the knob, with some mining activities and buildings (Figure 4.204).

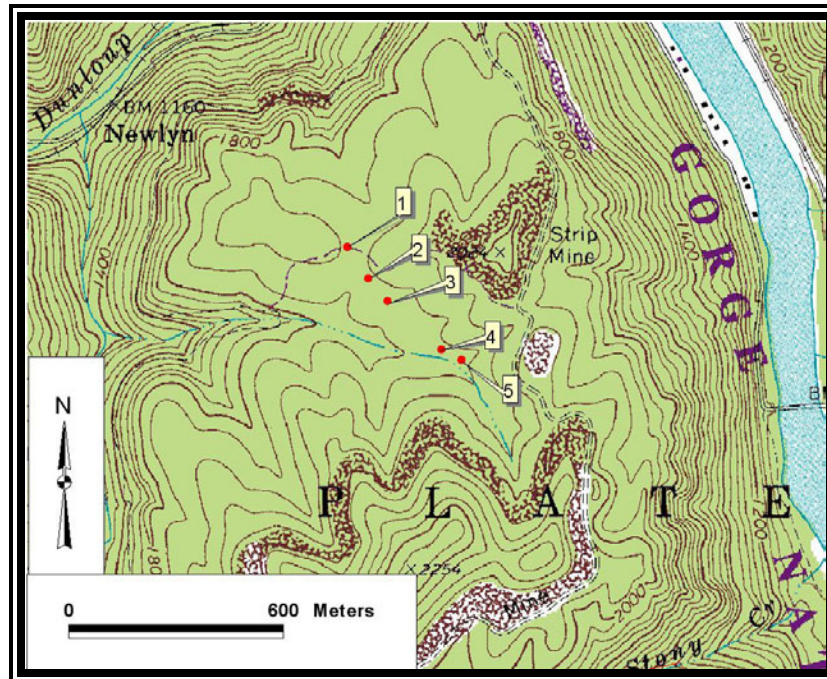


Figure 4.205. Location of Sewell Knob on 1988 Thurmond, WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map: (1) Road cuts; (2) Stone foundation; (3) Possible chimney fall; (4) Powder house; (5) Chimney fall.

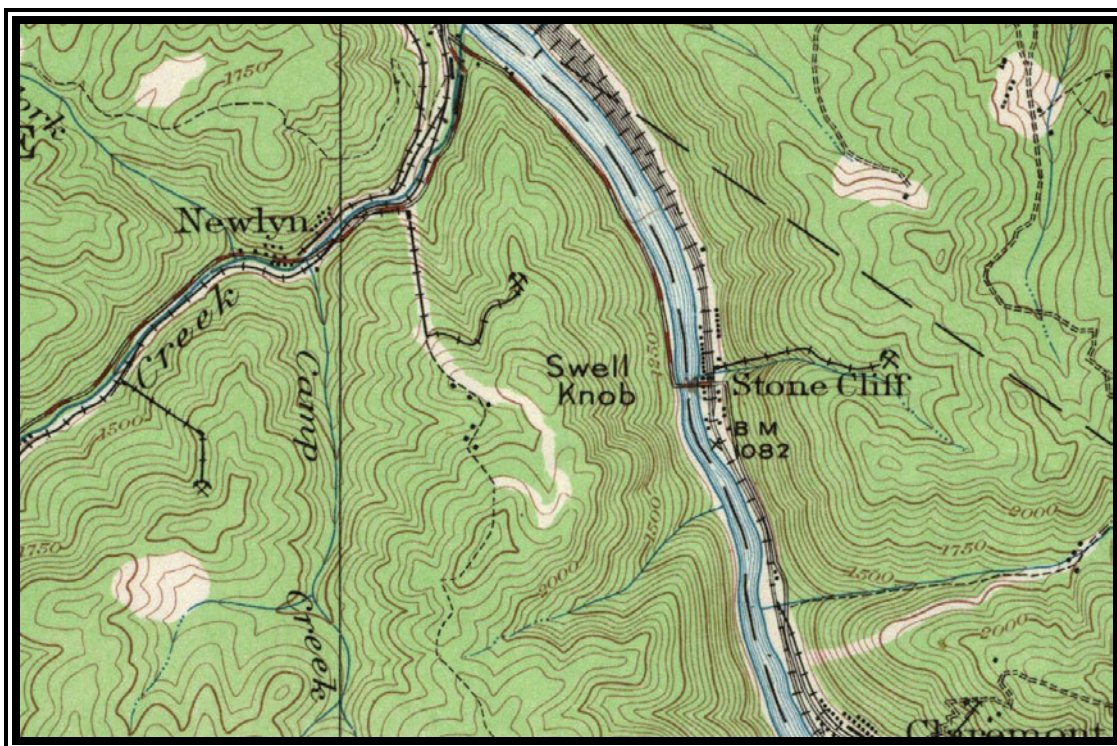


Figure 4.206. Location of Sewell Knob on 1929 Beckley, WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.

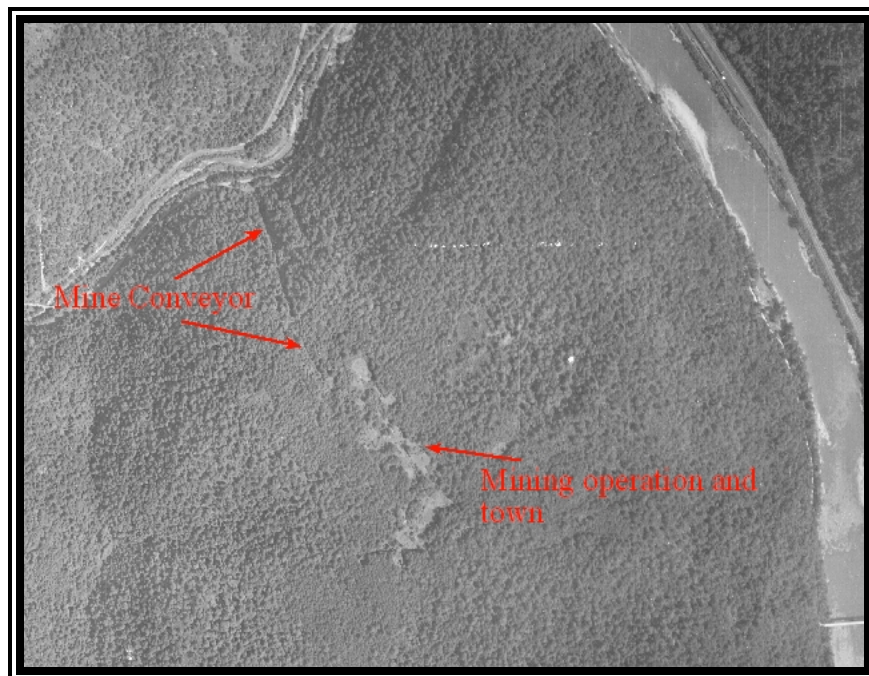


Figure 4.207. 1945 aerial of Sewell Knob.

Site History

Little is known about Sewell Knob and the associated village. No archival information on either the mining operation or the inhabitants of the village was located.

Archaeological Fieldwork

Sewell was examined by a pedestrian survey that included observing and photodocumenting any structural remains (Figure 4.208-216). No shovel probes were excavated at this site. The primary goals of the pedestrian survey were to find evidence of the lumber or mining operations, any building foundations, and to begin documentation of the town and associated mining activity.

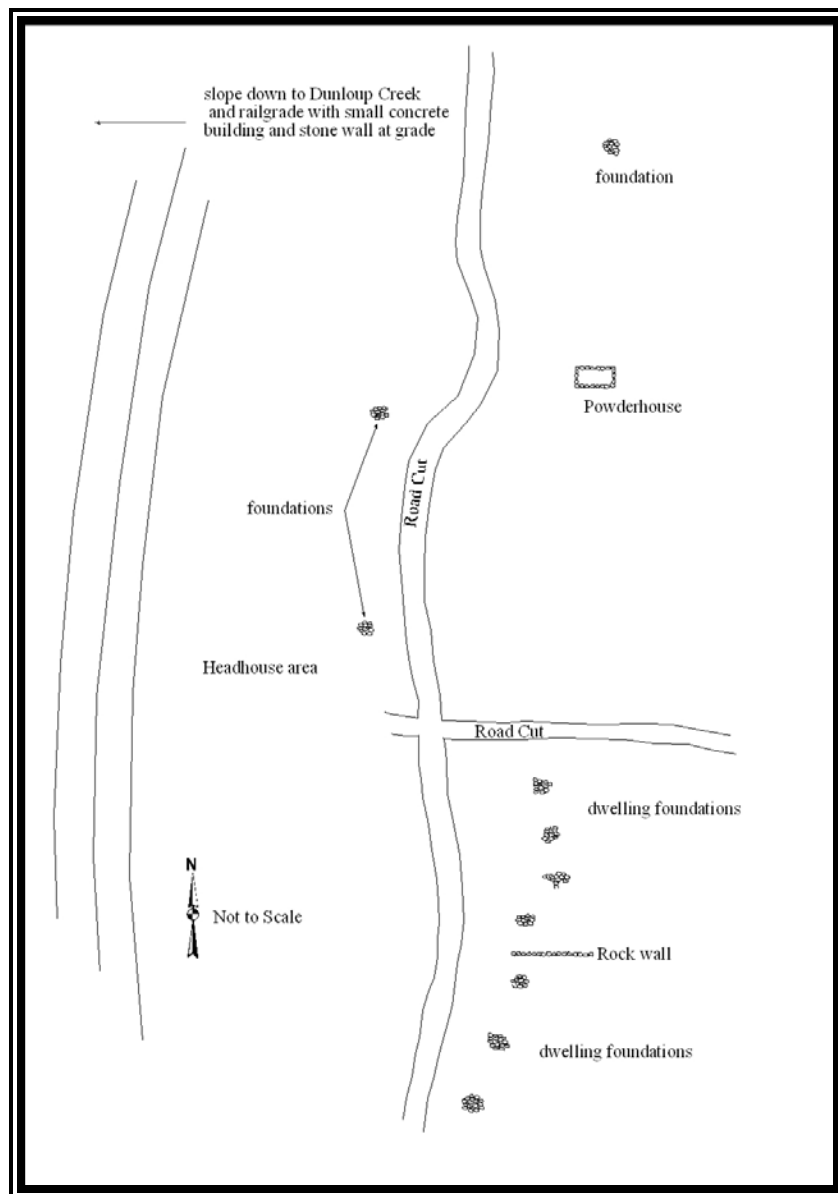


Figure 4.208. Site map of Sewell Knob town site.



Figure 4.209. General topography of Sewell Knob town site showing road cuts (see Figure 4.205(1)).



Figure 4.210. View from Sewell Knob town site looking down Dunloup Creek toward Thurmond (see Figure 4.205(near 1)).



Figure 4.211. Road cut in Sewell Knob town site (see Figure 4.205(1)).



Figure 4.212. Remains of powder house at Sewell Knob town site (see Figure 4.205(4)).



Figure 4.213. Chimney remains at Sewell Knob (see Figure 4.205(3)).



Figure 4.214. Building at railroad grade possibly associated with Sewell Knob mining operations.



Figure 4.215. Stone wall at railroad grade possibly associated with Sewell Knob.



Figure 4.216. Railroad grade at Sewell Knob.

Artifacts Collected or Observed

The fieldwork documented a number of house lots from which artifacts were collected from the surface. The remains consisted primarily of stone chimney fall. Primary refuse deposits may be present in and around the house lots which could provide an opportunity to examine the day to day lives of those who worked in Sewell Knob mine. A small concrete block building was documented along Dunloup Creek that is possibly associated with the mining operations at Sewell Knob. A stone wall and rail cuts were also observed in the vicinity of the concrete block building, which could be the remains of the tippie for Sewell Knob.

Five artifacts were recovered from the Sewell Knob site (Table 4.15). Materials recovered from the surface near dwelling foundation remains consist of two fragments of clear container glass, an amethyst glass bottle base fragment, an aqua soda bottle fragment, and a painted bisque porcelain figurine head.

Amethyst glass dates from 1880 to 1925 (Newman 1970:74), and is associated with the use of manganese oxide as a decolorizing agent in glass production. Glass with manganese turns purplish after extended exposure to the ultraviolet rays of the sun (Jones and Sullivan 1989:13). The end of amethyst glass is associated with the change to selenium, which began by 1915 and was almost exclusively used as a decolorizing agent after World War I suspended German imports of manganese in 1918 (Deiss 1981:82-83).

The aqua soda bottle fragment is embossed “West Virginia Bottling Company Huntington, W. VA” on the body and “WVBCo” on the base. Although the neck and lip are missing from this fragment, this bottle was manufactured in a two-piece mold. The Wightman Glass Company purchased the West Virginia Bottling Company in 1906 (Toulouse 1972:534). This bottle dates from the late-nineteenth to the early-twentieth century.

The historic artifacts included a range of domestic material that is indicative of residential occupation. That information coupled with the architectural remnants of the industrial foundations suggests intact archaeological deposits are present at the site.

Table 4.15. Artifacts Recovered from Sewell Knob.

| Context | Provenience | Artifact Class/Subclass | # | Comments |
|---------|-------------|----------------------------|---|----------------------|
| 118 | Surface | Container glass | 2 | |
| 119-1 | Surface | Porcelain figurine head | 1 | |
| 119-2 | Surface | Glass bottle base fragment | 1 | |
| 119-3 | Surface | Soda bottle fragment | 1 | Neck and lip missing |

Summary and Recommendations

Based on this investigation, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Sewell Knob site. The site contains a number of different property types, including, house lots and industrial resources. The Sewell Knob site has a high potential to contain intact archaeological deposits due to the recovery of domestic artifacts from the occupation period and the presence of domestic and commercial foundation remains.

Because there are intact archaeological remains present at the Sewell Knob site, it represents an opportunity to study one of the coal mining communities of the region. The site relates to the coal mining industry historic context developed by Unrau (1996) for the New River Gorge National River. In that regard, further investigations of the Sewell Knob site might provide important information about intra-community relationships among places that were connected primarily by the railroad and by their particular roles in the rapid development of the New River valley at the turn of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

The Sewell Knob site represents development in the New River Gorge that can be specifically related to consumption patterns, food acquisition, and social and ethnic differences between the inhabitants of the town. Because of its protected position at the top of the knob, the remains have been relatively undisturbed. House lots layout, including fencing and gardens may be investigated.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Sewell Knob site should be protected with all available means. It is historically unique and the archaeological deposits are intact and sensitive to episodes of looting, development, or natural disturbances.
2. To better define the nature and extent of the archaeological resources at this site, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine its eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, it is recommended that phase I testing and mapping of the site be undertaken in conjunction with a cultural landscape inventory. This work should consist of systematic shovel probing across the site. After the site's landscape features are mapped, the goals of the shovel probing should include the identification of the locations containing subsurface cultural materials and indicate their spatial relationship to building ruins and landscape features. Finally, site boundaries should be refined on the basis of historical records and the distribution of archaeological remains.
3. Depending on the results of the survey, phase II exploratory archaeological investigations may be necessary. This work should assess the integrity of cultural deposits at the Sewell Knob site by excavating several test units throughout the site. The results of these kinds of investigations should produce data from which interpretations about the life of the people who lived there can be articulated.

4. The results of the above investigations can and should be used to compare what we know about other locations in the New River valley, specifically the town site of Ephraim. Once accomplished, such comparisons should be made in view of the relationship(s) that the town of Sewell Knob had with other communities in the New River valley and in the surrounding uplands.

Given these investigations, the Sewell Knob site should be considered potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D. The recommended archaeological and archival research should be able to provide additional information on the size of this site and the nature of the associated archaeological deposits. Taken together the recommended archival research and field investigations should produce the information needed to more fully evaluate the significance of this site.

Stonecliff

| | |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| Site Type: | Historic coal town/historic cemetery |
| Property Types: | House lots, industrial, commercial, cemetery |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4198734 E 494550 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | New River 20m |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | Unknown |
| Previous Disturbance: | Demolition |
| ASIMS # | 418 |

Site Description

Stonecliff is located in the New River Gorge National River, Fayette County, West Virginia. (Figures 4.217 and 4.218). The site is located on the east side of the New River approximately two miles south of Thurmond. The site includes foundation remains of residential buildings, remains of industrial and commercial/company buildings, coke ovens, powder house or magazine, turntable, and tipple foundations. There are also stone walls ascending the hill at the conveyor line to the head house. The company housing and company store are located west of the C&O Railroad. The turntable, magazine, coke ovens, and tipple are located east of the C&O Railroad. A possible engine house is located east of the railroad, approximately 90 m from the coke ovens. The powder house is located east of the railroad, approximately 69 m from the coke ovens. The tipple is 50 meters from the railroad and 30 m from the coke ovens. Piers for the tipple continue approximately 75 m east of the railroad and the trees were cleared all the way up the slope (Figure 4.223).

The 1929 Beckley WV 15' USGS maps depicts about twenty structures at Stonecliff (Figure 4.218), with the associated mine in the Fire Creek seam situated to the east, linked by the C&O Railroad (Workman et al. 2005:27). However, no structures are shown on the 1988 Beckley WV 15' USGS map (Figures 4.217).

Two cemeteries were maintained near Stonecliff, one for the black population (Table 4.16) and one for the white population (Table 4.17). Both cemeteries are located one-half mile above the Stonecliff Bridge on the road to Claremont. The black cemetery is located between the county road and the C&O Railroad track, while the white cemetery is located between the railroad tracks and the New River. Both cemeteries are overgrown with heavy vegetation and are in disrepair. There is, however, some evidence of recent visitation. An unknown number of graves are unmarked.

Site History

Stonecliff was established in 1881. At that time the Stonecliff Collieries Company and the Stonecliff Mine, Coke Works, and Coal Camp along the C&O Railroad mainline were also opened (DellaMea 2005). The mine had a drift opening in the Fire Creek coal bed with a thickness of three feet. In 1883, the Fayette Coal and Coke

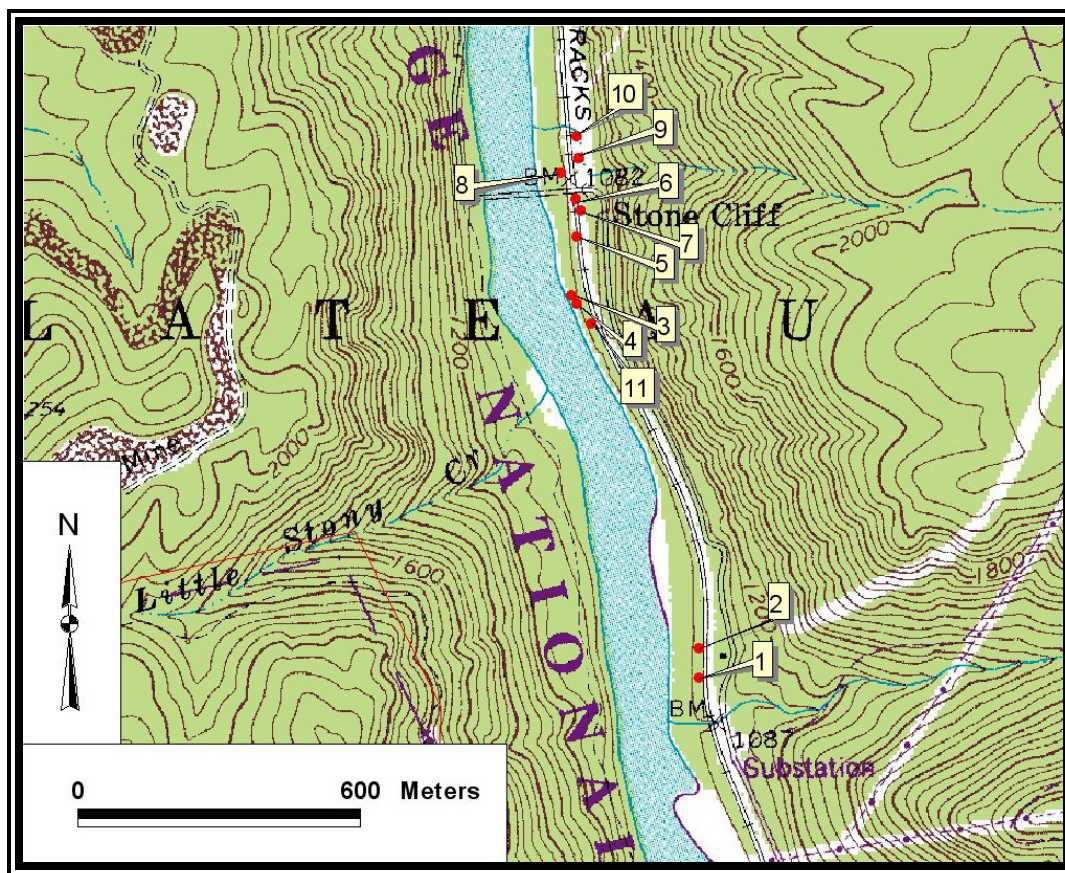


Figure 4.217. Location of Stonecliff on 1988 Thurmond, WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map: (1) South end of cemetery; (2) North end of cemetery; (3) Stone wall; (4) South end of coke ovens; (5) Tipple; (6) Company store remains; (7) Powder house; (8) Housing remains; (9) Turntable remains; (10) Foundation; (11) Piers.

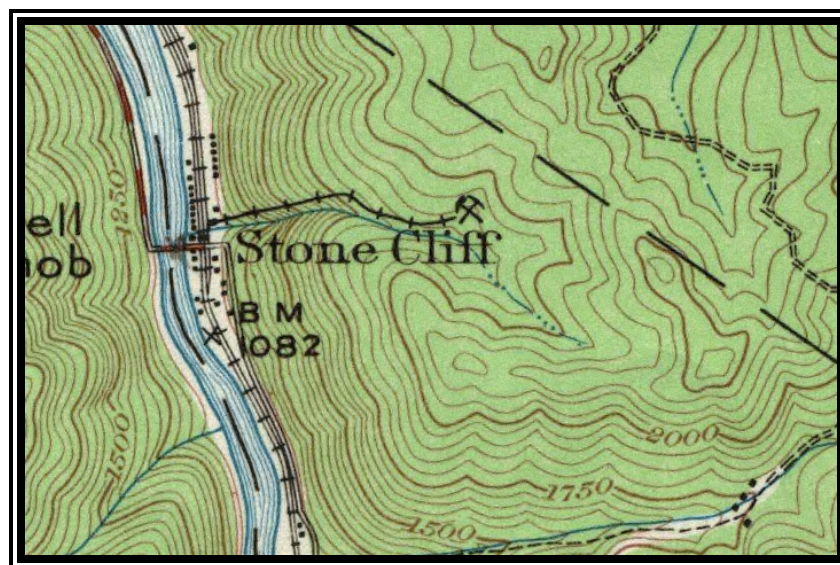


Figure 4.218. Location of Stonecliff on 1929 Beckley, WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.

Company opened two mines in Stonecliff, one in the Fire Creek seam and the other in the Sewell seam (Workman et al. 2005:26). In 1903, the mining operation was conveyed to the Beury Coal and Coke Company. The Stonecliff Collieries Company continued coal mining through the 1920s and the Pugh Coal Company continued mining through the 1940s. The mine was closed in the 1950s.

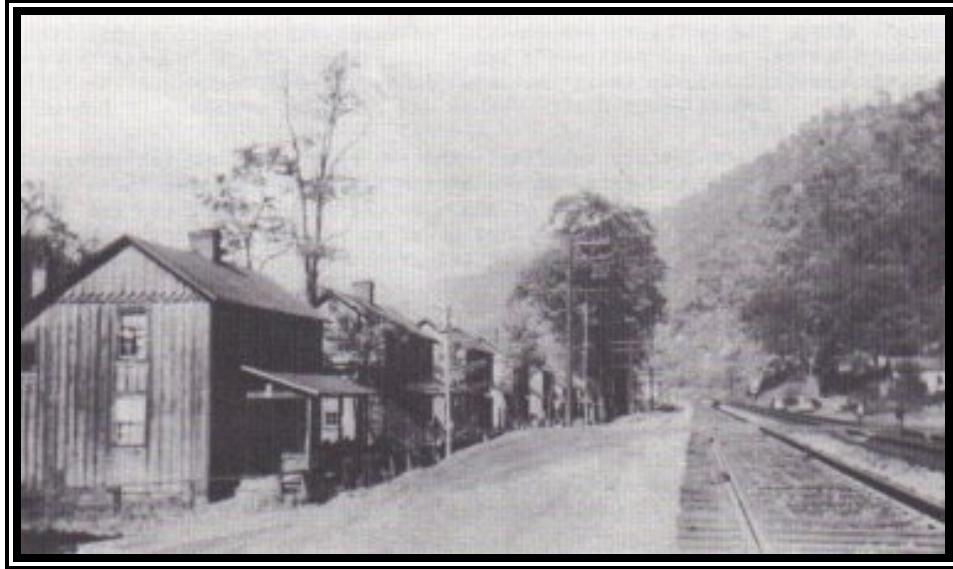


Figure 4.219. Coal miners housing at Stonecliff (from “Stone Cliff, West Virginia” by Murray Shuff, on file at New River Gorge National River Headquarters library).

Coal was taken out of the mines in cars that carried about one and a half tons of coal each. An electric motor, driven by power from the power station, lifted the coal up out of the mines. Each car was then weighed and dumped, and the coal was transferred to a big steel monitor that would haul about five tons of coal down the incline on a railroad track under the control of a cable (History of Fayette Co., WV 1993). The operation was a counterweight system in which a loaded monitor would descend while it pulled an empty monitor up. Some miners rode the empty monitors to work. Once the coal was down the mountain and at the tipple, it was processed; some coal was loaded into railroad cars and some was sent to the coke ovens. Stonecliff had 60 coke ovens.

Located within the community of Stonecliff was the powerhouse or power station: inside were huge coal-fired boilers which turned water to steam and the steam turned generators which produced electricity for the mines (History of Fayette Co., WV 1993) and the powder house, which was used to store the blasting powder (Figure 4.211). The depot was a shelter for people waiting for the passenger trains. The railroad’s signaling tower and switching station, known as a “cabin,” was located on the west end of town (History of Fayette Co., WV 1993). It was referred to as the CS cabin and was a two-story building. The top floor was used for observing the railroad yard. On the bottom floor, there were rows and rows of glass batteries that were kept charged to supply power to run the signals, some of the motors that switched the trains, and the telegraph. The CS

Cabin was manned twenty-four hours a day and its employees usually lived in the boarding house.



Figure 4.220. Stonecliff train depot, date unknown (Photo on file at New River Gorge National River Headquarters Library).

Citizens of Stonecliff worked for the coal company, lived in company houses, and shopped at the company store. People were relatively poor and life at Stonecliff was centered around earning a living in the mines and going to church on Sunday. In the 1930s, a miner made close to \$100 per month if working full time. The coal company would withhold about \$12.50 out of miners' wages to pay for company housing, the company doctor, coal for heating and cooking, blacksmith's services, hospital fund, and burial fund. Gardens were a necessity, supplying fresh foods in the summer and fall and canned foods in the winter months.

The settlement was linear in form; with houses between the C&O railroad and the New River (Figure 4.201, 4.208 - 4.210). The company houses each had four rooms, two upstairs and two downstairs, and a lean-to across the back (History of Fayette Co., WV 1993). Each house had a two-story chimney in the center with a fireplace opening in each room. The houses were heated using coal bought from the coal company. The homes had no electricity, running water, or indoor plumbing. Drinking water came from a spring while household water came from the New River. The outhouses sat over shallow unlined pits with no screens. They were not whitewashed and were fertile breeding grounds for disease. Rent for the company houses was six dollars per month and coal was one dollar per month.

The company store ran by the company store manager, served as a grocery store, a dry goods store, and a hardware store. It also served as the post office, doctor's office, railway express office, and ticket office for the local passenger train (History of Fayette Co., WV 1993). The post office was closed in 1948. The boarding house provided room and board for those who worked in Stonecliff but lived elsewhere. Money withheld from the miners' wages for room and board was given to the lady running the boarding house. She, in turn, would use the money to buy food from the company store.

The schoolhouse was a one-room building used for eight grades of school, church, and a civic center for town meetings. White children attended the schoolhouse while black children walked a mile to the black school in Claremont. There were two churches, one for white people and one at the east end of town for blacks. There were also two cemeteries at Stonecliff, one for the whites and one for the blacks (Tables 4.15 and 4.16).

Unlike many of the mining towns in the New River Gorge, Stonecliff survived into the 1950s partially because the mine at Stonecliff kept producing and probably, because of its proximity to the larger town of Thurmond. During the depression years (early 1930s) the mine only operated during the winter months (Shuff, nd), but the families who lived there had little choice but to remain since there was no work elsewhere. Because of the government's New Deal programs during the depression, the town underwent several changes in the 1930s. Sanitary outhouses were built; electricity was installed in every home; and eventually some had telephones and radios. In 1919, the settlement had a population of 150 (Workman et al. 2005:27). The population at Stonecliff was between 200 and 300 people (History of Fayette Co., WV 1993). The inevitable end of the coal supply came and by the 1950s, the town was abandoned. While the town's structures were still standing in the 1960s, over 40 years later the town had been taken over by nature with only a few foundations still visible.

Archaeological Fieldwork

Stonecliff was examined by a pedestrian survey that included observing and photodocumenting any structural remains. No shovel probes were excavated at this site. The primary goals of the pedestrian survey were to find evidence of the mining operations, any building foundation, and to begin documentation of the town and associated mining community. The site and the associated cemetery were documented and mapped (Figures 4.221-236).

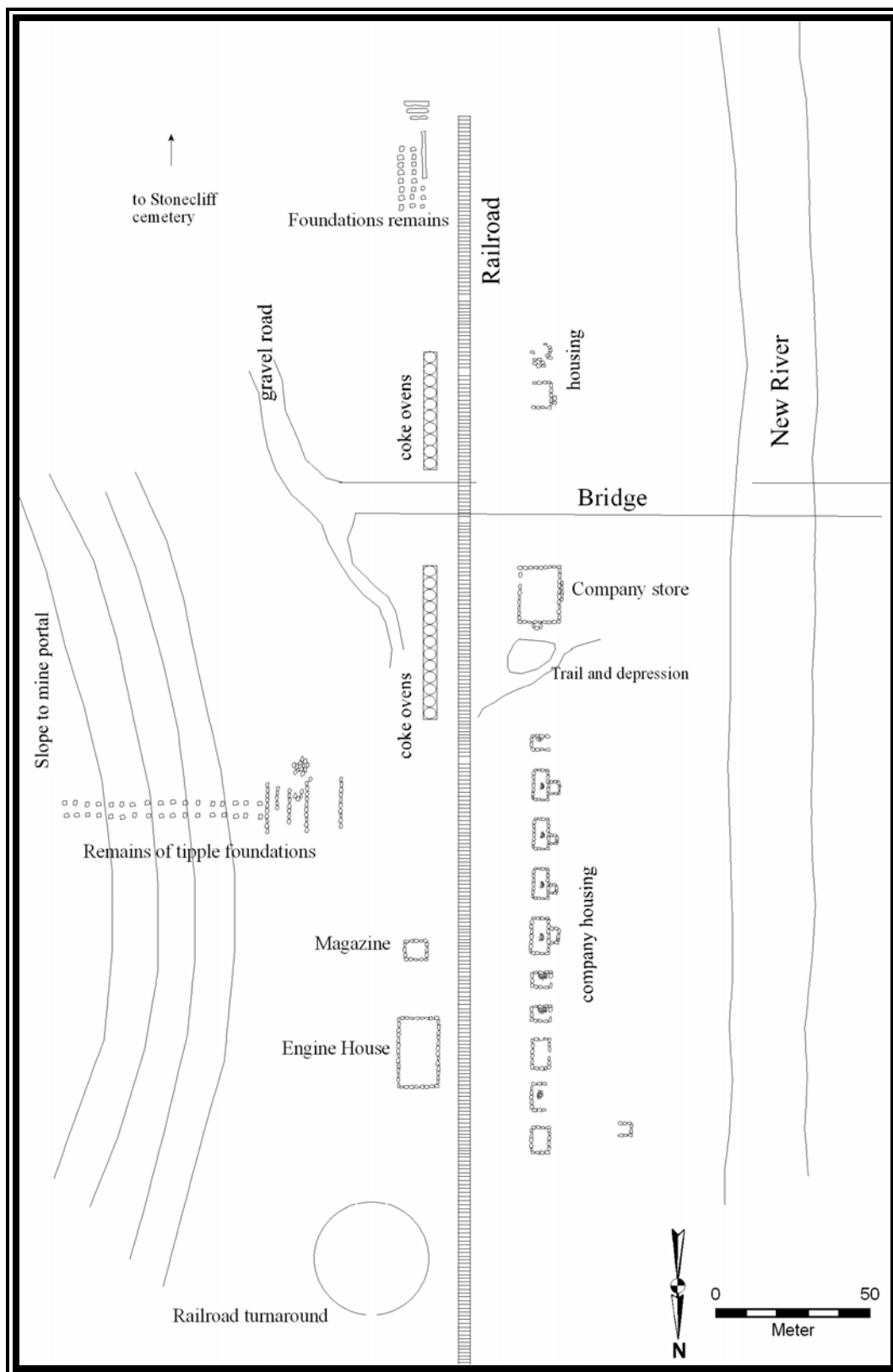


Figure 4.221. Site map of Stonecliff.



Figure 4.222. Coal operation foundations at Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(5)).



Figure 4.223. Remains of masonry piers at Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(11)).



Figure 4.224. Remains of coke ovens at Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(4)).

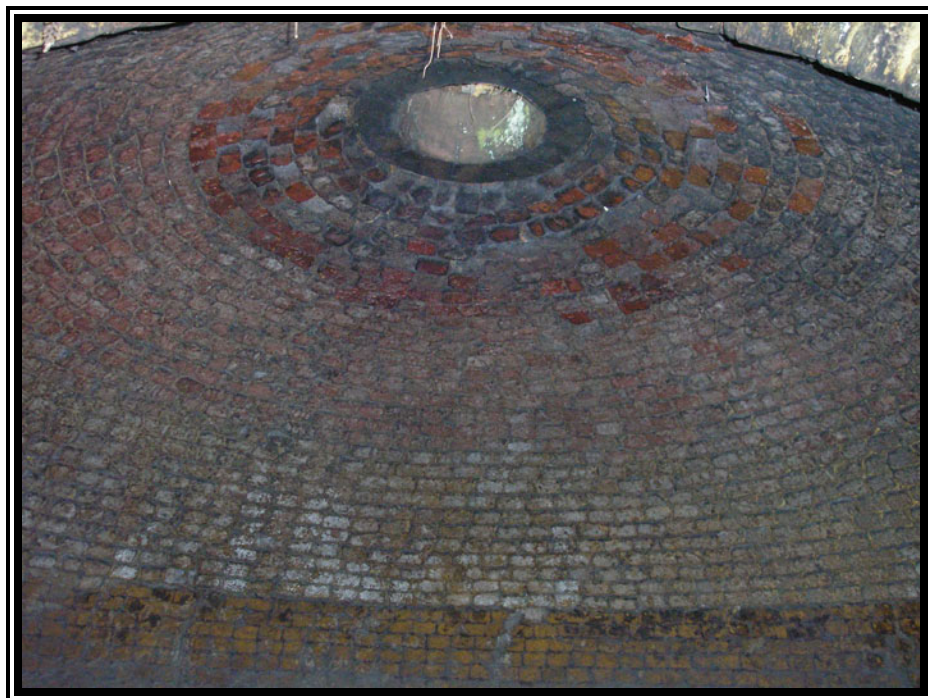


Figure 4.225. Inside of bee-hive coke oven at Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(4)).



Figure 4.226. Foundation of railroad car turntable at Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(9)).



Figure 4.227. House foundation at Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(8)).



Figure 4.228. Remains of house at Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(8)).



Figure 4.229. Powder house at Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(7)).



Figure 4.230. Masonry pier remains at Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(11)).



Figure 4.231. Remains of company store at Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(6)).

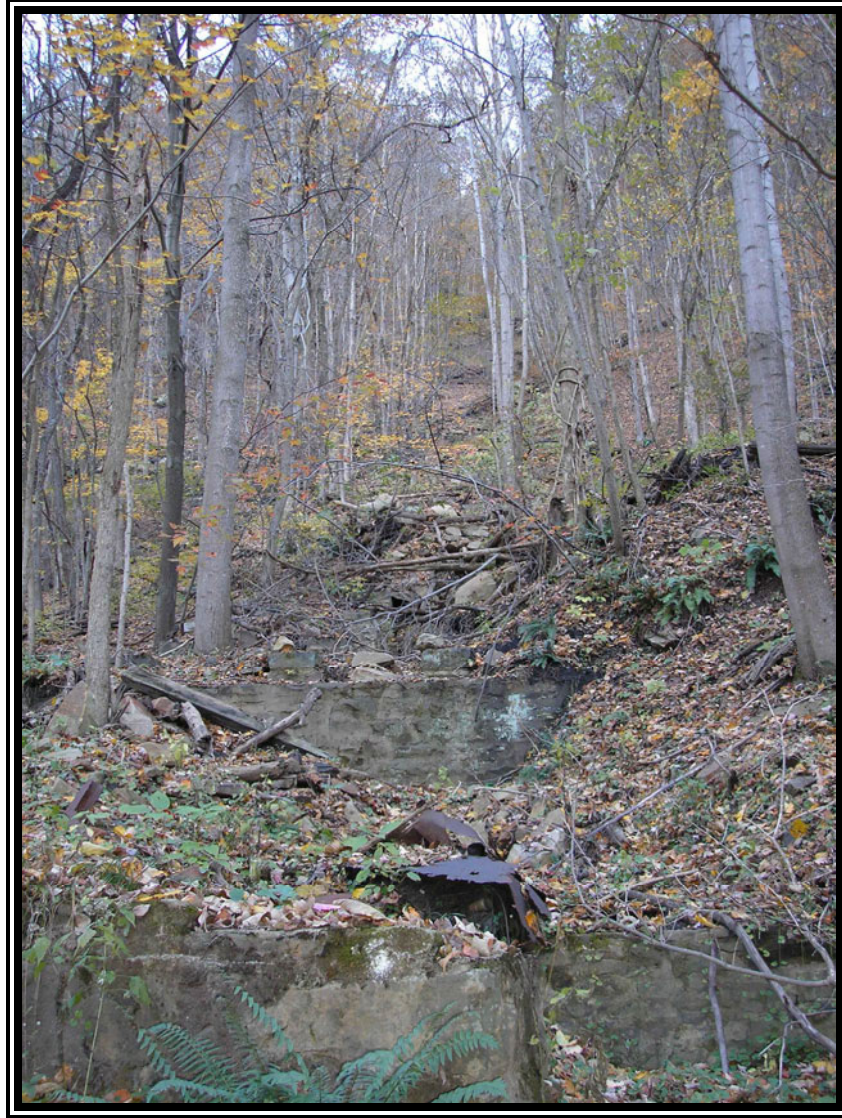


Figure 4.232. Conveyor incline up to mine at Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(near 5)).

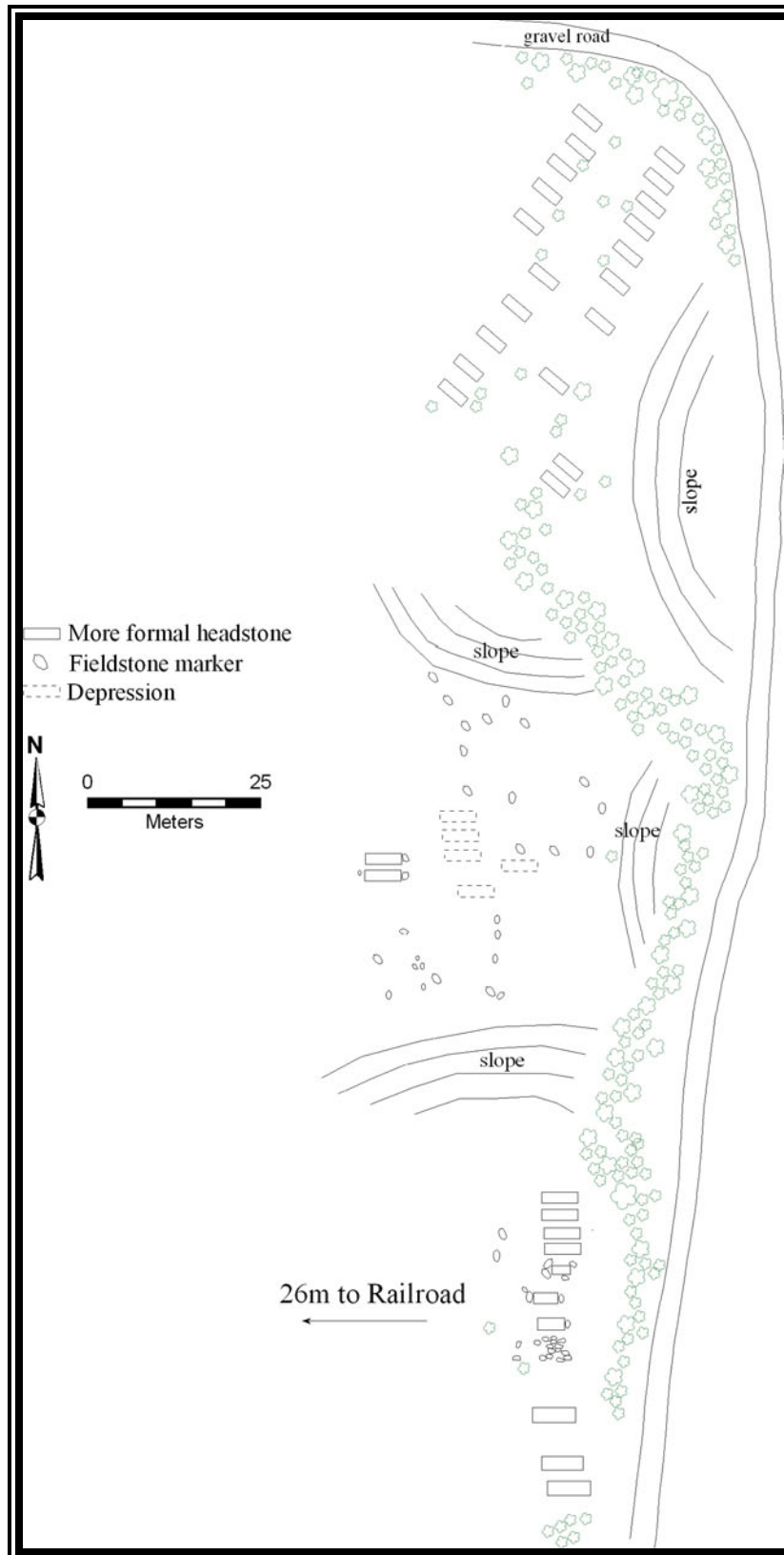


Figure 4.233. Map of Black cemetery near Stonecliff.



Figure 4.234. Example of headstone from Black cemetery near Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(1&2)).



Figure 4.235. Example of headstone from Black cemetery near Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(1&2)).



Figure 4.236. View of Black cemetery at Stonecliff (see Figure 4.217(1&2)).

Table 4.16. Formal Headstones from the Black cemetery near Stonecliff.

| Name | Date of Birth | Date of Death | Funeral Home | Comments |
|---------------------------|----------------|---------------|--------------|------------------------------|
| Allen, Baby | 1942 | 1942 | Unknown | |
| Alexander, Margaret | 1929 | 1950 | Unknown | |
| Alexander, William | 1902 | 1954 | Unknown | |
| Bailey, Edmond | 1864 | 1941 | Unknown | |
| Baronham, James | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | |
| Boham, Hattie | 1885 | 1958 | Unknown | |
| Boham, Timmie | 1871 | 1954 | Unknown | |
| Brown, Martha | 1925 | 1960 | Unknown | |
| Carrington, William Henry | Sept. 27, 1881 | Oct. 16, 1891 | Unknown | |
| Carter, John L. | 1886 | 1950 | Unknown | |
| Chambers, Royal | Sept. 10, 1892 | May 5, 1955 | Unknown | Pfc. U.S.A. WWI |
| Conner, Mabel | 1916 | 1957 | Unknown | |
| Dotson, Lewis | 1885 | 1962 | Unknown | |
| Garten, Ester | May 11, 1891 | Unknown | Unknown | Age 5 months |
| Garten, Harlie | Apr. 1, 1870 | Unknown | Unknown | Age 7 years-9 months-15 days |
| Hughs, Aunt Josephine | Unknown | 1938 | Unknown | |
| Jackson, | 1888 | 1957 | Unknown | |
| Jackson, Andrew | 1882 | 1963 | Unknown | |
| Johnson, Frank | 1870 | 1932 | Unknown | |
| Jones, J.W. | Unknown | 1949 | Unknown | |
| King, John | 1887 | 1957 | Unknown | |
| King, Wiley | 1905 | 1957 | Unknown | |
| Laparde, B. | 1878 | 1942 | Unknown | |

| | | | | |
|----------------------|--------------|----------------|---------|--|
| Laparde, Lewania | 1905 | 1951 | Unknown | |
| Laparde, Baby | Unknown | 1964 | Unknown | |
| Pinkard, M. | 1886 | 1962 | Unknown | |
| Sellers, Mrs. | 1866 | Jan. 11, 1918 | Unknown | |
| Simms, James H. | 1879 | 1946 | Unknown | |
| Smith, Hubert | May 23, 1904 | June. 29, 1905 | Unknown | |
| Stone (no name) | Unknown | Apr. 15, 1872 | Unknown | |
| Swope, Willie J. | 1929 | 1955 | Unknown | |
| Thompson, John | 1880 | 1941 | Unknown | |
| Tinsley, Josephine | Mar. 6, 1913 | Mar. 22, 1962 | Unknown | |
| Tucker, James Edward | 1942 | 1943 | Unknown | |
| Webb, James | 1872 | 1960 | Unknown | |
| Webb, Mary | 1902 | 1955 | Unknown | |
| Williams, George | 1857 | 1954 | Unknown | |

Table 4.17. Formal Headstones from the White cemetery near Stonecliff.

| Name | Date of Birth | Date of Death | Funeral Home | Comments |
|----------------------|----------------|---------------|--------------|--|
| Byrd, Jesse M. | 1883 | 1956 | Unknown | |
| Diggs, George Edward | Sept. 16, 1890 | May 26, 1965 | Unknown | |
| Dotson, Samuel | 1894 | 1951 | Unknown | |
| Flemming, Tempie | 1864 | 1942 | Unknown | |
| Glover, Lighty, Jr. | 1921 | 1968 | Unknown | |
| Hawkins, Maria | Feb. 23, 1849 | Oct. 14, 1895 | Unknown | "Sleep Mother in Thy Rest, God Called Her Home for He Knows Best" "Her Bereaved Children" |
| Jackson, David Ellis | 1945 | 1949 | Unknown | |
| Jones, J.W. | Unknown | Unknown | Unknown | |
| O'Conner, Mabel | 1918 | 1967 | Unknown | |
| Smith, Martha | 1863 | 1950 | Unknown | |
| Thompson, John | Unknown | 19? | Unknown | |
| Wheeler, E. | 1891 | 1965 | Unknown | |
| No name | 1905 | 1956 | Unknown | |

Artifacts Collected or Observed

No shovel probes were excavated at Stonecliff, but artifacts were recovered from the surface during the pedestrian survey (Table 4.18).

Artifacts recovered near the remains of the masonry piers at Stonecliff include, a machine-made bottle with standardized screw-top threads. Fully machine-made bottle with seams that extend the length of the bottle came into existence in 1903 when Michael J. Owens patented the first automatic bottle-making machine (Deiss 1981:79). Bottles are often characterized by machine-made standardized screw threads on the rims.

Standardized threads were first produced in 1919 and are still used today (Deiss 1981:95).

Materials recovered near the Stonecliff coke ovens consist of brown transfer-printed molded whiteware (n=1), an English hard-paste porcelain cup or bowl fragment, clear pressed glass tableware fragments (n=2), container glass (n=6), and an unidentified glass tube. Brown transfer-printed whiteware dates from 1828 to the present day (Shaw 1829:214; Miller 2000:13). The porcelain recovered from this site is highly vitrified English hard-paste porcelain, which has a long period of production, and not temporally diagnostic. Other diagnostic materials recovered from this site consist of two machine made bottle fragments. A clear bottle base was recovered that exhibits an Owens suction scar as well as a manufacturer's mark of the Owens Illinois Glass Company. This specimen dates from 1929 to 1954 (Toulouse 1972:403). A nearly complete clear bottle also was recovered that is embossed "Henry K. Wampole & Company" on each side panel. The Henry K. Wampole Company began in Philadelphia in 1876, and remained in business until 1958 when it was purchased by the Denver Chemical Manufacturing Company (Fike 1987:80). The bottle also exhibits a manufacturer's mark on its base; it reads the T. C. Wheaton Company. The T.C. Wheaton Company is located in Millville, New Jersey, and this mark has been in use since 1946 (Toulouse 1972:527). All these artifacts are indicative of domestic occupation during the early twentieth century.

Table 4.18. Artifacts Recovered from Stonecliff.

| Context | Provenience | Artifact Class/Subclass | # | Comments |
|---------|------------------------------------|---------------------------|---|------------------------|
| 111 | Chimney associated with building 3 | Ironstone | 1 | Teacup |
| 112 | Stone piers near coke ovens | Bottle with lid | 1 | |
| 113-1 | Coke ovens | Bottle | 1 | Lip missing |
| 113-2 | Coke ovens | Glass tube | 1 | |
| 113-3 | Coke ovens | Pressed glass | 2 | Tableware fragments |
| 113-4 | Coke ovens | Milk glass | 1 | Base fragment |
| 113-5 | Coke ovens | Container glass | 4 | |
| 113-6 | Coke ovens | Porcelain | 1 | Cup or bowl fragment |
| 113-7 | Coke ovens | Whiteware | 1 | |
| 143-1 | Near houses | Bottle | 1 | Whole |
| 143-2 | Near houses | Bottle | 3 | Most of base missing |
| 143-3 | Near houses | Pressed glass | 1 | Tableware fragment |
| 143-4 | Near houses | Terra cotta body fragment | 1 | |
| 143-5 | Near houses | Stoneware | 1 | Salt glazed |
| 143-6 | Near houses | Stoneware vessel section | 1 | Albany slipped jug lip |
| 143-7 | Near houses | Horseshoe | 1 | |

Numerous foundation remains of both residential and industrial buildings were documented during fieldwork. The town was laid out along either side of the C&O railroad. The company housing and company store are located west of the C&O Railroad. The turntable, magazine, coke ovens, and tipple are located east of the C&O

Railroad. A possible engine house is located east of the railroad, approximately 90 m from the coke ovens. The powder house is located east of the railroad, approximately 69 m from the coke ovens. The tipple is 50 m from the railroad and 30 m from the coke ovens. Piers for the tipple continue approximately 75 m east of the railroad and the trees were cleared all the way up the slope.

Summary and Recommendations

Based on this investigation, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Stonecliff site. The site contains a number of different property types, including, house lots, cemeteries, commercial and industrial resources. The Stonecliff site has a high potential to contain intact archaeological deposits due to the recovery of domestic artifacts from the 1881-1940 period on the surface and the presence of extensive domestic and commercial foundation remains.

The extensive remains of Stonecliff make it a key site within NERI. The Stonecliff site represents typical company town layout and development in the New River Gorge. The site relates to the coal mining industry historic context developed by Unrau (1996) for the New River Gorge National River. Because of the extensive remains, wealth of archival information, easy accessibility, potential of subsurface archaeological features the Stonecliff site might be able to help address research issues such as community land use, including industrial layout and organization, development of company towns, racial segregation in company towns, consumerism, and health and mortality.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Stonecliff site should be protected with all available means. It is historically unique and the archaeological deposits are intact. It is easily accessible and sensitive to episodes of looting, development, or natural disturbances.
2. To better define the nature and extent of the archaeological resources at this site, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine its eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, it is recommended that phase I testing and mapping of the site be undertaken in conjunction with a cultural landscape inventory. This work should consist of systematic shovel probing across the site. After the site's landscape features are mapped, the goals of the shovel probing should include the identification of the locations containing subsurface cultural materials and indicate their spatial relationship to building ruins and landscape features. Finally, site boundaries should be refined on the basis of historical records and the distribution of archaeological remains.
3. Depending on the results of the survey, phase II exploratory archaeological investigations may be necessary. This work should assess the integrity of cultural deposits at the Stonecliff site by excavating several test units throughout the site.

The results of these kinds of investigations should produce data from which interpretations about the life of the people who lived there can be articulated.

4. The results of the above investigations can and should be used to compare what we know about other locations in the New River valley, specifically Thurmond, Hamlet, and Royal. Once accomplished, such comparisons should be made in view of the relationship(s) that the town of Stonecliff had with other communities in the New River valley and in the surrounding uplands.

Given these investigations, the Stonecliff site should be considered potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D. The recommended archaeological and archival research should be able to provide additional information on the size of this site and the nature of the associated archaeological deposits. Taken together the recommended archival research and field investigations should produce the information needed to more fully evaluate the significance of this site.

Thayer Cemetery

| | |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Site Type: | Historic coal town/historic cemetery |
| Property Type: | Cemetery |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4194643 E 497210 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | New River 1km |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | Unknown |
| Previous Disturbance: | None |
| ASIMS # | 419 |

Site Description

Thayer Cemetery is located above the town of Thayer in the New River Gorge National River, Fayette County, West Virginia (Figures 4.237-4.238). The town of Thayer is located on the main line of the Chesapeake & Ohio (C&O) Railroad, near the top of the Horseshoe Bend of the New River. Thayer is southeast of Thurmond; the community is still sparsely populated today (Cavalier 1985:420). The cemetery is adjacent to a privately-owned farm above McKendree Road (State Road 25). The headstones date to the 1920s and later.

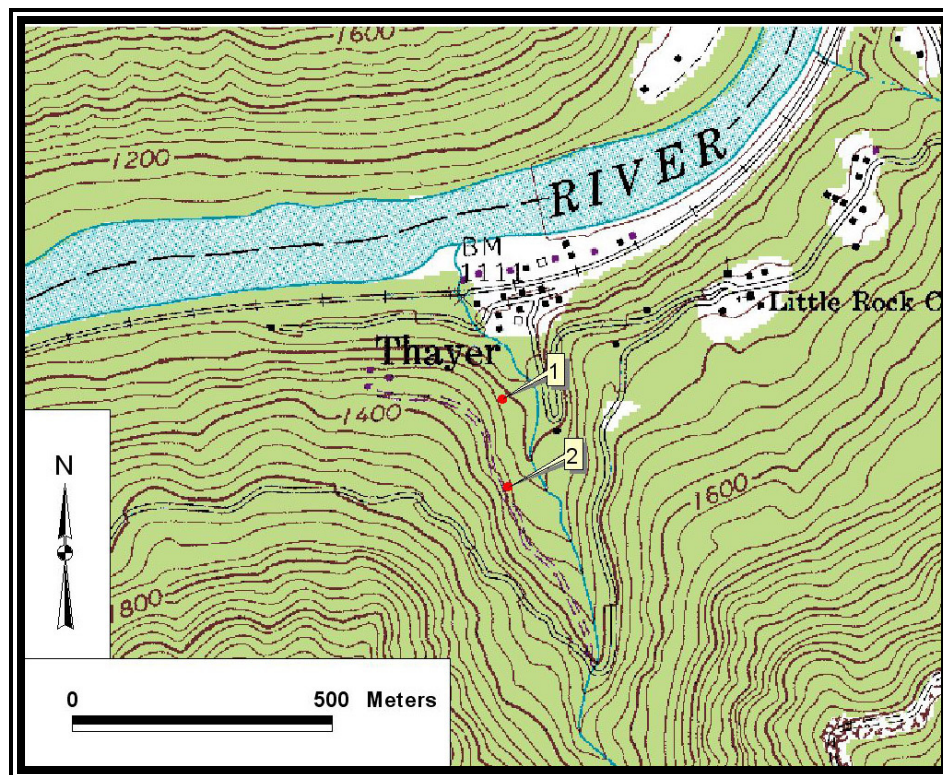


Figure 4.237. Location of Thayer on 1988 Thurmond, WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map: (1) North end of cemetery; (2) South end of cemetery.

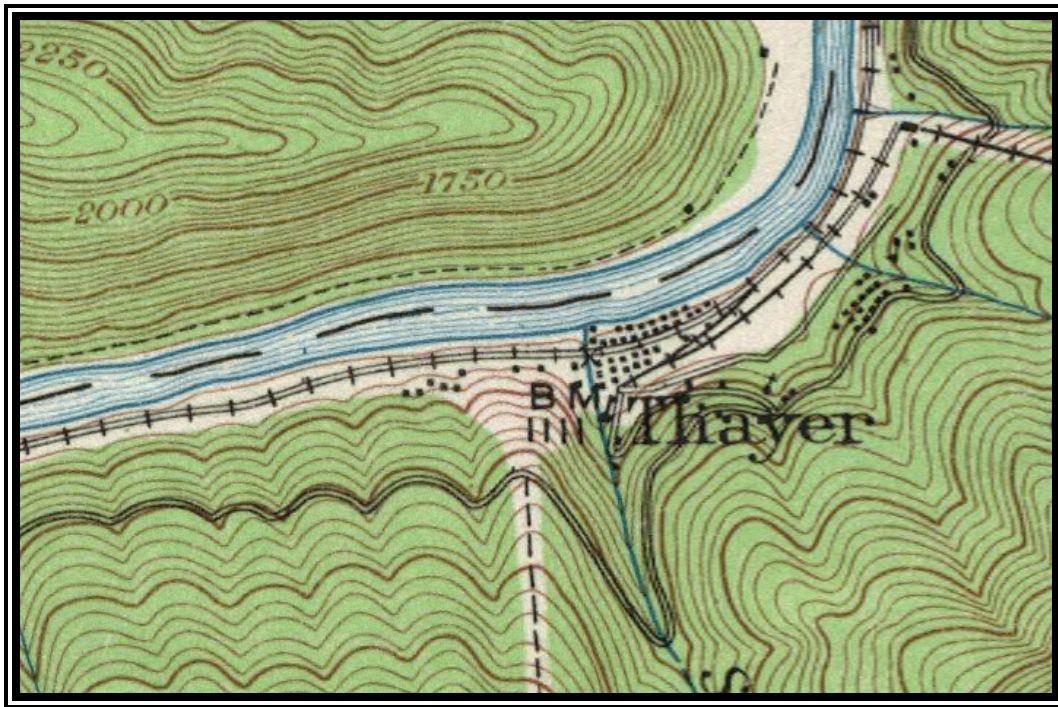


Figure 4.238. Location of Thayer on 1929 Beckley, WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.

The WVGS 1916 and the 1929 Beckley WV USGS 15 minute quad shows over 30 structures at Thayer; most are oriented in a linear pattern parallel to the railroad, and a side track linked to the rail or monitor line at Ephraim passed through the settlement (Workman et al. 2005:31). The 1969 Thurmond WV USGS 7.5 minute map, updated in 1988, depicts about 20 structures (Workman et al. 2005:31) (Figure 4.237).

Site History

In 1902, the Ephraim Creek Coal and Coke Company established the Thayer mining settlement. Also known as Slater Station, Thayer was built to care for miners working in the Buffalo and Slater mines, which opened in the Fire Creek seam near Ephraim. In 1916, the settlement consisted of a large company store and office, a number of dwellings, a powerhouse, a new theater, and an amusement hall; all of which were built along the railroad on a stretch of river bottomland (Workman et al. 2005:30). The superintendent's house, several employees' houses, and a Methodist Episcopal Church all sat on a bench a couple of hundred feet upslope. There were also machine shops, a blacksmith shop, a company factory for making mine cars, and three school buildings, two for whites and one for the small black population (Workman et al. 2005:30) (Figure 4.238).

The houses were built with storm siding and double floors and each one was fenced in. Some of the company houses had only two rooms but most had four to six;

rent cost between five and eight dollars per month. Some houses were fitted with both baths and toilets and all of the houses were electrically lighted. Water was obtained from mountain springs, gathered into concrete-covered pools, and then piped to the houses or along the streets to spring-released hydrants situated in front of the houses (Cavalier 1985:420). On top of the mountain, water for houses was pumped from deep wells into tanks; from there, it was piped to houses in the same way as down slope.

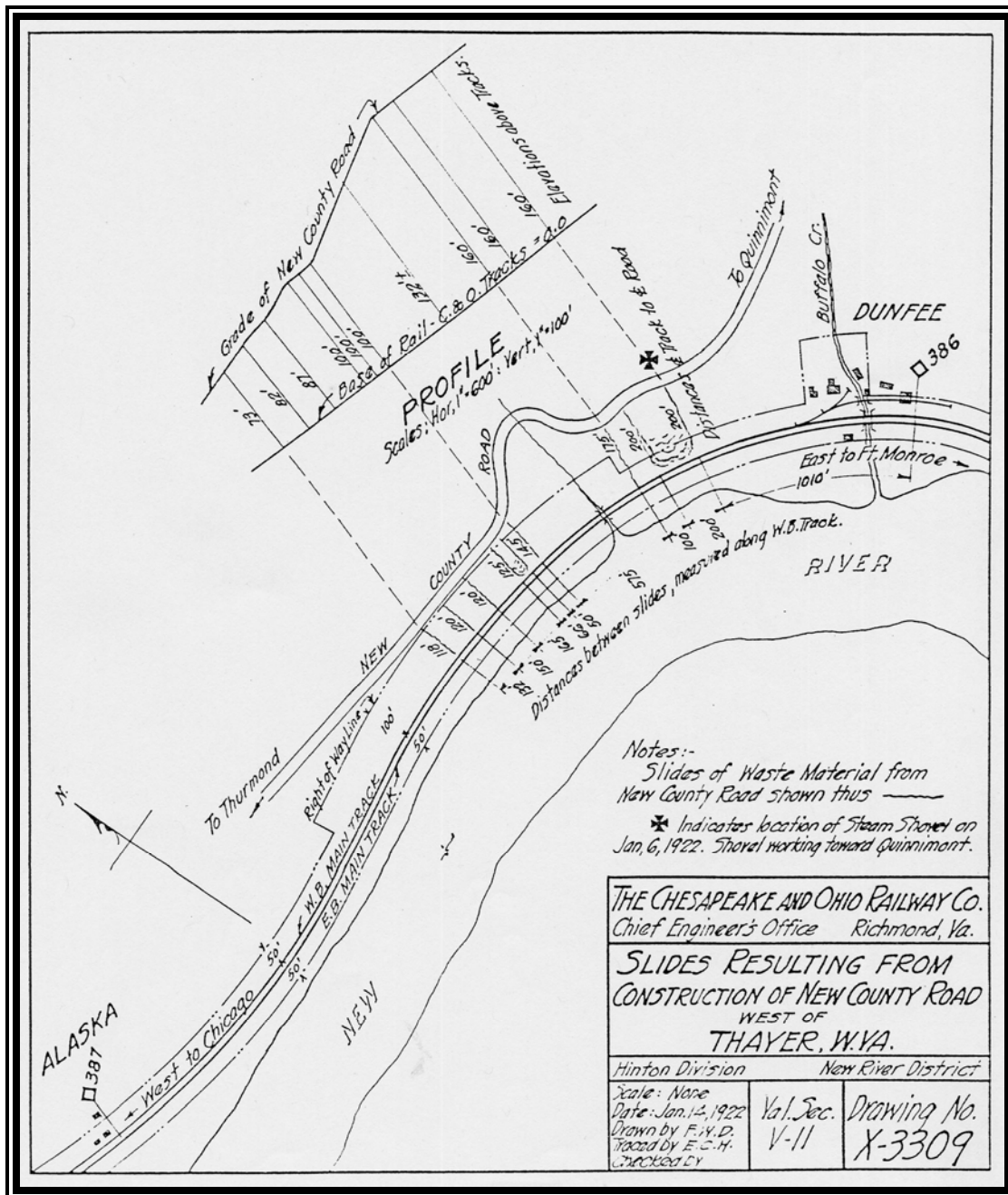


Figure 4.239. 1922 C&O map of area west of Thayer.

One of school buildings for whites was located on top of the hill, while the other for blacks was located in the bottomland. The black school was constructed in 1929. The theater at Thayer included a room big enough to seat one thousand people in front of a stage, a billiard and pool room with two tables, bowling alleys, and a refreshment room which opened both upon the main entrance way and into the hall itself (Cavalier 1985:421). The stage was flanked on either side with dressing rooms, each having running water. The seats were removable so the room could be used for dancing as well. Church services were held either in the schoolhouses or in the theater.

The miners at Thayer paid one dollar a month for coal, one dollar a month for medical services, twenty-five cents a month for the burial fund, and twenty-eight cents a month for electricity (Cavalier 1985:421). In 1919, Thayer had a population of 403 people (Figure 4.222). The New River Coal Company bought the mine in 1926 (Towns of the New River Gorge – manuscript on file at New River Gorge National River Headquarters library). The black school closed in 1956. In the 1960s, many smaller companies, such as Pugh Mining and Branch Fuel Co., worked the Thayer mines (DellaMea 2005). The post office was in operation from 1901 to 1968. The few houses that remain at Thayer today are used as summer camps.



Figure 4.240. 1918 picture of meeting at Thayer (Photo on file at New River Gorge National River Headquarters library).

Archaeological Fieldwork

The Thayer cemetery was examined by a pedestrian survey that included observing and photodocumenting any structural remains. No shovel probes were excavated at this site. The cemetery was partially mapped and photographed (Figures 4.241-244). The cemetery dates to the early twentieth century and is still active according to neighbors. One of the more recent burials dates to 1967.

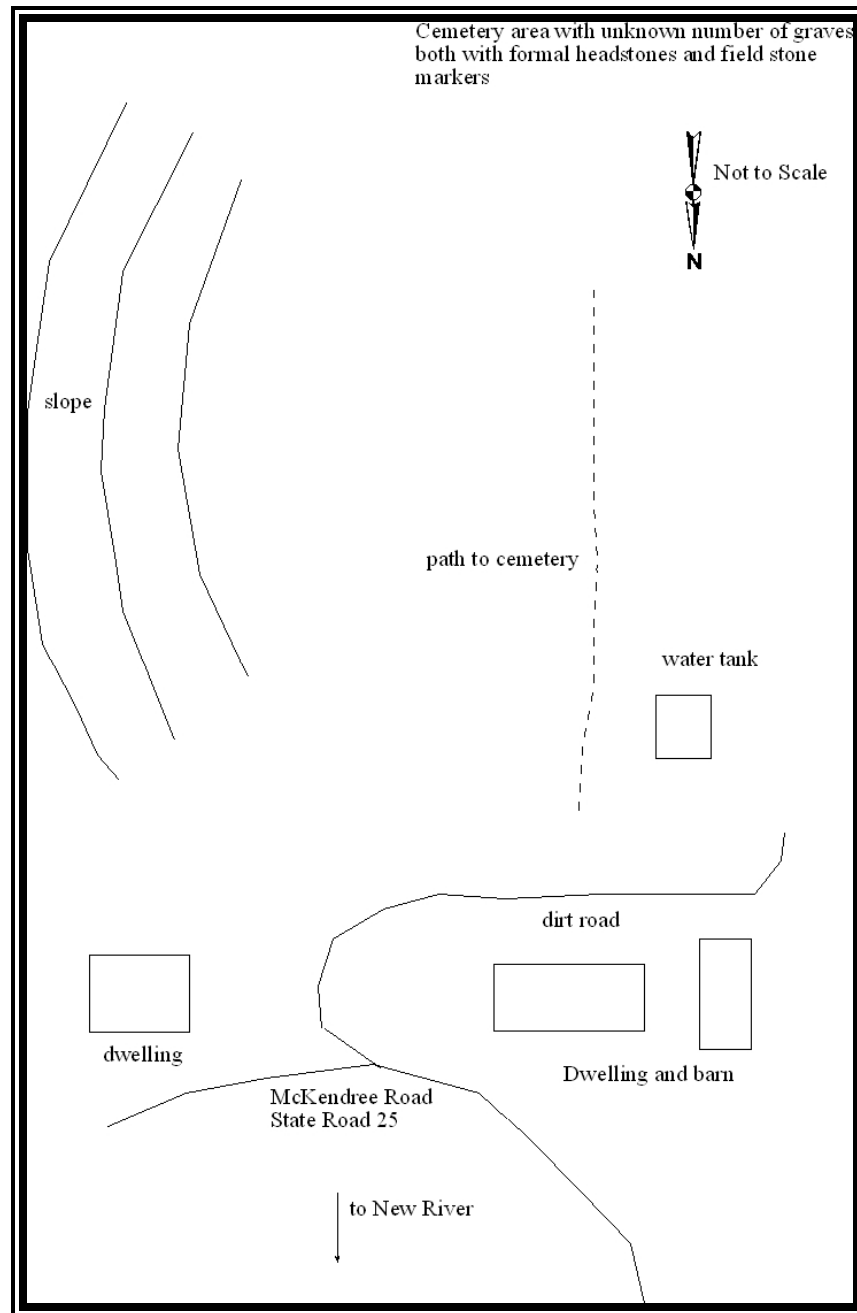


Figure 4.241. Site map of Thayer cemetery.



Figure 4.242. Thayer cemetery (see Figure 4.237(1&2)).



Figure 4.243. Upper portion of Thayer cemetery with field stone markers (see Figure 4.237(1&2)).



Figure 4.244. View of Upper Thayer dwellings from cemetery.

Artifacts Collected or Observed

No artifacts were observed or collected from the cemetery area.

Summary and Recommendations

The cemetery at Thayer is currently used, but it has received little recent upkeep. The cemetery should be thoroughly documented following the West Virginia State Historic Preservation Office's guidelines for documenting cemeteries. Routine maintenance and fencing are recommended. Archival study based on individuals interred in the cemetery would complement diachronic reconstructions of life in the associated rural coal mining town. Once this information is obtained, the National Register status of the cemetery can be evaluated.

CHAPTER 5

GARI RESOURCES

The following site descriptions include physical descriptions, photographs, historic maps, modern maps, aerial photographs, site maps, archival information if available, artifact analysis, and specific recommendations for each site.

Table 5.1. Historic sites in GARI.

| Site | Site Type | Property Type(s) | Location/ASIMS # |
|---|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|------------------|
| 1888 House | House lot | House lot | GARI/20 |
| Albion Cemetery | Cemetery | Cemetery | GARI/21 |
| Arnet Church and Cemetery | Religious, cemetery | Religious, cemetery | GARI/22 |
| Bucklick Chimney | House lot | House lot | GARI/23 |
| Carnifex Ferry, Homestead and Gristmill | Transportation, commercial, house lot | Transportation, commercial, house lot | GARI/24 |
| Clark Cemetery | Cemetery | Cemetery | GARI/2 |
| Copeland Cemetery | Cemetery | Cemetery | GARI/2 |
| Copeland School | Educational | Educational | GARI/2 |
| Koontz Bridge and Tunnel | Transportation | Transportation | GARI/2 |
| Koontz Farmstead | Farmstead | Farmstead | GARI/3 |
| Legg Farmstead | Farmstead | Farmstead | GARI/3 |
| Milam Cemetery | Cemetery | Cemetery | GARI/3 |
| Pine Grove School | Educational | Educational | GARI/3 |
| Sugar Creek | Industry | Industry | GARI/3 |
| Woods Ferry | Transportation | Transportation | GARI/3 |

1888 House

| | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Site Type: | Farmstead |
| Property Type: | Farmstead |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4230505 E 499363 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | Gauley River 500m |
| Visibility: | 0% mowed lawn |
| Site Size: | 2 acres |
| Previous Disturbance: | Agricultural |
| ASIMS # | 20 |

Site Description

The 1888 House site is a privately owned dwelling located in the Gauley River National Recreation Area, Nicholas County, West Virginia (Figures 5.1 and 5.2). The building is a five bay two and one half story frame I-house with a two story portico, side gable roof with external gable end chimneys and a two story ell addition. This site is located on a bench about 350 m to the west of the Arnet Church and cemetery on Panther Mountain Road (CR 22). The house is currently occupied and appears to be well-maintained. One small outbuilding was noted behind the house.

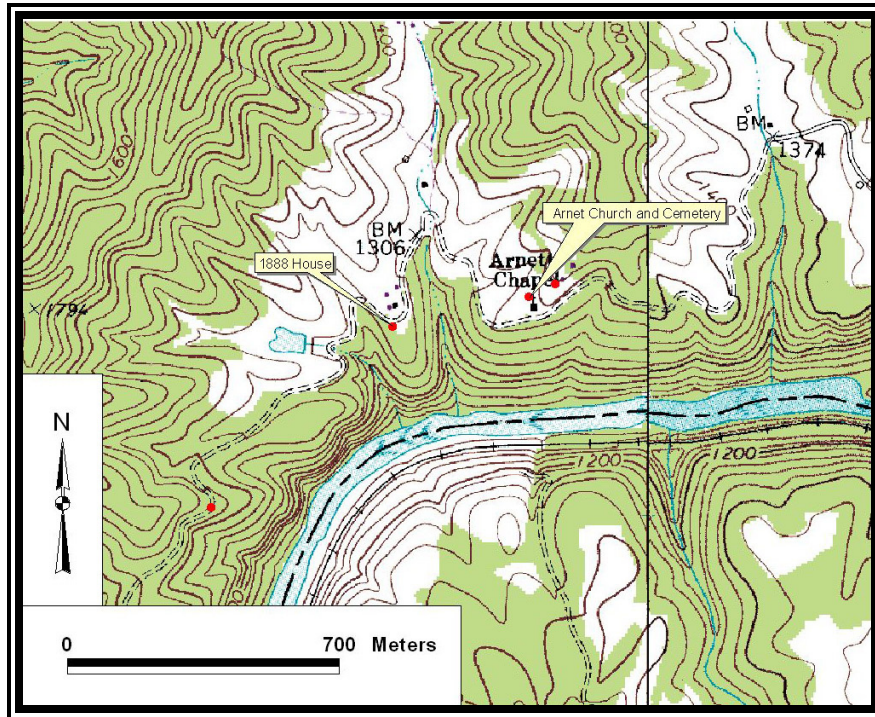


Figure 5.1. Location of 1888 House on 1976 Ansted WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map.

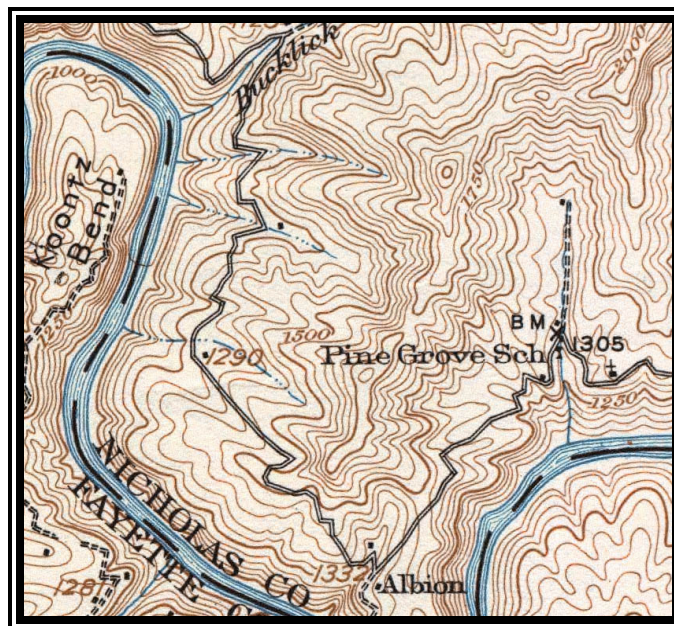


Figure 5.2. Location of 1888 House on 1928 Fayetteville WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.

Site History

No archival information was obtained about the 1888 House site. It is unknown whether the numbers, 1888, on the front of the house are an address or a date, but is assumed to be a date. The building is near the historic community of Albion and the Pine Grove School. The chimney construction resembles the chimney construction found at the remains of the Legg house (herein). Another like chimney has been noted by David Fuerst, the cultural resource specialist for the New River Gorge National River Park (Fuerst, personal communication 9/19/2007). Native stone appears to have to cut in various sizes and fit together to form the chimney (Figure 5.5). It is possible that this masonry style is unique to the area or even possibly the work of one mason.

Archaeological Fieldwork

The 1888 House site examination was limited to photo-documentation as no one was present to give permission for documentation. The house was photographed from the Panther Mountain Road (CR 22) (Figures 5.3 and 5.4).

Artifacts Collected or Observed

No artifacts were collected from this site. It should be noted that the construction of the chimney closely resembles the chimney remains present at the Legg Farm (Figure 5.5; see Legg Farm site description).



Figure 5.3. 1888 House, south view.



Figure 5.4. 1888 House chimney, east view.



Figure 5.5. Closeup of 1888 House east chimney.

Summary and Recommendations

Based on these investigations, several observations and recommendations can be made about the 1888 house site. The site represents a good example of a farmstead in the settlement in the Gauley River region.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The site is privately owned; explore the possibility of partnering with the owner to determine eligibility for listing on the National Register of Historic Places.
2. The site should be evaluated by a qualified architectural historian to determine its potential eligibility for listing on the National Register of Historic Places under criterion A, B or C. Unrau's Euro-American Settlement and Agricultural Historic Context developed for the New River Gorge can be used as a guide to help determine eligibility for listing in the National Register of Historic Places.
3. Archival work on the property should include but is not limited to a complete chain of title, tax information, census information on various owners of the property, historic maps, wills and inventories, local histories, agricultural censuses, and county road construction information.
4. If possible and given permission by the owners, to better define the nature and extent of the archaeological resources at the 1888 House, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine its eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D, it is recommended that phase I testing and mapping of the site be undertaken in conjunction with a cultural landscape inventory. This work should include systematic shovel probing across the entire site. After the site's landscape features are mapped, the goals of shovel probing should include the identification of the locations containing subsurface cultural materials and indicate their spatial relationship to building ruins and landscape features. Finally, site boundaries should be refined on the basis of historical records and the distribution of archaeological remains.
5. Depending on the results of the survey, phase II exploratory archaeological investigations may be necessary. This work should assess the integrity of cultural deposits at the farmstead by excavating several test units. The results of these kinds of investigations should produce data from which interpretations about the life of the people who lived there can be articulated.
6. The results of the above investigations, both architectural and archaeological, can and should be used to compare what we know about other locations in the Gauley River gorge. Research avenues would include, internal farmstead organization, the relationship of the farm to transportation routes, historic agriculture, and consumerism

Given the current investigations, the 1888 House site can not be evaluated for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. The recommended architectural, archaeological and archival research should be able to provide additional information on the history and significance of this site. Taken together the recommended archival research and field investigations should produce the information needed to more fully evaluate the significance of this site.

Albion Cemetery

| | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Site Type: | Cemetery |
| Property Type: | Cemetery |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4229462 E 498668 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | Gauley River 1000m |
| Visibility: | 0% mowed lawn |
| Site Size: | 0.6 acres |
| Previous Disturbance: | None |
| ASIMS # | 21 |

Site Description

The Albion cemetery site is a privately owned cemetery located in the Gauley River National Recreation Area, Nicholas County, West Virginia (Figures 5.6 and 5.7). The cemetery is associated with the historic town of Albion, of which there are no known remains. Albion was located at the north end of a ridge that joins a bench traversed by Panther Mountain Road (CR22). At this point the Gauley River forms a north–south bend around the ridge. The Albion Cemetery contains approximately 45 graves, most are formal headstones and a few are marked with rough stone markers (Figure 5.8, Table 5.1, Figures 5.9 and 5.10). A number of depressions could be unmarked graves within the boundaries of the cemetery. This cemetery is located directly to the east of the Ray Legg Farmstead.

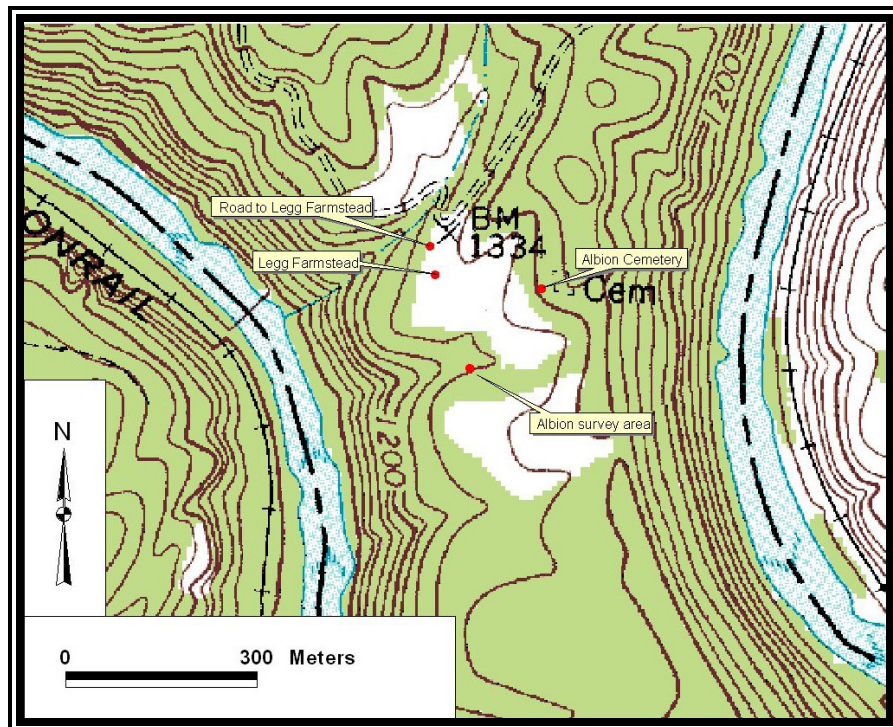


Figure 5.6. Location of Albion cemetery on 1976 Ansted WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map.

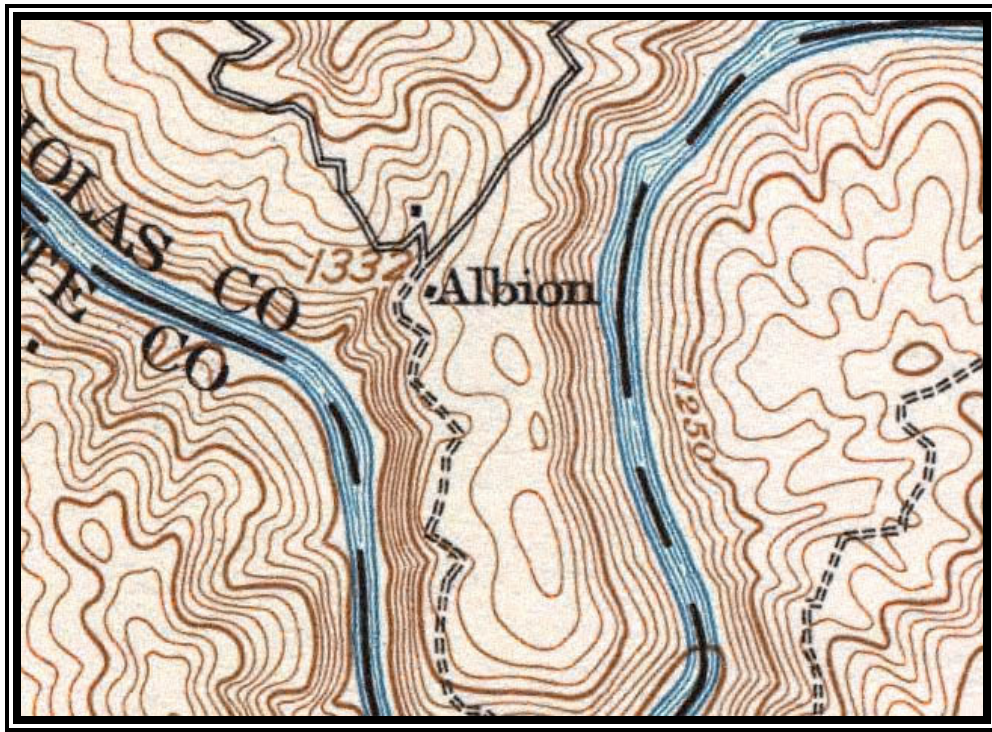


Figure 5.7. Location of Albion cemetery on 1928 Fayetteville WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.

Site History

Albion is the only town within the boundaries of the Gauley River National Recreation Area. One of the first residents of the area, Henry Hess bought 100 acres of land in the area that became Albion (Miller 1992:28). The remains of the town consists of a few foundations and the remains of the Legg Farmstead (herein) (Miller 1992:28). The town was very small and served primarily as a location for local farmers to pick up mail and shop at the small store (Miller 1992:28).

Census records were examined for those interred in the cemetery. The records reveal information about those who lived in and around the historic town of Albion. It is unknown when the cemetery was first opened. The earliest date found on headstones is 1830. Census records were examined for more information about those buried at Albion cemetery. The primary censuses examined include the 1900, 1910, 1920 and 1930 United States Federal Censuses.

The earliest census record found was in the 1870 United States Federal Census for Clark Grose (age 19) who lived with his parents Covington (age 46) and Nancy (age 42) in Jefferson Township, Nicholas County, West Virginia. The household also included George W. (age 20) and Joseph (age 9). Covington was a farmer and George and Clark were farm laborers. The value of Covington's real estate was listed as 800 dollars and his personal estate was valued at 400 dollars. Clark married Mary Catherine Dunbar on

December 30, 1873 in Nicholas County, West Virginia. Mary was born in 1851 and is also buried at Albion cemetery. The couple had a daughter, Emma E., who was born in 1879. The 1880 Census listed Clark as being a farmer living in the Township of Jefferson in Nicholas County, West Virginia.

A record for Benjamin B. Cavendish was found in the 1880 United States Federal Census. Benjamin lived from 1845 to April 18, 1894 and was a farmer. He lived in Jefferson Township, Nicholas County, West Virginia with his wife Martha A. Legg (age 28). The couple was married on February 10, 1876 in Fayette County and had two children, Charles W. (age 2) and Ermina (age 1). No death date was found for Martha. Benjamin married Mary E. Koontz on January 17, 1883 in Fayette County. No archival information was found on Mary.

Table 5.2. Formal Headstones from Albion Cemetery (also known as Legg Cemetery #1).

| Name | Date of Birth | Date of Death | Funeral Home | Comments |
|--------------------------------|---------------|----------------|--------------|---|
| Bobbitt, Eva | 1886 | 1918 | Unknown | |
| Cavendish, B. B. | | Apr. 18, 1894 | Unknown | Age 49 yrs. |
| Cavendish, Ermina Jane | 1863 | 1933 | Unknown | |
| Cavendish, Essa May | Oct. 2, 1885 | Feb. 6, 1886 | Unknown | |
| Cavendish, Everett A. | Dec. 22, 1886 | Mar. 25, 1888 | Unknown | |
| Cavendish, Harry B. | June 13, 1901 | June 27, 1908 | Unknown | Drowned. Son of J. F. & E. J. Cavendish |
| Cavendish, Joseph F. | 1859 | 1928 | Unknown | |
| Copeland, Hezekiah B. | June 18, 1830 | Aug. 20, 1914 | Unknown | |
| Copeland, Mary F. | Aug. 20, 1841 | Feb. 6, 1918 | Unknown | |
| Grose, Clark | Aug. 14, 1850 | May 12, 1896 | Unknown | |
| Grose, George | Dec. 17, 1846 | Feb. 1, 1916 | Unknown | |
| Grose, James Blaine | Jan. 7, 1893 | Mar. 13, 1976 | Unknown | USN WWI |
| Grose, Mary | Mar. 2, 1851 | May 1, 1906 | Unknown | Wife of Clark Grose |
| Grose, Melissa V. | Feb. 9, 1868 | Jan. 28, 1897 | Unknown | Wife of George Grose |
| Grose, Susan K. | 1798 | 1878 | Unknown | |
| Grose, William | 1799 | 1883 | Unknown | |
| Harrah, Thomas Orlando | Apr. 14, 1878 | Sept. 26, 1882 | Unknown | Son of J. F. & Margaret Harrah |
| Legg, Andrew Jackson | 1861 | 1950 | Unknown | Father |
| Legg, Arvin P. | Nov. 26, 1897 | June 12, 1927 | Unknown | |
| Legg, Bertha Flaherty | 1874 | 1945 | Unknown | Beloved step-mother. |
| Legg, Carl B. | Aug. 20, 1900 | Apr. 4, 1967 | Unknown | |
| Legg, Charles H. | 1839 | 1929 | Unknown | |
| Legg, Cora Bell | Nov. 28, 1867 | Nov. 10, 1956 | Unknown | Wife of Joseph Clinton Legg |
| Legg, Elizabeth Belle Burdette | 1870 | 1938 | Unknown | Wife of Andrew Jackson Legg. Mother. |
| Legg, Francis H. | May 13, 1897 | Aug. 2, 1979 | Unknown | Pvt US Army WWI |
| Legg, Harriet J. | | Nov. 14, 1884 | Unknown | Age 50 yrs.-6 mos.-7 d. Wife of Charles H. Legg |
| Legg, Ira W. | 1868 | 1945 | Unknown | |
| Legg, Joseph Clinton | 1888 | 1971 | Unknown | Brother of Francis Legg |
| Legg, Mary A. | Dec. 22, 1871 | Nov. 9, 1910 | Unknown | Wife of Ira W. Legg |

| | | | | |
|------------------------|---------------|---------------|---------|---------------------------------------|
| Legg, Raleigh Eugene | 1904 | 1932 | Unknown | |
| Legg, Rebecca | Nov. 15, 1850 | June 12, 1910 | Unknown | Wife of Charles H. Legg |
| Mason, B. W. | Mar. 13, 1906 | Oct. 19, 1939 | Unknown | |
| Renick, James A. | Aug. 7, 1822 | Apr. 2, 1907 | Unknown | |
| Renick, Margaret S. | Mar. 1, 1823 | July 22, 1906 | Unknown | |
| Waybright, John Wesley | Nov. 23, 1934 | | Unknown | Inf. son of Homer & Frances Waybright |

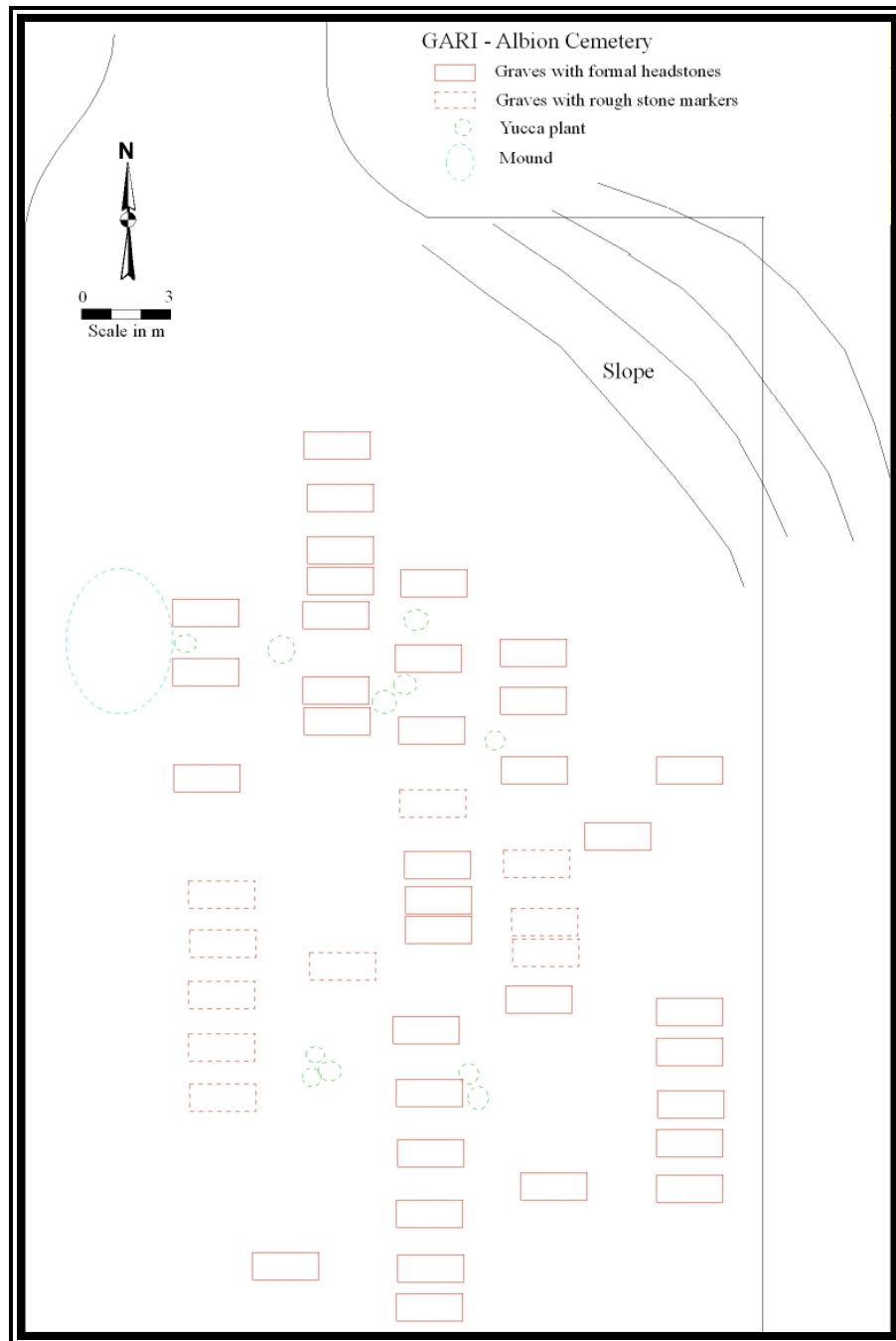


Figure 5.8. Site map of Albion cemetery.



Figure 5.9. Albion cemetery.



Figure 5.10. Grave with unreadable inscriptions at Albion cemetery.

In the 1910 United States Federal Census, a record was found for Hezekiah B. Copeland. Hezekiah lived from June 18, 1830 to August 20, 1914. He owned a farm in

Jefferson Township, Nicholas County, West Virginia. His wife Mary F. Copeland, also buried in Albion cemetery, lived from August 20, 1841 to February 6, 1918.

The West Virginia Marriage Records 1863-1900 (Dodd 2000) shows that George Grose married Melissa Copeland on April 23, 1885 in Nicholas County. Both are buried in Albion cemetery.

A record for James Blaine Grose was found in the World War I Draft Registration Cards, 1917-1918. James lived from January 7, 1893 to March 13, 1976. He was born in Albion Township, Nicholas County, West Virginia. His home address in 1917 was listed as Swiss Township and his occupation was listed as being a commercial student. The World War II Registration Cards, 1942 records show that James lived in Lockwood Township and his emergency contact was listed as Mrs. Amy Simms. His last residence was in Leivasy Township, Nicholas County, West Virginia.

A record for James A. Renick was found in the 1900 United States Federal Census. James lived from August 7, 1822 to April 2, 1907. He was a farmer who lived with his wife Margaret S. (age 77) in Jefferson Township, Nicholas County, West Virginia. The household also included the couple's son George A. (age 32) and their grandson Frederick D. Drenner (age 18). George's occupation was listed as being a farm helper while Frederick's was listed as farm laborer.

The Legg family owned a farmstead visited during the course of this study (herein) and many of the family members are buried in the Albion Cemetery (Figures 5.11 and 5.12). Records for Charles H. Legg were found in the 1870, 1880, 1900, 1910, and 1920 Censuses. Charles was a farmer who lived from 1839 to 1929. The 1880 Census listed him as living in Jefferson Township, Nicholas County, West Virginia with his wife Harriet Jane Grose (age 46). The household also included Andrew Jackson (age 19), Ermina J. (age 17), William M. (age 14), Ira W. (age 12), Elisabeth S. (age 10), Charles G. (age 8), Gideon M. (age 5), and Lilian (age 3). Harriet passed away in November 14, 1884. Charles married Rebecca Serena Hull on March 30, 1886. The 1900 Census listed the couple as living in Jefferson Township with their seven children, Ruby S. (age 13), Joseph Clinton (age 12), James C. H. (age 11), George L. D. (age 9), Georgia P. (age 8), Ava R. (age 6), and Francis H. (age 3). Rebecca passed away on June 12, 1910.

Andrew Jackson, son of Charles H. and Harriet Legg, owned a farm in Jefferson Township, Nicholas County in 1900. He married Elizabeth Belle Burdette on April 26, 1899. In 1910 the household also included Carl B. (age 9), Ethel J. (age 8), Bernice A. (age 6), William C. (age 5), and Infant Legg (age 1). Carl is buried in Albion cemetery along with his parents.

A record for Ira W. Legg, son of Charles H. and Harriet J. Legg, was found in the 1900, 1910, 1920, and 1930 United States Federal Censuses. Ira was a farmer and lived from 1868 to 1945. The 1900 Census listed Ira as living with his wife Mary A. (age 28) in Jefferson Township, Nicholas County, West Virginia. The household also included



Figure 5.11. Legg family grave in Albion cemetery.



Figure 5.12. Legg family grave in Albion cemetery.

Stanley G. (age 6), Iva F. (age 4), Arvin P. (age 3), and Beaver Ellsworth (age 17), a servant. The 1910 Census listed five more children, Arley (age 10), Ray (age 7), Raleigh E. (age 6), Artie (age 4), and Mazie A. (age 1). No servants were listed. Mary passed away in 1910. The 1920 Census listed Ira as widowed with seven children. In the 1930 Census, Ira is married to Bertha M. Flaherty (age 55). Ray and Raleigh are listed as living with the couple. Raleigh's wife, Mary G. (age 23) and their child Orvin P. (age 2) also lived with them. Ira, Mary A., Bertha, Arvin, and Raleigh are all buried in Albion cemetery.

Records for Joseph Clinton Legg were found in the 1900, 1910, and 1930 Censuses. In 1900 and 1910, Joseph still lived with his parents Charles H. and Rebecca Legg. In 1930, Joseph (age 42) and his brother Francis (age 33) lived together in Jefferson Township, Nicholas County, West Virginia and were farmers. In the World War I Draft Cards, 1917-1918, Joseph was listed as being born in Albion Township, Nicholas County. A record for Joseph was also found in the Social Security Death Index and his last residence was listed as the Township of Summersville in Nicholas County. He was married to Cora Bell Legg, but no archival information was found. A record for Francis was found in the Social Security Death Index; it listed his last residence as Ansted Township, Fayette County, West Virginia.

On March 18, 1882 Ermina Jane Legg (age 19), daughter of Charles H. and Harriet, married Joseph Finley Cavendish (age 23). In the 1900 United States Federal Census, the couple was listed as living in Jefferson Township, Nicholas County, West Virginia. The household also included Lolla A. (age 17), Theodore A. (age 16), Otie F. (age 14), Oliver D. (age 11), Levina M. (age 9), Leora B. (age 6), Orbin M. (age 4), and Leoma L. (age 2). The 1910 Census listed Joseph (age 52), Ermina (age 48), Oliver (age 21), Levina (age 18), Leora (age 16), Orbin (age 13), Leoma (age 10), and Lethia (age 5) as living in Jefferson Township, Nicholas County.

A record for Hezekiah Copeland was found in the 1880 United States Federal Census. Hezekiah (age 50) and his wife Mary (age 39) lived in Falls Township, Fayette County, West Virginia. The household also included Arthur C. (age 21), Elmor E. (age 17), Cornelia J. (age 14), Viola M. (age 11), Arabella (age 7), Mary J. (age 5), Melvina (age 3), Ida M. (age 2), and Hezekiah's nephew Joseph E. Simpson (age 22). The 1900 and 1910 Censuses listed Hezekiah and Mary as living in Jefferson Township, Nicholas County with no children.

Archaeological Fieldwork

The Albion cemetery site was examined by pedestrian survey that involved observing and photodocumenting the cemetery. The location of the known graves were mapped (Figure 5.8) and information was collected on all of the legible headstones (Table 5.1). Because many of the graves are marked with fieldstones, there are several gaps in the rows of known graves, and there are several isolated graves. Therefore this cemetery probably contains a large number of unmarked graves.

Artifacts Collected or Observed

No artifacts were collected or observed at the Albion cemetery.

Summary and Recommendations

Based on these investigations, several observations and recommendations can be made for future investigation of the Albion cemetery site. The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Park should support the preservation of the cemetery.
2. The West Virginia Cemetery Survey, associated with the West Virginia State Historic Preservation Office, has cemetery survey forms that should be completed for the Albion Cemetery. These forms are available at <http://www.wvculture.org/shpo/cemeteries.html>
3. In order to better define the nature and extent of the burials at this site, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, it is recommended that a more intensive assessment and cultural landscape inventory be conducted. The feasibility of a geophysical examination of the cemetery should be explored. Geophysical examination may help identify the boundaries of the cemetery and unmarked graves.
4. The results of the above investigations can and should be used to compare what we know about other cemeteries in the Gauley River valley. Once accomplished, such comparisons should be made in view of the relationship(s) that such settlements had with other communities in the Gauley valley and in the surrounding area.
5. We recommend additional and more intensive archival work on the settlement and the people who lived and worked near Albion, particularly the Legg family.

Cemeteries are not usually considered eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. If a cemetery is associated with historic events, include significant examples of funerary architecture and contain important information about the past, they may be considered for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places. Cemeteries not in association with any other eligible property, must meet one of the four main Criteria as well as one of two additional criteria considerations. The recommended intensive assessment and cultural landscape inventory will provide enough information to determine eligibility of the Albion Cemetery.

Arnet Church and Cemetery

| | |
|---------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| Site Type: | Historic church and cemetery |
| Property Types: | Religious, cemetery |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4230581 E 499712 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | Gauley River 320m |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | 5 acres |
| Previous Disturbance: | Renovation |
| ASIMS # | 22 |

Site Description

The Arnet Church and Cemetery is located in the Gauley River National Recreation Area, Nicholas County, West Virginia (Figures 5.13 and 5.14). Both are located on Panther Mountain Road (CR 22). The cemetery was documented by Neva Stout Bryant in 2001 (Table 5.3). This site is located about 350 m to the west of the 1888 House. Arnet is spelled a number of different ways; Arnet, Arnette, and Arnett. This document will use Arnet as that is the spelling currently used above the doors of the church.

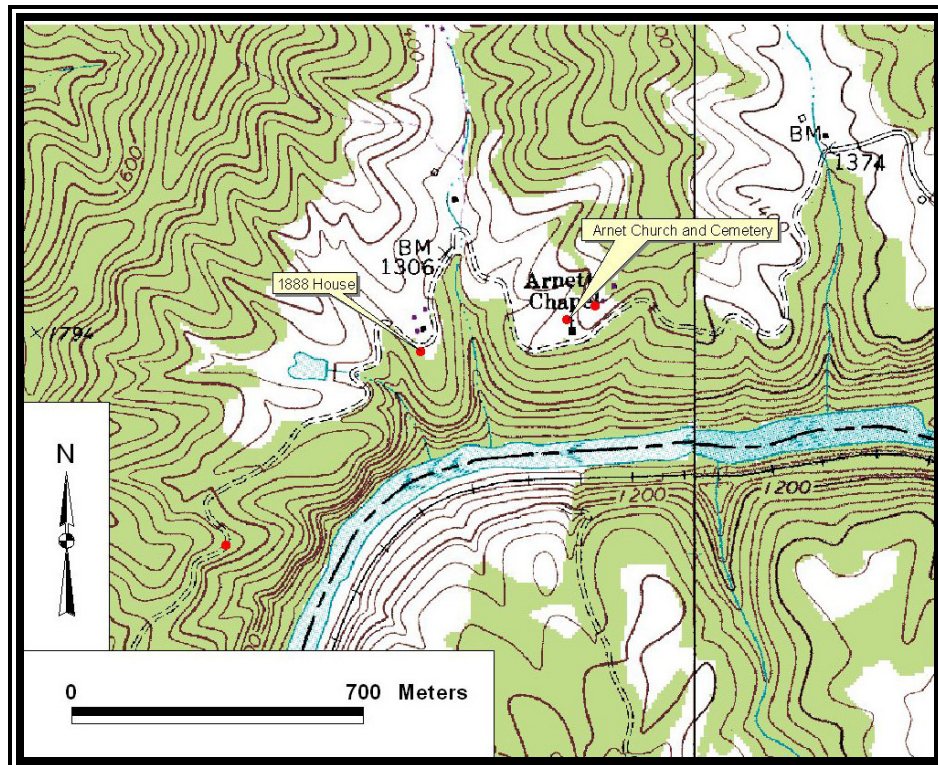


Figure 5.13. Location of Arnet Church and Cemetery on 1976 Ansted WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map.



Figure 5.14. Location of Arnet Church and Cemetery on 1928 Fayetteville WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.

Site History

No archival information was found for the Arnet Church. While the church may date to the late nineteenth or early twentieth centuries, the majority of the burials in the cemetery took place in the later part of the twentieth century (Bryant 2001). The cemetery is still in active use.

The Arnet Church is part of the farming communities located along Panther Mountain Road (CR 22), along with the historic town of Albion. Small farms and orchards were common in the area, situated on the bluffs over what is called the 'Bends of the Gauley' (Miller 1992:27).

Census records were examined for more information about those buried at Arnet Church cemetery. The primary censuses examined include the 1900, 1910, 1920 and 1930 United States Federal Censuses. The earliest record found was in the 1900 United States Federal Census for George Henry Keenan who lived with his parents Wesley W. (age 31) and Elizabeth A. (age 35) Keenan in Grant Township, Nicholas County, West Virginia. Wesley and Elizabeth Keenan are not buried in the Arnet Cemetery. The Keenan

household also included Alferd R. (age 9), Sarah E. (age 7), and Nancy L. (age 5). Wesley's occupation was listed as farmer and Elizabeth's was listed as house keeping. In the 1910 Census, records were found for George and his wife Martha Jane (age 34) and their four children Ina A. (age 7), Ira G. (age 6), Oscar D. (age 4), and Mary E. (age 2). George, Martha Jane, Ira and Oscar are all buried in the Arnet Church cemetery. A lodger also lived with the family by the name of Harney Nichals (age 23). George's occupation was listed as farmer. The boarder's occupation was listed as farm laborer. The 1920 Census records the family living in Jefferson Township, Nicholas County, West Virginia. The couple had two more children, William H. (age 9) and Mattie M. (age 6). Harney Nichals no longer lived with them. The Social Security Death Index lists George's last residence as Mount Nebo Township, Nicholas County, West Virginia.

Table 5.3. Formal Headstones from Arnet Church cemetery.

| Name | Date of Birth | Date of Death | Funeral Home | Comments |
|-------------------------|----------------|---------------|---------------------|---|
| Auxier, Esta M. | Mar. 27, 1921 | Feb. 18, 1991 | | |
| Auxier, Eula E. "Evie" | 1954 | | | Wife of Lloyd Auxier. Married July 6, 1970. Together Forever. |
| Auxier, Lloyd Lamon | July 18, 1948 | July 14, 1993 | | SP5 US Army, Vietnam |
| Auxier, Margaret J. | 1927 | | | Mother. Wife of Walter Auxier. Married Dec. 7, 1942 |
| Auxier, Walter L. | 1923 | 1988 | | Father |
| Camp, Adaline V. | 1900 | 1965 | | |
| Camp, Martha Ellen | 1891 | 1965 | Waters Funeral Home | |
| Griffin, George Howard | Oct. 31, 1896 | Oct. 15, 1995 | | PVT US Army World War I |
| Griffin, Nora M. | Sept. 22, 1902 | Oct. 15, 1993 | | In God's Care. Wife. |
| Hanks, Floyd Monroe | Oct. 5, 1883 | May 1964 | Waters Funeral Home | Father |
| Hanks, Gladys N. | Oct. 13, 1938 | | | Wife of James Hanks. Married Dec. 12, 1955 |
| Hanks, James Edward | June 13, 1935 | July 8, 1994 | Waters Funeral Home | |
| Hanks, Jessie F. | 1926 | | | Wife of Paul Hanks. |
| Hanks, Paul M. | Aug. 16, 1919 | Apr. 1987 | | In Loving Memory |
| Hanks, Sallie Elizabeth | 1893 | 1953 | Waters Funeral Home | Mother. Wife of Floyd Hanks. |
| Keenan, George Henry | Apr. 2, 1880 | June 15, 1966 | | Thy Kingdom Come, Thy Will Be Done |
| Keenan, Harrison | 1910 | 1963 | | |
| Keenan, Ira G. | 1904 | 1958 | | Son of George & Martha Keenan |
| Keenan, Martha Jane | 1876 | 1951 | | Wife of George Keenan |
| Keenan, Oscar Dennis | July 8, 1906 | Jan. 1985 | | Son of George & Martha Keenan |
| Norman, Mae V. | Sept. 30, 1915 | July 20, 1989 | | Mother. Wife of Warren Norman. Married Nov. 12, 1939 |
| Norman, Warren W. | Dec. 15, 1915 | Dec. 31, 1991 | | Father |
| Renick, Robert | Jan. 18, 1910 | Jan. 23, 1910 | | Son of J. E. & S. Renick |

A record was found in the 1930 Census for Paul Hanks who lived with his parents Loyd (age 46) and Sadie (age 36). The household also included Ethel (age 17), Joseph (age 13), Ruth (age 8), and Rachel (age 3). The family lived in Falls Township, Fayette County, West Virginia. A record was also found for Paul in the Social Security Death Index. Paul lived from August 16, 1919 to April 1987. His social security number was issued in West Virginia before 1951. His last residence was listed as being in Poe Township, Nicholas County, West Virginia.

A record for George H. Griffin was found in the Social Security Death Index. George lived from October 31, 1896 to October 15, 1995. His social security number was issued in West Virginia before 1951. His last residence was listed as Drennen Township, Nicholas County, West Virginia. A record for George was also found in the U.S. World War II Draft Registration Cards, 1942. George was born in Clay County, West Virginia and was employed by C. D. Backus in Vaughan, West Virginia. George's wife Nora M. Griffin was also listed in the Social Security Death Index. Nora lived from September 22, 1902 to October 15, 1993.

A record for Esta H. Auxier was found in the Social Security Death Index. Esta lived from March 27, 1921 to February 18, 1991. Her social security number was issued in North Carolina or West Virginia before 1951.

A record for Walter L. Auxier was found in the Social Security Death Index. Walter lived from March 22, 1923 to March 1988. His social security number was issued in West Virginia before 1951. His last residence was listed as being in Poe Township, Nicholas County, West Virginia. Walter's wife Margaret is also buried in the Arnet Church cemetery, but no archival information was found.

A record for Floyd M. Hanks was found in the U.S. World War II Draft Registration Cards, 1942. Floyd lived from October 5, 1883 to May 1964. He was born in Grayson County, Virginia and was a farmer. He lived in Tipton Township, Nicholas County, West Virginia with his wife Sally.

A record for James E. Hanks was found in the Social Security Death Index. James lived from June 13, 1935 to July 9, 1994. His social security number was issued in West Virginia in 1956. His last residence was listed as being in Keslers Cross Lanes Township, Nicholas County, West Virginia.

A record was found for Mae V. Norman in the Social Security Death Index. Mae lived from September 30, 1915 to July 20, 1989. Her social security number was issued in West Virginia before 1951. Her last residence was listed as being in Mount Nebo Township, Nicholas County, West Virginia.

Archaeological Fieldwork

The Arnet Church and cemetery site was examined by pedestrian survey (Figures 5.15-17). The cemetery is located northeast of the church and is enclosed by a modern chain link fence. Pedestrian survey included observing and photodocumenting the church and cemetery. The cemetery was not mapped as most of the burials are very recent and the cemetery is active. There is a possibility that unmarked graves could be present as the area enclosed by the chain link fence is much larger than the area occupied by marked burials.



Figure 5.15. Arnet Church.



Figure 5.16. Arnet cemetery.



Figure 5.17. Headstones at Arnet cemetery.

Artifacts Collected or Observed

No artifacts were collected at this site.

Summary and Recommendations

Based on these investigations, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Arnet Church and Cemetery. This site represents a good example of religious property type in the Gauley region. The Arnet Church and Cemetery are related to the growth and development of the Gauley region and the desire for more institutionalized religion.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Park should support the preservation of the church and cemetery.
2. The West Virginia Cemetery Survey, associated with the West Virginia State Historic Preservation Office, has cemetery survey forms that should be completed for the Arnet Cemetery. These forms are available at <http://www.wvculture.org/shpo/cemeteries.html>
3. The Arnet Church should be evaluated by an architectural historian.
4. In order to better define the nature and extent of the burials at this site, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, it is recommended that a more intensive assessment and cultural landscape inventory be conducted. The feasibility of a geophysical examination of the cemetery should be explored. Geophysical

examination may help identify the boundaries of the cemetery and unmarked graves.

5. The results of the above investigations can and should be used to compare what we know about other cemeteries in the Gauley River valley. Once accomplished, such comparisons should be made in view of the relationship(s) that such settlements had with other communities in the Gauley valley and in the surrounding area. Research topics include community religion, development and social interactions within the community.
6. We recommend additional and more intensive archival work on the settlement and the people who lived and worked near the church. Because the church is still active, oral histories may be available, this possibility should be explored.

Cemeteries are not usually considered eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. If a cemetery is associated with historic events, include significant examples of funerary architecture and contain important information about the past, they may be considered for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places. Cemeteries not in association with any other eligible property, must meet one of the four main Criteria as well as one of two additional criteria considerations. The recommended intensive assessment and cultural landscape inventory will provide enough information to determine eligibility of the Arnet Cemetery.

Bucklick Chimney

| | |
|---------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Site Type: | possible house lot, education site |
| Property Type: | possible house lot, education site |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4232842 E 498982 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | Bucklick Branch 10m |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | Unknown |
| Previous Disturbance: | Demolition |
| ASIMS # | 23 |

Site Description

The Bucklick Chimney site is the remains of a house lot that is located just outside the boundaries the Gauley River National Recreation Area, Nicholas County, West Virginia (Figures 5.18 and 5.19). The site is within the Bucklick Branch drainage and represents the remains of early housing in the area. The remains of the chimney are similar to the chimneys found at the 1888 House and the Legg Farmstead.

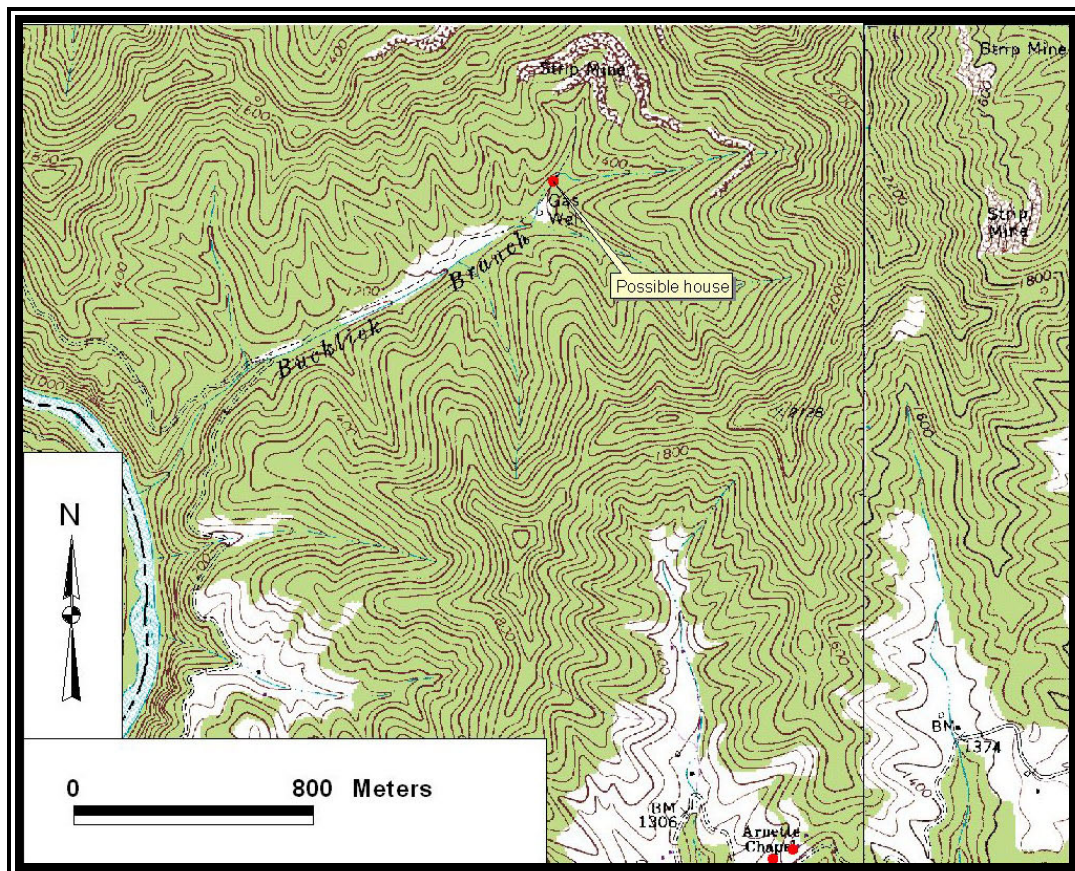


Figure 5.18. Location of Bucklick Chimney on 1976 Ansted WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map.

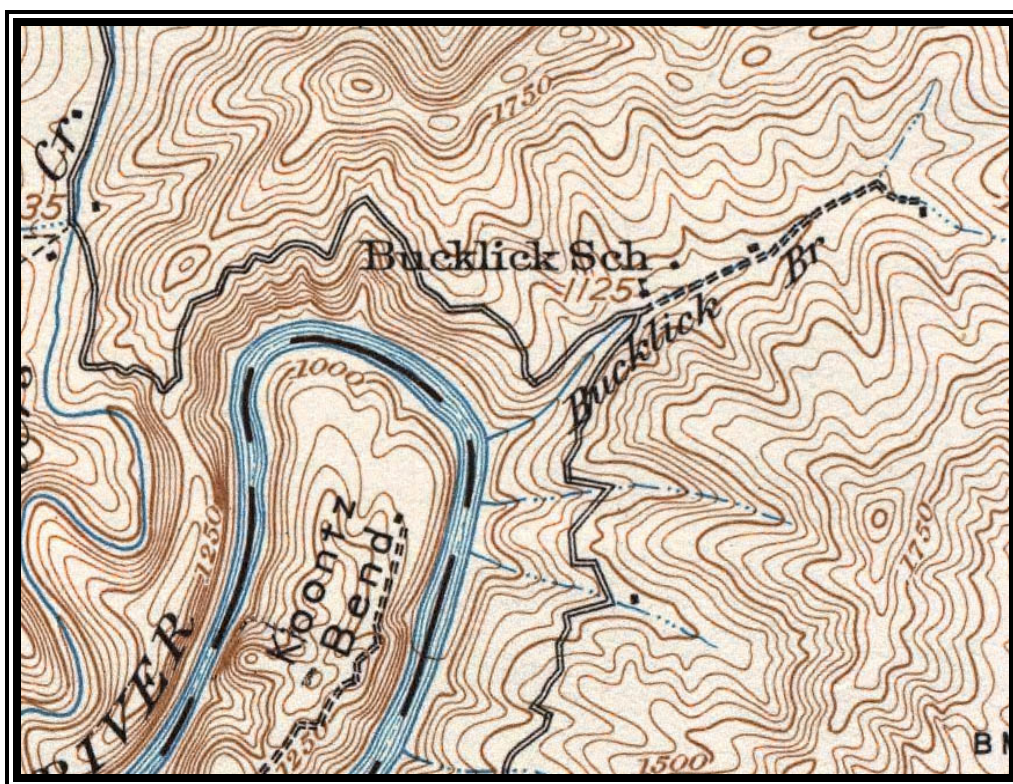


Figure 5.19. Location of Bucklick Chimney on 1928 Fayetteville WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.

Site History

No archival information was obtained about the settlement in Bucklick. A historical school was listed by WVMaps.com 2005. The location of that school is also shown on the 1928 Fayetteville WV USGS 15' Topographic Map (Figure 5.19). It is unclear whether the remains documented for this study could be the remains of the school or the remains of dwelling.

Archaeological Fieldwork

The Bucklick Chimney site was examined by pedestrian survey that included observing, mapping and photodocumenting any structural remains (Figures 5.20 and 5.21).

Artifacts Collected or Observed

A fragment of melted clear container glass was recovered from the Bucklick Chimney site (Table 5.4). Before 1864, clear glass was produced by adding lead to the glass mixture. However, the advent of colorless soda-lime glass in 1864 was far more economical and became the most common method of glass decolorization (McKearin and

McKearin 1948:8). This method was first used on pressed glass, and later on bottles. Clear bottle glass decolorized with this technique dates from 1880 to the present (Newman 1970:74). Although this specimen is melted and is not particularly temporally diagnostic, it most likely dates to the twentieth century. Given the foundation remains and container glass, this site could be the remains of a house lot or a small school.

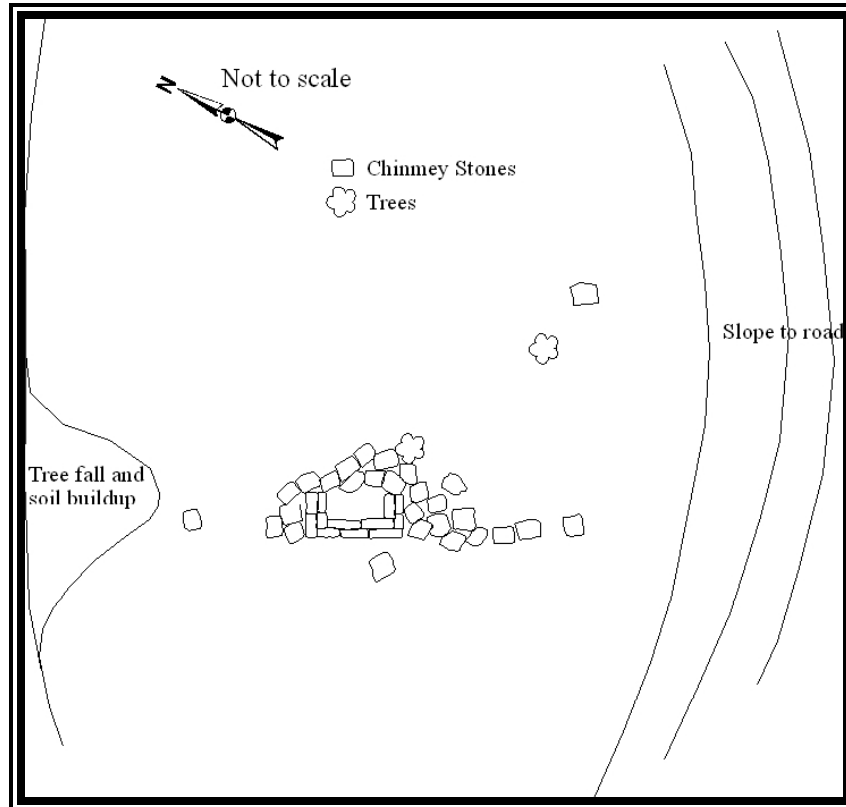


Figure 5.20. Site map of Bucklick Chimney site.



Figure 5.21. Bucklick Chimney remains looking south.

Table 5.4. Artifacts Recovered from Bucklick Chimney Site.

| Context | Provenience | Artifact Class/Subclass | # | Comments |
|---------|----------------------------|-------------------------|---|----------|
| 108 | Bucklick Chimney – surface | Container glass | 1 | Melted |

Summary and Recommendations

Based on these investigations, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Bucklick Chimney site. The site is associated with settlement of the Gauley River region and development of communities in this area.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Bucklick Chimney site is on private property. The owner should be located. The Park and the property owner should work in concert to investigate and preserve the site.
2. More archival work should be conducted on the site including but not limited to a full chain of title, census records, death and marriage records, and tax records for property owners, county road construction records, and school records.
3. If given permission by the owners, it is recommended that phase I testing and mapping of the site be undertaken in conjunction with a cultural landscape inventory. This should be done to better define the nature and extent of the archaeological resources at the Bucklick Chimney site, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine its eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D. This work should include systematic shovel probing across the entire site. After the site's landscape features are mapped, the goals of shovel probing should include the identification of the locations containing subsurface cultural materials and indicate their spatial relationship to building ruins and landscape features. Finally, site boundaries should be refined on the basis of historical records and the distribution of archaeological remains.
4. Depending on the results of the survey, phase II exploratory archaeological investigations may be necessary. This work should assess the integrity of cultural deposits at the farmstead by excavating several test units. The results of these kinds of investigations should produce data from which interpretations about the life of the people who lived there can be articulated.
5. The results of the above investigations can and should be used to compare what we know about this site to other locations in the Gauley River valley and the

surrounding area, particularly the Copeland and Pine Grove Schools, as well as the small structures in the Koontz bend area.

Based on the information gained for this study, the Bucklick Chimney site is not considered potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D at this time. When the recommended archival and archaeological work can be completed, a determination of eligibility for listing in the National Register of Historic Places can be made.

Carnifex Ferry, Homestead and Gristmill

| | |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| Site Type: | Commercial, house lot |
| Property Types: | House lot, commercial, transportation |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4227038 E 504760 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | Gauley River 25m |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | 34 acres |
| Previous Disturbance: | Demolition |
| ASIMS # | 24 |

Site Description

The Carnifex Ferry site is located in the Gauley River National Recreation Area, Fayette County, West Virginia (Figures 5.22 and 5.23). The site is privately owned and is located at the confluence of the Meadow and Gauley Rivers. The site consists of the remains of old roads, the ferry landing, and building and dwelling foundations. Among the later is the foundation of a possible mill located along Meadow River upstream from the other structures (Figure 5.24). The other observed foundations may be the remains of houses, a tavern, and outbuildings. A cemetery, which is reported to be located on Sunday Road (CR 4) near Ramsey, about one-half mile above the mouth of the Meadow River, is reported to have been associated with the Carnifex Ferry site. During the course of this study, this cemetery could not be relocated. Fortunately, it was documented in 1984 by Mrs. Richard Ashley, who noted that there were many sunken graves and missing markers, with only nine legible stones remaining (Table 5.5).

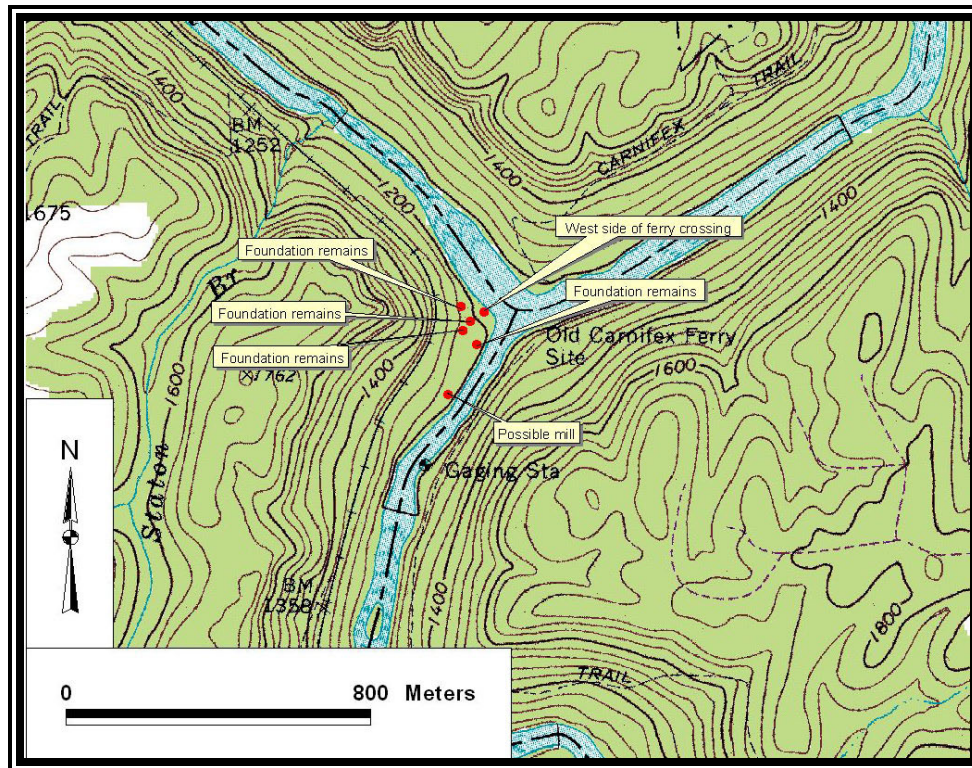


Figure 5.22. Location of Carnifex Ferry on 1976 Summersville Dam USGS 7.5' Topographic Map.

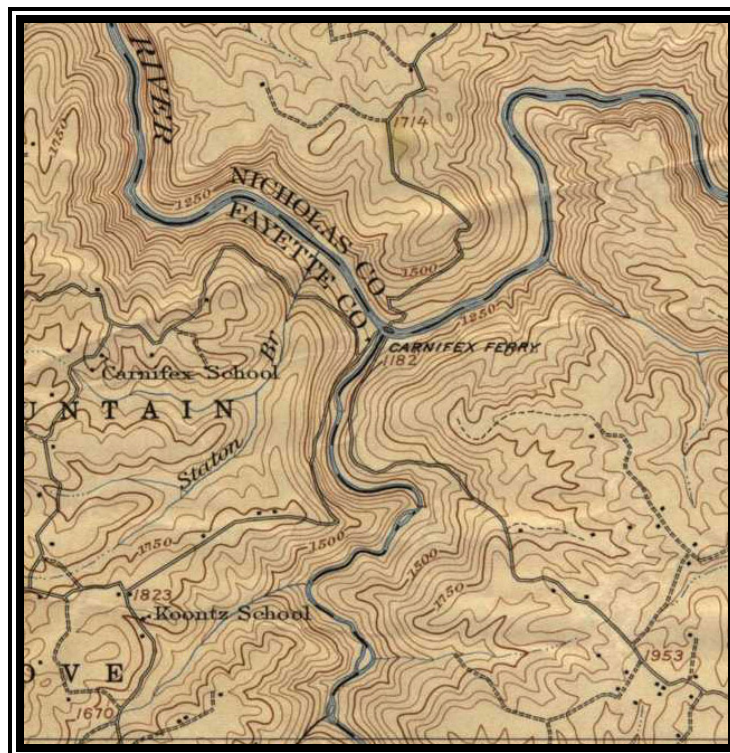


Figure 5.23. Location of Carnifex Ferry on 1914 Winona WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.

Table 5.5. Formal Headstones from Carnifex cemetery*.

| Name | Date of Birth | Date of Death | Comments |
|----------------------|---------------|----------------|--|
| Carnifex, William | | Sept. 9, 1856 | Age 73 years-10 months-24 days |
| Koontz, Augustus F. | Apr. 22, 1882 | Mar. 14, 1892 | 4th son of J. R. & Rhoda J. Koontz. "Early plucked, Early Bliss" |
| Koontz, Rhoda Jane | Apr. 8, 1850 | May 30, 1886 | Wife of J. R. Koontz. "Wife & Mother" |
| McCutcheon, Isaac T. | | July 20, 1866 | Age 34 years-10 months |
| McCutcheon, Nancy J. | | July 12, 1866 | Age 23 years-1 month-14 days |
| McVey, Martha V. | | Aug. 14, 1866 | Age 18 years-5 months-11 days |
| McVey, Elizabeth M. | | Sept. 12, 1863 | Age 52 years-6 months-22 days |
| McVey, William S. | | Sept. 6, 1866 | Age 64 years-3 months-15 days |
| McVey, William C. | | Nov. 22, 1860 | Age 17 years-7 months-11 days |

* collected by Mrs. Richard Ashley (1984)

Site History

Miller (1992) relates that the area was settled by the Carnifex, Patterson and McVey families, who were connected through business endeavors and marriage. The site once contained a substantial complex of buildings including, a tavern, small hotel, mill, sugar house, store, coal house and the domestic structures of the families living in the area (Miller 1992:23).(Figures 5.24 and 5.25).

Some archival research located a William Carnifex from Fayette County, West Virginia who enlisted in the Confederate Army, serving Virginia on March 17, 1864 (Historical Data Systems 1999). No other information for Carnifex was found. However, under a different spelling, a Carnefix family is listed in the 1860 US Census. The family lived in District 3, Fayette, West Virginia and Mountain Cove was the listed post office. The family included, B. H. Carnefix (age 55), William A. (age 14), Rhoda (age 11), Geneal [sic] (age 8), David S. (age 6), Nancy E. (age 4) and Martha S (age 2). Bill Carnefix was listed as a farmer with real estate valued at \$200 and a personal estate valued at \$200.

The next entry in the census is for the McVey family. William S. McVey (age 59) was a merchant, with real estate valued at \$2000 and a personal estate valued at \$1000. He lived with his wife and children, Elizabeth (age 48), William C. (age 18), and Martha (age 12). Also in the household was James McVey (age 48), a master carpenter and possibly his children, Mary (age 15) and Amanda (age 13).

The entry following the McVeys is for the Platt family. Nancy Carnefix (age 68) was listed first in the household and her occupation was possibly governess, although the handwriting makes it difficult to decipher. The Platt family includes Rhoda Platt (age 41), also listed as governess, R.N. Platt (age 27), a farmer with real estate valued at

\$1200 and a personal estate valued at \$50, William A. Platt (age 7), Henry W. Platt (age 5) and David S. Platt (age 3). The remainder of the census page also delineates a number of women as governesses. This entry has been crossed out and “wife” inserted above. It is likely that Nancy Carnifax was related to the Platts as a parent, inlaw or grandparent.

The 1880 Census listed Rhoda Jane Koontz (age 30) who lived with her husband Jacob R. (age 27) in Mountain Cove Township, Fayette County, West Virginia. The couple had three children, Francis J. (age 4), Samuel D. (age 2), and George M. C. (age 1). A fourth child, Augustus, was born in 1882 and is buried in Carnifax cemetery. Jacob’s occupation was listed as schoolteacher while Rhoda’s was listed as house keeping. Rhoda’s maiden name was Rhoda J. Carnifax. The couple was married on February 5, 1874 in Fayette County.

The ferry crossed both the Meadow and Gauley Rivers, providing connections to the east side of the Meadow and the north side of the Gauley. Ferry crossings in the Gauley River valley were important to transportation of both people and goods prior to the coming of the railroad. During construction of the railroad, Carnifax Ferry provided lodging and a tavern for those working on the railroad. During the Civil War, Carnifax Ferry proved to be a key point in the West Virginia theatre.

The site is south of the Carnifax Ferry Battlefield State Park, which is not part of the Gauley River National Recreation. The state park is dedicated to the interpretation of the Battle of Carnifax Ferry which occurred in the early days of the Civil War on September 10, 1861. Union troops led by Brigadier General William S. Rosecrans advanced against the Confederates camped on Henry Patterson’s farm overlooking Carnifax ferry. The Confederates retreated south across the Gauley River during the night. While the results were inconclusive, the battle marked the failure of the Confederates to regain control of the Kanawha valley and allowed the movement for West Virginia statehood to proceed without major interference from the Confederates.

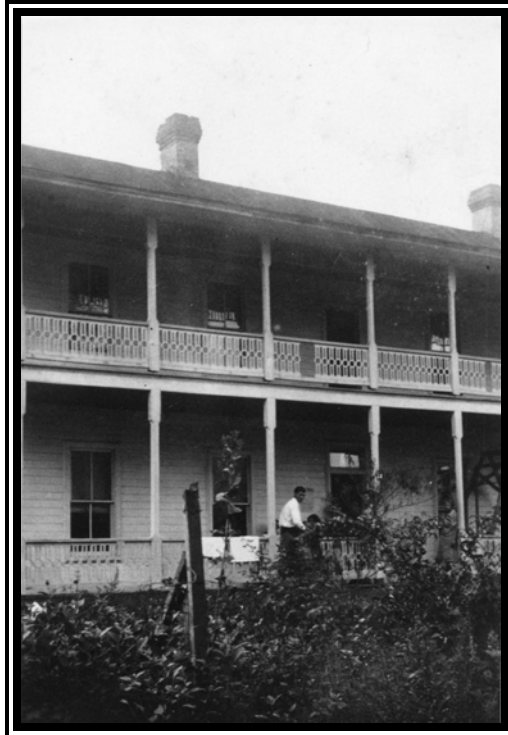


Figure 5.24. Patterson house at Carnifex Ferry (Photo on file at New River Gorge National River Park Headquarters library).



Figure 5.25 View of Carnifex Ferry (Photo on file at New River Gorge National River Park Headquarters library).

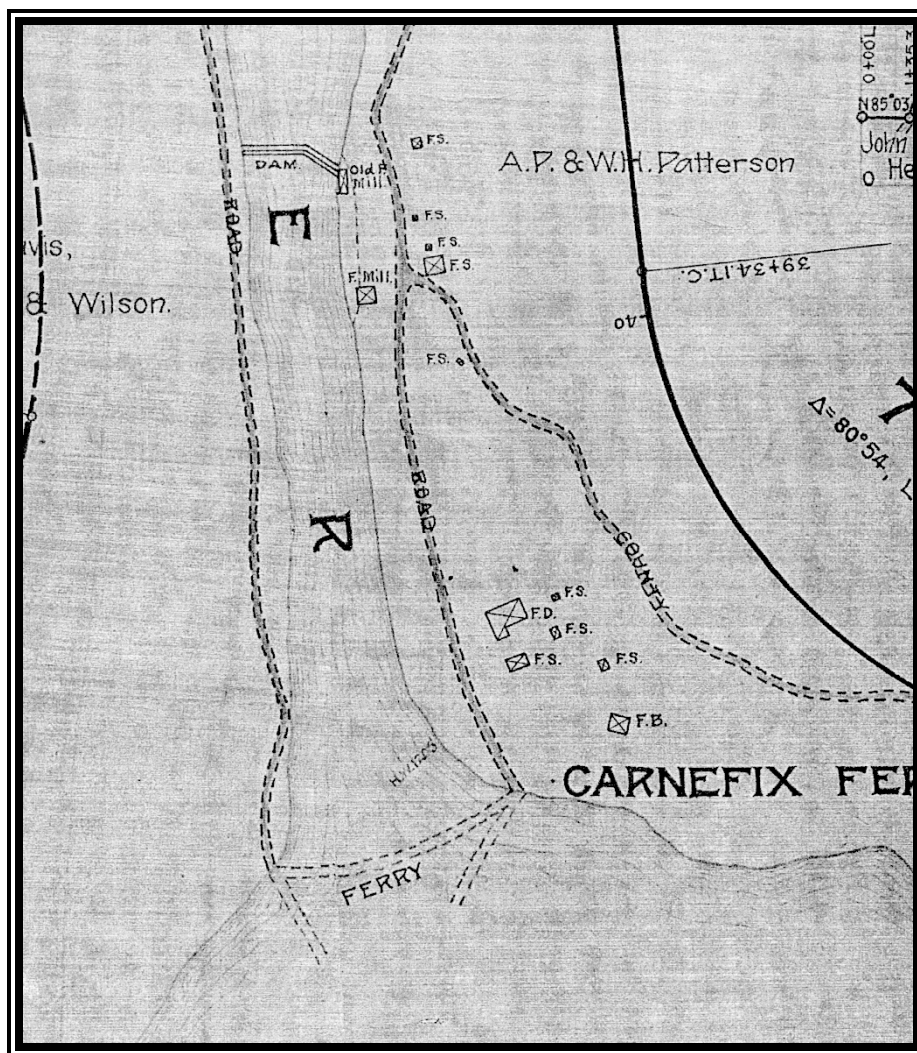


Figure 5.26. Carnefix [sic] Ferry plan and profile by the Atlantic and Western Railroad Company 1919 (On file at the New River Gorge National River Park Headquarters Library).

Archaeological Fieldwork

The Carnifex Ferry site was examined by pedestrian survey. Pedestrian survey included observing, mapping and photodocumenting any structural remains (Figures 5.27-35).

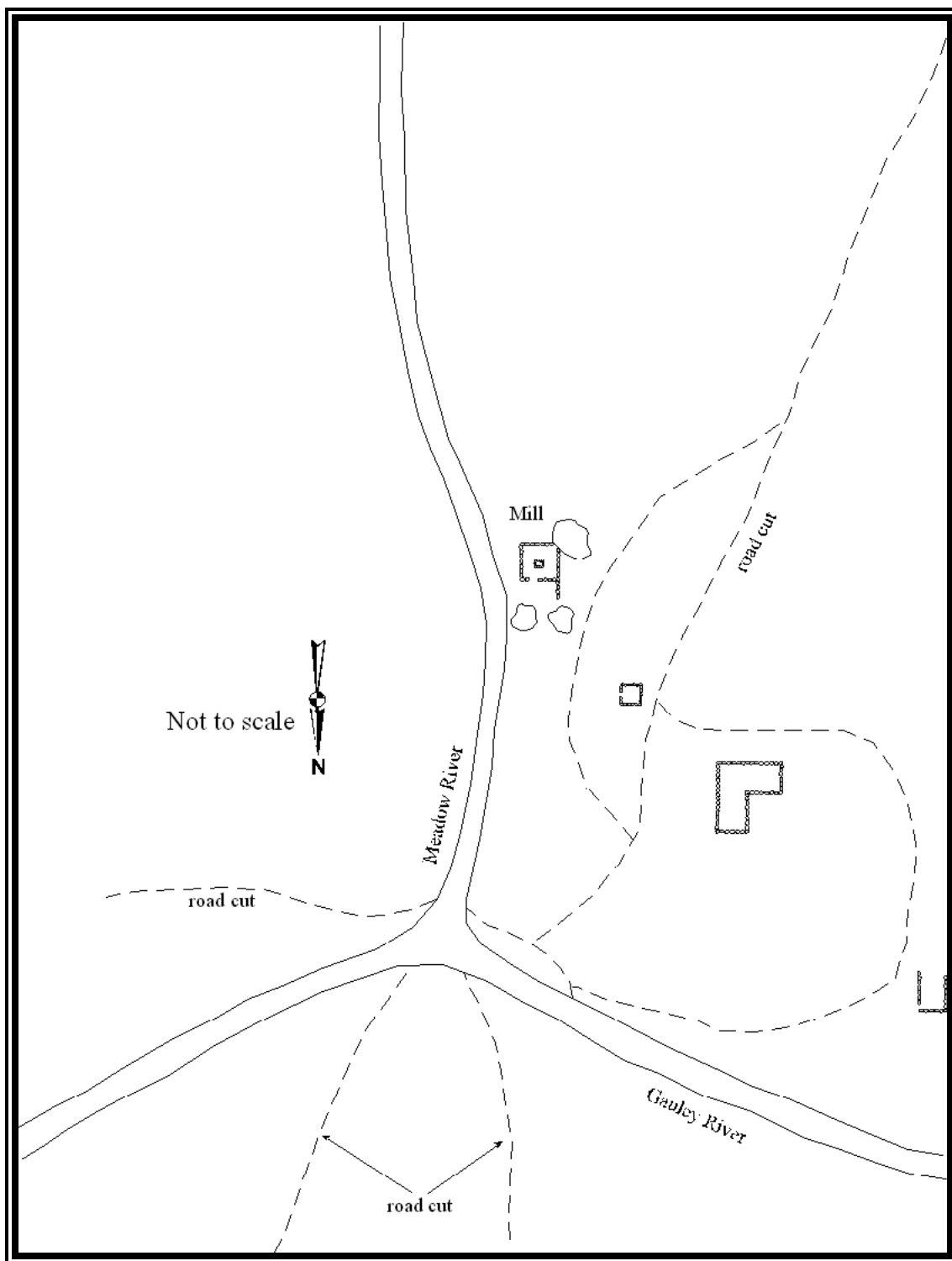


Figure 5.27. Site map of Carnifex Ferry.



Figure 5.28. Road leading into Carnifex Ferry.



Figure 5.29. Possible house foundation at Carnifex Ferry (see Figure 5.24).



Figure 5.30. Possible house or tavern foundation at Carnifex Ferry (looking south) (see Figure 5.24).



Figure 5.31. Possible house or tavern foundation at Carnifex Ferry (looking west) (see Figure 5.25).



Figure 5.32. Large boulder incorporated into wall of possible mill at Carnifex Ferry.



Figure 5.33 Possible mill foundation at Carnifex Ferry facing east.



Figure 5.34. Road cut in Carnifex Ferry.



Figure 5.35. Road cut across Meadow River from Carnifex Ferry.

Artifacts Collected or Observed

A machine-made clear container glass base fragment was recovered from this site. This specimen bears the mark of the Owens Illinois Glass Company and dates from 1929 to 1954 (Toulouse 1972:403) (Table 5.6). A metal shovel was also observed on the surface but not collected (Figure 5.36).

Table 5.6. Artifacts Recovered from Carnifex Ferry.

| Context | Provenience | Artifact Class/Subclass | # | Comments |
|---------|-------------|-------------------------------|---|---------------|
| 115 | Surface | Container glass base fragment | 1 | |
| 115 | Surface | Metal shovel | 1 | Not collected |



Figure 5.36. Artifact found on surface at Carnifex Ferry.

Summary and Recommendations

Based on these investigations, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Carnifex Ferry site. The site contains a number of different property types, including house lots, and commercial and transportation resources. With the extensive foundation remains, and artifacts collected and observed on the surface, the site has a high potential to contain intact archaeological deposits. The site relates to the early settlement and lumbering historic contexts developed by Unrau (1996) for the New River Gorge National River.

The archaeological remains present at the Carnifex Ferry site represent an excellent opportunity to study an early, small community within the Gauley River valley. As a place within the landscape that drew many different people and goods to the area, mainly for ease of transportation over the river, Carnifex Ferry can help illuminate a number of research issues, such as transportation and differing access to consumer goods. The differences between residences and taverns could be researched, both through layout, site organization and consumption patterns. Further investigation of the Carnifex Ferry site also has the potential to provide important information about inter-community relationships among places that were connected primarily by the river.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The site is privately owned; explore the possibility of partnering with the owner to determine eligibility for listing on the National Register of Historic Places.
2. To better define the nature and extent of the archaeological resources at the 1888 House, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine its eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D, it is recommended that phase I testing and mapping of the site be undertaken in conjunction with a cultural landscape inventory, given owner permission. This work should include systematic shovel probing across the entire site. After the site's landscape features are mapped, the goals of shovel probing should include the identification of the locations containing subsurface cultural materials and indicate their spatial relationship to building ruins and landscape features. Finally, site boundaries should be refined on the basis of historical records and the distribution of archaeological remains.
3. Depending on the results of the survey, phase II exploratory archaeological investigations may be necessary. This work should assess the integrity of cultural deposits at the farmstead by excavating several test units. The results of these kinds of investigations should produce data from which interpretations about the life of the people who lived there can be articulated.
4. More intensive archival study of the families known to live and work at Carnifex Ferry, including the Pattersons, Carnifex and McVey families. Information about the operation of the Ferry should also be researched.
5. The results of the above investigations can and should be used to compare what we know about this site to other locations in the Gauley River valley and the surrounding area, particularly Wood's Ferry and the Legg Farmstead.

Given these investigations, the Carnifex Ferry site should be considered potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D. The recommended archaeological and archival research should be able to provide additional information on the size of this site and the nature of the archaeological deposits associated with it. Taken together the recommended archival research and field investigations should produce the information needed to more fully evaluate the significance of this site.

Clark Cemetery

| | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Site Type: | Cemetery |
| Property Type: | Cemetery |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4230129 E 494312 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | Gauley River 475m |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | 0.001 acres |
| Previous Disturbance: | None |
| ASIMS # | 25 |

Site Description

The Clark Cemetery is located in the Gauley River National Recreation Area, Fayette County, West Virginia (Figures 5.39 and 5.40). The cemetery, which is located in the Flynn Tract, recently purchased by the National Park Service and was part of the prehistoric upland survey (see Chapter 6), consists of two headstones, one enclosed with an iron fence, and two depressions that represent possible grave shafts (Figure 5.39; Table 5.7). There may be other unmarked burials present.

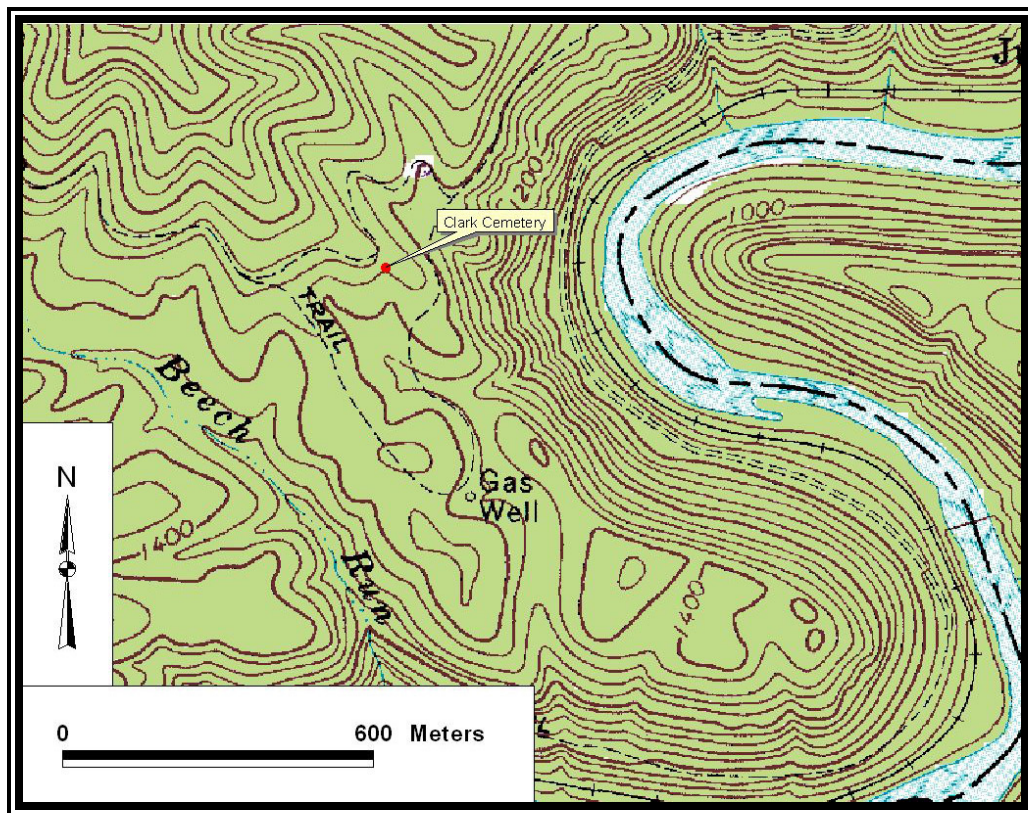


Figure 5.37. Location of Clark Cemetery on 1976 Ansted WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map.

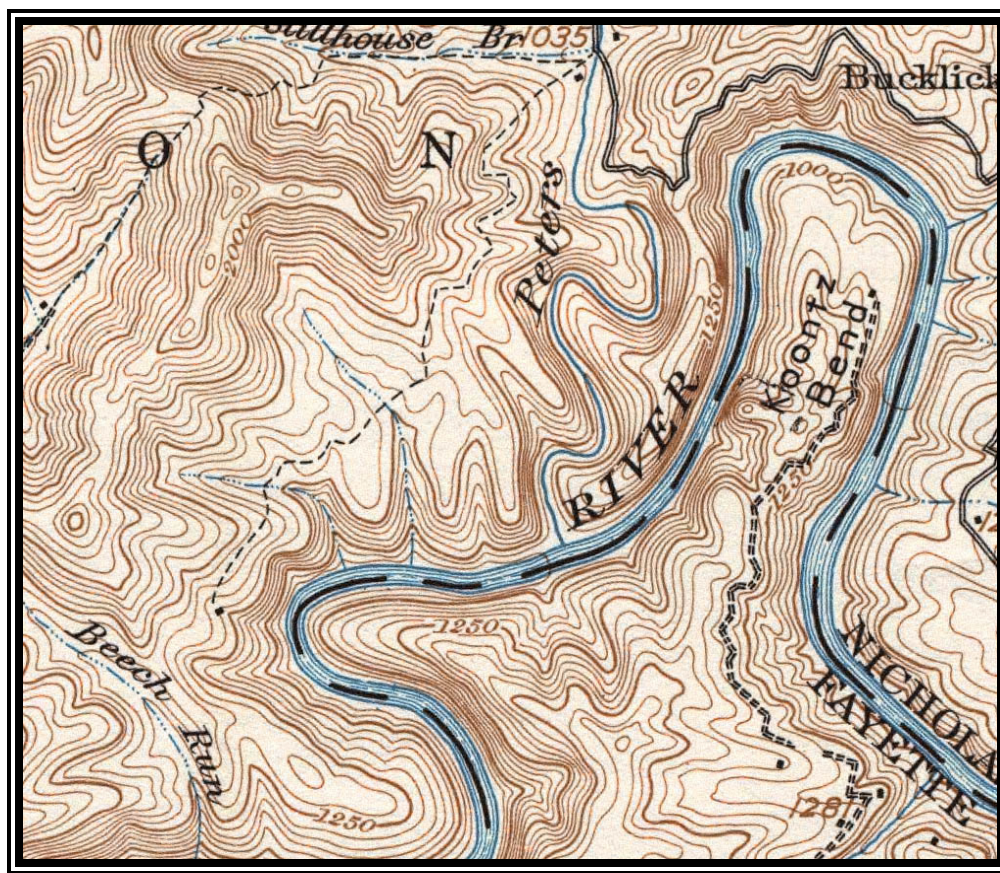


Figure 5.38. Location of Clark Cemetery on 1928 Fayetteville WVUSGS 15' Topographic Map.

Table 5.7. Formal Headstones from Clark Cemetery.

| Name | Date of Birth | Date of Death | Funeral Home |
|--------------|---------------|---------------|---------------------|
| Clark, Burt | May 25, 1905 | Oct. 11, 1986 | Waters Funeral Home |
| Clark, J. R. | 1860 | 1936 | |

Site History

A historic road following the ridge leads to Peter's Creek and SR 39 (Figure 5.38). The bench on which the cemetery is located is part of the geographic uplands that extend along the north side of the Gauley River and include the resources along Panther Mountain Road (CR 22).

Census records were examined for more information about those buried at Clark Cemetery. The primary censuses examined include the 1900, 1910, 1920 and 1930 United States Federal Censuses. The earliest record found was in the 1920 United States Federal Census for John R. Clark and Burt Clark who were father and son. The household also included John's wife Mary A. (age 55) and the rest of their children, Meatha (age 19), Samuel (age 16), and Martha (age 12). John married Mary A. Nichols

on November 23, 1889. The family lived in Falls Township, Fayette County, West Virginia. John, Samuel, and Burt are all listed as working at an unnamed saw mill. In 1930, Burt was the only child living with John and Mary. Burt's occupation was listed as a coal miner. The family cemetery is likely associated with the structure shown on the 1928 15' topographic map (Figure 5.38).

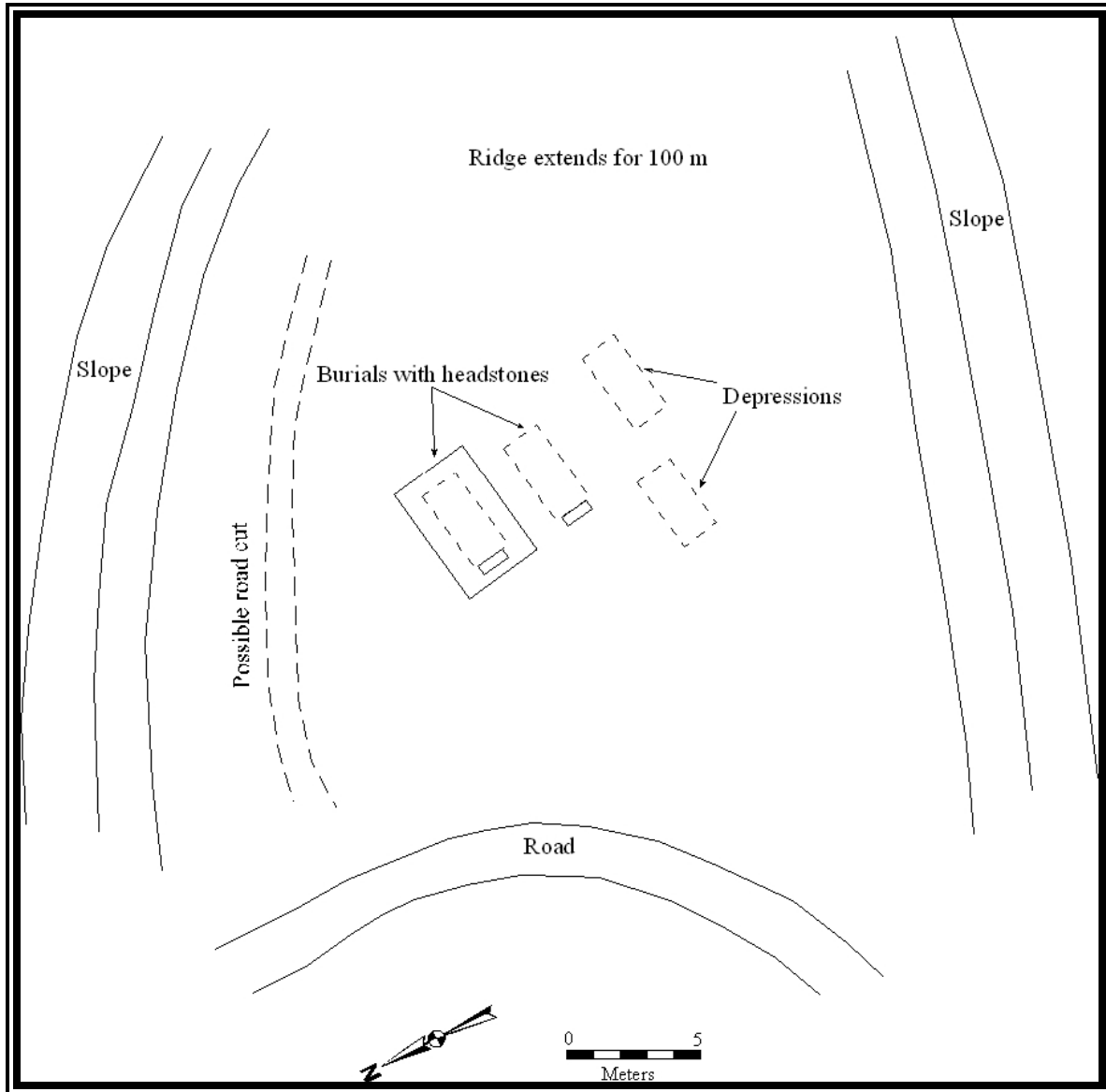


Figure 5.39. Site map of Clark cemetery.

Archaeological Fieldwork

The Clark Cemetery was examined by pedestrian survey (Figures 5.39-41) that included observing and photodocumenting the grave stones. A map also was drawn of

the cemetery. Given that two depressions that may be unmarked graves, it is possible that this cemetery contains other unmarked graves. For obvious reasons, no shovel probes were excavated at this location. No evidence of a residence or farmstead was located.



Figure 5.40. Clark Cemetery.



Figure 5.41. Inscribed concrete headstone of Burt Clark.

Artifacts Collected or Observed

No artifacts were collected or observed at this site.

Summary and Recommendations

Based on these investigations, several observations and recommendations can be made for future investigation of the Clark cemetery.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Park should support the preservation of the cemetery.
2. The West Virginia Cemetery Survey, associated with the West Virginia State Historic Preservation Office, has cemetery survey forms that should be completed for the Clark Cemetery. These forms are available at <http://www.wvculture.org/shpo/cemeteries.html>
3. Because the cemetery is likely associated with the family home and/or farmstead, any such remains should be located and documented, including archival work to determine the ownership, development and use of the site.
4. In order to better define the nature and extent of the burials at this site, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, it is recommended that a more intensive assessment and cultural landscape inventory be conducted. The feasibility of a geophysical examination of the cemetery should be explored. Geophysical examination may help identify the boundaries of the cemetery and unmarked graves.
5. The results of the above investigations can and should be used to compare what we know about other cemeteries in the Gauley River valley, including the Albion and Copeland Cemeteries. Once accomplished, such comparisons should be made in view of the relationship(s) that such settlements had with other communities in the Gauley valley and in the surrounding area.

Cemeteries are not usually considered eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. If a cemetery is associated with historic events, include significant examples of funerary architecture and contain important information about the past, they may be considered for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places. Cemeteries not in association with any other eligible property, must meet one of the four main Criteria as well as one of two additional criteria considerations. The recommended intensive assessment and cultural landscape inventory will provide enough information to determine eligibility of the Clark Cemetery or its place as a contributing element to a larger resource.

Copeland Cemetery

| | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Site Type: | Historic cemetery |
| Property Type: | Cemetery |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4230656 E 497751 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | Gauley River 500m |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | 0.7 acres |
| Previous Disturbance: | None |
| ASIMS # | 26 |

Site Description

Copeland Cemetery is located in the Gauley River National Recreation Area, Nicholas County, West Virginia (Figures 5.42 and 5.43). The cemetery is located on a ridge off of a small road off of Panther Mountain Road (CR 22). There are approximately 18 fieldstone markers, none with visible inscriptions. This cemetery is located about 600 m to the north of the Copeland School.

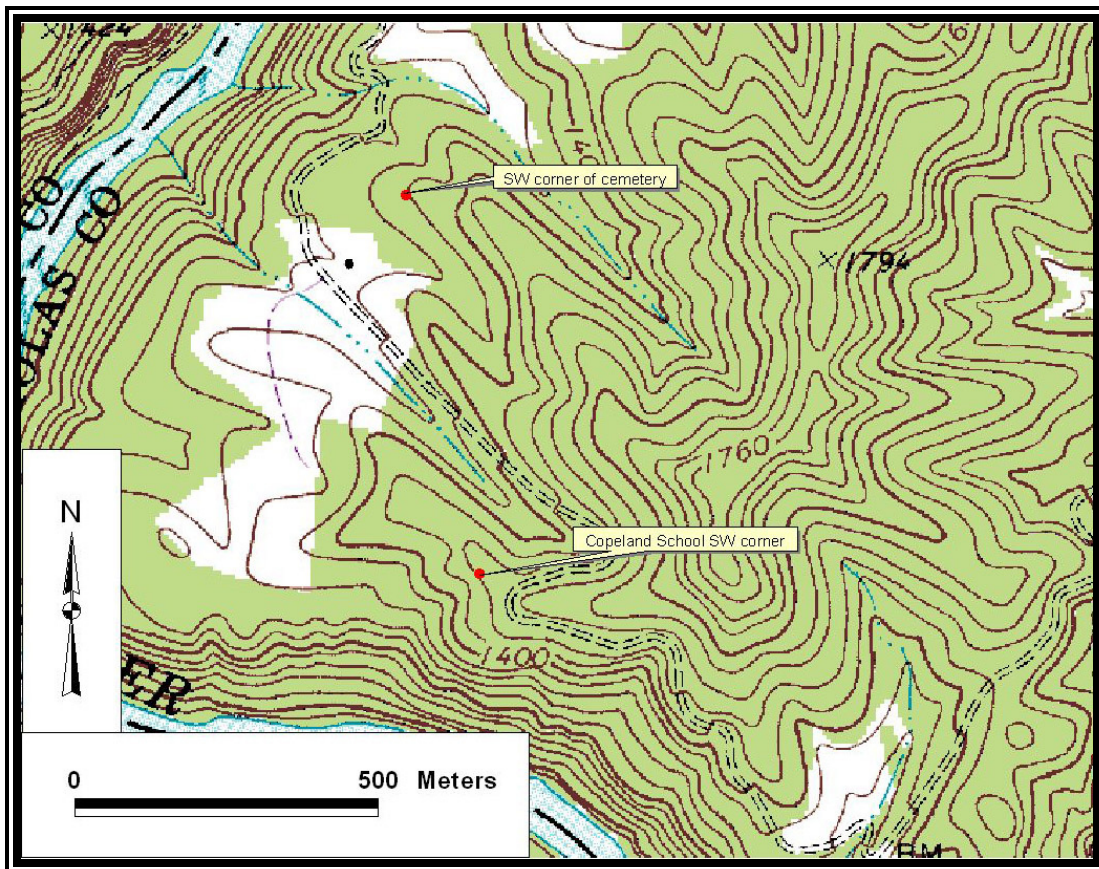


Figure 5.42. Location of Copeland Cemetery on 1976 Ansted WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map.

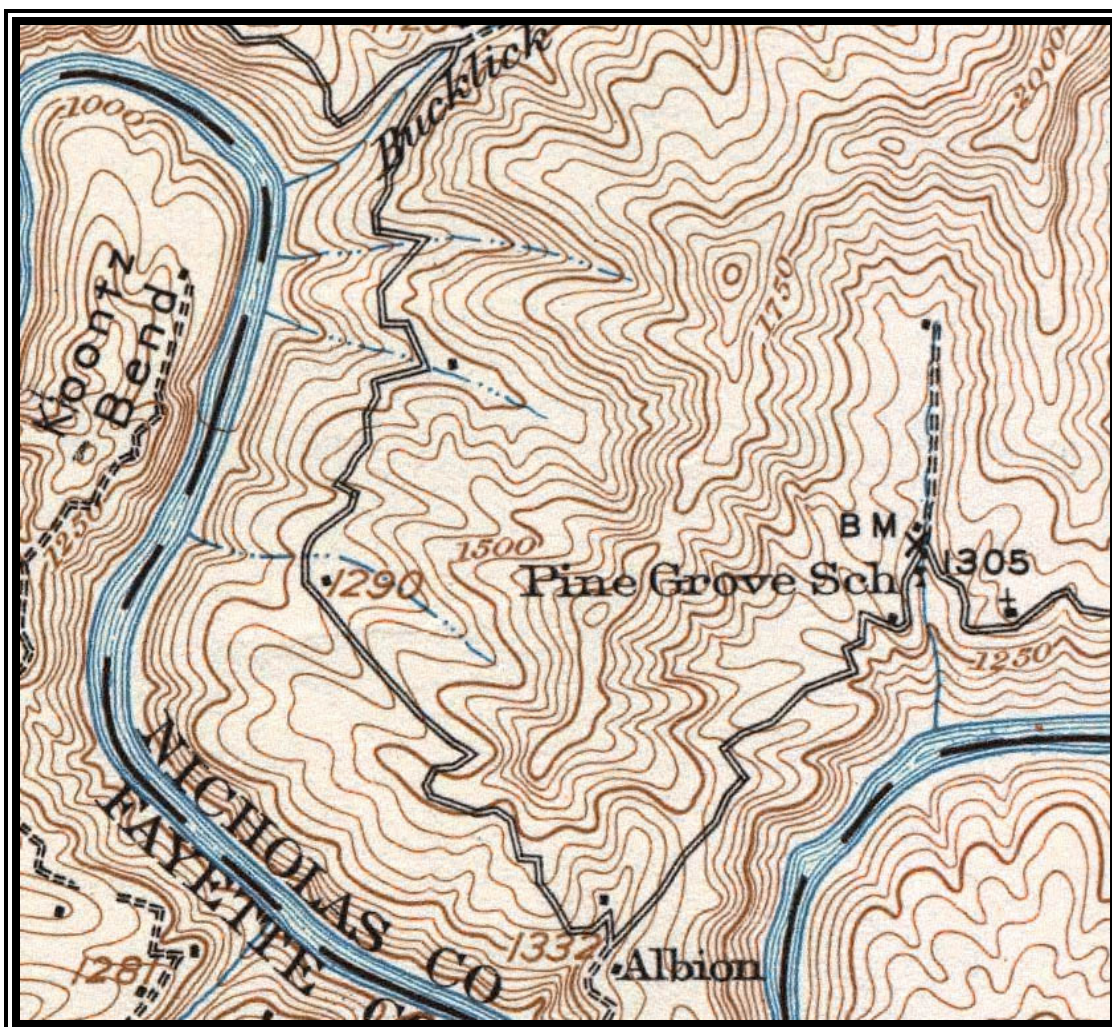


Figure 5.43. Location of Copeland Cemetery on 1928 Fayetteville WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.

Site History

No archival information was obtained about the Copeland Cemetery site, although local residents pointed out the site and referred to the cemetery as the Copeland cemetery. It is unknown when the cemetery was established or who might be buried there.

Archaeological Fieldwork

Copeland Cemetery was examined by pedestrian survey (Figures 5.44-45) that included observing and photodocumenting burials. In addition, a map was drawn of the spatial arrangement of the 18 observable field stones. Given the space between many of the headstones it is quite likely that this cemetery contains several unmarked graves. No shovel probes were excavated at this site.

Artifacts Collected or Observed

No artifacts were collected or observed at this site.

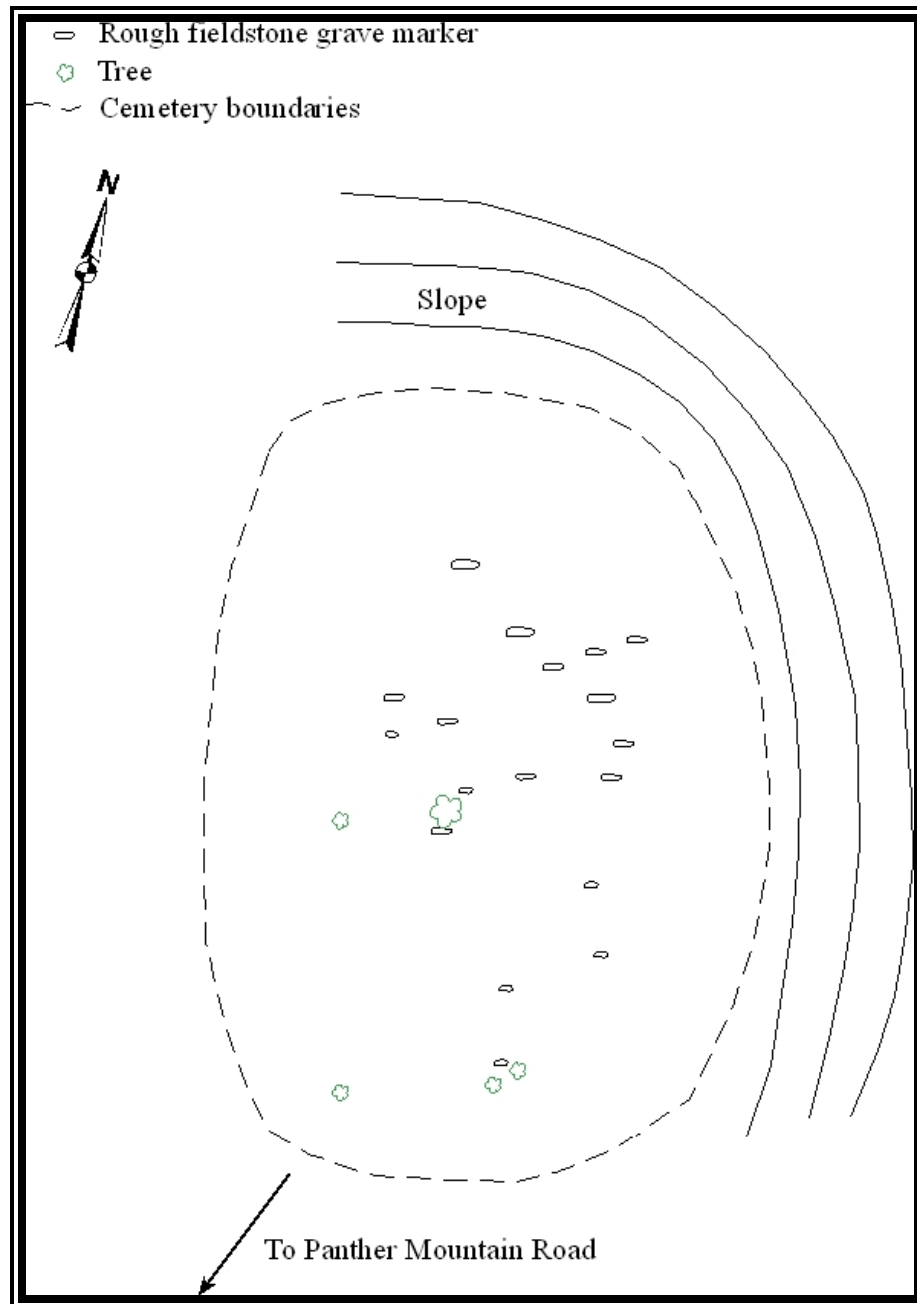


Figure 5.44. Site map of Copeland Cemetery.



Figure 5.45. Copeland Cemetery with fieldstone markers identified.

Summary and Recommendations

Based on these investigations, several observations and recommendations can be made for future investigation of the Albion cemetery site. The Copeland cemetery represents settlement in the Gauley River and development of communities in the area.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Park should support the preservation of the cemetery.
2. The West Virginia Cemetery Survey, associated with the West Virginia State Historic Preservation Office, has cemetery survey forms that should be completed for the Copeland Cemetery. These forms are available at <http://www.wvculture.org/shpo/cemeteries.html>
3. In order to better define the nature and extent of the burials at this site, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, it is recommended that a more intensive assessment and cultural landscape inventory be conducted. The feasibility of a geophysical examination of the cemetery should be explored. Geophysical examination may help identify the boundaries of the cemetery and unmarked graves.
4. The results of the above investigations can and should be used to compare what we know about other cemeteries in the Gauley River valley. Once accomplished,

such comparisons should be made in view of the relationship(s) that such settlements had with other communities in the Gauley valley and in the surrounding area.

5. We recommend additional and more intensive archival work on the Panther Mountain Road area and the people who lived and worked near the area to learn more about the Copeland family.

Cemeteries are not usually considered eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. If a cemetery is associated with historic events, include significant examples of funerary architecture and contain important information about the past, they may be considered for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places. Cemeteries not in association with any other eligible property, must meet one of the four main Criteria as well as one of two additional criteria considerations. The recommended intensive assessment and cultural landscape inventory will provide enough information to determine eligibility of the Albion Cemetery.

Copeland School

| | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Site Type: | Educational |
| Property Type: | Educational |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4230033 E 497873 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | Gauley River 90m |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | 0.3 acres |
| Previous Disturbance: | Demolition |
| ASIMS # | 27 |

Site Description

The Copeland School site is located in the Gauley River National Recreation Area, Nicholas County, West Virginia (Figures 5.46 and 5.47). This site is located off Panther Mountain Road (CR 22) and to the southeast of the Copeland Cemetery and to the northwest of the Legg Farmstead. The site is possibly part of the Albion settlement.

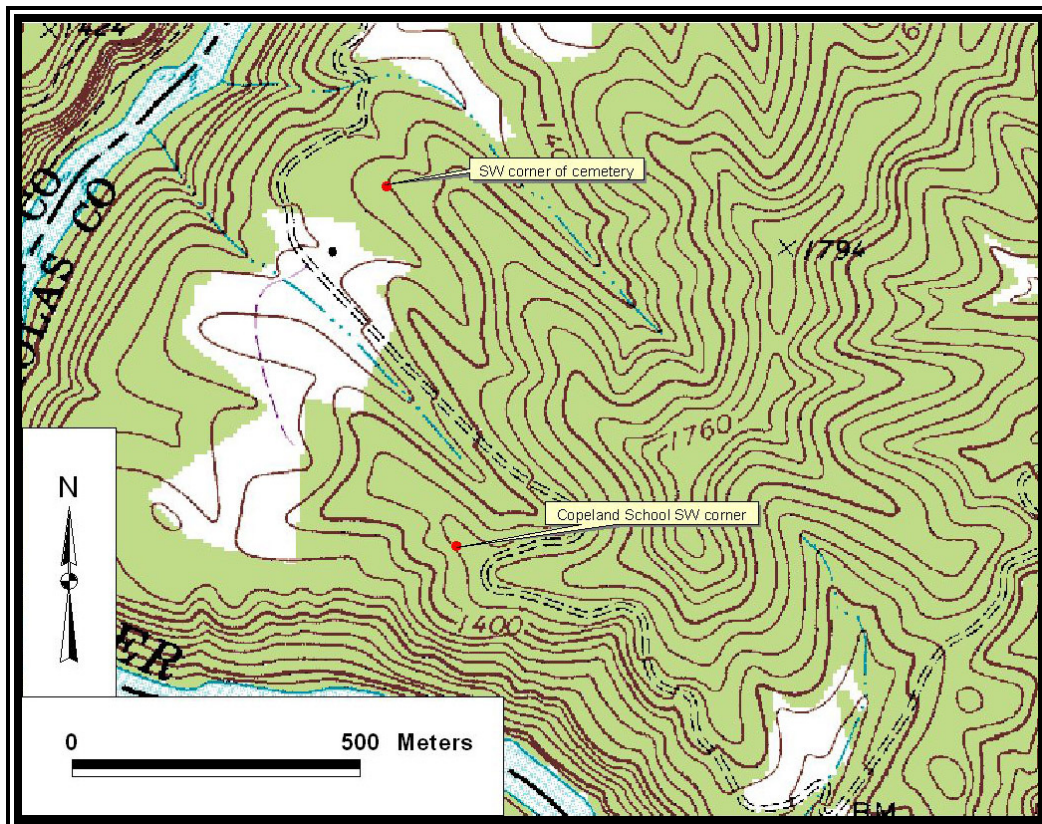


Figure 5.46. Location of Copeland School on 1976 Ansted WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map.

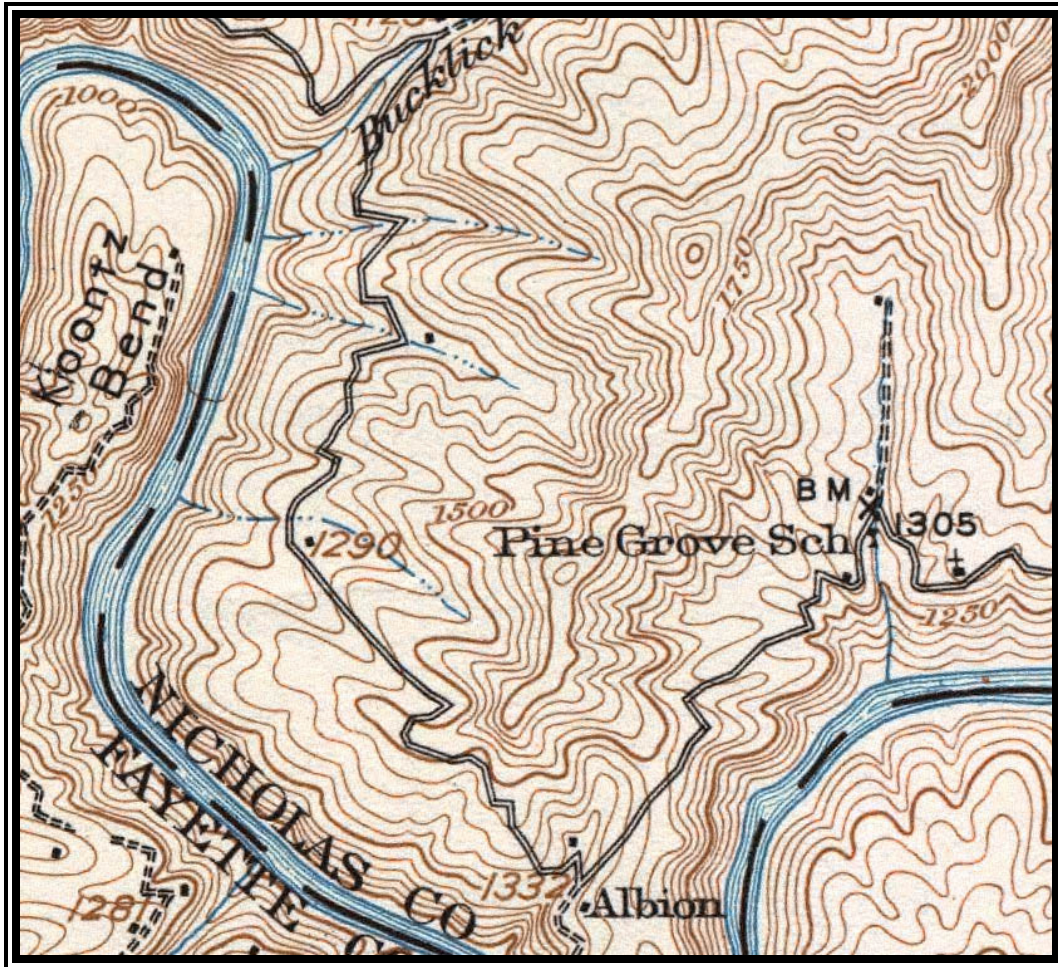


Figure 5.47. Location of Copeland School on 1928 Fayetteville WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.

Site History

No archival information was obtained about the Copeland School site.

Archaeological Fieldwork

The Copeland School site was examined by pedestrian survey and shovel probes (Figures 5.48-50). Two shovel probes were placed near structural remains to determine if intact cultural deposits were present. The shovel probes were 30 to 35 cm in diameter and were excavated until sterile subsoil was encountered. Soil from all shovel probes was screened through 6.35 mm hardware cloth. Information, consisting of location, size, depth, and soil profile was recorded for positive shovel probes. The representative shovel probe consisted of two strata. The first stratum was 19 cm thick medium brown silty loam topsoil. Strata two consisted of light orange brown slit clay subsoil. Of the two shovel probes excavated at this site, cultural materials were only recovered from Shovel Probe 2 (Figure 5.48, Table 5.8).

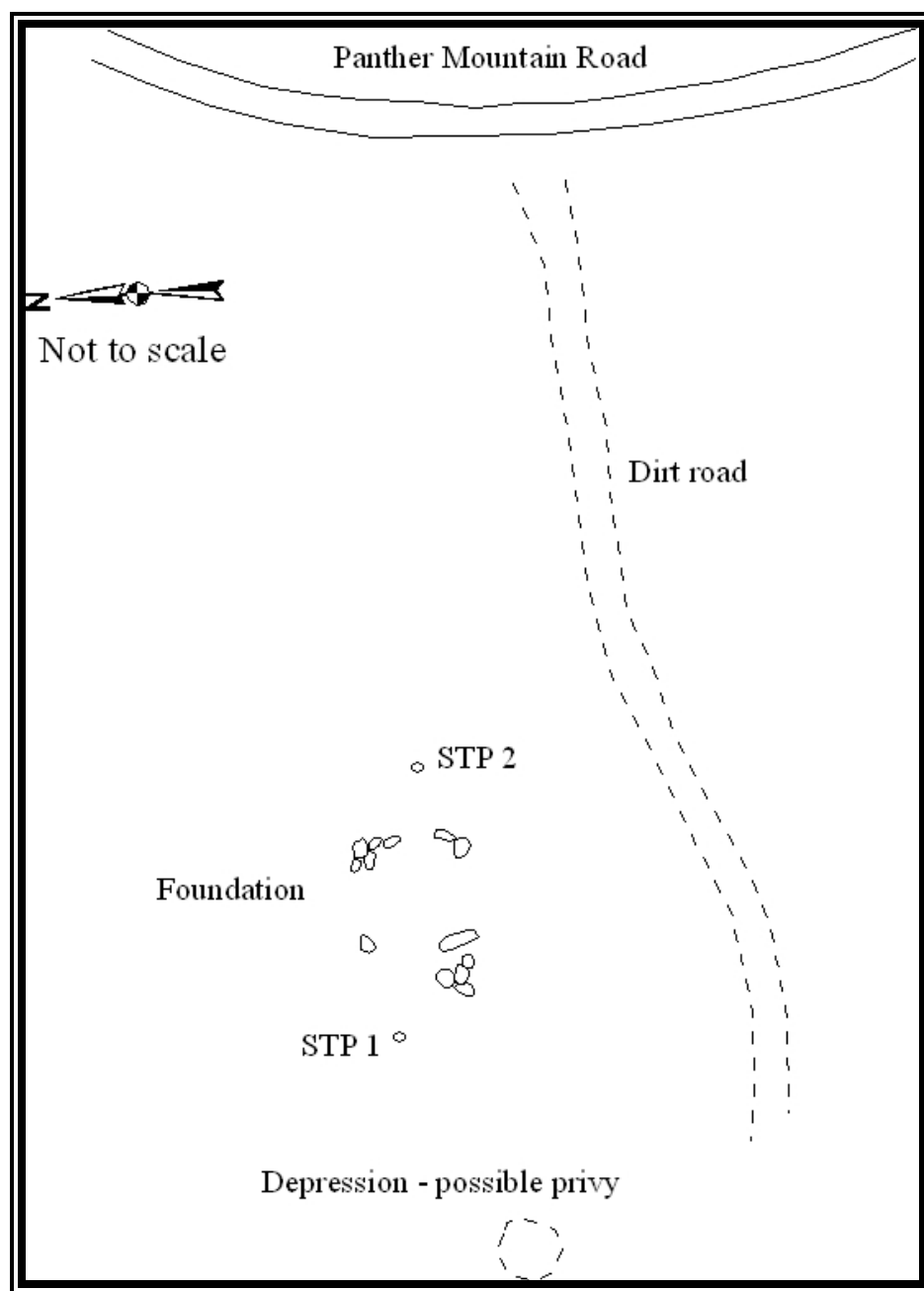


Figure 5.48. Copeland School site map.



Figure 5.49. Copeland School site setting looking west.



Figure 5.50. Possible masonry foundation at Copeland School site looking east.

Artifacts Collected or Observed

Materials recovered from the Copeland School site consist of an Albany slipped stoneware jug base fragment, an ironstone plate or saucer fragment, a pressed glass dish fragment, and a fragmentary late machine-cut nail (Table 5.8).

Albany slip is very smooth dark glossy black or brown clay coatings over stoneware (Mullins 1988:57). Albany slip decorated American stonewares were largely produced between about 1800 and 1940 (Azizi et al. 1996:19). The ironstone fragment features a maker's mark of the New Wharf Pottery Company, which was located in Burslem, England. This mark was in use from 1890 to 1894 (Godden 1964:467). Pressed glass was used on a small scale in England beginning in the late-seventeenth century; however it wasn't until the late 1820s that complete tableware objects were manufacture from pressed glass (Jones and Sullivan 1985:34). The specimen recovered from this site dates to the twentieth century. Late machine-cut nails were manufactured 1830 to 1890 (Cleland 1983:61).

Table 5.8. Artifacts Recovered from Copeland School.

| Context | Provenience | Artifact Class/Subclass | # | Comments |
|----------------|--------------------|--------------------------------|----------|--------------------------|
| 114-1 | SP2 | Late Machine cut nail fragment | 1 | |
| 114-2 | SP2 | Ironstone | 1 | Plate or saucer fragment |
| 114-3 | SP2 | Stoneware jug base fragment | 1 | Albany slipped |
| 114-4 | SP2 | Pressed glass | 1 | Dish fragment |

Summary and Recommendations

Based on these investigations, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Copeland School site. The site represents a property type that developed as the region's population grew and buildings were needed to educate children.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Copeland School site should be protected with all available means. Ownership of the property must be determined. If the Park does not own the property, the Park should consider partnering with the property owner to investigate and preserve the site.
2. It is recommended that phase I testing and mapping of the site be undertaken in conjunction with a cultural landscape inventory. This should be done to better define the nature and extent of the archaeological resources at the Copeland School site, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine its eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D. This work should include systematic shovel probing across the entire site. After the site's landscape features are mapped, the goals of shovel probing should include the identification of the locations containing subsurface cultural materials

and indicate their spatial relationship to building ruins and landscape features. Finally, site boundaries should be refined on the basis of historical records and the distribution of archaeological remains.

3. Depending on the results of the survey, phase II exploratory archaeological investigations may be necessary. This work should assess the integrity of cultural deposits at the school by excavating several test units. The results of these kinds of investigations should produce data from which interpretations about the life of the people who lived there can be articulated.
4. The results of the above investigations can and should be used to compare what we know about this site to other locations in the Gauley River valley and the surrounding area, such as the Pine Grove School and the school located in Sugar Creek.

Based on the information gained for this study, the Copeland School site is not considered potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D at this time. When the recommended archival and archaeological work can be completed, a determination of eligibility for listing in the National Register of Historic Places can be made.

Koontz Bridge and Tunnel

| | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Site Type: | Transportation |
| Property Types: | Transportation |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4230636 E 495973 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | Gauley River 20m |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | 2.5 acres |
| Previous Disturbance: | Rails removed |
| ASIMS # | 28 |

Site Description

The Koontz Bridge and Tunnel site is located in the Gauley River National Recreation Area, Fayette County, West Virginia (Figures 5.51-5.52). Both the bridge and tunnel were constructed as part of the Nicholas, Fayette and Greenbrier railroad (Miller 1992). The rails have since been removed, and both the bridge and the tunnel are now used by pedestrians (Figures 5.53-5.58).

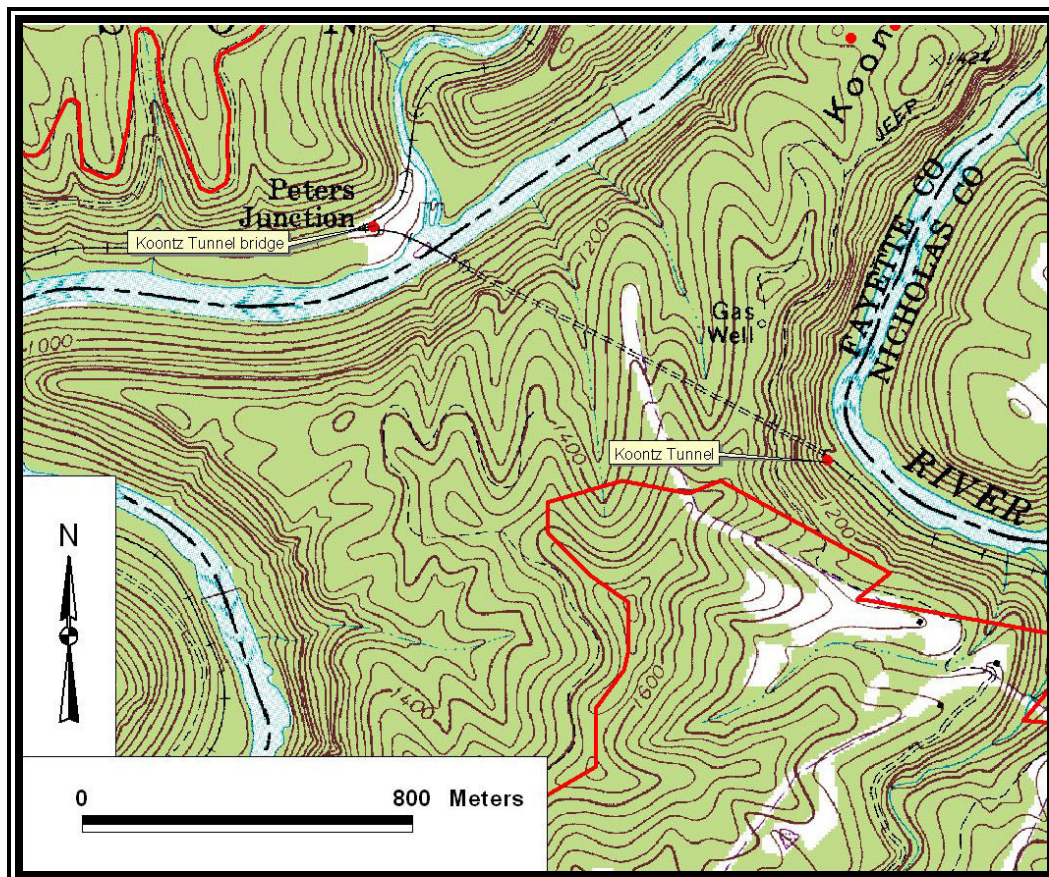


Figure 5.51. Location of Koontz Bridge and Tunnel on 1976 Ansted WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map.

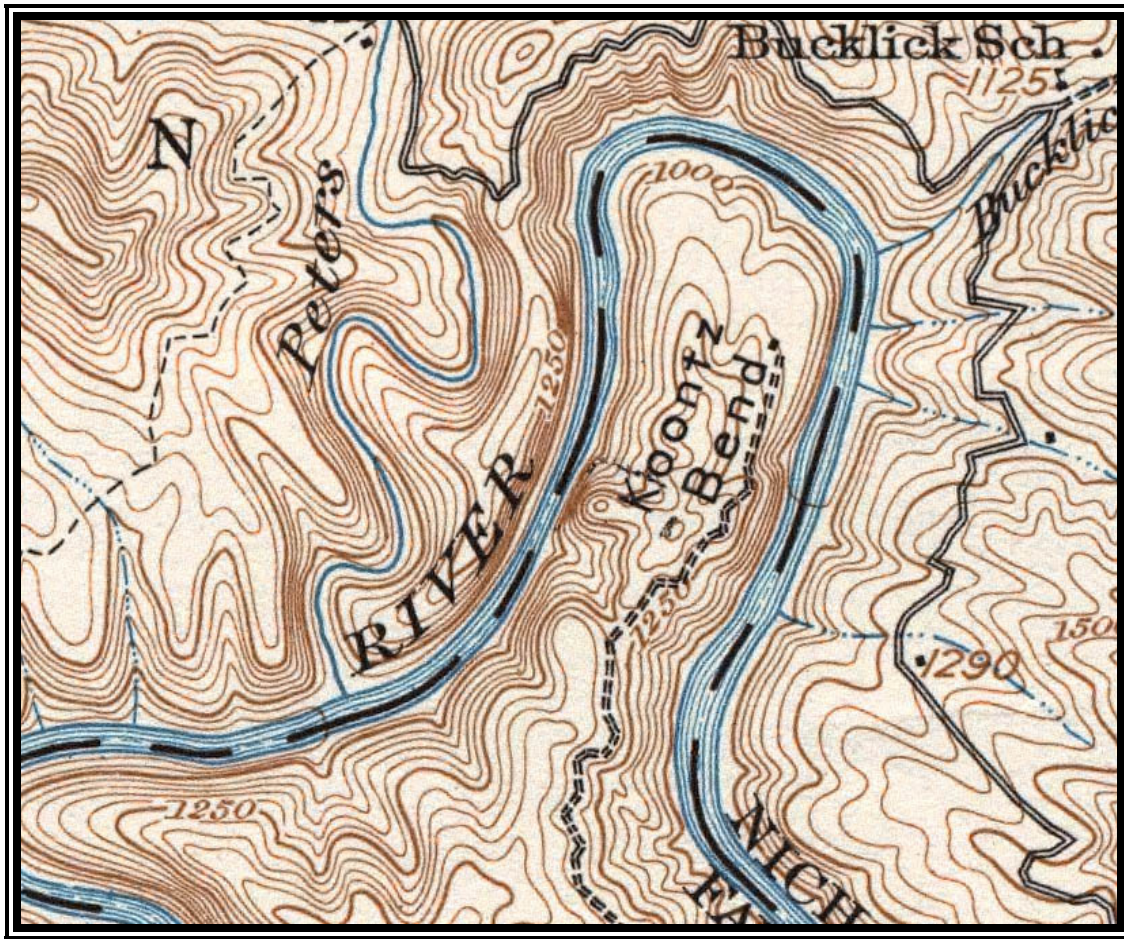


Figure 5.52. Location of Koontz Bridge and Tunnel on 1928 Fayetteville WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.

Site History

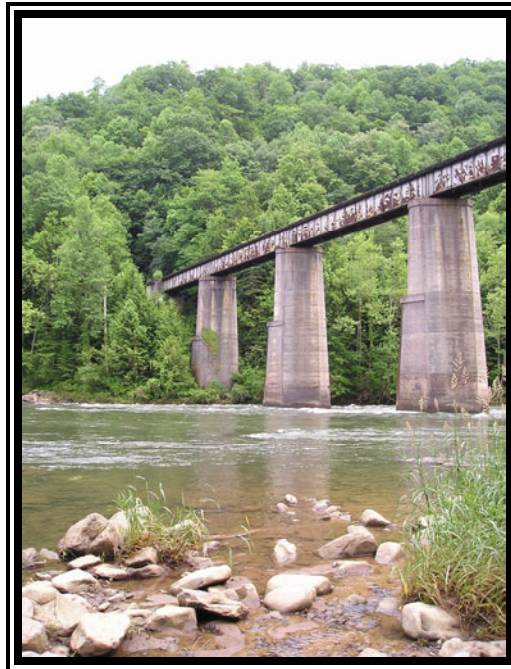
Miller (1992) relates that the tunnel was constructed in 1929 and 1930 for the Nicholas, Fayette and Greenbrier Railroad. The tunnel is 3,164 feet long and lined with concrete. The bridge consists of an iron span supported by concrete piers. The bridge connected the Gauley and Meadow River areas with Rainelle, West Virginia. The Guthrie Company hired local men as labor but a number of Swedish workers who had experience with water drills were also hired. The tunnel is often referred to as Peter's Creek tunnel because of its location at Peter's Junction. Miller relates construction information from a Robert Nichols, who was a dinky skinner or an operator of a small locomotive during the construction of the tunnel and bridge. In addition to describing construction techniques and machinery, Nichols state that no African Americans worked on the tunnel (Miller 1992:13). Miller also relates that during construction of the tunnel there was a cook shack and bunkhouse available for the non-local workers (Miller 1992:15).

Archaeological Fieldwork

The Koontz Bridge and Tunnel site was examined by pedestrian survey that included observing and photodocumenting any structural remains (Figures 5.53-5.58).



Figure 5.53. Koontz Bridge facing west.



**Figure 5.54. Koontz Bridge from
confluence of Peter's Creek and the Gauley
River.**



Figure 5.55. Koontz Bridge and Tunnel facing north.

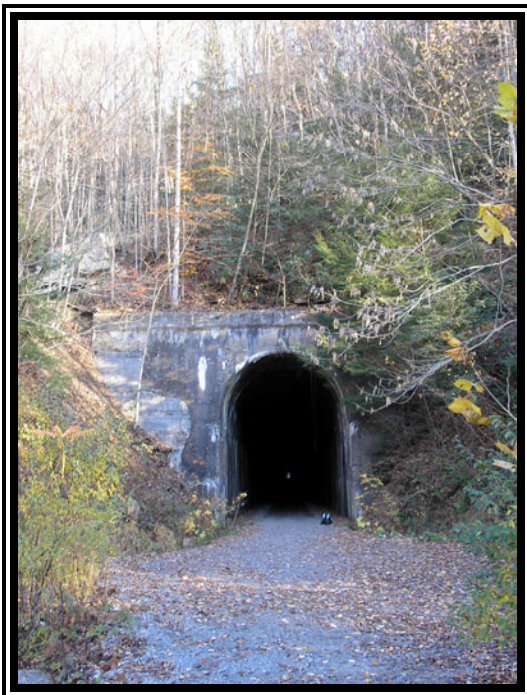


Figure 5.56. Koontz Tunnel facing east.



Figure 5.57. Koontz Tunnel facing west.



Figure 5.58. 1910 on eastern end of Koontz tunnel.

Artifacts Collected or Observed

No artifacts were collected or observed at this site.

Summary and Recommendations

Based on these investigations, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Koontz Tunnel and Bridge site. This site is a good example of early twentieth century transportation and construction technology. The site relates to the railroad industry historic context developed by Unrau (1996) for the New River Gorge National River.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Koontz Tunnel and Bridge site should be protected with all available means. Both the tunnel and bridge appear to be in adequate repair. Structural engineers should examine both the bridge and tunnel as pedestrians use both to cross the Gauley River.
2. The tunnel and bridge should be documented by a professional architectural historian.
3. Additional and more intensive archival work on the tunnel and the people who worked on the construction of the tunnel. Results of this work can and should be used to compare what we know about other tunnel locations in the Gauley River

area. The additional archival work should include search for architectural plans and oral histories.

4. The locations of the cook shack and bunkhouse should be researched. If possible locations are discovered through archival or oral history research, archaeological survey of those locations is recommended.

Based on very limited observations, the tunnel and bridge are potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under Criterion D as a contributing element for a multiple resource nomination of transportation, settlement and development of the Gauley River area. Both are important to the local history of this region and are good examples of early twentieth century transportation and construction technology in the Gauley region. These tunnel and bridge should also be evaluated with respect to Criterion A and C.

Koontz Bend Resources

| | |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| Site Type: | Farmstead, House lot |
| Property Types: | Farmstead, cemetery, house lot |
| UTM Coordinates: | House: Zone 17: N 4231655 E 497405 Cemetery: Zone 17: N 4231242 E 497232 Chimney Fall: Zone 17: N4230962 E496844 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | Gauley River and Laurel Creek 50m |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | 200 acres |
| Previous Disturbance: | Demolition |
| ASIMS # | 29, 30 and 31 |

Site Description

The Koontz Farmstead is located on the west side of the Gauley River in the Gauley River National Recreation Area, Fayette County West Virginia (Figures 5.59 and 5.60). Koontz Bend is situated in the portion of the valley between the Peters Creek confluence (Nicholas County) across the Gauley River and to the north and west, and the Laurel Creek confluence (Fayette County) to the east. Koontz Bend can be characterized as a finger-like ridge extending northward from the uplands south of the Gauley River. The ridge is less than 1 km wide, has cliffs on both its east and west sides, and steeply slopes down to the Gauley River at its north terminus. There are a number of resources located within Koontz Bend including the Koontz family farmstead, the Koontz family cemetery and two possible dwellings or outbuildings (Figures 5.61-).

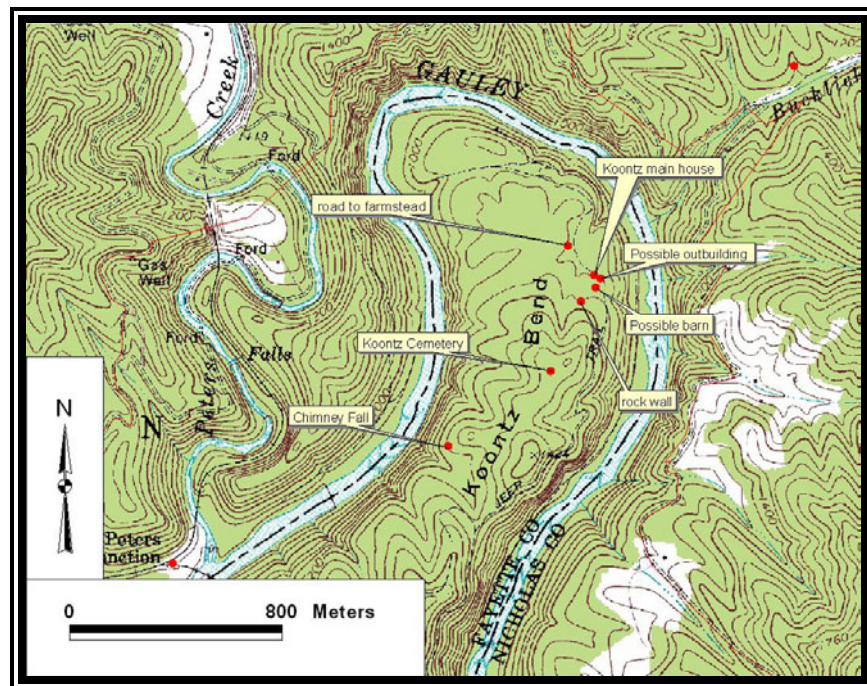


Figure 5.59. Location of Koontz Bend Resources on 1976 Ansted USGS 7.5' Topographic Map.

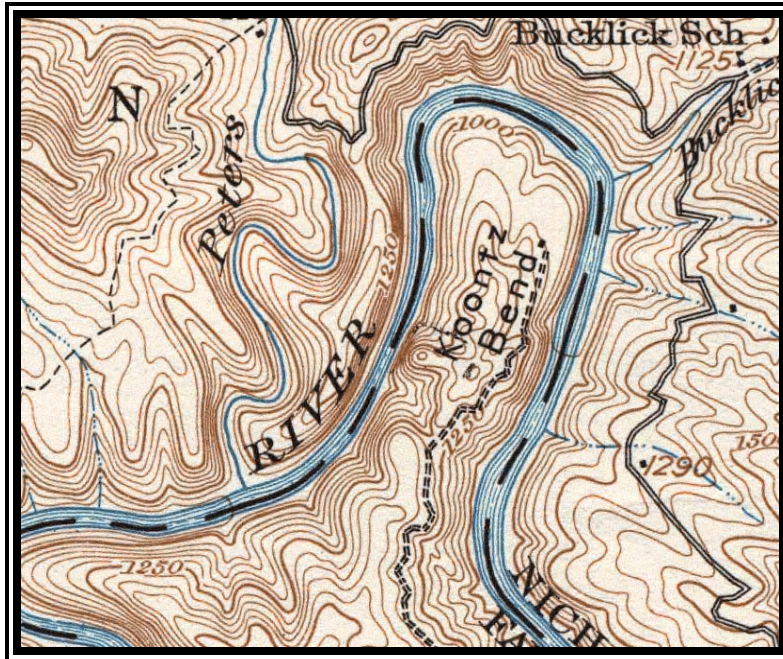


Figure 5.60. Location of Koontz Bend on 1928 Fayetteville USGS 15' Topographic Map.

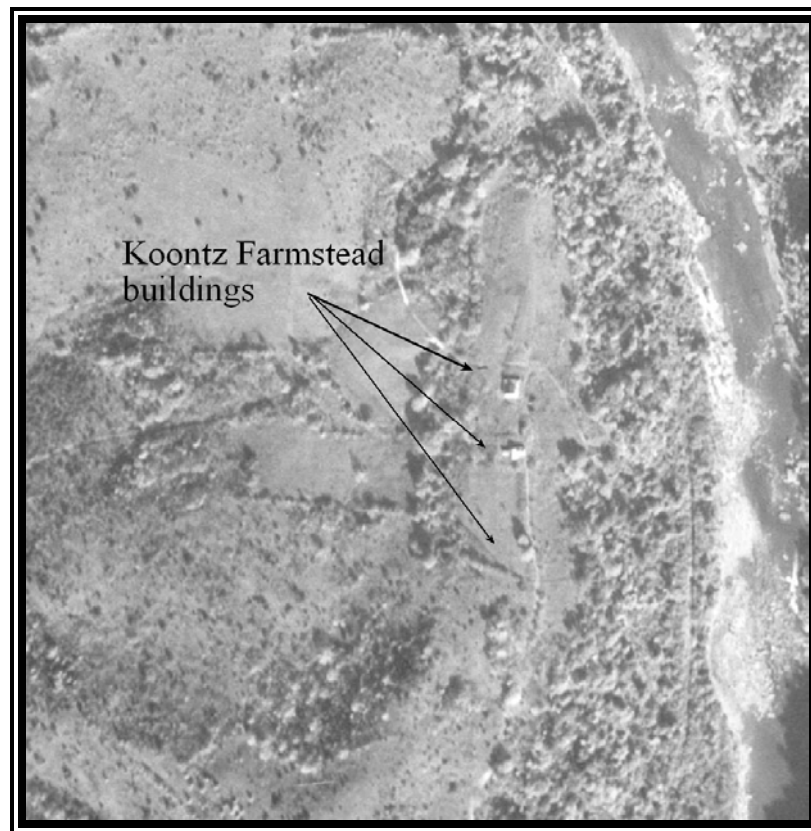


Figure 5.61. 1945 aerial of Koontz farmstead.

Site History

Minimal archival records were located for the Koontz family. Census records were examined for information about the Koontz family. No records for Samuel B. Koontz were found prior to 1870. In 1870, Samuel was listed as a farmer and was married to Rebecca (both age 40) and had a number of children living with them. The children included Jacob R. (age 17), Mary E. (age 15), William (age 15), John M. (age 10), Grant (age 6), Lucretia (age 4), and Ida A. (age 1). In 1870, Samuel's real estate was worth 3,000 dollars and his personal estate was worth 2,699 dollars.

By 1880 the Koontz family had lost some members and gained new members. Samuel and Rebecca were both aged 50 and the children included William (age 23), Milton (age 22), Mary E. (age 25), Samuel G. (age 16), Ida (age 11), Edward (age 9), and Marshall (age 7). Interesting some of the names in 1880 should have been listed in the 1870 census given the ages listed. It is unknown why some of the names are different. By 1900 Samuel is listed as widowed in the census and he is the sole member of his household. Military records list Samuel B. Koontz as a lieutenant but contain no other information of his enlistment during the Civil War.

Archaeological Fieldwork

Four resource areas within Koontz Bend were documented. The first was a small foundation of a small dwelling or possible outbuilding to the west of the road leading to the Koontz family cemetery. The second was a chimney fall from a possible house lot or outbuilding west of the first resource. The Koontz family farmstead and cemetery make up the other resources documented in the Koontz Bend area.

Shovel probes were excavated at all the resource areas except for the cemetery. Shovel probes averaged 30 to 35 cm in diameter and were excavated until sterile subsoil was encountered. Soil from all shovel probes was screened through 6.35 mm hardware cloth. Information, consisting of location, size, depth, and soil profile was recorded for positive shovel probes.

Possible dwelling/outbuilding

Two shovel probes were excavated in the vicinity of a possible foundation located near the wagon road leading up to Koontz Farmstead cemetery (Figures 5.62 and 5.63). Both shovel probes were negative. The representative shovel probe consisted of two strata. The first stratum was 13 cm thick medium brown silty loam topsoil. Strata two consisted of light yellow brown slit clay subsoil.

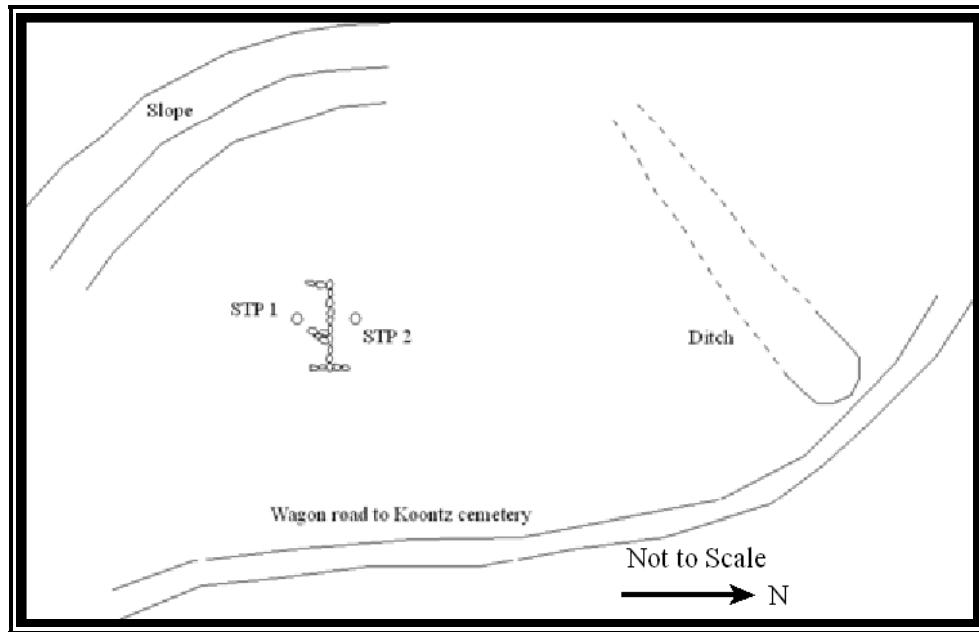


Figure 5.62. Road leading to Koontz Farmstead cemetery.



Figure 5.63. Foundation near road to Koontz Farmstead cemetery (looking east).



Figure 5.64. Road cut in Koontz Bend.

Chimney Fall resource

This resource includes a rock foundation of a structure and a possible cistern located in Koontz Bend. The resource is possibly related to the Koontz Farmstead. The resource was examined by pedestrian survey and shovel probes. Shovel probes were placed near the chimney fall to determine if intact cultural deposits were present. Shovel probes averaged 30 to 35 cm in diameter and were excavated until sterile subsoil was encountered. Soil from all shovel probes was screened through 6.35 mm hardware cloth. Information, consisting of location, size, depth, and soil profile was recorded for positive shovel probes.

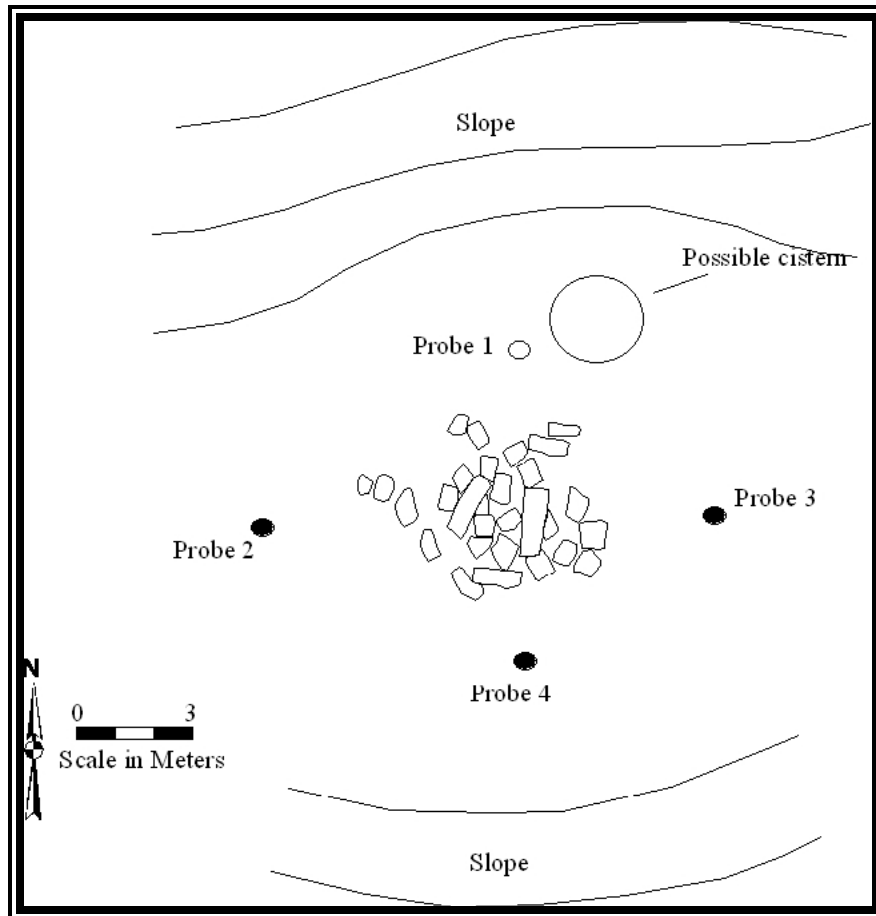


Figure 5.65. Site map of Chimney Fall.



Figure 5.66. Chimney remains looking west.



Figure 5.67. Possible cistern in foreground and chimney fall in background.

Four shovel probes were excavated at the Chimney Fall resource (Figure 5.65). Of these, three yielded cultural materials (Table 5.9). A representative shovel probe consisted of two strata. The first stratum was a 20 cm thick brown silty loam (topsoil). Strata two consisted of yellow brown clay subsoil.

Table 5.9. Artifacts Recovered from Chimney Fall site.

| Context | Provenience | Artifact Class/Subclass | # |
|---------|----------------------------|--------------------------|---|
| 101-1 | SP4-South of pile of rocks | Amethyst container glass | 6 |
| 101-2 | SP4-South of pile of rocks | Late machine-cut nail | 1 |
| 102 | SP3-East of chimney | Coal | 3 |
| 103-1 | SP2-West of chimney | Nail fragments | 2 |
| 103-2 | SP2-West of chimney | Unknown | 4 |
| 103-3 | SP2-West of chimney | Charred wood | 1 |

The Koontz Farmstead

The Koontz Farmstead site was examined by pedestrian survey and shovel probes. A total of 15 shovel probes was excavated at the farmstead site. The shovel probes were excavated in and around the main house and possible outbuildings at the farmstead (Figure 5.68). Of these, four were positive. The stratigraphy in the vicinity of the main house and the outbuildings consisted of a 15 cm thick medium brown silty loam topsoil that overlaid a light yellow brown slit clay subsoil.

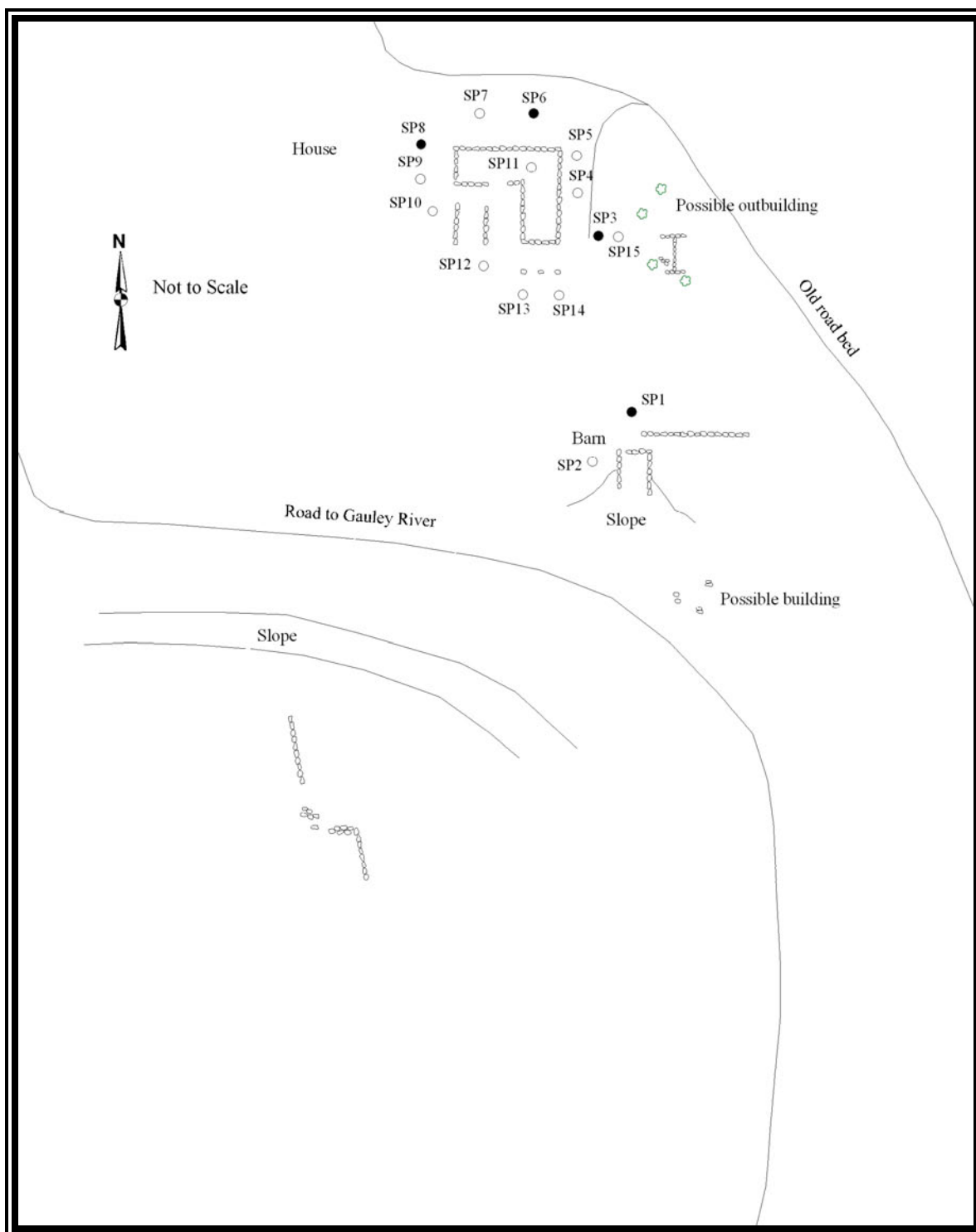


Figure 5.68. Koontz Farmstead site map.



Figure 5.69. Koontz Farmstead house looking north (see Figure 5.68).



Figure 5.70. Koontz Farmstead house looking east (see Figure 5.68).



Figure 5.71. Possible barn at Koontz Farmstead looking north (see Figure 5.68).

The Koontz Cemetery

The Koontz family cemetery is located on a ridge overlooking the farmstead. There were six formal graves and a number of depressions (Figure 5.72). Two of the formal graves were for infants and marked with small stones. Two of the remaining headstones were broken and only partially readable. The only completely intact headstone belonged to Samuel B. Koontz.

Table 5.10. Koontz Family cemetery.

| Name | Date of Birth | Date of Death | Comments |
|-------------------|---------------|---------------|--|
| Samuel B. Koontz | Jan 26, 1830 | April 2, 1906 | No pain, no grief, no anxious fear can reach the peaceful sleeper here |
| William F. Koontz | Dec 12, 1856 | Oct 8, 1924 | |
| S.C. Cavendish | Unknown | Unknown | |

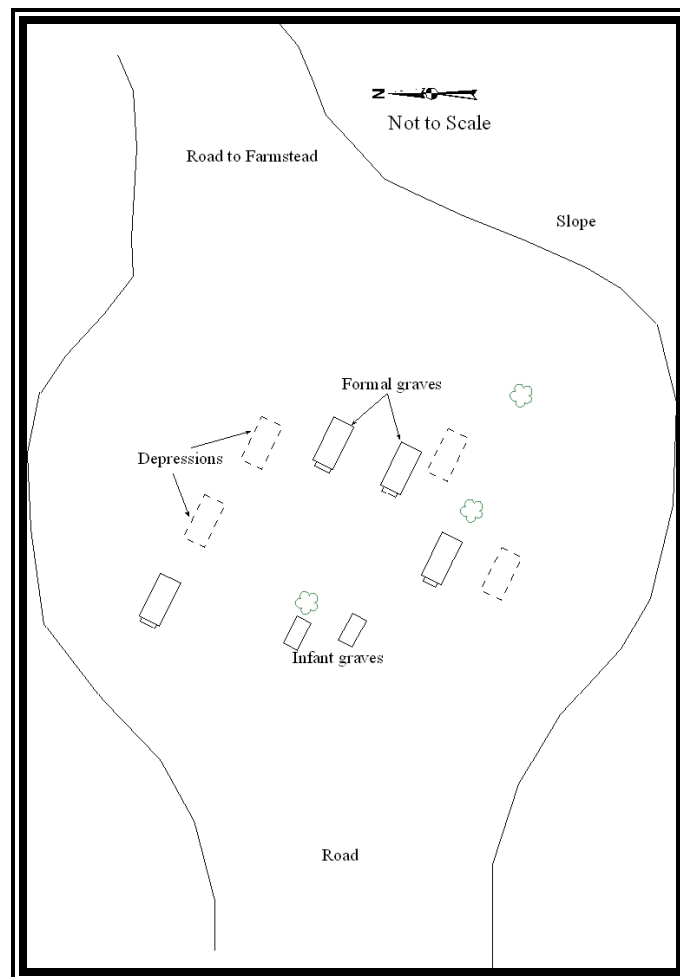


Figure 5.72. Koontz Farmstead cemetery planview.



Figure 5.73. Koontz cemetery looking north.



Figure 5.74. Samuel B. Koontz headstone in Koontz cemetery.

Artifacts Collected or Observed

A total of 17 artifacts was recovered from the Chimney fall resource area. The materials consist of two late machine-cut nails, an unidentified nail fragment, and aqua, clear, and amethyst container glass fragments (Table 5.11). Coal and charcoal also were recovered, and the presence of cinders was noted by not collected.

Diagnostic materials consisted of late machine-cut nails and amethyst glass (Table 5.11). Late machine-cut nails were manufactured from 1830 to 1890 (Cleland 1983:61). Amethyst glass dates from 1880 to 1925 (Newman 1970:74), and is associated with the use of manganese oxide as a decolorizing agent in glass production. Glass with manganese turns purplish after extended exposure to the ultraviolet rays of the sun (Jones and Sullivan 1989:13). The end of amethyst glass is associated with the change to selenium, which began by 1915 and was almost exclusively used as a decolorizing agent after German imports of manganese were suspended in 1918 (Deiss 1981:82-83).

A total of 11 artifacts was recovered from the Koontz farmstead resource area. The materials consist of ironstone (n=5), a milk glass lid liner fragment, an aqua container glass body sherd, a fragment of window glass, and a horseshoe (Table 5.11). Ironstone dates from 1842 to 1930 (Miller 1991:10, 1993:5-6). White milk glass lid liners were invented in 1869 to protect the food in a glass jar from the metal cap (Toulouse 1969:350). This specimen dates after 1869. The fragment of window glass measures 1.89 mm in thickness. The horseshoe is U-shaped and dates to the nineteenth century (Noel Hume 1969:237-239). These are artifacts from both resources are consistent with domestic structures.

Table 5.11. Artifacts Recovered from Koontz Bend resources.

| Context | Provenience | Artifact Class/Subclass | # | Comments |
|----------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|----------|-----------------|
| 101-1 | SP4 – south of chimney fall | Amethyst container glass | 6 | |
| 101-2 | SP4-south of chimney fall | Late machine cut nail | 1 | |
| 102 | SP3-east of chimney | Coal | 3 | Not collected |
| 103-1 | SP2-west of chimney | Nail fragments | 2 | |
| 103-2 | SP2-west of chimney | Unknown | 4 | |
| 103-3 | SP2-west of chimney | Charred wood | 1 | Not collected |
| 104 | Possible outbuilding SP1 | Ironstone | 5 | 3 rim sections |
| 107-1 | Possible outbuilding – Surface | Milk glass lid liner fragment | 1 | |
| 107-2 | Possible outbuilding – Surface | Container glass | 1 | |
| 106 | Main house - SP3 | Unidentified metal | 1 | |
| 116-1 | Main house – SP6 | Window glass | 1 | |
| 116-2 | Main house – SP6 | Horseshoe | 1 | |
| 105 | Main house - SP8 | Container glass | 1 | |

Summary and Recommendations

Based on these investigations, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Koontz site. The site is a good example of a farmstead in rural southeastern West Virginia. The site relates to the Euro-American Settlement and agricultural historic context developed by Unrau (1996) for the New River Gorge National River. Research avenues into transportation, consumerism, and internal organization can all be examined through the archaeological remains in Koontz Bend.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Koontz Bend resource area should be protected with all available means. Its associated archaeological deposits are relatively undisturbed and sensitive to episodes of looting, development, or natural disturbances.
2. To better define the nature and extent of the archaeological resources at this site, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine its eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, it is recommended that phase I testing and mapping of each resource area be undertaken in conjunction with a cultural landscape inventory. This archaeological work should consist of systematic shovel probing across the site. After the site's landscape features are mapped, the goals of shovel probing should include the identification of the locations containing subsurface cultural materials and indicate their spatial relationship to building ruins and landscape features. Finally, site boundaries should be refined on the basis of historical records and the distribution of archaeological remains.
3. Depending on the results of the survey, phase II exploratory archaeological investigations may be necessary. This work should assess the integrity of cultural deposits by excavating several test units throughout the site. The results of these kinds of investigations should produce data from which interpretations about the life of the people who lived there can be articulated.
4. More intensive archival and literary research should also be undertaken to identify the Koontz family and archival records that may provide some insight into their lives, such as, but not limited to, tax records, census records, agriculture censuses, marriage, birth and death records, military service records, and wills and inventories.
5. The results of the above investigations can and should be used to compare what we know about this site to other locations in the Gauley River valley like the Legg Farm, as well as the New River Gorge including the Burin Martin Farmstead and the Berry Farm.

Given these investigations, the Koontz Bend resource area should be considered potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion

D. The recommended archaeological and archival research should be able to provide additional information on the size of this site and the nature of the archaeological deposits associated with it. Taken together the recommended archival research and field investigations should produce the information needed to more fully evaluate the significance of this site.

Legg Farmstead

| | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Site Type: | Farmstead |
| Property Type: | Farmstead |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4229484 E 498502 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | Gauley River 180m |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | 5 acres |
| Previous Disturbance: | Demolition |
| ASIMS # | 32 |

Site Description

Legg Farmstead is located in the Gauley River National Recreation Area, Nicholas County, West Virginia (Figures 5.75 and 5.76). The site is near the historic town of Albion and just off modern Panther Mountain Road (CR 22). The site includes the foundation remains of a house and chimney and an outbuilding. Remnants of a concrete path and stairs, a well, a bed frame, refrigerator, and drain pipes are still visible at the site.

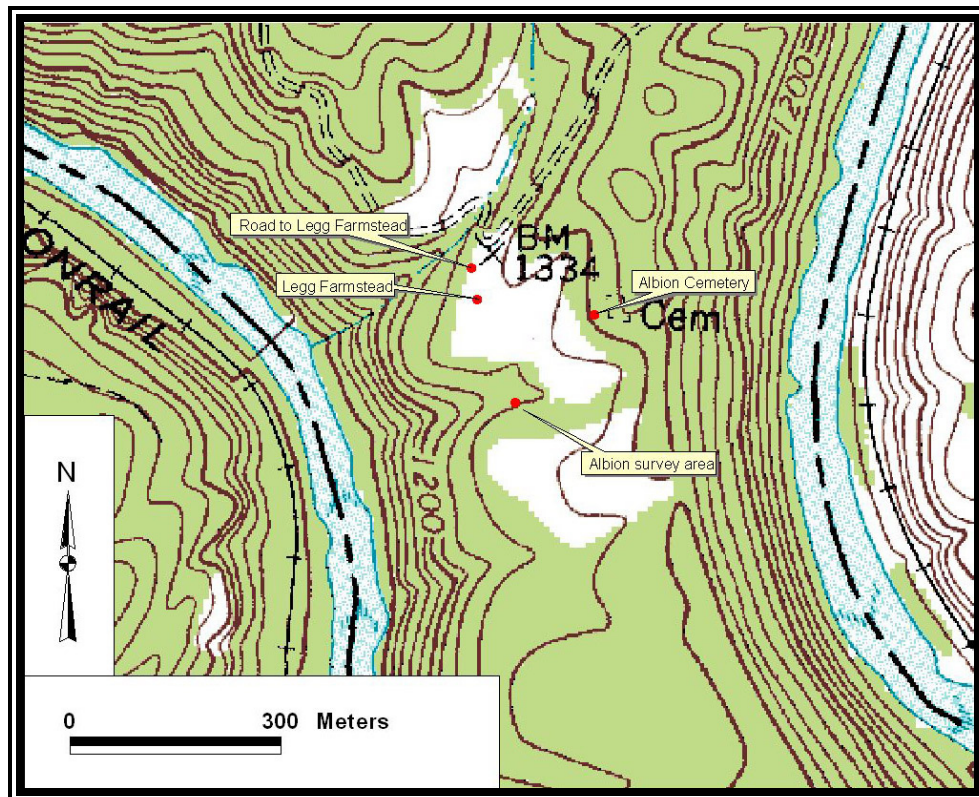


Figure 5.75. Location of Legg Farmstead on 1976 Ansted WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map.

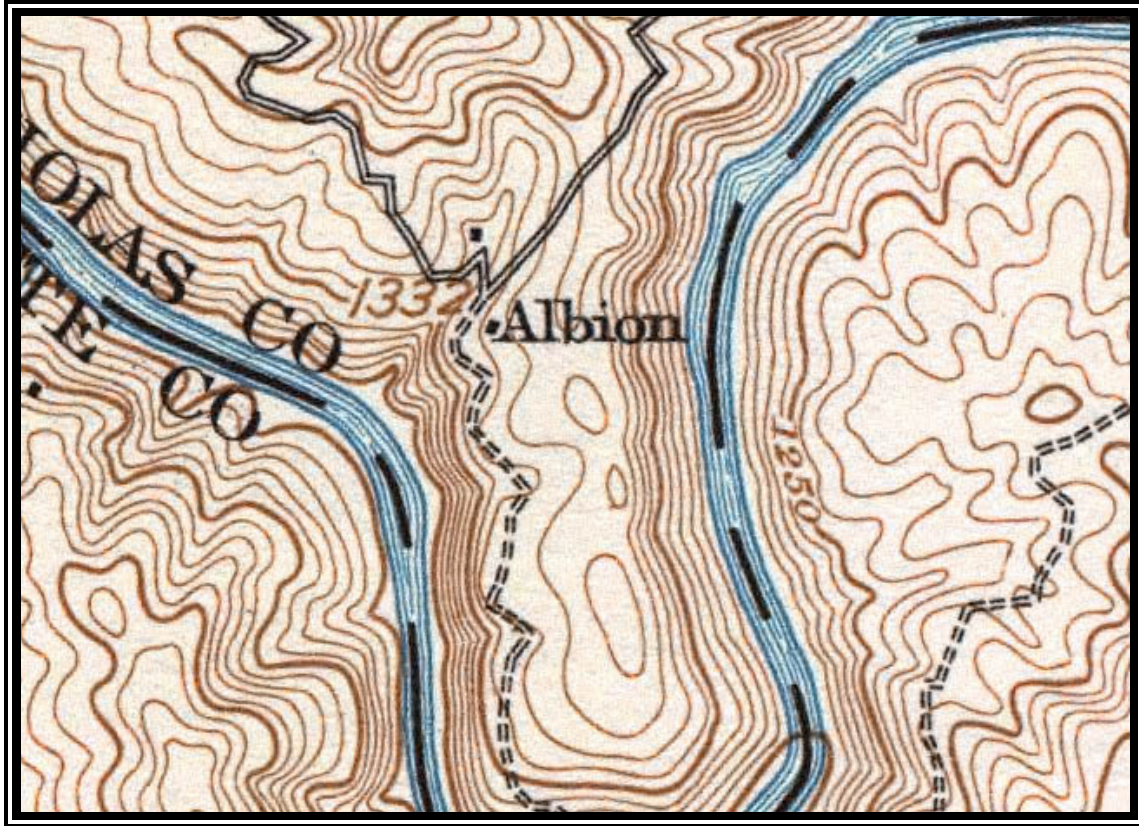


Figure 5.76. Location of Legg Farmstead on 1928 Fayetteville WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.

Site History

The Legg Farmstead is located near the historic town of Albion. According to Miller (1992), Albion is the only town located within the boundaries of GARI. In 1820, Henry Hess bought 100 acres that became Albion. Sometime after this the Legg family headed by A.J. Legg, settled in the town. “Albion was never large and mainly served as a place where farmers from the Panther Mountain area could get their mail and shop at a small store” (Miller 1992:28). Many members of the Legg family are buried at Albion cemetery (see Albion cemetery site description).

Archaeological Fieldwork

The Legg Farm site was examined by pedestrian survey that included observing and photodocumenting any structural remains (Figure 5.77-79).

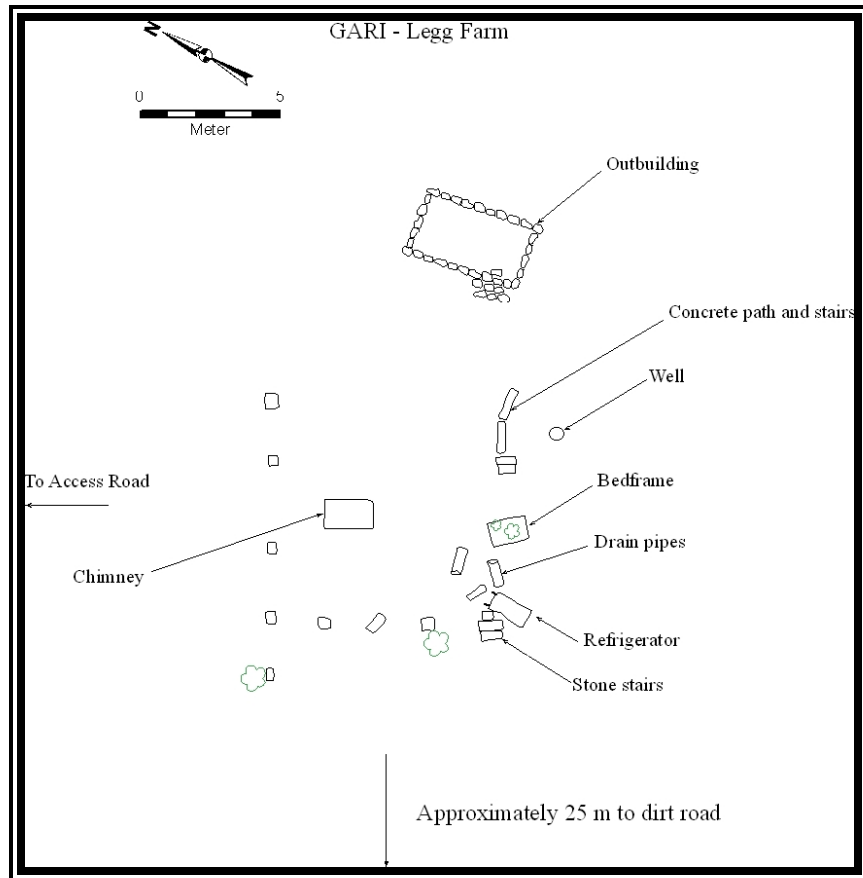


Figure 5.77. Site map of Legg Farmstead.



Figure 5.78. Overall view of Legg house site looking west (see Figure 5.77).



Figure 5.79. Legg Farmstead house chimney (see Figure 5.77).



Figure 5.80. Close up of Legg house chimney.



Figure 5.81. Remains of Legg Farmstead outbuilding looking east (see Figure 5.77).



Figure 5.82. Artifacts on surface at Legg Farmstead (see Figure 5.77).

Artifacts Collected or Observed

No artifacts were collected at this site. A number of large artifacts were visible on the surface. These artifacts include, drain pipes, a bed frame and a refrigerator. A central chimney was still intact in the center of the house foundation remains. The chimney has four fireplaces, indicating two stories and a room on either side of the chimney. The stone and construction style is very similar to the chimney on the 1888 House (herein), also located on Panther Mountain Road (CR 22). The similarity between the chimneys on both structures is striking and may indicate design and construction by a single person.

Summary and Recommendations

Based on these investigations, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Legg Farmstead site. The site represents a good example of a late nineteenth to early twentieth century farmstead in the Gauley River region. It represents an opportunity to study one of the agricultural resources of the region and the site relates to the early settlement and lumbering historic contexts developed by Unrau (1996) for the New River Gorge National River. In that regard, further investigations of the Legg Farmstead site might provide important information about Appalachian farming. Research topic of transportation, consumerism, and internal organization can all be examined through the archaeological remains at the Legg Farmstead. Another avenue of research could include intra-community relationships among nearby farms including the Koontz farmstead. The farmstead provides an example of a very different way of life than that experienced in the nearby lumber and coal towns.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Legg Farmstead should be protected with all available means.
2. To better define the nature and extent of the archaeological resources at this site, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine its eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, it is recommended that phase I testing and mapping of each resource area be undertaken in conjunction with a cultural landscape inventory. This archaeological work should consist of systematic shovel probing across the site. After the site's landscape features are mapped, the goals of shovel probing should include the identification of the locations containing subsurface cultural materials and indicate their spatial relationship to building ruins and landscape features. Finally, site boundaries should be refined on the basis of historical records and the distribution of archaeological remains.
3. Depending on the results of the survey, phase II exploratory archaeological investigations may be necessary. This work should assess the integrity of cultural deposits by excavating several test units throughout the site. The results of these

kinds of investigations should produce data from which interpretations about the life of the people who lived there can be articulated.

4. More intensive archival and literary research should also be undertaken to identify the Legg family and archival records that may provide some insight into their lives, such as, but not limited to, tax records, census records, agriculture censuses, marriage records, military service records, and wills
6. The results of the above investigations can and should be used to compare what we know about this site to other locations in the Gauley River valley, particularly the Koontz farmstead, as well as the New River Gorge including the Burin Martin Farmstead and the Berry Farm.

Given these investigations, the Legg farmstead should be considered potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D. The recommended archaeological and archival research should be able to provide additional information on the size of this site and the nature of the archaeological deposits associated with it. Taken together the recommended archival research and field investigations should produce the information needed to more fully evaluate the significance of this site.

Milam Grave Plot

| | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Site Type: | Cemetery |
| Property Type: | Cemetery |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4232066 E 495964 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | Peters Creek 60m |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | 0.001 acres |
| Previous Disturbance: | Unknown |
| ASIMS # | 33 |

Site Description

The Milam Grave plot contains the single internment of Ebenezer Milam (1840-1905), who fought in the Civil War. It is located just outside the boundaries of the Gauley River National Recreation Area, Nicholas County, West Virginia (Figures 5.83 and 5.84), just to the east of Peters Creek.

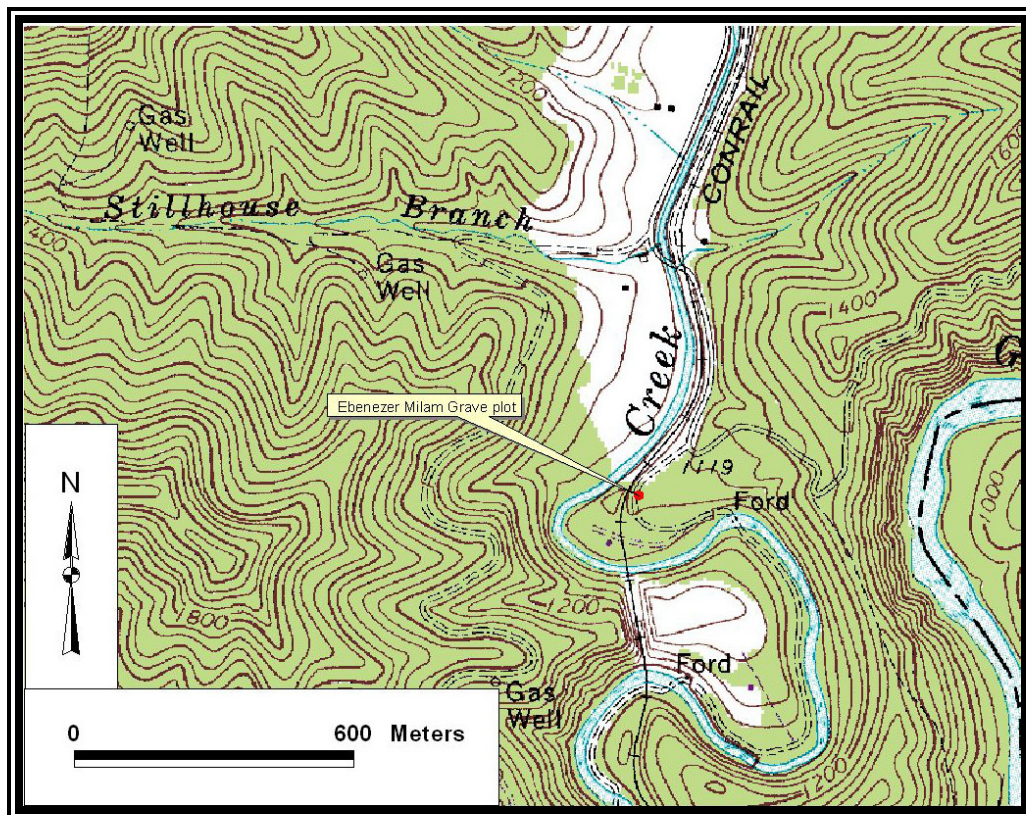


Figure 5.83. Location of Milam Grave plot on 1976 Ansted USGS 7.5' Topographic Map.



Figure 5.84. Location of Milam Grave plot on 1928 Fayetteville USGS 15' Topographic Map.

Site History

Ebenezer Milam (1840-1905) enlisted in Company E, 37th Battalion Virginia Cavalry as a private. This battalion was organized on August 2, 1862 and fought in two battles: Petersburg, Virginia on June 17, 1864 and Moorefield, Hardy County, West Virginia on August 7, 1864. Other unmarked graves were reported by Al Zopp (Smith 2005).

Archaeological Fieldwork

The Milam Cemetery was examined by pedestrian survey that included observing and photodocumenting its gravestone and site area (Figures 5.85-87).

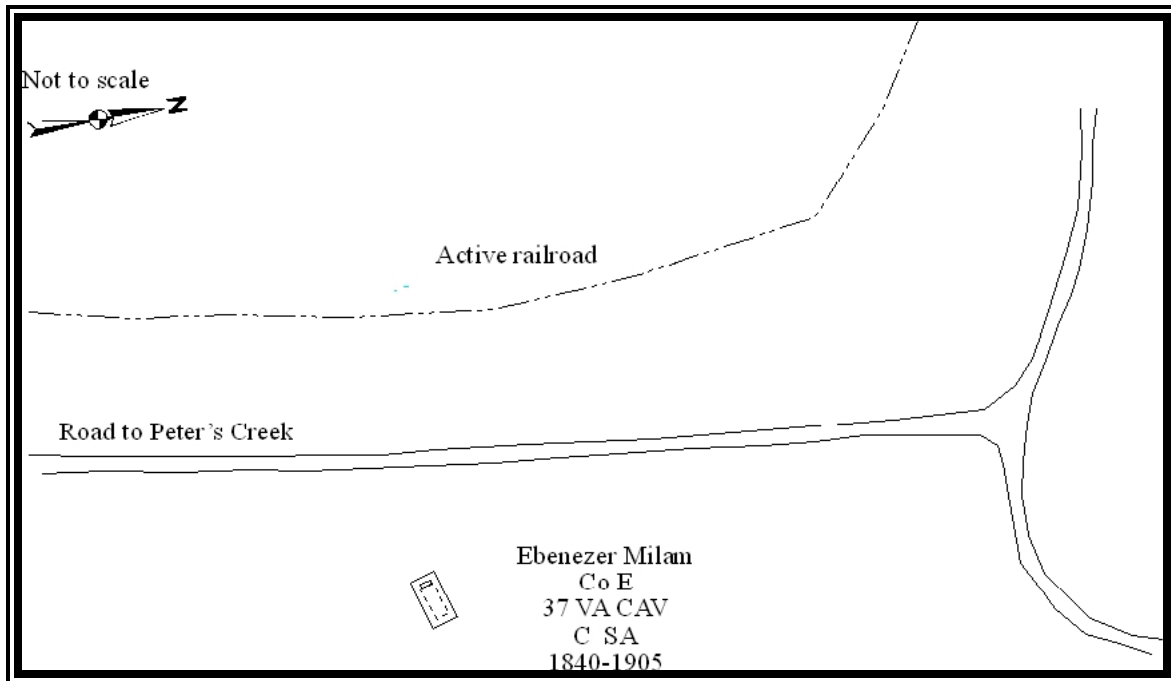


Figure 5.85. Planview map of Milam Cemetery.



Figure 5.86. Milam's grave.



Figure 5.87. Close-up of Ebenezer Milam's Headstone.

Artifacts Collected or Observed

No artifacts were collected or observed at this cemetery.

Summary and Recommendations

Based on these investigations, several observations and recommendations can be made for future investigation of the Milam grave plot.

The following recommendations are provided:

6. The Park should support the preservation of the cemetery.
7. The West Virginia Cemetery Survey, associated with the West Virginia State Historic Preservation Office, has cemetery survey forms that should be completed for the Albion Cemetery. These forms are available at <http://www.wvculture.org/shpo/cemeteries.html>
8. In order to better define the nature and extent of the burials at this site, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, it is recommended that a more intensive assessment and cultural landscape inventory be conducted. The feasibility of a geophysical examination of the cemetery should be explored. Geophysical

examination may help identify the boundaries of the cemetery and unmarked graves.

9. The results of the above investigations can and should be used to compare what we know about other cemeteries in the Gauley River valley. Once accomplished, such comparisons should be made in view of the relationship(s) that such settlements had with other communities in the Gauley valley and in the surrounding area.
10. We recommend additional and more intensive archival work on the settlement and the people who lived and worked near Peter's Creek.

Cemeteries are not usually considered eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. If a cemetery is associated with historic events, include significant examples of funerary architecture and contain important information about the past, they may be considered for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places. Cemeteries not in association with any other eligible property, must meet one of the four main Criteria as well as one of two additional criteria considerations. The recommended intensive assessment and cultural landscape inventory will provide enough information to determine eligibility of the Milam Cemetery.

Pine Grove School

| | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Site Type: | Educational |
| Property Type: | Educational |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4230042 E 498897 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | Gauley River 120m |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | 0.5 acres |
| Previous Disturbance: | Demolition |
| ASIMS # | 34 |

Site Description

The Pine Grove School site is located in the Gauley River National Recreation Area, Nicholas County, West Virginia (Figures 5.88 and 5.89). The site is located along Panther Mountain Road (CR 22) near an intersection of a dirt road and along an unnamed creek. It includes a wooded and cleared area and is situated about 500 m southwest of the 1888 House site. There are three depressions at the site (Figures 5.90). Possible foundation stones were identified. The two depression associated with the possible foundations stones may represent a cellar, while the other may be a privy.

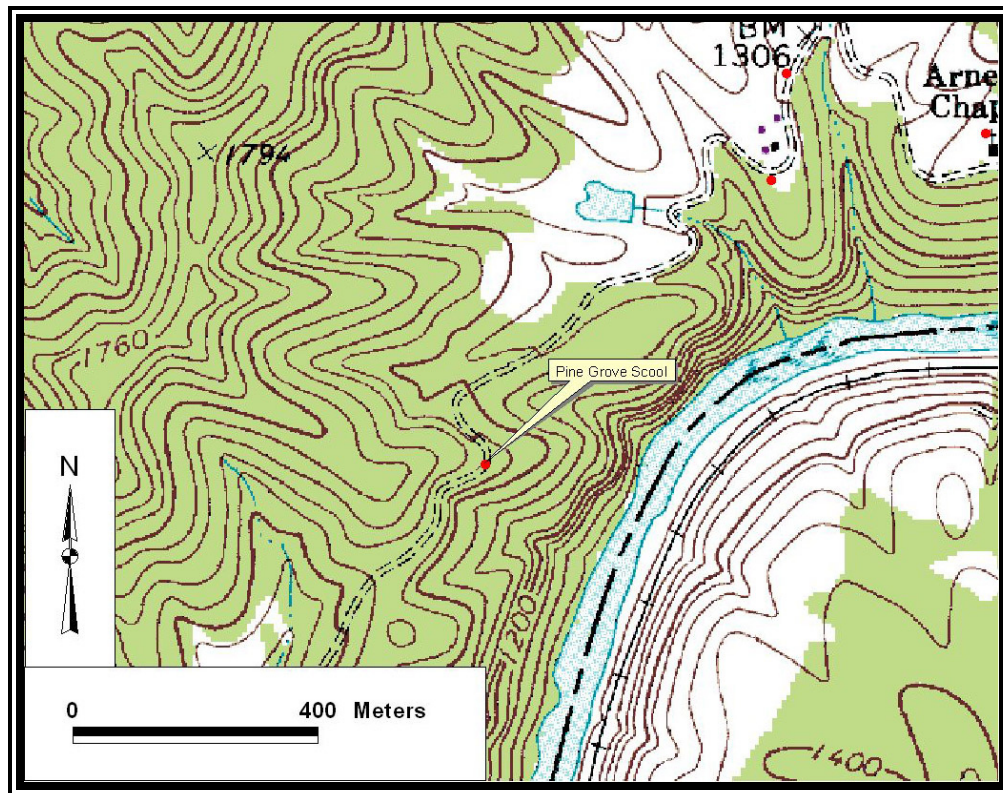


Figure 5.88. Location of Pine Grove School site on 1976 Ansted WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map.

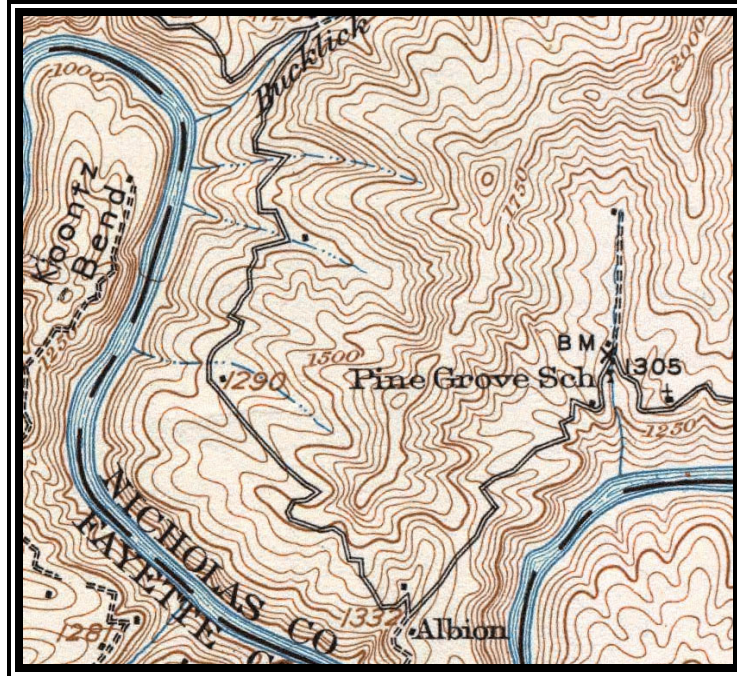


Figure 5.89. Location of Pine Grove School site on 1928 Fayetteville WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.

Archaeological Fieldwork

The Pine Grove School site was examined by pedestrian survey and shovel probes (Figures 5.90). Three shovel probes were placed near depressions and possible foundation remains to determine if intact cultural deposits were present. The shovel probes were 30 to 35 cm in diameter and were excavated until sterile subsoil was encountered. Soil from all shovel probes was screened through 6.35 mm hardware cloth. Information, consisting of location, size, depth, and soil profile was recorded for positive shovel probes. The representative shovel probe consisted of two strata. The first stratum was 19 cm thick medium grayish brown silty loam topsoil. Strata two consisted of light orange brown slit clay subsoil. Of the three shovel probes excavated at this site, cultural materials were only recovered from shovel probes 1 (coal) and 3 (small brick fragment) and the materials were not retained.

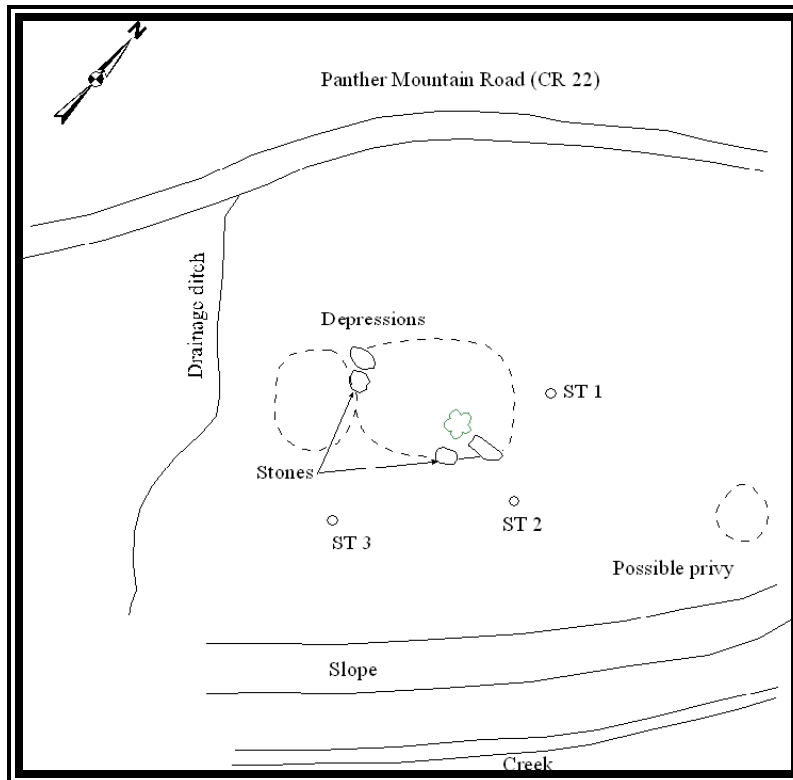


Figure 5.90. Site map of Pine Grove School.



Figure 5.91. Pine Grove School site looking south.



Figure 5.92. Depression (possible privy) at Pine Grove School site (looking south) (see Figure 5.90).

Artifacts Collected or Observed

No artifacts were collected at this site.

Summary and Recommendations

Based on these investigations, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Pine Grove School site. The site represents a property type that developed as the region's population grew and buildings were needed to educate children.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Pine Grove School site should be protected with all available means. Ownership of the property must be determined. If the Park does not own the property, the Park should consider partnering with the property owner to investigate and preserve the site.
2. It is recommended that phase I testing and mapping of the site be undertaken in conjunction with a cultural landscape inventory. This should be done to better define the nature and extent of the archaeological resources at the Pine Grove School site, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine its eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D. This work should include systematic shovel probing across the entire site. After the site's landscape features are mapped, the goals of shovel probing should

include the identification of the locations containing subsurface cultural materials and indicate their spatial relationship to building ruins and landscape features. Finally, site boundaries should be refined on the basis of historical records and the distribution of archaeological remains.

3. Depending on the results of the survey, phase II exploratory archaeological investigations may be necessary. This work should assess the integrity of cultural deposits at the school by excavating several test units. The results of these kinds of investigations should produce data from which interpretations about the life of the people who lived there can be articulated.
4. The results of the above investigations can and should be used to compare what we know about this site to other locations in the Gauley River valley and the surrounding area, such as the Copeland School and the school located in Sugar Creek.

Based on the information gained for this study, the Pine Grove School site is not considered potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D at this time. When the recommended archival and archaeological work can be completed, a determination of eligibility for listing in the National Register of Historic Places can be made.

Sugar Creek Site

| | |
|---------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| Site Type: | Industrial |
| Property Type: | Transportation |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4228325 E 492246 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | Gauley River 5m |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | 655 acres |
| Previous Disturbance: | Demolition, recreational use |
| ASIMS # | 35 |

Site Description

The Sugar Creek site is located within the Gauley River National Recreation Area, Fayette County, West Virginia (Figures 5.93 and 5.94). The site consists of transportation related remains, specifically roadbeds and railbeds. The area is currently used by a commercial rafting enterprise as a put in location on the Gauley River. Little remains of the former logging operation.

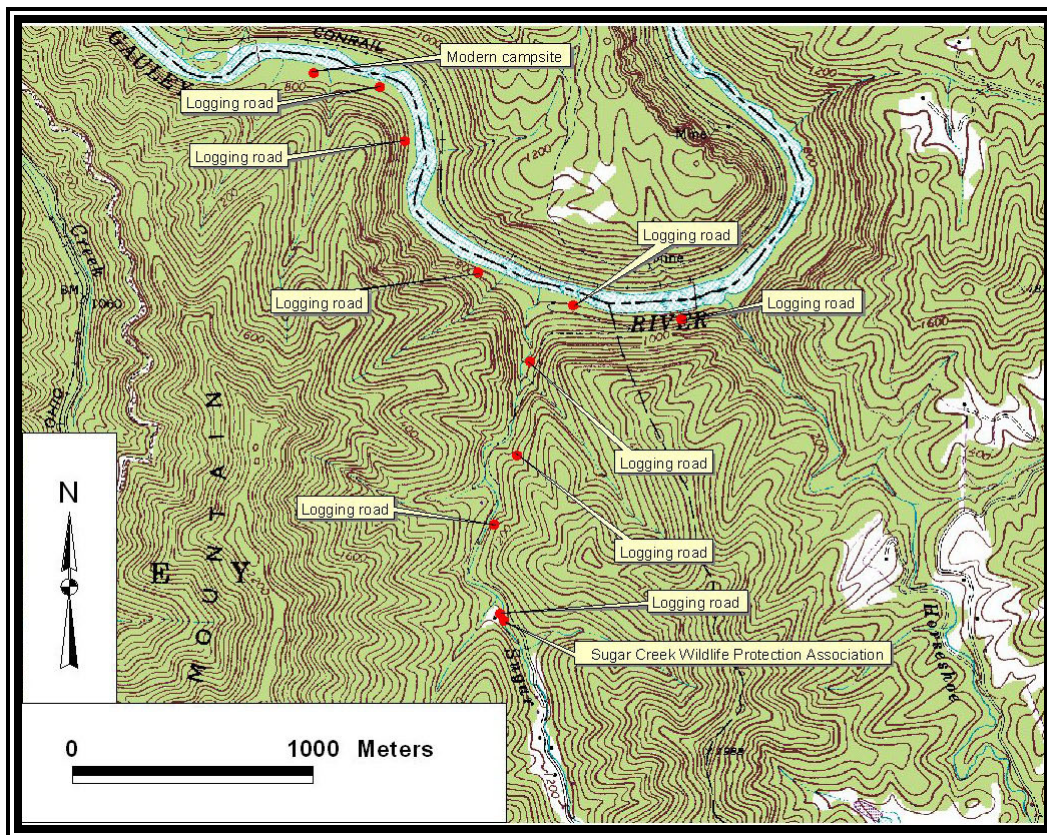


Figure 5.93. Location of Sugar Creek site on 1976 Ansted WV USGS 7.5' Topographic Map.

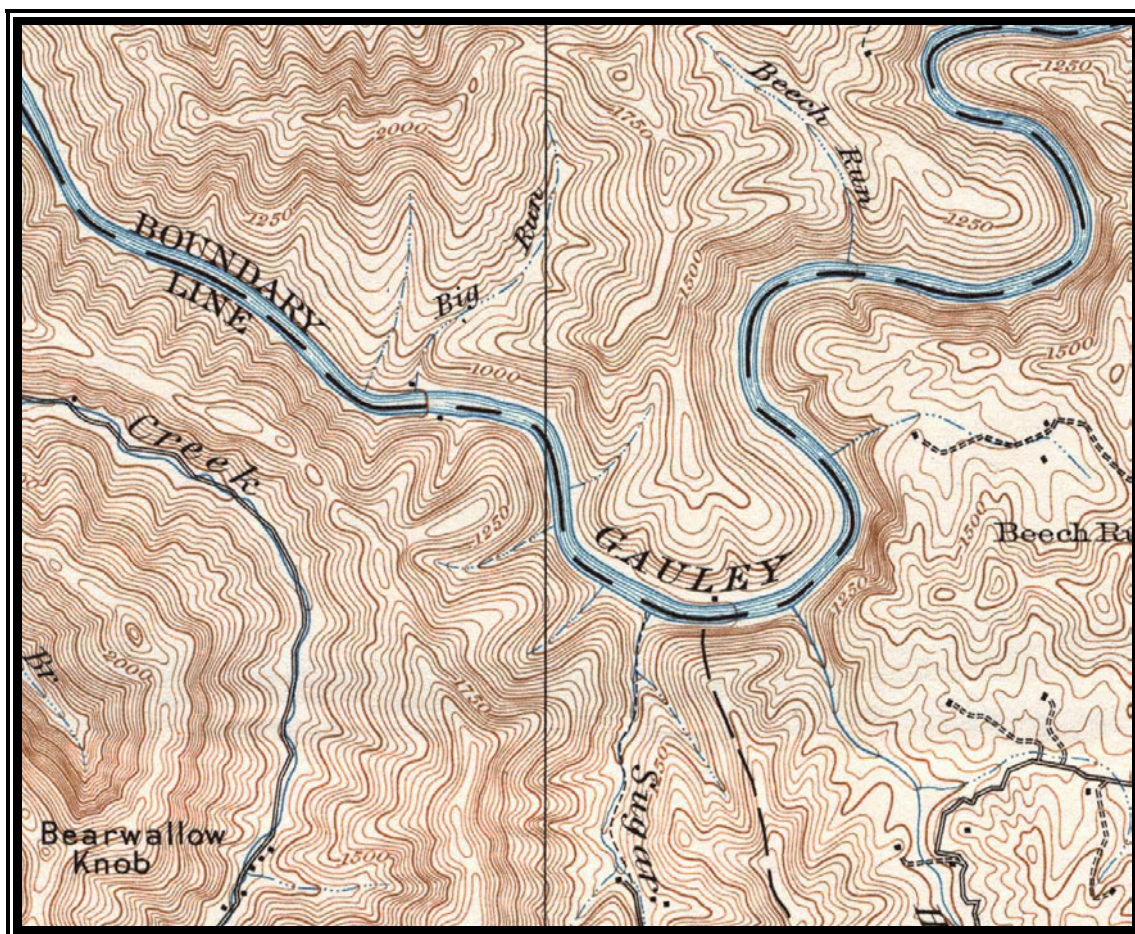


Figure 5.94. Location of Sugar Creek site on 1928 Fayetteville WV USGS 15' Topographic Map.

Site History

No archival information was obtained about the Sugar Creek site. A small cluster of houses, shown on the 1928 Fayetteville WV USGS 15' Topographic map (Figure 5.94), made up the community of Sugar Creek.

Archaeological Fieldwork

The Sugar Creek site was examined by pedestrian survey that included observing and photodocumenting any structural remains (Figures 5.95-99). A standing school building was located on the road leading into the Sugar Creek site, but outside the boundaries of GARI.



Figure 5.95. Old school on road into Sugar Creek area.



Figure 5.96. Former road or rail bed in Sugar Creek.



Figure 5.97. Road to beach at Sugar Creek.



Figure 5.98. Road in Sugar Creek.



Figure 5.99. Road cuts in Sugar Creek.

Artifacts Collected or Observed

No artifacts were collected or observed at this site.

Summary and Recommendations

Based on these investigations, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Sugar Creek site. The site relates to the lumber industry historic context developed by Unrau (1996) for the New River Gorge National River.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Sugar Creek site should be protected with all available means. Ownership should be determined. If the Park does not own the entire site, the Park should partner with the owners to investigate and preserve the site.
2. Substantial archival work is necessary. While little information was found for this project, more research into land ownership, company records, and community makeup for the entire Sugar Creek area is needed. Specific information such as types of lumber harvested, transportation issues, markets where lumber was sold are all needed for a complete assess of the resources eligibility to the National Register of Historic Places.

3. This archival information may lead to specific physical information about the site. If such information is located, it is recommended that phase I testing and mapping of the site be undertaken in conjunction with a cultural landscape inventory. This should be done to better define the nature and extent of the archaeological resources at the Sugar Creek site, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine its eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D. This work should include systematic shovel probing across the entire site. After the site's landscape features are mapped, the goals of shovel probing should include the identification of the locations containing subsurface cultural materials and indicate their spatial relationship to building ruins and landscape features. Finally, site boundaries should be refined on the basis of historical records and the distribution of archaeological remains.
4. Depending on the results of the survey, phase II exploratory archaeological investigations may be necessary. This work should assess the integrity of cultural deposits at the school by excavating several test units. The results of these kinds of investigations should produce data from which interpretations about the life of the people who lived there can be articulated.
5. The results of the above investigations can and should be used to compare what we know about this site to other locations in the Gauley River valley and the surrounding area, such as Hamlet in the New River Gorge.

Based on the information gained for this study, the Sugar Creek site is not considered potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D at this time. When the recommended archival and archaeological work can be completed, a determination of eligibility for listing in the National Register of Historic Places can be made.

Wood's Ferry

| | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Site Type: | Transportation |
| Property Type: | Transportation |
| UTM Coordinates: | Zone 17: N 4228175 E 498824 |
| Proximity and name of Nearest Stream: | Gauley River 180m |
| Visibility: | 0% |
| Site Size: | 7.3 acres |
| Previous Disturbance: | Destruction |
| ASIMS # | 36 |

Site Description

The Wood's Ferry site is located in the Gauley River National Recreation Area, Fayette County, West Virginia (Figures 5.100 and 5.101). The site is located at the confluence of the Ramsey Branch and the Gauley River. The site includes the remains of old road beds, a tunnel, and the landing (beach) (Figure 5.102-104). The site most likely extends to the north side of the Gauley.

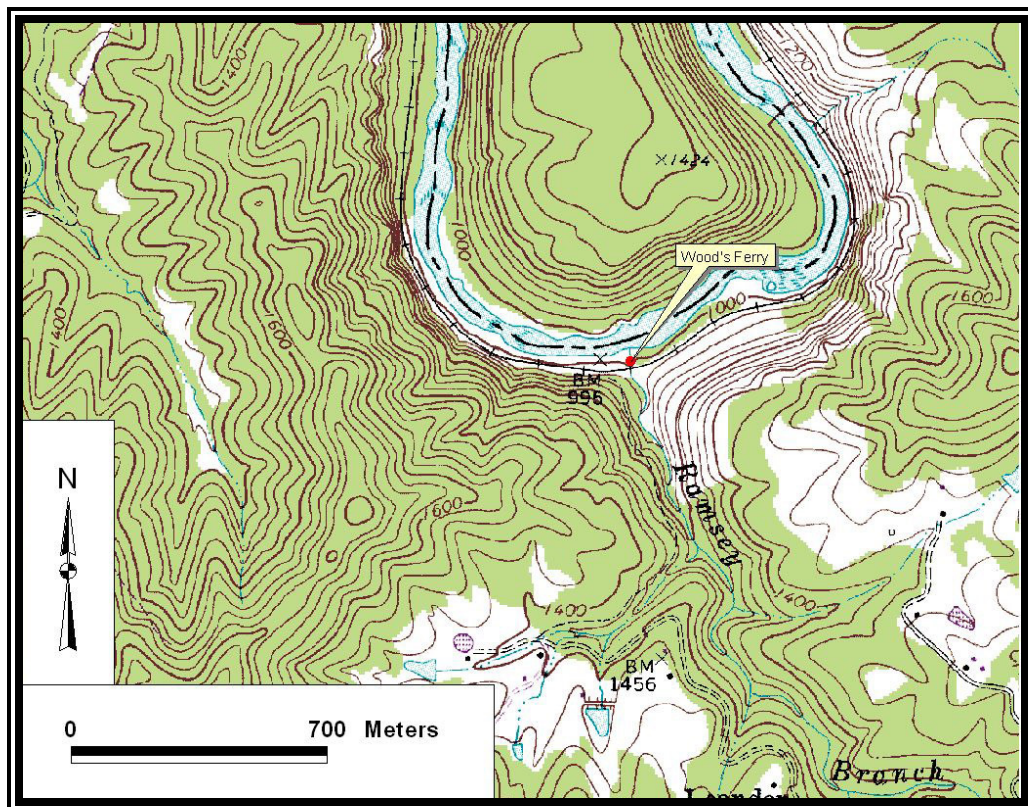


Figure 5.100. Location of Wood's Ferry on 1976 Ansted USGS 7.5' Topographic Map.



Figure 5.101. Location of Wood's Ferry on 1928 Fayetteville USGS 15' Topographic Map.

Archaeological Fieldwork

The Wood's Ferry site was examined by pedestrian survey that included observing and photodocumenting any structural remains (Figures 5.99-101). No shovel probes were excavated at this site. Previous visits by Park Cultural Resource Specialist, David Fuerst, yielded historic ceramics on the east side of Ramsey Branch.



Figure 5.102. Crossing at Wood's Ferry.



Figure 5.103. Wood's Ferry site tunnel looking south.



Figure 5.104. Landing at Wood's Ferry.

Site History

No archival information was obtained about the Wood's Ferry site.

Artifacts Collected or Observed

No artifacts were collected or observed at this site.

Summary and Recommendations

Based on these investigations, several observations and recommendations can be made about the Wood's Ferry site. The site is associated transportation routes and river crossings in the Gauley River region.

The following recommendations are provided:

1. The Wood's Ferry site should be protected with all available means. The ownership of the land should be determined on both sides of the Gauley River.
2. It is recommended that phase I testing and mapping of the site be undertaken in conjunction with a cultural landscape inventory, on both sides of the Gauley River. This should be done to better define the nature and extent of the archaeological resources at the Wood's Ferry site, and to collect sufficient information in order to determine its eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D. This work should include systematic

shovel probing across the entire site. After the site's landscape features are mapped, the goals of shovel probing should include the identification of the locations containing subsurface cultural materials and indicate their spatial relationship to building ruins and landscape features. Finally, site boundaries should be refined on the basis of historical records and the distribution of archaeological remains.

3. Depending on the results of the survey, phase II exploratory archaeological investigations may be necessary. This work should assess the integrity of cultural deposits at crossing by excavating several test units. The results of these kinds of investigations should produce data from which interpretations about the life of the people who may have lived or worked there can be articulated.
4. The results of the above investigations can and should be used to compare what we know about this site to other locations in the Gauley River valley and the surrounding area, such as Carnifex Ferry.

Based on the information gained for this study, the Wood's Ferry site is not considered potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under criterion D at this time. When the recommended archival and archaeological work can be completed, a determination of eligibility for listing in the National Register of Historic Places can be made.

CHAPTER 6

PREHISTORIC SURVEY

In addition to examining the historic archaeological resources, select areas within GARI were examined in an attempt to locate prehistoric sites. Approximately 160 acres were surveyed for prehistoric cultural deposits. A recommendation for survey of upland areas was made in Burdin (2004), as prehistoric sites have been found previously in upland areas, as well as in adjacent Laurel Creek bottomland areas. The survey areas were chosen in consultation with GARI's cultural resource specialist David Fuerst. The areas targeted for survey were located in Nicholas County an upland ridge above Beech Run, a tributary of the Gauley River (Flynn Tract), as well as Koontz Bend, and near Albion. None of the survey areas yielded prehistoric sites. One surface site located near Bucklick Creek during fieldwork for the historic survey was found, which the Park's archaeologist will document more fully.

The soils within the four survey areas consisted primarily of Gilpin silt loams. These soils tend to be associated with 15 to 35 percent slopes (Carpenter 1992:30) and are moderately steep and well-drained. Gilpin silt loams are usually associated with hillsides, benches, and narrow ridgetops. Stones up to 60 cm in diameter can cover 1 to 3 percent of the ground surface in areas containing Gilpin soils (Carpenter 1992:30).

Carpenter (1992:30, 67) characterizes the Gilpin silt loam soil profile as follows: the surface (A horizon) is a dark brown (10YR4/3) silt loam about 7 cm thick with the subsoil (B horizon) extending to a depth of about 68 cm below the surface. The substratum (C horizon) is yellowish brown (10YR5/6) very channery loam and extends to bedrock at a depth of 86 cm below the surface (Carpenter 1992:30).

BEECH RUN

The Beech Run tract was divided into two sections (Figure 6.1). Survey Area 1 was located on an east-west trending ridgetop that was surrounding on three sides by the Gauley River. Survey Area 2 was situated to the northwest of Survey Area 1 and was situated on an east-west trending ridgetop.

Survey Area 1

Survey Area 1 was situated on a broad ridge above the confluence of Beech Run and the Gauley River. This area encompassed approximately 45 acres. A road leads up to a gas well that is located on the northern edge of this ridge (Figure 6.2). In addition, this area is crisscrossed with jeep trails (Figures 6.2-6.5). These trails were used to access varying locales where shovel probes were excavated. The areas chosen for investigation were high probability land forms (i.e. ridges, saddles). No artifacts were found in any of the 40 shovel probes excavated throughout this area at varying intervals. A representative shovel probe profile consisted of three strata. The representative shovel

probe consisted of three strata. The first strata was a 7 cm thick dark grayish brown (10YR 3/2) silty sand loam (humus). Strata two consisted of an 11 cm thick light yellowish brown (10YR 6/4) silty sand loam (topsoil/plowzone), while strata three consisted of brownish yellow (10YR 6/6) silty sand loam (subsoil).

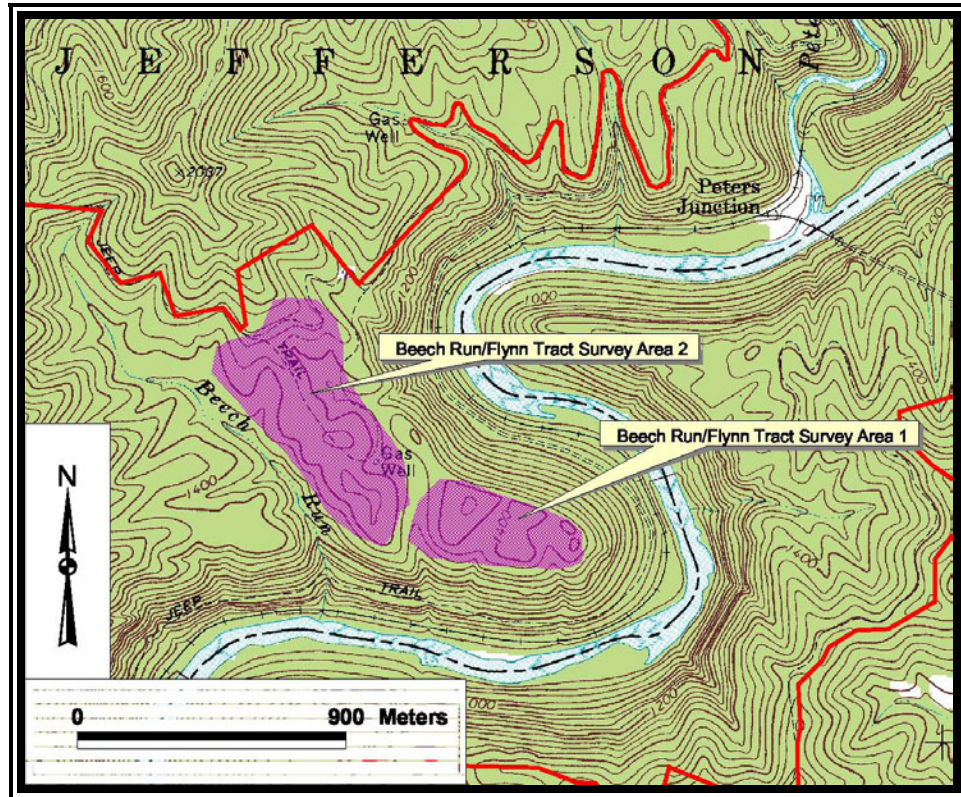


Figure 6.1. Beech Run/Flynn Tract Survey Areas.



Figure 6.2. Beech Run Survey Area 1 at northern edge of survey area showing gas well.



Figure 6.3. Beech Run Survey Area 1 showing road leading up to ridgetop.



Figure 6.4. Beech Run Survey Area 1: Jeep Trail.



Figure 6.5. Beech Run Survey Area 1: Another jeep trail.

Survey Area 2

Survey Area 2 was located to the northwest of Survey Area 1, but on the same broad ridgetop (Figures 6.1). This area encompassed approximately 98 acres. The areas chosen for investigation were high probability land forms (i.e., ridges, saddles) (Figure 6.6). A total of 33 shovel probes was excavated in this survey area. These probes were excavated at varying intervals. No artifacts were recovered were recovered from any of the shovel probes. The soil profile consisted of two strata. The first strata (topsoil/plowzone) extended to a depth of 18 cm below the surface and consisted of a brown (10YR4/3) silt sand loam. The second strata (subsoil) consisted of light yellowish brown (10YR 6/4) silt sand loam. One flake of Black Kanawha chert debitage was found in this survey area on the surface but not collected.



Figure 6.6. Beech Run Survey Area 2.

KOONTZ BEND SURVEY AREA

The Koontz Bend survey area was located near a historic wagon leading up to the Koontz family cemetery (Figures 1.3 and 6.7-6.9). The areas chosen for investigation were high probability land forms (i.e., ridges and saddles). A total of 12 shovel probes was excavated in this 12 acre survey area. These probes were excavated at varying intervals. No artifacts were recovered were recovered from any of the shovel probes. The soil profile consisted of two strata. The first strata (topsoil/plowzone) went from the surface to 20 cm below the surface and consisted of a brown (10YR4/3) silt sand loam. The second strata (subsoil) consisted of light yellowish brown (10YR 6/4) silt sand loam.

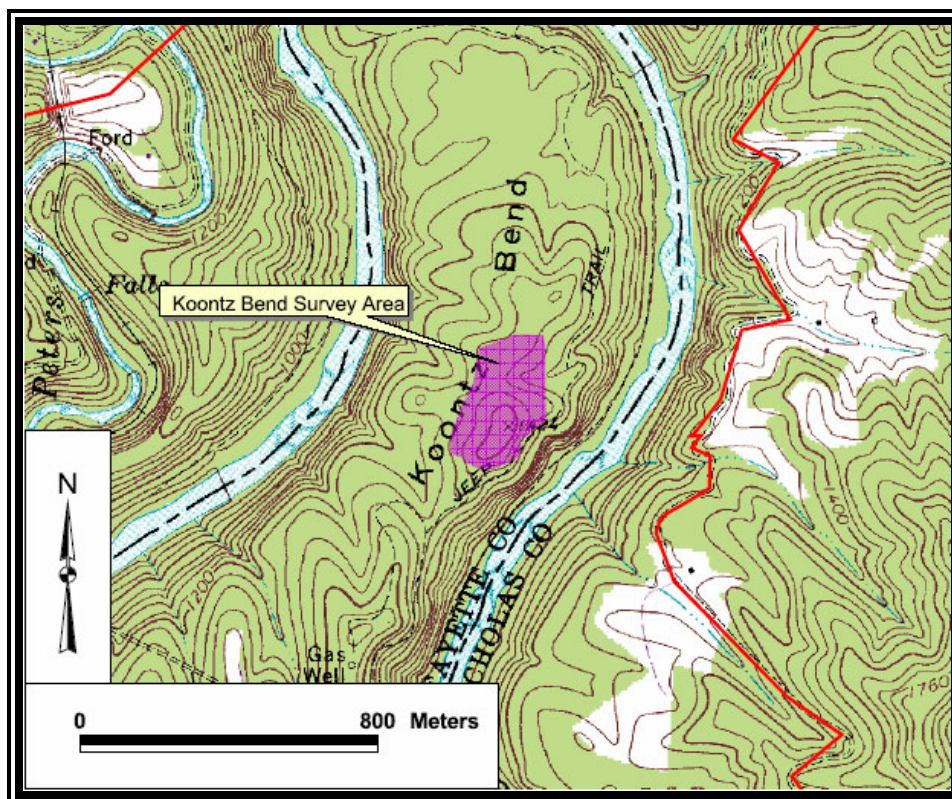


Figure 6.7. Koontz survey area.



Figure 6.8. Koontz Bend survey area.



Figure 6.9. Koontz Bend survey area.

ALBION SURVEY AREA

The Albion survey area was located near Panther Mountain Road (Figures 6.10-13)). The areas chosen for investigation were high probability land forms (i.e., ridges and saddles). A total of 4 shovel probes was excavated in this 3 acre survey area (Figure 6.11). These probes were excavated at 10 m intervals. No artifacts were recovered were recovered from any of the shovel probes. The soil profile consisted of two strata. The first strata (topsoil/plowzone) went from the surface to 15 cm below the surface and consisted of brown (10YR4/3) silt sand loam. The second strata (subsoil) consisted of a light yellowish brown (10YR6/4) silt sand loam.

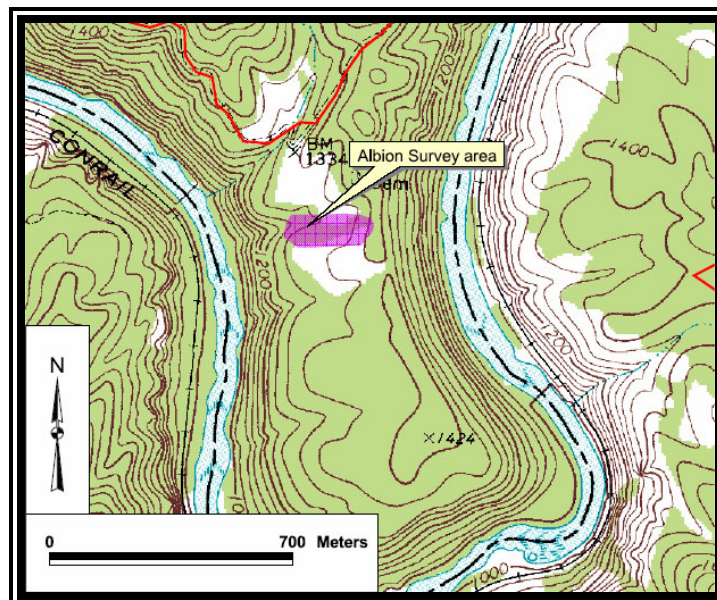


Figure 6.10. Albion survey area.

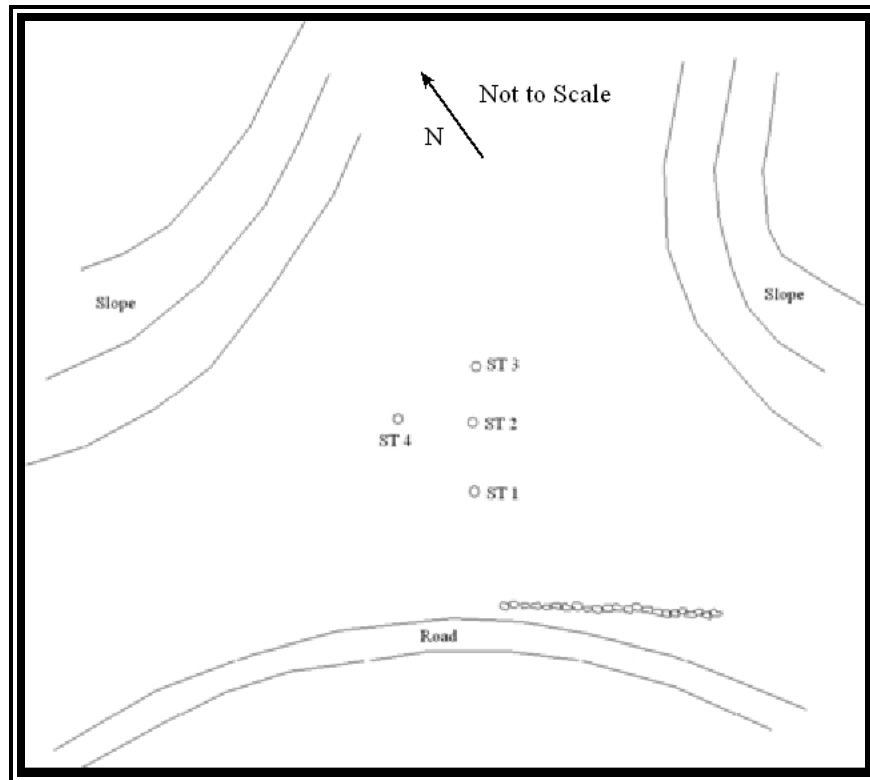


Figure 6.11. Sketch map of Albion shovel survey area (not to scale).



Figure 6.12. Albion survey area (looking east).

BUCKLICK CREEK SURFACE FIND

A single flake of Black Kanawha chert was found in the unimproved road surface near a split in the road along Bucklick Creek (Figure 6.13). The area was believed to be close to the location of the Bucklick School. The area was examined by pedestrian survey and no other cultural material was located. The Bucklick Chimney (herein) which may be the remains of the Bucklick School where documented approximately 400 m from the surface find. The site will be further examined, mapped and documented by the Park's archaeologist.

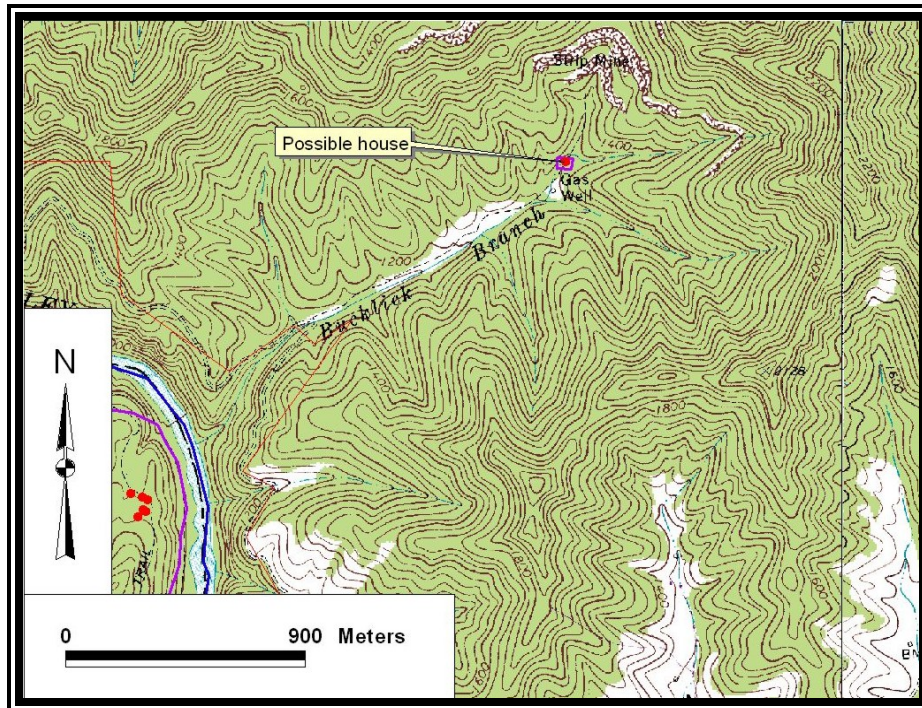


Figure 6.13. Bucklick Creek surface isolated find.

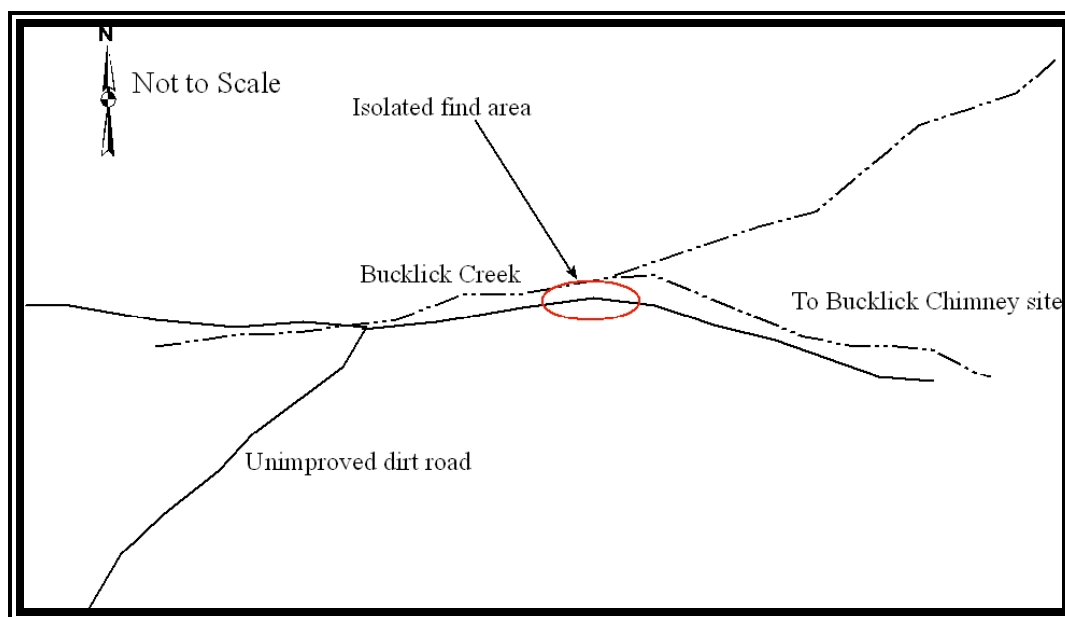


Figure 6.14. Site map Bucklick Creek isolated find.

SUMMARY

In addition to identifying and documenting historic archaeological sites, an attempt was made to locate prehistoric sites in upland settings within GARI. The areas chosen for investigation were high probability land forms (i.e. ridges and saddles) associated with upland ridgetops overlooking the Gauley River. A total of approximately 160 acres was examined. Only isolated examples of prehistoric cultural remains were recovered during the course of this study. That no prehistoric archaeological sites were documented should not be interpreted as indicating that upland settings or the entire GARI region has a low potential for containing archaeological sites. It simply reflects an absence of prehistoric archaeological sites or a low density of archaeological materials in the few areas examined during the course of this study.

CHAPTER 7

DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

INTRODUCTION

Historic archaeological investigations at both parks have the potential to address a variety of research questions and to contribute to a better understanding of the history and culture of the New and Gauley River valleys and the surrounding region. Previous chapters provided a brief historic overview of the region and presented site descriptions of the many resources documented during the course of this study. In this chapter, seven research topics are identified, and questions that could be asked are presented. In developing these topics and questions, the authors drew upon the contexts presented in the other NERI historic context studies (Unrau 2002; Workman et al. 2005). Consideration also was given to the types of sites (e.g., industrial, houseslots, farmsteads, schools, and cemeteries) that were investigated during the course of this study and to the types of sites that researchers may encounter during the course of archaeological surveys within the parks. The topics and questions presented in this chapter are not meant to be exhaustive, but are put forth to provide direction for future investigations of historic archaeological resources within the parks.

Unrau (1996:191-195) and Miller (1992) posed numerous research questions that could be addressed within the entire park area. These questions or research goals include, defining spatial relationships of company towns, extent of racial and class segregation, comparisons between other coal and timber operations in other areas of the state and country, developing maps to show changes in land use, study of population and transportation growth, description of domestic lifeways in company towns and agricultural endeavors, and the role of technology in industry and domestic changes. Many of these questions have yet to be fully addressed or adapted specifically for use in archaeological study. Many of these subjects are incorporated in the research topics suggested below.

We recommend that site-specific research within the parks contribute to a larger-scale research goal that focuses on the multiple and multi-scalar relationships that existed within and between the farmsteads and communities within the entire region. In these regards, both archaeological and historical research efforts should be undertaken with the goal of reconstructing life in the communities of the area. The region has received little scholarly attention in general and thorough documentation of resources is key to developing productive research agendas and preservation efforts. Research on the relationships between small communities and farmsteads, as well as larger industrial endeavors will provide much needed context for continued studies. For example, an integrated study of Stonecliff (NERI) could research both the white and black sections of town, women's roles in the mining town and the role of religion in mining culture, as well as addressing how Stonecliff fit into the New River Gorge economy and its relationships with the other nearby settlements of Thurmond, Ephraim and Thayer. In the

GARI, an integrated study of the Legg family farmstead along with study of the nearby town of Albion could shed light on the relationships between the family farming economy and nearby communities. Each separate aspect of community research is integral to a thorough understanding and will build upon and add to our knowledge of the parks as a whole.

The topics delineated in this chapter include, community land use, internal community organization, technology and transportation, industry, foodways, health and mortality, and consumerism. Each research topic is discussed in general, and then related to the parks through specific examples and research questions. The research topics and questions presented here are not intended to be exhaustive. Rather they are intended to provide a base line for evaluating the significance of archaeological sites, developing research designs, and conducting archaeological investigations in the park. As more research is undertaken at the parks and in the surrounding region, additional questions will certainly be asked.

RESEARCH TOPICS

This section defines each research topic and discusses specific resources that may be able to address the topic within the parks. Then questions that may be useful in creating research avenues for future work are set forth.

Community and land use

Community research consists of several lines of inquiry; including distributional studies that examine industrial and domestic exploitation of natural resources (e.g., mineral, plant and animal). Landscape features can be separated into two categories: natural and cultural. Natural landscape features, include rivers, soils suitable for agriculture, ridgetops, barrens, and sinkholes. Cultural landscape features in the parks, include transportation corridors, such as roads, railroads and river crossings, irrigation works, farmsteads, and industrial uses (Delle 1998; Lewis 1984; Mason 1984; McCorvie 1987; Moir and Jurney 1987). Cultural factors that can influence human-human and human-land relationships, include economics, politics, agricultural strategies, kinship, ethnicity, religion, and worldview (e.g., Andrews and Young 1992; Lewis 1985). Extensive mapping, using GIS, will facilitate research questions dealing with both natural and cultural land use.

Community based studies tend to focus on the spatial relationships of commercial, government, education, industrial, religious, and social sites, farmsteads, towns, and house lots (Farmer 1993; Shackel and Winter 1994). These relationships are affected by changing transportation developments; changing ideas about the separation of home and work; and the economic climate experienced by households and businesses. While much of this research has focused on larger cities, similar investigations can be undertaken at the farmsteads, small towns, and hamlets located within the boundaries of the parks. For example, Caperton, located in the NERI, had both African-American and Euro-American sections within the community, with each having its own churches and schools.

Examination of the development of the entire town of Caperton and the growth of distinct community segments could provide an opportunity for archaeologists to examine differences within and between sites with regards to ethnicity, race, gender, and socio-economic status. Comparisons also could be made between entire communities. For example, a study could compare the organizations and layouts of a coal town and a lumber town.

The size of the parks also allows for the examination of land use patterns such as specific industrial techniques, agricultural techniques and strategies related to types of labor pools, and technology. The lumber and coal industries and agriculture were the driving economic forces throughout much of the area during the late nineteenth to early twentieth century, and greatly influenced the development and settlement of the landscape.

The late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries saw some of the most significant settlement and land ownership changes in the region's history. Research related to industrial land use, and changing labor pools and strategies could be examined throughout the parks with regards to race, ethnicity, gender, and socio-economic status.

Possible research questions related to community and land use in the parks include:

- How was labor organized in the area and how, when, and where did it change across the landscape through time?
- Where African-American hamlets located within the parks? What is the spatial relationship of African-American hamlets relative to Euro-American towns?
- Are there typical patterns of refuse disposal for industry that distinguish them from farming operations present in the parks?
- What types of agricultural operations are present in the parks and do they have different distributions across the landscape? Are there differences between agricultural operations between NERI and GARI?
- What were the relationships between agricultural operations and nearby communities with regards to race and socioeconomic status?
- What was the basic site layout and organization of small towns and hamlets in the both NERI and GARI?
- What distinguished the internal organization of small towns and hamlets from larger towns (e.g., Swiss, Thurmond)?
- How does the spatial distribution of industrial sites compare to agricultural operations?

Internal Settlement and Organization

The examination of internal settlement and industrial organization focuses on the spatial relationships of archaeological and architectural features, and artifacts within individual sites. For example, archaeologists have examined the spatial organization of buildings, such as residences and outbuildings within and between houselots and offices, and large equipment, such as furnaces, kilns, and conveyors, relative to different industries with regards to function and change over time (Andrews 1992; Groover 2003; Stottman and Prybylski 2005; Stottman and Watts-Roy 2000; Yamin and Metheny 1996). Within house lots in urban settings the spatial relationship of features, such as privies, wells, and trash dumps or middens, have been studied to understand sanitation, use of space, and activity areas relative to the primary residence (Groover 2003; King 1987; Moir 1987; Rotenizer 1992; Stottman 2000). Within company towns researchers have tended to focus on labor relations and capitalism, corporate control, safety versus profitability, and capitalist control of workers through wages, pricing and resource availability (Boyd 1993; Rakes 2002; Wood 1992). Within towns, primary and secondary refuse areas and sanitation issues can be studied, as well as differing access to public or company services.

Research on farmsteads and house lots within the parks should focus on the late nineteenth and early twentieth century transformations of these properties through an examination of changes in the use of activity areas and yards, the placement of structures and boundary markers, and the abandonment of buildings. Comparisons of how race, class, ethnicity, and gender influenced the identified spatial patterns also could be examined. For the both the NERI and GARI, a typology of housing could be developed, using such variables as socio-economic status, race, head of household gender, ethnicity, length of occupation, and size of households. This typology could be used to compare how the internal organization of households changed from the late nineteenth to the early twentieth century.

Furthermore, archaeological and architectural data could be used to examine changes in residence and outbuilding size, construction, and style. Examination of the internal structure of these sites would allow for the development of artifact distribution patterns related to trash disposal behavior and the identification of activity areas. Such patterns could be used to identify specific work areas and their relationship to the division of labor by gender within house lots, commercial sites, and industrial sites. These patterns could also be used to examine the spatial aspects of the manufacturing processes at industrial sites, such as the distribution of waste, raw materials, and spent fuel. For example, lumber mills in the GARI area likely had designated storage areas for lumber, waste, and tools that could be identified through the examination of artifact patterns, architectural remains, and the remnants of large equipment. The NERI coal mines likely had designated areas for powder, slag, types of coal and coke which also could be identified.

Research questions related to internal settlement/industrial organization in the parks include:

- How did the internal organization of farmsteads, house lots, and industrial complexes change over time?
- How were yard spaces used and how were activity areas defined within farmsteads? Were fences used to demarcate social space or to enclose personal belongings)? How does this compare between different towns?
- To what extent was household composition influenced by how space was used at house lots? Do the observed patterns change with race, ethnicity, and class?
- To what extent did the character of industrial buildings and associated equipment influence the spatial organization of industrial sites?
- What was the internal organization of nonresidential properties, such as commercial, educational, religious, and social places? How does the use of space at these types of properties compare to house lots, farmsteads, and industrial complexes?

Technology and Transportation

The general history of the area shows how the construction of the railroads changed the everyday lives of those who lived in the valley and those that immigrated because of the railroads. Other nineteenth and early twentieth century technological innovations, such as electricity, plumbing, steam engines, farm and industrial mechanization, automobiles, and new roads also affected the lives of families living in rural areas (Crane 2000; Linebaugh et al. 2000; McBride and McBride 1990; Schiffer 2003; Stottman 2000). Archaeological data, when combined with archival data, such as store accounts, receipts, daybooks and records, can lead to insights into differential access to newly introduced and manufactured goods and technologies. Research at the parks has the potential to contribute to an understanding of the impact technology had on exchange, which facilitated the expansion of consumerism, and led to changes in both agricultural production and industrialization. For example, differing access to material culture relative to distance from transportation networks could be examined through a comparison of data from various communities and households located at varying distance from transportation networks. Furthermore, trade patterns could be studied to understand improvements in the linkages between manufacturers, wholesalers, and retailers through the adoption of new technologies and improved transportation networks. Such studies could provide new insights into how producers and small retailers in the area were connected to larger markets.

With improved transportation came increased access to new products. Research in the parks could examine how the introduction of new sanitary technology, electricity,

plumbing, and the automobile affected the spatial organization of house lots, consumerism, and foodways. For example, the recovery of electric related devices could not only help establish the date and extent of the introduction of electrical service in a particular area but could aid interpretations of the socio-economic status or class of particular household(s). Differences in access to and acceptance of new technologies between commercial and industrial properties relative to house lots also could be examined. Changes in privy architecture could provide information concerning when new sanitary technologies made their way into the region, when a particular household or community adopted indoor plumbing.

Research questions related to technology and transportation in the park include:

- What kinds of access did people living in the area have to new technologies and products? How much of a time lag was there between when these products were introduced and their widespread presence in the region.
- Was access to new technology and products different according to location, race, class, or ethnicity?
- How were stores in towns supplied? Were there options besides the company store in some towns?
- When did people living in the area adopt new technologies, such as plumbing, electricity, and automobiles?
- How did changes in agricultural technology affect farming in the area?
- Did communities and farmsteads situated near transportation corridors have greater access to new technologies than more isolated communities and agricultural complexes?
- What was the relationship of farmsteads and transportation routes?

Industry

Industrial archaeology is concerned with investigating, surveying, recording and preserving industrial remains and studying the material remains of the workplace and worker. Industrial sites range from small industries, like artisan and craft shops, to large complexes, such as distilleries, coal mines, lumber mills, potteries, iron furnaces, hemp and rope manufacturers, and quarries (Gordon and Malone 1994). The internal organization and construction materials of local industries reflect technological advancements, environmental variables, and cultural factors, such as ethnicity.

The coal, lumber and transportation industries dominated the parks during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. In many instances, the company actually

created a community, where the company provided housing and stores for workers and their families. This “company town” phenomenon was characteristic of coal mining, lumber operations, ironworks and other extractive industries. Examination of the internal structure of industrial complexes within the parks could compare industry standards and to the actual practices within the operation and document changes in industry technologies and techniques. The research also should examine issues of dominance and resistance between owners and workers, ethnicity of workers, racial segregation between workers, gendered division of work, segregation of work and domestic space, and the relationship of small industries to nearby communities (Cassell 2005; Gordon and Malone 1994; Mrozowski et al. 1996; Shackel 1996).

Research questions related to industry in the parks include:

- What was the relationship between industrial endeavors and surrounding farmsteads?
- How were industries in the parks organized, including production sites, procurement sites, worker housing, and waste disposal areas?
- Does the size and internal organization of the company influence the size, layout and location of house lots?
- How do house lots within an industrial setting differ from other house lots and farmsteads? What do similarities or differences imply about the social relations of production?
- What was the role of women and children within industrial areas?
- Did religion, ethnicity, or race play a part in how industry was organized and how company towns were organized?

Food Acquisition and Consumption patterns

Cultural factors affect how social groups acquire, select, produce and present food. Food remains may be animal or plant based and the study of faunal, botanical and pollen remains can provide insight into historic foodways. To date, most examinations of food-related behaviors have focused on issues related to household socio-economic status, class, and ethnicity (Crader 1990; Lev-Tov 2004; McKee 1987; Schulz and Gust 1983). For example, some ethnic groups prefer specific cuts of meat or a household’s socio-economic status often limited the ranges of meats that were accessible to it. Furthermore, there are regional food preferences and methods of preparation that may be reflected in the archaeological record.

Farmsteads were documented within the park system and even within coal and lumber company towns; some families may have had small vegetable gardens. Research

on where, how, and what those living in the parks grew in their fields and gardens, as well as how those without such amenities acquired subsistence items can contribute to our understanding of everyday life in a company town.

Research questions related to foodways in the parks include:

- How do foodways differ between agricultural farms and town house lots?
- Are there food preparation methods unique to the region that might be visible in the archaeological record?
- Some ethnic groups have substantially different diets than other groups. Can these differences be documented in the archaeological record?
- Is there a relationship between the development of new transportation routes within the region and dietary changes? For example, when railways made shipping more economical was there a corresponding increase in the consumption of prepared foods (usually contained in tin cans)?

Health and Mortality

Research on the health and mortality of past populations has focused on cemeteries to examine the demographics of life and death. Data from headstones can be used to study mortality statistics of historic populations to gain a better understanding of fertility, life expectancy, and kinship (Deetz 1977; Dethefsen and Deetz 1966; Helmkamp and Evans 2006). A great deal of information (e.g., pathologies, disease, demographics, work habits, diet, and socioeconomic status) also can be obtained from the analysis of human skeletal remains, coffin hardware, and the types of goods interred with the dead (Bradley and Moffat 1995; Bromberg et al. 2000; Garrow et al. 1985; Katzenberg and Saunders 2000; Stottman and Pollack 2005). Similarly, the study of historic sanitary and medical practices can be related to population health issues. For example, studies of medicine bottles and medical equipment recovered from archaeological sites can be used to understand historic treatments for ailments (Bonasera and Raymer 2001; Cabak et al. 1995).

The parks provide an opportunity to examine the health and mortality of a population from a large area. Both parks contain a large number of cemeteries. A study of the headstones could provide valuable information about mortality rates for specific communities or subareas within the region. This demographic data also could be used to interpret health and sanitation related artifacts recovered from archaeological sites. For example, a study of patent medicine bottles recovered from privies and wells could be compared to mortality statistics to better understand the ailments that affected household living in the area and how they attempted to deal with such ailments. This information could then be used to examine differences between coal and lumber company towns, between company towns, houselots within larger communities, and agricultural

complexes. Some company towns may have had their own doctor, for example the New River Company in Oak Hill, West Virginia, has extensive records related to health care of the miners. McKendree Hospital also provides an invaluable resource for the study of health and mine-related injury treatment within the NERI area.

Research questions related to health and mortality in the parks include:

- What were some of the common ailments that affected populations in the region and how did they attempt to treat them?
- How do mortality statistics compare between farmers and industrial workers in the region? How do they relate to archaeological evidence of sanitary conditions and medical practices?
- Were there differences in overall health and the ability to treat ailments based on race, ethnicity, class, or socio-economic status?

Consumerism

At the end of the eighteenth century and throughout the nineteenth century increased production of material goods and expansion of capitalist economies contributed to increased consumerism. To date, much of the research on consumerism has compared the socio-economic status and consumption of specific households, and examined whether patterns could be attributed to socio-economic position or other social groupings such as ethnicity or race. Most of these studies have concentrated on the composition of ceramic assemblages and inter-site variation in acquisition of different ceramic vessel types and forms (Andrews 2004; Miller 1980, 1991). The assumption is that households with more expensive ceramics had a higher social status or aspired to a higher social status than those households with more inexpensive ceramics. There are, however, contextual factors that should be taken into consideration when studying consumption. For instance, household size and differential access to goods, may affect the ceramics utilized by a given household (LeeDecker et al. 1987:235; Wurst and Fitts 1999:2). As a result, a small wealthy rural household may appear to be poorer than a large urban was, since they used fewer items and the ones they did use were more difficult or expensive to acquire.

Other classes of artifacts have been used to investigate household and regional consumption patterns. They include the types of meat cuts consumed, special purpose artifacts, and personal adornments. Analysis of faunal remains has shown that heartier cuts, such as roasts and shoulders, are more typically associated with higher status consumers and less meaty cuts, such as feet and heads, are associated with lower status consumers (Crader 1990).

Special purpose artifacts, such as gravy boats, covered soup tureens, sugar bowls, salt spoons, finger bowls, and salt wells that would have been used during formal tea and dining rituals, tend to be associated with higher status consumers or those aspiring for

higher status. Special purpose items were not common at households with lower socioeconomic status (Mullins 1999; Wall 1994). Comparison between households of such artifacts can shed light on social aspirations, social mobility within company towns, and differing access to goods.

The ability of a household to acquire personal adornments, such as jewelry, watches, fancy buttons, and buckles, reflects one's expendable income and higher socioeconomic status. As with special purpose artifacts one would expect to find more personal adornment artifacts at a high status household than a low one (LeeDecker et al. 1987:235; Wurst and Fitts 1999:2).

In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, railroads opened the New and Gauley River valleys to regional, national, and international markets. As a result, access to imported goods increased. Although some manufactured items were probably not available in local or company stores, residents could purchase products through mail order catalogs, greatly expanding their access to material goods. As more archival and archaeological research is conducted in the parks, analytical tools, such as price indices could be developed for ceramics, farm equipment, food, glassware, land, and tenancy rents. The development and use of such tools would facilitate inter-site comparisons of household consumption habits. Inter-site comparisons among and between households and communities can provide new insights into differences in socio-economic status, class, ethnicity, race and gender that are related to consumerism.

Research questions related to consumerism in the parks include:

- How did isolated households and communities acquire manufactured goods?
- Is there a relationship between a household's distance from a town and its acquisition of manufactured goods?
- How did households in the parks display class and status through consumer goods?
- How did unequal access to distributional systems affect park households and their consumption habits?
- To what extent did race, ethnicity, gender, and class affect consumer choices in the region?
- Do agricultural operations and town households exhibit similar consumer consumption patterns?

SUMMARY

Both the NERI and GARI provide an opportunity for archaeologists to study a variety of research topics. With this in mind, seven general research topics (community land use, internal site organization, technology and transportation, industry, foodways, health and mortality, and consumerism) have been proposed for the parks. These topics are intended to guide future historical archaeological research in the parks and surrounding areas. For each topic, research questions that could be addressed within the parks were identified. Both the topics and questions draw heavily on research on the nearby New River Gorge (Unrau 2002, Workman, et al. 2005), as well as the Gauley River history developed by Miller (1992). Consideration also was given to the types of sites examined during the course of this study as well as those that one might expect to encounter within the parks.

The research topics and questions provided here are not meant to be all encompassing of the range of questions that could be addressed by archaeologists working within the parks. They are, however, intended to guide researchers doing work at the parks as they develop their own specific research questions based on the types of sites they are investigating and the types of data recovered.

CHAPTER 8: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This study was undertaken to assess the character of the historical archaeological resources within the New River Gorge National River and the Gauley River National Recreation Area. As part of this study, 34 historical archaeological sites (Table 8.1) were visited, and limited archaeological investigations were conducted at each site. These sites included, coal towns, lumber towns, logging operations, farmsteads, cemeteries, hospitals, and transportation related sites. Within towns there was a greater the diversity of property types. The property types associated with towns were: house lots, industrial, commercial, transportation, cemetery, religious, education, and social resources. It should be noted that the boundaries associated with most of these sites will have to be redefined and probably expanded as more intensive studies of these sites are undertaken.

Table. 8.1. Historic Resources in NERI and GARI

| Site | Site Type | Property Type(s) | Location /ASIMS # | National Register Eligibility assessment |
|------------------------------------|--------------------|--|-------------------|--|
| Ames | Coal town | Industrial | NERI/400 | Potentially eligible |
| Berry Farm/Big Branch Cemetery | Cemetery/Farmstead | Cemetery/farmstead | NERI/403 | Potentially eligible |
| Beury | Coal town | House lots, commercial, industrial | NERI/402 | Potentially eligible |
| Beurytown | Coal town | Industrial, possible house lots | NERI/403 | Not potentially eligible |
| Cadle Ridge | Coal town | Industrial | NERI/404 | Unknown |
| Caperton | Coal town | House lots, Industrial, commercial | NERI/405 | Potentially eligible |
| Ephraim | Coal town | House lots, industrial, commercial | NERI/406 | Potentially eligible |
| Fayette Station | Coal town | Industrial | NERI/407 | Potentially eligible |
| Fire Creek | Coal town | House lots, industrial | NERI/408 | Potentially eligible |
| Glade Creek Burin Martin Farmstead | Farmstead | Farmstead | NERI/409 | Potentially eligible |
| Hamlet | Lumber town | House lots, industrial, commercial | NERI/410 | Potentially eligible |
| Hump Mountain | Coal town | Industrial | NERI/411 | Not potentially eligible |
| McKendree | Hospital | House lots, commercial, transportation | NERI/412 | Potentially eligible |
| Quinnimont | Coal town | House lots, industrial, commercial, religious | NERI/413 | Potentially eligible |
| Red Ash | Coal town | House lots, industrial, commercial, social, cemetery | NERI/414 | Potentially eligible |
| Royal | Coal town | House lots, industrial, cemetery | NERI/415 | Potentially eligible |
| Secoma | Lumber town | Industrial, possible house lots | NERI/416 | Not potentially eligible |

| | | | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|--------------------|--|
| Sewell Knob | Coal town | House lots, industrial | NERI/417 | Potentially eligible |
| Stone Cliff | Coal town, cemetery | House lots, industrial, commercial, cemetery | NERI/418 | Potentially eligible |
| Thayer Cemetery | Cemetery | Cemetery | NERI/419 | Not potentially eligible |
| 1888 House | House lot | House lot | GARI/20 | Unknown |
| Albion Cemetery | Cemetery | Cemetery | GARI/21 | Unknown |
| Arnet Church and Cemetery | Religious, cemetery | Religious, cemetery | GARI/22 | Unknown |
| Bucklick Chimney | Possible house lot, education | House lot, educational | GARI/23 | Not potentially eligible |
| Carnifex Ferry | Transportation, commercial, house lot | Transportation, commercial, house lot | GARI/24 | Potentially eligible |
| Clark Cemetery | Cemetery | Cemetery | GARI/25 | Potentially eligible |
| Copeland Cemetery | Cemetery | Cemetery | GARI/26 | Unknown |
| Copeland School | Educational | Educational | GARI/27 | Not potentially eligible |
| Koontz Bridge and Tunnel | Transportation | Transportation | GARI/28 | Potentially eligible |
| Koontz Bend resources | Farmstead, house lot, cemetery | Farmstead, house lot, cemetery | GARI/29, 30 and 31 | Potentially eligible multiple resource |
| Legg Farmstead | Farmstead | Farmstead | GARI/32 | Potentially eligible |
| Milam Cemetery | Cemetery | Cemetery | GARI/33 | Unknown |
| Pine Grove School | Educational | Educational | GARI/34 | Not potentially eligible |
| Sugar Creek | Industry | Industry | GARI/35 | Not potentially eligible |
| Woods Ferry | Transportation | Transportation | GARI/36 | Not potentially eligible |

During the course of this study, an effort also was made to locate prehistoric archaeological sites. Three areas were targeted for investigation, with most the work focusing on a broad upland ridgetop that parallels Peters Creek within GARI. No prehistoric archaeological sites were documented in the three examined areas.

The resources identified to date represent only a small portion of the number of historic archaeological sites that are known or expected to be present with the boundaries of the parks. Based on the sample of sites examined during the course of this study, however, it is quite evident that historic archaeological resources within the parks contain a wealth of information. Historic archaeological investigations at the parks have the potential to address a variety of research questions and to contribute to a better understanding of the history and culture of the New and Gauley River valleys and the surrounding region. Future research questions or goals, could focus on examining the spatial relationships of farmsteads; the extent of racial and class segregation; domestic lifeways at farmsteads; the role of transportation in community development; defining spatial relationships of company towns; comparisons between coal and timber operations both within the parks and in other areas of the state and country; and patterns in health and mortality.

This study is intended to serve as a baseline that can be used to implement new initiatives for site identification, evaluation and protection, and for developing programs aimed at gaining a better understanding of the history of Euro-American settlement of the New and Gauley River Valleys and the lives of the people who lived there for almost one hundred fifty years. It also points to a need for more systematic investigations to be undertaken at historic archaeological sites within the parks to better identify agricultural practices, historic communities, and spheres of community influence. This will allow for more in depth analysis of small family farms and their connections within the parks and beyond.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Drawing upon the results of this study and taking into consideration the work of Unrau (1996), Workman et al. (2005) and Miller (1992), this chapter presents recommendations for future research at historic archaeological sites within the parks and for the management of historic archaeological resources. Recommendations also are made concerning educational and conservation efforts that the National Park Service should consider incorporating into its ongoing programming. It should be noted that these recommendations are not meant to be exhaustive, but are offered to provide a framework for investigating and managing cultural resources within the parks.

Recommendation 1: Protect sites; continue to identify historical archaeological resources.

All archaeological sites within the parks should be protected with all available means. Posting of appropriate laws and schedules of events at visitor centers, campgrounds, and trailheads further extend the reach of these efforts. One visible educational device is the placement of large signs, along major routes within park boundaries, at major trailheads, and at strategic locations, such as visitor centers, that simply state “Protect our Cultural Past – Leave Archaeological Resources Undisturbed.” These signs educate the public and warn those inclined not to disturb fragile and nonrenewable cultural resources.

This study only examines 35 historical archaeological sites, and there are undoubtedly many more located within both parks. To better define the nature and extent of the archaeological resources at these sites, it is recommended that basic information be collected as they are discovered. A consistent methodology to identify and inventory town ruins based on the idea that they represent social and economic communities should be developed. Mapping is particularly important to document the distribution of features on the historic landscape. Eventually studies like the present one should be conducted to assess the character of these archaeological resources. That initial assessment may recommend further work in the form of a more intensive archaeological survey (see next section), including shovel probing and boundary definition, as well as additional archival work and a cultural landscape inventory. This would provide sufficient information in

order to determine eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, helping the National Park Service meet its obligations under Section 110 of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966. At a minimum, this work should consist of systematic shovel probing across the site.

The following Table contains the names of known resources within the NERI that should be relocated, inventoried and evaluated for integrity of archaeological resources and a preliminary assessment of eligibility for listing in the National Register of Historic Places.

Table 8.2. Historic Resources in NERI to be relocated and inventoried.

| Site Name | Tentative site type designation | Site Name | Tentative site type designation |
|---|--|----------------------------|--|
| Alaska | Coal Industry | Southside Jct | Railroad Industry |
| Boone | Coal Industry | Terry Jct RR | Railroad Industry |
| Brooklyn | Coal Industry | Thurmond | Railroad Industry |
| Browns (S. Nuttallburg) | Coal Industry | Manns Cr RR | Railroad Industry |
| Central | Coal Industry | Meadow Cr RR | Railroad Industry |
| Claremont | Coal Industry | Meadow Creek | Railroad Industry |
| Concho | Coal Industry | Piney Cr RR | Railroad Industry |
| Cunard | Coal Industry | Prince | Railroad Industry |
| Dimmock | Coal Industry | Glade/Krise P.O. | Lumber Industry |
| East Sewell | Coal Industry | Landisburg | Lumber Industry |
| Echo | Coal Industry | Lumberman | Lumber Industry |
| Elverton | Coal Industry | Polls Br RR | Lumber Industry |
| Erskine | Coal Industry | Round Bottom | Farmstead/Agriculture |
| Export | Coal Industry | Rush Run | Farmstead/Agriculture |
| Gaymont | Coal Industry | Bennett Farm | Farmstead/Agriculture |
| Kaymoor | Coal Industry | Bowyers Ferry | Farmstead/Agriculture |
| Meadow Fork | Coal Industry | Bragg Farm | Farmstead/Agriculture |
| Mincar | Coal Industry | Brooks | Farmstead/Agriculture |
| Newlyn (Ames) | Coal Industry | Brooks Island | Farmstead/Agriculture |
| Newlyn (Dunloup) | Coal Industry | Cochran Farm | Farmstead/Agriculture |
| Nuttallburg (Nuttallburg/Nuttall Station) | Coal Industry | Glade Creek | Farmstead/Agriculture |
| Pennbrook | Coal Industry | Harrah Homestead | Farmstead/Agriculture |
| Quinnimont Coke Ovens | Coal Industry | J. Phillips Farm | Farmstead/Agriculture |
| Rend Branch RR | Coal Industry | Old State Rd | Farmstead/Agriculture |
| Riverview | Coal Industry | Panther Run | Farmstead/Agriculture |
| Rush Run | Coal Industry | Richmond Farm | Farmstead/Agriculture |
| Sewell | Coal Industry | Richmond-Hamilton Farm | Farmstead/Agriculture |
| South Caperton | Coal Industry | Sandstone Falls Grist Mill | |
| Terry (Stonewall Coal & Coke) | Coal Industry | St. Colman's Church | State Park/Recreation |
| Thayer | Coal Industry | Vallandingham | State Park/Recreation |
| Wee Win | Coal Industry | Babcock | State Park/Recreation |
| Whitney | Coal Industry | Grandview | Other Historic |
| Fayette | Railroad Industry | Sandstone Falls | Other Historic |
| Glade Cr & Raleigh RR | Railroad Industry | Army Camp | |
| Hawks Nest | Railroad Industry | Camp Brookside | |
| Hinton | Railroad Industry | | |
| Kanawha, Glen Jean & Eastern RR | Railroad Industry | | |
| Kaymoor | Railroad Industry | | |
| Keeneys Cr Branch RR | Railroad Industry | | |
| Laurel Cr Br RR | Railroad Industry | | |

Recommendation 2: Conduct More Site Specific Archaeological Investigations at Beury, Hamlet, Burin Martin Farmstead and Ephraim in NERI and Carnifex Ferry, Legg and Koontz Farmsteads in GARI.

To better define the character and extent of the known archaeological resources within the parks, it is recommended that more intensive archaeological investigations be undertaken at a representative sample of historic archaeological sites. In particular, this work should focus on those sites that contain intact archaeological remains. This work should consist of systematic shovel probing across the site. The goals of the shovel probing should include the identification of locations containing subsurface cultural materials and the relocation of as many structures as possible. Finally, site boundaries should be refined. Depending on the results of the survey, more intense archaeological investigations may be necessary.

Information is needed on artifact types and densities within these sites, and the character of the archaeological deposits associated with each site. Intensive investigations of these sites will generate larger and more diverse artifact assemblages, including botanical and faunal materials. Analysis of the materials and records recovered from these sites and intraregional and extraregional comparisons will generate new data concerning historic lifeways within the parks and how they changed through time.

Archaeological sites targeted for additional work should be those that have the best potential for containing intact deposits. Among the sites within the NERI that should be targeted are Beury, Hamlet, Burin Martin farmstead, and Ephraim. All of these sites have a high potential for containing intact historic deposits as evidenced by the limited investigations undertaken as part of this study. The Hamlet and Burin Martin farmsteads also are easily accessible to the public and would be conducive to public archaeological programs. Additional research at these sites has the potential to address a variety of research questions (see Chapter 6). Among the sites within the GARI that should be targeted are Carnifex Ferry, and the Legg and Koontz farmsteads. All of these sites have a high potential for containing intact historic deposits as evidenced by the limited investigations undertaken as part of this study. Although the Carnifex Ferry site is not easily accessible to the public, because the site is associated with the Carnifex Ferry Battlefield State Park, the site could be conducive to public archaeological programs. Additional research at these sites has the potential to address a variety of research questions (see Chapter 6). It is recommended that test units at all these sites be followed by block excavation consisting of contiguous units. Following this work, these sites should be nominated to the National Register of Historic Places. As opposed to individual nominations, consideration also should be given to preparation of a Multiple Resource nomination of historic archaeological sites throughout the parks.

Recommendation 3: Increase Public Education Programming and Participation.

Educating the public about the significance and fragile nature of cultural resources should be an integral component of the park's cultural resource management program. Archaeological sites are a nonrenewable resource. Once a site has been destroyed by development or repeated episodes of looting it cannot be replaced and the information it contained about the past is lost forever. Educating the public and enlisting their help in protecting cultural resources will go a long way towards preserving the archaeological record of the New and Gauley River region.

The story of the New and Gauley River valley has both national and local relevance, significance, and interest. The New and Gauley River history exemplifies the differences between small scale agriculturalists and the rise of industrialism. Involvement of local residents through public archaeological events, genealogical research, and oral histories, should be encouraged. The greater the public participation the more they will feel like they have a vested interest in preserving and protecting the parks' cultural resources.

Through educational efforts, the importance of the past, its material remains, and the reasons such resources need to be protected can be imparted to the public. Furthermore, educational efforts have positive long-term effects. For example, programs that involve school children provide the foundation for future generations that understand the importance of the past and the cultural resources associated with previous human activities. Project Archaeology, a national program developed by the Bureau of Land Management and implemented in several states east of the Mississippi, including Indiana, Kentucky, and North Carolina, has proven successful in training educators to use archaeology as a classroom vehicle that integrates the importance of cultural resources while maintaining a multi-disciplinary focus. In 2006, this program was implemented in West Virginia and efforts should be made to involve the teachers already trained.

A multitude of activities can be incorporated into a comprehensive educational program. Public displays of material items and proper interpretative materials can be placed at strategic locations, such as visitor centers, where the general public may at once encounter the past and gain an understanding of its importance and significance. At easily accessible sites such as the Legg farmstead, site specific postings could educate visitors about the resources and even provide notice of possible upcoming opportunities to participate in archaeological investigations. Brochures can be developed that highlight particular aspects of cultural heritage. These items can focus on resources, activities, current programs, or special topics, such as conservation and protection. Booklets can also be developed that address such topics in greater detail. All of these materials can be interdisciplinary in content and focus. For example, a booklet that studies the farmers in the Gauley area could discuss how technological advancements in transportation changed farming practices and expanded the agricultural network.

Public activities are another way to reach and educate people about the importance of cultural resources. Examples are cultural heritage days, archaeology weekends, presentations at public institutions or organizations given by a variety of professionals, and seminars and workshops related to cultural heritage issues. These types of activities have proven successful at a variety of public facilities, institutions, and organizations in various locations. Additional protective measures may be used to reinforce educational efforts.

Consideration also should be given to developing programs similar to the Forest Service's "Passport in Time," which provides opportunities for the public to participate in archaeological research, and the site stewardship program recently implemented by Mammoth Cave National Park, which enlists the public's help in monitoring sites and reporting vandalism and looting of cultural resources to park personnel. While educational programs have immediate returns, their greatest value is in the long-term benefits that will be realized in the future as more and more people come to recognize the need to save and protect cultural resources.

An effort also should be made to work with collectors and avocational archaeologists. These individuals have a great deal of knowledge about where sites are located within and adjacent to the parks. Through the documentation of their collections, new insights can be gained into site distribution patterns and site components. This work also can identify sites that should be targeted for more systematic and intensive investigations by professional archaeologists.

Recommendation 4: Initiate Interdisciplinary Studies.

In expanding the parks' cultural resource management program, consideration should be given to developing multidisciplinary projects. These types of projects can be aimed at conserving natural and cultural resources, and gaining a better understanding of past environments and how groups adapted to the rise of industrialism, consumerism and increased technology. Implementation of such projects should aid in the management and protection of the diverse natural and cultural resources located within the Park. Examples of such programs involving historic archaeology, historians, anthropologists, genealogists, and sociologists include the public archaeology program at the Levi-Jordan Plantation in Brazoria, Texas (<http://www.webarchaeology.com/html/Default.htm>), and the "Other Half" tour at Colonial Williamsburg. Both of these programs employ multidisciplinary research techniques and presentation to great success.

CONCLUSIONS

When developing new research initiatives for both the NERI and the GARI, the history of agriculture and the rise of modern industry should be taken into consideration. Archaeological research in the New River Gorge region can contribute to our understanding of the cultural diversity of, and interaction between groups who once lived and worked in those industries in West Virginia. Among the issues that can be addressed in this region are those relating to the dynamics of modernization and the rise of

consumerism, immigration, ethnicity and racial issues, the dominance of corporate entities, and issues of household resistance. In general, the history of the New and Gauley River valleys and southern West Virginia is not as well-known as that of neighboring regions to the north and south. It is hoped that this historic assessment will lay a solid foundation for future research in this region and that archaeologists and the public will be hearing a great deal more about this region in the years to come.

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APPENDIX A: FIELD AND LABORATORY METHODS

The fifty or so historic towns in and around the parks had established place names even though none of them were incorporated municipalities. Each locale investigated has been treated as an individual site. The majority of the sites visited had few buildings or standing structures although possible foundation ruins, road traces and walls were identifiable. All of the sites have been previously disturbed by demolition and use of the area for camping or other recreational activities.

FIELD METHODS

Pedestrian survey was used to examine the majority of the sites. The sites were photodocumented and a GPS unit was used to identify areas of known archaeological remains. In most instances, a sketch site map of representative part of towns or historic sties also were created. Though these maps were linked to the photographs that were taken, given the large size of many of these sites they were not drawn to scale. No sketch map was created for a few sites that contained visible archaeological remains which were particularly disjointed.

Artifact recovery was a minor objective and the projects methodology primarily involved surface inspection and developing a sense of integrity of possible deposits. Archaeological methods included opportunistically placed shovel probes approximately 30 cm in diameter and excavated to subsoil when possible. Soil from each probe was screened through 6.35 mm (¼') wire mesh and all artifacts were collected. Profiles of shovel probes were recorded on shovel probe forms along with observations of the archaeologist.

Artifacts recovered from shovel probes were provenienced by location of probe on site map. Located of surface artifacts were also noted in field notes and on site maps. Not all artifacts observed on the surface were recovered, but observations were made concerning their attributes and age of manufacture. All artifacts recovered during the fieldwork were washed, cataloged, and analyzed at the University of Kentucky Archaeological Laboratory. The artifacts and records will be curated at the New River Gorge National River park headquarters in Glen Jean, West Virginia.

LABORATORY METHODS

Artifacts were cataloged by material type and entered into a database by site. The following section discusses the artifact typology used to catalog the recovered artifacts and provides background information on specific types employed in analysis. Analysis of the artifacts also took into consideration the possible function and age of the artifacts. Analyses are contained within corresponding Site Descriptions in Chapter 4 and 5.

ARTIFACT TYPES

Ceramics

Ceramic artifacts are initially described by their paste types (Rice 1987). Archaeologists have given these ceramic paste types different names based on the time periods when a particular ceramic paste type was manufactured or most popular. There are two basic categories of ceramic pastes, refined and coarse. Refined ceramics were used in the manufacture of fine dishes or delicate objects, which were mostly made abroad. Coarse ceramics were used in the manufacture of utilitarian containers, which were often made locally.

Refined Ceramics

The refined ceramics group includes several chronologically significant paste types. As ceramic technology improved over time, different paste types of refined ceramics were produced. The most prominent ceramic paste type produced during Kentucky's early historic settlement was creamware, so called because of its creamy yellowish-green tinted glaze. Creamware was developed in the 1760s by Josiah Wedgwood, after several years of experimentation (Noel Hume 1969). This ware represents one of many attempts by Staffordshire potters in England to produce an inexpensive version of the fine Asian hard white porcelain they sought to emulate. Throughout the late 1700s, creamware was the most popular English made china in America (Miller 1991; Noel Hume 1969). Creamware was produced into the 1810s, but it was most prominent before 1800; it was gradually replaced by pearlware beginning in the 1780s (South 1977).

By the 1780s, the utilization of better clays and new glazes allowed potters to create a whiter English ceramic called pearlware. Although a blue tinted body characterizes this type of ceramic, it has a whiter appearance than the yellowish green tinted creamware (Miller 1991; Noel Hume 1969). Pearlware was most popular in the United States in the early 1800s, although production lasted into the 1830s (South 1977). By 1830, English potters had developed an even whiter colored ceramic, known to archaeologists as whiteware (Miller 1991). This ceramic type was the predominant ceramic produced throughout the mid to late 1800s. Although whiteware lacked the hardness of porcelain, it was almost as white and proved to be a popular substitute. By the time whiteware was being produced, the American appetite for imported refined ceramics had grown. The British dominated the whiteware market throughout most of the 1800s.

Shortly after the initial development of whiteware, a harder paste whiteware known by a variety of names, most commonly white granite, ironstone, and semi-porcelain, was developed. All of these names refer to brand names for the hard paste whiteware developed by the different potters. In this report, these types of ceramics were

classified as white granite, a term commonly used by archaeologists to describe the harder paste whiteware (Miller 1991). Although some English potters had produced what they called ironstone and semi-porcelain by 1805 or 1815, white granite types of ceramics were not in wide spread production until 1845 (Noel Hume 1969; Miller 1991). While both whiteware and white granite ceramics were manufactured throughout the mid-1800s, white granite had become much more common than the older and softer whiteware by the 1870s (Miller 1991; Smith 1983). Because it is very difficult to distinguish whiteware from white granite, some archaeologists do not attempt to make a distinction. However, distinguishing between the softer paste whiteware from the harder paste white granite can provide some chronological information, with whiteware being more indicative of the 1830s-1850s and white granite being more indicative of post 1850.

By the 1880s, American potters began to cut into the English dominance of the domestic ceramic market. Major ceramic producing regions began in the Midwest and East and became centered in the Ohio Valley, particularly Ohio and West Virginia (DeBolt 1994). At the turn of this century, white granite ceramics were mass-produced by both English and American potters, making them affordable to most of the country's population. By the 1900s, white granite was more like porcelain than whiteware and American potteries frequently used terms like semi-porcelain, semi-vitreous, and vitreous to describe their wares (DeBolt 1994). In this report, the term semi-porcelain will be used to describe this later ceramic, although the term had been used periodically throughout the 1800s to describe other ceramic wares. Again, the distinction between semi-porcelain, white granite, and whiteware is subtle, but one that is nevertheless made here. A porcelain-like paste characterizes semi-porcelain. While semi-porcelain appears quite like porcelain, it is not as refined and has a grainy texture. Typical porcelain has a very refined paste that is almost smooth like glass.

Some porcelain was manufactured in England and Europe in the 1700s, but it was very expensive to produce, thus potters began the quest for an inexpensive substitute described above (Noel Hume 1969). Most porcelain during the 1700s and 1800s was produced in Asia but some was produced in Europe. Although English and Asian porcelain was exported to America in the 1700s and early 1800s, it was generally only accessible to the very wealthy. By the mid-to-late 1800s porcelain was more accessible to wealthy Americans and became popular for even moderately wealthy families. Because of the expense, most porcelain was probably purchased in the form of tea sets rather than complete dinner sets of dishes. It is difficult to date porcelain without maker's marks or specific decorations, because it has been manufactured for such a long time.

Other refined ceramics include pipe clay and fixture porcelain. Pipe clay was fine bright white clay that was used in the production of smoking pipes from the 1600s to 1800s. This type of ceramic is often confused with kaolin, which is a type of ceramic derived from a specific clay source. Pipes were generally made of any fine white clay, often known as white ball clay. Fixture porcelain refers to an industrial type of porcelain that is characterized by a thick porcelain-like body. This type of ceramic was used in the manufacture of lighting and bathroom fixtures, as well as electrical insulators, during the 1900s.

Although refined ceramics were often undecorated, a wide variety of decorations were used on these wares throughout history. Some of these are described below. Transfer prints were printed designs transferred from copper engravings to plain dishes and then glazed. The patterns were usually very elaborate and depicted scenes or had geometric or floral motifs that were available in several colors: black, brown, blue, red, cranberry, purple, and green (Samford 1997). Transfer printed decorations had been developed in 1756, but were not frequently used until the end of the 1700s (Noel Hume 1969). Transfer prints were most popular from the 1830s to the 1850s and had a small resurgence in the 1870s and 1880s (Miller 1991).

Similar to transfer prints are flowed transfer print ceramics. These flowed transfer printed ceramics have the appearance of a smeared transfer print where the color runs together. During the firing of transfer printed wares, a solution was added that created the flow effect (Samford 1997). Flow decoration usually occurs in the color blue or black and was used throughout the 1800s.

Edge decoration is one of the earliest types of decoration and occurs in many different forms that range from impressed designs to painted bands. Impressed, embossed, or molded patterns on the edges of vessels were common in the early 1700s on through the end of the 1800s (Noel Hume 1969; Miller 1989). The most common types of edge decoration found are scalloped rims. These rims were often decorated with curved or impressed lines and embossed patterns, which were covered with a blue, green, or red colored slip. Collectively this type of edge decoration was known as shell edged. Shell edged decoration was most common on pearlwares and early whitewares, and roughly dated from the 1780s to the 1840s.

Hand painted designs are common on ceramic vessels throughout the historic period. Also common are applied slip bands around the edges and bodies of vessels. Floral motifs, executed by hand, typically utilized a variety of colors. Blue hand-painted vessels were common, as were polychrome designs applied in green, gold, blue, and red. During much of the 1800s mocha style decoration referred to a brown dendritic fern-like design concocted from a mixture of tobacco juice and urine (Noel Hume 1969). However, this term has come to include several different decorative types, most notably annular banded wares that utilized a colored glaze, often brown, pale green, or blue, into which ceramic vessels were dipped. This is also referred to as "dipped" decoration (Miller 1991). A worm or cable design is often associated with dipped mocha wares. Worm or cable refers to the swirled circular designs created on the ceramic vessel; these are also known as finger-painted wares.

Molded ceramics, used throughout the nineteenth century, consisted of decorative patterns that were molded directly into a ceramic vessel and then overglazed. Pattern molding is often used to create paneled designs on the vessels; this technique was very common on whiteware and white granite of the late 1800s. Pattern molding is similar to the impressed, incised, and embossed designs used throughout the 1700s and 1800s.

The final refined ceramic decorative type discussed is decal decoration, which simply consists of a decal applied to a ceramic vessel. This development allowed more intricate designs to be used on table wares and reduced the cost of highly decorated ceramics that would otherwise have to be handpainted or transfer printed. Decal decorations were first introduced in the 1890s, but did not become fully mass-produced until 1900 (Adams 1980). Decal decorations are still widely used today.

Coarse Ceramics

Coarse ceramics include redwares, stonewares, yellow wares, and terra cottas that were not typically used in the production of dinner wares and tended to be used in the manufacture of utilitarian vessels such as crocks, bowls, and jars. Smoking pipes were also widely manufactured from coarse ceramics. Although most coarse ceramics found in America were produced locally, some were imported from England, particularly yellow wares (Gallo 1985). Because coarse ceramics tended to be produced locally, they were relatively inexpensive.

Redwares, called so because of their distinctive red paste, were the predominant coarse ceramic from the 1750s to the 1850s, but continued to be manufactured into the 1900s. Because redware became less desired after 1850, it is generally considered a late-eighteenth century to mid-nineteenth century ware. Typically, redware consisted of a clear lead glaze or alkaline slip glaze with very little decoration. However, colored glazes, most predominantly green, were also frequently used. Some redwares, particularly English varieties and types produced by Moravian potters along America's East coast, are highly decorated with slip-trailed designs (Noel Hume 1969; Thomas 1994).

By the 1850s, the more durable coarse stonewares had replaced redwares in the market for utilitarian vessels (Ketchum 1983). Coarse stonewares were minimally decorated with only a glaze. While clear glazes were the most frequently used, salt and slip glazes were also popular. The addition of salt to the glaze results in a pitted exterior surface that formed during the firing process. Potters have been able to create a wide variety of stoneware glazes by adding different chemical compounds during manufacture (Greer 1981; Noel Hume 1969).

Yellow ware production began in the 1830s, but these ceramics found their greatest popularity in the late 1800s and early 1900s (Ketchum 1983). By the late-nineteenth century, it was the most popular locally produced nineteenth century ceramic type, although a substantial amount was imported from England, as well. This ceramic was called yellow ware because when its paste was covered with a clear glaze a deep mustard color was produced. This term also refers to white-bodied wares that have a yellow glaze. Unlike many redwares and stonewares, yellow ware included very thin walled vessels. Common decorations on these vessels were slipped bands, worm patterns (swirled patterns), dendritic patterns, and pattern molded/relief designs. Rockingham is a brown glaze that is usually applied to yellow ware vessels in spatter like designs (Gallo

1985). Decorated yellow wares were extremely popular during the late 1800s. Everything from mixing bowls to wall plaques were made from it.

Terra cotta ceramic is characterized by its orangish red paste, was economical, low fired and easily broken utilitarian ware. Terra cotta has been produced for hundreds of years and is still quite common today. Most terra cotta is unglazed and undecorated, but occasionally it was made with impressed or relief designs. Terra cotta was and is most commonly used for flowerpots, but it has also been used for roofing tiles. Terra cotta flowerpots have been common at sites in America since the 1600s (Noel Hume 1969).

Glass

Like ceramics, glass bottle manufacturing technology has evolved over the years. Glass bottles were all hand blown or blown into molds prior to the 1800s, with the first American production of bottles occurring in the mid-1700s (Noel Hume 1969). However, the 1800s was a time of rapid advancement in bottle making technology, especially towards the end of the century. In the 1810s the three piece or Rickets mold was developed, which improved bottle making efficiency, although hand blown bottles continued to be produced throughout the 1800s (Jones and Sullivan 1989). The three-piece mold would remain a common manufacturing technique until the 1890s (Newman 1970). Other bottle manufacturing techniques that were developed during the 1800s include the two-piece mold (1845-1913), turn/paste mold (1870-1920), and the snap case (1855-1913) (Jones and Sullivan 1989; Newman 1970). In 1867 the letter plate mold was developed for molding lettering onto bottles, a process that is still used today.

The goal in producing bottles was to make them standard and uniform, but this was difficult, since many aspects of bottles (i.e., bottle finish or lip) continued to be made by hand, even after the three-piece mold was developed. However, bottle lipping technology evolved over time. Early in the manufacture of bottles, lips were formed by folding over the excess glass. Alternatively, the bottles could have no lips at all—the necks of the bottles smoothed by fire polishing. Applied lips are globs of glass that were added to the neck of a bottle to make a lip that is better for pouring and accommodating a stopper. Different types of applied lips were used from about 1840 to 1913 (Newman 1970). From 1840 to 1870 small strings of glass were laid on the neck to form a lip, and from 1850 to 1870 a lipping tool was usually used to shape the applied lip (Newman 1970). By 1875, improved lipping tools were used directly on the neck itself, bypassing the need to apply a glob of glass to form a lip. This improved tooled lip technique was common until 1903 when molds that formed the lips at the same time as the body were developed (Deiss 1981).

The techniques for forming the base of a bottle also changed over time. For the most part, bottles could only be made with the aid of a pontil, a long iron rod that was attached to the molten glass of the bottle to hold it in place for shaping. The pontil was typically attached to the base of the bottle. Once the bottle was finished, it would be removed from the pontil, leaving a mark of rough glass on the base (Jones and Sullivan

1989). This technique was used primarily from 1810 to 1870 (Newman 1970). Sometimes pontil marks were improved by grinding them down. This process, which left a smoothed base, dates from 1840 to 1880 (Newman 1970). In some cases, the base of the bottle was molded as part of the body in a process known as dip molding. This process involved dipping molten glass into a mold. This was a common practice in the 1800s and is still in use today. Some bottle bases were molded as a separate piece in plate bottom molding, which dates from 1821 to 1920 (Jones and Sullivan 1989). Presence or lack there, as well as makers marks and patent numbers are useful in dating the age of glass vessels.

Despite the technological innovations of the late 1800s, by the turn of the century, bottles were still not standardized or uniform. Several semi-automatic bottle-making machines were introduced in the 1880s, but they still relied on some hand manipulation (Jones and Sullivan 1989). However, in 1903 Michael J. Owens developed the first fully automatic bottle-making machine, which injected molten glass into a mold from the base and then cut the base, leaving what is referred to today as an Owen's scar. By the 1910s this form of bottle making was predominant and was used until the 1940s, when machines were improved so they did not leave a scar (Fike 1987; Jones and Sullivan 1989; Kendrick 1964). During the same time period, other bottle making machines left valve scars on the base that were formed from the use of a valve to inject glass into the molds.

The manufacture of glass jars directly resulted and benefited from the technological advancements made in bottle production. The increased demand for better food packaging and food preservation made home canning popular in the mid-1800s. Home canning was actually developed for an 1810 contest sponsored by the French government to perfect long-term food preservation; Nicholas Appert won the award. However, it was not until the 1850s when tinsmith John Mason developed a metal screw cap for preserving jars, that jars were widely produced (Sives 1991). Utilizing the new technologies for producing bottles, jar manufacture increased greatly by the end of the 1800s. Along with the development of canning jars were jar lid liners made of glass and porcelain. By 1869, a lid liner was developed for Mason's metal screw caps, which greatly enhanced the preservation process.

Other technological advances in bottle making involved the coloring and decorating of glass containers. Glass is naturally a blue or green tinted color depending on the natural contaminants that occur in the glass material and certain chemicals must be added to change the color. Early glass was either blue or green tinted, black, or dark green. Although cobalt was used to manufacture blue colored glass prior to the 1800s, it was not until after the 1860s that it was used to make bright blue colored glass for mass produced medicine bottles that became popular with products like "Phillips Milk of Magnesia" and "Bromo Seltzer." Brown glass was also made before the 1800s, but it became more popular for bottling beer and household chemicals in the late 1800s. However, consumers wanted to see the contents of the bottles they were buying, creating a demand for transparent colorless glass (Kendrick 1964). Clear or colorless glass had been produced before the 1800s in the form of soda-lime and lead glass (Jones and

Sullivan 1989). Typically clear glass tablewares were manufactured with these types of glass. However, an inexpensive and dependable means to achieve clear glass required the addition of chemicals to remove contaminants that altered color. By 1875, clear glass bottles had attained widespread use (Fike 1875).

Attempts to make clear glass coupled with the lack of the necessary chemicals to make it created two very distinct glass colors. Amethyst colored glass is a byproduct of attempts to make clear glass by adding manganese to the glass in order to bleach-out the natural impurities. Although amethyst glass was clear at the time of manufacture, when exposed to the sun the glass turned purple due to the manganese. This glass was only made for a short time from the 1870s to 1914 (Kendrick 1964; Newman 1970; Jones and Sullivan 1989). Amber or straw colored glass (not to be confused with brown colored glass) was the result of the use of a substitute chemical (selenium) used to bleach-out the glass, because manganese was scarce during World War I. Amber colored glass was generally produced from 1914 to 1930 (Kendrick 1964).

Other glass colors include milk glass and swirled mixed colored glass. Milk glass was given its name because it was an opaque white or milk colored glass. Milk glass was most popular after the 1860s and was used for a variety of vessels and objects. Although some bottles were made of it, milk glass was used mostly for decorative dishes in the early 1900s. Milk glass was also extensively used for buttons and canning jar lid liners, replacing more expensive porcelain ceramics. Lid liners made of milk glass were being used to line the inside of zinc metal canning jar lids by the 1870s and their use continued into the 1910s. Swirled colored glass consisted of different colored glass swirled together. This type of glass was typically used in the production of machine made marbles, which were first produced in 1902 (Gartley and Carskadden 1987). Prior to this, glass marbles were made of blown glass. Games using marbles were a favorite past time for children in the 1800s and 1900s.

Unlike container glass and glass objects, which are generally classified as domestic activity refuse, window or flat glass is considered architectural. Window glass generally occurs in three colors, blue tinted, green tinted, or clear. All are highly transparent. The blue or green tints are a result of the natural color of glass. They are difficult to distinguish from one another without viewing the edge of a pane or sherd and have no real bearing on glass chronology. It is understood that truly clear window glass is an indication of later dates of manufacture, mostly after the 1900s.

Metal

Metal rusts and its forms change while in the ground making specific identification extremely difficult. During the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, manufacturing boomed producing a wealth of metal items. The bits and pieces of the multitude of consumer products found in archaeological contexts are many times unidentifiable. Some examples of these products could include fencing wire, barbed wire, tin cans for food preservation, construction materials such as nails, brads, screws and spikes, as well as jewelry and buttons, to name just a few.

Nails

Wrought nails are essentially nails hand-forged by a blacksmith. Machine cut nails are cut from sheets of metal, which gives them their squared shape. Wire nails are used today. They are cut from a linear metal wire. The manufacturing style associated with each of the nail types is temporally diagnostic.

Prior to 1800, nails had to be made by hand, which made them rather expensive items to purchase. Because nails were fairly expensive, techniques that limited the amount of nails needed for construction prevailed, like log and stone buildings. Wrought nails were consistently made throughout the 1800s, despite the development of machine cut nails by 1800. The development of cut nail technology allowed for the mass production of nails, and their prices lowered as a result (Smith 1975; Nelson 1968). Although machine cut nails were cheaper than wrought nails, they were still expensive, particularly when they were not manufactured locally. Despite the fact that machine cut nails could be mass-produced, they did not become commonplace in construction until after the 1830s, when large nail factories were opened (Nelson 1968). Machine cut nails would be the preferred nail type throughout most of the 1800s.

Although the United States Patent Office granted the first patent for wire nails strong enough for heavy construction in 1877 (Loveday 1983; Wells 1998), they were used primarily in the manufacture of packing cases until the last two decades of the nineteenth century. However, by around 1890, wire nails had become preferred for all construction because they were less expensive to produce than cut nails (Smith 1975). Preiss (1973:90) suggests that an effective beginning date for the use of wire nails in building construction is 1880. By 1913, machine cut nails accounted for less than 10% of all nails produced in the United States (Loveday 1983).

Bone and Shell

Materials such as animal bone, ivory and shell are typically recovered from historic archaeological sites; they primarily represent the disposal of food remains used by people or the remains of an animal that had died on the spot. While food was the most common use for animals during the 1800s, a variety of items were produced with animal products. Many of these items rarely survive in the archaeological record (e.g., fur and leather garments or the various products made from animal fat). However, animal bones were also used to produce items that are frequently found at archaeological sites, like buttons, combs, handles, or decorative items. Just about anything could be carved from bone, a near functional equivalent to plastic before its invention.

Although buttons were commonly made of metal, ceramic, and glass during the 1800s, they were often made from bone (South 1964). With the exception of ornately carved buttons, most bone buttons were used for casual or work clothing because they were inexpensive to produce and bone was readily available. As with bone buttons, shell buttons were also made throughout the 1800s (South 1964). While freshwater mussel shells from North America's rivers were ample and inexpensive, domestic production of

shell buttons did not occur until the 1890s. Most of the shell buttons used in the United States during the 1800s were made from marine mussel shell imported from Europe (Claassen 1994). As bone buttons became less popular towards the end of the 1800s and beginning of the 1900s, shell buttons became increasingly popular. The reason for this may have been that shell buttons were considered to be much more elegant than bone buttons. Even the simplest shell buttons produced a bright white and iridescent appearance that was commonly associated with formal clothing.