National Park Service
U.S. Department of the Interior

Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area
Kentucky and Tennessee

Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area

Historic Resource Study



Cultural Resources

Southeast Region

Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area

Kentucky and Tennessee

Historic Resource Study

June 2016

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About the front cover: Angel Falls Overlook. Photo courtesy of Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area.

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Acknowledgements

The authors gratefully acknowledge the contributions of National Park Service personnel from the Southeast Regional Office and Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area to this project. In particular, the authors appreciate the extensive knowledge and insights shared by Tom Des Jean, former Park Cultural Resources Specialist and Archeologist, as well as the assistance of Tim Smith, former Park Archeologist, in understanding the park's complex resources.

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Introduction

This Historic Resource Study (HRS) records the cultural history of the Upper Cumberland Plateau contained within Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, a unit of the National Park System located within northeast Tennessee and southeastern Kentucky. Through extensive review of historical records, personal accounts, and previous investigations, the HRS considers the region's long-standing cultural heritage within a broader context of historical trends to better understand its contribution to our nation's history. The HRS also documents and assesses surviving physical evidence of cultural activities within several overarching historic contexts, and identifies their eligibility for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. This information is intended to support protection of these resources for the enjoyment of future generations.

Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area is a unit of the National Park System that extends over 125,000 acres within the Upper Cumberland Plateau of northeastern Tennessee and southeastern Kentucky. The park was established on March 7, 1974, under Section 108 of the Water Resources Act of 1974 (Public Law 93-251) to fulfill several objectives, including

> . . . conserving and interpreting an area containing unique cultural, historic, geologic, fish and wildlife, archaeological, scenic and recreational values, preserving as a natural free-flowing stream the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River, major portions of its Clear Fork and New River stems, and portions of their various tributaries for the benefit and enjoyment of present and future generations, the preservation of the natural integrity of the scenic gorges and valleys and the development of the area's potential for healthful outdoor recreation (PL 93-251).



FIGURE 1. View of the Big South Fork River gorge. Source: National Park Service.

The Big South Fork is a wild and scenic waterway that flows through a deep and dramatic gorge edged by sandstone bluffs, arches, and rock shelters (Figure 1 and Figure 2). Over millennia, the movement of river water across the soft underlying sandstone geology etched the present-day gorge into the tableland of the Upper Cumberland Plateau. The rugged terrain of the gorge and the surrounding tableland plateau have supported a rich and complex cultural history, beginning with American Indians and continuing with settlers of European-American heritage. The natural resources of the region have been the focus

of agricultural lifeways, a variety of industrial endeavors, transportation systems, and recreational activities. Since 1974, the park landscape has primarily served recreational pursuits ranging from walking and hiking to camping, picnicking, fishing, swimming, and boating. However, Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area also protects surviving evidence of the region's significant cultural heritage and provides interpretive and educational insight to visitors in a variety of formats.

Big South Fork was the first national park with the dual designation of National River and National Recreation Area. As such, the park is part of a broader story of National Park System expansion that occurred during the 1960s and 1970s, as the Department of the Interior added environmental stewardship and recreational opportunities to its administrative purview. National rivers, national seashores, national recreation areas, and national lakeshores were introduced during this period in response to new objectives framed by a 1964 National Park Service management policy memorandum that called for the expansion of the National Park System ". . . through inclusion of additional areas of scenic, scientific, historical, and recreational value to the Nation."[1] The recreational areas that were subsequently established as part of the National Park System reflected two distinct approaches. Some were established around opportunities provided by sources such as reservoirs created for water supply and hydroelectric power production, while others preserved wildlands near cities to meet a goal of making the outdoors more accessible to urban America.[2] Big South Fork was one of several recreation areas established in the 1970s "within 250 miles of urban centers . . . affording a quality of recreation experience which transcends that normally associated with areas provided by State and local government."[3] Its origins, however, lay within proposals developed by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers to dam the river for flood control and hydroelectric power production. Negative public reaction to these proposals led to the idea of protecting the river corridor for public enjoyment. The U.S. Army Corps of Engineers was directed to study and manage the transition of the landscape into a park to ensure the safety of visitors; the agency maintained administrative oversight over the park between its establishment in 1974 and 1990, when the park became a unit of the National Park System.

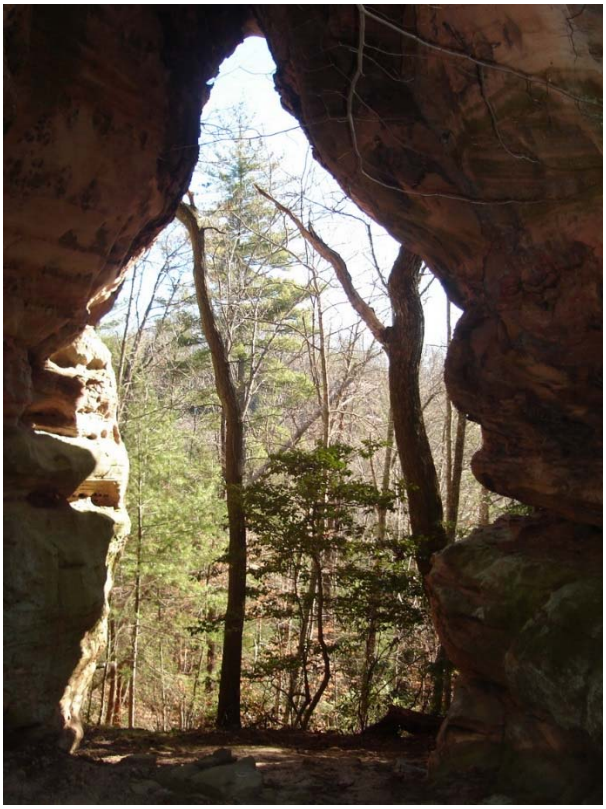


FIGURE 2. View of an arch rock form experienced along one of the hiking trails associated with the Big South Fork River gorge. Source: National Park Service.

1. Barry Mackintosh, *The National Parks: Shaping the System* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, 1991), 64–65.
2. Other examples include Chattahoochee National River and Recreation Area, Delaware Water Gap National Recreation Area, Santa Monica Mountains National Recreation Area, Golden Gate National Recreation Area, Cuyahoga Valley National Recreation Area, and Gateway National Recreation Area.
3. Mackintosh, 71.

Since 1990, the National Park Service has facilitated visitor access to the myriad of opportunities for outdoor recreation afforded by the area's natural resources. At the same time, the National Park Service has continually worked to protect a legacy of cultural heritage that survives within the park in the form of historic farmsteads, transportation features, industrial resources, and recreational elements. Time has not been kind to the physical legacy of the region's cultural history, however. Outmigration trends that began in the early twentieth century, and escalated after World War II, led to the abandonment of many homes, farmsteads, and industrial sites several years before the land was acquired by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers. By 1974, time and neglect had already taken a substantial toll on the region's cultural features. Although many cultural features have been lost, sufficient evidence of pre-park lifeways and activities survives to convey a good understanding of the unique and important legacy of its former residents. As the current stewards of this landscape, the National Park Service continues to focus energy and resources on protecting and recognizing the surviving heritage of its former residents. This HRS is part of that ongoing stewardship effort.

Report Organization

The Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area HRS is divided into ten chapters. This, the first chapter, conveys the purpose and goals of the report. The subsequent six chapters address the specific historic contexts that relate to the park's extant cultural historic resources, and include:

- European-American Settlement and Occupation of the Big South Fork Gorge and Plateau; Farming and Other Means of Subsistence (circa 1680s–1974)
- Extractive and Manufacturing Industries, including Salt and Oil Drilling, Coal Mining, and Logging (circa 1680s–1987)
- Transportation Systems (circa 1680s–2012)
- Recreation along the Big South Fork (pre-twentieth century to 2012)
- Effects of War on the Big South Fork Region
- Effects of Public Works on the Big South Fork Region

The eighth chapter is a resource inventory that provides a brief history, physical description, and significance and integrity evaluation of each surviving historic cultural feature.

The ninth chapter consists of a description of the park's cultural landscapes, ethnographic resources, archeological resources, and museum collections.

The tenth and final chapter offers recommendations for additional research, physical resource protection, management, and interpretation, as well as the stewardship of the park's museum and archival collections. This chapter also identifies the cultural resources that are at-risk and merit special consideration.

Study Purpose and Scope

The HRS is the primary document used to identify and manage cultural and historic resources within the National Park System. Historic Resource Studies are developed to provide park staff with information that will support management and interpretation of historic resources. The HRS provides the basis for understanding the significance of a park's historic resources and their interrelationships, and is a point of departure for the development of other types of studies such as interpretive plans. In addition, the HRS serves as a framework for additional research, and often suggests avenues for further or future investigation.

The HRS for Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area is intended to offer a unified understanding of the cultural history of the park within a geographic and demographic regional context that will support appropriate preservation and interpretation of surviving cultural resources. The historic cultural resources at Big South Fork are uniquely tied to the environment and the region's natural features and systems. For example, farmsteads were historically established

on the bottomlands of stream corridors to take advantage of fertile soils, gentle topography, and access to fresh water sources, while industrial landscape features focused around accessible sites of mineral extraction such as coal deposits. To explore and express these key linkages, the authors have employed a cultural landscape approach in the preparation of the HRS. As such, the origins and subsequent uses of cultural features are tied whenever possible to elements of the environment, and broad connections are made at the landscape level to illustrate the context within which cultural activities occurred.

This HRS has two goals. The first is to provide an overview of the park's history and the historic contexts that helped to shape the cultural landscape. The overview establishes a framework for understanding the significance of the park's historic resources. The second goal is to identify the park's historic resources, evaluate their significance within applicable historic context(s), assess their historic integrity, and offer recommendations for their preservation and management. National Register of Historic Places criteria and guidelines have been used to identify historic resources, and to evaluate their significance and integrity. Although the evaluation of historic resources focuses primarily on the extant structures administered by the National Park Service as part of the park, additional features that exist only in the archeological record and others located beyond park boundaries that are tied to the park's history are also noted herein.

Physical Description of Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area

Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area forms an irregularly-shaped polygon, generally oriented north-south, that extends over approximately 125,000 acres of the rugged Upper Cumberland Plateau of northeastern Tennessee and southeastern Kentucky. The park falls within portions of Scott, Fentress, Morgan, and Pickett counties in Tennessee, and McCreary County in Kentucky. The region surrounding the park is sparsely populated. The closest city is Oneida, Tennessee, located 10 miles to the east. Larger metropolitan areas within proximity of the park include Knoxville, Tennessee, 70 miles to the southeast, and Lexington, Kentucky, located approximately 100 miles to the north.

The Upper Cumberland Plateau is a physiographic province defined by its geomorphology. Comprised of horizontally-bedded sedimentary rock that has been deeply incised by the hydrology of Kentucky, Cumberland, and Tennessee river tributaries, the Upper Cumberland Plateau, together with the Appalachian Plateau to the north, form the Appalachian Plateau province and are part of the larger Appalachian Mountain system. The region features rolling terrain characterized by farm fields and woodlands.

The Big South Fork River and its tributaries have eroded the softer sandstone of the underlying plateau geology, forming a 600-foot-deep gorge system framed by forested Pennsylvania sandstone, Mississippian shale, and limestone ledges. The slopes of the gorge walls are cloaked by mesic forests composed of hemlocks (*Tsuga* spp.), and chinquapin (*Quercus muehlenbergii*) and white oaks, while the floodplains of the river and tributaries are shaded by hydric species such as tulip poplars (*Liriodendron tulipifera*), sweetgum (*Liquidambar styraciflua*), sycamore (*Platanus occidentalis*), hornbeam (*Carpinus caroliniana*),

and river birch (*Betula nigra*).[4] Vertical cliffs and massive boulders are regular features of the gorge. The river exhibits a wild and scenic character due to frequent falls and whitewater sections. Approximately 56,000 acres of the park lie within the gorge landform, while the remainder is characterized as plateau land.

The park was designed to protect portions of the watershed basin of the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River and several of its tributaries. Today, Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area encompasses approximately 15 percent of the 1,382 square mile drainage area of the river and 49 miles of its 76-mile length.[5] The Big South Fork River is formed from the confluence of the New River and Clear Fork that occurs within Scott County, Tennessee, and is also encompassed within the park. Past the confluence, the river continues north, flowing through Tennessee into Kentucky. The northern boundary of the park is formed by the Daniel Boone National Forest. The Big South Fork River continues through the national forest for much of its remaining length before emptying into the Cumberland River near Burnside, Kentucky. Within the Tennessee section of the park, the river is fed by a series of creeks that enter from the west, including from south to north Honey Creek, North White Oak Creek, Bandy Creek, Laurel Fork/Station Camp Creek, Parch Corn Creek, and No Business Creek. Few creeks enter the river from the east within Tennessee, the largest being Pine Creek, while several smaller unnamed drainages flow into the Big South Fork. Within Kentucky, named stream corridors entering the Big South Fork from the west include Difficulty Creek, Troublesome Creek, and Oil Well Branch. Several larger creeks within Kentucky feed the Big South Fork from the east, including Roaring Paunch Creek, Bear Creek, Lick Creek, Yahoo Creek, and Big Creek.

The river and several of its tributaries have etched a deep gorge into the landform of the Upper Cumberland Plateau. The gorge widens as the river moves northward to encompass terraced and benched landforms, floodplains, and bottomlands. The bottomlands range from sandy beaches to boulder fields. Due to the regional geology, rapids are prevalent throughout this section of the river; streams cascade into the gorge through deeply entrenched valleys (Figure 3).

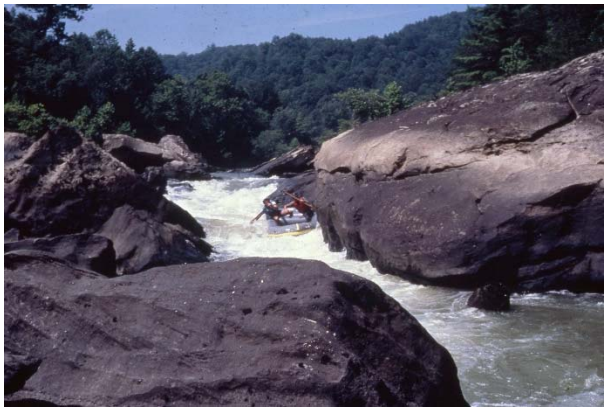


FIGURE 3. Rapids are a dramatic feature of the Big South Fork River gorge. Source: National Park Service.

Access to the park is afforded by an array of local roads as well as state and federal highways. Several interstate highways frame the region, including Interstate 75 to the east, Interstate 40 to the south, and Interstate 65 to the west, although none provides direct access to the park (Figure 4). A visitor center is located in Crossville, Tennessee, adjacent to Interstate 40. The primary route into the park is Tennessee Highway 297 (Leatherwood Ford Road), which connects Tennessee Highway 154 along the western margin of the park with Oneida, Tennessee, to the east. In Oneida, Highway 297 intersects U.S. Highway 27, a primary artery that generally parallels the park to its east. The park's Bandy Creek Visitor Center, as well as its administrative headquarters, are located in Oneida, Tennessee, and are accessible from Highway 297. Also extending through the park are Tennessee Highway 52 and Kentucky Highway 92. Numerous additional local improved and

4. Historically, chestnuts (*Castanea dentate*) were present but have not grown in the region since the chestnut blight that affected the region in the 1930s.

5. Miller, Wihry & Lee, Inc., *Big South Fork National River & Recreation Area, Master Plan, Design Memorandum, No. 7, Volume I*, 4-4.

unimproved public roads lead into or cross the park.

Tennessee Highway 52 passes through the southern tip of the park, connecting Jamestown, Tennessee, to the west with U.S. Highway 27 at Elgin, Tennessee. Sited along this road is the nineteenth century Utopian community of Rugby. A visitor center is located in Rugby.

North along Highway 27, approximately 5 miles from the park entrance, is the Helenwood Visitor Center in Helenwood, Tennessee.

Kentucky Highway 92 passes through the northern end of the park. This route also leads to U.S. Highway 27, first passing through the community of Stearns, a town formed to support former coal mining and logging operations within the Big South Fork River region. The Big South Fork Scenic Railway Depot and a visitor contact station are located in Stearns. It includes exhibits that detail the history of the Stearns Coal and Lumber Company. A scenic railway operates on the line linking the Stearns depot and the Blue Heron Mining Community complex, located within the park. A second visitor contact facility, a museum, and outdoor trails and exhibits are located at Blue Heron. These features were developed by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers during its administration of the park. The Blue Heron complex is also accessed via Highways 1651 and 742.

Set entirely within the boundary of the park is Scott State Forest. This 2,826-acre property straddles Tennessee Highway 297 and edges the section of the park that contains the Bandy Creek Visitor Center. Also contiguous with the boundaries of Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area is the Pickett State Rustic Park and Forest, located within Tennessee to the northwest of the Bandy Creek Visitor Center (Figure 5). As noted above, the Daniel Boone National Forest forms a portion of the western and northern boundary of the park within Kentucky (Figure 6).

The National Park Service website for the park suggests the range of recreational activities available to visitors. It indicates opportunities for camping, hiking, horseback riding, mountain bike riding, paddling, hunting, fishing, photography, star gazing, sightseeing, and backcountry camping. These activities are supported by numerous designated trailheads, overlooks, picnic areas, recreational facilities, and educational programs scattered throughout the park. An extensive network of hiking and equestrian trails link features of the park with one another as well as adjacent sites such as the Daniel Boone National Forest and the Pickett State Rustic Park and Forest.

The park interprets the history of the region prior to its inclusion in the National Park System in various ways, including the use of exhibits housed in the visitor centers and along trails that provide access to the remains of nineteenth and early twentieth century farmsteads, industrial sites, and communities. The resources present within the park are associated with a wide variety of historical contexts, including nineteenth and twentieth century subsistence-level farming conducted on the fertile floodplains and narrow level corridors of the gorge as well as the upland plateau; industrial endeavors ranging from small family businesses to surface and subsurface mining of coal by large mining companies; and the establishment of communities to support industrial activities such as those located at Blue Heron, Worley, and Zenith. Evidence of these historic land uses is scattered throughout the park.

The pages that follow describe the general layout and associated cultural and natural features of the park in more detail. Due to the large size of the park, the description is divided into four parts moving linearly from north to south section. The northern section is composed of the area from Yahoo Falls to Worley, Kentucky. The upper middle section includes the area from Worley, Kentucky, to the Kentucky-Tennessee border. The lower middle section encompasses the Kentucky-Tennessee border to the Scott State Forest. Finally, the southern section extends between the Scott State Forest and Peters Bridge. The features associated with each section are described below.

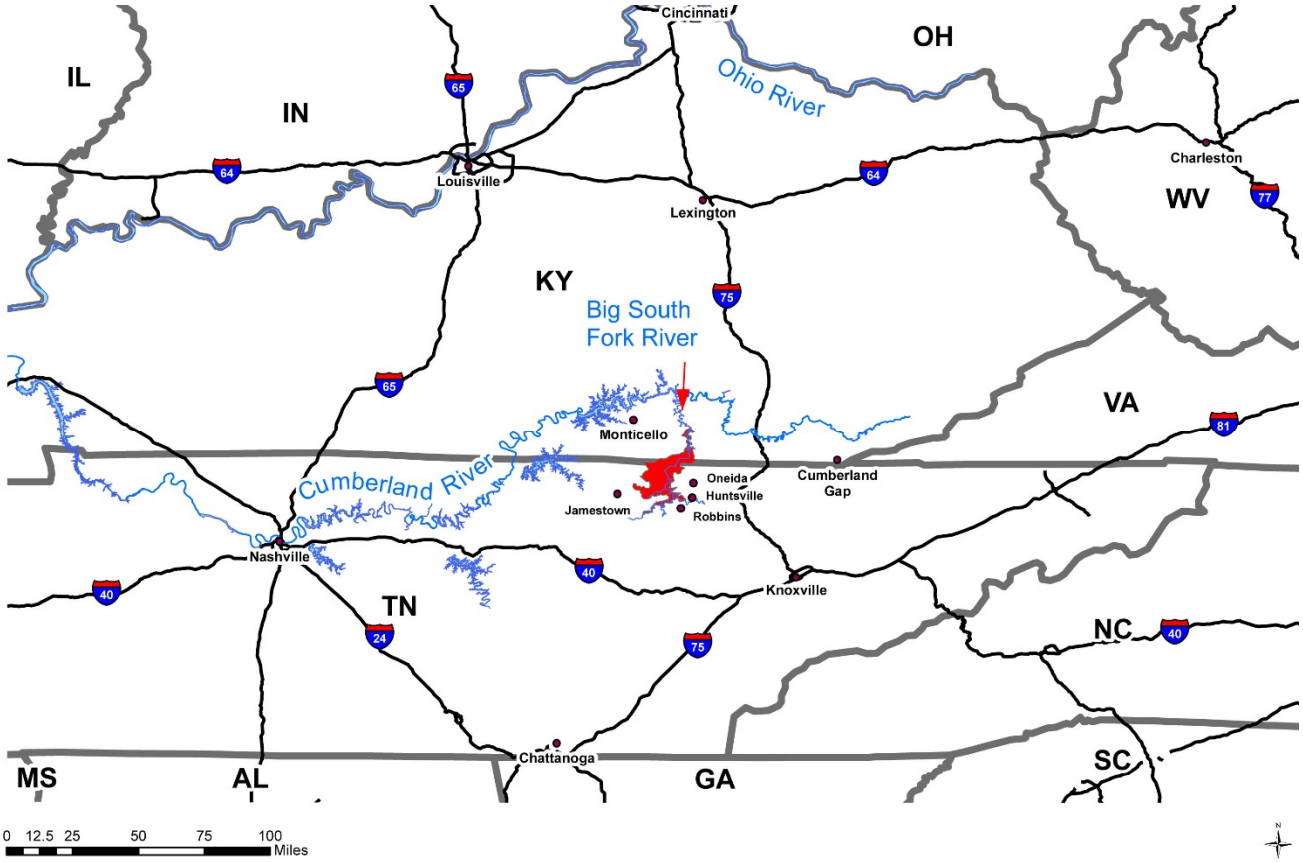


FIGURE 4. Vicinity map. Source: National Park Service.

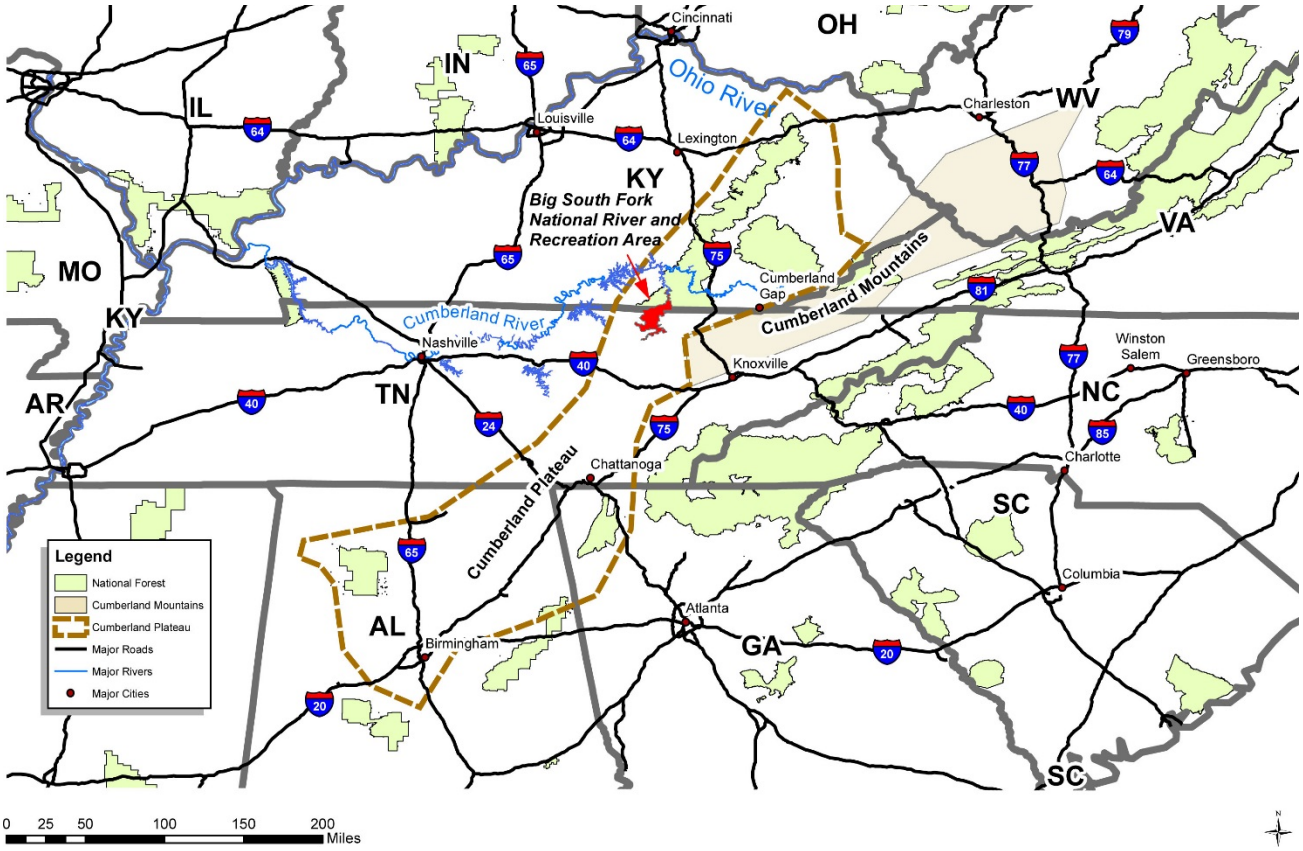


FIGURE 5. Map of the regional context for the park. Source: National Park Service.

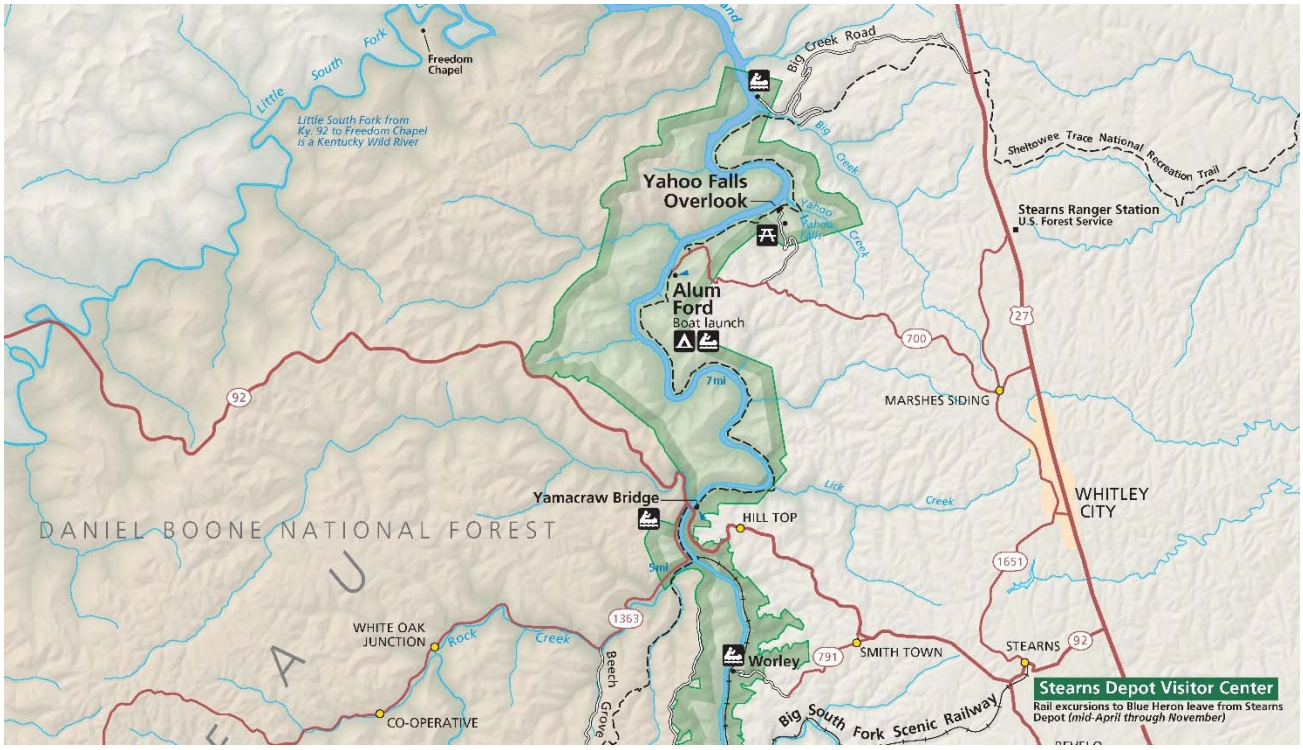


FIGURE 6. Excerpt from National Park Service map of Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area showing the area from Yahoo Falls to Worley, Kentucky. Source: National Park Service.

Yahoo Falls to Worley, Kentucky

The northernmost section of the park falls within the Commonwealth of Kentucky (Figure 6). The northern and northwestern boundary of the park is formed by the Daniel Boone National Forest. Access to the northern end of the park is provided by Big Creek Road, an unimproved route that arises from U.S. Highway 27 to the east and follows a section of Big Creek to a park boat launch. Also entering the park in this vicinity is the Sheltowee Trace National Recreation Trail, which extends beyond park boundaries to the north and south. The trail follows the river south, exiting the park again below the Yamacraw Bridge, and continuing into the Daniel Boone National Forest. The trail provides access to the Yahoo Falls Overlook, which is also reached from an unimproved spur road leading into the park from Tennessee Highway 700. Picnic facilities are afforded near the falls of Yahoo Creek as it empties into the Big South Fork River. The falls are often described as Kentucky's highest, with a vertical drop of 113 feet (Figure 7). The adjacent trail features stonework constructed in the 1960s as part of the development of the Daniel Boone National Forest.

Kentucky Highway 700 also continues into the park further to the south, terminating at a boat launch and campgrounds near Alum Ford. South of Alum Ford, the river corridor is edged by the Sheltowee Trace National Recreation Trail. Near the confluence of the river with Lick Creek, Kentucky Highway 92 crosses the park via the historic Yamacraw Bridge, built in 1907 to convey the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad across Big South Fork River (Figure 8). To the south of the bridge crossing is the terminus of the historic rail line spur constructed by the Stearns Coal and Lumber Company. From the terminus, the rail line follows the river southward through the historic mining community of Worley. At Worley, an unimproved road enters the park from County Route 791 southwest of Smith Town. The park also features a boat launch along the river near Worley.

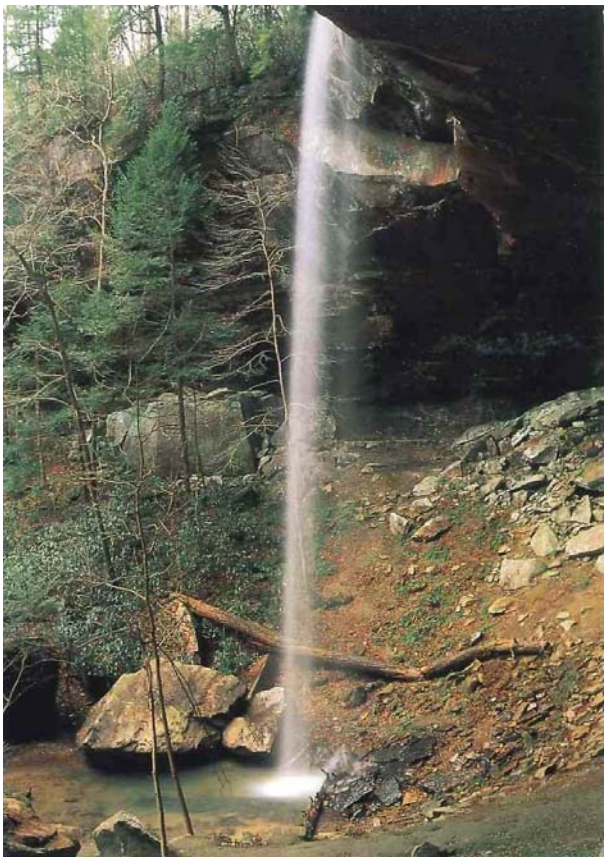


FIGURE 7. View of Yahoo Falls. Source: National Park Service.

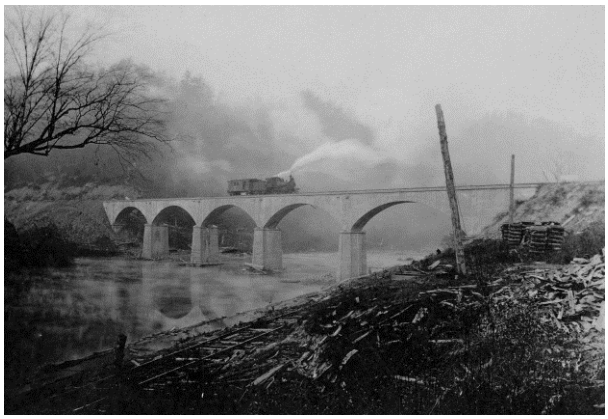


FIGURE 8. Historic photograph of the Yamacraw Bridge. Source: National Park Service.

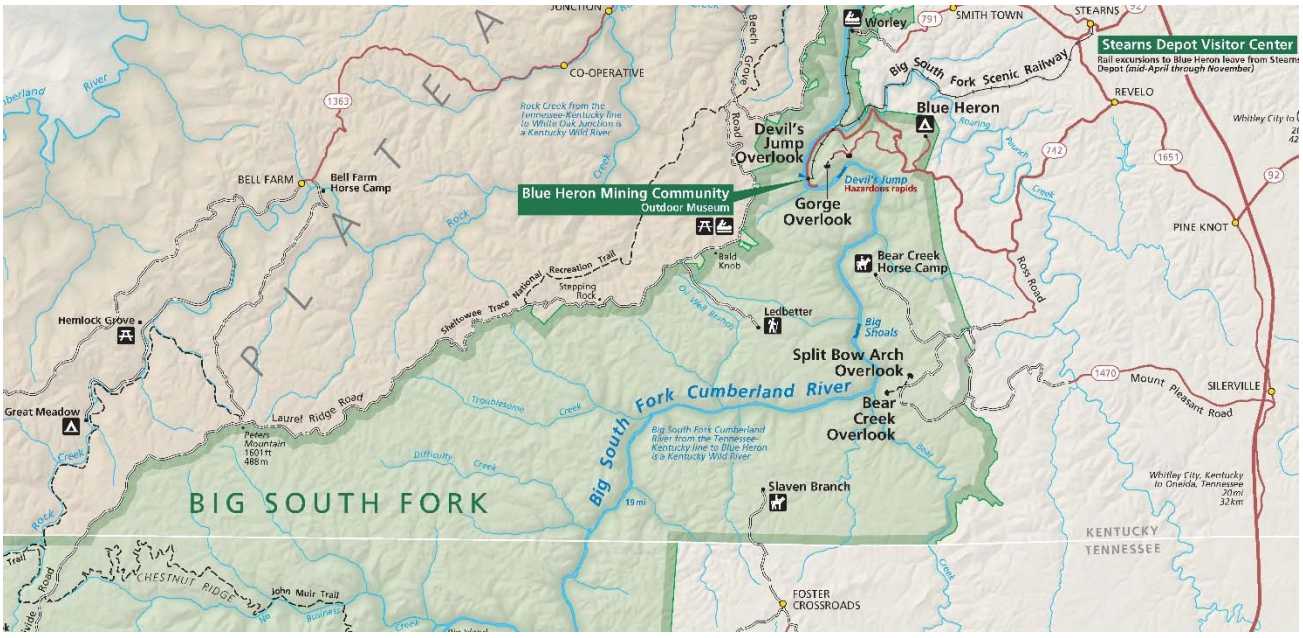


FIGURE 9. Excerpt from National Park Service map of Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area showing the area from Worley to the Kentucky-Tennessee Border. Source: National Park Service.

Worley to the Kentucky-Tennessee Border

To the south of Worley, the rail line closely follows the river (Figure 9). The line splits at the confluence of Roaring Paunch Creek and Big South Fork. One branch extends in a northeast direction to the town of Stearns, Kentucky, while the other continues south to the Blue Heron Mining Community exhibit area. The rail line crosses Roaring Paunch Creek via the historic Roaring Paunch Plate-Girder Bridge, purchased from the New York Central Railroad and reconstructed by Kentucky and Tennessee Railway engineers to complete the line in 1937.[6] South of the confluence of the Big South Fork and Roaring Paunch Creek, the river forms a tight bend that is edged by steep gorge walls. Set within the bend on the opposite side of the river is the Blue Heron Mining Community exhibit area. It features an outdoor museum constructed by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers and a visitor center. The Big South Fork Scenic Railway, operated by a concessionaire, offers recreational train rides along the historic line between Blue Heron and Stearns, Kentucky. The outdoor museum complex includes ghost frame structures and a restored tipple and tram bridge, which originally supported the operation between 1937 and 1962, to load coal onto the rail line (Figure 10). The restored tipple is accessible and visitors can use it to cross the river.

Below Blue Heron, at the southern end of the river bend, is a hazardous section of rapids known as the Devil's Jump. A park access road that arises from County Route 742 provides access to the Blue Heron Mining Community museum, as well as two overlooks that offer views of Devil's Jump and the gorge. Picnicking and boat access are afforded in the vicinity of Blue Heron. The road also leads to the Blue Heron campsite.



FIGURE 10. Ghost frame structure at the Blue Heron Mining Community, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Additional visitor amenities are offered within the park to the south of Devil's Jump. These include equestrian facilities at Bear Creek Horse Camp to the east, and the Ledbetter Trail trailhead to the west. Access to the horse camp is provided via an unimproved road that arises from Ross Road south of Kentucky Highway 742. The road also leads to the Split Bow Arch and Bear Creek overlooks, which offer scenic views of geological formations associated with the gorge. Access to the Ledbetter Trailhead occurs from Laurel Ridge Road, an unimproved route that follows the western edge of the park for portions of its length within Kentucky. The road also follows Oil Well Branch, where wells were drilled in the early nineteenth century to extract salt brine for salt production, and later used to remove deposits of black and green oil used in various industrial products.

The final park feature located in Kentucky is an equestrian trailhead at Slaven Branch. The trailhead is accessed from an unimproved road leading north from Foster Crossroads in Tennessee. This road arises from Grave Hill Road west of U.S. Highway 27.

6. Steven K. Hutchinson, Ellen A. Dugan, Richard S. Levy, with contributions by Joseph B. Kaskey, *Inventory and Evaluation of Architectural and Engineering Resources of the Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, Tennessee and Kentucky* (Nashville, Tennessee: U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, February 25, 1982), 19, 164.

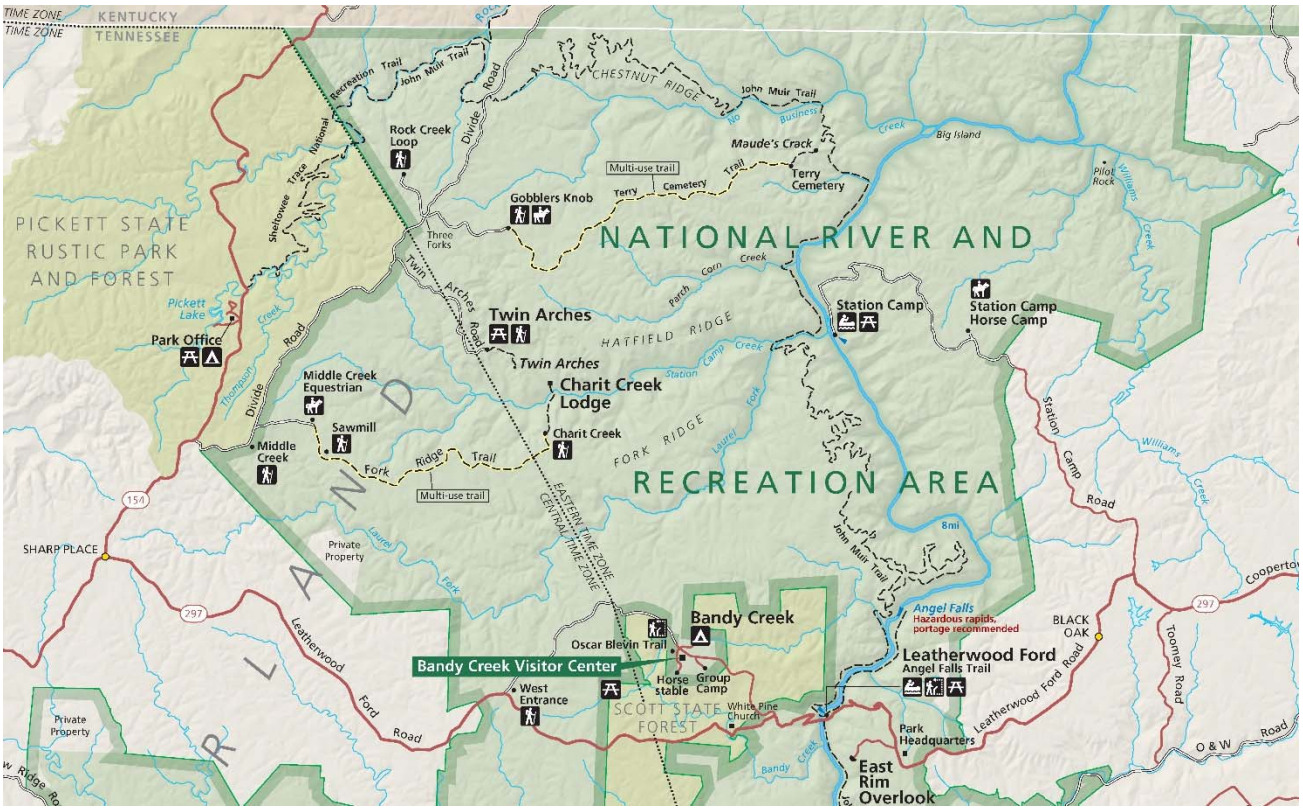


FIGURE 11. Excerpt from National Park Service map of Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area showing the area from the Kentucky-Tennessee Border to Scott State Forest. Source: National Park Service.

Kentucky-Tennessee Border to Scott State Forest

To the south of the Kentucky-Tennessee border, visitors can once again access the Sheltowee Trace National Recreation Trail, which crosses into the park from the Daniel Boone National Forest (Figure 11). The trail also intersects the park's John Muir Trail, which arises west of Divide Road near the western edge of the park. While the Sheltowee Trace National Recreation Trail continues southwest, crossing into the adjacent Pickett State Rustic Park and Forest, the John Muir Trail travels southeast through the park as far as Burnt Mill Bridge. This trail follows Chestnut Ridge, before connecting with No Business Creek. It later crosses Parch Corn Creek, and subsequently follows the west side of Big South Fork River as far as Station Camp Creek. This trail affords a good opportunity to experience the park's natural resources. It also intersects other trails of interest, such as the Terry Cemetery multi-use trail that travels southwestward to Gobbler's Knob. Thereafter, the John Muir Trail moves upland, winding through challenging terrain before rejoining the river again near Angel Falls.

There are several visitor amenities west of the John Muir Trail. These are generally accessed from a series of unimproved roads that arise from Divide Road. Divide Road enters the park near the Kentucky border and travels southwest through and along the park margin to Tennessee Highway 154. Arising from Divide Road is a gravel route that provides access to the Rock Creek Loop hiking trail as well as Twin Arches Road. This road affords views of the Twin Arches, a scenic geological landform (Figure 12 and Figure 13). There are a number of arch formations in this area, including Cathedral Arch, located southwest of Twin Arches and north of Ridge Fork Road (Figure 14). There is also a back country road that leads to Charit Creek Lodge, located along Station Camp Creek. This historic building complex, thought to occupy the site of an eighteenth century long hunting camp, offers concessionaire-run hunting and lodging. Further south, there is yet another unimproved road that leads to the Middle Creek Equestrian center. Arising from the

center is the Fork Ridge Trail that also connects to Charit Creek Lodge. On the east side of the river is Station Camp Road. Along Station Camp Road across from Parch Corn Creek are the Standing Rock formations (Figure 15).

Several historic farming and small-scale industrial complexes survive in the gorge along the margins of Parch Corn Creek, No Business Creek, and Station Camp Creek in this portion of the park. Located along Parch Corn Creek are the John Litton Cabin ruins, a privy, and other historic farm features. The margins of No Business Creek feature surviving small cottage industry resources, such as a mill race and building piers, and the Ransom Boyatt and Lee Crabtree farmstead ruins. As noted, Charit Creek Lodge is located near Station Camp Creek, as are the Tackett Cabin ruins.



FIGURE 12. View of Twin Arches. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 13. View of the South Arch at Twin Arches, one of the striking sandstone formations located within Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 14. View of Cathedral Arch. Source: National Park Service.

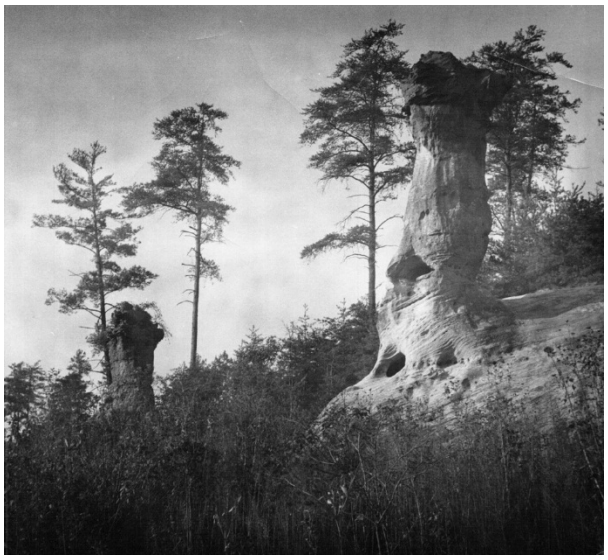


FIGURE 15. View of the Standing Rock sandstone formations located within the park. Source: National Park Service, "Chimney Rocks," Standing Rock BSF 830.

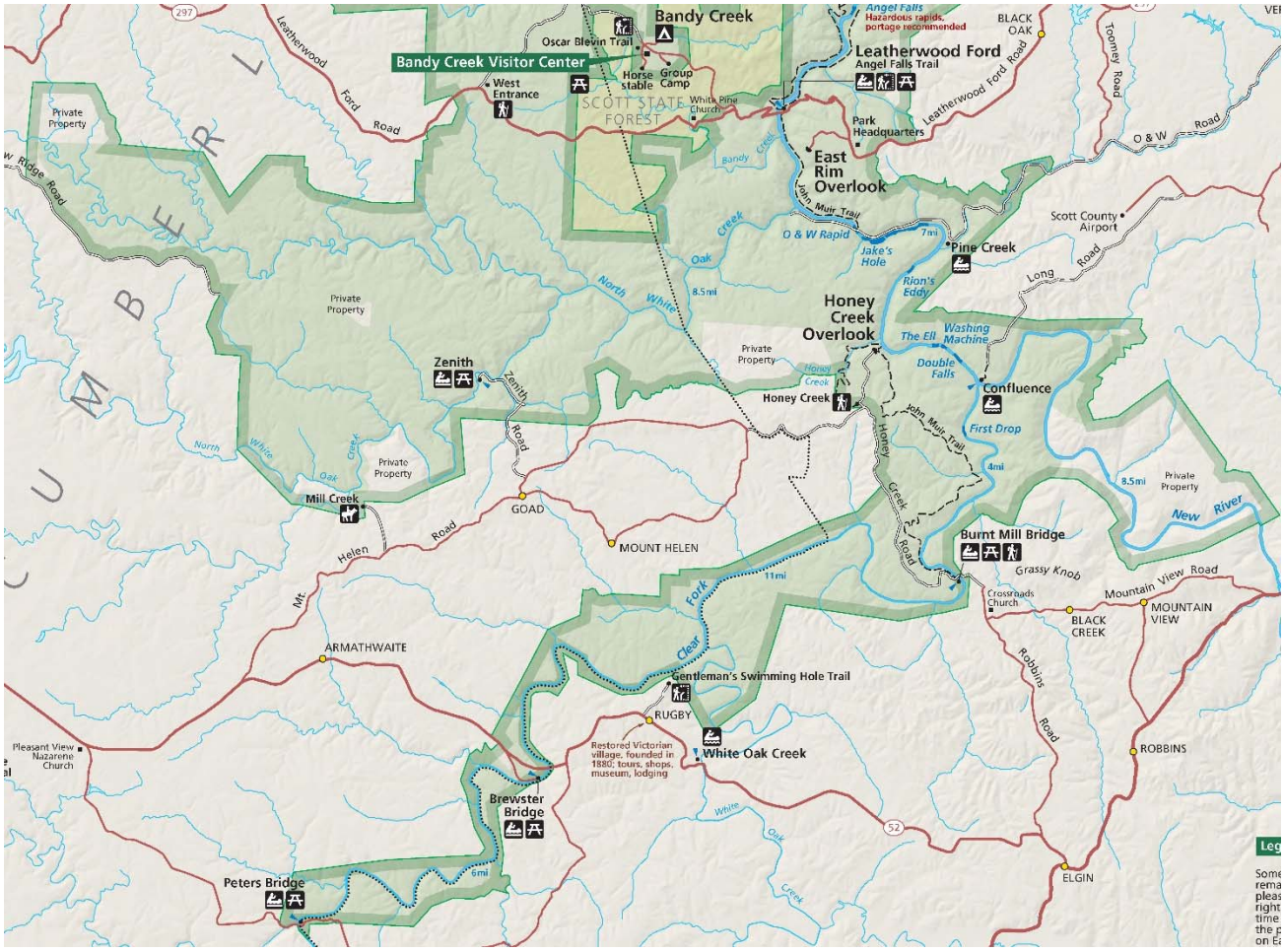


FIGURE 16. Excerpt from National Park Service map of Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area showing the area from Scott State Forest to Peters Bridge. Source: National Park Service.

Scott State Forest to Peters Bridge

The middle of the park contains the Scott State Forest (Figure 16). As noted above, the park's Bandy Creek Visitor Center is located adjacent to the Scott State Forest along a spur road that arises from Tennessee Highway 297 (Leatherwood Ford Road). Also located along the Leatherwood Ford Road corridor is the Oscar Blevins Trail, a horse stable, and group camp site. The trail provides access to the Oscar Blevins Farmstead, a modest late nineteenth through early twentieth century plateau agricultural complex composed of a log cabin, later second residence, corn crib, outbuilding, barn, orchard, and root cellar. Northeast of the Oscar Blevins Farmstead, just north of the Scott State Forest, is the Lora Blevins Farmstead. The property, developed circa 1929 and occupied until 1974, closely edges Old Leatherwood Ford Road to its north. Surviving components of the farm include a log house, barn, corn crib, and privy. Located adjacent to the farmstead is a historic burial ground known as the Katy Blevins Cemetery. Further east is the Charles Rudy Slaven/John Litton Farmstead, occupied circa 1900 through 1974. The farm edges the North Fork of Fall Branch. The farm is accessed along the John Litton Farm Loop Trail from the Bandy Creek Campground. Surviving buildings and structures associated with the farmstead include a log house, garage, log barn, hog pen, and impounded pond.

Further east, Highway 297 crosses the Big South Fork via a modern highway bridge. Near the bridge is a historic low-water concrete crossing structure. East of the river, Highway 297 continues through the park. Located along one of the spur roads that arise from the highway is the East Rim Overlook, which offers views of the gorge and the park administrative headquarters (Figure 17).

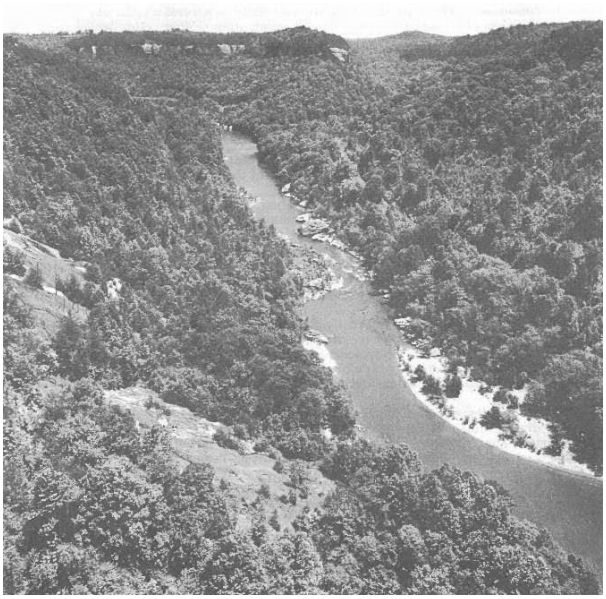


FIGURE 17. View of the dramatic river gorge from one of the overlooks associated with the park. Source: U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, U.S. Department of the Interior, U.S. Department of Agriculture, *Big South Fork, Cumberland River (Kentucky-Tennessee), Interagency Field Task Group Report* (December 1969), page 9, photo by U.S. Forest Service.

To the south of Highway 297, the John Muir Trail continues along the river margin. South of the confluence with North White Oak Creek, the trail provides access to a traditional swimming area known as Jake's Hole. Nearby, the park offers a boat launch at Pine Creek, accessible from the Oneida and Western Railroad. Upstream from the boat launch, the river is known for a series of named rapids that include Rion's Eddy, the Ell, Washing Machine, and Double Falls. Unimproved roads enter the park from both the east and the west near the rapids. To the west, Honey Creek Road leads northeast from Mt. Helen Road to the Honey Creek Trail, which ends at Honey Creek Overlook. Honey Creek Road also continues south to the Burnt Mill Bridge boat launch, picnic area, and the southern trailhead of the John Muir Trail. Long Road provides access from the northeast to the confluence of New River and Clear Fork, where the park maintains another boat launch.

To the west of the Honey Creek Overlook, Zenith Road arises from Mt. Helen Road and provides access to a boat launch and picnic area at Zenith, one of the historic towns developed to support local industrial activities. To the southwest, another unimproved spur road leads to an equestrian facility at Mill Creek.

A narrow extension of the park continues southwest from the Burnt Mill Bridge. This extension encompasses the Clear Fork stream corridor. Located along the stream is the Gentleman's Swimming Hole Trail, reached along another unimproved spur road that leads into the park from the restored historic utopian community of Rugby, Tennessee. Nearby is the White Oak Creek boat launch. To the west, Tennessee Highway 52 crosses the park. A spur road arises from the highway and leads to the Brewster Bridge site, which includes picnic grounds and a boat launch. In the southwestern corner of the park, another local road corridor skirts the park, providing access to a boat launch and picnic grounds along Clear Fork.

Historical Overview

For centuries, the Big South Fork River gorge, also referred to as a basin, and the surrounding Upper Cumberland Plateau have supported human settlement through provision of basic needs such as food, water, and shelter. Prior to recorded history, American Indians are known to have used the region as a hunting ground, taking advantage of plentiful deer and other animal populations, fishing its rivers, and gathering food in the form of nuts and berries. Archeological evidence suggests that human habitation within the Cumberland Plateau began as early as 10,000 BCE, with artifacts indicating the presence of native populations spanning the Paleo-Indian through Mississippian periods.

American Indian Influence

The Archaic period (8,000 BCE–1,000 BCE) was characterized by nomadic hunter-gatherer societies. There is evidence that the people who occupied this region during the Archaic period camped in rock shelters formed by the sandstone bluffs of the gorge walls. Later, as prehistoric peoples increasingly began to establish villages and farming communities during the Woodland

through Mississippian periods (1,000 BCE–1,600 CE), the river valleys were used for cultivation and seasonal and semi-permanent settlement, while hunting remained an important part of life on the plateau. By the time European-Americans began to interact with local peoples during the eighteenth century, tribes associated with the plateau included the Shawnee and Cherokee. While both claimed control of the Upper Cumberland Plateau, neither maintained permanent settlements there. Instead, the Cherokee were generally centered in the Tennessee Valley, while the Shawnee focused their settlements within the Ohio Valley. Both were known, however, to travel extensively through the region, using a network of trails recorded by the early eighteenth-century explorers of European-American descent. Tribes used these trails for hunting and travel involving commerce, social events, stone collection, and warfare. Trails that supported hunting often linked the known sites of animal watering holes, grazing grounds, and salt licks. One of the primary routes recorded through the area was the Tennessee, Ohio, and Great Lakes Trail.[7] The route followed an alignment similar to that of present-day U.S. Highway 27 to the east of the park. Trails passed through the gorge in an east-west direction between present-day Williamsburg and Monticello, Kentucky, in an alignment similar to the current route of Kentucky Highway 92, and across the Big South Fork near Rock Creek at present-day Huntsville, Tennessee. The contemporary community of Jamestown, Tennessee, is located near the intersection of two additional American Indian trails, one of which led north/south, and the other east.

Early European-American Explorers and the Long Hunters

Records of European-American exploration and use of the region begin circa 1760. The earliest explorers were known as the long hunters.[8] They visited the area to trap animals for pelts and to fish and hunt, attracted by an abundance of bear, deer, buffalo, wild boar, muskrat, and trout. The long hunters traversed the rugged terrain using the existing American Indian trails, which also continued to be traveled by the Cherokee and Shawnee. The long hunters left little physical evidence of their activities in the region, although several narrative accounts provide information about their experiences.

Pioneer Settlement and Farming

A second wave of European-American activity within the region began soon after the Revolutionary War, as individuals and families began to arrive seeking to establish small farms and exploit mineral resources. People immigrated to the region from places like Nashville, Tennessee, the Kentucky Bluegrass Basin, and eastern states such as Virginia and North Carolina. Some of the settlers were Revolutionary War soldiers who received land grants as payment for their military service by the nascent U.S. government. Most early settlers of the region were of Western European and Anglo-Saxon heritage. Today, most residents of the area are of Western European descent, although some residents claim American Indian heritage or are related to later emigrants who came from Germany, England, and Eastern Europe during the industrial period of development.

The area remained sparsely settled through the eighteenth century, and European-American immigrants continued to maintain a tenuous hold on their farmsteads until the Cherokee signed a treaty ceding territorial lands to the U.S. government in 1805.

Post treaty European-American settlements were generally grouped at the northern and southern ends of the gorge where the topography was gentler and there were more transportation routes available. Because the soils of the plateau were thin and not particularly fertile, most of the settlement occurred in the floodplains of stream corridors and thus occupied the gorge landscape. Roads, dwellings, and other structures located within the

7. William E. Myer, *Indian Trails of the Southeast* (Nashville, Tennessee: Blue and Gray Press, 1971).

8. The long hunters were so-named because of the length of their hunting expeditions, typically lasting up to six months at a time.

hollows were sited on knolls that stood above the floodplain to prevent their being washed out during flood events. Settlers also located their homesteads near fresh water sources, often at the confluence of a small stream with a larger body of water. They used springs to preserve perishable foods; collected native plants like poke, mustard greens, berries, and nuts for food; and constructed fences for their fields from native stones collected in the fields or wood from rot resistant trees, such as locust, oak, and chestnut, harvested nearby. They also planted fruit trees of European origin around their homesteads as another source of food. Local residents raised livestock, including sheep, horses, and cattle, which were typically allowed to forage in the surrounding woods in an open range system, rather than remaining in fenced pastures. Roads were built along the streams to link the series of clustered settlements that arose west of the river, including the No Business, Parch Corn, and Station Camp communities. While two towns were established in the region in the early 1800s—Monticello and Somerset, Kentucky—neither was located within the gorge.

Early Industry

During the antebellum period of the nineteenth century, waves of settlement occurred in response to economic conditions. Salt production was an important industry in Kentucky and Tennessee during the early settlement period. Niter could also be extracted locally, supporting a cottage industry in the region that allowed subsistence farmers to supplement their productivity with a small cash income, particularly prior to and during the War of 1812.[9] Companies moved into the area to mine the salt resources, spurring population growth in the 1810s and 1820s. Salt deposits were found to be prevalent in southwest McCreary County. Salt mining complexes such as the Beatty Saltworks were established in the 1810s along the Big South Fork near Bear Creek. The salt drilling process revealed the presence of oil reserves in 1818. Two businessmen, Marcus Huling and Andrew Zimmerman, tapped the reserves, selling the oil as a medicinal ointment. These efforts are considered to constitute the first commercial oil well in the United States.

Over the century that followed, industrial endeavors that also included logging and coal mining continued to spur settlement and commerce in the region, attracting companies that established rail lines, logging operations, lumber towns, mining sites, and mining company towns.

The Civil War

The Upper Cumberland Plateau region of Tennessee was generally rural, sparsely populated, and composed of self-sufficient farmers, few of whom owned slaves. When residents of Tennessee were asked to vote on the question of secession in June 1861, the counties of the region presented the strongest Union vote within the state. Outnumbered by pro-Confederate votes elsewhere within the state, Scott County residents met to draw up their own secession ordinance requesting that East Tennessee be allowed to withdraw from Confederate Tennessee. By July, many male residents had begun to relocate to Kentucky, where they joined the Union army. The numbers of these men increased substantially in April 1862, after Tennessee began to enforce its conscription laws.

Residents were forced to choose sides even if they did not join the armies; guerilla warfare between partisans of both sides became a constant threat to life in the region. The Home Guard, a local militia, was established in several locations in the

9. Niter is a mineral used in the manufacture of gunpowder. The cliffs and caves of the gorge were found to have abundant deposits of niter. Salt was also present in the region. It was an important meat preservative. The price of both niter and salt escalated dramatically during the War of 1812. The Commonwealth of Kentucky Legislature also passed three acts between 1811 and 1813 involving favorable terms for land acquisition in exchange for salt manufacture (Kentucky General Assembly Acts 1811–1816). Due to these incentives, there was a great increase in efforts to extract these minerals within the region during the early nineteenth century. See also McBride and McBride, III-40.

borderlands to enforce law and order and protect citizens and property from guerilla raiders. The Union Army often provided weapons to these groups. Guerillas fought each other as well as regular troops of the Confederate and Union armies. The Home Guard appears to have been a loose-knit association of neighbors, sometimes augmented by regular enlisted soldiers home on leave, that operated by hiding out in the back country and harassing Confederate forces or outlaw groups as they entered the area.

Other military activities that occurred within the region during the Civil War included several encampments, minor skirmishes, and troop movements associated with two major campaigns. The only large battle to occur near the region was the Battle of Mill Springs, also known as Logan's Crossroads, which occurred in Pulaski County, Kentucky. In the battle, a large Confederate force under the command of Gen. Felix Zollicoffer moved through the Big South Fork area on the way to Wayne and Pulaski counties in December 1861. Attacked by Union forces under the command of Gen. George Thomas at Nancy, Kentucky, on January 18, 1862, the Confederates were defeated and Zollicoffer killed.

Guerilla warfare in the region was most pronounced between the battle and the fall of 1863, when Federal forces began to occupy East Tennessee. The region became a dangerous no-man's land between the Federal and Confederate forces, "where bands of armed men from both sides roamed freely, spreading violence and bloodshed. Lawlessness led to a suspension of civil government, churches, schools, and businesses."[10] In one account by former resident David Sullins, "The land was full of robbery and murder. Bands of the worst men seized the opportunity, scoured the country by night, calling quiet old farmers to their doors and shooting them down in cold blood. . . . It was the reign of terror—war at everyman's door, neighbor against neighbor. Neither property or life was safe by day or night."[11] Two figures that became best known for leading the guerilla warfare in the region include Champ Ferguson and Tinker Dave Beatty.

One event that affected life in the area was the April 13, 1862, Battle of Huntsville, in Scott County. In this engagement, Union Col. William Clift and 250 men of the 7th Tennessee Infantry had fortified a hill southwest of the town. They were attacked by a Confederate force composed of 600 infantry and 300 cavalry troops under the command of Capt. T. M. Nelson. The Union forces were defeated and forced to retreat.

In late October/early November 1862, Confederate guerillas raided Parch Corn Creek, No Business Creek, and Buffalo Creek. Several farms were attacked, with houses burned and horses stolen.

In late May/early June 1863, Confederate guerillas raided the No Business Creek community in a skirmish known as Duck Shoals. At the home of Peter Burke, the Confederates were ambushed by more than thirty Home Guard forces, resulting in the death of at least nine Confederate guerillas.

By summer of 1863, Federal forces had mobilized sufficiently to move against the East Tennessee stronghold at Chattanooga. Gen. Ambrose Burnside and the Army of the Ohio were based in Central Tennessee as part of an overall Union strategy to capture Knoxville, Tennessee. The army was to follow several routes to reach Knoxville, one of which would traverse the Upper Cumberland Plateau. Another would pass through the strongly fortified Cumberland Gap. In designing his approach routes, General Burnside took into consideration the logistical issues associated with moving a twelve-thousand-man army across challenging terrain. To pass through Big South Fork, the rugged and narrow trails and roads to be traversed proved a formidable obstacle. To reduce the potential for the men to

10. Michael R. O'Neal, "The Civil War on the Upper Cumberland Plateau in Tennessee" (Huntsville, Tennessee: Scott County Historical Society, May 3, 1982), 11.

11. David Sullins, *Seventy Years in Dixie* (1910), as quoted in O'Neal, 12.

become delayed by narrow passages within the terrain, Burnside organized the troops into three separate columns, each of which followed a different route through the Upper Cumberland Plateau. One followed the No Business Creek valley on the way between Jamestown and Monticello.

The event made a deep impression on local residents, based on the many stories that have been handed down by those who watched endless lines of soldiers pass by in August 1863.

By the fall of 1863, with Grant's victory at Missionary Ridge and Burnside's defense of Knoxville at the Battle of Fort Sanders, the Confederacy's grip on East Tennessee had been broken.

Postbellum Farming

Throughout the Reconstruction period, the region remained frontier-like in its character and population due to the remote and rugged terrain and lack of commodious transportation systems. Most residents continued to practice limited and subsistence farming involving the raising of livestock and cultivation of crops such as corn, wheat, oats, and rye. By the late nineteenth century, however, the soil of the settled hollows had begun to decline in fertility and productivity. Agricultural mechanization and the availability of commercial fertilizers in the early 1900s increased the suitability of the plateau for cultivation. By 1910, people had begun to move onto the plateau to raise livestock, and connect more easily with rail lines to send their products to market. This was exacerbated by the growth of families, which led to crowding of some of the hollows. The communities within the hollows became reliant on one another, and very close knit. However, some of the challenges of living within these communities was the lack of outside influences, and a tendency toward clan intermarriage. Farming within the gorge continued to decline through the first half of the twentieth century. By 1950, for example, only two families remained at No Business.

Postbellum Industry

By 1880, the first railroad—the Cincinnati Southern Railway—was completed through the area. The line extended from Cincinnati, Ohio, to Chattanooga, Tennessee, and provided access to large portions of McCreary, Scott, and Morgan counties. From the main line, the Stearns Coal and Lumber Company would later complete the Kentucky and Tennessee Railway that connected its various logging and coal mining operations, including the development of spur lines into the gorge. In the 1890s, the rail lines spurred a variety of industrial activities that relied on rail transportation to convey materials to market. As gorge farming became less viable, many residents began to supplement their living through logging, mining, and other industries, some of which were small privately-run ventures. Logging followed an increase in market demand for lumber in the late nineteenth century. Small-scale logging became part of the local economy, with men from the gorge communities working for timbering companies to provide supplemental wage work.

Over time, outside companies moved into the area, sometimes establishing company towns to house their workers. Rather than selectively cutting trees to meet a particular need, these companies began clear cutting operations that denuded large tracts at one time. Large-scale mining and logging operations contributed to gorge outmigration, primarily due to the attraction of the cash income available at the mines and lumber camps. As the region switched to a cash economy, later generations of citizens on the Upper Cumberland Plateau abandoned subsistence-based farming for the more lucrative jobs in industry. The majority of the forests within the Big South Fork region had been logged over by World War II. The resulting erosion problems were compounded by toxic runoff from the coal mines, which together killed much of the aquatic life in the river.

Coal mining also evolved from a small-scale business to a large commercial enterprise between the late nineteenth century and World War II. Once the rail lines reached the coal-rich region, mining operations expanded exponentially. Mining towns including Zenith, Comargo,

Yamacraw, Worley, and Fidelity were established in the region by the early 1900s. The Yamacraw Bridge, the largest structure of its kind in the South at the time, was built across the Big South Fork River at Stearns to convey the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad spur in support of coal transport in 1907. In the 1920s, the Stearns Coal and Lumber Company built mining communities at Cooperative and Oz. The largest and most dramatic industrial development established by Stearns, however, was the Blue Heron Mining Community complex, which included a tram road, railroad spur line, and state-of-the-art tipple. Operations were conducted at Blue Heron between 1937 and 1962.

Oil drilling reemerged as an industrial endeavor within the region in the 1890s after good quality black oil appropriate for machinery lubrication and green oil suitable for illumination uses were discovered in the region. Most wells, however, were low production, generating between two and five barrels per day, which, when coupled with the difficulty in transporting it, resulted in many companies that acquired rights to extract oil failing to find a way to convey it to the rail lines. Most of the successful wells were located south of current park boundaries in the vicinity of Allardt and Rugby, Tennessee; along the Wolf and Obed rivers to the west; and to the north on the Little South Fork.[12] The Rugby field had the highest concentration of wells in the area during its heyday between circa the 1890s through the 1910s.

By the 1960s, most of the area's mineral, timber, and oil resources had been extracted and were becoming scarce, and industrial operations began to move away from the region. Without this source of work and income, residents increasingly began to move out of the region.

At the same time, many farm families began to relocate to the plateau from the gorge. Improvements in commercial fertilizers and other soil amendments, as well as farm equipment, beginning in the 1920s allowed farmers to work the poor soil of the plateau and establish viable agricultural operations there, contributing to abandonment of creekside communities within the gorge.

Government Interests

Federal programs and activities began to influence life in the region in the 1920s and 1930s. Severe flooding of the Cumberland River in the 1920s resulted in preparation of a 1930 study by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers titled "Cumberland River Survey for Navigation, Flood Control, Power Development and Irrigation," which outlined plans for damming portions of the Cumberland River and its tributaries. Before these plans could be realized, the Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA) was established in 1933 as an independent public agency tasked with increasing standards of living by controlling flooding and generating hydroelectric power through dam construction along the Tennessee River. Although the Cumberland River was under the administrative responsibility of the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, the TVA began to develop its own plans for damming the river, including Big South Fork. The two agencies battled for control of the river for many years, delaying further action on either plan.

Also established during the 1930s was the federally-administered Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC), which employed young men in conservation work. Beginning in 1933, CCC camps were set up throughout the Upper Cumberland Plateau region to build roads and trails, plant trees, create firebreaks, and construct reservoirs and

12. Kim A. McBride and W. Stephen McBride, *Big South Fork Region Historic Context Study* (Lexington: University of Kentucky, Department of Anthropology, Program for Archaeological Research, January 28, 2000), V-61, and personal communication, Tom Des Jean, April 2013.

dams. One camp was set up near Stearns, Kentucky, to develop Cumberland Falls State Park. While on site, they built several fire towers and developed paths and recreational features within the newly created public park land. In 1935, the federal government established the Works Progress Administration (WPA). The WPA offered a variety of paid jobs for America's unemployed work force. The WPA was involved locally in developing recreational sites at Cumberland (now Daniel Boone) National Forest and Pickett State Park in Tennessee.

Recreational facilities were expanded in these parks and federal reserves in the early 1960s, including campgrounds and day-use facilities at Yahoo Falls and Alum Ford. It was also during the 1960s that the Charit Creek farmstead at the confluence of Station Camp and Charit Creeks, thought to be the location of an early long hunter's station camp, was modified by Joe Simpson to serve as a commercial hunting lodge. The facilities included a pioneer farmhouse as well as relocated and reconstructed outbuildings.

During the late 1960s, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers again began to study the possibility of damming the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River. Public opposition to the proposed project led to the idea of setting aside the area for recreation. The Water Resources Development Act of 1974 (PL-93-251) identified the primary goal of establishing a federal park at Big South Fork as the conservation and interpretation of an area containing unique cultural, historic, geologic, wildlife, archeological, scenic, and recreational values. As described in enabling legislation, the park would:

- preserve, as a natural and free-flowing river, the Big South Fork and portions of its tributaries such as Clear Fork, New River, No Business, and Station Camp;
- maintain the natural integrity of the scenic gorges and valleys; and
- provide an area of healthful outdoor recreation.

The park was initially administered by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers. The agency was responsible for establishing campsites, picnic sites, canoe access areas, equestrian use areas, and guest lodges and building roads and trails for hiking, bicycling, and equestrian use. After these recreational amenities were completed, the park was to be transferred to the National Park Service. As part of its efforts, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers also transformed the Blue Heron Mining Community site into an interpretive center and restored features of the complex, including the large tipple across the river.

The park was the first unit of the National Park System to receive the dual National River and National Recreation Area designation. Both were relatively new park typologies established in the early 1970s in response to the environmental movement and federal policies regarding an expansion of the National Park Service to offer a wider range of amenities for the public.

After passage of PL-93-251 in 1974, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers conducted a series of public hearings to explain to the local citizenry the anticipated impacts of the project on life in the area, including changes in land ownership. Eventually, land for the park was secured both from willing sellers and through eminent domain. The acquisition of Big South Fork land under the federal right of eminent domain perpetuated feelings of distrust for the federal government, fostered during other efforts to manage large public land areas conducted by the Tennessee Valley Authority, U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, National Park Service, and U.S. Forest Service that had also displaced families from their ancestral homes. Although the park offers recreational and economic benefits to area residents through tourism, concerns about the large land area in federal ownership remain today due to the diminished potential for economic growth and expansion of the tax base; for example, 80 percent of McCreary County, Kentucky, is presently owned by the federal government.

The U.S. Army Corps of Engineers transferred the park to the National Park Service in October 1990. Since 1990, the National Park Service has

continued to develop trail systems throughout the gorge and plateau and other recreational opportunities, while also working to protect and conserve surviving evidence of pioneer life and industrial activity.

Several tracts that were condemned for purchase by the federal government were never acquired by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers. They became part of a reservation known as Deferred Lands. The National Park Service has worked to address the future of these parcels as part of a Lands Protection Plan.[13]

Historic Contexts

Historic contexts are patterns and trends in history and prehistory that can be used to understand a specific occurrence, property, or site, and to make clear its meaning and importance. For historic properties, meaning and importance can be translated into National Register of Historic Places significance, which is one of the essential components of eligibility for listing in the register. Historians, architectural historians, folklorists, archeologists, and anthropologists use different words to describe this phenomenon, such as trend, pattern, theme, or cultural affiliation, but the concept remains the same. The National Register of Historic Places significance of a historic property can be judged and explained only when it is evaluated within a historic context.[14]

As evident in the overview of the region's history provided above, the Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area has witnessed a long-standing and varied cultural history, with activities and events falling within a broader context of regional and national trends in history. Subsequent chapters of this study address the various historic contexts associated with the cultural of the park that provide a foundation for evaluating and interpreting the park's historic resources. The six thematic historic contexts addressed in this HRS include:

- European-American settlement and occupation of the Big South Fork gorge and plateau; farming and other means of subsistence (circa 1680s–1974)
- Extractive and manufacturing industries, including salt and oil drilling, coal mining, and logging (circa 1680s–1987)
- Transportation systems (circa 1680s–2012)
- Recreation along the Big South Fork (pre-twentieth century to 2012)
- Effects of war on the Big South Fork region
- Effects of public works projects on the Big South Fork region

The first historic context considers European-American settlement and occupation of the Big South Fork gorge and plateau and the agricultural and practices that supported life in the region between circa 1680s and 1974. This context provides an overview of early European-America settlement, including the development of the region's transportation infrastructure and agricultural economy, which was the primary engine of community development during the antebellum period. The chapter also discusses these themes as they evolved during the late nineteenth and twentieth centuries, including changes in farming practices, the emergence of a cash economy, and outmigration during the twentieth century.

The second context considered by the HRS is the role that extractive and manufacturing industries played in shaping the cultural history of the region beginning in the late eighteenth century, including salt and oil drilling, coal mining, and logging between circa 1680s and 1974.

Transportation systems between circa 1680s and 2012 are discussed in the third historic context chapter. This context considers the role of the river as a spine of circulation, and the way in which American Indian trails formed the basis for later overland routes of passage, and the emergence of

13. Des Jean, *Administrative History*, 11.

14. *National Register Bulletin: How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation.*

the railroad as a principal means for travel and the transportation of goods. The later rise of automobile travel and trucking and their influence on the landscape are also addressed in the Transportation Context chapter.

Recreational use of the Big South Fork is considered in the fourth historic context chapter. The chapter addresses local recreational activities as well as later governmental state park and forest developments during the 1930s and 1960s, and the 1974 creation of the Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area to provide public access and recreational opportunities for the region along this linear corridor.

The Revolutionary War, the War of 1812, the Civil War, World War I, and World War II each contributed to changes in the cultural landscape of the region, beginning with an early impetus to land acquisition, and continuing through the creation of markets for local resources. Changes to the local economy and demographics caused by World War II profoundly influenced life in the region. These topics are explored in the fifth historic context chapter that addresses the effects of war on the Big South Fork region.

The final historic context chapter considers the various effects of twentieth century public works projects on the region, and the lasting effects—both sociological and physical—of state and federal land acquisition and management.

Historic Properties

Relatively few historic properties survive intact aboveground within Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area. Many of the historic farmstead and industrial features that previously characterized the region fell into decline once residents began to move out of the gorge. Outmigration, which began in the early 1900s, was all but complete by the 1950s. Industrial efforts and resource extraction also ceased by the early 1960s due to overexploitation of resources. Although the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers and the National Park Service have worked to protect surviving examples of this cultural heritage, much was lost between abandonment and park establishment, and during the early years of federal administration due to condition problems, a lack of funding, and other constraints.

The cultural heritage features that survive within the park today generally fall within six categories:

- Agricultural resources (farmsteads including dwellings and a variety of outbuilding types, chimneys, wells, foundations, fields, fencing, orchards, roads, and paths)
- Burial resources (cemeteries, walls and fences, gravestones, markers, plantings)
- Industrial resources (mills, mines, rail line spurs, tipples, moonshine stills, niter mining sites, salt production sites, oil drilling sites, and associated rail line and road features)
- Engineering resources (bridges, dams, and gauging stations)
- Transportation resources (roads, rail lines, navigable waterways)
- Recreational resources (trails, parking areas, picnic areas, overlooks, swimming holes)

Agriculture Resources

Three plateau farmsteads—Oscar Blevins, Lora Blevins, and John Litton/Charles Rudy Slaven—remain fairly intact today, while three gorge farmsteads—Ransom Boyatt, Charit Creek, and Parch Corn Creek—survive with diminished

integrity. Historic cemeteries, road corridors, and farm fields also survive as vestiges of Big South Fork agrarian lifeways prior to park establishment. The following farmsteads and associated resources have been addressed in detail as part of this HRS.[15]

- Oscar Blevins Farmstead
  - Oscar Blevins Log Cabin (List of Classified Structures [LCS] No. 92185, Historic Structure [HS]-10)
  - Oscar Blevins Corn Crib (LCS No. 92188, HS-12)
  - Oscar Blevins Outbuilding (LCS No. 511850, HS-16)
  - Shed/coal house (LCS No. 511850, HS-16)
  - Circa 1950 residence
  - Barn
  - Root cellar foundation
  - Fences
  - Other historic landscape features
- Lora Blevins Farmstead
  - Lora Blevins House (LCS No. 92179, HS-5)
  - Lora Blevins Corn Crib (LCS No. 92178, HS-6)
  - Lora Blevins Pole Barn (LCS No. 92177, HS-7)
  - Privy (LCS No. 92181)
  - Fences
  - Other historic landscape features, including orchard plantings
- Litton-Slaven Farmstead
  - Litton-Slaven House and Cabin (LCS No. 92183, HS-9)
  - Litton-Slaven Barn (LCS No. 92182, HS-8)
  - Shed (LCS 92184)
  - Earthen Dam (LCS No. 232905, HS-14)
  - Hog pen
  - Fences
  - Outbuilding (Collapsed)
  - Other historic landscape features, including fruit trees
  -
- No Business Creek Community
  - Ransom Boyatt Farmstead ruins (LCS No. 416703, HS-11)
  - Lee Crabtree Farmstead ruins
  - Dewey overlook field
  - Walls
  - Culverts
  - Roads
  - Bridge piers
- Station Camp Creek Community
  - Charit Creek Lodge Complex
  - Tackett Cabin ruins
  - Roads
- Parch Corn Creek Community
  - Parch Corn Creek Farmstead ruins (Cabin ruins: LCS No. 100405, HS-17; privy: LCS No. 100406, HS-15)
  - Roads
- Newtie King Farmstead ruins (plateau)

15. The List of Classified Structures (LCS) is an inventory maintained by the National Park Service of all historic structures in the National Park System that meet the eligibility requirements for listing in the National Register of Historic Places, and thus warrant preservation. Historic Structures (HS) are inventoried buildings identified by individual park units as meeting the eligibility requirements for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. LCS and HS numbers are provided for individual resources for which LCS and HS listings were available for this study.

Burial Resources

The following cemeteries and family burial grounds and associated resources have been addressed as part of the HRS:

- Katy Blevins Cemetery
- Tackett Cabin site graves
- Smith Slaven Cemetery

Industry Resources

The following industrial sites and features and associated resources have been addressed in detail as part of the HRS:

- Blue Heron Mining community complex
  - Coal Tipple at Blue Heron Mine (LCS No. 578708, Structure No. HS-18)
  - Mine entrance
  - Interpretive resources
- No Business Creek area (mill race, piers, hotel ruins, walls, other remnant features)
- Oil well sites along Oil Well Branch
- Mining communities: Yamacraw, Barthell, Comargo, Worley, Zenith, Gernt, Oz, White Oak Junction, Cooperative, Fidelity, Exodus
- Salttown/Salienville (Beatty Saltworks No. 1)

Transportation Resources

The following transportation features and associated resources have been addressed in detail as part of the HRS:

- Tennessee Highway 297
- Tennessee Highway 52
- Kentucky Highway 92
- Big South Fork Scenic Railway
- Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad line ruins
- Oneida and Western Railroad line ruins
- Gauging stations
- No Business Creek community road
- Parch Corn Creek community road
- Station Camp Creek community road

Engineering Resources

The following engineering sites and features and associated resources have been addressed in detail as part of the HRS:

- Roaring Paunch plate-girder bridge associated with the former Oneida and Western Railroad line
- Low Water Bridge (LCS No. 579462, Structure No. HS-19)
- Blue Heron tipple
- Yamacraw Bridge
- Toomy Stop Bridge State boundary markers (LCS No. 92213)

Recreation Resources

Several non-historic park features illustrate late twentieth century recreational use of the river corridor, while the adjacent state forest and park contain evidence of nascent recreational activities within the region during the first half of the twentieth century, including built resources at Angel Falls where the Civilian Conservation Corps is thought to have developed stone-lined trails and walkways.

The following recreation features have been addressed as part of the HRS:

- Charit Creek Lodge Complex
  - Charit Creek Lodge/ John Blevins House (LCS No. 92187, HS-2)
  - John Blevins Barn (LCS No. 92186, HS-1)
  - John Blevins Smithy (LCS No. 92189, HS-4)
  - John Blevins Corn Crib (LCS No. 92188, HS-3)
  - Fences
  - Other historic landscape features
- CCC Bunkhouse at Fork Ridge Road

- CCC stone culverts along Divide Road
- Yahoo Falls Scenic Area
  - Picnic area, including a picnic shelter
  - Trail and overlook, including hand-cut stone steps
  - Parking area
- Alum Ford Campground and Shelter
- John Muir National Recreational Trail
- Sheltowee Trace National Recreation Trail

Historic Context One: European-American Settlement and Occupation of the Big South Fork Gorge and Plateau; Farming and Other Means of Subsistence (circa 1680s–1974)

> The farmer . . . makes almost everything that he uses. Besides clearing the land, building houses, and making fences, he stocks his own plough, mends his wagon, makes his ox-yokes and harness, and learns to supply nearly all his wants from the forest. The tables, bedsteads, and seats in his house are of his own rude workmanship . . . . There are thousands scattered over the west, who continue, to this day, to make all the shoes that are worn in their families. They universally raise cotton, and often cultivate hemp, and flax, the spinning wheel, and the loom are common articles of furniture, and the whole farming and hunting population are clad in fabrics of household manufacture.[16]

Introduction

The Upper Cumberland Plateau region, which includes the Big South Fork gorge or basin, has supported cultural use and occupation since before recorded history. Although the region is noted for its rugged and formidable terrain, it also offers an abundance of useful natural resources. These resources were first exploited by American Indians for food, shelter, and tool making. The area became the focus of exploration by French and British trappers and traders in the mid-eighteenth century. Early explorers were followed by a group known as the long hunters, who pursued hunting and trapping the local wildlife for commercial gain. Settlement by European-Americans did not begin in the region until after the Revolutionary War, due to questions of ownership as well as the challenges posed by the terrain.

Despite the wealth of resources afforded by the region, the varied and challenging terrain remained a limiting factor in the development of key transportation routes and agricultural enterprise, beyond the subsistence-level, throughout the area's history. Nonetheless, for nearly 200 years, the Big South Fork River Basin supported communities of families engaged in small-scale subsistence farming that collectively developed a unique heritage of cultural practices and traditions. Relics of these communities survive throughout the park and are preserved and protected by the National Park Service as representative of the region's distinctive culture and lifeways (refer to Figure 44 at the end of this chapter). These communities are representative of

16. James Hall, "Sketches of History, Life, and Manners in the West," vol. 2 (Cincinnati, Ohio: Hubbard and Edmands, 1834), 68–69.

a broader Appalachian culture derived from a common ethnic heritage, relative isolation from urban populations and markets, and lifeways revolving around an imperative to derive nearly all physical needs directly from the land.

European-American settlement of the gorge began in earnest after the Revolutionary War, and built on the experience of American Indian tribes—primarily the Cherokee and Shawnee—and the travel routes they had forged through the region. Settlement also took advantage of knowledge gained by the long hunters during the mid-eighteenth century. Some, in fact, later chose to settle in the region. Initial settlement occurred slowly and fitfully due to uncertainties involving land ownership amongst the states, the federal government, and the Cherokee. The Tellico Treaty of 1805 between the United States government and the Cherokee effectively reconciled these ownership questions, contributing to a period of more rapid settlement beginning in the 1810s and 1820s. Early residents included Revolutionary War soldiers who were granted land as reparation for their military service, as well as long hunters who had visited the area before the war. In addition, many Cherokee remained in the area after the Tellico Treaties were executed and became part of the local community. Virginia, and later Kentucky after it achieved statehood in 1792, also offered incentives for settlement. During the early nineteenth century, incentives were also offered for salt and niter production, both of which are present within the Big South Fork gorge, due shortages relating to the War of 1812 (see also Historic Context Two: Extractive and Manufacturing Industries).

Some settlers were part of a broader trend in American western migration that began in the mid- to late nineteenth century. Although the less rugged Bluegrass region of Kentucky and Tennessee's Cumberland River Valley were more desirable and thus more quickly settled, Big South Fork offered some advantages that attracted settlers, particularly those with fewer means seeking less expensive land.

Early settlers were predominantly of Scotch-Irish and English descent arriving from North Carolina and Virginia, although many arrived from Pennsylvania and were of German heritage. While a few were slave holders, the majority were not.

Settlers found the best farming conditions to exist along the narrow floodplains of the area's creek valleys where the soil was most fertile. Farmsteads were thus focused along the lower stream valleys; however, they also typically included a cross section of the gorge, including terraces and sloped woodlands that could support a variety of needs: wood for fuel and construction material, forage for livestock, and an array of wild plants that could be collected to provide a variety of food resources. The early settlers slowly forged a successful agricultural system and a varied rural economy. They were slowly joined by others over the course of the nineteenth century. Communities emerged that displayed strong bonds among residents, and offered a support network to address a host of needs. Derived in part from the cultural values of early European-American settlers, coupled with Cherokee heritage and the geographic and socioeconomic isolation of the region, these communities were characterized by a pioneer lifestyle and distinctiveness of culture, regional identity, and sense of place that persisted well into the twentieth century.

Despite the traditional view of Appalachia as a culturally stagnant region, immigrants continued to arrive in the region throughout the nineteenth century. These immigrants brought fresh ideas and practices, increased ethnic diversity, and spurred socioeconomic change. It is possible that the region's deeply entrenched traditional culture practices persisted because they remained integral to survival and life in the region, rather than due to isolation or other reasons as is often suggested.[17]

17. Benita J. Howell, *Folklife along the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River*, (Knoxville: University of Tennessee Press, 2003), 3–5.

After the Civil War, as the national economy evolved in response to the changes wrought by mechanization and the industrial revolution, the raw materials available within the gorge—including coal, oil, and timber, among others—became marketable resources. Local residents were able to supplement their subsistence-level farming efforts by harvesting these raw materials and delivering them to the larger regional marketplace. Transport of goods beyond the cliff walls of the gorge remained a formidable challenge that was addressed in several ways.

Initially, extractive activities were conducted by local residents at a small cottage industry level. Over time, however, larger corporate entities, realizing the value of the region's mineral and timber resources, began to acquire large tracts of land within the gorge and direct their energies into building rail lines to transport the extracted materials to market. Resident farmers began to supplement their income as wage earners for part of the year, working for the companies engaged in logging, coal mining, and other extractive industries. Eventually, these jobs began to draw local residents from their farms.

At the same time, changes in farming practices, mechanization, and technology, as well as resource depletion and soil erosion from poor stewardship, began to contribute to a general outmigration from the gorge to the Cumberland Plateau. Outmigration increased over the course of the early twentieth century. By the 1950s, the former communities were all but uninhabited, surviving only as relics and imprints on the land.

The distinctive legacy of area farmers—a rich cultural lifeway derived from a deep connection between the landscape and subsistence farming practices—survives in the heritage of architectural and landscape resources protected within Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area by the National Park Service, and the stories and traditional knowledge passed down through generations. These connections are addressed in more detail below.

Environmental Conditions and their Influence on Farming Practices

The Upper Cumberland Region of Kentucky and Tennessee consists of a twenty-five-county area that straddles the border between southeast Kentucky and northeast Tennessee. It encompasses the Cumberland Plateau, a level tableland of poor soils and little available water that is etched by deep gorges cut by streams acting on the underlying sandstone geology. The plateau is edged to the east by the rugged Cumberland Mountains, which traditionally served as a barrier to westward movement at the juncture between Virginia, Kentucky, and Tennessee until discovery of the Cumberland Gap. The gap, the only break in the nearly continuous line of mountains that is otherwise impassable for miles in either direction, was an important travel route into the region for explorers, long hunters, and those emigrating west.

Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area falls within the northeastern portion of the region, encompassing parts of Scott, Fentress, and Pickett counties in Tennessee, and Wayne and McCreary counties in Kentucky.[18] It focuses on the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River, a major feature of the Cumberland Plateau and important tributary of the Cumberland River. Big South Fork is itself formed from the confluence of New River and Clear Fork, which falls within the park boundary. Big South Fork flows for 76 miles before emptying into the Cumberland River near Burnside, Kentucky.

The Cumberland River flows in a meandering course southwest out of the Cumberland Mountains, passing through southeastern Kentucky, Tennessee's tableland, and the city of Nashville, Tennessee, before moving north into

18. William Lynwood Montell, *Upper Cumberland Country* (Jackson: University Press of Mississippi, 1993), xiii–xix.

Kentucky again on the way to its confluence with the Ohio River near Paducah.

While much of the lower Cumberland River is navigable, within its upper reaches and tributaries, such as along the Big South Fork, it is only marginally suitable for travel and transportation due to its relatively shallow depth, regular falls, rapid speed, and the presence of large rocks. Despite these challenges, the river was important to travel and commerce during much of the nineteenth century because of the even more difficult challenges posed by overland travel along a limited and treacherous road system. The Cumberland's connection to the Ohio River also linked the region to the Mississippi River, incentivizing water borne trade and commerce.

Early settlement of the area focused on subsistence agriculture, however. Several environmental factors affect the suitability of the region for agriculture. These include its soils and geology, availability of water, topography and terrain conditions, connection to transportation systems and means, and weather. The Big South Fork region presents several environmental conditions that render agriculture challenging. The Cumberland Plateau possesses thin, poor, and erodible soils not well suited to agriculture. Soils formed from the sandstone of the plateau are composed of quartzitic sand with low nutrient value and high acidity. They are also highly erodible as exhibited by the deep and expansive gorge formed by the Big South Fork River and its tributaries. Avoiding these conditions, early settlers established their farmsteads on the bottomlands along the river and stream corridors, which afforded readily available water, more fertile soils, and fewer problems relating to erosion. The bottomland environment was not without its challenges, however. It was far removed from commodious transportation systems, generally sited to avoid the steep slopes of the gorge landscape, which rendered conveyance of goods to market difficult. Arable land generally occurred only in narrow bands along the stream corridors, diminishing the potential for commercial farming. Flooding also remained a persistent threat to those living along stream channels. To survive in this environment, early settlers quickly learned to live in intimate association with the land, and adopt or invent practices to take advantage of available resources while adjusting to the demands and limitations of their surroundings.

Soils within the Kentucky portion of the park relate to three soil associations: Tate-Trappist, Tate-Clymer-DeKalb, and Tate-Shelocta. Tate and Shelocta soils generally are found at the lowest elevations on slopes of between 12 percent and 35 percent and are derived from calcareous shale and limestone. Calcareous geologic formations typically have a higher pH level, which is beneficial to crop development. Historically, these soils supported subsistence farming and pasture, or were forested. The steeper valley slopes and ridge tops are underlain either by Tate soils, or by Tate-Trappist soils. These soils are generally formed from acidic shale and sandstone, limiting their agricultural potential due to low pH. The valley walls are also challenging to farm due to the steepness of the slopes. The Trappist soils are further limited for cultural uses by slow permeability. When these soils occur on wider ridge tops, they are better suited to cultivation. The DeKalb soils are found on steep slopes beneath narrow ridge tops where Clymer or Trappist soils also occur. Beds of sandstone and shale underlie the Clymer and DeKalb soils, diminishing their suitability for crops.[19] Farmers adapted by cultivating the floodplains and stream margins, allowing their livestock to forage the less fertile areas, and harvesting trees where crops could not be grown.

In the Tennessee section of the park, the soil associations include Hartsells-Ramsey, Ramsey-Jefferson-Hartsells, Rockland-Hermitage, Ramsey-Jefferson, Waynesboro-Cumberland, and Bodine-Montview-Baxter. These soils are typically derived from a parent geology that includes sandstone and slate. They are typically deficient in phosphoric acid and lime. The moderate fertility,

19. Howell, 16–17.

steep slopes, and rapid runoff associated with these soils are not entirely conducive to agricultural purposes.[20]

The climate of the Big South Fork region is generally well suited to most farming practices. The summers are typically moist and hot, while the winters are mild. Temperatures are generally lower and precipitation is higher on the Cumberland Plateau than within the gorge, and range from highs in the 80s during the summer to lows in the 20s in the winter. There is a great deal of variability due to the terrain; a wide range of microclimates is present due to variations in precipitation as well as humidity. The prevailing winds are from the south and southeast. These winds bring moist air from the Gulf Coast into the area, resulting in relatively high precipitation rates. Average monthly precipitation varies from a low of 3.4 inches in October to a high of 6 inches in March. Snowfall averages 17 inches a year, but snow seldom stays on the ground longer than a few days. Flooding from heavy rains can be a problem, and is most common in December through March. Summer thunderstorms can also cause local flash flooding.

Due to the high percentage of surface runoff of storm water resulting from the relative impermeability of exposed rocks, the steepness of the slopes, and the thinness of the soils, streams can frequently become swollen and impassable. Streams can also dry up completely during periods of low precipitation because of problems associated with groundwater recharge resulting from the underlying geology. A lack of permeability can render water collection challenging. Within the areas underlain by Pennsylvania sandstone and conglomerate, groundwater only occurs in interconnected joints, cracks, and bedding planes. The resulting dearth of interstitial waters limits the availability of springs. Many homesteads were sited to take advantage of available springs, but their scarcity and other water supply issues were limiting factors in settlement, agricultural development, and household improvement. In response, many households sited their farms to take advantage of perennial streams for fresh water.[21]

Early Exploration (circa 1680s–1779)

Cherokee Claim to the Cumberland Valley

The cultural landscape of the Big South Fork region was first shaped by the actions and activities of American Indians, although specific knowledge of this history remains limited. One of the cultural landscape features known to have been established by American Indians within the region was a system of trails that traversed the Upper Cumberland Plateau, including Big South Fork. These trails were used for hunting purposes, and linked wildlife watering spots, grazing areas, and salt licks, all of which are common in the region. These trails were also used for travel relating to commerce, social events, and warfare. They included a primary route through the Cumberland Gap 50 miles to the east, referred to as the Tennessee, Ohio, and Great Lakes Trail, that began in the American Indian settlements of north Georgia, followed the Emory River valley toward present-day Burnside, Kentucky, and continued on to the Great Lakes region. Through the Big South Fork area, the trail followed a route much like present-day U.S. Highway 27 east of the gorge.[22] Two trails crossed the gorge in an east-west direction. One roughly paralleled Kentucky Highway 92 between Williamsburg and Monticello, while the other passed through Huntsville, Tennessee, across the Big South Fork near Rock Creek, and continued toward the current town of Monticello. Another trail led toward present-day Jamestown, Tennessee.[23]

20. Ibid.
21. Ibid.
22. National Park Service, *Big South Fork Cultural Landscape Inventory* (1998), 1 of 19, citing Steve Humphrey, *History of No Business and Station Camp Communities* (Oneida, Tennessee: National Park Service, 1981), 9.
23. Ibid., 1 of 19, citing Howell, 11, and H. Clay Smith, *Dusty Bits of the Forgotten Past*

Tribes that laid claim to the Big South Fork region included the Cherokee and the Shawnee, although neither tribe is specifically known to have maintained settlements within the gorge. The Choctaw, Creek, Catawba, Tuscaroras, and Chickasaw are also thought to have used the area as a hunting ground. The Cherokee were centered in the Tennessee Valley, while the Shawnee were based in the Ohio Valley. Although both tribes claimed authority over the Upper Cumberland Plateau, neither used it for more than a transportation corridor and a hunting reserve.[24] Hunting focused on the abundant wildlife, particularly deer, bear, raccoon, muskrat, beaver, and trout present in the region. It is likely that hunting parties at least seasonally occupied portions of the gorge. Archeological evidence of American Indian activity is primarily in the form of pottery shards, tools, and hunting equipment, reinforcing the notion that the region functioned primarily as a hunting reserve and temporary base of operations. Rock shelters are one of the features known to have supported seasonal occupation. Rock shelters are a type of cavity or cave, found in the sandstone geology of the gorge at the lower margins of the cliff walls. They were used by American Indians, as well as later European-American settlers, for various purposes in addition to shelter.[25]

The earliest descriptions of American Indian use of the Middle and Upper Cumberland valleys were recorded by French explorers and traders during the late seventeenth century. The Cumberland River was generally known as the Chauouaon or Shawnee River until the late eighteenth century.[26] The French eventually established trading relationships with the Shawnee to the west, while the British are known to have begun trading with the Cherokee in South Carolina. For the next one hundred years, the British and French competed with one another to explore and exploit the Cumberland River Valley, the tribes, and available natural and cultural resources, although no permanent settlements are thought to have been established.

Early British and French Exploration and the Fur Trade (circa 1680s–1780s)

During the late seventeenth century, the French frequently visited the Cumberland River Valley in hopes of establishing trade relations with local American Indian tribes. Late seventeenth-century maps and accounts indicate that the Shawnee had one or more villages on the Upper Cumberland by the 1680s or 1690s, although the exact locations are not known. French maps from the period also indicate the presence of American Indian trails through the Cumberland Valley, suggesting their knowledge of the region. These trails often followed major ridge lines in the plateau country, and more direct routes in the gentler terrain to the north. Knowledge of gaps in the mountainous areas and shoals in the river that could serve as crossing points, often gained from interaction with American Indians, was particularly important to European-American explorers.

One early account of French activity in the region is that of a French Canadian named Martin Chartier who traveled up the Cumberland River Valley and joined a band of Shawnee to hunt and trap between the Obed and Big South Fork rivers; they later sold a large number of pelts in Maryland.[27]

While the French are known to have established trading relations with tribes in Illinois and western Indiana, they were generally not successful in extending their trading sphere to southeastern Kentucky and northeastern Tennessee. The closest they are thought to have gotten to the

(Huntsville, Tennessee: Scott County Historical Society), 10.

24. Ibid., 1 of 19.
25. Ibid., 1 of 19, citing Michael E. Birdwell, *Coal Mining in the Big South Fork Area of Kentucky and Tennessee* (Cookesville, Tennessee: Upper Cumberland Humanities and Social Sciences Institute and Center for the Management, Utilization, and Protection of Water Resources, Tennessee Technological University, 1990), 8.
26. McBride and McBride, II-1.
27. Ibid., II-2.

region was the Cumberland Valley near present-day Nashville. Between 1690 and 1714, the French established a small trading post near the future site of the city along the river. However, the extent of their influence upriver and to the east is not known. Because the French are known to have been on friendly terms with the Shawnee, the influence of their outposts may have extended to Shawnee villages in the region.[28]

The Shawnee, however, were considered trespassers by the Cherokee, who laid claim to the Cumberland and Tennessee valleys as their upper hunting grounds, despite the fact that their closest villages were the Upper or Overhill Towns located in the Upper Tennessee River Valley. The Cherokee were successful in forcing the Shawnee out of the region by the 1710s, likely diminishing the influence of French trading posts near present-day Nashville.[29]

After the British began trading with the Cherokee in South Carolina, they initiated forays west. By the 1710s, at least one trader, Eleazer Wiggan, is known to have been living with the Overhill Cherokee, while others were regularly traveling to the region. It is not known whether any of these traders ventured into the Upper Cumberland and Big South Fork river areas. Some accounts suggest that the French reported Carolina traders in the Upper Cumberland as early as 1680.[30] One Englishman reported to have visited the Trans-Alleghany region, and possibly the Cumberland Valley, was Gabriel Arthur. In 1673, Arthur traveled to the town of Chota, but was captured by a Shawnee raiding party. The Shawnee took Arthur north with them, but eventually let him go. Arthur may have crossed the Upper Cumberland on his return. Arthur's experience apparently was relayed throughout British American trade centers within the Southeast.[31]

By the late 1740s, British traders were regularly interacting with the Cherokee in Tennessee and with the Shawnee and Delaware in Ohio. Most maps of their exploration of the region during the mid-eighteenth century, however, generally leave the area south of the Cumberland River, including the Big South Fork region, blank, suggesting that it was not a focus of British activity.

The earliest land speculation on the part of the British began in the 1740s based on the 1744 Treaty of Lancaster with the Iroquois. The treaty was interpreted as ceding Iroquois claims to land south of the Ohio River to the Crown. Two land companies received grants to these new lands from the British Crown: the Loyal Company and the Ohio Company. Land-grant companies such as these had been formed for some time to support and organize settlement in America for the profit of investors and for the Crown, which also used settlement as part of a larger colonial strategy. Agents were quickly dispatched to explore the newly ceded territory by both the Ohio and Loyal companies. Dr. Thomas Walker, the representative of the Loyal Company, entered Kentucky through the Cumberland Gap in the spring of 1749, while Christopher Gist, representing the Ohio Company, entered Kentucky from the Ohio River in 1750–1751.[32]

Walker and his party, which included five other men, focused on exploring eastern and southeastern Kentucky, and likely approached the Big South Fork Basin by way of the Warrior Path, a American Indian travel route that extended northwestward from Cumberland Gap in search of an area appropriate for future settlement. Following the path, the party reached a river, which Walker named the Cumberland. They crossed the river at a place now known as Cumberland Ford, in Bell County, Kentucky.[33]

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28. Ibid.
29. Ibid., II-1.
30. Ibid., II-2, citing Tim Huddleston, *Pioneer Families of Pickett County, Tennessee* (Collegedale, Tennessee: College Press, 1968), 3.
31. Ibid., II-2.
32. Ibid., II-3, citing Otis K. Rice, *Frontier Kentucky* (Lexington, Kentucky: The University Press of Kentucky, 1975), 11.
33. Ibid., II-3, citing Thomas C. Clark, *A History of Kentucky* (Lexington, Kentucky: John Bradford Press, 1939, reprinted1960), 23; William Elsey Connelly and E. M. Coulter, *History of*

The country encountered by Walker and his party was deemed unsuitable for settlement, and they left the region discouraged. The negative report Walker subsequently presented led the Loyal Land Company to suspend settlement efforts and its land grant. Other factors contributing to a lack of settlement during the eighteenth century included strife associated with the French and Indian War (1754–1763) and Pontiac's War, also known as Pontiac's Rebellion (1762–1763).

The French and Indian War (1754–1763)

By the mid-eighteenth century, competition and jockeying for territory between the French and the English had become contentious; Spain was also a factor in the region, with interests lying principally along the Mississippi River. The French, determined to maintain control over lands where they had staked a claim to fur trading operations, decided to take action against the British traders invading the region. In 1749, during an exploratory effort through the Ohio Valley, an expedition under Céloron de Blainville warned British traders to leave. Tensions continued to rise until 1752, when a force composed of French traders and a few Shawnee destroyed a British trading center at the Miami village of Pickawillany in Ohio and captured or killed the residents, initiating the conflict known as the French and Indian War. While the Ohio Valley Indians initially asked the British colonies of Virginia and Pennsylvania to protect them against the French, neither was able to do so. In 1753, the French began to occupy the land at the forks of the Ohio. In 1754, they completed construction of Fort Duquesne at the junction of the Alleghany and the Monongahela rivers in present-day Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, causing British traders to abandon the entire Ohio Valley. After that, most of the Ohio Indians, including the Shawnee, quickly joined the French.[34]

At this point, the French controlled trade throughout the Ohio Valley, and continued to work with the Shawnee. In 1758, however, attacks by the British led to the abandonment of Fort Duquesne by the French, and their removal from the upper and much of the central Ohio Valley. They continued to control the Lower Ohio until 1763, when they were also forced to abandon Fort Ascension (later Massac) in Illinois. Many of the American Indian villages allied with the French, including Lower Shawneetown, were also abandoned at this time.

While the French allied themselves with the Shawnee, the British initially maintained good relations with the Cherokee. However, relations were often strained and the Cherokee turned against the British by 1760. The British retaliated in the spring of 1761 with a military campaign. In 1763, the British succeeded in defeating French and Spanish interests in the region. Based on the Treaty of Paris, Great Britain obtained possession of the lands east of the Mississippi River, while Spain, in compensation for the loss of Florida, gained title to land to its west. Most of the French traders and settlers along the Mississippi moved to the western side of the river.[35]

After the French traders left the east side of the Mississippi River, British parties and British-American firms began to occupy the region and establish offices along prominent routes and points of trade. They shipped merchandise down the Ohio River and sent furs and skins up the Ohio or down the Mississippi to New Orleans.[36]

Kentucky (Chicago, Illinois: The American Historical Society, 1922); and Willard Rouse Jillson, *The Kentucky Land Grants* (Louisville, Kentucky: John P. Morton Co., Filson Club Publication 33, 1934), 52.

34. Ibid., II-4, citing Rice, 13.
35. Ibid., II-5, citing John Francis Bannon, *The Spanish Borderlands Frontier, 1513–1821* (Albuquerque, New Mexico: University of New Mexico Press, 1974), 12.
36. Ibid., II-5, citing Clarence W. Alvord, *The Illinois Country, 1673–1818* (Springfield, Illinois: Illinois Centennial Commission, 1920), 275.

The Long Hunters (1760–1779)

It was during the French and Indian War, circa 1761, that the first European-Americans began migrating into the Big South Fork Basin area to trap, fish, and hunt. Undaunted by the rugged terrain, these men, known as the long hunters for the extended periods that they remained away from their homes, found the Upper Cumberland Plateau well suited to their purposes, with fish and game in abundant supply.[37] The long hunters are known to have remained in the region for months or even years at a time. In some cases, based on review of archeological evidence, the long hunters used the region's rock shelters and other locales as temporary habitation sites. Circular stone windbreaks of a yet-undetermined origin remain in several of the area's rock shelters; similar structures in other areas of the Upper Cumberland Plateau are ascribed to temporary long hunter camps.[38]

Two factors influenced the degree of activity that occurred within Big South Fork: a lack of roads and trails, and the formidable terrain. With a lack of transportation routes, the region was challenging to negotiate due to the incredibly steep slopes and deep and narrow rocky gorges of the Big South Fork watershed. This rugged terrain was one reason that the area was initially considered better for hunting than for farming. Hunting remained a popular part of the culture of area residents throughout its active history, and is an integral part of the experience of many visitors to the region today.[39]

The rugged lifestyle of the long hunters, their ingenuity, and their self-reliance also became hallmarks of area residents. For example, the long hunters made their own gunpowder from the niter deposits they found in the rocks of the cliffs and rock shelters of the Big South Fork Basin, and they extracted salt from the briny seeps and springs known as "licks" located throughout the area, using it to preserve the foods derived from their hunting prowess. The salt licks and the rich mast of the forest trees found on the steep and wooded hillsides were exceedingly attractive to wildlife, rendering the basin a productive locale for hunting large game, especially deer.[40]

Many of the long hunters arrived in the region from Virginia, Pennsylvania, and North Carolina via the Cumberland Gap. Like the French and British traders and explorers before them, the long hunters used the American Indian trails for travel. However, Cherokee and Chickasaw Indians remained active in the region at the time. Long hunters often cultivated trade and travel relationships with the American Indian tribes that knew the area, particularly the Cherokee. Trade relationships and diplomacy with the Cherokee were crucial factors in the long hunting economy of the region.[41] Tensions caused by the French and Indian War created tenuous relationships between European-Americans and American Indians in the area, and meant that any travel in the Upper Cumberland could be risky. The hunting and trapping of animals within the traditional hunting grounds of the Cherokee and Shawnee by the long hunters led to an understandable animosity on the part of the region's tribes.

The long hunters sought animal pelts and furs, which were extremely marketable and a trade item that was a focus of European-American and American Indian hunters. Many of the furs were sent to Europe, where there was a large commercial market. For this reason, those involved in trapping and hunting within the American interior sought to reach trading posts connected to water transport to Europe.

The long hunters traveled far and wide, journeying into the Middle Cumberland Valley of Kentucky and Tennessee for hunting and trapping purposes

37. *Big South Fork Cultural Landscape Inventory*, 2 of 19.
38. Correspondence provided by Des Jean, BISO.
39. Howell, 59.
40. Mast is the fruit of forest trees like acorns and other nuts derived from species such as oak and beech that serves as food for wildlife as well as livestock.
41. David H. Corkran, *The Cherokee Frontier: Conflict and Survival, 1740-1762* (Norman, Oklahoma: University of Oklahoma Press, 1962), 10–11.

via the Ohio River from the Illinois country. One of the largest expeditions was organized by the merchant George Morgan in 1768. The group eventually ascended the Cumberland River as far as Cumberland County, Kentucky.[42] The long hunting parties typically included several men, their equipment, and pack animals. The groups would often establish a secure outpost where they could store supplies and furs. The outposts, which acted like semi-permanent home bases, were referred to as "stations," or "station camps." These camps were often visited by other European-Americans traveling through the region, and formed the basis for some early settlements.[43] The long hunters carried the tools they needed for hunting with them. These included a rifle, knife, tomahawk, flint, and steel, powder, and lead shot. The powder and lead shot were used sparingly, as they were dear and difficult to replace. The long hunters also used snares and traps and bow and arrows in their efforts to capture wild game. Rock shelters were also used for cover.[44]

The life of the long hunter was described by historian James McCague in 1973:

> The long hunt was not sport but business, and the hunters went about it in that spirit. They went out in parties of as many as forty or fifty, partly for protection against the Indians but mainly because large parties could cover more country more efficiently and kill more animals. Since each man customarily had at least two packhorses to carry out the skins he took, plenty of provisions for a long stay could be packed in, and were. Otherwise, the men traveled with the bare necessities: ample powder and lead, of course, bullet molds, axes, and a few additional tools, spare parts for rifles that might need repairing—and that was about it. The station camp set up in some selected location became a more or less permanent base. A rude, open-faced hut of poles covered with peeled bark, buffalo hides, or whatever was at hand provided shelter. In many places along the Cumberland, a cave or the lee of a shelving rock, still called a rock house in regional parlance, served more admirably than any hut.[45]

The long hunters extensively explored the region's waterways, including the Kentucky, Licking, Cumberland, and Green rivers. The names of the long hunters—including Elisha Walden, Benjamin Cutbird, Simon Kenton, Christian Probus, James Harrod, Kaspar Mankster, Squire Boone, and Daniel Boone—have been passed down in local lore for generations.[46] Daniel Boone is probably the best known long hunter. Boone began exploring the Upper Cumberland region during the late 1760s to hunt and trap, but also to identify sites for pioneer settlement. After returning home, the stories conveyed by Boone and other long hunters would spur interest and land speculation in the region west of Cumberland Gap.[47]

Other descriptions of the explorations of the long hunters survive today. One group, led by James Knox, journeyed into the interior of Kentucky and Tennessee between 1769 and 1771, passing the camp established by Dr. Thomas Walker nearly two decades prior, moving through the Cumberland River Valley to the present day site of Mill Springs in Wayne County, Kentucky. The group set up a temporary settlement, known as a station camp, at the site. Knox and his party of long hunters later encountered the Boone brothers in February 1771, and spent three months hunting with them on the Cumberland River. Another expedition was led by James Robertson, founder of Nashville, in 1779. His party followed the Cumberland River and likely passed through parts of the Big South Fork Basin, possibly near Brimstone Creek.

In 1769, a party led by a long hunter named Hunt is known to have traversed the basin. Hunt later settled near a tributary of the Big South Fork in what is now Scott County. The county seat of Huntsville, east of the park, was later named for him.

42. McBride and McBride, II-5, citing Rice, 23.
43. James McCague, *The Cumberland* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1973), 32–42.
44. Humphrey, 7.
45. Howell, 18–19, citing McCague, 37.
46. McBride and McBride, II-5, citing Rice, 28.
47. Ibid., II-6.

John and William Blevins were two long hunters who hunted in the area in the 1760s, possibly camping near the mouth of the Obey River.[48] Today, evidence of Blevins farmsteads within the park suggests that members of the family later settled within the basin and were descendants of these long hunters.

Local oral traditions refer to the establishment of a station camp by a group of long hunters named Phillips, Bledsoe, and Russell, in 1772.[49] The camp is thought to have occupied the present-day site of the Charit Creek Lodge Complex near Station Camp Creek. These men were reportedly from the Watauga Settlement.[50] The station camp site was reportedly favorable for their purposes due to an abundance of deer seeking the two salt licks located in the area, a pond, creeks, cane brakes, and varied terrain.[51]

The long hunters continued to visit the region until at least the American Revolution, when many returned to their homes to fight the British.[52] After the war, long hunters became some of the region's earliest settlers, or helped speculators identify land suitable for purchase. Thus the activities of the long hunters were of particular importance to the later settlement of Kentucky and Tennessee.

In addition to the long hunters, there were other groups who targeted the region for settlement. As soon as the French and Indian War ended in 1763, land speculators and prospective settlers began planning or moving into the Trans-Appalachian region. Due to Pontiac's Uprising later that year, however, a British proclamation forbade settlement west of the Allegheny Mountains.[53] However, speculators immediately began pressuring British and Colonial officials to shift the line of settlement westward. By 1768, British officials had negotiated the Treaty of Hard Labor in which the Cherokee relinquished their claim to lands east of the Kanawha-New River, and the Treaty of Fort Stanwix, in which the Iroquois ceded all their lands south of the Ohio River. Despite the availability of these new territories, speculators remained unsatisfied and persuaded John Stuart, Superintendent of the Southern Department, to renegotiate with the Cherokee. Negotiations resulted in the Treaty of Lochaber in 1770 and the acceptance of the Donelson Line in 1771, which established the Kentucky River as the western boundary for settlement.[54] Soon thereafter, surveyors from various land companies and the Virginia colony began entering Kentucky. They were soon followed by permanent settlers. Most of this settlement occurred in the Kentucky Bluegrass region.

It was not until after the Revolutionary War, that the Big South Fork Basin began to be settled in earnest by colonists, immigrants, and others. One of the major travel routes for settlers was the Wilderness Road, developed by former long hunter Daniel Boone circa 1775. The road, however, skirted rather than entered the rugged area of the Big South Fork River Basin, contributing to the initial focus of settlement on the Bluegrass region.

48. McBride and McBride, II-5; Howell, 20. See also Humphrey.
49. Personal communication, Tom Des Jean; and Humphrey, 8–9.
50. Humphrey, 8.
51. Humphrey, 8.
52. *Big South Fork Cultural Landscape Inventory*, 2 of 19, citing Smith, 4.
53. Pontiac's Uprising was a war of short duration initiated in 1763 by a loose confederation of American Indian tribes associated with the Great Lakes, Illinois, and Ohio regions who remained dissatisfied with British policies after the treaty ending the French and Indian War. Warriors joined in an uprising intended to expel the British out of the region. The conflict is named for Chief Pontiac, a leader of the Ottawa Indians.
54. McBride, II-7– II-8, citing Rice, 34.

Early European-American Settlement (circa 1780–1830)

Walker-Smith Survey (1779)

In 1772, Virginia began creating new counties in its southwestern corner near the border with North Carolina as the number of settlers increased. Understanding where the southern border of Virginia was located was important to settlers and land speculators alike, particularly as surveys, completed by authorized county surveyors, were required to accompany land purchases filed in the appropriate county courthouse. At this time, present-day Tennessee was part of North Carolina, until it achieved statehood in 1796, while Kentucky remained part of the Commonwealth of Virginia until it became a state in 1792. The boundary line between the two states had been defined as the 36 degree 30 minute parallel in 1665 by King Charles of England, ostensibly continuing across the continent, although land west of the Cumberland Mountains had never been surveyed.

North Carolina and Virginia agreed to survey the boundary between their territories west of the Cumberland Mountains, in 1779. Surveyors and commissioners were appointed by both states to mark the line. Virginia was represented by Dr. Thomas Walker, who had represented the Loyal Land Company in 1750 and maintained claim to 800,000 acres in western Virginia, as well as Gen. Daniel Smith. North Carolina was represented by Col. Richard Henderson, William Bailey Smith, and John Williams. Henderson was a member of the Transylvania Land Company that sought title to some 20 million acres in the region (Figure 18). The resulting boundary has since been referred to as the Walker line and the Walker-Smith survey.

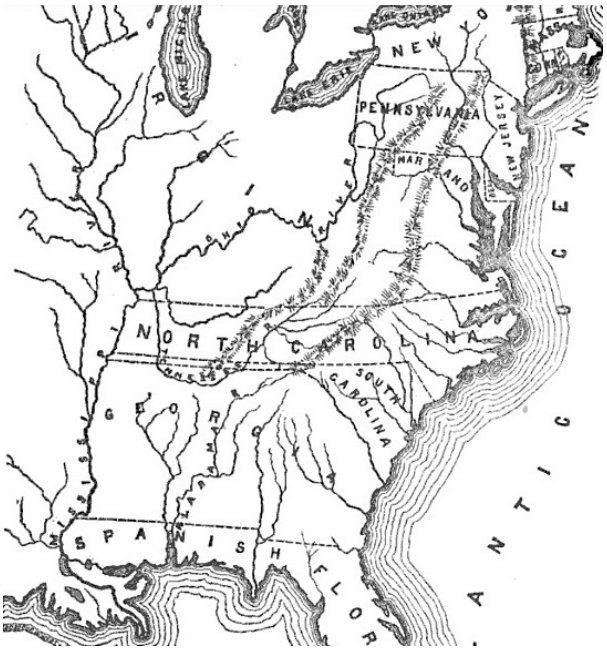


FIGURE 18. An early map of the American Colonies showing the Walker Line, the boundary between North Carolina and Virginia surveyed in 1779. Source: *History of the South Carolina cession, and the Northern boundary of Tennessee*, by William Robertson Garrett, 2, http://books.google.com/books?id=5CdyAAAAMAAJ.

The survey was intended to extend through the Big South Fork River Basin. However, bad weather and rugged conditions hampered the work and contributed to a shortage of supplies, including cane to feed the pack horses, as well as time. In response to these difficulties, the survey team elected to bypass the Big South Fork Basin, justifying the omission based on their belief that the region had a low probability of immediate settlement as compared with lands further north and west, such as the Nashville area of Tennessee and Bluegrass country in Kentucky. The surveyors noted that conditions "made us judge it best to leave out running the line here [Big South Fork], and go farther to the westward, into a better country, where by reason of many people being about to settle, it might be of importance to run the line speedily."[55] The fact that the land was still recognized as Cherokee territory may have also played a part in this decision.

Daniel Smith provides an early description of the region in his 1779–1780 journal of his experiences,

55. McBride and McBride, II-7.

published in 1915 in the *Tennessee Historical Magazine:*

> Saturday 20th November, Got to the clear fork and encamp'd on the NE bank just below the mouth of a small gut, about a mile above the mouth of the Cr. We came down a rocky clift being about 1 [to] 4 miles above us (on the other side of the river) which faced north.
>
> Sunday 21st. This morning a party of Cherokee Indians and a white man of the name of Springstone came to us, about 1 or 2 o'clock Capt. Anderson and his party all came safe to us.
>
> Monday 22nd. Here a very mutinous spirit began to appear among the Guard owing to our continuing the line thro' such a mountainous desert and we thought it most Prudent to run the line to the Clear Fork then turn to the north into the Kentucky Road (the Cumberland Gap road) and down the north side of Cumberland to the valuable country and there proceed on with it.[56]

Land Grants and Speculation (1770s–1785)

One of the early explorers involved in determining appropriate locations for settlement west of the Cumberlands was long hunter Daniel Boone. In 1769, Boone and five other men traversed the wilderness of eastern Kentucky, bringing back reports of land suitable for settlement northwest of the Big South Fork Basin.[57] Boone continued to explore the region during the 1770s. In March 1775, Boone helped Judge Richard Henderson and his colleagues of the Transylvania Land Company negotiate the Treaty of Sycamore Shoals (also known as the Treaty of Watauga), a 3-million-acre land exchange with the Cherokee Indians that excluded land that would later become Clinton, Cumberland, Wayne, McCreary, Whitley, and Bell counties.[58] The treaty allowed for the purchase of land lying within central and western Kentucky and the right to construct a road or trail to this land (Figure 19). Henderson engaged Boone to blaze and construct the new road—later named the Wilderness Road—which would link the Cumberland Gap with existing long hunting and American Indian trails to reach the proposed settlement site. Once this route was in place, settlers began to use the Wilderness Road to reach other settlement sites, moving west by following trails that branched off from the road.[59] Freytag and Ott's Morgan County history suggests that settlers pushed into the region from the southern end of the Upper Cumberland Plateau, following the establishment of Knoxville in the 1790s, and its connection to Nashville via a road that crossed the Cumberland Plateau near Crab Orchard.[60] Walton Road was also a route used to reach settlement sites. It crossed the plateau south of the basin.

By 1778, the Treaty of Sycamore Shoals, negotiated between Richard Henderson, Daniel Boone, and the Cherokee, was no longer recognized as valid by either the Virginia or North Carolina governments. Both states refused to recognize the right of land speculators to acquire land claimed by the Cherokee between the Kentucky and Cumberland rivers, or to create the new Transylvania colony. Eventually, both Virginia and North Carolina compensated Henderson for his loss by giving him 200,000 acres elsewhere to cede his claims to the Cherokee land negotiated in the treaty.

56. Ibid., II-7, citing St. George L. Sioussat, "The Journal of Daniel Smith" in *Tennessee Historical Magazine* 1 (1915): 57.
57. Hutchinson et al., 8.
58. McBride and McBride, II-8, citing Connelly and Coulter, 54–55.
59. Howell, 19.
60. Ethyl Freytag and Glena Kreis Ott, *A History of Morgan County, Tennessee* (Specialty Print Company, 1971).

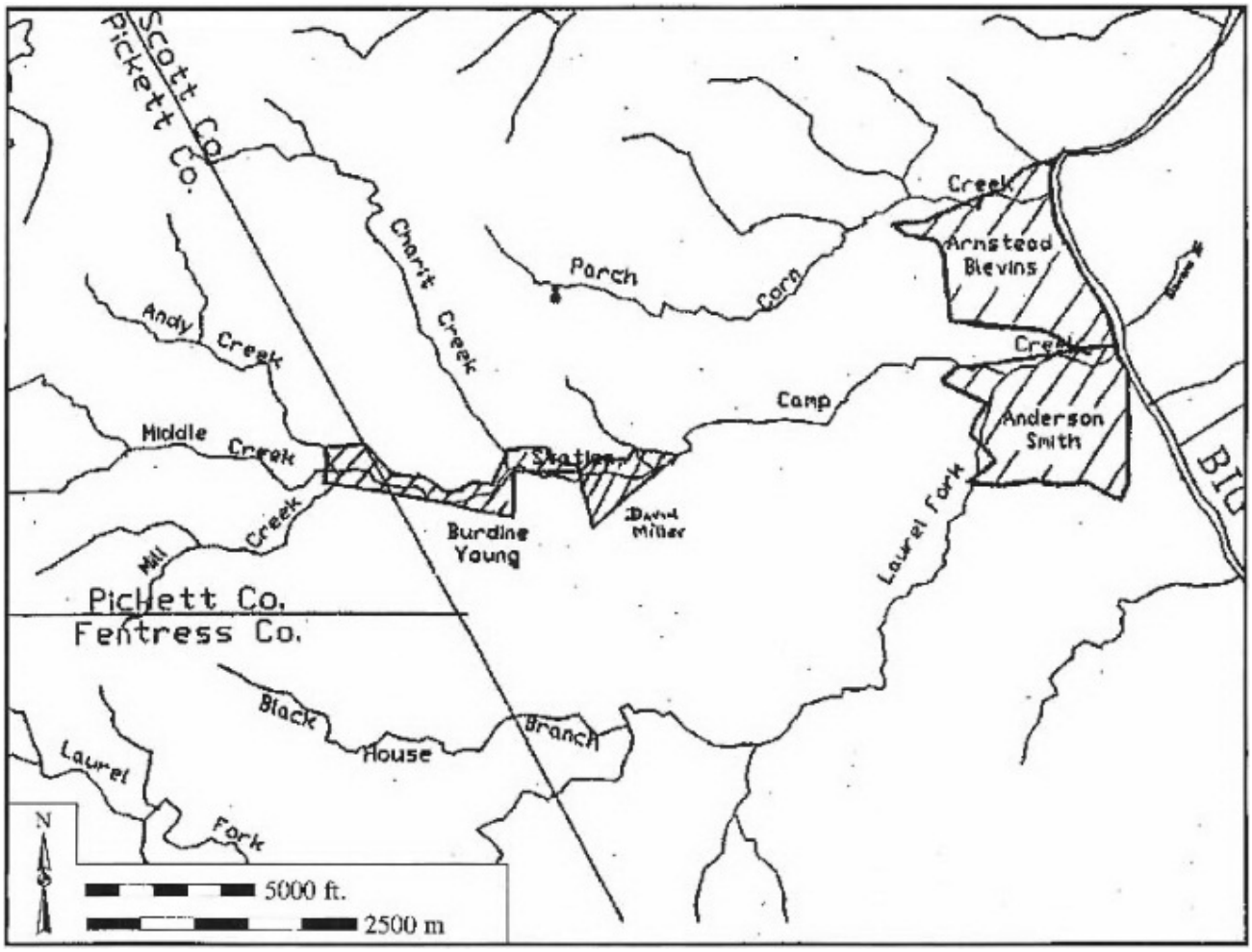


FIGURE 19. An early map showing land patents in the area. Source: McBride and McBride

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Post-Survey Settlement (1780–1805)

During the last two decades of the eighteenth century, the Cherokee maintained claim to and remained a presence within the region.[61] Nonetheless, the first wave of European-American settlers of the Big South Fork Basin appear to have reached the area between 1780 and 1820. Most of the settlers who arrived before it was technically legal to do so followed American Indian trails into the area, although the trails continued to be used by the Cherokee. Regardless of the Cherokee presence and their refusal to recognize Henderson's land transactions within the Treaty of Sycamore Shoals, North Carolina maintained a western land office in Hillsboro as early as 1783, while Virginia land records indicate that deeds were also sold for land within the area beginning in the 1780s.[62] By the close of the Revolutionary War, and certainly by 1786 or 1787, settlers had begun occupying the country west of the Cumberland Mountains.

A 1786 inscription found on a chimney stone of a former Scott County gorge farm lends credence to the idea that permanent settlement occurred during the late eighteenth-century in Big South Fork.[63] As settlement progressed in the 1780s, those holding warrants from Henderson's Transylvania Land Company were given preemption settlement rights by the state of North Carolina. All land not previously granted by the Transylvania company was subsumed into the state's "Military Reservation." This land was later used to grant warrants to Revolutionary War soldiers.[64]

In addition to the stone chimney dated 1786, documentation of early settlement exists in the form of individual tax records available in Kentucky beginning in 1799; unfortunately, similar records have not been preserved for the Tennessee section of the basin. The records list persons taxed for land, their poll or voting right, and goods, such as slaves, cattle, and horses.

In 1799, there were seven persons taxed for land, most for property totaling 200 acres or less, in Pulaski County. These homesteads were sited along transportation routes, ostensibly near supplies of fresh water, accessible game, and soil that could be cleared for the planting of corn.[65] Settlement in more commodious regions like the Kentucky Bluegrass occurred more rapidly. It is likely that this led to additional settlement within the basin by the early 1800s as those choicer locations became thickly settled.[66] Factors influencing this settlement included the opening of transportation routes like the Wilderness Road circa 1775 and legislative encouragements from the state of Kentucky in the form of homestead acts.

While there were many impediments to settlement, there were also advantages. The Virginia government incentivized settlement in present-day Kentucky by granting 400-acre tracts to those who could build a cabin and produce corn—known as "cornpatch and cabin" claims. Settlers were promised an additional 1,000 acre preemption if they registered their claim before January 1, 1799. Land could also be purchased directly through the governor of Virginia. After Kentucky became a state in 1792, these laws were left in place with few changes, although the grants within the eastern part of the state tended to be smaller, and less than the 1,000 acres promised by Virginia. Grants were awarded in particular to encourage the production of salt, a much needed commodity at the time.

Many early land purchases within the Kentucky portion of Big South Fork Basin are not well documented, in part because the area was so rugged and remote and the travel distance to the state capital in Richmond, before Kentucky

61. *Big South Fork Cultural Landscape Inventory*, 3 of 19, citing McBride, II-A1.
62. McBride, III-6, citing Arnow 1960, reprinted 1983, 309.
63. *Big South Fork Cultural Landscape Inventory*, 2 of 19, citing McBride and McBride, IIA.
64. McBride, III-6, citing Alvin B. Wirt, *The Upper Cumberland of Pioneer Times* (published by the author, 1954), 4.
65. Ibid., 3 of 19.
66. McBride and McBride, III-5, citing Arnow 1960, reprinted 1983, and Clark.

became a state in 1792, was so prohibitive that many land owners likely did not bother to make the trip. Because most residents likely desired to own their land, many probably eventually went to the trouble to file claims in fee simple terms. The ruggedness of the terrain and lack of real surveys (and surveyors) was also a problem for settlement within both North Carolina and Virginia as many landowners near the state line were not certain in which state their deeds should be registered, and sometimes registered them in both, or neither.

As confirmation, an engineer working on a survey for the U.S. Forest Service in 1937 noted that:

> Patents that cover the area were probably originally more inaccurately laid than any I have ever had occasion to work with . . . .
>
> It will be noticed that the state line as we have found it is at variance in several places with the location originally accepted by the Stearns Company. Our interpretation of its location is based on the survey of a true straight line between all state line monuments that affect the tract. I feel that I am accurate in saying that this is the first time that an accurate survey was ever made connecting all these monuments.[67]

Settlement eventually led to the formation of small communities, usually at junctions between key transportation nodes. Because the northern and southern extremes of the basin were better connected to existing transportation routes, they were settled more quickly. The region's ridges offered advantages for transportation routes and thus also became the main locus around which community settlements occurred. Roads also followed streams, and settlement occurred along the bottomlands of the water bodies feeding the Big South Fork River, such as No Business, Parch Corn, and Station Camp creeks.

Although the earliest permanent settlements at Big South Fork occurred at the northern and southern ends of the basin, historian Harriet Simpson Arnow suggests that the interior's ruggedness may have attracted Tories wishing to avoid involvement in the American Revolution.[68] If this is true, the first European-American settlements in the interior would have occurred during the Revolutionary War.

Treaties with the Cherokee (1785–1805)

Settlement did not increase substantially until after territorial disputes with American Indian tribes were finally settled by the Tellico Treaties of 1805 and 1806. Although much of the settlement by westward-moving emigrants would occur on the rich soils and more agreeable terrain of the Kentucky Bluegrass region and the Cumberland River basin at French Lick, later Nashville, the Big South Fork also experienced a large increase in settlement over the early decades of the nineteenth century, in part by those who were unable to secure worthwhile land elsewhere.[69]

Prior to the American Revolution, the Cherokee engaged in several treaties, ceding land to both state governments and private individuals. Most of these private treaties were later determined invalid by the United States government.[70] After the American Revolution, the United States government negotiated a succession of new treaties with the Cherokee, thereafter offering several land grants that contributed to more robust settlement. Through a series of three treaties, the Cherokee relinquished the remainder of the land they held within the Cumberland River watershed to the United States. The first was the Treaty of Hopewell, signed in 1785, which ceded the extreme northern part of their Cumberland

67. McBride, III-6, citing Richard S. Hicklin, Certificate of Survey of the Stearns Coal and Lumber Co. Tract 1874, McCreary and Wayne Counties, Kentucky, containing 43800.6 acres. (In files at Daniel Boone National Forest Office, Tract 1874, 1937), 6–7.
68. McBride and McBride, III-1, citing Arnow 1960, reprinted 1983, 205.
69. McBride and McBride, III-5, citing Harriet Simpson Arnow, *Seedtime on the Cumberland* (Lexington, Kentucky: University Press of Kentucky, 1960, reprinted 1983), and Clark.
70. *Big South Fork Cultural Landscape Inventory*, 3 of 19, citing McBride and McBride, IIA3.

territory. The second was the Butler and Walton Treaty of 1798, signed at Tellico, Kentucky, that further defined the boundary of Cherokee land in eastern Tennessee.

As early as 1803, the federal government began to issue Tellico Land Grants to settlers in areas ceded in the first two Tellico treaties. While settlers pushed into the Cherokee territory from many directions, the basin was not officially open for settlement until after the Third Tellico Treaty, in which the Cherokee ceded the remainder of their Cumberland Valley lands, including much of the basin, to the United States government, in 1805. The treaty was not finalized until 1806.

The negotiation of the 1805 Tellico Treaty may have been influenced by conflicting Cherokee-Chicksaw-Creek claims, and the unsuccessful attempts of the three tribes to negotiate with the United States government as a unified group. Although the United States government first attempted to convince the Cherokee to give up this land in July 1805, divisions within the tribe led to a failure in the negotiations. In October the United States government successfully entered into an agreement with a number of the older chiefs for part of their land, including much of Big South Fork. This was possibly influenced by the Chickasaw ceding their claims to land in the region earlier that year.[71] The October 1805 treaty included controversial provisions that resulted in the acquisition of several land reservations by Chief Chuqualataque, or Doublehead as he was known, and other influential leaders. Doublehead also received a cash bonus for helping with the negotiations. The rest of the Cherokee lands in question were ceded to the United States government in December 1805 and January 1806, when Doublehead and fourteen other chiefs met in Washington to sign additional treaties. In the negotiations, Doublehead again received land reservations, this time around his home at Muscle Shoals, Alabama. Because of the land reservations and the fact that the cash payments went primarily to cancel existing debts incurred by the chiefs, many of the younger chiefs considered this a betrayal of tribal land rights; Doublehead was executed in 1807 for his participation in these treaties.[72]

As the Cherokee were increasingly displaced from their land, many chose to settle among the local European-American populations rather than remove to western lands. Despite the troubled history between European-American settlers and the Cherokee people, many intermarried. Today, numerous families within the region claim Cherokee ancestors and a connection to Doublehead.

The Tellico Land Grants resulting from the opening of former Cherokee and Shawnee land to settlement continued to be issued over the course of the first half of the nineteenth century. These would increase the draw of pioneer settlers to the Big South Fork Basin. Tellico Land Grants began to be issued in portions of the Big South Fork area as early as 1803; by this time, European-American settlers had already been ignoring treaty boundaries for decades. Many of the Tellico Land Grants were offered to Revolutionary War veterans. Several early Big South Fork Basin settlers with names that remain important in the region were veterans, including Elisha and Richard Harve Slaven, who held land from the mouth of Bear Creek to the mouth of Parch Corn, and Jonathon Blevins, a long hunter who gradually worked his way south from Oil Valley to Station Camp Creek. Other early settlers included David Miller, Burdine and Anderson Young, William Smith, and George Tackett.[73]

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71. McBride and McBride, III-2, citing William G. McLoughlin, *Cherokee Renascence in the New Republic* (Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1986).
72. McBride and McBride; Tom Des Jean, "Chuqualataque (Doubleday)." *Tennessee Encyclopedia of History and Culture*, Carol Van West, ed. (Nashville, Tennessee: Rutledge Hill Press, 1998), 158.
73. Howell, 19.

Post-Treaty Settlement (1805–1830)

Between 1803 and 1853, the U.S. government issued 572 Tellico Land Grants, many of them for land between the Big South Fork Basin and Wayne County, Kentucky. Most were relatively small—100 to 200 acres—but they ranged in size from 9 to 1,029 acres.[74]

Other settlers acquired their land along No Business and Station Camp creeks by squatting. In this method, individuals and families developed a section of land by building a cabin, fencing, and raising crops. If their actions were not contested, the land became owned by the squatter. According to E. S. Sanderson, another method was through tomahawk rights where the bark was stripped from a number of trees along the margin of the land in question, in order to cause the tree to die. The squatter would carve his name into the trees, conveying him possession of all the land enclosed by the deadened trees.[75]

By 1810, the number of residents listed in Pulaski County had risen from a total of seven in 1803 to sixteen. The number of residents counted likely reflected only the landowners, typically white males; the actual number of residents was likely much higher and included family members as well as slaves. The first towns in the area—Monticello and Somerset—were also established during the early 1800s. As early as 1801, John James is indicated in records as selling manufactured items such as window glass, window latches, and horse mill bolts in his Somerset, Kentucky, store.[76]

By 1820, the number of citizens taxed for their property in Wayne County rose from 16 to 118, indicating substantial growth during this period. By 1820 there were twenty-eight slaves listed within the gorge. The population also continued to grow within Morgan County, with land ownership generally shifting northward. This led to the establishment of Fentress County in 1823 and Scott County in 1849.

It was also during this period that community institutions, such as schools and churches, began to develop. Most schools were boarding schools or offered irregular local service due to the difficulties associated with travel. Churches established in this part of Tennessee and Kentucky during the early nineteenth century included Mt. Helen and Fellowship Church in Fentress County; Otter Creek United and Beech Grove Church in McCreary County; and Sulphur Springs, White Pine United Baptist, Grave Hill, Foster Crossroads Baptist, and Black Creek Crossroads in Scott County.[77]

Early settlers, now with legal standing, were both hunters and self-provisioning farmers who counted animal husbandry, foraging, and crop cultivation among their activities. Hunting remained a critical part of local life. The transition to farming was gradual, as noted by early resident Jonathan Blevins: "That old man carried his frying pan . . . I'm just trying to tell you that they moved from one place to another to get into better hunting grounds . . . he just mostly hunted . . . . These younger ones did farm more; they didn't hunt as much."[78] Over time, the settlers began to supplement their livelihoods through niter mining, salt extraction, and oil drilling (see also Historic Context Two: Extractive and Manufacturing Industries). Although farming and industry are treated herein as separate historic contexts, these two activities have been integrally linked as part of the survival strategy of area residents since initial settlement.[79]

Contributing to the increase in settlement of the region during the early nineteenth century was an economic boom within the Upper South. Prices for farm products were high, serving as an incentive for agricultural production. Commercial agriculture, however, generally occurred only where transportation systems were present to

74. Ibid., 17.
75. Humphrey, 10.
76. McBride and McBride, III-38, citing Arnow 1960, reprinted 1983, 262.
77. McBride and McBride, III-35.
78. Howell, 23.
79. Ibid., 3–5.

convey goods to market; agricultural production in most of the Big South Fork Basin was therefore not as commercialized as other parts of Kentucky and Tennessee. Local residents were still able to sell or trade livestock, hides and furs, and other items such as ginseng to larger markets. Honey was an especially valuable commodity, and many local farms kept "bee-gum" hives to generate quantities of honey for sale or barter beyond that needed for domestic use.

The Landscape of Early Settlement

Upon arrival, early settlers of the Big South Fork River Basin found themselves in a forested landscape composed of a rugged framework of ridges and knobs separated by a latticework of winding streams. The best farmland was set well below the uplands within deep valleys with steep side walls. Residents located their homesteads in isolated hollows, in river basins, and along the few trade roads that skirted the region.[80] These settlers quickly learned of the resources available to them and how they could be put to use to provide almost all the necessities of daily life.[81] Because of these conditions, local residents were extremely dependent on the environment for their livelihood. In response, they developed cultural practices that relied on the signs of the zodiac, phases of the moon, and other seasonal and calendar events to enhance their prospects in farming, hunting, and other subsistence pursuits.[82] Most continued to rely on hunting; in this a key possession for most residents was the long rifle, either the Kentucky Long Rifle or the Tennessee Long Rifle. Both were flintlocks that used ball and powder for ammunition. The balls or shot were made from lead, while the powder was made from niter, also known as saltpeter. Powder was often carried in a hollowed out animal horn with a wooden plug stopper.

Basin farmsteads possessed many similarities. Fields were cultivated near stream corridors where the alluvial soil was fertile and the land level, and where fresh water springs offered drinking water and refrigeration. Settlers cleared the narrow bottomlands for crops while allowing livestock, such as hogs, cattle, and sheep to forage freely in the surrounding woods of the sloped hillsides and terraces. Horses and mules were also important work animals kept by many local farmers. Hunting remained an important dietary staple. Wood for shelter, puncheon flooring, fencing, containers such as barrels and kegs, and fuel was plentiful and harvested from the woodlands. Local residents also collected wood and trapped and hunted animals for furs that they could sell to generate cash to pay for other necessities and expenses.

One of the limitations on these activities remained a lack of good transportation networks in and out of the region. Although logs could be transported downstream by floating and poling them through areas of rough water, the shallow water, rock-strewn channels, and series of dangerous shoals and rapids limited the commercial uses of the river.

Based on review of census data, local farmsteads appear to have included a relatively high percentage of livestock as compared with those located in other regions of Kentucky and Tennessee. Horses and mules were the most commonly-used draft animals. Mules, introduced early in the nineteenth century, came to be preferred by many farmers for their strength, endurance, and modest food requirements. Sheep were raised for their wool, while hogs and cattle were raised for food. Farmers typically fenced their crop fields to protect them against free-ranging livestock, as did moonshiners to protect their mash. The moonshiners fenced in the rock shelters that housed their illegal liquor-making equipment to keep free-ranging hogs from getting into the malt, which consisted of fertilized corn or other grain. Open range grazing remained a typical practice within the region until the Public Act of 1947. Because enforcement of the so-called No Fence Law resulted in very small fines, it was not

80. *Big South Fork Cultural Landscape Inventory*, 3 of 19, citing Birdwell, 10.
81. Howell, 39.
82. Ibid., 40. Foxfire, a series of books published in the 1970s, addresses the Appalachian lore and folk wisdom surrounding planting and harvesting in conjunction with signs.

likely followed for several more years by local residents. The law is thought to have resulted from problems encountered by the rail companies with livestock wandering onto the track, interfering with the passage of trains.[83] Farmers marked their stock with an ear crop that was registered with the county clerk. In addition to mast, the hogs and other livestock foraged on grasses promoted by the burning of underbrush each spring by farmers. Fences were typically split rail, paling, or picket types constructed from rot-resistant oak, black locust, or chestnut. Rocks pulled from areas cleared for farming were used to build stone walls around the perimeters of the fields, or more often they were simply collected into centralized piles.[84]

Crops typically included corn, wheat, rye, flax, and occasionally cotton. Flax was used to make linen. Most crops were produced for home consumption, either for humans or animals. Kitchen garden crops included vegetables, beans, potatoes, and cabbage due to their ability to be preserved. Beans were dried or pickled, while potatoes, cabbage, onion, and apples were kept in underground pits or root cellars. Imported fruit trees were planted to generate apples, pears, and peaches that provided fresh fruit in season, dried fruit through the winter, and beverages, some of which were alcoholic. Farmers also kept chickens for eggs and meat, geese for feathers, and bees for honey and candle wax. Local residents found wild bees to be an important resource. Domestic honey production was quite widespread; locals knew how to track, capture, and bring home the bees, often collecting wild bees to create new colonies.[85] With these resources, the region provided the farmer with nearly everything he and his family would need.[86]

Water was a critical resource that influenced early settlement patterns. Springs typically occur where rock outcrops are exposed on the steep sides of gorges or hills. Spring water was carried to the homestead below or conveyed through pipes fashioned from hollow log sections pieced together or other materials as available. Springs were also essential as a refrigeration agent for perishable foods like milk and butter. During the twentieth century, when settlement shifted to the plateau where water is in short supply, families were often forced to carry spring water uphill to their homes if they could not establish a dependable well.

While regional farmers today typically focus their efforts on the upland plateau overlooking the gorge, successful cultivation of its poor and erodible soils requires the use of sophisticated farm equipment and machinery not available to early settlers. During the nineteenth century, the lowland stream valleys were far more easily farmed with the primitive tools available, and the low-lying river and creek bottoms provided a comparatively rich, moist soil well suited to crop production.[87]

Flooding could be a problem for those who settled along the stream corridors (Figure 20). However, as noted by Arnow, while the homestead, crop fields, and kitchen garden are likely to have centered around the stream bottom, properties also included a slice of gorge escarpment and upland that served a variety of purposes for the homesteader.[88]

83. Humphrey, 19.
84. *Big South Fork Cultural Landscape Inventory*, 3 of 19, citing Humphrey, 45.
85. Howell, 36.
86. Harriette Simpson Arnow, *The Flowering of the Cumberland* (Lexington, Kentucky: University Press of Kentucky, 1963, reprinted 1984), 210–260.
87. Ibid., 32.
88. Ibid., 32, citing Arnow 1960, reprinted 1983, 37.



FIGURE 20. An undated photo of the Helenwood Flood in Scott County. Source: Scott County Historical Society, image no. 622.

Basin area farmers were also involved in tanning hides to make shoes and other leather goods; raising flax, cotton, and wool for weaving clothing and household linens; and constructing their houses, outbuildings, and fencing from local timber and stone. Homesteaders took advantage of available mineral and geologic resources, including limestone that could be used for fences and burnt in kilns to produce lime; sandstone suitable for chimneys, gravestones, and grindstones; and saltpeter or niter that could be used to make gunpowder (see Historic Context Two: Extractive and Manufacturing Industries). They also made bullets, tar and turpentine, and salt, and made and repaired tools, wagons, furniture, and many other household implements. A few of the items that had to be bought included coffee and the metal stock used in bulletmaking and blacksmithing.[89] The cash needed to pay taxes and to purchase goods was acquired through the production and sale of whiskey, turpentine, pelts, wool and fur hats, leather, sugar maple sap, grain and flour, salt, niter, and lumber and logs.

Salt, as noted above, was a mineral resource available to local residents in the form of salt springs or licks. Salt became an important element of local life due to its use as a meat preservative. Salt was also mined in the region in response to high prices resulting from the War of 1812 and incentives offered by the state of Kentucky during periods of shortage (see Historic Context Two: Extractive and Manufacturing Industries).[90]

A unique feature of the basin is the geologic formation referred to as the rock shelter. These openings sheltered beneath overhanging rock had been previously used by American Indians and long hunters; settlers later adapted them for use as storage areas, livestock pens, and temporary shelter and activity areas.

In addition to the mineral and geologic resources of the area, local residents secured many food products from the land surrounding them. Edible plant species included pot herbs or salad greens, such as poke, yellow dock, sour dock, old field lettuce, pigweed, lamb's quarters, crow's foot, mustard greens, dandelion, bullweed, and wild sage. Roots including meadow garlic, Indian turnip, and Jack-in-the-pulpit were also collected. The abundant deciduous trees provided a variety of mast enjoyed by households and livestock alike. Beechnuts, black walnuts, hazelnuts, hickory nuts, and chestnuts were gathered in the fall. Chestnuts provided a nutritious food that fattened the semi-wild hogs allowed to range free in the woods. Locals also collected several wild fruits and berries such as persimmon, pawpaw, blackberry, huckleberry, strawberry, raspberry, frost grape, and muscadine grapes.[91] Sassafras bark, spice wood, chicory roots, and teaberry were used to make tea.[92] Wild plants were also used for medicinal purposes and included yellowroot, ginseng, and may apple, to name a few.[93]

Hunting remained popular within the region throughout the nineteenth century, with efforts focusing on deer until local populations were wiped out by habitat loss, overhunting, and disease in the late nineteenth century, as well as rabbit, quail, grouse, squirrel, raccoon, and woodchuck or groundhog. Trapping of fur-bearing animals—raccoon, skunk, mink, and red fox—for their pelts also continued during the antebellum period.

89. Howell, 25.
90. Ibid., 34.
91. Ibid., 37.
92. *Big South Fork Cultural Landscape Inventory*, 3 of 19, citing Humphrey, 34–37.
93. Howell, 38.

Surprisingly, fishing of local species such as catfish, bass, walleye, and bluegill was not an integral part of local life. Although the reason for this is not entirely clear, it is possible that local farmers could not devote the time needed to fishing during spring and summer when most agricultural work had to be done. Records of life within the region do suggest that residents sometimes built fish traps or set dynamite charges within waterways to acquire fish.[94] Because residents do not appear to have used methods such as salting or smoking to preserve any surplus catch, this technique was likely used infrequently due to the destruction it caused to stream life. Fishing was more likely a recreational pursuit, and the catch was a special food treat, often consumed on the spot.

Most early settlers lived along one of three important tributaries of the river: No Business, Parch Corn, or Station Camp creeks. Although the earliest European-American settlement within the Station Camp and No Business area is difficult to pinpoint, it likely dates to the 1810s and early 1820s. Families with names that are still familiar in the region—Slaven, Boyatt, Kidd, Blevins, Carson, and Phillips—were among the first recorded residents.

The earliest settler that can be directly linked to the area is David Miller, who patented 50 acres on Station Camp in 1824. Miller's land probably included the relatively flat bottom area about half a mile downstream from and east of the mouth of Charit Creek at the mouth of Grand Branch. Nearby, Burdine Young and Anderson Young patented 100 acres in 1824 along the Middle Fork of Station Camp. Burdine Young may have also conducted improvements within the eastern portion of the tract near the mouth of Charit Creek at the site of present-day Charit Creek Lodge, and built the dwelling known as the John Blevins House circa 1832. Anderson Young's efforts were focused to the south or west of Burdine's along Station Camp Creek. Another early settlement indicated at No Business was the Kentucky land warrant of William Smith and George Tackett dated circa 1827. Their property, which was located near the mouth of the now-named Tackett Creek, totaled 100 acres. Although it is difficult to locate these early properties, references to streams in surveys and plats and their general shape sometimes suggest their likely locations within the landscape.

Another regional settler was Richard Harve Slaven, a Revolutionary War veteran, who may have lived at the mouth of Parch Corn Creek or near the confluence of Tackett's Branch and No Business by the early 1800s or 1810s. Slaven received a land grant in Kentucky that extended from the mouth of Bear Creek to the mouth of Parch Corn Creek.[95] In the 1830 Federal census, Jonathan Slaven and William Slaven are listed as living near other No Business and Station Camp residents, early evidence of community structure.

Elijah Terry was an early settler on Parch Corn Creek, who likely lived near the mouth or the lower end of the creek. The Terry tract was later occupied by Armpstead Blevins and Helen Terry Blevins. Jordan Boyatt and Elisha Slaven lived along No Business Creek, while Absalon Slavey or Slaven resided along the Big South Fork. Littleton Litton, the Lewellens, Hudson Burke, and Willis or Wesley Owens lived below the mouth of Charit Creek at Station Camp Creek.

Jonathan Blevins is indicated as living within the Parch Corn area by 1815. Although Blevins was recorded in deeds and other records, such as Wayne County tax rolls, as living on Rock Creek at the time, the Blevins family appears to have

94. Tom Des Jean, "Fishtraps of the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River" (Oneida, Tennessee: National Park Service, Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, 2010). The catch from these traps was on occasion taken to markets in water-filled barrels to sell. This, however, was rare. The few families that did build and maintain fish traps would often lease them out to earn cash.

95. McBride and McBride, III-28, citing Esther Sharp Sanderson, *County Scott, Gem of the Cumberlands* (Huntsville, Tennessee: published by the author, 1958).

married into the Smith family, resulting in their relocation to the No Business Creek area.

Anderson and Sally Smith were among the earliest settlers on Laurel Fork of Station Camp Creek, probably arriving by the 1820s to 1830s. Their daughter Catherine Smith married Jacob Blevins in 1831; Jacob likely moved to Laurel Fork at this time. Another daughter of Anderson Smith, Betty, married John Blevins, son of Armpstead Blevins. Armistead Hatfield also lived on the lower end of Station Camp Creek before 1831. Samuel Smith, Anderson's brother, acquired the property in 1831.

"Cherokee Attack" at Yahoo Falls (1810)

Yahoo Falls is located along the Big South Fork Basin in McCreary County, Kentucky. A local family with a long history of settlement within the region—the Troxels of southern Kentucky—is connected to the falls through myth and legend, including their ties to local Cherokee through marriage. The legend involves the alleged mass murder or massacre of Cherokee at Yahoo Falls. Based on an oral tradition likely derived from fictitious accounts, the legend suggests that resident Hiram Gregory led an assault upon a group of Cherokee, including the children of resident Cherokee Princess Cornblossom and her husband Jacob Troxel. In addition to the children, several other Cherokee men, women, and children were purportedly killed at Yahoo Falls in 1810, as they waited to travel to a missionary school near Chattanooga, Tennessee. After the supposed confrontation, the American Indians still living in the area were thought to have either left or assimilated themselves more fully into the European-American population.[96]

Relocation of American Indians from the Big South Fork area after the Indian Removal Act of 1830

President Andrew Jackson signed the Indian Removal Act into law on May 28, 1830. The law effectively authorized the president to negotiate with tribes within the southern United States to cede their homelands to the government and relocate to federal territory west of the Mississippi River. Some of the American Indians who relocated to lands west of the Mississippi, including Oklahoma, maintained ties with local families, likely due to the extent of intermarriage between settlers and Cherokee. Other Cherokee found ways to blend in with the local European-American populations rather than move to western lands.

Antebellum European-American Settlement Patterns and Farming Practices (1830–1865)

Community Development

Through the remainder of the antebellum period, the Big South Fork region maintained a reputation as a physical barrier and a questionable place to settle and farm. As revealed by the 1840 census, the number of residents within the region decreased slightly over 1830, although the number of slaves increased. This accounting may indicate a loss of early speculators who did not follow up with settlement, rather than fewer settlers. Although slavery was a part of the local culture, it was not as prevalent as in other parts of Kentucky and Tennessee. The relatively small number of slaves was related to the modest means of many settlers, the size of arable plots of land available within the stream valleys due to the topography, and the concomitant lack of labor- intensive crops such as cotton and tobacco. The northern portion of the basin that includes present-day Wayne and Pulaski counties exhibited a higher percentage of slave

96. *Big South Fork Cultural Landscape Inventory*, 3 of 19, citing McBride and McBride, II-3–II-4.

owners.[97] Historical records, burials, and family stories point to relatively high levels of settlement in northern Morgan County and adjacent parts of Fentress and Scott Counties by the late 1840s.

The slow-but-steady settlement of the Upper Cumberland during the mid-nineteenth century created a distinctive landscape of dispersed farmsteads located in the deep gorges and valleys and scattered on the ridges between. Much of the settlement consisted of subsistence-level farmers who lived on their own land. Patterns of settlement continued to follow those established during the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. As the better lands became occupied, new residents began to settle the more marginal lands.

Farms were often clustered along the creek bottoms and connected by a network of rough roads and trails; the proximity of the creek valleys to each other led to a close-knit social pattern, especially as family members tended to settle near one another, creating kinship groups that gave each cluster of creeks its own identity and character. These communities often featured small schools and churches. Residents remained in contact with other regions through traveling land agents, fur buyers, the circuit-riding preacher, the "drummer" or traveling salesman, and visiting relatives. The drummers bought and traded goods with local residents, selling such items as food, seeds, and bolt cloth and buying products such as moonshine.[98] Thus the isolated communities of Big South Fork remained connected to the broader society despite their physical isolation.

Springs remained the primary source of fresh water for farmsteads. Timber continued to offer opportunities for shelter and other construction needs, fuel, and limited sale for cash or barter. While hunting remained a crucial component of the Upper Cumberland farmer's lifeways, animal husbandry was also widely practiced. The same environment that attracted herds of grazing animals was well suited to sustaining domesticated animals. Farmers used the area's rock shelters as holding pens when needed, but otherwise continued to allow their animals to range freely through the woods. The census records an increase in livestock holdings among area residents over the course of the nineteenth century. While most properties were recorded as including at least one horse during the early decades of the nineteenth century, by 1840 many had sizeable numbers of both cattle and horses. For example, while only one landowner had more than nine horses in 1810, six had more than nine horses by 1840.[99]

The mid-nineteenth-century economy of the Big South Fork region included not only subsistence hunting and farming but also the export of lumber and agricultural products ranging from moonshine to hogs. During the mid-nineteenth century, market forces propelled the region into a different relationship with larger markets. Of particular importance to the farmers of the Upper Cumberland was the ability to harvest and sell timber from their land. As steamboat-related industries and market networks began to develop on the Cumberland River, residents of the Big South Fork region discovered that there was a market for the region's plentiful timber and, with a bit of ingenuity, were able to find ways to convey logs downriver to mills and shipping ports. For the most part, these activities took advantage of seasonal flooding to transport logs downstream using water power. Where possible, the Upper Cumberland farmer would float his logs to market, or sell them to an agent who assumed the risk of getting them to market. The farmer could also convey his timber to a "peckerwood" mill for initial processing and sale to a local buyer. The cutting and exporting of timber became a seasonal routine in the spring and fall, when heavy rains helped to raise water levels sufficiently to allow logs, branded by the shipper for identification, to be floated to the lumber mills along the Cumberland River in Kentucky. These log flows joined rafts and floatboats used to convey commodities, people, and goods to the market towns along the river.

97. Ibid.
98. Ibid., 3 of 19, citing Birdwell, 12.
99. *Big South Fork Cultural Landscape Inventory*, 6 of 19, citing Birdwell, 10.

The timber that was transported downstream became an important marketable crop for the small independent farmer. The need for timber expanded greatly with the rise of the railroad, the steamboat, and other mechanical operations resulting from the industrial revolution. Prior to the Civil War, local farmers were able to profit from regional timber reserves before larger companies began to enter the market post bellum.

Although steamboats did not travel on the tributaries of the Cumberland, such as the Big South Fork, they did play an important role in the life of subsistence-oriented communities that could reach the areas serviced by the steamboats.

The Cumberland River's connection with the Ohio River at Paducah, Kentucky, linked the small farmer of the Upper Cumberland with the larger trade opportunities afforded by the Mississippi River. Thus the subsistence-level farmer of the Big South Fork Basin could also supply commodities to larger national or even international markets. Throughout the Upper Cumberland Region, the isolated farmers were linked to the commerce and trade of the thriving river towns downstream by trade.[100]

The local population was centered predominantly along three creek corridors during this time: No Business Creek, Parch Corn Creek, and Station Camp Creek. By 1850, the federal census recorded 126 people living along Station Camp Creek.[101] New settlers included Ali Hatfield, who married Millie Gibson, and bought the Burdine and Andrew Young properties in 1832. Hatfield's land was later acquired by William Tackett in 1848 and Anderson Smith in 1853. White Oak Creek canyon remained sparsely populated, with only two households listed in the 1840 census. James and Robert Davis purchased David Miller's property in 1834. Jonathan and Nancy Burke settled on the west side of the Big South Fork between Parch Corn and No Business creeks, at Duck Shoals. They received a 100-acre Tellico Grant, adding to their holdings in 1857 by acquiring land from Isaac Blevins. Their son Hayden Burke lived on No Business Creek between Burke's Branch and Dry Branch. Jonathan Burke's brother Hudson married in 1847 and moved to a 150-acre farm on Dry Branch of No Business Creek. He is known to have manufactured gunpowder, which he used and sold to hunters in the area. He also helped clear the road from No Business to the county seat in Monticello. Hudson later served as a member of the Union's 12th Kentucky regiment in the Civil War. His 1869 pension applications stated that he lived on or near a wagon road leading between Monticello and Somerset, Kentucky, about 12 miles from Monticello. The first church is thought to have been built in the No Business Creek community in the mid-nineteenth century. The log structure was likely a United Baptist Church and was located less than one-half mile west of Big South Fork River on the site of a later shared school and church.[102]

Participation by Slaves, Free African Americans, Immigrants, and Others in Farming Workforces

As with many parts of the Eastern United States, waves of foreign immigrants began to arrive in the Big South Fork region during the second half of the nineteenth century. German immigrant groups in particular were attracted to the region, and settled in communities such as Armathwaite and Allardt in Fentress County, and Wartburg in Morgan County, Tennessee, near the southern boundary of the park. Wartburg was founded in 1845 by the Tennessee Colonization Company, a group that encouraged the immigration of Swiss and German settlers. The town was named for the castle—Wartburg—in Thuringia, Germany, where Martin Luther translated the bible. The region's only Lutheran church—St. Paul's—was built in Wartburg. One resident, George F. Gerding, built a receiving house in Wartburg in 1850, where immigrants could live until they established their own houses. In 1870, Wartburg became the county

100. William Montell, *Don't Go up Kettle Creek: Verbal Legacy of the Upper Cumberland* (Knoxville, Tennessee: University of Tennessee Press, 2000), 132–133.

101. Howell, 19.

102. Humphrey, 22.

seat, and remains so today. Wartburg prospered as an agricultural community. Residents also established several thriving industries, including piano and cigar manufacture.

Another immigrant settlement initiated prior to the Civil War was a Welsh colony near Oneida begun in 1857. Named Brynffynon, the colony met with several challenges, including harassment by local residents.[103] Members of the colony first attempted to raise Merino sheep, but later switched to cattle. The colony also started a mill at the mouth of Nance Branch, which was rendered inoperable by local guerilla warfare during the Civil War. The colony is also thought to have furnished rations for Gen. Ambrose Burnside's men as they scouted the terrain, passing through the basin on their way to invade the Confederate stronghold of Knoxville in 1863.

Little documentation exists regarding the colony after the Civil War, although it is likely that some residents may have remained in the area. A clue regarding the fate of the community comes in the form of a letter, dated 1938, written to a professor of geography at the George Peabody College for Teachers by William Phillips, a Professor of Education at University College in Cardiff, Great Britain. In his letter, Phillips notes, ". . . as far as I can make out, the settlement failed for want of a thorough initial survey of the lands bought, and because of disputes about their ownership—an old source of trouble in Tennessee, I gather."[104] The community disappeared in 1865.

The Civil War (1861–1865)

The Civil War proved highly disruptive to lifeways and the agricultural economy of the Big South Fork region. Located in a no-man's land between Union and Confederate strongholds, Big South Fork experienced its own version of Civil War. Although many of the people in eastern Tennessee and Kentucky were Union sympathizers, Tennessee elected to secede from the Union and was a Confederate state. Kentucky, at first neutral, eventually came entirely under Union control.[105] The people of the basin were thus positioned at the edge of a disputed line that led to volatility in the area and contributed to divided loyalties and animosity amongst neighbors and families. The region also suffered due to the loss of numerous young men who fought on either side, or who were the victims of guerilla warfare.

While no large battles occurred within the basin, guerilla warfare was a constant threat that led to destruction of property and farm products, injury, and even the death of residents. This guerilla activity, locally known as bushwhacking, consisted of the periodic raiding of homes with the intent to destroy property and livestock and sometimes even kill the owners. Bushwhacking was conducted by both sides, including pro-Union citizens in response to the increased hostility towards them by Confederate citizens and pro-Confederates against Union sympathizers.[106] Horses and crops were stolen, buildings destroyed, and relationships between farmers severed by the bushwhackers. Raiders generally stripped defenseless farms of anything valuable; honey was noted in historical records as particularly at risk of being stolen. Young men

103. Brynffynon was Mormon Welsh Utopian community established in 1857 by Welshman Samuel Roberts, with assistance from Governor Bebb of Ohio. The community was located west of Oneida in Scott, County, Tennessee. The spelling of the name of this colony differs between sources, with some using Brynyffnon. The most widely accepted spelling seems to be Brynffynon.

104. McBride and McBride, III-36, citing letter from State Library and Archives Manuscript Ac No. 53.

105. *Big South Fork Cultural Landscape Inventory*, 5 of 19.

106. Ibid.

were often pressed into service, if not killed outright.

Bushwhacking was a violent activity that led some people to abandon their farms and move away from the area. Those who stayed devised specific means for counteracting the raids. Children were sometimes posted as lookouts to give early warning of approaches guerillas. One oral history informant, Bill Miller, noted in an interview that his grandfather, who was five or six years old at the time, carried, "a bugle at the creek . . . they would put him on a rock to watch up and down this hollow for people coming. If he saw anybody coming, his job was to blow the bugle so that they could get the stock up in the hills and hide them, to keep them (rebels) from stealing them."[107]

Another oral history informant, Frona Thompson, described raiding etiquette:

> Them, those old rebels got a coming through ya known, trying to take the place, they took over, and killed everybody they could. People had to leave, I don't know much about back then, that was before I was born. My mother told the story, and she said them old rebels would come in and take everything, they would rob the bees and leave the gums open, and the bees would all freeze to death in the winter time. And they sold grandpa's hay stacks off, and fed the horses and let them loose. Grandpa had to cut buds in the spring to feed his cattle. They wasted everything. . . They would open up a potato hole, them rebels, and leave them open, and what they didn't loot they let them freeze, wasted hay, robbing bees. And my mother said, she always heard said, if a kid would sit down on something, them rebels weren't allowed to push them off. She said grandma had made grandpa a new set of clothes and they were laying on the bed, and she heard something and jumped up, and when they came in she sat down on them. One of those old rebels tried his best to get her off of them, and she just clung to them. Well, he didn't get them.[108]

Others describe hiding livestock, food, and other goods from both guerillas and soldiers. Local resident Oscar Blevins noted:

> There is a place in the bluff there [at the Parch Corn place] that they kept their meat. Would climb up a ladder to get up in there . . . . They would come in the house, and if you had something they wanted to eat, they took it. But they had a place back up the creek where they kept their horse, to keep them from taking their horses.

Kirby King stated in an interview regarding Confederate guerillas that "they would just ride up and go through and steal and kill and do what they wanted to. Take what you wanted. They had to keep the horses hid, the beaves [sic] and other things hid."[109]

Raids conducted by the Confederate guerilla Rule Gang in June 1863 in the No Business area are also recounted in historic sources. The so-called Duck Shoals skirmish resulted in the death of seven residents, damage to Harmon Burke's farm and Armpstead Blevins' farm on Parch Corn Creek, and harassment of Union supporters Anderson Smith and Absalon Slaven. At Duck Shoals, the raiders captured the farm of Peter Burke. The next day, the pro-Union Home Guard surrounded the Peter Burke farm and opened fire. When the Rebels tried to escape, seven were shot and killed, while an eighth drowned after reaching the river.[110] Two children, the Tackett boys, also died due to guerrilla raiding activity.[111] The Tackett Cabin ruins and graves near Station Camp Creek survive to convey these associations.

By the end of the Civil War, these guerilla activities had taken a high toll on the people and landscape of the basin. Several farms stood abandoned and perhaps may have never been reoccupied.

107. McBride and McBride, IV-8– IV-9.
108. Ibid., IV-9.
109. Ibid.
110. Ibid., citing Smith, 163–167; and Tom Des Jean and Nicholas Hermann, "Civil War Effects on the Home Front: Scott County and Areas of the Upper Cumberland Plateau" (Scott County, Tennessee: National Park Service, 2011).
111. Des Jean and Hermann.

Livestock, crops, and household goods had been taken or destroyed. Animosities that had arisen between families were difficult to heal. The war also disrupted the supply chain of material goods into some parts of the region.

While some farmers were sufficiently isolated to avoid the pervasive guerilla raids, the farming community as a whole was part of an interdependent economy that was essentially put on hold for four years. Trade on the Cumberland River was halted due to the gunboats that cruised the river, preventing boatmen and raftmen from conducting transport.[112] Due to the presence of the gunboats, all of the commodities that passed through the Upper Cumberland, many of which were used and supplied by the region's farmers, became unavailable.

Although a few individuals benefitted economically through the sale of produce and resources, such as niter, which was needed for the war efforts, the major change to Southern society wrought by the Civil War—the cessation of slavery—had less of an impact on the region. Unlike the Southern coastal and Piedmont plantation systems, most subsistence-level farms of the Big South Fork did not rely on slave labor, and the number of residents who owned slaves was relatively low. Generally the arable land in the valleys and hollows could be sufficiently maintained by a family-based workforce. In fact, the soil was not as well suited to some of the labor-intensive crops that had benefitted from slave labor elsewhere, such as tobacco and cotton.

At the end of the Civil War, many newly freed African Americans left the region. The slaves of Confederates, and their families, were freed if they enrolled in labor battalions. Slaves also enlisted in the Union Army; it is believed that at least 23,000 slaves in Kentucky and 20,000 in Tennessee joined the Union Army, thereby securing their freedom. In March 1865, freedom was also extended to the wives and children of enlistees, significantly increasing the number of emancipated African Americans.

Because the war boards increased their enlisted efforts as the conflict continued, especially of slaves, many planters reportedly sent their slaves away to avoid their being recruited. Recruitment continued in Kentucky even after the war was over; because Kentucky had not seceded, it was not affected by the Emancipation Proclamation. In fall 1865, President Andrew Johnson estimated that approximately 65,000 of the 230,000 slaves listed in the 1860 census had still not been freed either through enlistment or emancipation. To rectify the situation, the rest were freed in December 1865 through ratification of the 13th Amendment, which notably occurred without Kentucky's support.

The Big South Fork region was not entirely devoid of military activities, however. On September 29, 1861, a skirmish occurred between the 1st Kentucky Cavalry, supported by members of the Union Kentucky Home Guard, and a group of Confederates based in Travisville, a town located within Pickett County, Tennessee. Possibly the first military engagement of the Civil War within the state of Tennessee, the exchange occurred when 100 encamped Confederates were surprised and dispersed by the Union soldiers. There were no reported casualties.

In August 1862, the Battle of Huntsville pitted Union Col. William Clift, and a band of loyalists from Scott and Morgan County authorized to "annoy the enemy's rear," against Confederate troops under the command of Capt. T. M. Nelson. Clift had established a Union base of operations in Huntsville, Tennessee, where he enlisted recruits for the 7th East Tennessee. He eventually mustered men from Scott, Morgan, and Fentress counties, including members of the Scott County Home Guard. During the summer of 1862, Clift directed mounted patrols to oversee activity within the Upper Cumberland Plateau, while he established a fortified base near the town. Confederate forces, determined to dispel these Union activities on enemy soil, were easily able to

112. Montell, 132–134.

overcome the fort, dispersing and capturing all of the Union troops. No casualties were reported.[113]

The Big South Fork region also witnessed troop movements, the most significant of which was the passage of some of the men under the command of Union Gen. Ambrose Burnside through the basin on their way to invade the Confederate forces at Knoxville, Tennessee. Burnside's approach occurred during the summer of 1863. In anticipation of his movements, Burnside engaged Union guerilla, Tinker Dave Beatty, to disrupt and spy on Confederate forces within the Big South Fork region. Also preceding Burnside was a force of 1,500 cavalry under the command of Col. William Sanders that rode through the Big South Fork area in June 1863, burning bridges and capturing Confederates.

In order to secure Knoxville, Burnside moved his 23rd Corps toward the city from various points in Kentucky between August 12 and 20, 1863. These troops were spread over a wide area and followed several routes to reach Knoxville, Tennessee. The troops moved in several columns. One of these traveled southward through Jamestown, while another went through the No Business Creek valley via the road from Monticello.[114] The column accompanying General Burnside generally followed the route of present-day U.S. Highway 27 south from Somerset, Kentucky. En route, they stopped in Oneida, where General Burnside is known to have established a headquarters at the home of Esquire Blevins. Burnside's troops subsequently split into two groups and crossed the river at New River, thereby traveling up Brimstone Creek toward the John Walker property, and at Low Gap. The two groups rejoined at Walker's bridge on Brimstone Creek. Burnside's account of his travel through the region noted that "the opposition of the enemy has been trifling [but] the natural obstacles have been very serious."[115] In order for the military contingent, including troops, support forces, wagons, and equipment, to pass through the rugged area, the soldiers were forced to widen and improve the roads over which they traveled.[116] The large numbers of soldiers passing through the area likely led to the loss of farm products and livestock, and destruction of property. The road widening, however, was likely of great benefit to local residents. In August 1863, Burnside's forces were able to capture the Confederate-held town of Knoxville. For more information on the effect of the Civil War on local life, see also Historic Context Five: Effects of War on the Big South Fork Region.

Evolving Settlement and Farming Practices (1865–1929)

Ongoing Farming Activities

The period between 1865 and 1929 proved to be full of dramatic changes that resulted in the overturning of old systems and orientations, and the beginning of outmigration from the Big South Fork Basin. Although traditional agricultural systems survive throughout this period, by the beginning of the twentieth century they had begun to decline. Many famers began to supplement their agricultural practices with wage labor or cottage industry for commercial sale, while others migrated to urban areas with factory jobs. The industrial activities that increased economic opportunity for local residents also served to diminish the land within the basin, contributing to soil erosion and contamination of the waterways. It was also during this period that tremendous advances in communication and transportation began to introduce new trade patterns and connect local residents with other communities and aspects of American culture. At the same time, these advances helped to shed light on the vast differences between the Big South Fork region and other areas of Kentucky and Tennessee, including

113. Michael R. O'Neal, "The Civil War on the Upper Cumberland Plateau in Tennessee" (Huntsville, Tennessee: Scott County Historical Society, 1982), 21–22.
114. John Muir, "Thrice Dead Dreary Town of Jamestown," *A Thousand-Mile Walk to the Gulf* (Boston, Massachusetts: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1916).
115. McBride and McBride, III-9, citing the Official Record, Series L, Vol. XXX: 261–262.
116. OR, Series I, col. 30, part 2, 544–566.

the unique culture of this part of Appalachia, contributing to the trend in outmigration.

After the Civil War, the Big South Fork region was slow to return to its former agricultural production levels. Although it is difficult to assess the full impact of the war on the area due to an absence of detailed records, residents frequently described the hardships resulting from the war, including a scarcity of money, salt, and food, and the losses they had sustained in numbers of livestock and crop production due to military appropriation, and foraging. Some formerly occupied lands had fallen into disuse or had been abandoned during and immediately after the Civil War. Land values were depressed; for example, post-bellum land in Scott County sold for as little as $2 an acre in the unimproved mountain areas. Conflicts over land ownership and titles continued to plague residents, contributing to a lack of economic development. Overall, most farms began to recover a few years after the war, as evidenced in comparing agricultural census records between 1860 and 1870. Tensions between residents who supported opposite sides of the conflict took longer to diffuse.

Despite the impact of the Civil War, population figures over the period between 1850 and 1880 nonetheless indicate healthy growth throughout the region. The population of Fentress County increased 33.4 percent, while Scott County grew 216 percent, over this thirty-year period. One of the advances that began to change life in the region was the establishment of the first rail line—the Cincinnati Southern Railroad—which opened in 1880 to the east of the basin and helped bring settlers into the area. Between 1880 and 1900, Scott County continued to attract the largest number of new residents, growing an additional 84 percent, while Whitley County to the east of Big South Fork in Kentucky grew exponentially by 109 percent. Both population increases were well above the state averages.

This ongoing period of early settlement of portions of the basin occurred relatively late in the history of the Eastern United States. Historian Paul Salstrom, author of *Appalachia's Path to Dependency: Rethinking a Region's Economic History, 1730–1940*, suggests that Big South Fork is located at the western edge of a region he refers to as Newer Appalachia.[117] Salstrom suggests that Newer Appalachia retained frontier conditions for a much longer period than Older Appalachia, which falls within the eastern part of the region. Remote areas such as Big South Fork that were not accessible to the growing railroad system sometimes continued to possess frontier conditions as late as 1920. As compared with Older Appalachia, which had experienced the trend of improved agriculture characteristic of a developing region that led to a decrease in farm size and a concurrent increase in overall improved land area by the mid-nineteenth century, Big South Fork did not begin the process in the late 1870s.

Within the Big South Fork region, the late nineteenth century witnessed the growth of two local towns due to the railroad: Oneida and Jamestown. In 1880 when the Cincinnati Southern Railroad first opened through the area, Oneida was composed of only a handful of dwellings. By 1921, the town had one wholesale and twenty retail stores, several lumber establishments, flour mills, a knitting mill, and wood-working plants. The development of the two spur rail lines that served the coal mining and timbering operations within the basin—the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad and the Oneida and Western Railroad—spurred growth in both Oneida and Jamestown when extended in the 1920s. By this time, these communities had improved greatly since the 1860s when naturalist John Muir visited Jamestown, describing it as a "poor, rickety, thrice-dead village . . . , an incredibly dreary place." His opinion of Montgomery, in Morgan County, was even worse: "a shabby village at the head of the east slope of the Cumberland Mountains."[118]

117. Paul Salstrom, *Appalachia's Path to Dependency: Rethinking a Region's Economic History, 1730–1940* (Lexington: University Press of Kentucky, 1997).
118. McBride and McBride, V-4, citing Muir, 30.

Between 1900 and 1930, the population within the Tennessee section of the basin continued to increase at a rate equal to or, as with Scott County, far beyond the average increase for their states. By 1930, the farm population represented 52.5 percent of the total population of Fentress County, 44.6 percent of Scott County, and 42.9 percent of McCreary County.[119] At the same time, the number of farms remained relatively stable, but decreased approximately 50 percent in average size. This trend suggests an increase in productivity resulting from mechanization and modernization.

During the 1870s and 1880s, extensive tracts of plateau land remained available for settlement. The governments of both Tennessee and Kentucky joined private entrepreneurs in actively promoting settlement within the region.

One of the best sources of information regarding the agricultural conditions at Big South Fork after the Civil War is an 1876 economic survey conducted by Joseph Buckner Killebrew as part of a report of the Bureau of Agriculture, Statistics, and Mines along the route of the Cincinnati and Southern Railroad. Killebrew noted extensive differences in soil productivity within the region, indicating that the more rugged and steeply sloped areas were suitable only for raising livestock. Killebrew noted that some areas of tableland were productive, such as that near the community of Wartburg: "A commissary department was set up and the vegetables exhibited, all grown in the county and on the table-land, were as fine as can be seen in any market. The cabbage showed large, compact heads, not excelled by any brought from the North. The onions and Irish potatoes also were unsurpassed by those grown in any country. The apples were plump, round, and large—many of them weighing fifteen ounces."[120]

Killebrew also characterized some of the region's soils as well suited to tobacco farming. At the same time, he noted that farmland in Scott County was cheap, albeit fraught with title problems. His assessment of the wide bottoms of Paunch Creek suggested the presence of "cold and clammy" soils, while those along White Oak Creek and Clear Fork were characterized as sandy and thin, requiring careful cultivation. He also suggested that local farmers faced problems in growing sufficient fodder for livestock for the winter, although many animals were easily supported during the summer months on the pastures at higher elevations. Corn was noted for its popularity as a staple crop; yields of 40 bushels per acre were recorded for some mountain land that had been deep-plowed and manured, as compared with 20 to 25 bushels per acre for some of the thinner soils on the sandy lands near Jamestown.[121]

It is likely that some of the very positive information presented by Killebrew reflected an attempt to attract new settlers. Similarly, review of newspaper accounts from the area during this period generally paint an optimistic image of the agricultural productivity of the region. Many of these accounts were intended to attract additional new residents.

In 1891, the Fentress County *Gazette* similarly promoted the agricultural bounty available to attract new settlers:

> Farmers, go to work on your farms and let cross ties and saw mills and public works go. There is more money in farming than in working on public works.
>
> The question is often asked "What can a person make on the mountain? That question can be answered easily. Any one that will work can make an independent living."
>
> The following is what J.S. Smith raised on one-quarter acre of ground: 3 bushels of beans, 2 bushels of corn, 28 bushels of potatoes, 25

119. Howell, 28.
120. McBride and McBride, V-15, citing Joseph Buckner Killebrew, *Mineral and Agricultural Resources of the Portion of Tennessee along the Cincinnati Southern and Knoxville and Ohio Railroads* (Nashville, Tennessee: Tavel, Eastman, and Howell, 1876), 82.
121. McBride and McBride, V-15, citing Killebrew, 85, 87–88.

> bushels of peaches, and one ton of grapes. The above was raised on upland.
>
> No one has a right to say that he cannot make a living on the mountain, with its many rich mines of minerals hidden beneath its soil.[122]

However, there remained challenges to encouraging further settlement. In 1879, a Tennessee geologist wrote: "This great Table, rising so boldly above the general level of the State, has always been a serious obstacle in the way of free intercourse between the eastern and middle portions of the State. Even now, no railroad crosses it in Tennessee. To pass from Knoxville to Nashville, it is necessary to make a great circuit to the south through Alabama."[123] Because most of the arable soil occurred in small, frequently inundated patches of floodplain along narrow creek valleys, settlement was limited. The soil of the plateau, as noted by the same geologist, was ". . . sandy, thin, and porous, and of little agricultural importance."[124] These conditions limited the Upper Cumberland Plateau's rural economy and its potential for growth.

Post-bellum agricultural production in the basin remained relatively consistent with the practices established prior to the Civil War. Most farmers continued to grow a variety of crops that primarily supported family needs. Subsistence farming continued to be practiced throughout the Big South Fork region of Kentucky and Tennessee.[125] Nearly all settlers in the Big South Fork region, even those practicing a skilled trade, continued farming as a way of providing raw materials for food and clothing.[126] The choice of crops grown often related to the heritage of the farmer, with Swiss and German immigrants tending to prefer rye and potatoes, staples of the European diet, over corn and beans.[127] Throughout the region, the farm animals and produce raised for food and feed included hogs, chickens, cattle, and geese; vegetables such as soybeans, beans, tomatoes, cabbage, potatoes, corn, onions, cucumbers, sweet potatoes, beets, okra, carrots, peas, lettuce, turnips, peppers, melons, and mustard; and grains such as corn, oats, and hay. Some farmers grew tobacco. Fruits included strawberries, apples, raspberries, blueberries, pears, peaches, and grapes. Sweeteners were developed from honey, maple sap, and sorghum molasses. Food was processed to preserve it beyond the growing season, using processes such as smoking, curing, canning, drying, and milling. Molasses was made using a mill composed of two metal rollers that acted like the old wringer type washing machine. Root crops were kept in root cellars and potato holes (Figure 21). Alcoholic beverages were made from apples, including cider, applejack, and apple brandy, as well as other fruits. Corn whiskey was produced following procedures similar to those used by the ancestors of the settlers hundreds of years earlier in the British Isles. Sweet mash whiskey was kept on hand for medicinal purposes, as a general tonic, and for hospitality. (Refer to Historic Context Two: Extractive and Manufacturing Industries, for further discussion of home manufacturing.)

122 McBride and McBride, V-16, citing Fentress County *Gazette,* December 24, 1891.

123. James M. Safford and J. B. Killebrew, *The Elementary Geology of Tennessee* (Nashville: Tavel, Eastman & Howell, 1879), 33.

124. Ibid.

125. Benita J. Howell, with contributions by Susan S. Duda and Robert B. Ticher. *A Survey of Folklife along the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River.* Report of Investigations No. 30, Department of Anthropology, (Knoxville: University of Tennessee, 1981), 34.

126. McBride and McBride, V-23–V-24.

127. Ibid., V-15.



FIGURE 21. A root cellar and storage building in Fentress County. Source: National Park Service.

Most residents built their own homes and outbuildings. Local vernacular architectural traditions included the log cabin and dog trot style dwellings. Wood was typically used for wall and roof construction, while stone was used for foundations and chimneys.

Many of the dwellings and farm outbuildings constructed within the Big South Fork Basin during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries reflect a common vernacular vocabulary that is distinctive and representative of the lifeways associated with sufficiency farming. In essence, local farm dwellings can be traced to the traditional I-house first developed in medieval Europe and later adapted by immigrants of German and Scotch-Irish descent in Pennsylvania and Virginia during the eighteenth century. The form was further adapted to suit the particular environmental needs of the basin.[128] The local vernacular architecture generally reflects an environmental consciousness, reliance on native materials, adaptable modularity, low-cost construction and maintenance practices, construction methods achievable using semi-skilled labor, and a rustic character.[129]

Characteristics of the local vernacular architecture include log and wood-frame construction, modest in scale and compact in plan, with minimal detailing. Log construction followed techniques brought to America by European immigrants and involved cornered-timbered walls made of hewn or unhewn timbers laid horizontally and notched to be fitted into alternating tiers at the corners of the building.[130] The Scotch-Irish extensively adopted this construction method when building their homes in the United States. Most buildings used a half dovetail notching method, although saddle notching and "V" notching also occurred. Half dovetail notching involves sloping the top side of the end of the log downward to the outside of the joint, leaving the wider remaining portion to the inside of the wall. Saddle notching uses a saddle-shaped depression near the end of the log on the top and/or the bottom side. "V" notching uses an inverted V shape in the top and bottom of the end of the log.[131] Frame structures employed either a box frame wall that involved the construction of a frame or studs or posts in each of the corners to which verticals planks were nailed, or balloon framing, involving the placement of a series of continuous studs that reach all the wall from the sill plate to the top plate to form a structure over which an exterior wall of planks is applied.

Building massing was simple and typically featured a rectangular box topped with a gable roof that has its ridge parallel to the long axis of the mass. Roofs were built at a pitch of 12 in 12, or sometimes slightly less steeply. Historically, roofs were covered with natural wood shingles, or iron oxide

128. Miller, Wihry & Lee, Inc., *Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area: Regional Vernacular Architecture supplement to the Master Plan* (Nashville, Tennessee, U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, 1979), 8.
129. Ibid., 51.
130. Steven K. Hutchinson, Ellen A. Dugan, and Richard S. Levy, *Inventory and Evaluation of Architectural and Engineering Resources of the Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, Tennessee and Kentucky* (Nashville, Tennessee: U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, February 25, 1982), 47.
131. Ibid., 48, from Terry G. Jordan, *Texas Log Buildings: A Folk Architecture* (Austin, Texas: University of Texas, 1978), 207-209.

painted tin. Some properties used a long shake or long shingle that overlapped in both directions, on the butt end and on one vertical side. Dormers were uncommon; when they existed, they were typically wall dormers.[132]

The original form of the rectangle, often a single-pen structure, is based on the dimensions of the bay—a unit of measure typical of English construction that is 16 feet in length and is called a rod. The single pen structure typically measured 22 by 16 feet, although these dimensions often varied in even increments, with 22 or 24 feet often being the largest dimension due to the ability of the builder to handle materials comfortably. The interiors were often lightly partitioned into two single story rooms, sometimes with a loft space above. Dwellings that were one room deep could be one, two, or more bays long, in a modular configuration. Over time, the single-pen structure typically grew through additions to accommodate larger family structure or to reflect increased means. Additions might include an entire new pen, or a simple shed, built to abut the main structure at right angles. Each addition featured its own roof, further contributing to the vernacular tradition of additive architecture.

Buildings were typically one-and-one-half stories in height, although some structures, particularly barns, could be two stories. Frame buildings were typically clad with clapboard or weathered board and batten siding. Foundations were typically individual piers or continuous structural elements, and were constructed of native stone, dressed or hewn, and piled dry or laid up with mortar. Chimneys were also associated with almost every dwelling, and were often placed in the gable end. These were often constructed of native sandstone, although brick was also sometimes used. Stone masonry was usually cut and dressed. A mud mortar was traditionally used. Hearths often featured one large cut lintel stone above the opening. The chimney might also include a decorative top course or corbelling.

Doors were often centered on the front wall, or displaced slightly toward the chimney end of the house in a German-influenced variation, and placed directly opposite a rear door. Fenestration was typically simple and sparse, albeit orderly and symmetrical, and set within the center of the bay or about a central door. Windows were typically double hung sash, and two over two, four over four, or less often six over six light. Buildings that reached a height of one-and-one-half stories or more typically displayed a pair of small windows above the porch roof on the main facade.

One of the key character-defining features of local vernacular architecture was the porch. These additions often extended the length of the front facade, and sometimes across more than one facade. Porches were an important part of the living space that bridged inside and outside. They offered a sense of unity to a building that may have witnessed several expansions and additions. The porch is a ubiquitous feature of houses within the region and is one of the most recognizable visual elements of local architecture. Porches are often shed forms and did not feature railings. They allowed for social intercourse, business discussions, gatherings, and other activities.

The saddlebag is one of the most prevalent house forms. In this configuration the dwelling exhibits a 1 x 4 bay, double parlor form. The front facade is balanced with two front doors flanked by two windows in a symmetrical arrangement. The saddlebag house is an evolutionary successor to the single-pen house. It was often formed by adding a second pen to the gable/chimney end of the original house. It employs the idea of the central fireplace used by British and German colonists.

The local expression of vernacular architecture in particular reflects a response to the natural environment of the region. As noted in the Miller, Wihry & Lee study of the vernacular architecture of the region:

> Site selection and orientation, the relationship between the building and the land contours, floor height above ground, foundation type, presence of porches, selection of materials and

132. Miller, Wihry & Lee, Inc., 25.

> landscaping are all influenced by concern for environmental forces. House site selection for any given acreage is based on natural and environmental consideration including ground formations, water table and runoff, wind direction, site slope, etc. Orientation is to the prevailing winds. Windows on opposite facades are positioned directly across from each other for direct ventilation. Porch roofs provide shade to block the high summer sun, yet permit penetration of low angle winter light.
>
> Site development almost invariably includes deciduous trees in close proximity to the structure, although only seldom are houses in rural areas located deep within woods. The use of local sandstone laid horizontally for piers, foundations, and chimneys gives the buildings a very strong relationship to the surrounding image of the natural environment.[133]

Regarding the setting of buildings and structures, the study also notes:

> The site of buildings is rarely level, occasionally on the top of a knoll, but more frequently on a gentle slope. On level sites, the first floor is rarely more than two steps above grade. Likewise, on sloping sites, access to the porch at the main entrance is not usually more than one or two steps up. . . . On steeper slopes, the main axis of the structure is usually parallel with the contour line, but on lesser slopes the axis is often perpendicular to the contour line. In the latter case this permits one end of the porch to be at ground level while the other may be as much as three to five feet above grade.
>
> Houses are often situated close to the main roads and have limited set-backs. The secondary approach roads are always narrow and normally yield to land contours. The approach frequently is located below the structure on sloping sites, giving the building a dominant silhouette against the land and sky. . . The yard serves as foreground and the one step up to a peripheral porch puts one well into the domain of the building. The porch thus becomes an interior space as much as an exterior space, and serves as the major, yet informal, circulation and gathering space of the building.[134]

Also, regarding the organization of farmsteads:

> Houses are usually situated with small outbuildings and cribs close by. Barns, however, are normally located at a distance. Groups of outbuildings are generally organized in a rough grid pattern with the siting of the house serving as the basis for alignment. Driveways penetrate into rear yards from one side of the main building. Beyond any rear yard, outbuildings are linked together by a network of direct, well-trodden paths.
>
> Structures close to the house are enclosed with fences to keep animals out. Gardens are common, normally near the main house. Decorative plantings are found but not as foundation plantings. The majority of garden space, however, is dedicated to vegetables and food for consumption.[135]

One surviving representative example of local vernacular architecture is the Oscar Blevins dwelling, which is a single pen, one-story log structure with a milled log addition that increases the size to a double pen. It features half dovetail joinery without trim or other detailing, a sandstone end chimney with mud mortar, sills set on a sandstone foundation, an interior puncheon floor (formed of logs with the upper side finished flat), and evidence of roof shakes. The Charit Creek Lodge, which has been extensively altered, still exhibits evidence of the original one-story, 1 x 2 bay saddlebag house with porches across the front and rear elevations, a central cut stone chimney, and board and batten siding. The Litton/Slaven dwelling features a combination of half dovetail and saddle notching in its single-pen log construction, and German influence in the off-center placement of the front door. The Lora Blevins House is also a double-pen structure.

Other architectural resources found within the basin include barns and outbuildings. The term barn is derived from a word meaning "barley house," relating to the traditional use of barns as

133. Ibid., 17.
134. Ibid., 34.
135. Ibid., 28–29.

granaries rather than for stabling of livestock. Storage and stabling were not combined under a single roof until the late eighteenth or early nineteenth centuries.[136] Many barns and crib-style outbuildings located within the Big South Fork Basin retain this separation of function. Although single crib barns were present in the area, most were double crib. Barns were normally two bays wide with a central aisle or driveway and flanking cribs. Additions were often added as parallel extensions rather than a perpendicular attachment. Roofs were frequently shed form. Ridges were built to project over the openings into loft areas, with open sheathing under the eaves for ventilation. Walls were formed of vertical boards, often without battens, or in a diagonal or chevron pattern—although log barns were also built at many farms. The joinery in barn construction was typically very rudimentary.[137] The four-crib barn includes four square or rectangular rooms, one at each corner of a square floor plan. Each room is separated from the others by an accessway for farm equipment running gable end to gable end and another extending side to side. A roof covers the entire structure, with gables facing the front and rear. The four-crib barn as an outbuilding type is thought to have originated along the Cumberland and Obey rivers in northeastern Tennessee.[138]

The side-opening English barn, of log or frame construction, was also built within the area. It was two or more rooms deep and two or more rooms wide, with an accessway opening situated on the side rather than the gable end. It featured two stabling areas located across the accessway from each other. It featured an open hay loft at the second level on each side, and doors to close off the accessway, with smaller doors leading into the stables. This barn type is relatively rare in Kentucky.[139]

Additional outbuildings were built as cribs, or free-standing structures often built of logs with half dovetail joinery. These buildings reflect a strongly European design form. They exhibit low eaves, with one end of the gable roof cantilevered out over the entrance by extending the top logs on either side beyond the end wall. The rafters, purlins, and shakes are also carried out to the edge of the cantilever to provide a covered work space.[140] Some included accessways.

Surviving examples of outbuildings located within the basin include a single-pen corn crib and double crib barn at the Lora Blevins Farmstead; the latter is a front-opening, one-story, corner-timbered building with a loft and a central driveway. Other examples include an English barn and single pen shed at the Litton/Slaven Farmstead, and a four crib barn, single crib smithy, and corn crib at the Charit Creek Lodge Complex.

In addition to building houses, barns, and outbuildings from local materials, residents also fabricated much of their clothing and household goods. Tools were often made by hand, as were household equipment needs such as butter churns, gristmills, sleds, riving boards, and notching up logs. Textile manufacture involved raising sheep and growing fiber crops such as flax and cotton. The fiber was processed, spun into thread or yarn, and woven into cloth or used in knitting. While the women provided for the family's textile needs, the men tanned hides for the leather used to make tack for their draft animals as well as shoes for the family. Local residents also made their own lye soap by dripping water through an oak hopper full of fireplace ashes.[141]

136. Hutchinson, Dugan, and Levy, 55, from Jordan, 161.
137. Miller, Wihry & Lee, Inc., 43.
138. Hutchinson, Dugan, and Levy, 58, from William Lynwood Montell and Michael Lynn Morse, *Kentucky Folk Architecture* (Lexington, Kentucky: University Press of Kentucky, 1976), 68.
139. Hutchinson, Dugan, and Levy, 60, from Montell and Morse, 76.
140. Miller, Wihry & Lee, Inc., 45.
141. Howell et al. (1981), 46–56.

Farming communities typically consisted of family-owned homesteads clustered into dispersed settlements around the churches, general stores, and one-room schoolhouses that served them. Three stores were present along No Business Creek and Station Camp Creek community roads by the late nineteenth century, two at No Business and one at Station Camp. The stores at No Business were run by different groups of people, at different time periods. One store was in operation before 1909 and was owned by Lewis Burke. It was located near the Will "Ike" Smith and Harve Slaven House. The store was described as being a small plank residence that included a small store and post office known as Elva, Tennessee. When Lewis Burke died in 1909, France and John Miller relocated the store to the Jonathon Burke/France Miller place located approximately four tenths of a mile west of the river. The post office was also moved to the new location.[142] A second store was located near the mouth of Station Camp Creek. It was owned and operated by Cal Smith until the 1920s when he moved to Oklahoma. It was during Smith's ownership of the store, or shortly after Ike King bought it, that the post office was moved from France Miller's store on No Business to the store at Station Camp. This is where the Elva, Tennessee post office was located until 1930s. The third store was located approximately one and one half miles farther west along No Business Creek. It was owned and operated by Nimrod Slaven up until the 1920s. The stores typically carried coffee, salt, candy, school supplies, flour, meal, canned goods, hardware items, plow points, and horseshoes. Local farmers could sell or trade items such as chestnuts, eggs, medicinal herbs, and wool in the stores.[143]

Other business activities within the gorge included gunpowder manufacture, blacksmithing, and milling.[144] Some residents also made furniture, leather products, and moonshine. On No Business, Dewey Sweet had a blacksmith shop located approximately two miles west of the river. At Station Camp, John "Jack" Blevins operated a blacksmith shop at the present site of the Charit Creek Lodge Complex during the early twentieth century.

There are thought to have been at least eight mills located within short distances of the people living in No Business and Station Camp. Jean Burke, a descendent of Jonathon Burke, stated that the first gristmills in Scott County were established by Armpstend Blevins, who owned mills at Station Camp, Rock Creek, along the Big South Fork, and on Parch Corn Creek. A mill may also have occupied the margins of Tackett Creek. Another mill was later established on Station Camp Creek, two miles from the Big South Fork River, that was owned and operated by Wesley Owens. After the Owens moves from Station Camp, Jacob Blevins, Jr. ran a mill at the same place. Also during the early twentieth century, Slade Blevins operated a mill on Station Camp Creek approximately three fourths of a mile from the river. France Miller, along with his son Will J. Miller established a mill approximately one tenth of a mile west of the river and approximately two-tenths mile upstream in the No Business Creek during the same time period.[145]

The first sawmill was built in the area after 1918. It was a small privately owned mill located 1.7 miles west of the river, on No Business Creek. The owner and operator was Bert Wells, who also operated a boarding house at the site. The house was built in 1918 by John Cal Slaven who had received lumber from a sawmill established near Bandy Creek, by Dumps Taylor from Jamestown.[146]

The first school at Station Camp was a log structure located approximately 3.7 miles southwest of Big South Fork River, and on the southeast side of Station Camp Creek. The school was moved in 1929 to a new location immediately across the creek from the old school site, although the land had to first be leased from the Stearns Company. The lease gave the county rights to one acre of land to be used as long as the school was in

142. Humphrey, 27.
143. Humphrey, 28.
144. Ibid., 29.
145. Humphrey, 29.
146. Humphrey, 29.

operation, and upon its discontinuation of use would once again be returned to Stearns. Later the school was moved near the mouth of Station Camp Creek where it was destroyed by a flood. The school was again moved to a site of much higher ground, approximately one tenth mile west of the river at some time during the 1930s. The school remained in operation here until the 1960s.[147] The school also housed the New Zion Baptist Church for a time.

Communities were typically defined by the terrain, including the narrow stream valleys edged by mountain ridges that otherwise hindered travel and limited communication and interaction with other communities.[148] As families expanded, children often settled near their parents, and married neighbors. The resulting communities were thus often closely knit socially as well as economically. Communities often held "workings," or social events organized around a communal farm task such as land clearing, barn building, house building, corn husking, bean shelling, or molasses making.[149] These events often featured food preparation and a celebratory atmosphere, and were as much a part of the social fabric of the community as they were important to household needs. Illness, marriage, birth, and death were occasions that united the community. Residents offered support to those in need, including herbal home remedies, care giving, celebrations, and grieving ceremonies. The assistance of community midwives, herbalists, and caregivers was typically preferred over that of trained doctors, even after professional medical staff were introduced as part of the company towns established in the region to support industrial activities and mineral extraction by outside companies.[150]

One historian, Albert Hogue, wrote about Allardt:

> The soil of the county is unusually fertile, and produces good crops without the use of fertilizers. All the cereals and legumes have been produced successfully on the plateau. The Germans at Allardt have demonstrated this land to be suited for horticulture as well as general farming. One of the great natural advantages of the plateau is the fine wild grass which grows so abundantly during the spring and summer. Twenty-five thousand head of cattle could be fattened on this range every summer.[151]

Around the turn of the twentieth century, agricultural production shifted from subsistence farming to specialized commercial production, especially in communities located along the rail lines. Corn and potatoes were considered relatively dependable cash crops. Livestock, particularly cattle, could be transported to markets and slaughterhouses via railways.[152] Production of other commercially viable crops such as tobacco also increased. As farmers began to grow crops that could be sold for cash, the cultivation of some earlier household staples, such as rye, and the raising of livestock such as sheep and hogs, rapidly declined.

Despite the increase in commercial farming and specialization, produce-based barter and exchange continued within the Big South Fork Basin well into the twentieth century. For example, one merchant in Jamestown advertised in 1899 that he was still accepting a variety of produce in return for his store goods:

> All sorts of produce taken in exchange for goods and given good prices. Wool, 28 cents per pound, feathers, 40 cents, beeswax, 23 cents, eggs, 8-1/3 cents, corn 70 cents, oats, 40 cents, Irish potatoes, 85 cents.[153]

147. Humphrey, 36.
148. Ibid., 157.
149. Ibid., 159.
150. Ibid., 162–168.
151 McBride and McBride, V-16, citing Albert R. Hogue, *History of Fentress County,*(Baltimore, Maryland: Regional Publishing Company, 1916, preprinted 1975), 5.
152. Ibid., V-18.
153. Ibid., V-17, citing Fentress County *Gazette,* May 27, 1899.

During the early twentieth century, farmers also began more concerted home production of alcoholic beverages using various food crops. For residents of remote areas, whiskey and other alcohols increased the market value and reduced the bulk of their agricultural product, making them easier and cheaper to transport, and ostensibly more profitable.[154]

In many parts of the region, soil depletion had become a recognized problem by the early twentieth century, but was likely prevalent throughout the region. Lime was one of the soil amendments used by farmers to reestablish tilth and fertility to their lands. The demand for lime by farmers was noted in the August 31, 1893, Allardt *Gazette*, while a local store in Allardt advertised in 1899 that it had "lots of fertilizer, best grade, sells by the bag."[155]

A natural fertilizer and soil amendment was identified by local farmers in the deposits located in the rock shelters at the base of the cliff walls. Although Hogue indicated in 1916 that most farmers did not need to use fertilizer, he also mentioned the practice of robbing of rich soils from rock shelters for just this purpose. Other accounts also indicate the practice:

> Just now there is quite an excitement created at a rock house on Winfield Howard's place, about 7 miles south of Deer Lodge. Mr. Howard has been taking fertilizer out of this rock house for the last 6 years, and has taken out over 200 wagon loads this fall. When he had dug down 4 feet he came upon 15 skeletons, one a giant who was over 8 feet tall. Mr. J.S. Hodge left a skull and an under jaw at this office in a good state of preservation, and he says that they went 50 feet further down the creek and found just as good fertilizer as that where the skeletons were found. Mr. J.M. Good writes us that he visited this famous mine of fertilizer on Clear Creek, and says it is under a rock about 100 feet long and covers a room about 20 feet wide, and that it was discovered about 10 years ago. The fertilizer looks like ashes when it is dry, and it is as good as stable manure. They have found the skeletons of two children that were not done cutting their teeth. They found coals and cinders all through this mass. How deep it is no one knows. Parties are trying to buy the property, but Mr. Howard refuses to sell.[156]

Removal of these deposits has likely affected the archeological information potential of the rock shelters, which are known to have been the focus of cultural activities since before recorded history in the region.

The late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries initiated a period of great interest in physical improvement, inventions, mechanization, and other progressive farming activities. Several new inventions were introduced during this era that greatly improved the lifestyle of the farming family. Barbed wire fencing allowed livestock to graze in close proximity to crops, home canning allowed for better preservation of food, and mechanized farm equipment made the cultivation of farmland more efficient. Due to the expense of this equipment, some communities pooled their money to purchase the new equipment and share its use.[157]

The place where these new improvements offered the best hope for enhanced agricultural production was on the plateau, where mechanized farm equipment, commercial fertilizers, and other available soil amendments could be used to realize improvements in productivity. As early as 1910, families began to relocate to the plateau. Grasses grew abundantly on the plateau, providing ample fodder for livestock. The railroads could be used to transport cattle and other farm products more easily to markets. It was during this time that Allardt, Sunbright, and Wartburg became commercial producers of potatoes and corn.

The use of fertilizers and other soil amendments remained an important topic of interest to local farmers well into the twentieth century, as evidenced in a farmers' meeting held in Wartburg in 1917 where one of the main topics was the

154. Ibid., V -19–20.
155. Ibid., V-16, citing Fentress County *Gazette*, May 27, 1899.
156. Ibid., V-17, from Deer Lodge *Enterprise*.
157. Ibid., V-17.

liming of soil and its effects on small grain crops. During the twentieth century, the formation of groups and organizations to share farming methods and other information became increasingly popular. Throughout the 1910s and 1920s, local crop and livestock associations were also formed, underscoring the commercialization of the farming industry. These groups consisted of cooperatives of local farmers that could then purchase large quantities of raw materials at a reduced price; provide technical assistance and labor; and promote, market, and sell goods in large urban centers.[158]

Supporting these improvements were local governmental efforts, such as the establishment of county agricultural extension offices and agents. Equipment, such as threshing machines, became increasingly available during the first decades of the twentieth century. However, many farmers continued to practice traditional techniques, both due to custom and economic conditions. An agricultural extension agent for Morgan County complained in 1917 that there were only two or three threshing machines in Morgan and Scott counties and no wheat mills. Mechanization eventually did lead to a decline in the use of work animals such as oxen and horses.

Agricultural advertisements and feature stories in local newspapers suggest the types of improvements adopted during the early twentieth century, including chicken, dairy, and milk house design, and fencing techniques. Home canning equipment improvements were also highlighted. The Fentress County newspaper carried an advertisement for a home canner made by the Phillips and Butterff Manufacturing Company in Nashville, while articles appeared that noted the strong demand for glass canning jars, brought in by train to "meet the inexorable demand of our thrift housewives."[159] According to local historians, glass canning jars were not available in the area, however, until the end of the nineteenth century.

Government concerns regarding food production and efficiency and labor shortages that resulted in an inability of some farmers to harvest their crops, possibly relating to the effects of World War I, appear in reports prepared by the Emergency Demonstration Agent in 1917 and 1918.[160]

Despite the early evidence of outmigration, and the beginning of a shift to commercial farming of plateauland, the number of farmsteads in the Big South Fork gorge remained the same.[161] Many farming families continued to maintain a farmstead within the community to which they had ties, even as they shifted to a combination of part-time farming and wage labor. Farms located in more isolated parts of the region, especially continued to practice subsistence farming (Figure 22 through Figure 32). By 1930, 86 percent of local farms were identified as either self-sufficient or part-time.[162] Although the number of farmsteads remained stable, their size and configuration began to change. The amount of acreage in cultivation slowly increased, reducing the area of forested land. The majority of the cultivated land was located in Kentucky, where the terrain was less rugged and more suitable to crop farming.[163] In addition to the increased amount of acreage in cultivation, the average size of the farmstead declined to approximately 20 percent of its size in 1850, from 500 acres in 1850 to just 100 acres by 1900.[164]

Trends in agriculture, industry, and urbanization affected the structure of families who stayed in the region. With an increase in commercial logging and mining, residents became more mobile, following the availability of wage work, resulting in increasingly complex households. Many households took on boarders who worked for the logging and mining companies, while family

158. Ibid., V-19.
159. Ibid., V-17, citing Fentress County *Gazette,* no date cited.
160. Ibid., V-17, citing Ethel Freytag and Glena Kreis Ott, *A History of Morgan County, Tennessee* (Specialty Printing Company, 1970), 232–236.
161. Howell, 39.
162. Ibid., 42.
163. McBride and McBride, V-20–V-22.
164. Howell, 39.

members sometimes lived away from home for prolonged periods of time.

Another evolving trend in American culture that began to influence the character and composition of local farm communities was urbanization. The period between 1865 and 1929 was one of great urbanization throughout the United States, although the pace was slower in Kentucky and Tennessee than many parts of the country. Initial urban growth occurred in response to a migration of African Americans to cities to escape sharecropping and other examples of discrimination in the farming realm. Later, increases in manufacturing and commercial opportunities drew European-Americans to urban areas as well. By the second quarter of the twentieth century, factories and concentrated industrial complexes, such as the automobile manufacturing regions of Michigan and Ohio, began to draw residents from rural Kentucky and Tennessee. In many cases, family members and other acquaintances often settled nearby one another, forming distinct Appalachian neighborhoods.



FIGURE 22. The Garrett Store (formerly Hickory Ridge School) at Goad. Source: National Park Service.

FIGURE 23. Beech Grove Baptist Church school building, McCreary County. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 24. The Sewell house, a modified log home, on the Loudin property, Fentress County. Source: National Park Service.

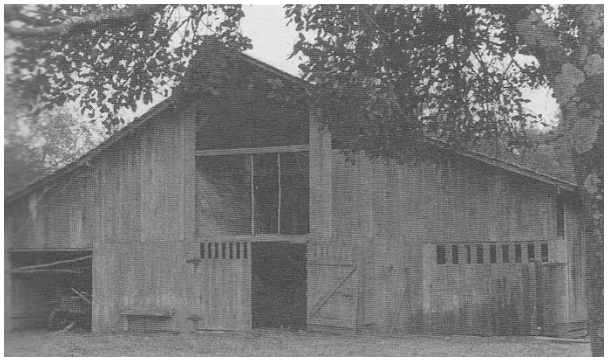


FIGURE 25. Oscar Blevins barn constructed in 1963. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 26. A typical tenant house, Fentress County. Source: National Park Service.

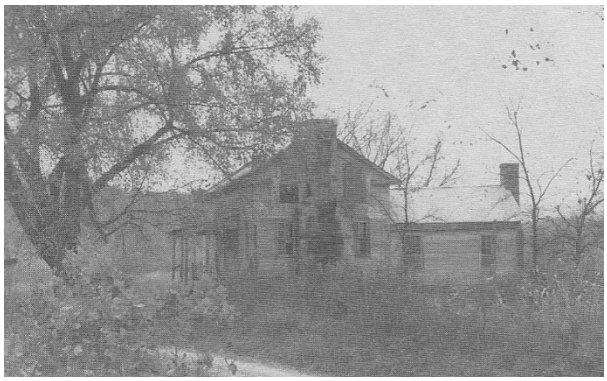


FIGURE 27. An I-house with an ell addition in Wayne County. Source: National Park Service.

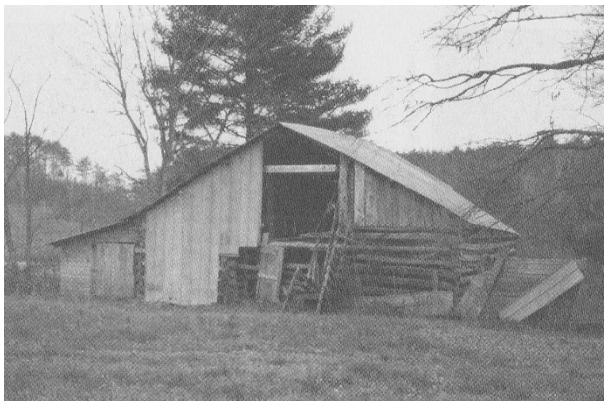


FIGURE 28. A twentieth century barn on the Alfred King property. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 29. A sorghum machine. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 30. The William Peter Tapley house in McCreary County. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 31. The smokehouse behind the William Peter Tapley house. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 32. An undated photo of a farmer loading hay. Source: National Park Service.

No Business Creek, Station Camp Creek, and Parch Corn Creek Communities

Three of the most remote communities of the Big South Fork gorge were No Business Creek, Station Camp Creek, and Parch Corn Creek. All were located along tributaries to the west of the river in northeastern Tennessee. With rugged terrain and a lack of good roads, these communities revolved around subsistence-level farming. Data derived from the 1870 U.S. census suggests that the more than forty farms associated with these communities relied heavily on corn, but also planting oats, rye, wheat, and sorghum. Irish and sweet potatoes were also staple food crops, and maple syrup an important forest product.

The farms at No Business, Station Camp, and Parch Corn creeks also relied to a great degree on hogs as a food source (Figure 33). Hogs were listed on the census for all but one of the farms identified in the 1870 census. Most farms also maintained at least one horse, while twelve had working oxen. Milk cows were a part of most farms, yielding high levels of butter production. Sheep were common, and many farms were listed as yielding wool products in the census. Because the census does not indicate hay or other fodder crops as part of these farms, it is likely that livestock were left to forage freely on forest mast and grasses that were promoted through human-set ground fire. Many farms in the area maintained fenced kitchen gardens and house precinct yards to exclude free ranging livestock, marked for identification. Cultivated fields were also fenced. Free range grazing typically resulted in a cleared forest understory, creating a relatively open landscape that also facilitated travel. The fields and woods were typically burned by farmers in the fall or winter to rid them of weeds and provide improved pasturage in the spring. Locally raised livestock appear to have grazed over large spans of land. One Morgan County farmer, for example, maintained more than 500 hogs, which were scattered in the woods of Morgan, Fentress, and Cumberland counties. To round them up, he is said to have attracted them to feeding stations with corn. Most farmers used corn feed sparingly, believing that hogs fattened on mast were better tasting.

Free ranging of livestock continued to occur well into the twentieth century, until Tennessee finally passed a fence law in 1947 under which all stock were to be fenced except in the summer, and then under the care of a herdsman.[165]



FIGURE 33. E. Todd dressing a hog, Scott County farm, 1932. Source: Tennessee State Library and Archives.

165. Ronald W. Todd, "Tennessee Fencing and Animal Restraint Laws" (Knoxville, Tennessee: University of Tennessee Agricultural Experiment Station, July 1, 1980), 2.

The most prevalent fence types used in the area included worm rail for fields and paling or picket fences for dwelling precincts and kitchen gardens. However, beginning in the 1870s, barbed wire became increasingly available, contributing to an expansion of fencing styles. Paling fences, originally built upon a wood frame, were often subsequently reinforced with wire to increase the strength of the structure (Figure 34 and Figure 35).



FIGURE 34. E. and F. Todd alongside a paling fence, Scott County, circa 1926. Source: Tennessee State Library and Archives.



FIGURE 35. Photo of Hicks family and farmstead with paling fence around house precinct visible, 1917. Source: National Park Service.

Rock shelters continued to be used for storage and shelter, including residences, schoolhouses, temporary cover for events such as graveside services during inclement weather, stock pens, household storage areas, laundry houses, hideaways for moonshine stills and scouting outlaws, and camping quarters for hunting and fishing trips.

Residents continued to hunt deer until the late nineteenth century, when the native deer population was wiped out by overhunting, loss of habitat, and a disease known as hemorrhagic fever. Residents also hunted rabbit, squirrel, raccoon, woodchuck or groundhog, and wild turkey. Turkey were extirpated from the area in the 1970s due to overhunting (Figure 36). Deer have since recovered from the severe reduction in population, and several other species of animals have been reintroduced by the National Park Service and State of Tennessee or protected from hunting and have repopulated the region, including turkey, bear, river otter, and muskellunge.

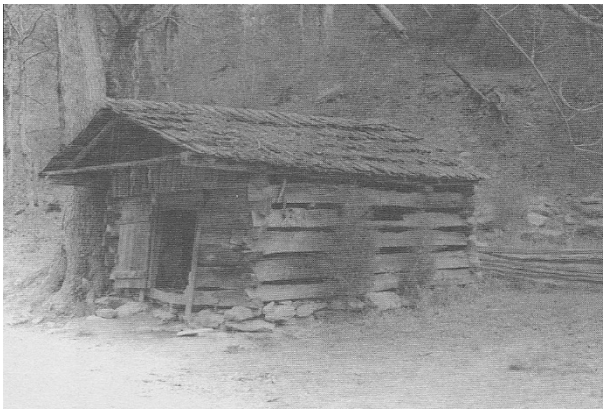


FIGURE 36. An old blacksmith shop at the Parch Corn Hunting Camp. Source: National Park Service.

The agricultural communities of No Business, Station Camp, and Parch Corn creeks appear to have retained a higher percentage of standard family households, composed of a couple and their children without any extra persons, than many of the other parts of the region where industrial towns and communities were established. Despite the increasing availability of new farming technology and methods, the rugged terrain, relatively poverty, and independent outlook of the residents limited the degree to which they were adopted within the gorge.

Features of these communities included family cemeteries, such as the Owens Cemetery, associated with the late-nineteenth century farm (that also included a grist mill) located in the bottoms just west of the junction of Station Camp and Laurel Fork creek. Eight graves dating from 1888 to 1903 are situated on a small bench

overlooking the family home site.[166] A cemetery with nine graves is also associated with the Charit Creek property near Station Camp Creek. Those buried in the cemetery include Jonathon Burke and William Riley Hatfield. Near Parch Corn Creek is the cemetery where Ransom Boyatt is buried, along with five others. Churches were also present within these communities. Baptisms were performed in the river or the creeks (Figure 37).



FIGURE 37. An undated photo of a group of individuals being baptized near Leatherwood Ford. Source: National Park Service.

Even within the gorge, the remote communities of No Business, Station Camp, and Parch Corn creeks were affected by the industrial activities of outside companies. After 1910, as logging and mining activities increased, local households slowly became more varied to include boarders and extended family who chose to move to the area to take advantage of available wage labor. Although some residents listed work with the railroads, subsistence-level farming remained the predominant activity of most people living at No Business and Station Camp Creek.

Mining and Timbering

During the late nineteenth century, growth of mining and timbering industries, expansion of railroads into the area, and innovations in farming technology led to a shift in the lifestyle of local farmers. After the construction of the Cincinnati Southern Railway to the east of the gorge in 1880, companies based outside the area began to purchase land and mineral rights and extract coal, other mineral deposits, and timber within the region. The railroad provided a route and avenue for trade to other regions and linked the settlers to more distant population centers, while also increasing county tax revenues.[167] The Stearns Company purchased a majority of the land within the gorge during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Following a map made in 1889 referred to as the Big Survey, the Stearns Company acquired 20,000 acres in Scott and Fentress counties in Tennessee. Stearns leased the land it acquired in areas such as Station Camp and No Business. Leasing land involved a contract in which one dollar and "other consideration" would be given in exchange for the use of the property. Typically a cabin and a fenced enclosure were required to retain the lease and rights given by it.[168]

Stearns did not use the land within the gorge until it began logging operations there in the 1940s. Large tracts of timber, including pine, beech, sugar maple, oak, and hickory, were soon cut using oxen and mules, along with a lot of strong men, who helped to cut and transport timber out to railroad access points or the river where they could be floated downstream towards Stearns, Kentucky. Many of the logs from No Business would be taken up the road leading to Terry Cemetery, where they would be loaded onto train cars and taken to Stearns.[169]

Many residents sought employment with the companies that set up extraction sites and operational bases, which sometimes involved the creation of entire towns. Farmers began to divide their time between their farms and outside wage labor, which sometimes entailed traveling numerous miles per day to the work site. Company towns, such as Barthell, Worley, and Zenith, housed some of the labor force engaged in the mining and timbering work.

These towns were similar to farm settlements in that they provided community-like amenities, such as churches, general stores, and schools for the

166 Tom Des Jean, unpublished manuscript "Cemeteries of the Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area.

167. Howell et al. (1981), 35.
168. Humphrey, 31-32.
169. Humphrey, 32.

workers and their families, as well as the bonds associated with a common type of work and place of residence.[170] At the same time, company towns lacked the close-knit social establishment of the cooperative farming settlements, opportunities for land ownership, and kinship and shared history. They also tended to attract a transient work force composed of a high percentage of immigrants.[171] (See also Historic Context Two: Extractive and Manufacturing Industries.)

Despite the increased availability of wage work, farmers continued to maintain their cultivated land holdings for at least part of each year. The 1930 census suggests this trend, as 86 percent of all farms in the Tennessee section of the region are classified as either "self-sufficing" or "part-time." The term "self-sufficing," applied to approximately 62 percent of the farms, was defined as properties where the family used 50 percent or more of the farm products produced. Part-time farms were defined as properties where the farmer spent 150 or more days working elsewhere. Part-time farms were primarily associated with supplying the food needs of the farm family; in 1930, farmers in Scott, Fentress, and McCreary counties were listed as consuming two-thirds of their farm products, with the other one-third—primarily livestock and livestock-based products—being sold or traded. Self-sufficient farms were most numerous in Fentress County, with 24 percent of the total number of farms listed in the county identified as part-time. Thus, while wage work became an important supplementary source of income for many non-commercial farmers, the local farms continued to be an important part of the economy.

Local Residents

Review of census data and other documentation suggests the names and activities of many area residents during this period.

Jacob Blevins, grandson of Jonathan and son of Jacob, and his wife Viannah were married in 1884 and acquired land at the forks of Station Camp Creek from Absalom Smith's heirs in 1891. They may have built a house in this vicinity. Jacob's brother, John B. Blevins, also owned land at the forks of Station Camp in the 1890s. Oral history suggests that John B. Blevins lived at Charit Creek lodge. Jake Blevins, grandson of Jonathan and son of Armpstead, and his wife Cordelia King Blevins, lived on Parch Corn Creek in a house built in 1881. Jake's brother, Shade Blevins, moved to the property previously owned by Anderson Smith on Laurel Fork in the 1890s or early 1900s. Another brother, W. Houstan Blevins, and his wife Rosa, lived around this time on Parch Corn in the Armpstead Blevins house. Harvey and Poppy Blevins lived on the Big South Fork near the mouth of Station Camp Creek.

In the late 1890s, Francis Miller, known as France, and his wife Elizabeth built a log house on No Business Creek. Later they built an addition to this structure using logs from the Jonathan Burke cabin, which they purchased, dismantled, and floated downstream to No Business Creek. Francis Miller built a wood-framed store next to his house at No Business later in the early twentieth century. Jonathan Burke and his son Peter had lived in Burke's cabin until Jonathan's death in 1875. He is buried at Charit Creek. Peter Burke and his family, including his mother Nancy Cooper Burke and his brother Hayden, subsequently moved in five wagons to the South Canadian, Choctaw nation, Indian Territory in Oklahoma. George Pennington purchased the house before selling it to Francis Miller.

Other late-nineteenth-century residents include Cal and Rose Terry who lived between Parch Corn and No Business creeks, Elijha and Emily King at Station Camp Ford, and Harvey Slaven and Sarah P. Slaven on Station Camp Creek.

170. Ibid., 157.

171. Ibid., 158.

Community Development, Including Utopian Agricultural Communities and Resorts

Following the Civil War, with many farms abandoned or diminished, the Kentucky Industrial and Immigration Association was established in Louisville, Kentucky, in 1880 to encourage immigration to the area. Despite their efforts, only 3,500 people immigrated to the state and proportionally fewer to the Big South Fork region.[172] Many of the original settlers along the Big South Fork River were of English or Scotch-Irish decent, who were fearful of immigrants introducing new practices and radical behavior or diluting the strong existing cultural identity.[173] Following the failure of these initial attempts to encourage immigration to the region, the Kentucky State Immigration Board introduced a more practical approach to attracting immigrants by directing efforts towards the establishment of colonies of immigrant farmers, rather than general immigration. Between 1880 and 1887, when the immigration board was disbanded due to a lack of funds, numerous English, Swiss, and German colonies were established throughout the Big South Fork region, adding to the earlier communities of Wartburg and Brynffynon. As with many part of the United States, new settlers during the late nineteenth century were European immigrants seeking asylum from conditions within their own countries, or opportunities for land ownership. The agricultural lifestyle of the region was particularly attractive to these immigrants.

The new colonies were typically rooted in an agricultural economy and included Rugby, Allardt, Armathwaite, and Deer Lodge in Morgan, Fentress, and Scott counties, Tennessee; Bernstadt, East Bernstadt, Strassburg, and Langnau in Laurel County; Saaner, Lutherheim, and Highland in Lincoln County; New Austria in Boyle County; Templar Springs in Edmonson County; and other smaller colonies in Christian and Lyon Counties.[174] Advertisements for these communities promoted the mild climate, healthy environmental conditions, and aesthetic values of the area.[175] They were often funded by outside capital, including that provided by the companies that entered the region to establish industrial and mineral extraction enterprises.[176] Of these, the communities most closely associated with the Big South Fork gorge were Rugby, Deer Lodge, Allardt, and Wartburg.

Rugby. One of these colonies established as part of this trend was the community of Rugby, Tennessee, established in the 1880s within the 100,000-acre land holding previously associated with Brynffynon, although not on the same site. Financed by wealthy English socialist Thomas Hughes, the colony was designed to allow the second and subsequent sons of English gentry, who would otherwise not inherit land due to the common practice of primogeniture, to benefit from farming in the United States. Advertisements for the colony dating from the 1880s suggested that there were also health advantages associated with life in northeastern Tennessee.

Rugby was an agricultural cooperative community shaped by the socialist principles of shared wealth and ownership. Colonists bought shares in the local commissary, ran cooperative businesses, and managed local amenities such as the library, hotel, and community green spaces and recreational areas (Figure 38 and Figure 39). The colony received national publicity for its novel approach to community development but experienced financial difficulties soon after its establishment due to problems with land titles and the inexperience of colonists in agricultural matters.[177] This outcome is consistent with that of many Utopian communities designed as a collective. The reluctance of the gentry to participate in active farming and other manual labor efforts deemed better suited to a serving class also played a significant factor in Rugby's failure. Rugby

172. McBride, V-5, citing Samuel Bradley Traughber, *Kentucky and the Immigrant, 1865–1892* (Lexington, Kentucky: M.A. Thesis, University of Kentucky, 1942).
173. Ibid., V-5.
174. Ibid., V-5.
175. Ibid., V-5, V-14.
176. Howell et al. (1981), 2.
177. McBride and McBride, V-18–V-19.

reached a maximum population of 450 in the late 1880s, but soon dwindled to a handful of residents by 1900. Many of the colonists, not prepared for the rural agricultural life, moved to the urban centers of Chattanooga and Knoxville, while a few married into the local population.[178] Today, Rugby is a preserved historic town that offers food, lodging, and other tourism amenities.

As a result of the initial success of Rugby, numerous other English and Welsh communities—such as Deer Lodge—were established throughout the region during the 1880s.

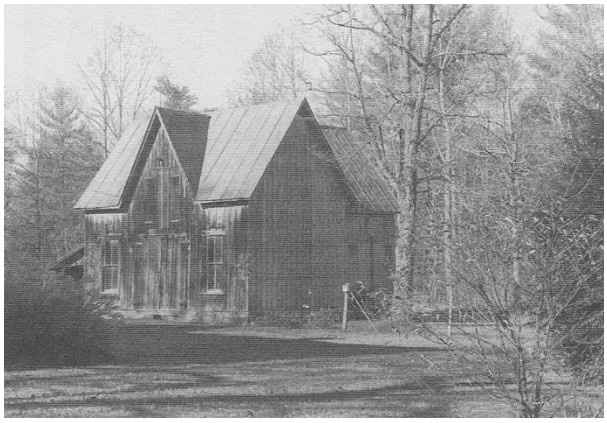


FIGURE 38. A barn in Rugby, Morgan County, Tennessee. Source: National Park Service.

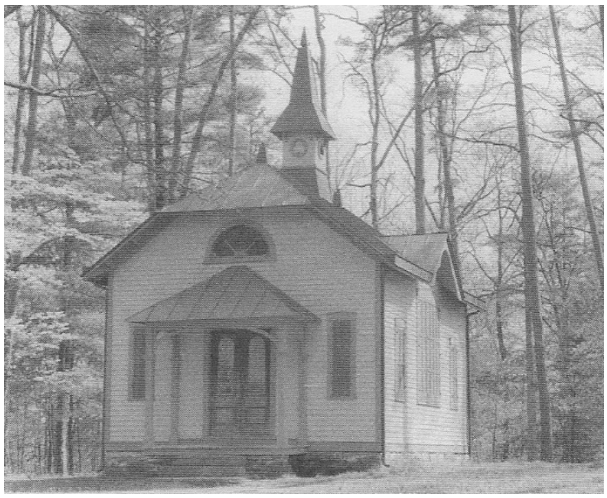


FIGURE 39. Thomas Hughes Public Library, Rugby, Tennessee. Source: National Park Service.

Deer Lodge. One of the values promoted in association with Rugby was its healthful environment. During the late nineteenth century, healthful retreats and resorts became increasingly popular throughout the eastern United States based on an increased interest in health remedies, and a recognition of how environmental factors affected well-being. This trend also occurred within the Big South Fork region, and hotel and resort development had at least a limited effect on the local economy. Resorts were often sited on prominences that afforded views and access to healthful air, water, and open space. While these resorts initially stressed the medicinal qualities of their local water or mountain air, emphasis was also later placed on opportunities for entertainment and recreation.

Deer Lodge was a resort development designed to appeal to those seeking the healthy environment of the Upper Cumberland Plateau. The resort, located in Morgan County, Tennessee, featured a fine hotel located in close proximity to mountain scenery and the Obed River. Advertisements lauded the beautiful scenery and fresh mountain air.

Allardt. Allardt was a designed agricultural community that appears to have been an outgrowth of a visit made to Rugby by John Shepard, an Englishman from Huron County, Michigan, in the winter of 1880 to 1881. Shepard was associated with the firm of Allardt & Gernt of Port Huron, Michigan, that had previously helped establish German colonies in Michigan. Shepard introduced Allardt, as well as Gernt, to the area as potential relocation sites for hundreds of Michigan families whose homes had been burned in a devastating fire. Although Allardt himself died before the new colony was established in northeastern Tennessee, the community was named in his honor.

In addition to the relocated Michigan residents, colonists were recruited from Saxony in Germany and from Switzerland, with the promise of good land and a favorable climate. Like Rugby and Deer

178. Howell, 27.

Lodge, Allardt included resort developments that offered access to healthful air, rejuvenating water, and outdoor scenery. Advertisements for the community promoted the reasonably priced fertile land, mild climate, industrious citizens, fine scenery, and fresh mountain air with the slogan, "For Health Come to Allardt." The community was set up around a grid pattern of roads, with land sold in rectangular tracts of 25, 50, or 100 acres. The focus of the community was on farming and agriculture, with the principal crops being rye and potatoes, although local logging and mining rights were also secured (Figure 40 and Figure 41). By 1895, Allardt boasted two stores, two hotels, a blacksmith shop, cabinet maker, sawmills, planing mills, steam grist mills, florist, newspaper, and new brass band.[179]

Allardt contributed to the changing agricultural economy of the region by demonstrating the agricultural potential of tableland soils through its flourishing farms. Allardt residents established an extensive agricultural community, eventually adding large tracts of undeveloped land within Fentress County to their holdings. Allardt residents were some of the first area farmers to introduce new equipment and machinery to local farming. For example, farmers in Allardt acquired a threshing machine in 1893 that was quickly put to use harvesting wheat, oats, and rye across the community. In 1910, an agent from International Harvester toured the area to survey the market for farm machinery. This spurred Henry Harris, a long time general merchant in Allardt, to open a warehouse for the sale of farm equipment in Allardt by 1911, filling "a long felt want in this country."[180]

In addition to farmers and entrepreneurs, the community attracted individuals skilled in a variety of crafts, industry, and commerce. Logging and coal mining also took place in Allardt. The town continued to flourish into the twentieth century. Allardt remains home to many descendants of the original settlers today. It is currently the only incorporated town in Fentress County other than the county seat of Jamestown.



FIGURE 40. A farmhouse in Allardt, Tennessee. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 41. The Bruno Gernt House, Allardt, Tennessee. Source: National Park Service.

Wartburg. The community of Wartburg continued to thrive during the postbellum period, and remained strongly German in its composition. In fact, many of the original settlers retained their German citizenship. This caused tensions locally during World War I, when German residents expressed feelings of loyalty to their homeland, and resulted in reported threats of violence, presumably by non-German residents. The anti-Wartburg sentiments appear to have diminished substantially by World War II, perhaps due to an increase in the assimilation of residents into local society.

179. Ibid.

180. McBride and McBride, V-18, citing Fentress County *Gazette*, April 11, 1911.

Immigration

Immigration heavily influenced the composition of the communities within the region during this period. Most immigrants were drawn to the area by the availability of wage labor afforded by mining and timbering companies. Some of the larger coal companies continued to bring foreign-born immigrants to their mining towns after World War I, even though the flow of immigrants into the nation began to decline at that point in most parts of the country. Immigration within Kentucky also began to decrease due to the Emergency Quota Act passed by Congress in 1921.[181] This decrease in immigration not only affected the rate of immigrants to Kentucky and Tennessee, but also meant that northern industries now recruited more heavily in the South, stimulating the out-migration of native-born residents. Most left the coal mines before, if not during, the Great Depression. The majority of the immigrants who traveled to the area for wage work subsequently left the area for similar opportunities, moved to nearby towns, or in some cases established farms on the plateau.

African Americans in the Big South Fork Region following the Civil War

By the conclusion of the Civil War in 1865, African American soldiers who had served in the Union Army, as well as slaves of the Confederate states who had joined the labor battalions, were declared free men.[182] Remaining slave populations were granted freedom with the ratification of the 13th Amendment, which abolished slavery in December 1865. Kentucky was not one of the states that supported the amendment, an indication of the tense social situation surrounding the African American population within the region after the war.

Following the ratification of the 13th Amendment, most former slaves left the farms of the Big South Fork region to seek industrial jobs in cities and towns in more progressive states such as Illinois and Indiana, where the population of African Americans more than doubled between 1860 and 1870.[183] In general, many former slaves left the Upper South for northern industrial areas. Although the overall number of African American residents within the state of Kentucky declined by 6 percent, urban populations increased dramatically during this same period. Many of those who remained in the rural Big South Fork area would eventually be drawn to work in the mining and railroad industries and live in the associated company towns.[184]

These trends were borne out in population statistics at the county level within the Big South Fork region. For all counties, the number of African Americans living in the area in 1870 was lower than the 1860 figures for slaves. However, these numbers increased dramatically between 1880 and 1900 to reflect the opportunities afforded by construction of the Cincinnati Southern Railroad and establishment of mining and timbering companies. Oral history accounts suggest that many African Americans helped build both the Cincinnati Southern Railroad line and parts of the Kentucky and Tennessee and Oneida and Western railroad lines (Figure 42). At least one African American worker is known to have managed logging operations for the Stearns company. Some of the African Americans who

181. Ibid., V, 6, citing Harry Caudill, *Night Comes to the Cumberlands: A Biography of a Depressed Area* (Boston, Massachusetts: Little, Brown, and Company, 1963).
The 1921 Emergency Quota Act restricted the number of immigrants admitted from any country annually to 3 percent of the number of residents from that same country living in the United States based on the preceding U.S. Census. Based on that formula, the number of new immigrants admitted in 1921 decreased to approximately one-third of the number of new immigrants in 1920. Although it was passed for temporary purposes, the Act led to policies that remained part of successive immigration laws, and were responsible for the dramatic decrease of immigration into the United States.
182. Ibid., V-2, citing E. Merton Coulter, *The Civil War and Readjustment in Kentucky* (Gloucester, Massachusetts: Peter Smith, 1926, reprinted 1966).
183. Ibid., V-2–V-5.
184. Ibid., V-2.

worked on the railroads later relocated to Glenmary and Robbins, Tennessee, where they worked in the coal mines and the Robbins brick factory.

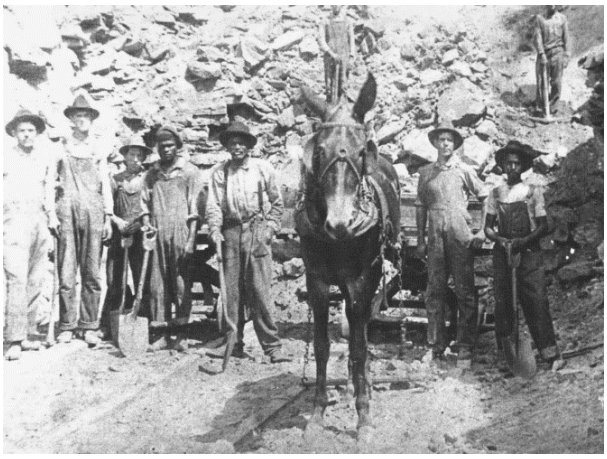


FIGURE 42. African American and white crew for the Oneida and Western Railroad, 1914. Source: National Park Service.

Emigration and Adaptation to the Upland Plateaus (1929–1974)

Community Development

In March 1929, the Cumberland Plateau region experienced one of the worst floods ever recorded. The flood destroyed many homes and businesses along the Cumberland River, including mills and rail lines. The Big South River, the third-largest tributary of the Cumberland, was similarly impacted. In fact the 1929 flood was "by far the highest that has occurred in the basin."[185] The effects of the flood likely contributed to outmigration from the low-lying areas of the Big South Fork gorge.

For those who stayed, the practical and self-reliant farming practices of Big South Fork Basin communities held families in good stead during the Great Depression (Figure 43). Used to getting by on very little, local families did not experience as much change to their lifeways during the 1930s as other areas. As noted by one local farmer, "That Depression just blew by us."[186] In response to the economic downturn, some older practices were revived. For example, farmers who could not afford to buy fertilizer during the Great Depression returned to the home manufacture of lime, constructing kilns by piling up alternate layers of logs and limestone and burning the pyres to produce lime. The wood ash added potash to this homemade fertilizer.[187]



FIGURE 43. Curt Slavin of Oneida with his horse, 1941. Source: National Park Service.

The Great Depression was more problematic for those who had come to rely on wage labor offered by the coal mining and timbering companies. By the 1930 census, 50 percent of the local population classified themselves as non-farm residents. Because the economic downturn affected coal and timber prices, by 1935 many of the mines were forced to close due to financial conditions and labor disputes. Those that remained open operated on a reduced schedule. The economic situation also forced the Oneida and Western Railroad to limit its run to two days per week, reducing the mobility of local residents, many of whom had become dependent on the spur rail lines for their transportation.

Despite the reduction in opportunities for wage labor, the local population increased between 1930 and 1940, reversing the earlier trend of

185. U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, *Review Report on Big South Fork, Cumberland River, Kentucky and Tennessee* (Nashville, Tennessee: Corps of Engineers, June 30, 1958), 8.

186. Howell, *Folklife,* 29.

187. Ibid., 34.

outmigration. During the decade of the Depression, the local farm population increased from 46 to 58 percent, and the number of farms increased 55 percent. Not surprisingly, the percentage of farm products used by farm households increased from 66 percent to 74 percent. At the same time, commercial crop production also increased within tableland or plateau areas, such as parts of Fentress County.[188]

After the Depression abated and World War II drew to a close, these trends once again reversed. The number of regional farms began to decrease again, while the average size of farms began to increase. The percentage of those involved in farming also declined to below 50 percent of the total population. By 1950, employment opportunities in manufacturing, trade, and service industries began to increase, contributing to the decline in agriculture, forestry, and mining.

It was also during the late 1940s and early 1950s that local counties began to pass fence laws that were intended to alter traditional practices involving free-ranging livestock. With livestock restricted to smaller field areas, the landscape slowly changed. The lack of forest grazing allowed an understory to develop, while the large fenced areas needed to support the livestock were better suited to the tableland rather than the stream bottoms, suggesting that local farmers relocate out of the gorge. This contributed to a general exodus from the gorge. By the 1950s, only two families remained at No Business, and when the school closed in the 1960s, those two families moved as well.[189]

As families abandoned the gorge, farms on the plateau thrived. In the 1950s and 1960s, farmers began to grow new commercial crops, such as strawberries, broccoli, cauliflower, and beans, which they could sell to freezer and canning companies in Tennessee. Farmers also began to grow tobacco for sale or export. At the same time, the area became a center for poultry production. Many of the large, low chicken houses established in the 1950s and 1960s still present within the landscape today were constructed as part of this trend.[190] One of the byproducts of this industry was copious amounts of chicken manure, which was widely used to fertilize the quickly depleted plateau soils.

By 1974, only 958 farms remained within the region where 4,922 had existed in 1940. This 80 percent decrease affected the lifeways and community composition in many ways. The life of the local farmer was, and remains, challenging economically. Many farmers were forced to work part time and take advantage of federal aid programs, such as food stamps.

New Deal Policies and Their Effect on Farming

Several federal programs were devised during the New Deal era in the 1930s and 1940s to stimulate the economy and help people survive the Great Depression. Assisting rural America was a high priority for President Franklin Delano Roosevelt. In conjunction with Secretary of Agriculture, Henry A. Wallace, President Roosevelt believed support of agricultural endeavors would help stimulate economic recovery. Raising farm prices was considered a key objective, even though it also meant higher food prices for the urban poor.

One of the policies enacted as part of the New Deal was the Agricultural Adjustment Act (AAA) of 1933. This act was the first federal allotment program for the production of certain products such as tobacco, cotton, and hogs. After the first version of the act was declared unconstitutional, a second version was passed by Congress that went into effect later that year. The Act provided subsidy payments to farmers who agreed to remove acreage from cultivation or reduce their stock holdings. The policy targeted reducing pressure on exhausted farmland while increasing prices. Tobacco allotments were initially small under the program during the first growing season of 1934, ranging from 1/2 to 5 acres. However, over time tobacco acreage in Kentucky was reduced by one-third or more by the AAA. Over

188. *Big South Fork Cultural Landscape Inventory*, 6 of 19.
189. Ibid., 6 of 19; Humphrey, 37.
190. Ibid., 7 of 19.

time, the program contributed to artificially-maintained high prices, which benefitted those who owned larger properties.

Another program passed in 1933, the Farmers' Relief Act, authorized the federal government to provide compensation to farmers who reduced their output. The act also resulted in higher prices for farm products.

A third program established in 1933 that targeted the improvement of rural life was the Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA). The TVA sought to address two related problems: flood control, and the provision of electricity to rural areas. Plans were made to dam rivers that had exhibited problems with flooding, and to establish hydroelectric plants associated with the impoundments that could generate electricity and modernize the very poor farms in the region (see also Historic Context Six: Effects of Public Works on the Big South Fork Region).

Significance of Big South Fork Agricultural Resources

National Register Status of Big South Fork River and Recreation Area

Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area is not currently listed in the National Register of Historic Places. Several properties located within the park, however, have been determined eligible for listing by the State Historic Preservation Offices (SHPOs) of Tennessee and Kentucky. In 1981, as the property was being acquired and developed by the federal government for future inclusion in the National Park System, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers consulted with the Tennessee and Kentucky SHPOs regarding determinations of eligibility for the surviving forty-nine buildings and structures located within the park. Nineteen were determined eligible for listing. These buildings and structures were primarily examples of locally significant vernacular architecture associated with five agricultural properties: Oscar Blevins Farmstead, Lora Blevins Farmstead, John Litton-Charles Rudy Slaven Farmstead, Charit Creek Lodge, and Parch Corn Creek Farmstead. Later that year, three road and railroad bridges—Leatherwood Ford Low Water Bridge, Oneida and Western Railroad Whipple Truss Bridge, and Yamacraw Bridge—and the Blue Heron tipple and tram were determined eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places in the areas of Engineering and Transportation.

In 1998, four farmsteads were determined eligible for listing as cultural landscapes as a result of National Park Service documentation of several properties through the Cultural Landscape Inventory program. These included the Parch Corn Creek Farmstead, Oscar Blevins Farmstead, Lora Blevins Farmstead, and Litton/Slaven Farmstead. None of the features determined eligible has since been documented or listed through preparation of National Register nominations. Several of the features determined eligible for listing have since lost integrity.

Since assuming responsibility for the park in 1991, the National Park Service has identified and documented numerous structures, sites, and landscapes that reveal important connections to the park's significant historic contexts of early settlement, and nineteenth and twentieth century agriculture, industry, transportation, and recreation. These efforts expanded on the documentation and assessment afforded in 1981, and further elucidate the integral link between environmental conditions and the area's cultural resources. These efforts have also suggested the potential eligibility of several additional sites for listing in the National Register of Historic Places.

In 2000, the National Park Service initiated work on a Multiple Property Documentation Form (MPDF) for Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area that addressed historic resources within the Tennessee portion of the park. Although the MPDF has not yet been completed, the National Park Service plans to pursue listing of eligible properties in the future.

The section that follows is intended to support these efforts by discussing the eligibility of historic buildings, structures, landscapes, and sites within

the park's historic agriculture context. This information draws from and expands upon the assessments developed for the draft MPDF.

National Register Criteria for Evaluation

In order for a property to be eligible for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, it must possess significance under one of four criteria. The Criteria for Evaluation state:

> The quality of significance in American history, architecture, archeology, engineering, and culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and:
>
> A. That are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or
>
> B. That are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or
>
> C. That embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction, or that represent the work of a master, or that possess artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or
>
> D. That have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.[191]

Significance of Big South Fork's Agricultural Properties

Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, either in whole, or in part, likely constitutes a rural historic district significant at the state and local levels under National Register Criterion A for its association with early settlement, agricultural activities, and rural community life within the Upper Cumberland region where a mixed farming, stock raising, and hunting lifestyle left an enduring mark on the landscape. The park is also significant under Criterion C at the state and local level for the many examples of vernacular folk architecture once typical of the region. The park is also likely significant at the state level under Criterion D for its potential to yield information important to understanding the human history, particularly during prehistoric periods, of the area. The diverse surviving resources of the park are united historically and physically in their representation of European-American activity and rural life in the Upper Cumberland between circa 1786 and 1974, with 1786 representing the earliest documented date of settlement reflected in a chimney stone of a regional farmstead, and 1974 as the year that Congress enacted a law rendering the property a federal park.

Under the context of historic agriculture, Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area possesses a long history of farming characterized primarily by self-sufficiency. The isolated nature of its farmsteads and communities, resulting from the particular character of the Upper Cumberland Plateau, especially the terrain of the Big South Fork River gorge, contributed to the establishment of a community of farmers with a vernacular folk culture that is both representative of broader Appalachian characteristics and unique to this place. Surviving evidence of agricultural activities within Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area encapsulates a naturally noncontiguous pattern of subsistence farms and historic rural landscapes that expresses the integral relationship between the natural environment and the lifeways of former residents.

Due to changes in demographics, transportation systems, and farming practices, the region experienced a period of outmigration during the mid-twentieth century; by the 1950s, most farm properties had been abandoned. Since the 1950s, the ravages of time have contributed to extensive loss of original built features. Examples of the unique agricultural culture of the region have thus become exceedingly rare. Agricultural properties within Big South Fork that survive with integrity

191. National Register Bulletin: *How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation* (Washington, D.C.: Department of the Interior, 1995).

therefore appear eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places for their association with unique farming practices and as rare examples of a type.

Properties associated with the agricultural context are significant in the areas of agriculture, architecture, archeology, community planning and development, exploration and settlement, and industry (see also the industrial and transportation contexts).

Agriculture. The rural historic district appears significant at the local level under Criteria A and D in the area of agriculture, as its vernacular landscapes illustrate the subsistence farming practices of the gorge and plateau of the Upper Cumberland Plateau region. Despite an early and well-known reputation as poor farming area, the first settlers in the Big South Fork Basin forged a successful agricultural system using the narrow floodplains of the area's creek valleys. Three creek valley farmstead sites exhibit the distinctive landscape of this early farming practice—No Business, Parch Corn, and Station Camp. In addition, the gorge slopes, terraces, and woodlands surrounding each of these valley farmsteads maintain much of the flora and fauna and exhibit the structures and natural features associated with the region's varied rural economy. An enclosed farm field and numerous rock piles indicate the use of terraced land for farming and rock shelters on the bluffline exhibit archeological evidence of food storage and moonshine production. In addition, three farmstead sites within the district—Lora Blevins, Oscar Blevins, and Litton/Slaven plateau farmsteads—illustrate the emigration of valley residents to more open and accessible land on the plateau, influenced by declining soil fertility, increased opportunities on the uplands, and the damage caused by the flood of 1929. The Litton/Slaven Farmstead, with associated lower fields, falls within the gorge boundary. As the Slaven family grew it expanded its agriculture onto adjacent plateau land to grow more marketable crops. As such, it spans the two farm typologies represented within the park—plateau and gorge. Traditional log construction and the continued use of rock shelters for animal pens and moonshine sites at these farmsteads also exhibit a continuity with earlier vernacular traditions first developed in the gorge valleys. However, new agricultural practices such as fruit and cattle production, the use of mechanized farm equipment, and the application of commercial fertilizers to improve plateau soil tilth, added to the mix of subsistence and wage economies. The significance of the district in the area of agriculture is based on its ability to illustrate this continuity and change.

Architecture. Big South Fork is significant at the state and local level under Criterion C in the area of architecture for its many examples of vernacular folk architecture. A total of twelve log buildings and structures are associated with this context. These were determined eligible for listing in the National Register in 1981 and maintain sufficient integrity to continue to convey their historic associations today. Building types include single-pen, double-pen, and saddlebag log houses; log corn cribs; log smokehouse and smithy; and several log barns indicative of a range of vernacular building types and construction practices. Taken together, these structures represent a unique cross section of the vernacular folk architecture of the Upper Cumberland region. The majority of the eligible buildings are key structural elements of three historic farmsteads that constitute eligible historic vernacular landscapes.

Historic archeology, early settlement, and community development. The historic archeology of the park is locally significant under Criterion D in the areas of historic archeology, early settlement, and community development. Sites relating to the agricultural heritage of the region have already yielded and are likely to continue to yield information important to the history of European-American pioneering peoples of the Big South Fork Basin. Due to a lack of aboveground integrity associated with the linear farming communities of No Business Creek, Parch Corn Creek, and No Business Creek, these gorge communities appear eligible for listing under Criterion D, as do several additional farmstead properties that have lost aboveground integrity.

The three streamside communities maintained much of their subsistence orientation and informal communal organization well into the late twentieth century.

Due mostly to the basin's naturally confining physiography, a historic lack of any developed road system, and the existence of only narrow parcels of arable floodplain, the rural landscapes that developed here, as elsewhere in the Upper Cumberland Plateau, were unique in how they displayed a close relationship between land and people. For the settlers and farmers of the gorge, the paucity of fertile soil meant that agriculture was only one of many activities that helped to sustain their families and related kin. Other pursuits included hunting, fishing, lumbering, mining, ranching, beekeeping, moonshining, and a host of folk practices and economies that have only recently disappeared from the area. To date, historic archeology has revealed National Register eligible sites relating to early settlement, niter mining, moonshine production, and subsistence farming. Older maps of the historic communities of Station Camp, Parch Corn, and No Business reveal numerous buildings and structures in the valley of the Big South Fork and the aforementioned creeks that are no longer standing. With little documentary evidence of this historic rural enclave, archeology is a vital tool in understanding its history. Surface and subsurface remains, building footprints, and remnant fields indicate the extent to which the region was settled during its period of significance. Past and ongoing archeological investigations by the National Park Service point to the likelihood of uncovering additional important historic data.

The vernacular patterns of land use within the gorge make it locally significant under Criteria A and D through displays of patterns of spatial organization and character relating to the early settlers of the Upper Cumberland region. No other rural historic district in the State of Tennessee exhibits this early and distinctive land use pattern. Unlike the more fertile Central Basin area of the state, the farms of the gorge were not related to plantation agricultural practice. The confinement and dispersal of the valley farms induced a community orientation based on individual farming families, informal governance and politics, and shared subsistence practice. Churches and schools often used a single building, and churches were sometimes shared by different denominations.[192] One post office served the many disparate residents of the community. Though the buildings that once housed these institutions are now gone, historic archeology is likely to reveal more evidence of these important gathering places. Historic archeology is also likely to reveal the complete vernacular pattern of pioneer settlement as homestead sites, in addition to those with extant structures and buildings awaiting investigation. The many family cemeteries scattered throughout the region also illustrate the dispersed, kinship orientation of the community.

Exploration and settlement. Finally, the gorge is significant at the local level under Criteria A and D in the area of exploration/settlement as it represents the territory and exhibits trails and circulation networks first established by American Indians and expanded by the earliest European-American explorers—the long hunters. The place name of Station Camp directly relates to this early European-American exploration, and several of its first settlers were documented long hunters. Rock shelters have revealed and are likely to reveal additional evidence relating to early niter mining (see also Historic Context Two: Extractive and Manufacturing Industries). Such early extractive industry was an important factor in making the area known to potential settlers.

192. Multiple Property Documentation Form, Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area (draft, 2000), 8–9.

Integrity of Historic Resources

Integrity is the ability of a property to convey its historic significance. According to the National Register Bulletin titled *How to Complete the National Register Registration Form*, the seven aspects of integrity are location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association. These are applied to each contributing property, taking into account its level of significance and the criteria under which it derives its significance. For a property to contribute to the proposed Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area historic district, it must possess several, and usually most, of the aspects of integrity.

Overall Assessment of Integrity

Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area possesses integrity of location, setting, feeling, and association due to the continued presence of historic cultural landscape elements that suggest deep connections between the environment and agriculture, industry, transportation, and recreation that resulted in communities with a wealth of familial ties and a unique cultural heritage. The integrity of the potential historic district is enhanced by the landscape's protection as part of a federally administered unit of the National Park System. Both plateau and gorge landscapes are relatively free from intrusive elements, and the number of non-contributing resources is minimal. Integrity of design, materials, and workmanship of historic buildings and structures is present, although the loss of many former components that helped to form unified sites diminishes this integrity, as does work conducted to address adaptive reuse, stabilization, and repair of these features that has resulted in alteration to their historic appearance.

Assessment of Individual Resource Integrity

Oscar Blevins Farmstead. The Oscar Blevins Farmstead is a good example of a plateau farm that exhibits the evolution of farming practices from the late nineteenth through the mid-twentieth centuries. A majority of the features that characterized the farmstead during its period of active use survive today, including fields, pasture, fences, roads, fruit trees, a spring, an 1879 log cabin, mid-twentieth-century dwelling, corn crib, outbuilding/smokehouse/shed, barn, root cellar foundation, and fields and pasture, orchard trees, black walnut trees, fences and fencelines, a driveway, feeding bin, hay bins, and a spring site. The farmstead possesses sufficient integrity to render it eligible for listing in the National Register as a contributing historic landscape site or individual historic district.

Lora Blevins Farmstead. The Lora Blevins Farmstead also possesses integrity as a twentieth century plateau farm property that includes a full complement of features including a dwelling, pole barn, corn crib, and privy, as well as fields, fruit and nut trees, hedgerows, road traces, fences, foundations, and a family cemetery. The farmstead possesses sufficient integrity to render it eligible for listing in the National Register as a contributing historic landscape site or individual historic district.

John Litton/Charles Rudy Slaven Farmstead. Like the Oscar and Lora Blevins farmsteads, the John Litton/Charles Rudy Slaven Farmstead is a good example of a plateau farm that exhibits the evolution of farming practices from the late nineteenth through the mid-twentieth centuries. Surviving historic landscape features include a log and wood frame house, barn, shed, earthen dam, fields, trees, pawpaw shrubs, road traces, fencelines, a man-made dam and pond, hog pen, still, and building ruin. The farmstead possesses sufficient integrity to render it eligible for listing in the National Register as a contributing historic landscape site or individual historic district.

Charit Creek Lodge complex. The Charit Creek Lodge complex is an example of a gorge farm associated with Station Camp Creek. It is thought to have been established by a former long hunter after the region began to open to settlement. The current configuration of buildings includes the lodge, which assimilates the circa 1832 log cabin as a central component of its structure, as well as several later additions,

including features moved onto the site in the 1960s to support commercial use as a hunting lodge. However, the site also features numerous historic landscape elements that can be tied to earlier agricultural use. As a cultural landscape, the property continues to exhibit several historic patterns of spatial organization, fields, roads, and stream fords and contains buildings that have been identified as eligible for listing in the National Register: a corn crib, barn, and smithy. It may also be significant as an example of adaptive reuse of gorge features for recreational purposes. As a cultural landscape, Charit Creek appears to possess sufficient integrity to convey its historic associations, and may be eligible for listing in the National Register as a contributing historic landscape site or an individual historic district.

Tackett Cabin ruins and graves. Also located in the gorge near Station Camp Creek, just 100 meters south of the Charit Creek complex, are the Tackett Cabin ruins and nearby graves. Features of the site include a fallen sandstone chimney and the footer stones of a single pen cabin, as well as road traces and field patterns. The graves appear to date to 1863 and are associated with a local oral history account of the death of two young boys during a Confederate guerilla raid. With few surviving intact features, this property appears to have lost integrity as an aboveground representation of a farm property, but likely possesses information potential as an archeological site.

Parch Corn Creek Farmstead. Parch Corn Creek Farmstead is representative of early settlement patterns characteristic of the Big South Fork gorge during the early nineteenth through the early twentieth centuries. A number of historic landscape features still exist at the site, including fields, graves, road traces, foundations, possible chimney falls, a spring, stone walls, and an outhouse. The loss of an 1881 single-pen log cabin, the only known example of this type of structure in the gorge, which was identified as eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places, to fire in 1998, and extensive vegetative growth have led to a loss of integrity of the property. Parch Corn Creek likely possesses information potential as an archeological site.

No Business Creek Community. No Business was a small remote community established nearly 200 years ago along the fertile floodplain and valley of No Business Creek. Numerous farms lined the road that paralleled the creek. Evidence of the community survives in the form of dry-stacked rock retaining walls; hand hewn rock culverts; rock bridge piers; rock mill races and equipment slabs; rock border walls for fields, roads, and properties; the Smith-Slaven Cemetery that includes the grave of Richard Slaven; and building foundations, including the No Business Hotel ruins.

Sufficient evidence of only one property survives today to convey the historic associations of this community: the Ransom Boyatt Farmstead. Constructed circa 1890 near the head of No Business Creek, the farmstead retains evidence of the former cabin including a large standing two-hearth stone chimney and foundations, the pier stones of the corn crib, the remains of a blacksmith/forge operation in the overlooking rock shelter, agricultural fields, the remains of an orchard, and the associated Boyatt Cemetery.

The Ransom Boyatt Farmstead, with evidence of the former cabin as well as other man-made features, possesses strong evidence of the complement of features that once comprised cultural landscapes within the community, although no buildings or structures exist. With few surviving intact features, this property appears to have lost integrity as an aboveground representation of an agricultural community, but likely possesses information potential as an archeological site.

Station Camp Creek Community. Like No Business Creek, the valley community of Station Camp was a well-developed farming settlement representative of the historic Upper Cumberland region during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Due to its isolation, the community was abandoned by the mid-twentieth century and has since deteriorated to a great degree. Surviving evidence of the community includes farm fields, road corridors, building foundations and chimneys, rock shelters, and other evidence of

outbuildings. Overall, the Station Camp Creek community, like No Business, appears to have lost integrity due to a lack of surviving physical fabric, but likely possesses information potential as an archeological site.

Parch Corn Creek Community. Like No Business Creek and Station Camp, the stream valley community of Parch Corn Creek was a well-developed farming settlement during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Surviving evidence of the community includes roads, cemeteries and graves, and building foundations and ruins, as well as field patterns and connections between cultural features and the natural environment such as creeks and level terrain. The Parch Corn Creek Farmstead described above was part of this community. Overall, the Parch Corn Creek community, like No Business and Station Camp, appears to have lost integrity due to a lack of surviving physical fabric, but likely possesses information potential as an archeological site.

Newtie King Farmstead site. Another known plateau agricultural site is the former Newtie King Farmstead, located in Kentucky east of the Big South Fork River. Evidence of the farm, including the dwelling house and former outbuildings, has been lost. Although the site still reflects to a degree its complement of cultural landscape elements, such as field patterns, road corridors, hedgerows, and the dwelling foundation, the majority of the original cultural fabric is missing and the farmstead no longer sufficiently conveys its historic associations and has thus lost integrity. Although managed as a cultural resource by the park, the property does not appear eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. The park will continue to protect surviving cultural landscape resources to the extent possible, however.

Contributing Properties.

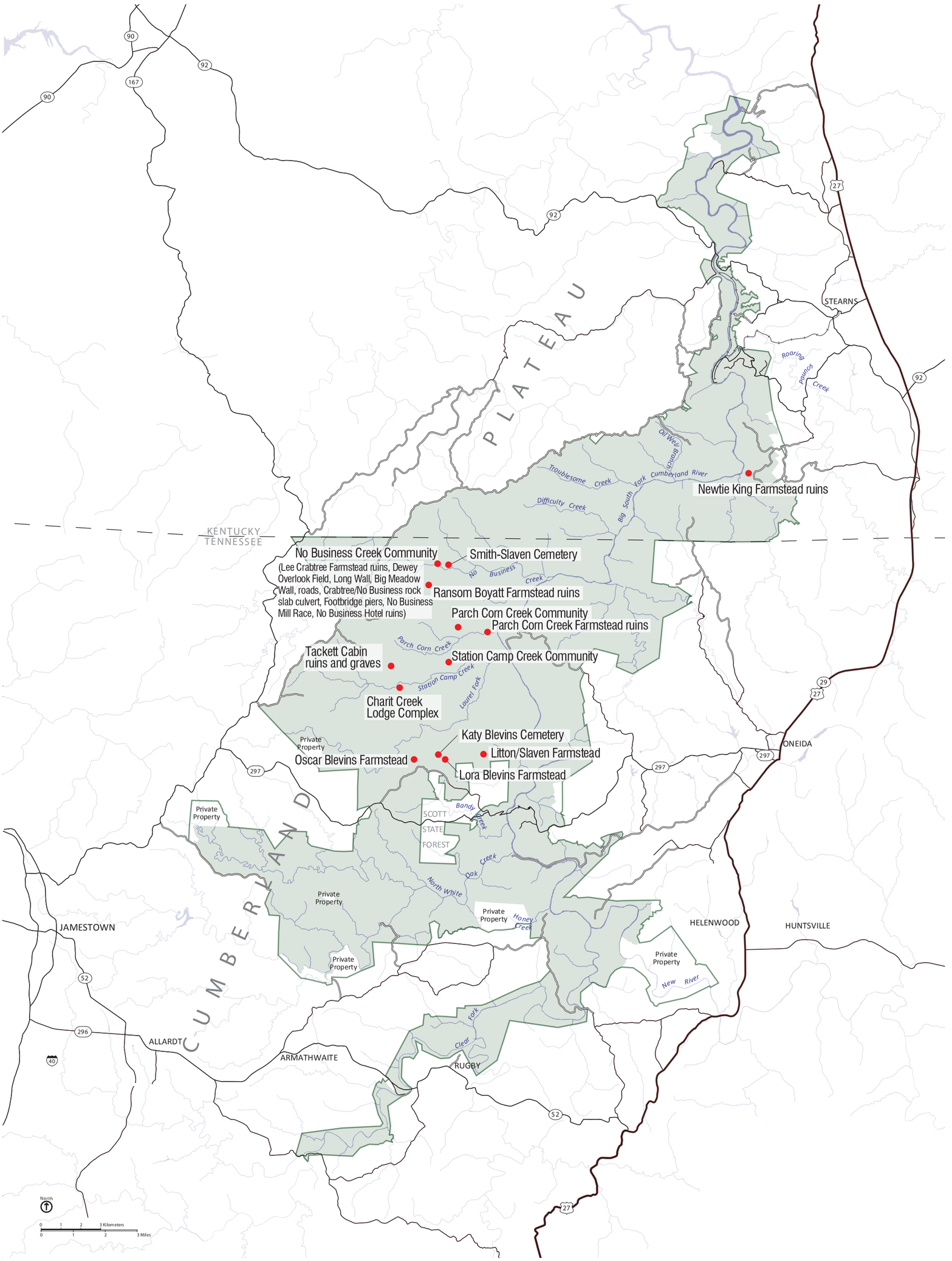
- Oscar Blevins Farmstead
- Lora Blevins Farmstead
- Charles Rudy Slaven/John Litton Farmstead
- Charit Creek Lodge Complex

Potential Archeological Sites.

- No Business Creek community site
- Station Camp Creek community site
- Parch Corn Creek community site
- Parch Corn Creek Farmstead site
- Ransom Boyatt Farmstead site
- Tackett Cabin Ruins and Graves site

Non-contributing Properties.

- Newtie King Farmstead site


PLATEAU
CUMBERLAND
KENTUCKY
TENNESSEE
No Business Creek Community
(Lee Crabtree Farmstead ruins, Dewey Overlook Field, Long Wall, Big Meadow Wall, roads, Crabtree/No Business rock slab culvert, Footbridge piers, No Business Mill Race, No Business Hotel ruins)
Smith-Slaven Cemetery
Ransom Boyatt Farmstead ruins
Parch Corn Creek Community
Parch Corn Creek Farmstead ruins
Tackett Cabin ruins and graves
Station Camp Creek Community
Charit Creek Lodge Complex
Katy Blevins Cemetery
Litton/Slaven Farmstead
Oscar Blevins Farmstead
Lora Blevins Farmstead
Newtie King Farmstead ruins
Private Property
SCOTT STATE FOREST
STEARNS
ONEIDA
HELENWOOD
HUNTSVILLE
JAMESTOWN
ALLARDT
ARMATHWAITE
RUGBY
Troublesome Creek
Difficulty Creek
Big South Fork Cumberland River
Oil Well Branch
Roaring Paunch Creek
No Business Creek
Porch Corn Creek
Station Camp Creek
Laurel Fork
Bandy Creek
Oak Creek
North White
Honey Creek
New River
Clear Fork
90
92
167
27
297
52
296
40
29
North
0 1 2 3 Kilometers
0 1 2 3 Miles

Historic Context Two: Extractive and Manufacturing Industries, Including Salt and Oil Drilling, Coal Mining, and Logging (circa 1680s–1987)

Introduction

The landscape of Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area is characterized by canyons, cliffs, rock shelters, waterways, and waterfalls. The abundance of natural resources and features that support recreational uses today once supported local industry, in addition to settlement and agriculture.

Prior to the development of major industries in the region, small-scale efforts in salt extraction, oil drilling, logging, coal mining, and a wide range of home industries were actively pursued by settlers and farmers. Many of these efforts helped to meet the needs of subsistence farms, which had little access to outside goods and materials, including raising much needed cash.

In the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, the wealth of natural resources attracted outside companies to establish extractive industry operations within the area. What was a small, sparsely populated area in the early nineteenth century eventually grew to become a region filled with major industrial operations such as coal mining and logging, connected by rail lines. Company towns were created throughout the Big South Fork River Basin to house the industrial workers, some of whom migrated to the area for work.

Industry continued to play an important role in the region through the Great Depression until the mid-twentieth century, when the largest mines closed, and logging operations ceased. While some workers left the area for jobs in large urban centers, others remained. The last operating coal mine in the Big South Fork region closed in 1987 (Figure 45). The legacy of industry in the region remains, in the form of roads, railways, and towns developed in the mid-nineteenth and early-twentieth centuries to support the mines and mills, despite the loss of activities associated with industry (refer to Figure 86 at the end of this chapter).

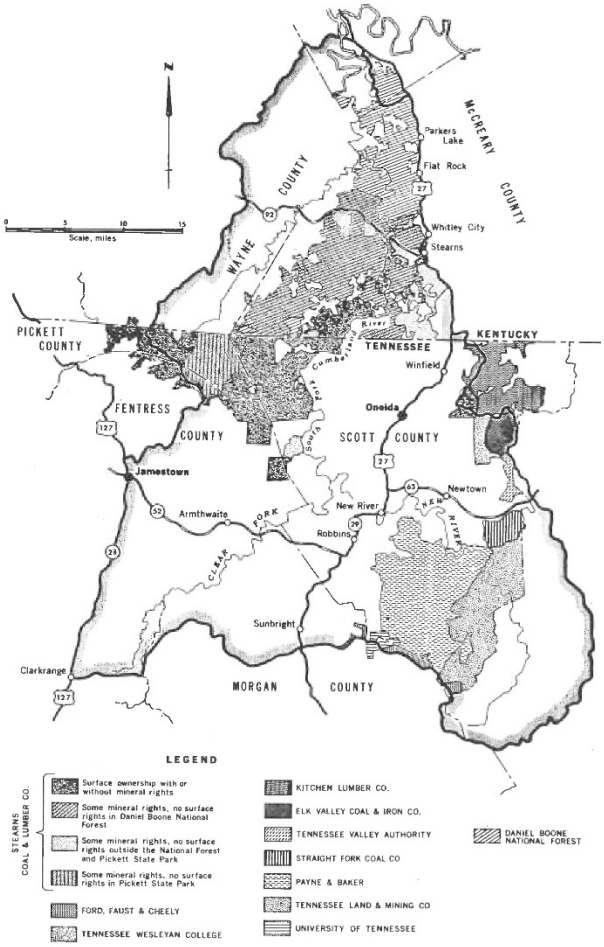


FIGURE 45. A map showing ownership of mineral rights in the Big South Fork region. Source: U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, *Interagency Field Task Group Report,* December 1969. An updated map is being developed by the National Park Service.

Geologic, Hydrologic, and Physiographic Conditions Contributing to Regional Extractive and Manufacturing Industries

The Big South Fork River Basin exhibits a long and varied cultural history of extractive and manufacturing industries derived from the specific landform, topography, geology, and forest cover types that characterizes the region. The highly dissected nature of the landform and topography has resulted in a varied and diverse surficial geology, which contains numerous features suitable for industrial extraction and development. For example, coal beds occur within the Breathitt Formation of Pennsylvania shales in the northern portion of the Big South Fork River Basin in Kentucky, including the Stearns coal zone and the Barren Fork coal bed. Other formations contain limestone, calcite, chert, and other minerals. In the southern part of the park, ground surfaces are higher than at the north end, and geological members occur that are not present in the north. Features in the south include the Poplar Creek Coal member, which lies above the Wartburg Sandstone. Among the highest geological features in the park is the Slatestone Group, consisting of alternating layers of sandstone, shales, and coal.[193]

The Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area is located in the Mixed Mesophytic Forest Region. The soils, available moisture, and climate support rich and varied forest communities of species that include yellow poplar, oaks, hickories, hemlock, and pine. The rugged terrain of the gorge generally limited the extent of forest clearing for cultivation during the settlement period of the late eighteenth through late nineteenth centuries. Forest stands of mature, good-sized trees remained available within the gorge at the time that railroad construction and operation increased the national demand for timber. These stands became the target of timbering companies beginning in the late 1800s after railroad lines had been established in the vicinity of the gorge to facilitate transport of logs. Earlier, timbering was conducted on a smaller scale by local farmers able to float logs downstream to mills and markets along the Cumberland River.

Since prehistory, the topography, geology, vegetation, and mineral resources of the region have supported a wide range of industries, beginning with trapping of fur-bearing animals and using native plants for food, and continuing through the development of major extractive industries such as timbering and coal mining. Primary industries in the region throughout its recorded history have included:

193. Ibid.

- Salt, discovered and extracted from the region's many briny seeps and salt springs beginning in the late eighteenth century.

- Oil, discovered in conjunction with the salt springs. Oil was first considered valueless but later became an important local industry.

- Niter (potassium nitrate), known as saltpeter, an important component of gunpowder. The sandstone rock shelters of the Big South Fork Basin contain high-grade deposits of this mineral. Niter mining was a particularly important industry during periods of conflict including the War of 1812 and the Civil War.

- Timber, including harvesting of several tree species and particularly the valuable yellow poplar that covered the steep gorge slopes of the Basin. Logging continued in the region from the mid-nineteenth century until the establishment of the Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area in 1974.

- Coal mining, which occurred on a large scale beginning in the late nineteenth century and continued into the 1970s.

The late nineteenth and early twentieth century development of timber, coal mining, and other industries in the region was closely tied to the construction of railroad lines to and through the region, particularly the Oneida and Western Railroad and the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad. (See also Historic Context Three: Transportation Systems, for further discussion.)

The history of the primary extractive industries at Big South Fork, as well as several small-scale local industries and home production efforts, is discussed below.

Early Extractive Industrial Activities (circa 1680s–1800)

Exploration for natural resources has occurred throughout the history of the Big South Fork region. Prior to the discovery of the region by European explorers, the area was known to American Indian groups as being rich in fur-bearing animals. French explorers first visited the Middle and Upper Cumberland Valley in the second half of the seventeenth century. The British also began to explore the area at this time, following their discovery of several rivers, including the New and Holston. In the 1680s, British colonists living in South Carolina began trading with the Cherokee, who, at that time controlled most of the Cumberland Valley. The Shawnee, however, also established a number of villages on the Upper Cumberland; maps and accounts from this period indicate that a number of villages had been settled by the Shawnee. Beginning in the late seventeenth century and continuing for much of the eighteenth century, the British and the French would continue to explore the area to take advantage of the abundance of natural resources, particularly animals desirable for their pelts and fur.[194]

Fur Traders

The Big South Fork region was known to be rich in fur-bearing animals by American Indian tribes, and was visited as a place to hunt rather than a region for settlement. In the late seventeenth century, French explorers began to travel further up the Cumberland River Valley with the intention of establishing trade with local tribes. French explorers appear to have had some knowledge of the area, as exploration maps from this period show trails constructed by American Indians throughout the Cumberland Valley. In the early 1690s, Martin Chartier, a French Canadian fleeing government authorities, traveled along the Cumberland River and joined a group of Shawnee. It is believed that Chartier and the Shawnee hunted and trapped in the area between the Obed and Big South Fork rivers before traveling to

194. McBride and McBride, II-1–II-2.

Maryland, where they sold more than 300 skins.[195] These hunters and clerics may have passed through the Big South Fork area, since local tradition states that Capuchin Creek and Capuchin Mountain, located 20 miles east of Big South Fork, were named after a group of passing monks. This may also account for the French name Charron, applied to what is today the Cumberland River.

At the same time the French were trading with the Shawnee, British traders from North and South Carolina began trading with the Cherokee. There are reports of some British traders living with the Cherokee, while others are said to have made regular visits to trade with the Cherokee. Although it is not definitely known whether any of the British traders traveled to the Upper Cumberland and Big South Fork area, there are reports from French traders stating that British traders from the Carolinas were present in the Upper Cumberland in the late seventeenth century.[196]

Following the signing of the Treaty of Paris in 1863, ending the French and Indian War, Great Britain was granted sovereignty over the land east of the Mississippi River, while Spain received land west of the river as compensation for their loss of Florida. As a result, the majority of French settlers moved to the western side of the Mississippi, allowing British companies to take control of trade along the Ohio River. Soon, British traders began hunting and trapping expeditions in Kentucky and Tennessee. Two British trading expeditions reached the Middle Cumberland Valley in the 1760s.[197]

Beginning around 1761, hunters from Virginia, Pennsylvania, and North Carolina known as the long hunters began traveling to Kentucky and Tennessee, often times entering Kentucky through the Cumberland Gap. The term "long hunter" was derived from the long length of these hunting expeditions. The long hunters, who are believed to have first reached the Cumberland in 1761, searched for fur-bearing animals as well as animal pelts. The animal pelts and fur they collected would eventually be exported from the growing number of ports along the Eastern Seaboard to Europe. The long hunters used existing trails constructed by American Indians to access the Big South Fork area. The influx of long hunters to the Big South Fork region helped establish the first European-American presence in the area, leading to more permanent settlement in the nineteenth century. The long hunters continued their expeditions throughout the late 1770s. Oral traditions relate that the site of the Charit Creek complex is located in the area where long hunters from the Watauga settlement in Kentucky established a so-called station camp in 1772. These men included among them a Bledsoe, a Russell, and a Phillips.[198] The abundance of fur-bearing animals, as reported by Emmanual Hatfield in the Big South Fork area in the 1830s, explains why hunters were drawn to the area.[199]

195. Ibid., II-2, citing Harriette Simpson Arnow, *Seedtime on the Cumberland* (New York: Macmillan, 1960), 69.
196. Ibid., citing Tim Huddleston, *Pioneer Families of Pickett County, Tennessee* (Collegedale, Tennessee: College Press, 1968), 3.
197. Ibid., II-5.
198. John Hayward, *The Civil and Political History of the State of Tennessee from its Earliest Settlement up to the year 1796* (Knoxville, Tennessee: Hasiskell and Brown, 1823. Reprinted 1971, by Arno Press, Inc.). See also John Hayward, *The Natural and Aboriginal History of Tennessee, up to the First Settlement therein by the White People in the Year 1768* (1823). See also Steve E. Humphrey, "The History of the No Business and Station Camp Communities" (Oneida, Tennessee: National Park Service, 1981), 8–9.
199. Ephram Inman, ed., and Emmanuel Hatfield. *Stories of Emmanuel Hatfield, the Pioneer. Embracing a Detailed Account of his Experience in the Wilderness of East Tennessee, Kentucky, and Southern Indiana* (New Albany, Indiana: G. Fishback, printer, n.d. (1889)).

Silver Mining, Lead Mining, and Processing Furnaces

In the 1823 book, *The Civil and Political History of the State of Tennessee from its Earliest Settlement up to the year 1796*, author John Haywood describes furnaces in the Clear Creek area located east of Big South Fork. Haywood says:

> On Clear Creek are two old furnaces, about half way between the head and mouth of the creek, first discovered by hunters in the time of the first settlements made in this country. These furnaces then exhibited very ancient appearances; about them were coals and cinders, very unlike iron cinders, as they have no marks of rust, which iron cinders are said uniformly to have in a few years. There are likewise a number of the like furnaces on the south fork, bearing similar marks, and seemingly of a very ancient date. One Swift, came to East Tennessee in 1790 and 1791, and was at Bean's station [in Kentucky], on his way to a part of the country, near which these furnaces are. He had with him a journal of his former transactions, by which it appeared, that in 1761, 1762, and 1763, and afterwards in 1767, he, two Frenchmen, and some few others, had a furnace somewhere about the Red Bird fork of Kentucky river, which runs towards Cumberland river and mountain, north east of the mouth of Clear creek. He and his associates made silver in large quantities, at the last mentioned furnaces; they got the ore from a cave about three miles from the place where his furnace stood. The Indians becoming troublesome he went off, and the Frenchmen who were with him, went towards the place now called Nashville. Swift was deterred from the prosecution of his last journey, by the reports he heard of Indian hostility, and returned home, leaving his journal in the possession of Mrs. Renfro. The furnaces on Clear creek, and those on the south fork of the Cumberland, were made either before or since the time when Swift worked his. The walls of these furnaces, and horn buttons of European manufacture, found in a rock-house, prove that Europeans erected them. It is probable, therefore, that the French, when they claimed the country to the Alleganies in 1754, and prior to that time, and afterwards, up to 1758, erected these works.[200]

Although Hayward suggests the presence of furnaces at Clear Creek and Big South Fork, there is no other proof that silver and lead mining occurred at or around Big South Fork in the late eighteenth century. While twentieth century publications discuss silver and lead mining at Big South Fork, it is likely that *The Civil and Political History of the State of Tennessee from its Earliest Settlement up to the year 1796* was the source of this information. While it is possible that silver and lead mining occurred at Big South Fork, there is no evidence other than that presented by Hayward that supports this claim.[201] The National Park Service geologist at Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, Todd Knoedler, has unequivocally stated, "While some people may have mined for metallic ores here, the geology is solely and exclusively sedimentary and does not possess the igneous deposits that produce such ores."[202]

Early Nineteenth-Century Extractive and Manufacturing Industries (circa 1800–1865)

Permanent settlement began in the Big South Fork region and the surrounding area in the early nineteenth century. During this period of community development, towns, schools, and churches were founded. Settlement of the region was affected during the 1810s by the conflict known as the War of 1812, which led to shortages of gunpowder and salt, among other things. Local deposits of salt brine and the niter used to make gunpowder became the object of extractive industry, at least on a modest scale, drawing settlers to the region. Beginning in the mid-1820s, industry became more diversified throughout the Upper Cumberland region, as the nation was

200. McBride and McBride, II-6, citing Hayward, *The Civil and Political History of the State of Tennessee from its Earliest Settlement up to the year 1796.*

201. Ibid.

202. Tom Des Jean, correspondence with authors, March 2014.

recovering from the Panic of 1819. This economic recovery, combined with the introduction of the steamboat on the Ohio River as well as some of its tributaries including the Cumberland, resulted in an expansion of small cottage industry.[203]

Industry Types

Potteries. As permanent settlement began in the Big South Fork region and the surrounding area in the early nineteenth century, several local industries began to prosper. One local industry of note in the Big South Fork region at this time was pottery, which was fashioned from clay deposits associated with some river and stream corridors. The firing of local pottery was also dependent on the plentiful timber resources of the area to fuel kilns. In the self-sufficient lifestyle of the period, pottery was made for home use, and most residents did not have sufficient income to purchase non-essentials. Potters in Wayne County, Kentucky, were known for salt-glazed stoneware.[204]

Blacksmith shops. Blacksmith shops began to appear in the Big South Fork region by the 1820s.[205] Blacksmiths made tools, farming implements, and hardware for wagons and buildings. They played an important role in repairing wagons and wagon tires. Later, as logging became a common activity in the region, blacksmiths also repaired equipment and vehicles for this industry.

Home production of weaving, tanning, distilling, pitch pine, turpentine, and sugar. During the nineteenth century, home production of textiles through weaving, leather goods through tanning, alcoholic beverages and turpentine through distilling, pitch pine through extraction, and sugar through processing of cane and other crops was prevalent in the Big South Fork region. Pitch pine or pine tar, used as a waterproofing material for boats, was produced by melting the liquid from the resin-soaked wood of dead pine trees and stumps. Turpentine was produced by distilling pitch collected from cuts made in living pine trees. The crude pitch or "gum" was taken to a distillery to be rendered into turpentine.

Early records of land use in Fentress County note a still camp for turpentine on Crooked Creek and Mill Creek, and a tar camp between Wolf River and Cave Creek. A sugar camp is noted on Yocum Creek of Wolf River, thought to be a site for making maple sugar cakes.[206]

Iron furnaces. Iron smelting was an important industry in the Big South Fork region during the first half of the nineteenth century. While most iron furnaces were located in Eastern Kentucky and the Western Highland Rim of Tennessee, one iron furnace is known to have existed in the Big South Fork region on Cumberland Mountain, east of Piles Turnpike Road.[207]

Coal mining. Coal mining was first undertaken by individuals and communities, and later became a commercial enterprise. The first commercial coal mining enterprise in the Big South Fork region is not documented and, as a result, remains unknown. The first commercial coal mine in Kentucky is believed to have been opened in 1820 in Muhlenberg County. Beginning in the 1820s, several small commercial coal mines are known to have been operating in the western coalfield of the Pennyroyal Plateau. By the 1840s, there were commercial coal mines operating in Eastern Kentucky. Following attempts by the Kentucky Legislature to encourage mining, the first large scale coal community, Peach Orchard, was established in eastern Kentucky in 1845. In 1847, the first commercial coal mine is believed to have been established in Anderson County, Kentucky. Mining communities continued to be developed throughout the 1840s and 1850s. One antebellum coal mine on the Upper Cumberland Plateau relatively close to what is now Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area was located in

203. McBride and McBride, III-38.
204. Tom Des Jean, correspondence with authors, March 2014.
205. McBride and McBride, III-38.
206. Ibid.
207. Ibid., III-39.

Pulaski County, Kentucky at Mount Victory. It was owned by a wealthy resident who used slaves to dig for coal before the war.[208] Many of these early coal mines ceased operations when the Civil War broke out in 1861.[209]

Salt works. Salt production was an important industry in Kentucky and Tennessee during the early settlement period. Early salt processing began at the salt seeps or "licks" where wild animals were known to gather. Indians and long hunters evaporated the brine to obtain pure salt for their own use. Larger-scale production evolved when entrepreneurs began producing salt for export and sale, using iron kettles to evaporate surface brine and later drilling wells to reach larger and richer brine deposits.

In the early nineteenth century, the onset of the War of 1812 combined with new settlement in the region prompted the Kentucky legislature to enact laws encouraging the manufacture of salt. One such law made land available at a reduced price in exchange for salt production.

The Big South Fork region, which was known for its salt springs and seeps, rapidly became home to industrial-scale salt mining. In 1811, John Frances and Richard Slavey of Wayne County, Kentucky, surveyed 1,000 acres of land along the Big South Fork River. Frances and Slavey were to receive a patent to the land by the Commonwealth of Kentucky if they were able to produce 1,000 bushels of salt within three years. The partners were given an extension due to the onset of the War of 1812 and Frances having enlisted in the Army. At this time, Stephen T. Conn was added to the partnership. While the partners found salt brine near the mouth of Bear Creek, they were unable to meet their quota. Despite their knowledge of salt extraction, production proved to be difficult, resulting in frequent drillings and the constant moving of operations.

Following the war, Frances and Slavey received another extension before transferring their claim in 1817 to Conn and Lilbum Henderson and Martin Beatty, both of Abingdon, Virginia. The new partnership was known as the Beatty and Company Saltworks. Shortly after the formation of Beatty and Company, Huling and Company, with partners Marcus Huling, Andrew Erwin, and Peter Zimmerman, also all from Virginia, began drilling for salt near the Beatty site.[210] Another agreement indicated that Henderson and Beatty agreed to become equal partners in the manufacture of salt at the South Fork or "Salienville Saltworks," with Conn as superintendent.[211] The 1,000 barrels of salt that had to be produced in order for the final deed to be issued were produced and the land was transferred from the Commonwealth of Kentucky to the owners in 1820. The name of Saltsville was given to the small community around Bear Creek.[212]

Known as Salienville or Beatty Saltworks No. 1, the salt extraction camp is shown on historic maps as located near the town of Yamacraw where Highway 92 crosses the Big South Fork River, just south of Lick Creek, or slightly to the north at Alum Ford; the former is considered the more likely location.[213] However, historical accounts suggest that the saltworks was near the mouth of Bear Creek. This variation in identified location may indicate that there were several locations from which salt was extracted, eventually known collectively as the Beatty Saltworks.

208. Interview with Leroy Gross by Tom Des Jean, former park archeologist, BISO, October 10, 2013. Mr. Gross, who began his career as a coal miner in the 1960s, became State Mine Safety Inspector in the 1970s, and eventually Supervisor of Mine Inspectors. In 1969, while Mr. Gross was working as the mining supervisor in one of the Cumberland River Coal Company mines at Victory Mountain, Kentucky, he and his crew accessed the Mount Victory mine.
209. Ibid., III-48–III-49.
210. Tom Des Jean, former park archeologist, BISO, "Huling Well (aka the Beatty Well)," 2010.
211. Ibid.
212. Ibid; the narrative also notes that land disputes continued until 1988, according to Dr. Frank Thomas in "Lore and Legend," *Louisville Courier Journal*.
213. Ibid., 93.

According to Capt. John W. Tuttle, an attorney and local historian living nearby in Monticello in the 1930s:

> Near the site of the old salt well are the remains of an old mill. The mill stone is about all that remains. There has been some effort to interest various organizations in re-opening and improving the old road and placing a memorial to martin Beaty on the spot. W A. Kinne, of the Stearns Lumber Company, is much interested in this project.[214]

John J. McLaurin, who visited the area in the late 1870s, later wrote:

> Off in the southeast corner of [then] Wayne county . . . Beatty bore a well for salt about the year 1818. The land extended four miles westward form the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River, its eastern boundary, and three iles down the Fork from Tennessee, its southern line. The well was located on a strip of flat ground between the stream and a rocky bluff, streaked with veins of coal and limestone.[215]

After the first well drilled to extract water was ruined by reaching oil, a new location two miles further along the creek was successful. "Salt-works were established and flourished for years, a simon-pure oasis in the interminable wilderness."[216] Salt was manufactured until the 1840s, when the works were shut down permanently.[217]

Oil wells. In 1818, Marcus Huling, Andrew Erwin, and Peter Zimmerman struck oil while drilling for salt in the Big South Fork River Basin. At this time, oil was not being actively sought, but rather was considered something to be avoided while drilling for salt. Upon finding oil in 1818, Marcus Huling—unlike others who had struck oil while drilling for salt—began marketing the oil he had discovered. As a result, the "Beatty oil well" as it would be known, is often considered the first "commercial" oil well in the country.[218] Today the McCreary well site includes a single capped pipe as visible evidence of these endeavors.

Huling initially marketed the oil as a medicinal ointment. Letters sent by Huling to his brother show that 2,000 gallons of oil were sent to "Urope." The oil was also sold in parts of Tennessee, Kentucky, North Carolina, and Georgia. The oil was marketed under the names "Mustang Liniment" and "Seneca Oil." Huling would eventually give up his businesses at Big South Fork to move on to other areas to drill for oil and to conduct a successful run for the United States Congress as a representative from Abingdon, Virginia.[219]

Niter production and gunpowder. Gunpowder manufacturing began to flourish in Kentucky following the Revolutionary War. Early powder mills in the United States used saltpeter imported from India. In 1807 and 1809, the U.S. Congress passed legislation which forced manufacturers of gunpowder to utilize domestic sources of saltpeter. A boom in domestic niter mining followed the passage of this legislation. Soon, the military needs associated with the War of 1812 caused the price of saltpeter to rise significantly. As a result of the increased demand and higher prices, saltpeter mining was soon undertaken by anyone who could find a good source of nitrate. Limestone caves throughout Virginia, Missouri, Kentucky, and Tennessee, known as being sources of nitrate-rich soil, were among the first to be mined. In Kentucky, Mammoth Cave and Great Saltpeter Cave were significant sources of saltpeter. Due to the large

214. Prentice, 98, citing Tuttle 1939:70.
215. Ibid., 98.
216. Ibid., citing McLauren 1898: 35.
217. Ibid.; see also Guy Prentice, *Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, Archeological Resource Survey, 1993 Field Season*, volume II (Tallahassee: National Park Service Southeast Archeological Center, November 1993).
218. In 1970 the Commonwealth of Kentucky noted in House Resolution 78 that the McCreary well was the first commercial oil well in the United States, predating the Drake Oil Well near Titusville, Pennsylvania, by forty-one years.
219. Des Jean, "Huling Well (aka the Beatty Well)."

demand, saltpeter from the larger and more well-known caves was depleted even before the end of the war in 1815.

Sandstone cliffs and rock shelters throughout Kentucky and Tennessee also began to be mined as a source of saltpeter. The yellow-brown sandstone found in the Upper Cumberland contained high-grade potassium nitrate, or pure saltpeter. Mining of the "rock niter," as it was called, continued in the Upper Cumberland region as well as the area around Big South Fork, until the end of the War of 1812.

Between 1812 and 1824, thousands of acres along the Big South Fork River were acquired with the intent of drilling for saltpeter. The niter mining that occurred in the immediate Big South Fork region during the early nineteenth century was quite crude as compared to the major operations established in Kentucky and Tennessee. Former long hunters who settled in the region in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries had a general knowledge of how to collect saltpeter from a cave or rock shelter. Evidence of mining is present today within the gorge of the Big South Fork River, and in the sandstone and rock shelters and cliffs around No Business Creek.[220] Piles of broken down cobbles and hollowed out wooden troughs remain in several rock shelter sites along the Big South Fork River. The dates 1817 and 1860 are inscribed in boulders found in some rock shelters.[221] One site, located on Ben Branch of the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River, has a stone signed "Moses Hickenbottom 1813." This is significant as the Higginbotham family was heavily involved in niter production throughout the nineteenth century. The Higginbotham Cave, which is part of the Cumberland Caverns on the Highland Rim, was mined for niter as early as 1812. Given the similarity in names, it is likely that Moses Hickenbottom was a member of the Higginbotham family.[222]

Following the conclusion of the War of 1812, saltpeter mining slowed significantly in the region. The onset of the Civil War later revitalized the flagging industry.

Hemp products. Following the War of 1812, as the cotton industry expanded in the South, the demand for hemp products also rose dramatically. Hemp was used to produce bags and rope, and was important in cotton production as well as in other industries.[223] While hemp, along with tobacco, cotton, wheat, rye, oats, and flax, was grown in the region, the Big South Fork area and the entire Upper Cumberland were never known for extensive commercial agriculture. Agriculture in the region is further discussed in Historic Context One: European-American Settlement and Occupation of the Big South Fork Gorge and Plateau; Farming and Other Means of Subsistence (circa 1680s–1974).

Other industries. Following the War of 1812, as the demand for gunpowder decreased, other industries began to grow in the region. Cotton and woolen mills became more prominent in the region at this time. In addition to these textile mills, nail factories also became prevalent in the region.

As industry throughout the Upper Cumberland region diversified, one of the most important industries was grain milling. Gristmills were used to grind grain for use by farmers. While industrial development during this period in the Big South Fork region is not well documented, it is known that grist mills in the Upper Cumberland region often served as a sort of community center, sometimes also functioning as a post office or bank.[224] Evidence of a mill race that may have supported a grist or other type of mill can still be discerned along No Business Creek today.

While commercial timbering did not occur near Big South Fork until after the Civil War, sawmills were operating in portions of the Upper

220. Tom Des Jean, "Niter Mining in the Area of the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River," *Tennessee Anthropologist* XXII no. 2, Fall 1997, 225–239.
221. McBride and McBride, III-39.
222. Des Jean, "Niter Mining" (1997), 226–229.
223. McBride and McBride, III-37.
224. McBride and McBride, III-38.

Cumberland by 1860. Settlers in the Big South Fork River Basin in the period leading up to the Civil War utilized local timber for construction of their homes, barns, other buildings, and fencing. Early antebellum-era small-scale harvesting of timber eventually led to commercial timbering in the area following the Civil War.

Participation by African Americans in Industrial Workforces

By the beginning of the Revolutionary War, the Big South Fork River Basin was becoming an area of pioneer settlement as eastern colonists and new immigrants came to the area seeking opportunities for land ownership and other forms of self-determination. One of the first African Americans whose presence was recorded on the Upper Cumberland Plateau was an enslaved boy named "Surk," who participated in the construction of a salt well near the mouth of Bear Creek.[225]

As farmsteads were developed, slaves were brought to the Big South Fork area to work on the larger landholdings.[226] However, the thin, acidic soils of the region did not support the extensive monocrop agriculture that existed elsewhere in Kentucky and Tennessee, thus political support was not present for a slave-based economy. In the U.S. Census of 1820, there were only twenty-eight slaves living within the Big South Fork region; by 1850 this number had grown to thirty-nine.[227]

Postbellum Industries (circa 1865–1929)

Although industries such as salt extraction and niter mining were active in the Big South Fork region prior to the Civil War, there was little overall effort toward industrialization. The ruggedness of the terrain and the lack of transportation routes limited the expansion of industry. Major industrialization efforts occurred only after railroad corridors made movement of goods and raw materials possible beginning in the 1880s.

In the Big South Fork region, the logging and coal mining industries grew significantly in the later nineteenth century and early twentieth century. The expansion of industry brought an increase in population as new communities were established to support industrial activities, including several planned towns which housed workers employed by the mining and logging companies.

Industry Types

Lumber/logging/timbering. A surge in demand for lumber was brought on by an increase in construction following the Civil War. The adoption of the balloon frame construction technique in and near population centers helped to increase demand for timber. In addition, the development of railways required timber for ties and fuel. Commercial timber harvesting grew within the Big South Fork River Basin to meet this demand.

Large-scale commercial lumber mills were developed throughout the Cumberland River Valley, including in larger cities such as Nashville. By the 1870s, these nearby lumber mills supported timbering as an important cash crop in the Big South Fork River Basin. Local farmers were soon able to augment their agricultural work in the spring and summer with logging work in the fall and winter. Farmers who owned large forested

225. Tom Des Jean, "Invisible People: The Legacy of the African-American on the Upper Cumberland Plateau" (Oneida, Tennessee: National Park Service, Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, 1999).
226. Ibid.
227. Ibid.

areas were able to market their own timber, assuming they could manage to transport the felled timber to lumber mills. Due to the lack of railroads in the area, the Big South Fork River and the smaller creeks in the area were used to float timber to the mills along the Cumberland River (Figure 46 and Figure 47). During the fall and winter, the increase in rain allowed for large rafts of timbers to be floated downstream until they reached these mills.

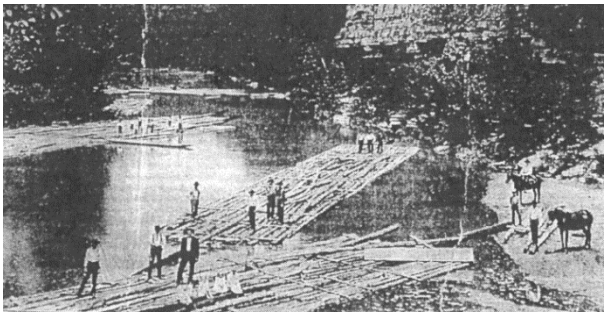


FIGURE 46. Transport of timber to the sawmill by floating logs down the East Fork of the Obey River in lower Fentress County, unknown date. Source: Tennessee State Library and Archives.



FIGURE 47. Old sawmill with flume, location and date unknown. Source: National Park Service.

The first tree species to become the focus of timbering on a large scale was the yellow poplar, also known as the tulip poplar and whitewood. The yellow poplar grew rapidly and could survive on the steep slopes throughout the region, as the trees grew straight and tall. Large poplar logs proved useful for constructing cabins in the Big South Fork region as well as for floating down the river to sawmills to produce income.

The many rock obstructions and rapids along the Big South Fork made navigation of log rafts difficult. Instead, branded individual logs were floated to Burnside on the Cumberland River, where they were collected and sent to a nearby mill. Poplar was especially good for floating downstream as it was relatively lightweight, allowing it to bounce over rocks. On the Cub Branch of the Big South Fork, for example, floating logs were collected in a large wooden strainer, or submerged grate, located adjacent to a mill. This device, submerged in the stream, is still visible during low water. In contrast, the denser and heavier white and red oak logs often sunk to the bottom of the river. To transport them by water, they had to be lashed to more lightweight logs.

By the end of the nineteenth century, the natural resources found along the Upper Cumberland were targeted by industrialists from around the country. As a result, land speculation and investment began throughout the area.

In 1898, lumber baron Justus Smith Stearns of Michigan became interested in acquiring land in the Big South Fork region. He soon acquired a 50,000-acre plot of land west of the Big South Fork River that extended over portions of Fentress, Pickett, and Scott counties. The land was rich in timber and coal. Stearns continued to add to his landholdings over the next several years, purchasing undeveloped parcels in both Tennessee and Kentucky. By 1903, Stearns had established three companies associated with extracting and processing the natural resources on his lands, including the Stearns Lumber Company, the Stearns Coal Company, and the K&T Railroad.

In 1903, Stearns established an electric bandmill in the town of Stearns, Kentucky, which he had founded in 1902. Stearns floated timber from his property west of Big South Fork down river to the bandmill. Yellow poplar, chestnut, white oak, hickory, and white pine were all harvested on land owned or leased by Stearns, with yellow poplar being the most prevalent. The logging industry in the Big South Fork River Basin contributed significantly to Tennessee's nearly 20 percent share of the country's total cut of yellow poplar between 1906 and 1910.[228]

By 1905, Stearns had purchased over 100,000 acres of land in the Big South Fork River Basin, including a large amount of land west of the Big South Fork River described as the "Big Survey."[229] The land was largely located in the northern portion section of the Basin, but was spread out over six counties in two states.

The Tennessee Stave and Lumber Company began harvesting timber along the North White Oak Creek valley. The company had begun purchasing land in the Big South Fork River Basin around the same time as Stearns. The company's property was located in western Scott and eastern Fentress counties, Tennessee.

A number of circular sawmills were opened on the south end of the Big South Fork River Basin near White Oak Creek around the turn of the twentieth century to process the increase in timber being harvested. However, a severe flood in 1901 wiped out many of these operations.

In 1913, the Tennessee Stave and Lumber Company began construction of a rail line to reach its timbering operations within the White Oak Creek valley. Known as the Oneida and Western Railroad, the rail line ran along Pine Creek, crossed Big South Fork at White Oak Creek, and continued along White Oak Creek. The rail line was completed as far as White Oak Creek by 1915; it eventually stretched to Jamestown, Tennessee, by 1930.

Construction of logging roads and spur rail lines allowed the timber extraction areas to be connected to logging camps and extraction sites being developed in the area. The logging camps were often temporary and could be moved to new locations as an area was logged out. Several camps were located near the headwaters of Station Camp Creek. The camps in this area, such as White Pine, Fork Ridge, Dirt Rock, Copeland Switch, and Walnut Corner, were comprised of prefabricated houses that could be transported on railroad cars.[230] Some of these camps, rather than being relocated, eventually became more permanent settlements that included schools and churches (Figure 48 through Figure 58).



FIGURE 48. Lumberyard at Verdun Mill, Scott County, date unknown. Source: Scott County Historical Society.

228. W. W. Ashe, "Yellow Poplar in Tennessee," *Bulletin 10-C* (Nashville: State of Tennessee State Geological Survey, 1913), 5.
229. Humphrey, 31.
230. Michael E. Birdwell, *Coal Mining in the Big South Fork Area of Kentucky and Tennessee* (Contract study produced for the ACOE by the Upper Cumberland Humanities and Social Sciences Institute and the Center for the Management, Utilization and Protection of Water Resources, Tennessee Technological University, 1990), 3–36.

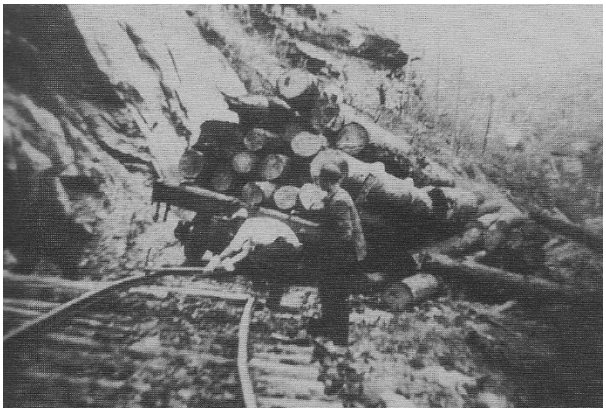


FIGURE 49. A derailment on the Stearns logging railroad, date unknown. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 50. A water mill on Pine Creek along the Oneida and Western Railroad, circa 1914. Source: Scott County Historical Society.

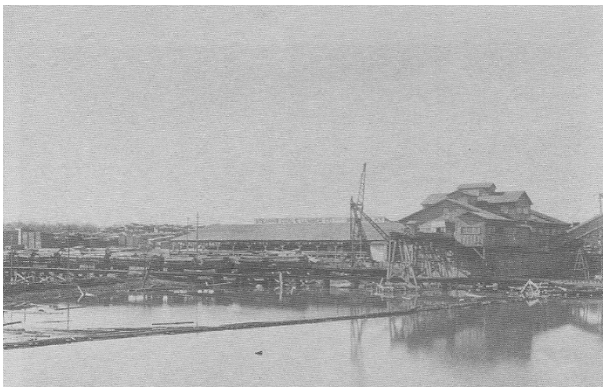


FIGURE 51. The Stearns Coal and Lumber Company Sawmill in Stearns, Kentucky, date unknown. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 52. A large hickory tree felled by local residents, date unknown. Source: Scott County Historical Society, image no. 871.



FIGURE 53. An undated view of a log jam. Source: Scott County Historical Society, image no. 886.



FIGURE 54. Lumberyard at Tennessee Stave and Lumber Company, Oneida, date unknown. Source: Scott County Historical Society.



FIGURE 55. A shack at the Stearns logging camp near Redmon Mountain in Pickett County. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 56. Stearns logging railroad employees, date unknown. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 57. A boarding house and store at Head-of-Wolf, a logging town developed by the Tennessee Stave and Lumber Company. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 58. Aerial view of the Oneida lumber mill, 1950. Source: Scott County Historical Society.

Coal mining. Within the Upper Cumberland region, coal deposits are of a soft, bituminous type. Bituminous coal contains a tarlike substance referred to as bitumen. The carbon content of bituminous coal is generally 60 to 80 percent, with the remainder of the rock containing water, air, hydrogen, and sulfur. Bituminous coal is dark brown to black in color and has a relatively high heat value. It is used for many purposes, particularly steam generation in electric power plants.[231]

In the mid-nineteenth century, farmers in the Big South Fork region mined coal for their own use. Soon, farmers began to sell the coal they mined to small collieries that began to be established in the Upper Cumberland in the 1880s.[232] After 1880, when the Cincinnati Southern Railroad was extended into the Upper Cumberland, commercial mines began to be established in areas where spur rail lines could be built.[233] Like the lumber industry, coal mining was soon undertaken by companies from outside of Appalachia that entered undeveloped regions and purchased land or mineral rights associated with coal deposits.

Louis Bryant of McCreary County was a mining engineer who operated several mines in the region in the late nineteenth century. Bryant held title to a

231. Virginia Division of Geology and Mineral Resources, "Coal," available at http://www.dmme.virginia.gov/DMR3/dmrpdfs/Coal.pdf (accessed May 5, 2011).

232. Michael Birdwell, *Timber, Coal, and Tampering Outsiders: A Brief History of the Big South Fork*, 34.

233. McBride and McBride, V-49.

nearly 40,000-acre tract of land located east of the Big South Fork River and the Tennessee state line. After graduating from Princeton University, Bryant studied mining engineering in Germany. Bryant was well respected and is generally credited with opening the region to large-scale commercial mining operations, as he advertised the mineral wealth of the region at the 1893 World's Fair in Chicago.[234]

Based on the annual reports issued by the Tennessee Bureau of Labor, the coal mining industry was well developed in the Big South Fork region by the 1890s. Several mines were operating in Scott County including a mine in Glenmary, Tennessee, the Lehigh mine at Helenwood, Tennessee, and the Robbins mine and Brick Paving Company in Robbins, Tennessee. The majority of coal mines in the Big South Fork region were located on steep hillsides, in creek valleys, or in almost inaccessible hollows. Several of the area mines employed more than 100 people. For instance, in the early 1890s, the Lehigh mine employed 140 miners, plus several drivers and yardmen. Other mines were smaller; for example, the Robbins Mine and Brick Paving Company employed only 13 workers in the early 1890s. The small number of employees correlates to the purpose of this mine, which was to supply coal for the paving brick division of the company.[235] While mining played an important role in the portion of Scott County economy, it was not a major industry in the subject portions of Fentress, Morgan, and Pickett counties.

As noted above, Justus Stearns acquired nearly 50,000 acres of land rich in coal and timber resources west of the Big South Fork River in 1898. While Stearns initially focused on logging, his company quickly grew to include coal mining. By 1904, Stearns had established three companies in the area, one of which was the Stearns Coal Company. The first Stearns mine opened in 1902, three additional mines were in operation the following year. In 1905, the company opened a fifth mine at the mouth of Rock Creek. The mines operated by the Stearns Coal Company were drift mines.[236] Following the opening of the mine at Rock Creek, Stearns Coal Company began purchasing additional land along the creek. Eventually the company purchased more than 30,000 acres of land along the creek to increase its holdings to more than 100,000 acres in the region.[237]

The Stearns Coal Company continued to expand in the early twentieth century. By 1914, electrical service had reached the mines, with motor-driven equipment soon replacing mules. The mining technology used by Stearns was much more advanced than that used by other mine operators in the region.

By 1920, the Stearns Coal Company was the largest employer in the Big South Fork region, and one of the largest coal producers in the southern United States.[238] In 1910, Stearns consolidated two of his businesses to form the Stearns Coal and Lumber Company.[239] In 1929, the company's production reached more than 1,000,000 tons of coal, making Stearns the second largest coal mine operator in Kentucky. Despite the stock market crash in October 1929, Stearns continued to produce at capacity into the following year. It was not until a drought occurred in the region in summer 1930 that the company was forced to cut wages. Following the drought, the effects of the Great Depression began to be felt by the Stearns Coal Company and throughout the Big South Fork region.[240]

234. Birdwell, 33–34. Bryant sent an 8 foot by 8 foot, one-ton block of coal from a mine at Worley to the 1893 exposition.
235. McBride and McBride, V-57–V-58.
236. In a drift mine ore deposits are extracted by underground methods, often by working coal seams through adits or through openings driven into the ground to reach the coal bed.
237. Birdwell, 40.
238. Ibid.
239. Ibid., 27.
240. Ibid., 50–53.

The Stearns Coal and Lumber Company developed several mining communities in the area. The largest of these towns was founded at Hemlock (later renamed Stearns), along the Cincinnati Southern Railroad line. Additional mining towns were constructed at Barthell on the Roaring Paunch Creek, where the Stearns Coal Company first began mining coal, as well as along Rock Creek, and the other locations discussed below.

Barthell was located on Roaring Paunch Creek near its confluence with the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River. In 1903, the Stearns Coal Company opened coal mines no. 1 and no. 2 between Barthell and Comargo, constructing a rail line between the Cincinnati Southern Railway line in Kentucky and Barthell as part of its plan to transport the coal to market. The rail line, known as the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad, was built by another of Stearns' companies. Barthell prospered from 1903 until its mines closed in 1933 (Figure 59).



FIGURE 59. View of residences at Barthell and the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad, date unknown. Source: National Park Service.

Comargo, which took its name from the first letters of the last names of three of the Stearns Company executives (Coleman, Margo, and Gorman), was also located near the confluence of Roaring Paunch Creek and the Big South Fork River, along the banks of the river. It, too, was established in 1903, with work continuing on the rail line to reach Comargo that year. Mine no. 2 played out in 1919. Although the Comargo community survived, it later lost its tipple, the railroad line, and many of its houses during the flood of 1929, and was subsequently abandoned. (Figure 60).



FIGURE 60. View of the Comargo Coal Company's plant along the Big South Fork, date unknown. Source: National Park Service.

The Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad was extended north from Comargo to reach Worley, another Stearns company town, in 1905. Worley was designed to support Stearns mines no. 3 and no. 5. It was located along the banks of the Big South Fork. Mine no. 3 remained in production between 1905 and 1911, while mine no. 4 continued to produce until 1953 (Figure 61 and Figure 62).

Yamacraw was named after a Cherokee chief. The Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad was extended north from Worley to Yamacraw in 1905. The Stearns Company opened coal mines no. 10 and no. 11 at this location. The town occupied land on both sides of the Big South Fork River. Mine no. 10 was in production between 1905 and 1930, while mine no. 11 continued to produce until 1953 (Figure 63).

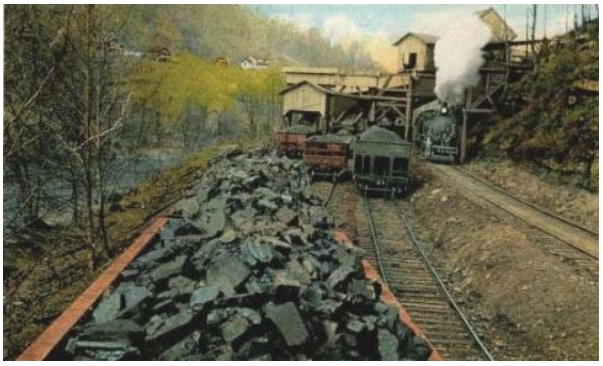


FIGURE 61. Postcard image of Mine No. 4 at the Stearns Company plant in Worley, date unknown. Source: National Park Service.

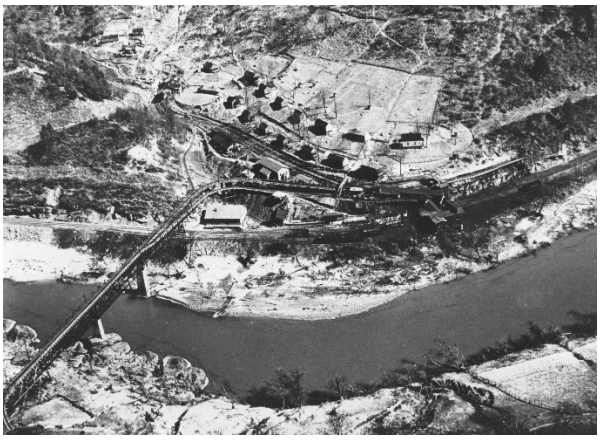


FIGURE 62. Aerial photo of the Worley community, date unknown. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 63. View of the Yamacraw community with the bridge under construction, circa 1909. Source: National Park Service.

In 1938, the Stearns Coal and Lumber Company opened another new mine on the banks of the Big South Fork, just south of the town of Comargo. The Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad was extended south from Comargo to this location. Known as the Blue Heron mine, Stearns Company mine no. 18 and the associated nearby community were named after a hybrid coal product (a mixture of coals from the Stearns Company nos. 1 and 1.5 coal seams) that was an efficient fuel and low in sulfur. An impressive coal sorting tipple, built at a cost of $500,000, was built near the mine. Coal deposits at the mine, however, ran out within 18 months. To take advantage of the investment made in the tipple, coal from other Stearns Company mines was brought to Blue Heron for processing until this process was found to be impractical. The Blue Heron mine and processing site remained in operation until circa 1945; after this time, the mine and tipple were contracted out to small operators until it was closed in 1962.

Oz, named after the book *The Wonderful Wizard of Oz* by L. Frank Baum, was located on the western bank of the Big South Fork along the Rock Creek tributary beyond Yamacraw. Mine no. 16 was opened at Oz in 1924 and remained in operation until 1927.

White Oak Junction was located farther west than Oz, across the Big South Fork and down its Rock Creek tributary from Yamacraw. Mine no. 15 nearby was in operation from 1922 until 1950 while mine no. 17 was opened near this location and was in operation from 1924 until 1927.

Cooperative was located west of White Oak Junction. The town housed and served workers at mines no. 15 and no. 17.

Later, the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad continued to be extended west from Cooperative. The Stearns Company opened two coal mines—Fidelity North A and Fidelity South A—and the town of Fidelity on the banks of Rock Creek. The people living at Fidelity served both mines from 1916 until 1937.

In 1918, the rail line was extended further west to mine no. 14, where the railroad terminated. The

town of Exodus was established on the banks of Rock Creek to service the mine, which was only in operation for one year.[241]

Several smaller mining sites present throughout the park reflect the small-scale efforts to produce coal conducted by local residents, who also used coal for years before the advent of commercial mining camps (Figure 64). However, it is the mining towns that remain most visible today as reminders of this part of the region's history. Some of the smaller coal mining communities located within the boundary of Big South Fork include Gernt and Zenith.

In addition to the mines themselves, features associated with the coal mining sites that survive today include remnant bridge and building foundations, residential mining camps and town sites, and relict spur rail lines and inclines. Most remaining aboveground features are associated with Blue Heron and Worley, both in McCreary County, Kentucky (Figure 65 through Figure 67). At Blue Heron, remaining features include the tipple and tramway, as well as the mine entrance and sand house walls. At Worley, features include the piers of the tipple in the Big South Fork River; building foundations on both sides of the river; a large flight of steps going up the mountainside; a switching yard (without rails); a concrete mine adit on the west side of the river (Figure 68); and several retaining walls.



FIGURE 64. A coal car being pulled out of a mine by a mule. Source: National Park Service.

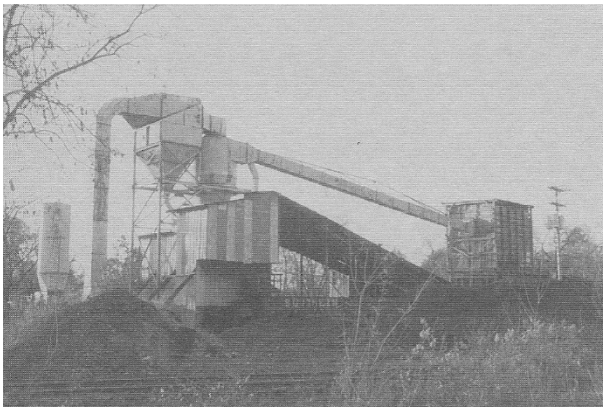


FIGURE 65. An undated view of a tipple near Pine Knot in McCreary County. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 66. Miners at the Stearns Coal and Lumber Company's Worley Camp, 1905. Source: National Park Service.

241. Historical information about the mining towns based on correspondence by Tom Des Jean with the authors, 2014.

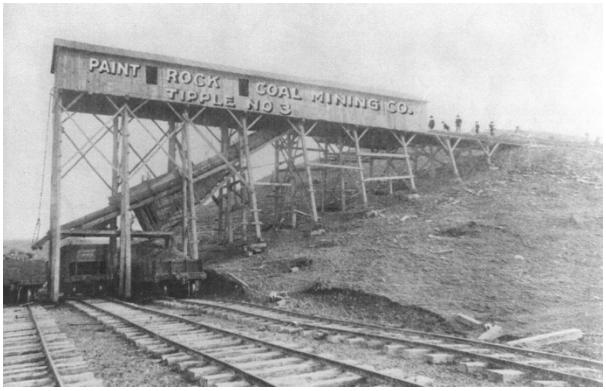


FIGURE 67. An undated view of a tipple owned by the Paint Rock Coal Mining Company. Source: McBride and McBride; University of Kentucky Photographic Archives, Ardery collection, Box 2, Folder: industry, Photo 322.



FIGURE 68. View of the concrete mine adit on the west side of the river at Worley, 2011. Source: National Park Service.

Oil and gas wells. As the coal industry grew throughout the Big South Fork region, oil and natural gas industries also emerged. The existence of oil springs and reserves within the region was known to outside interests. While the quality of the oil in the region varied, a chemist from Standard Oil who tested samples from the area in the 1890s noted that the oil was as good as, if not better than, that found in Pennsylvania. A lack of adequate transportation, however, prevented heavy well drilling equipment and piping from being brought into the area, while the high costs of exploration and production further slowed the growth of the industry.[242] The low output of oil, less than two barrels per day, did not cover the production costs.

In the 1880s, prospectors by the names of Hodge and Hastings from Pennsylvania are believed to have conducted the first true oil exploration in the region. The prospectors unsuccessfully explored the environs of northwestern Scott County.

During the 1890s, John Toomey, a local developer, leased land near No Business and Station Camp for oil extraction, engaging a father and son team from New York to oversee drilling. Wells were drilled to a depth of 1,600 feet but the efforts proved to be unsuccessful. Their leases to the land were sold to the Stearns Coal Company in 1902.[243]

Additional wells were drilled in the area, with varying success. In 1888, William Strube struck oil after developing a well at the mouth of Bear Creek. Four or five wells were drilled near the old Beatty well at the same time (Figure 69). After purchasing the land, the Stearns Coal Company drilled several wells in the area in the 1910s. The success of these wells is not known. In 1914, John Toomey is known to have successfully drilled in the Williams Creek area above the Grave Hill School. In 1916, oil was also found at the Todd farm in the Glenmary area. This well produced approximately 200 barrels a day.



FIGURE 69. Beatty oil well, 2011. Source: National Park Service.

More productive were the oil fields located along the Little South Fork and around Allardt and Rugby. An oil boom occurred near the Little South Fork in the early 1900s. Wells near Monticello had been producing light green oil used as a lubricator

242. McBride and McBride, V-60–V-61.

243. Ibid.

since approximately 1865. The major well in the area, the American well, was located north of the Big South Fork area on the Cumberland River. This well is thought to have produced the largest amount of oil in the Upper Cumberland. The increase in production near Little South Fork during this time can also likely be linked to the decline in oil production in Pennsylvania. [244]

In the late 1890s, oil exploration was conducted in Morgan County by Forest Oil, a subsidiary of Standard Oil. Forest Oil leased between 35,000 and 50,000 acres of land near the Rugby colony and drilled wells several thousand feet deep. While oil in the area could usually be found at a depth of 100 feet, the deeper wells were dug to help ensure long term yields and justify the large investment made by the oil company.[245] Despite these productive drills, oil extraction remained only marginally successful in these two areas.[246]

By the 1910s, several out-of-state oil companies had begun to explore the western portion of the Cumberland region, including Overton and Pickett counties. It was thought that this area would grow into a large oil and gas producing field. Oil production in the area was never particularly successful, however. In the 1920s, oil activity in the area was renewed, likely in part in response to the popularization of automobile tourism and the lowered cost of vehicles through mass production. By 1927 Sunbright had drilled fifteen wells.[247]

Coke production. As noted above, the bituminous coal found in the Upper Cumberland region contains a tarlike substance referred to as bitumen. Certain types of coal can be used to make coke, a variation of coal from which impurities that range from ash to dirt, sulfur, phosphorus, silica, and other materials are burned off, leaving almost pure carbon. Coke, the resulting hard, dry carbon substance produced by heating coal to a very high temperature in the absence of air, has traditionally been used to smelt iron ore.[248]

A very small amount of the coal mined in the area was made into coke. In 1899, for instance, only 0.7 percent of the coal mined in Kentucky was manufactured into coke.[249] Overall, coke production was not nearly as large of an industry in the region as coal mining was during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

Coke production began in the Upper Cumberland region in the years following the Civil War. One of the early coke producers in the region was the Glenmary mine in Scott County. Founded by J.S. Crooke, an Ohio businessman, in 1880 and sold to a group of Lexington, Kentucky, businessmen in 1884, the Glenmary mine recruited miners from England to work in the mine. This practice was initially quite common in the area; however, as the local population became more skilled, foreign workers were no longer needed. In addition, as noted previously, a large number of African American masons and their families settled in the area and worked at the coke ovens at Glenmary.

In the late nineteenth century, the Glenmary mine operation contained seventy coke ovens. It is believed that coke production at the mine was not particularly successful, however, and by 1904 the mine shifted its attention to the exportation of coal.[250]

Iron smelting and furnaces. One of the important industries in the region during the latter half of the nineteenth century was iron smelting. The furnaces used for iron smelting required a large quantity of wood, and as a result were often

244. Ibid., V-62.
245. Ibid., V-62–V-63.
246. Ibid., V-61.
247. Ibid., V-63.
248. Virginia Division of Geology and Mineral Resources, "Coal," available at http://www.dmme.virginia.gov/DMR3/dmrpdfs/Coal.pdf (accessed May 5, 2011). Burning large quantities of coal containing sulfur contributes to air pollution and acid precipitation.
249. Ibid., V-49. See also Timothy J. Smith II and Tom Des Jean, "The Geography of Illegal Distillery Sites in the Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area," 2010.
250. McBride and McBride, V-58.

located in rural areas with a large supply of timber, making the Big South Fork region a seemingly prime location for iron smelting. Unfortunately, problems with low-grade iron ore, combined with the sulfur and ash content found in the Tennessee and Kentucky coal, stunted the development of the industry at the coal source. The lack of demand for iron and steel in the area further hindered the development of the industry in the area. The later development of the iron smelting industry near Lake Superior, using ore of a much higher grade than that found in Kentucky and Tennessee, all but ended development of the industry in the Upper Cumberland region.[251]

The Poplar Creek or Glen Mary coal seam at Robbins contained a large underclay and clastic shale deposit. The presence of the railroad nearby, combined with the availability of laborers, created an environment supportive of ceramic manufacturing.

The Tennessee Paving Brick Company, established in Robbins in 1889, produced coal with the intent of burning fire brick. The operation was sold to the Southern Clay Manufacturing Company in 1902, at which time the plant in Robbins began to produce and sell paving bricks, as well as fire and chemical bricks, clay sewer pipe, construction brick, and telephone line conduit (Figure 70 through Figure 72). The brickyard proved successful through the 1920s, as brick paving was replaced by macadam road construction. This development, combined with the onset of the Great Depression, resulted in the closing of the Robbins plant in 1937.[252]

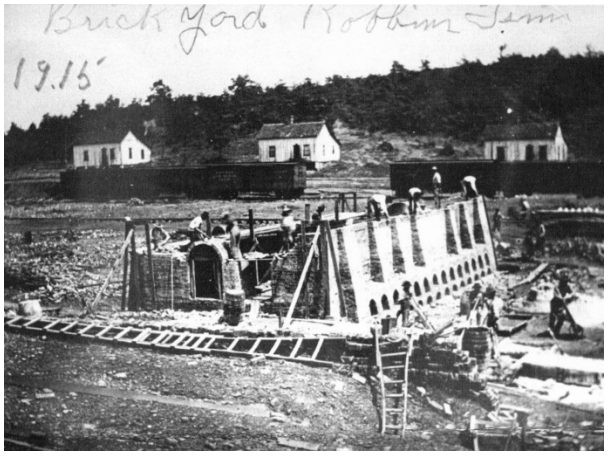


FIGURE 70. The Robbins Brickyard kiln under construction, 1915. Source: Tennessee State Library and Archives.

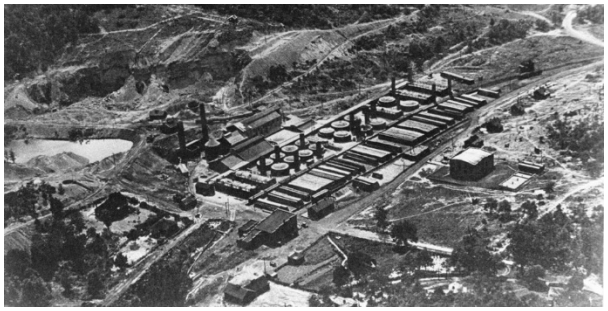


FIGURE 71. A view of the Southern Clay Manufacturing Company Plant, Robbins, Tennessee, date unknown. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 72. The abandoned Southern Clay Bookkeepers Office, 1989. Source: National Park Service.

251. Ibid., V-40.

252. Tom Des Jean, "A History of Southern Clay Manufacturing Company at Robbins, Tennessee."

Manufacturing and the decline of small and home industry. Following the Civil War, small-scale manufacturing decreased, largely due to the inability of small businesses to compete with more efficient large commercial manufacturing operations. For example, the number of tanneries and wool factories in the area declined during this period. In spite of this, wool was still produced in the area, and wool was often sent to factories in Atlanta, where products such as blankets were manufactured. Despite the overall decrease in small-scale and home industry, home production of cloth and leather continued into the 1930s in some areas. Those areas where small-scale manufacturing continued generally lacked adequate transportation, helping to maintain a demand for locally made goods.[253]

Home production of alcohol. While home manufacturing declined throughout the period following the Civil War, home distilling increased at this time. Small-scale whiskey-making had been performed throughout the region for some time. The whiskey, often made using corn, was utilized both recreationally and medicinally. Prior to prohibition in 1919, whiskey distilling was the most profitable industry in Kentucky. Whiskey production was also a prominent industry in Tennessee prior to prohibition.

While prohibition halted commercial whiskey production, whiskey-making continued in private homes. From 1920 to 1929, the average size of stills confiscated by authorities in the southern United States grew from 3.7 gallons to 50 gallons. The high concentration of people in mining communities created a strong market for homemade whiskey in the Big South Fork region.[254] The No Business Creek area was particularly well known for its abundance of moonshine and homemade whiskey. Private stills were often set up in relatively secluded areas with access to roads. In fact, it is believed that approximately 5 percent of all rock shelters in the region were used as moonshining locations (Figure 73 and Figure 74).[255] (See also Historic Context One: European-American Settlement and Occupation of the Big South Fork Gorge and Plateau; Farming and Other Means of Subsistence.) The rock overhangs and surrounding forest and undergrowth helped to conceal the still and the smoke that emanated during moonshine production. Each site featured a firebox and boiler. Traditional techniques used for the small scale production common to most of these illegal distilleries. Supplies for moonshining were purchased at local stores, thus the moonshiners did not need to have direct access to a farm to obtain grains.[256]



FIGURE 73. Alcohol distillery confiscated by police, downtown Oneida, 1926. Source: Tennessee State Library and Archives.



FIGURE 74. Lawrence O'Neal (left), and Jerome Cecil making moonshine on Grassy Fork, 1920. Source: National Park Service, courtesy of Mike O'Neal.

253. McBride and McBride, V-40–V-41.
254. Ibid., V-41–V-42.
255. Ibid., V-41.
256. Timothy J. Smith II and Tom Des Jean. "The Geography of Illegal Distillery Sites in the Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area," 2010.

Participation by Immigrants, African Americans, Women, and Others in Industrial Workforces

Following the Civil War the number of African Americans in the Big South Fork region decreased. This trend was seen throughout the south as a large number of African Americans left rural areas for job opportunities in cities and towns. In contrast to this general pattern, from 1880–1900 the African American population increased within the Basin, particularly in Scott County, ostensibly to meet the demand for railroad workers and miners. The white population in Scott County also increased during the same period.[257]

The effects of emancipation, the development of transportation networks, and the expansion of the timber and logging industry brought African American workers and their families to the Stearns, Kentucky, area in the late nineteenth century. African Americans also worked in the region's coal mines, and on construction of the Cincinnati Southern Railway, completed in 1880. A number of the African Americans who worked on the railroads went on to work at the mine in Glenmary, establishing a small community nearby. When the Cincinnati Southern Railroad closed its coaling station at Glenmary in 1894, many of these masons moved to Robbins, Tennessee, to work at the Tennessee Paving Brick Company, established in 1892. The Tennessee Paving Brick Company was sold around 1904 to the larger Southern Clay Manufacturing Company, where African American masons constructed twenty-one of the twenty-four brick kilns at Robbins (Figure 70 through Figure 72). It is likely that for at least some of the work, crews were segregated.[258]

The community built around the Robbins factory contained an African American school, a church, and several cemeteries. African American residents of Robbins and nearby areas were an integral part of these communities, and by the early twentieth century there were many African American families living in the region.[259]

The Stearns Coal and Lumber Company also employed a diverse workforce, and a company physician traveled to Knoxville, Tennessee, specifically to recruit black laborers in 1902–1904. Many African American employees appear to have worked in support occupations as cooks, gardeners, or janitors, and female employees as washerwomen. Men also worked in logging, mining, and railroad operations (Figure 75 and Figure 76).[260]



FIGURE 75. Stearns logging crew with African Americans in center background, early part of the twentieth century. Source: Stearns Museum.



FIGURE 76. Stearns miners at Worley, Kentucky, in the 1930s. Source: National Park Service.

257. Ibid., V-2.
258. Des Jean, "Invisible People."
259. McBride and McBride; see also Des Jean, "Invisible People."
260. Des Jean, "Invisible People."

Immigrants played a role in industry in the Big South Fork region as well. A number of immigrant farmers, mostly Swiss and German, came to the area in the 1880s and 1890s. In addition, large coal companies in the area brought in German and Welsh immigrants with experience in the mining industry to teach the local population the techniques of the trade.[261] This practice continued through World War I, with many immigrants leaving the region during the Great Depression.[262]

Union Activities Associated with Industry

In the early twentieth century, unions began to attempt to organize at mines in the Big South Fork area. The organization of unions proved to be particularly difficult at the mines owned by the Stearns Coal Company. While the paternalistic model on which the company's mines were run helped the Stearns Coal Company avoid unionization for a large portion of its history, there were several attempts to unionize the company. In 1908, Justus Stearns, the owner of the Stearns Coal and Lumber Company, is said to have burned down his own hotel to help eradicate union organizers from the company.[263]

In 1922, the UMWA staged a nationwide strike, with over 600,000 miners walking off the job. The strike continued for over two months. The Stearns Coal Company, which did not employ union workers at this time, continued to operate, with the company able to expand during this time.[264]

Community Development

As noted above, coal and lumber firms began developing company towns in the region by the late nineteenth century. This approach was practiced by large manufacturing companies throughout the country. For instance, the town of Pullman was founded outside of Chicago by the Pullman Railroad Car Company in the 1880s, while Gary was founded in northern Indiana as a company town by the United States Steel Corporation in 1906. McDonald, a town in northeast Ohio, was created by the Carnegie Steel Company to house its workers in 1916.

Areas in the Upper Cumberland that were once sparsely populated became home to clusters of small towns situated near mining sites. Many early coal towns were constructed in less than a year. The industrial components seen in the towns usually consisted of a railroad line, mine entrance, tipple, spoil tips (a pile built of accumulated spoil), dump areas, sorting sheds, an office, and a number of houses for miners and managers. The towns were largely self-sufficient and usually contained one store and a blacksmith shop, while a bank, doctor's office, hotel or boarding house, school, church, and community center were often provided in larger towns (Figure 77 and Figure 78). The majority of these towns, whose populations typically ranged from 700 to 1,400 persons, generally did not have any form of municipal government.[265]

The first Stearns mining town, Barthell, was located along the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad line on Roaring Paunch Creek in McCreary County. Barthell contained a company store, mine office, school, and shops to service the trains that stopped in the town. The population of Barthell was approximately 300. The Stearns Coal Company established a number of towns along the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad, including Comargo, Worley, Yamacraw, Oz, White Oak Junction, Cooperative, Fidelity, and Exodus, and Zenith, as discussed above, as well as Stearns, which was the main company town.[266] In addition to the company towns that were founded in the area, a number of utopian and resort towns were developed. (See also Historic Context One: European-American Settlement and Occupation of the Big South Fork Gorge and Plateau; Farming and Other Means of Subsistence.)

261. H. C. Smith, 1985.
262. McBride and McBride.
263. Ibid., V-59.
264. Birdwell, 45–46.
265. McBride and McBride, V-7–V-8.
266. Ibid., V-59.

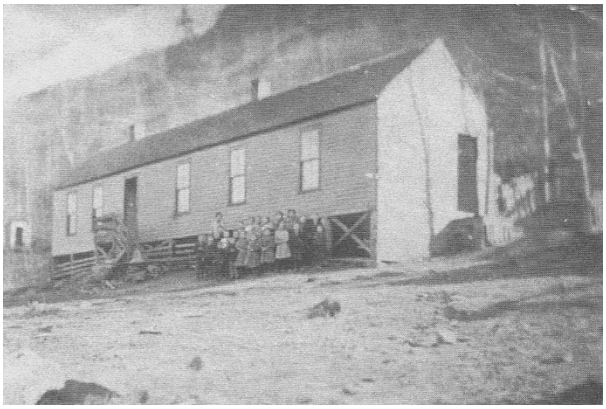


FIGURE 77. Worley School, 1905. Source: National Park Service.

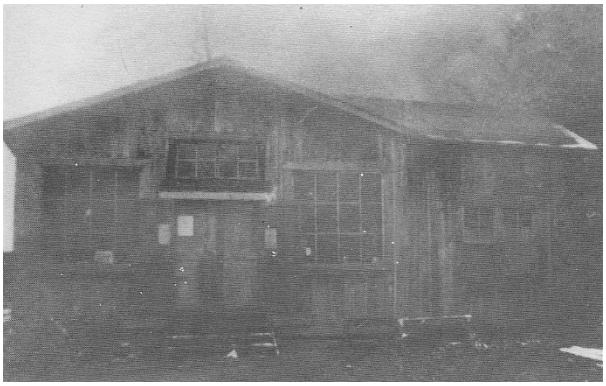


FIGURE 78. The John Tays store at Zenith. Source: National Park Service.

Twentieth-Century Industry (1929 to present)

The beginning of the Great Depression in 1929 and entry by the United States in World War II in 1941 brought many changes to the Big South Fork region. While there was a decrease in population in the counties within Big South Fork in the 1920s, the 1930s saw a slight rise in population. This was largely caused by the return of individuals who had left for jobs in urban areas in the 1920s and returned as the Depression worsened and they lost employment.[267]

The Great Depression contributed to industrial consolidation during this period, as many small businesses could not survive the economic downturn. This trend caused a large decrease in the number of commercial establishments in the region, leading several of the small towns in the area to struggle with high unemployment.[268]

The advent of the automobile also brought about changes to the region. Small stream-side communities such as Station Camp and No Business began to lose a significant amount of their population. Residents moved to towns such as Oneida and Jamestown, using automobiles to commute to and from work.

Industry Types

Home production of alcohol. Following the passage of the Eighteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution in 1919 banning the production and consumption of alcohol, commercial distilleries in the area closed. Predictably, there was an increase in the home manufacture of alcohol during Prohibition. Following the repeal of the Eighteenth Amendment by the passage of the Twenty-first Amendment in 1933, the home manufacture of alcohol decreased. In fact, the average size of stills confiscated by authorities decreased from 50 gallons in 1929 to 14.3 gallons in 1942.

While the end of prohibition caused a decrease in the home manufacture of alcohol, the practice continued in the region throughout the twentieth century. This can largely be attributed to local counties continuing to ban the sale of alcohol. During the Great Depression, the depressed state of agriculture in the region combined with the increase in personal use of alcohol led many farmers to produce larger amounts of homemade whiskey, despite utilizing less corn. The addition of sugar and other methods to increase the amount of whiskey produced resulted in a cheaper and oftentimes more dangerous grade of whiskey.[269]

Within the Big South Fork region, moonshine stills were established where certain geographical and environmental factors were present to support this activity, including a proximity to market, such as coal mining towns and logging camps; a covert

267. Ibid., VI-1–VI-2.
268. Ibid., VI-4–VI-5.
269. Ibid., VI-4.

location with a steady supply of water such as a seep, spring, or creek; and a rock overhang that provided protection from the elements and discouraged easy detection by the authorities.[270]

Although records of seizure of stills do not clearly indicate the large number of illegal distilleries present in the region, the number of sites present near mining towns and timber camps suggests that many individuals were involved in moonshining activities. Many sites continued to be utilized for this purpose during the early to mid-twentieth century (Figure 79 and Figure 80).



FIGURE 79. A sheriff confiscating a 150-gallon still used to make moonshine, 1965. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 80. Scott County Sheriff officers with a confiscated 150-gallon still, 1971. Source: Scott County Historical Society, image no. 567.

Oil and gas production. Following the Great Depression, oil exploration and production continued in the area. In 1939, Sunbright opened a refinery east of the Big South Fork River Basin in Kentucky. Henry Brown, a second-generation oilman from Wayne County, struck oil near the Grave Hill area in the 1940s. Soon pipe was laid near Smith's Siding to the Oneida and Western Railroad. A renewed interest in oil in the area resulted following the entrance of the United States into World War II. Several wells were also dug at the Beatty well site, with little success.[271]

Following World War II the demand for oil surpassed that of coal, and there was renewed interest in drilling in the Big South Fork River Basin. In the 1950s, Alvin C. York, a decorated veteran of World War I, unsuccessfully drilled several oil wells in the Big South Fork region. Around the same time, Guy Williams, a friend of York, successfully drilled for oil in the area. The high costs associated with drilling, coupled with the limited availability of crude oil eventually led to an end to oil exploration and production by the 1960s.[272]

The oil embargo of 1973 led the United States to begin searching for ways to increase domestic production of oil. As a result, the oil in the area that had previously been deemed too expensive to extract now appeared to be potentially profitable. Soon oil exploration in the area once again boomed. While initially successful, an oil excess in the 1980s lessened the need for oil from the region. The lowering of oil prices, combined with new environmental concerns all but stopped production and exploration of oil in the region by 1987.[273]

On the eve of its transfer to the National Park Service from the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, 294 well sites were known to exist within the boundaries of Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area in 1989. Many of these sites were abandoned, with only plugged wellheads surviving as evidence of prior drilling activities. There were a few sites with more extensive remains that

270. Smith and Des Jean.
271. McBride and McBride, VI-4–VI-5.
272. Birdwell, 87.
273. Ibid., 88–89.

included pumps, storage tanks, and various pieces of equipment. Many well operators retained mineral rights to the oil. Drilling, especially natural gas extraction continues in the park to a limited degree today.

Logging. During the late nineteenth century, methods of lumbering were modernized with the use of overhead cable, large handsaws, and more powerful locomotives. Trucks were also used to move logs to the mills (Figure 81). The new, more highly mechanized methods of lumbering and the popular practice of clear-cutting resulted in increased destruction of the local landscape. In some instances mountainsides were cleared, often resulting in large-scale erosion.[274] It was at this time that the public began to look unfavorably on the destruction of whole forests in the name of industry. Selective cutting rather than clear cutting became a preferred method of logging, and less environmentally damaging practices, especially replanting, were encouraged.



FIGURE 81. Trucks used to transport logs to mills. Source: Tennessee State Library and Archives.

The Weeks Act, which allowed the use of federal funds to purchase forest land for conservation, was signed into law in 1911. As part of the Act, $9 million was appropriated to purchase 6 million acres of land in the eastern United States in the 1910s. The passage of the Weeks Act had a negative effect on the logging industry. Despite this, logging continued in the region.[275] In 1937, 43,800 acres of land were sold to the U.S. Forest Service by the Stearns Coal and Lumber Company (renamed in 1910). The land would later become part of the Daniel Boone National Forest.

Despite the sale of land to the U.S. Forest Service in 1937, the Stearns Coal and Lumber Company increased its operations in the late 1930s. During this time five new logging camps were established along Rock Creek as logging operations expanded along the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad, which was extended into the Station Camp and No Business areas. An increase in demand for rifles, caused by the entrance of the United States into World War II, led to an increase in timbering.[276]

Despite the increase in the logging business in the 1930s and early 1940s, the Stearns Coal and Lumber Company began to phase out its operations in the area following World War II, as the best timber from its property had already been harvested. The Stearns lumber operation would continue into the 1950s, at which time it was no longer profitable and was shut down.[277] In the meantime, the use of trucks to transport lumber allowed smaller companies to begin logging due to the lower capital investment for equipment now required. This was also true for coal mining (see below).

Coal mining. The advent of the Great Depression slowed coal mining in the Big South Fork region. Production of coal dropped by 10 million tons between 1929 and 1930 as several small mines ceased operating. The larger mines suffered financially as they extended credit at company stores to allow miners to stay in the company towns until mining resumed, and distributed a high percentage of profits to shareholders, leaving a low level of reserves that would have helped the mining companies better weather the Depression.[278]

Coal production increased again at the end of the 1930s, resulting from demand linked to World War II. The increase coincided with a shift toward mechanization that was occurring in response to

274. McBride and McBride, VI-5.
275. Ibid., VI-5–VI-6.
276. Ibid.
277. Birdwell, 30.
278. McBride and McBride, VI-6–VI-7.

changes in workforce availability (in part due to the draft), as well as the introduction of new equipment. The new equipment that became available such as the duckbill loader, electric drills, and trucks helped create more efficient operations. The advent of trucks allowed mines to be sited away from the railroad and mining companies and reach new areas not previously worked due to their inaccessibility. Although large mining companies continued to operate, small operators were able to enter the market due to the technological advances.[279]

Following the war, the domestic demand for coal plummeted. The lifting of rations caused inflation, which, combined with the drop in demand for coal, resulted in the laying off of numerous workers from the region's coal mines. In 1947, the Stearns Coal and Lumber Company had seven mines in operation; by 1953, only two remained, with the Yamacraw and Comargo mines closing in 1949, followed by the cooperative mine in 1950, and the Worley mine in 1953.[280] The Blue Heron mine (Figure 82), which was opened by Stearns in 1937, was closed in 1962. However, the closing of this mine was essentially a formality, as the Blue Heron mine no. 18 had ceased to be profitable less than two years after it began operations. Its primary value was in the construction at the mine of the Stearns "state of the art tipple," against the advice of the company's own geologist. Once the coal ceased to be mined in profitable quantities here, the tipple was leased out to other operators. Rails were laid from other company mines, and coal was brought to the tipple to be loaded onto rail cars. Eventually this practice stopped, and for its final years, the tipple was leased out to other smaller operations.[281]

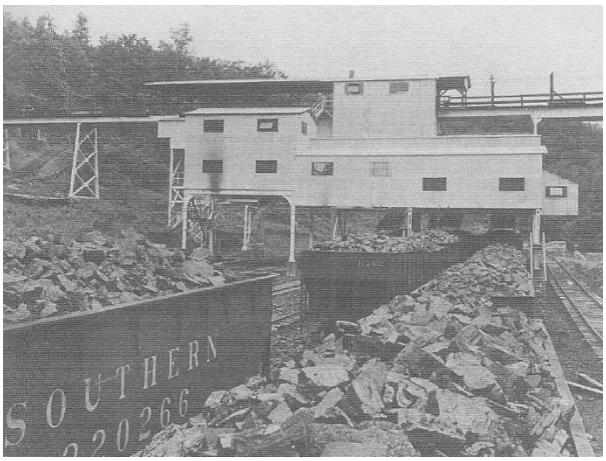


FIGURE 82. An undated view of the tipple at the Blue Heron mine. Source: National Park Service .

As coal prices plummeted, the cost of production, which remained unchanged, made the traditional mining techniques unprofitable. As a result, strip mining, which was a cheaper process, became more widespread in the region. Strip mining, which was the practice of mining by first removing a long strip of soil and rock, utilized fewer workers and allowed a coal producer to be more mobile. By the mid-1950s, strip mining was more prevalent in the area than traditional drift mining. The surge in strip mining resulted in an increase in erosion and polluted water supplies (Figure 83).[282]

Small mining operations were mostly gone from the region by the 1960s, with only large corporations still able to be profitable. As the decade progressed, the large mining operations began to search for new territory. Peabody Coal Company performed exploratory drilling in the north end of McCreary County. At this time, the Stearns Coal Company sought to create a new, modern mine in the area. Located in McCreary County, and employing only local workers, the new mine opened in 1967.[283]

279. Ibid., VI-7.
280. Birdwell, 82–83.
281. Ibid.
282. Birdwell, 83.
283. Ibid., 87.



FIGURE 83. Acid and sediment from coal mining can be seen flowing from the New River as it joins the Clear Fork to form the Big South Fork. Source: U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, *Big South Fork, Cumberland River (Kentucky-Tennessee), Interagency Field Task Group Report*.

The oil embargo of 1973 resulted in an upturn in the coal industry and strip mining became an epidemic. As a result, outside interests began investing money in the region again. In 1976, Stearns Coal and Lumber was sold to Blue Diamond Coal. The boom in the 1970s proved to be short lived, as demand for coal dropped again in the 1980s. Mining continued in the region until 1987. At this time, the mine built by Stearns in the 1960s closed when Georgia Power paid the Blue Diamond Company to halt production.[284] Uncontrolled strip mining caused a great deal of environmental damage that was still being addressed 40 years later.

Barite mining. Beginning in the late 1940s, the mining of barite began in Fentress County. The mineral was used as a deflocculant for paints. Mining of barite continued in the Wolf River area through the 1960s. The mined barite was shipped via the Oneida and Western and Cincinnati Southern railroads.[285]

Wood flooring. The wood flooring industry also flourished for some time in the Big South Fork region. Howard Tibbels and his family established a flooring plant in the 1950s in Oneida, south of the town center and the Cincinnati Southern Railroad tracks. The plant used locally extracted lumber to fabricate flooring, with car engines initially used to run conveyor plants. The first plant expanded to form three flooring plants producing tongue and groove, parquet, and laminate flooring, as well as a lumber yard and drying kiln. At peak production, the Tibbels plants employed approximately 300 people. The Tibbels plants sold its facilities to the Armstrong flooring company in the 1990s, which eventually went out of business in the mid-2000s.[286]

Crafts and traditional industries. Handcrafting was still widely practiced in the Big South Fork region through the 1970s, although before the growth of tourism in the region items were produced primarily for home use and gifts. The markets for these products were modest as local populations were small and typically not able to afford non-essential purchases. Woodworking and cabinetry were common skills among men living in the region, and pottery, basket-making, and quilting were widely practiced by local women.

To support local craftspersons, Smith and Alma Ross of Pine Knot, Kentucky, established Kentucky Hills Industries in 1946. The organization was founded as a way to support the local economy, with the goal of helping residents earn needed cash and discouraging outmigration. Another goal of the program was to provide for

284. Ibid., 88–91.
285. McBride and McBride, VI-8.
286. Tom Des Jean, correspondence with the authors, 2014. The flooring industry in the region is discussed in Esther Sharp Sanderson, *County Scott and Its Mountain Folk* (1958).

continuing knowledge of crafts traditions and skills. Kentucky Hills Industries opened a small shop near U.S. Highway 27 in the same year.

By 1965, the organization was incorporated as a cooperative by thirty-two member families. Notable artists included Irene Burchfield of Strunk, Kentucky, a potter trained at Kentucky Hills Industries in the 1960s who was still producing pottery in 1979, and Bessie West, who learned to weave in 1965 and established a home shop creating weavings, table linens, and rugs. Members of the cooperative produced traditional Appalachian woodenware items, furniture, pottery, needlework, and hand-woven pieces. Pieces were sold by mail order and by arrangement with shops managed by other organizations.

The smaller Rugby Craft Cooperative was established in 1974 by thirty craftspeople from Scott, Morgan, and Fentress Counties. In addition to supporting traditional craftwork, members of this organization created artwork including silk screening, photography, and painting.[287]

Local residents continued to work in other traditional industries (Figure 84 and Figure 85). For example, in Armanthwaite, Fentress County, the Tomkins family blacksmith shop maintained traditional craftsmanship into the 1970s.[288]

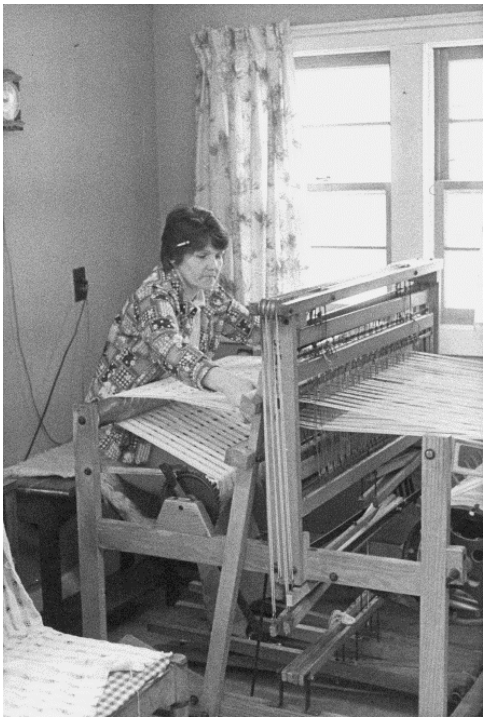


FIGURE 84. Local craftsperson weaving on a home loom, date unknown, circa 1970s. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 85. Irene Burchfield at her wheel, circa 1970s. Source: National Park Service.

287. Howell, 168–169.

288. Ibid.

Participation by Immigrants, African Americans, Women, and Others in Industrial Workforces

Women played a more important role in local manufacturing by the 1930s. While women had served as nurses, teachers, and domestic servants in the region for some time, it was during this period that their role in manufacturing grew.[289]

As the Great Depression worsened in the early and mid-1930s, the logging and mining industries suffered and fewer jobs were available. The lack of even lower-paying jobs led to greater competition among workers. Following the conviction of two local African American men for the murder of the Southern Clay Manufacturing Company bookkeeper, a white man, in a fight, many African Americans left the area, with some families moving to Alabama.[290]

Union Activities

Union activities increased at coal mines in the early 1930s as the economy continued to falter. Despite this, unionization of the workers at the Stearns mines did not occur immediately, as the company generally treated its workers fairly and even operated at a loss during this time in order to keep mines open three days a week. In 1935, John L. Lewis, the president of the United Mine Workers of America (UMWA), called for a nationwide walkout of soft coal miners. The Stearns Coal and Lumber Company had no issue with the UMWA's salary demands and was willing to raise wages. The company would not sign a contract, however. At the same time, any pro-union miners were blacklisted and evicted from their homes in the company towns.[291]

The workers at the Stearns mine were largely satisfied with their pay and the conditions at the mines, and returned to work in early 1936 without a contract. Stearns agreed to the UMWA pay scale but did not sign a contract. By 1940, however, largely due to the Depression, nearly 40 percent of the Stearns miners joined the UMWA.[292]

Despite a request by the Federal Government that no unions strike during World War II, the UMWA went on strike in May 1943. President Roosevelt appealed to the miners to remain at work. The Stearns Coal and Lumber Company proclaimed that it would honor whatever the miners decided to do. Three days after the call to strike was made, the Stearns miners defied the union and returned to work. The six company mines were able to continue to run at wartime outputs.[293]

The Stearns Coal and Lumber Company continued to operate with the UMWA as a closed shop until 1953. At that time, the two sides were unable to negotiate a new contract. As a result, Stearns cancelled its contract with the UMWA, and the miners worked with no union representation until 1958. In 1958, the Stearns miners formed the McCreary County Miners Union. This union would represent the Stearns miners until 1976, when miners sought to return to the UMWA after Blue Diamond Coal purchased the mines from Stearns. Following a strike later that year, the miners organized their own, independent union which stayed in place until 1987 when the mine closed.[294]

Community Development

Several counties in the Big South Fork region saw a moderate increase in population during the 1930s. While the overall population increased, the African American population decreased. By the 1950s, as mining and logging jobs were lost, the overall population in the area decreased. The majority of the families who left the Big South Fork area at this time moved to cities such as Louisville or Cincinnati, with adults often taking jobs at urban factories.[295]

Despite the decrease in population, the brief boom in coal production in the late 1930s and during

289. McBride and McBride, VI-4.
290. Des Jean, "Invisible People," 12.
291. Birdwell, 69–70.
292. Ibid., 70.
293. Ibid., 78.
294. Ibid., 79–80.
295. McBride and McBride, VI-1.

World War II led to the establishment of new mines and mine towns. One of the new mine towns opened by Stearns Coal and Lumber Company was the Blue Heron community, where Mine 18 was located. Founded in 1937 on the banks of the Big South Fork River, hundreds of miners and their families worked and lived in the area. The town was a typical mining community that included residences as well as a company store and mine-related structures. The town was abandoned in 1962 when the mine was closed.

Mining towns began to decline as mines became more dispersed in the area. This was largely caused by the advent of the automobile. As a result, larger towns such as Whitley City and Oneida began to grow, with workers able to drive to the mines. The decline of the mining towns can also be attributed to the mining companies no longer providing housing to their employees. Although mining companies no longer supplied housing for their employees, they did begin to offer miners the opportunity to purchase the homes they had previously rented in the mining towns. This approach was followed in the 1960s in the town of Stearns.[296]

Establishment of Ethnic Presence

As in many small communities in other parts of the country, residents today represent a wider range of ethnicities than were found in the region historically. In the Big South Fork region, there have been significant influxes of immigrants from both Mexico and Asia, while greater numbers of persons of African Americans descent are also present in this area.

Significance of Industrial Resources

National Register Status of Big South Fork River and Recreation Area

As noted previously, Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area is not currently listed in the National Register of Historic Places. Several properties located within the park, however, have been determined eligible for listing by the State Historic Preservation Offices (SHPOs) of Tennessee and Kentucky. Properties associated with industry were evaluated in 1981. Resources determined eligible in the area of industry include the Blue Heron Mine, its coal tipple (LCS No. 578708, Structure No. HS-18), and the mine entrance. None of these features has since been documented or listed through preparation of National Register nominations.

Since assuming responsibility for the park in 1990, the National Park Service has identified and documented numerous structures, sites, and landscapes that reveal important connections to the park's significant historic contexts of early settlement, nineteenth and twentieth century agriculture and industry, transportation, and recreation. These efforts expanded on the documentation and assessment afforded in 1981, and further illustrated the integral link between environmental conditions and the area's cultural resources. These efforts have also suggested further consideration of the potential eligibility of several additional sites for listing in the National Register of Historic Places.

In 2000, the National Park Service initiated work on a Multiple Property Documentation Form (MPDF) for Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area that addressed historic resources within the Tennessee portion of the park. Although the MPDF has not yet been completed, the National Park Service plans to pursue listing of eligible properties in the future.

296. Ibid., VI-1–VI-2.

The section that follows is intended to support these efforts by discussing the eligibility of historic buildings, structures, landscapes, and sites within the park's historic industry context. This information draws from and expands upon the assessments developed for the draft MPDF.

National Register Criteria for Evaluation

In order for a property to be eligible for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, it must possess significance under one of four criteria. The Criteria for Evaluation state:

> The quality of significance in American history, architecture, archeology, engineering, and culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and:
>
> A. That are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or
>
> B. That are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or
>
> C. That embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction, or that represent the work of a master, or that possess artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or
>
> D. That have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.[297]

Significance of Big South Fork's Industrial Properties

Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, either in whole, or in part, likely constitutes a rural historic district significant at the state and local levels under National Register Criterion A for its association with the rural community life and economy of the Upper Cumberland region that relied on a combination of subsistence farming and natural resource extraction; Criterion C for the surviving examples of works of engineering associated with industrial production resulting from the establishment of corporate entities built to extract coal, timber, and other resources; and Criterion D for its potential to yield information important to understanding the industrial history of the area. The diverse surviving resources of the park are united historically and physically in their representation of European-American activity and rural life in the Upper Cumberland between circa 1786 and 1974, with 1786 representing the earliest documented date of settlement reflected in a chimney stone of a regional farmstead, and 1974 the year that Congress enacted a law rendering the property a federal park.

Under the context of historic industrial activities, Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area possesses a long history of subsistence and local industries, and later participation in larger industrial markets—especially logging and coal mining—after the advent of the railroads in the region in the late nineteenth century. (See also Historic Context Three: Transportation Systems.) Resources that survive with integrity within this context are associated with the Blue Heron Mine and appear eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places.

Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area is significant at the state and local level under Criteria A and D in the area of industry and Criterion C in the area of engineering for the surviving evidence of the Blue Heron Mine, established during the early twentieth century.

Under Criterion A, Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area is also significant for niter mining activities that occurred, especially within many of the gorge rock shelters, during the War of 1812 and the Civil War. Moonshining was also an important industry in the region, both for use by its producers and as a commodity sold to others, that occurred during the late nineteenth and early

297. National Register Bulletin: *How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation* (Washington, D.C.: Department of the Interior, 1995).

twentieth centuries, but was particularly important during the Prohibition era.

In addition, logging was an important industry in Big South Fork area. Transportation of locally harvested timber represents an integral link between the area's first settlers and the commerce and trade of the Cumberland River.

Although company towns were developed to support the mining and logging industries, resources associated with these towns do not survive with integrity, therefore properties associated with this context are not considered significant in the area of community planning and development. (The town of Barthell, discussed above as part of the industrial history of the region, is not part of Big South Fork River and National Recreation Area. The remaining resources of the town are privately owned. The town site likely contains National Register-eligible structures and possibly archeological remains, but has not been evaluated for purposes in this or prior studies of the park.)

Under Criterion C, the Blue Heron tram and tipple are significant in the area of Engineering. In *An Inventory and Evaluation of Architectural and Engineering Resources of Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area* (1982), the authors used several criteria to assess the National Register significance of engineering resources, including the tipple and tramway. These criteria addressed how the resources represented a particular time period; their potential for demonstrating the evolution of industry and transportation systems in the park; examples of engineering trends and innovations; an association with communities or industries in the park; their structural condition; and whether they convey historical or engineering significance on a state or national level.[298] In terms of these criteria, the Blue Heron tipple and tramway structure are considered representative of a particular time period, in that it differs considerably from the earlier, no longer extant tipples at Worley and Yamacraw, and from more recent tipples in Eastern Kentucky and Tennessee.

The tipple and tramway represent the development and evolution of the coal industry in the park. The Blue Heron tipple and tramway are a unique example of a mid-twentieth century coal tipple and the only one in the region. The tipple and tramway also have strong associations with the Stearns Coal and Lumber Company, an important entity in the region, as well as with the former community of Blue Heron. The structural condition was considered fair to good at the time of the inventory , and the National Park Service has restored and maintained the tipple and tramway since that time.

The 1982 inventory recognized the Blue Heron Coal Tipple as one of three engineering resources considered significant at a national level as an important landmark of engineering history, noting:

> An extensive description of the tipple's design in the leading industry journal (Edwards 1938) is testimony to its sophistication. The size and complexity of the tipple is directly related to the national importance of coal in the 1930s and 1940s. Older and more recent tipples were of far simpler design, both in the Eastern Coal Fields region of Kentucky and elsewhere in the nation.[299]

Also, the tipple and tramway are significant as a local engineering resource, a landmark for county residents, as a unique structure in terms of size and type of construction, and for its connection with the industries that had a significant impact on the economic life of local residents.

Under Criterion D, the remains of four logging camp sites, together with logging roads and railroad spurs, are likely to reveal archeological

298. Hutchinson, et al., 178.
299. Ibid.

evidence related to the timber industry that moved into the area at the turn of the century.[300]

Evidence of local industrial activities is also present at No Business in the form of mill races, piers, and walls.

Integrity of Historic Resources

Integrity is the ability of a property to convey its historic significance. According to the National Register Bulletin titled *How to Complete the National Register Registration Form*, the seven aspects of integrity are location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association. These are applied to each contributing property, taking into account its level of significance and the criteria under which it derives its significance. For a property to contribute to the proposed Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area historic district, it must possess several, and usually most, of the aspects of integrity.

Overall Assessment of Integrity

Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area possesses integrity of location, setting, feeling, and association due to the continued presence of historic cultural landscape elements that suggest deep connections between the environment and agriculture, industry, transportation, and recreation that resulted in communities with deep ties and a unique cultural heritage. The integrity of the potential historic district is enhanced by the landscape's protection as part of a federally administered unit of the National Park System. Both plateau and gorge landscapes are relatively free from intrusive elements and the number of non-contributing resources is minimal. Integrity of design, materials, and workmanship of historic buildings and structures is present, although the loss of many former components that helped to form unified sites diminishes this integrity, as does work conducted to address adaptive reuse, stabilization, and repair of these features that has resulted in alteration to their historic appearance.

Assessment of Individual Resource Integrity

Blue Heron Mine Complex

Coal tipple and tramway (LCS No. 578708, Structure No. HS-18). The Blue Heron Mine site (the Stearns Coal and Lumber Company mine no. 18) extends from Laurel Branch north to Roaring Paunch Creek, and includes facilities on the east and west bank of the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River. Resources at the Blue Heron Mine that retain integrity include the coal tipple and tramway.

The tipple, constructed in 1938 as a state of the art coal processing facility, consists of a steel and wood frame clad in sheet metal. The structure sits over rails that would have allowed trains to park under the building. The steel and wood framed building is clad in grooved sheet metal panels and is connected to a bridge that crosses the Big South Fork River. (A detailed description of the tipple and its function is provided in the chapter Historic Resources of Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area.)

Although portions of the coal tipple and tramway have been repaired and materials including the cladding have been partially replaced, these resources retain integrity of design, location, association, feeling, and setting, and appear eligible for listing in the National Register, possibly as a contributing structure to a potential industrial historic district.

300. The Multiple Property Documentation Form in development by the National Park Service notes that four logging camps have revealed and are likely to reveal archeological evidence of the timber industry; however, the form does not specifically identify the four sites referenced.

Other, non-historic structures currently present at Blue Heron. Other, non-historic structures present at Blue Heron include the modern concrete and steel train depot and several metal framed "ghost structures." When the Blue Heron Community was abandoned in 1962, following closure of the mine, many of the original buildings were removed, while others were left to deteriorate. The town was interpreted in the 1980s using ghost structures to reflect the configuration of the buildings that were historically present at the site. These ghost structures include the repair shop, school house, church, company store, seven residences including the superintendent's residence, and the bathhouse.

One of the original mine entrances is accessible, although altered. The original concrete facade of the entrance was reconstructed to aid in interpretation, and railroad tracks were laid extending out of the mine, as they would have been when the site was operational.

Numerous remnants of former structures related to coal processing and loading facilities, housing for mine workers, and other community facilities are located within or adjacent to the Blue Heron Mine Complex site. For example, the original walls of the sand house are located at the east end of the tramway bridge. Remains of the weigh scale are present on the south side of the tipple and tramway bridge. Although these resources do not retain integrity, they may possess information potential as archeological sites.

Other Industrial Features

Gauging Stations (E017, E019). Two concrete gauging stations are present within the gorge. One edges Big South Fork, the other Clear Fork. These concrete block structures are associated with water levels, and by association transportation use of the river. Built circa late 1920s, both appear to possess integrity and to be eligible for listing in the National Register, possibly as contributing structures to a potential rural historic district.

No Business Creek Community industrial features. Similarly, the mill race, piers, and other remnant features at the No Business Creek area do not retain integrity, but likely possess information potential as archeological sites. Other industrial features in the No Business Community area that possess information potential as archeological sites are the rock shelters that were the site of niter mining activities, as well as rock shelters and other locations used for home brewing of alcohol.

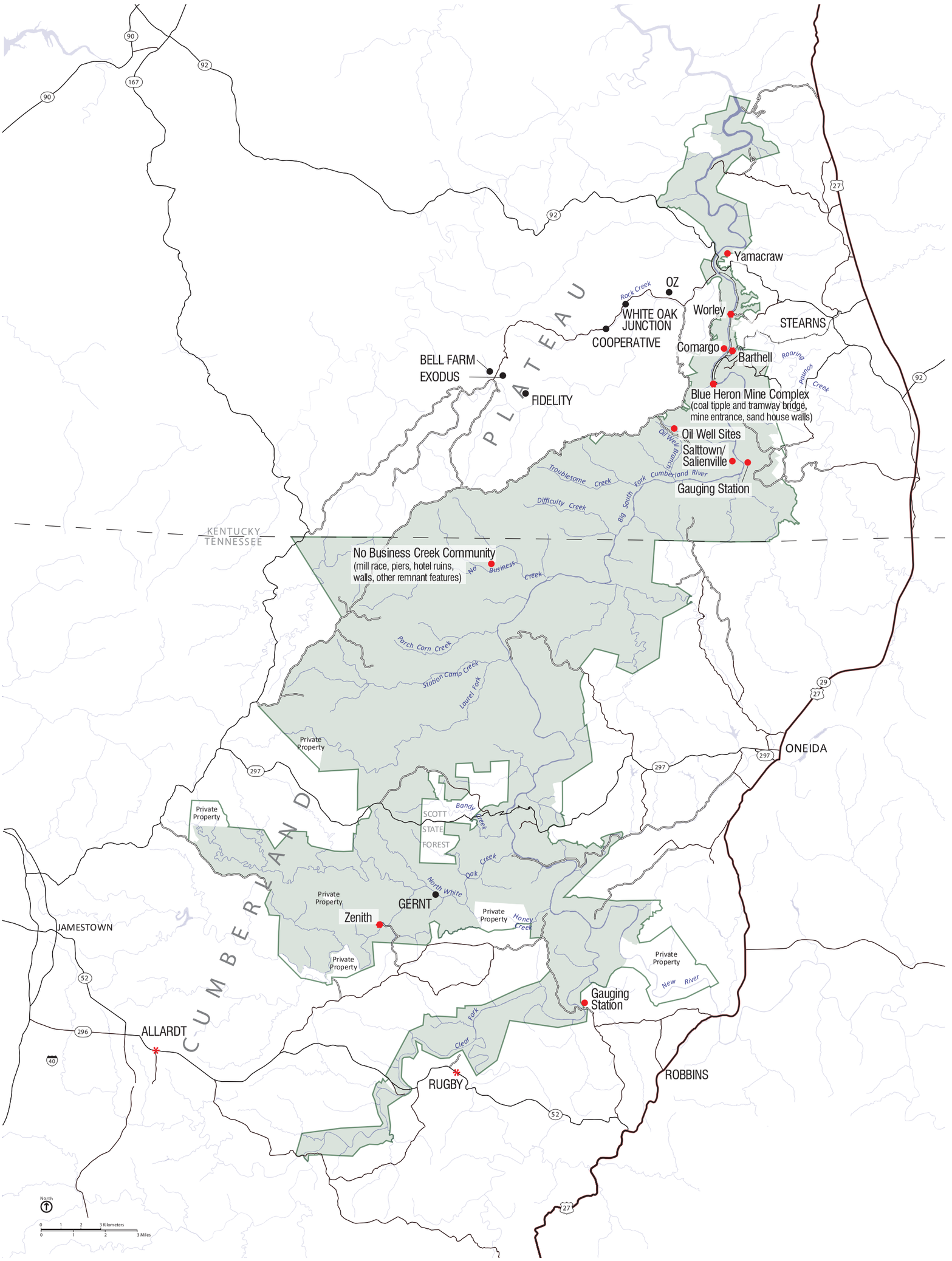
Salttown/Salienville (Beatty Saltworks No. 1). The saltworks site includes the remains of a stone fireplace, remnant stone walls, and excavated depressions that are thought to be the remains of the salt extraction camp. Although these resources do not retain integrity aboveground, they likely possess information potential as an archeological site.

Contributing Properties.

- Blue Heron Mine: Coal tipple and tramway at Blue Heron Mine (LCS No. 578708, Structure No. HS-18)
- Gauging Stations (E017, E019)

Potential Archeological Sites.

- No Business Creek area (mill race, piers, other remnant features)
- Rock shelters that were the site of niter mining activities
- Moonshining sites
- Salttown/Salienville (Beatty Saltworks No. 1)


Yamacraw
OZ
Rock Creek
WHITE OAK JUNCTION
COOPERATIVE
Worley
STEARNS
Comargo
Barthell
Roaring Plunge Creek
BELL FARM
EXODUS
FIDELITY
PLATEAU
Blue Heron Mine Complex
(coal tipple and tramway bridge, mine entrance, sand house walls)
Oil Well Sites
Oil Well Branch
Salttown/ Salienville
Gauging Station
Troublesome Creek
Cumberland River
South Fork
Difficulty Creek
KENTUCKY
TENNESSEE
No Business Creek Community
(mill race, piers, hotel ruins, walls, other remnant features)
No Business Creek
Porch Corn Creek
Station Camp Creek
Laurel Fork
Private Property
ONEIDA
SCOTT STATE FOREST
Bandy Creek
Oak Creek
North White
GERNT
Zenith
Honey Creek
JAMESTOWN
ALLARDT
RUGBY
Clear Fork
New River
ROBBINS
CUMBERLAND
90
92
167
27
297
52
296
40
29
North
0 1 2 3 Kilometers
0 1 2 3 Miles

Historic Context Three: Transportation Systems (circa 1680s–2012)

Introduction

Transportation systems have contributed greatly to the demographics, character, and economy of the Big South Fork River gorge community throughout the historic period. Travel and transportation within the region have historically been limited by the rugged nature of the terrain, and the logistical concerns associated with navigation of the deep gorge and the need to cross the river and its tributary streams. The rugged terrain has precluded the establishment of primary thoroughfares and other transportation systems that would both encourage settlement and easily connect the region with larger market centers. The limitations posed by terrain on travel and transportation effectively limited growth and connectivity within the region, isolating the population economically and socially. Although the region remained relatively isolated during the postbellum period, other parts of Kentucky to the north and Tennessee to the south were opened to trade and commerce through railroad construction. During the early twentieth century, Big South Fork became the focus of timber and coal mining companies seeking to extract the rich mineral resources of the gorge. Their efforts to open the region to mining and timbering also effectively opened the region to travel through construction of two rail lines in the early twentieth century. Ironically, the access that these rail lines afforded to larger markets and communities contributed to an outmigration trend that diminished community structure to the point of no return.

Early settlers established their farmsteads along stream corridors to take advantage of fertile soils, forming modest linear communities that have been referred as a dispersed hollow settlement pattern. This pattern continued even after industrialization and the construction of railroads and roadways began to affect the Basin.[301] Roads were established to connect the farmsteads of these communities with each other and with the limited road networks that extended between larger settlements and towns. Most of the more important road corridors followed the routes of American Indian trails and took advantage of fords and other river crossing locations discovered prior to European-American settlement.[302]

Major road systems have traditionally skirted the margins of the gorge rather than pass through it. Only three roads cross the gorge along the length of the park today: Tennessee Highway 297, which crosses the relatively level central section occupied by the Bandy Creek Visitor Center; Kentucky Highway 92, which traverses the far northern end of the park; and Tennessee Highway 52, which spans the far southern section. Along with the U.S. Highway 27 corridor to the east, these extant road

301. Terry A. Ferguson, Robert A. Pace, Jeffrey W. Gardner, and Robert W. Hoffman, *An Archeological Reconnaissance and Testing of Indirect Impact Areas within Selected Development Sites of the Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area* (Knoxville, Tennessee: University of Tennessee, Department of Anthropology, 1986), 208.

302. William Myer, *Indian Trails of the Southeast* (Nashville, Tennessee: Blue and Gray Press, 1971).

corridors are all thought to follow the earlier routes of American Indian trails. The U.S. Highway 27 corridor, as well as the Cincinnati Southern Railroad line, follow the route of an important American Indian trail that takes advantage of the relatively level topography to the east of the gorge.

Historically, local residents are also known to have used the river itself as a transportation corridor for conveying goods to market; however, where the waters were swift, travel was only possible in one direction—downstream. Shoals, rapids, and changing water levels made this a relatively unreliable and dangerous means of travel and transportation. The use of the river for travel was all but abandoned when rail lines were introduced to support mineral and timber extraction in the early twentieth century. Although established for industrial purposes, these rail lines offered passenger service and greatly increased access to reliable transportation for residents. The two branch railroads that were built into the gorge—the Oneida and Western and the Kentucky and Tennessee—were designed to connect timber and coal mine sites with the main line of the Cincinnati Southern Railroad, thus offering passengers the opportunity to connect with the major rail line as well. Local residents came to rely on the rail lines for much of their travel. When these lines were abandoned in the 1950s due to diminished timber and coal reserves, their loss contributed to the outmigration of the local population that had begun in the early twentieth century. By the 1950s, local roads remained unpaved and an often unreliable means of transportation. Although the majority of the roads that exist within the park were established by 1874, few were paved until the 1970s. In fact, there are roads within the gorge that were not paved until 1985–1986. Tennessee Highway 297 continued to cross the Big South Fork River via a low-water bridge that was frequently inundated until 1982 when the current structure was completed.

There are several transportation-related features that survive within the park today to convey associations with the long-standing history of cultural use of the Basin (refer to Figure 99 at the end of this chapter). The roads that structured life within the Big South Fork River gorge throughout the late nineteenth and twentieth centuries continue to support park visitors and administration today either for vehicular use or as hiking and equestrian trails. Most of the rail lines have been removed, although a portion of the Kentucky and Tennessee survives and remains in use whereby a private company operates a steam locomotive to convey historic train cars along the line for pleasure trips between Stearns, Kentucky, and the Blue Heron mine site.

Pre-nineteenth century transportation systems, trails, and road corridors adapted from American Indian travel routes (circa 1680s–1800)

American Indian Trails

Today, circulation routes within Big South Fork continue to reflect travel networks used by the American Indian tribes that traversed and visited the Upper Cumberland Plateau prior to recorded history and at Contact, as well as the European-American long hunters who visited the region in the 1760s and 1770s.

Early European-American explorers and settlers made reference to several American Indian trails extending through the Upper Cumberland Plateau region. American Indians also traveled by water in dugout canoes and more nimble boats made from skins stretched over a wooden framework.[303] These trails are known to have formed the basis for European-American access to the region.[304] They are also thought to follow the migration routes of larger grazing herd animals, as they moved between feeding grounds, salt springs, and

303. Humphrey, 4.

304. William W. Myer, *Indian Trails of the Southeast* (Blue and Gray Press, 1971).

freshwater sources, and were used by American Indians for hunting purposes.[305]

Although both the Cherokee and the Shawnee claimed authority over the Upper Cumberland Plateau at Contact, neither tribe is thought to have maintained permanent settlements within the region, choosing instead to establish base settlements in the more fertile valleys of the Tennessee and Ohio Rivers. The Upper Cumberland Plateau, however, served as an important transportation corridor and a hunting reserve, as well as a barrier between these often contentious tribes.

Based on early records of European-American explorers and settlers, three American Indian trails are thought to have passed through the Big South Fork River Basin: the so-called Tennessee, Ohio, and Great Lakes Trail; Baker-Watters Bridle Way; and Chickamauga Path (Figure 87). These trails were described as generally about 6 to 8 feet wide and open enough so that two horses could travel side by side for long distances. These trails had spur trails that led to more localized destinations.

William E. Myer, author of *Indian Trails of the Southeast*, published in 1971, discusses the Tennessee, Ohio, and Great Lakes Trail, precursor to the route of present-day U.S. Highway 27 and the Cincinnati Southern Railway line. The trail also connected the future locations of Lexington, Kentucky, and Crab Orchard, Tennessee.[306] Myer believes the trail initiated in the American Indian settlements of north Georgia, and followed the Emory River Valley north towards present-day Burnside, Kentucky, before continuing on to the Great Lakes. Some refer to this as the Great Tellico Trail for its use by several American Indian tribes to travel to the Tellico country of Tennessee.[307] The route generally followed a relatively level corridor by traversing ridgelines and avoiding steep and wet terrain. American Indian camp sites

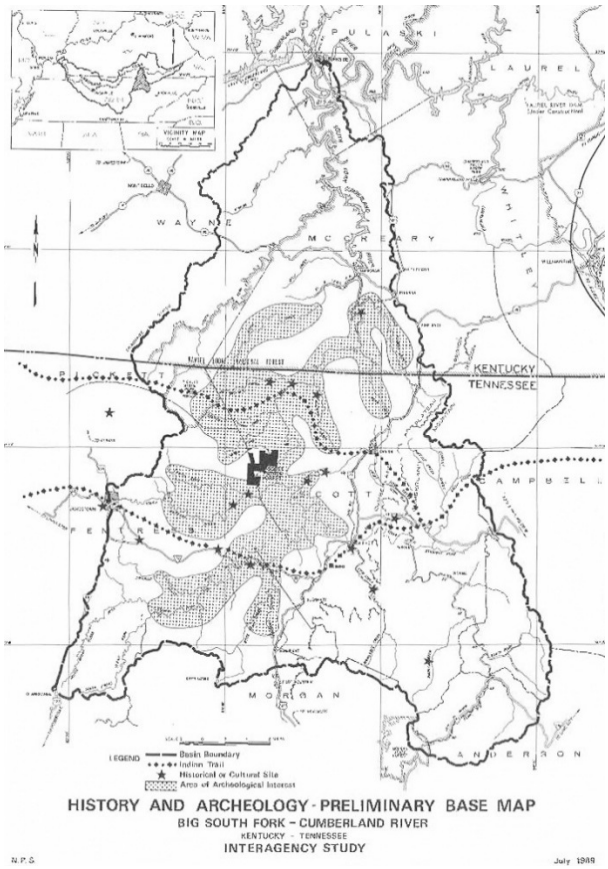


FIGURE 87. Map showing American Indian trails. Source: U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, *Big South Fork, Cumberland River (Kentucky-Tennessee), Interagency Field Task Group Report*.

have purportedly been identified atop most of the ridges and at every cross ridge along the corridor.[308] The route stretched from the Tennessee Valley to the Cumberland Valley at Burnside, and on to central Kentucky around Danville, Harrodsburg, and Lexington.[309] The route today occupied by the rail line was first an American Indian trail that was later used by settlers to migrate and drive their livestock along. It later became a wagon road, and the route of the Cincinnati Southern Railway.[310]

The Baker-Watters Bridle Way extended between the present-day communities of Williamsburg and Monticello along an east-west route similar to

305. Robert F. Collins, *A History of the Daniel Boone National Forest; 1770–1970* (Winchester, Kentucky: U.S. Forest Service, 1975), 151, and Humphrey, 2.
306. Howell et al. (1981), 19.
307. Ibid., 144.
308. Hutchinson et al., 7; Myer.
309. Humphrey, 4.
310. Humphrey, 5.

present-day Kentucky Highway 92. The trail began near Yamacraw, a community named for a tribe of American Indians that moved to the region from South Carolina after signing the Treaty of Sycamore Shoals in 1775.[311] The trail continued to Indian Gap, now known as Jane Hale Gap, near Williamsburg, Kentucky. Tribes associated with the Cheeknee River area used this trail to travel to and from their hunting grounds along Jellico Creek. Settlers are known to have used the trail as early as 1804 as a public passageway to Wayne County, Kentucky. From Monticello, another trail traveled southeastward, crossing the Big South Fork River near its confluence with Rock Creek.

The Chickamauga Path, which generally extended in a north-south direction, linked Chickamauga villages near Chattanooga, Tennessee, and a American Indian camp known as Sand Springs near present-day Jamestown, Tennessee, approximately 10 miles from Big South Fork. At Sand Springs, the trail intersected another travelway that extended from the mouth of the Holston River to the Wolf River.[312] The Chickamauga Path also followed White Oak Creek to Glenmary, Tennessee, where it joined the Tennessee, Ohio, and Great Lakes Trail.[313] American Indian settlements were located at Jamestown, Tennessee, and along White Oak Creek. Another American Indian camp site has been identified in Scott County, Tennessee, along the east-west trail.[314] The east-west trail crossed the Big South Fork just north of Rugby, along a similar route to that of present-day Tennessee Highway 52.

Another regionally important route that did not connect directly to Big South Fork was the Warrior's Path, which extended in a northwest–southeast direction approximately 50 miles to the east of the Tennessee, Ohio, and Great Lakes Trail. This route was used by both the Cherokee and the Shawnee, who regularly traveled great distances for commerce, social events, warfare, and hunting.[315] The Warrior's Path passed through Cumberland Gap near the Kentucky/Tennessee/Virginia border, a passageway that offered the most advantageous route across the Cumberland Mountains for many miles in either direction.

European-American settlers chose a similar route by which to move west during the eighteenth century. Daniel Boone and other early settlers established the Wilderness Road through the gap circa 1775 on behalf of the Transylvania Company, following a route that is referred to today as the Boone Trace. The Wilderness Road extended for 200 miles. It began at Fort Chiswell in Virginia, and continued southwestward by following the Cumberland Mountains to the Cumberland Gap. Once through the gap, the road traveled northwest through Tennessee to Boonesborough on the Kentucky border. There, a spur route split from the Wilderness Road near Crab Orchard and continued in a more westerly direction to Logan's Fort. Travelers could follow the route in order to pick up another trail that led to the Ohio River at present-day Louisville. The Wilderness Road otherwise continued to central Kentucky and the Bluegrass region, including a section now known as Skaggs Trace (Figure 88). A portion of the Wilderness Road followed the Warrior's Path.

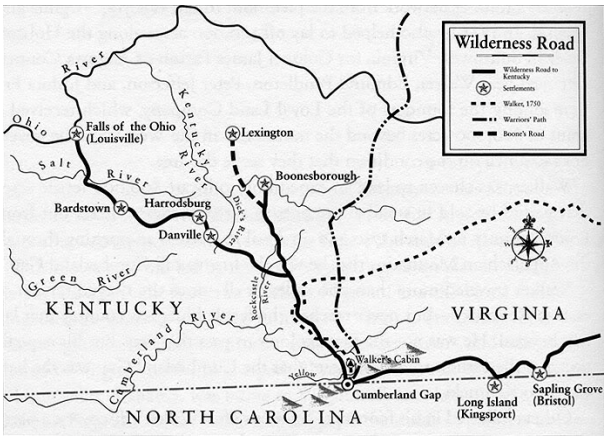


FIGURE 88. A map showing the location of Wilderness Road in relation to Cumberland Gap and the state boundary of Kentucky. Source: National Park Service.

311. Collins, 145.
312. U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, *Interagency Report*, 39.
313. National Park Service, *Parch Corn Creek Component Landscape Cultural Landscape Inventory*, supplemental information, page 1 of 19.
314. Hutchinson et al., 8.
315 *Parch Corn Creek Component Landscape Cultural Landscape Inventory*, supplemental information, page 1 of 19.

Early European-American Exploration and Settlement

The first European-American party to traverse the Cumberland Gap was led by Dr. Thomas Walker in 1750. The party represented the Loyal Land Company, established in 1749 to recruit settlers to western Virginia. In its effort to identify potential settlement sites, the Walker party initially traveled northwest from the gap until they reached the Cumberland River. Walker's party established a rustic cabin near present-day Barboursville, Kentucky, as part of its effort to lay claim to the region.[316] Later, land grants available within the region encouraged settlers to follow the same route through the gap into the area. Their travels were facilitated by the exploration efforts conducted by Daniel Boone in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries.

Boone was hired to build a road from the Watauga settlements, established in 1769 by colonists from Virginia and North Carolina along the Watauga River near present-day Elizabethton, Tennessee, on land leased from the Cherokee, to the territory opened by the 1775 Treaty of Sycamore Shoals. In the treaty, Richard Henderson's Transylvania Company purchased a large parcel of land from the Cherokee located within eastern Kentucky and Tennessee south of the Ohio River, between the Cumberland and Kentucky Rivers.[317] The Watauga settlements in eastern Tennessee, as well as the Cumberland settlement in middle Tennessee were settled much earlier than Big South Fork due to the fact that they could be reached by water without traveling across the Cumberland Mountains.[318] The treaties between the Transylvania Company and the Cherokee were later deemed invalid by the federal government, as well as by the State of Tennessee.

The long hunters. Early Kentucky historians enumerate a long list of early pioneers—hunters, trappers, and explorers who followed various American Indian trails across the Cumberland Gap into southeastern Kentucky and northeastern Tennessee between 1760 and 1775.[319] Prior to European-American settlement of the region, Big South Fork was visited by parties of trappers and hunters known as the long hunters, beginning in circa 1769–1770. Some long hunters described following American Indian trails into the area from Cumberland Gap.[320] In 1769, a party of long hunters from North Carolina is known to have crossed the Cumberland Mountains through Cumberland Gap, and traveled north into Kentucky. They subsequently followed the Cumberland River upriver to the Big South Fork where they visited a meadow, now referred to as Prince's Meadow or Prince's Station, about 6 miles from Monticello, Kentucky.

The long hunters visited the region seeking pelts and animal fur for commercial trade. Long hunters are also known to have explored the Tennessee section of the Big South Fork, including establishing a base or station camp near present-day Charit Creek Lodge. One of the first permanent settlers in Scott County, Tennessee, was a long hunter named Hunt, for whom the town of Huntsville is named.[321]

Early settlement. Throughout the remainder of the eighteenth century, overland travel through the region consisted of primitive footpaths and rough wagon roads. The region was visited primarily by the long hunters until treaties were signed between the U.S. Government and the Cherokee and Shawnee that allowed for settlement. In 1785, the Hopewell Treaty opened land in the southern half of the Cumberland River drainage basin to European-American settlement. Some of the first settlers to establish claims to land in the Big South Fork region were Revolutionary War soldiers who received the property as compensation for their military service. Richard Henry Slaven, a Revolutionary War soldier, was granted a tract of land in Scott County, Tennessee. He arrived via the Monticello Trail and established a claim to land between the mouth of Bear Creek

316. Hutchinson et al., 8.
317. Ibid.
318. Ibid., 9.
319. Hutchinson et al., 8.
320. *Parch Corn Creek Component Landscape Cultural Landscape Inventory*, supplemental information, page 2 of 19.
321. Ibid.

and the mouth of Parch Corn Creek, where he is buried. Other settlers received grants from the State of Tennessee, established in 1796, while some squatted.[322]

Many of the early immigrants were from Virginia and North Carolina. Those traveling from Virginia followed the Wilderness Road established by Daniel Boone into the areas of Station Camp and No Business. West of the Cumberland Gap, travelers could choose to follow a second trail traveling south along the Cumberland River toward Nashville, Tennessee, which by 1801 had become the Walton Road, or the primary route that extended into the Bluegrass region of Kentucky. By the late eighteenth century, a great migration of pioneers seeking new land for homesteads and farms had begun, bringing thousands of settlers through the Cumberland Gap each year with herds of livestock and their possessions loaded on pack horses.

Despite the signing of several treaties, relations between the Cherokee and Shawnee and settlers continued to result in tensions and conflict throughout the remainder of the eighteenth and well into the nineteenth centuries. Additional treaties resulted from these ongoing conflicts, including the Butler and Walton Treaty of 1798 that opened much of the land north of the Emory River, and the Third Tellico Treaty of 1805, the principal agreement for transfer of land in eastern Kentucky that resulted in legal settlement. In the Third Tellico Treaty, the Cherokee ceded possession of 7,032 square miles of land in Tennessee and 1,086 square miles of land in what is now Bell, Whitley, and McCreary Counties in Kentucky to the U.S. government. The treaty was signed and agreed to by minor Cherokee chief "Doublehead" of the Running Water villages in violation of the tribal mandate prohibiting signing away of any tribal land.[323]

After this time, documentation suggests that many European-American and Cherokee marriages occurred, resulting in an assimilation of Cherokee into local communities. However, it is possible that tensions also continued until 1830, when the Indian Removal Act led to edicts requiring Cherokee and other tribes in the Eastern United States to relocate west of the Mississippi River.

Between 1803 and 1853, Tellico Land Grants were issued for parcels deeded to individual settlers around the Big and Little South Fork Rivers. The grants resulted from the U.S. government's claim to land acquired from the Cherokee as part of the Tellico treaties.

The first land patents in the territory were located along the Tennessee, Ohio, and Great Lakes Trail near Burnside, Kentucky, encompassing land along the southern forks of the Cumberland River.[324] Patents also followed the American Indian trail that extended west from Whitley City and Stearns toward Wayne County, Kentucky, and a trail that began in Winfield, Tennessee, and traveled west to Wayne County and east to Bear Creek. Settlement continued to follow existing travel routes for another fifty years due to the difficulties associated with the rugged terrain. Early settlers built their homes directly along the Tennessee, Ohio, and Great Lakes Trail, which was the only reliably accessible travel route within the region. Described as dry and open even in wet weather, the trail followed ridgelines and was relatively level. Settlers used the trail to move their livestock to market. Eventually, the trail became a wagon road. When the first railroad—the Cincinnati Southern—was built through the area in the late nineteenth century, it also followed this route.[325]

In addition to the adaptive reuse of American Indian trails, and the routes established for travel by Daniel Boone to the east, early settlement in eastern Kentucky and Tennessee benefitted from

322. Ibid., 9.
323. Tom Des Jean, "Chuqualataque (Doublehead)." *Tennessee Encyclopedia of History and Culture*, Carol Van West, ed. (Nashville, Rutlege Hill Press, Nashville, 1998), 158.
324. Land patents constitute the first title deeds or claims that document titles for land originally owned by a sovereign or American Indian tribe.
325. Hutchinson et al., 7.

the many miles of navigable and semi-navigable streams. Rivers quickly became the principal mode for conveying goods to southern markets. One of the most important rivers in the area was the Cumberland. While the river was considered better suited for navigation than any other Mississippi River tributary, it remained filled with obstacles, particularly along its south forks, rendering travel along these sections challenging and dangerous. The first boats on the Cumberland River were pirogues, or hollowed out log canoes, which were only large enough for one or two men. Local residents would later adopt keelboats and pole boats for travel along the south forks of the Cumberland, due to their suitability for navigating the swift, shallow, and rock-bottomed waters of the Cumberland River. Flat-bottomed boats could be used on any water body that was at least three feet deep. During the late nineteenth century, when timbering began to offer local residents an opportunity to generate income from their land, logs were conveyed downriver to market in flat-bottomed boats and as part of rafts. To support these commercial activities along the river, boatyards were eventually built along the Cumberland, including sections of the Big South Fork.[326]

Internal roads slowly developed to connect early settlements within the Big South Fork region. These roads, like the settlements, often followed streamlines, linking the small communities of the gorge landscape. Most of the early roads followed streambeds, making travel hazardous after a rain, as the roads regularly flooded.[327] One of the most important local trade routes linked settlements along Parch Corn, Station Camp, and No Business creeks. It extended to Monticello, Kentucky, where it provided access to the Cumberland River. Other roads led southwest to the area of present-day Jamestown, Tennessee.[328] Given the rugged terrain and challenges associated with both overland and river travel, few other settlements developed within the interior of the Big South Fork region until the late nineteenth century, and the Big South Fork region remained characterized by non-commercial, subsistence-oriented farming from early settlement until well after the Civil War, despite a recognized wealth of mineral deposits.[329] Towns with ties to Big South Fork, such as Oneida and Jamestown, were not established until much later.[330]

Nineteenth Century Transportation Systems and Corridors

Although most residents were subsistence-level farmers, rich deposits of mineral resources discovered in the area beginning in the eighteenth century became the object of extraction efforts during the early nineteenth century. By the 1810s, settlement accelerated within the Big South Fork region. Shortages of salt and gunpowder caused by the War of 1812 led the state of Kentucky to offer incentives for salt production or extraction. With both minerals available locally, the Wayne County government made a motion to construct a road from Monticello, Kentucky, to the site of the Beatty Salt Works and Salttown on the Big South Fork, 3 miles west of Bear Creek, in 1817.[331]

In 1817 and 1818, the Kentucky legislature determined that the improvement of highways should be classified as a non-public obligation, and transferred the responsibility for building new roads to private stock companies. These companies were incorporated in order to build turnpikes as a speculative endeavor. They funded road construction work and provided a return on investment to their investors by collecting tolls from those traveling on the roads. These tolls added to the cost of goods transported by highway, often making them prohibitively expensive for small farmers. Turnpikes, popular

326. McBride and McBride, III-49.
327. McBride and McBride from Thomas C. Clark, *A History of Kentucky* (Lexington, Kentucky: John Bradford Press, 1960, original 1939), 182.
328. *Parch Corn Creek Component Landscape Cultural Landscape Inventory*, supplemental information, page 2 of 19.
329. Ibid., page 5 of 19.
330. Ibid., page 4 of 19.
331. Ibid., page 4 of 19.

throughout the eastern United States during the early nineteenth century, were also built in Tennessee. Turnpikes listed in the Fentress County land entry book for 1828 and 1829 include the Piles Turnpike, Marchbank Turnpike, and Helm's Turnpike. Locations mentioned in association with the routes of these turnpikes include Clear Fork, Rock Castle Creek, Johnson's Stand or Guffey's Road, the Obed River, Crooked Creek, and Mill Creek.[332]

One of the means of travel on turnpikes and other roads included the stagecoach. Stagecoach travel was relatively expensive due to the difficulties encountered along the rough roads and the fact that the stage companies were held accountable for any injuries to persons or goods. Weather affected travel; during the rainy season, detours, delays, and mechanical problems resulting from muddy conditions were common on roads that were slow and hazardous even in times of good weather. Weather was factored into the rates charged for transporting goods and passengers. For example, rates were higher and trips were fewer during the rainy season.

In addition to turnpikes, the introduction of the steamboat affected transportation and travel within the region. By 1820, steamboats were in use on the Cumberland River. Steamboats offered an improvement in the speed and reliability of travel, and greatly improved the cultural and economic ties of the region. Towns such as Burnside and Somerset, Kentucky, located along the river, particularly benefitted. River towns experienced significant growth during the 1820s due to the introduction of the steamboat and the economic prosperity of the late 1820s and 1830s, leading to a general need for river improvements to aid safe navigation.[333]

Improvements were also made to the road network during the 1830s and 1840s. These improvements included widening some roads for wagon passage, surfacing them with macadam or corduroying, and establishing new roads to connect county seats with other communities.

Road improvements rendered travel between the Big South Fork region and Virginia, North Carolina, and the Nashville Basin easier and quicker, although the region remained far less accessible than other parts of Kentucky and Tennessee. While these improvements might have helped to lower the prices of many goods entering the region and to support export of local farm products, they were overshadowed by the rise in industrialization and technological innovation occurring in the Northeastern United States and England. The factories in industrialized regions began to greatly increase the output and variety of many products, including textiles, ceramics, furniture, and arms, while also lowering their costs. This reduced the competitiveness of isolated regions such as Big South Fork.

By the mid-nineteenth century, turnpike companies had begun to go out of business after failing to turn a profit, after which time local governments were once again forced to maintain road systems. County court orders during the first half of the nineteenth century are dominated by local road issues. Male citizens were required to work on roads near where they owned property.[334] Local oral histories relate this fact, noting that farmers living along the No Business Creek community road, within the present-day park boundaries, were fined if they did not maintain those sections of road bordering their properties.[335]

While roads slowly improved within the Big South Fork area during the antebellum period, the enhancements to transportation systems made in other parts of Kentucky and Tennessee were substantially better than those within the Appalachian Plateau. Because of the poor quality of its roads, Appalachia became increasingly

332. McBride and McBride, III-49.
333. Ibid.
334. Ibid., III-50.
335. Jean Burke, "Memoirs of Station Camp and No Business, Scott County, Tennessee" (unpublished manuscript on file at Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, 1987).

isolated. It is likely that the unique and distinct Appalachian subculture began to evolve during this antebellum period, as residents remained isolated from the tremendous forces of change occurring elsewhere in the eastern United States.[336]

By the 1860s, there were several documented roads within the Big South Fork region. These included the Somerset-Jacksboro Road, the precursor to present-day U.S. Highway 27, which followed the course of the southern section of the Wilderness Trail that had grown out of the Tennessee, Ohio, and Great Lakes Trail. The road crossed the Cumberland River at Smith Shoals (Burnside) and passed through present-day Pine Knot. At times of high water on the Cumberland River, river crossings were nearly impossible. However, they could also be rough at times of low water. For those living along the road, however, it was often the only means of travel around and out of the area.

The Jamestown Road was another important early road that followed a American Indian trail alignment. It traversed a ridge in southeastern McCreary County, before continuing on to Jamestown, Tennessee. Now referred to as the Divide Road, this road forms the boundary between Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area and the Daniel Boone National Forest.

The Huntsville to Monticello Road was another important early road, built, in part, by Hudson "Huts" Burke in 1853.[337] Burke is said to have built the section from Dry Branch, at the Kentucky line, through the No Business Creek valley.[338]

Railroads were proposed, but never built, within the Big South Fork region prior to the Civil War, although other parts of these states witnessed railroad development by the 1850s. In general, Tennessee was slower to build railroads than Kentucky. Proposed projects included the establishment of a line to connect Cincinnati and the Kentucky bluegrass region with Knoxville and Chattanooga, Tennessee. A charter was, in fact, granted for construction of the Knoxville and Kentucky line several years prior to the Civil War, but the line was never built. Another line that was to cross parts of Kentucky—the Lexington and Danville—was completed as far as Nicholasville, Kentucky, by 1856, with plans to continue south. However, expansion of the line was not begun in earnest before the war; by the time the war ended, funds were no longer available to complete the line. Other attempts to link Cincinnati and the Kentucky Bluegrass region included the chartering of the Kentucky Union Railway in 1854. A financial panic in 1857 thwarted the railway's plans to construct the line.

The Civil War

The Civil War affected transportation in the Big South Fork region of the Upper Cumberland Plateau in several ways. In particular, it interfered with commercial enterprises due to the threat posed by roving bands of guerrilla fighters with both Confederate and Union sympathies. The war also led to animosity amongst community members due to the divided loyalties within the region that emerged when the generally Union-leaning region became part of a Confederate state. Divided loyalties diminished the very important cooperative component of the regional economy.

The already isolated region returned to a primarily subsistence-based mode of life during the Civil War. Farm life was made more difficult as passing military personnel and guerillas stole horses and crops, and destroyed buildings. Bands of soldiers for both sides likely enlisted the help of locals as they occupied and traveled over the rugged land. Another factor leading to difficult economic conditions was the virtual stoppage of trade on the Cumberland River, when gunboats cruising the lower portion of the river kept boatmen and raftmen at home. This meant that the commodities produced by area farms, and materials used by local farmers, became unavailable. Later, the gunboats reached the upper portion of the

336. McBride and McBride, III-50.
337. Ibid.
338. Burke.

Cumberland, essentially shutting down the river economy.[339]

Roads affording passage through the gorge were considered a threat to Confederate forces hoping to maintain control of the critical strongholds of Chattanooga and Knoxville. In June 1861, Gen. Felix Zollicoffer, who was in charge of maintaining Confederate control over the region, worked diligently to protect avenues of approach to the Cumberland Gap area. Despite his efforts, one area proved especially challenging and worrisome to Zollicoffer—the Upper Cumberland plateau. When Zollicoffer surveyed the area in October 1861, he reported that "This section of the country is in perilous condition." Of particular concern were the several rough roads, four in Fentress County and two in Scott County that, because of their remoteness and inaccessibility, were likely Union invasion routes. Federal troops passing through the area along these roads could easily reach Knoxville from the west. Rather than attempting to defend the broken and difficult terrain, Zollicoffer determined that he would need to place patrols in the area, with plans to stop the Federals by blocking them at passes along the eastern escarpment of the plateau, forcing them to either starve or retreat.[340]

W. J. Worsham, a member of the Nineteenth Tennessee Infantry that was part of the Zollicoffer survey, described the landscape of the Upper Cumberland Plateau as follows:

> Leaving Jacksboro we passed through Wartburg and Montgomery, and crossing the little Emory River we ascended the Cumberland Mountains again, on whose top we traveled for thirty miles, through as lonely and desolate country as could be found. We passed a residence about every six miles, til we reached Jamestown, the county seat of Fentress County, a small cluster of houses in a rocky, barren county, almost destitute of any sign of life, where the wind's only song is the sad requiem of starvation.[341]

Westwood James, a member of the 16th Alabama Infantry, described the Upper Cumberland at this time as follows:

> . . . after two days of hard walking finds our actor at Wattsville [Wartburg] a little German town where the grapes grow and wine is to be had in abundance. . . . The country here is pretty hilly but not too much for growing grapes & corner, wheat & c[?]. . . . There are hundreds of acres planted . . . . Apple & peach brandy & new corn whiskey appear to be the principal products of the soil . . . . The town has an old, ragged appearance . . . .[342]

In 1863, it was along the barren landscape and desolate roads that one of the most dramatic events of the Civil War for local residents took place. This involved troop movements across the Big South Fork River during Union Gen. Ambrose E. Burnside's march on Knoxville. In order to secure Knoxville, Tennessee, Burnside moved his 23rd Corps toward the city from various points in Kentucky between August 12 and 20, 1863. These troops were spread over a wide area and followed several routes to reach Knoxville. Two divisions, those of Brig Gen. Samuel P. Carter and Burnside himself, followed what was called the Ridge Road or Montgomery Road—approximately the route of U.S. Highway 27. The diary of Samuel Harrison of the 44th Ohio Volunteer Infantry discusses the route and the enormous size of the columns of men and equipment passing through the Big South Fork region. Harrison also mentions the establishment of camps at Chitwood and White Oak Creek. The army is known to have split into two groups after leaving Oneida, with one group crossing the Big South Fork at New River and

339. William Montell, *Don't Go Up Kettle Creek: Verbal Legacy of the Upper Cumberland* (Knoxville, Tennessee: University of Tennessee Press, 2000), 132–134.
340. Michael R. O'Neal, "The Civil War on the Upper Cumberland Plateau in Tennessee" (Huntsville, Tennessee: Scott County Historical Society, May 3, 1982), 6.
341. W. J. Worsham, *The Old Nineteenth Tennessee Regiment C.S.A.* (Knoxville: Paragon Printing Company, 1902), 18–19.
342. Michael Musick, ed., "Glorious War: The Diary of Westwood James," *Civil War Times Illustrated* XVII (October 1978), 32–42.

traveling up Brimstone Creek, and the other crossing Big South Fork at Low Gap.[343] The two groups met at Walker's Bridge on Brimstone Creek.[344] The Official Records document that the march was slowed by the roughness of the terrain. Burnside himself reported on September 1, 1863, that the opposition of the enemy had been trifling, while the natural obstacles were far more serious. The troops were forced to devote time to road widening in order to allow the men, wagons, and equipment to pass. The road widening was likely greatly appreciated by local residents.[345]

Big South Fork oral history informant Will Miller stated:

> My dad said there was a whole regiment come through there once, when he was just a little boy. They passed through day and night, pulling the cannons with horses. They were going to Knoxville.

Bill Miller, grandson of Will Miller and another Big South Fork oral history informant had a number of stories about Burnside's march. He stated:

> About the Civil War, from what I could find out what he told me they came through here [No Business] for two days and nights, soldiers, and one column after another . . . . Can you imagine on that little road . . . that many troops.[346]

The lack of rail transportation to Knoxville proved to be a hindrance to Union troop movements. Based on the difficulties encountered trying to effectively move troops and goods within the area, including from Camp Nelson, during their efforts to secure Knoxville, Burnside later ordered a rail line be built into the region from the north. This was never accomplished, however.[347]

Late Nineteenth Century Transportation

After the Civil War, local residents generally returned to life as had been before the conflict began. Transportation routes through the Big South Fork region continued to include roads and the river. The roads in service before the war continued in use. These roads remain the basis for the highway and road network present today.[348]

The region's roads declined in quality in the decades following the war because of a diversion of attention and resources to the railroads. Most roads were dirt-surfaced, although a few were improved with crushed rock. Toll roads persisted in some locations. Roads typically followed the ridges or the valley floors. Crossing between valleys continued to be a problem, especially in poorly drained areas or places where soils with high clay contents created slick or washed-out conditions. Roads also quickly eroded to the bedrock sandstone or shale in many areas, which made for a bumpy or even unstable surface. A lack of bridges also added to the difficulty of travel when water levels were high, as travelers were forced to rely on fords. While ferries remained essential for crossing larger creeks and rivers throughout the nineteenth, and into the twentieth, centuries, ferries are not known to have existed within the boundaries of Big South Fork.[349] Fords were used in association with many smaller streams, although they were not always passable, rendering travel unpredictable. Johnboats—small, flat-bottomed boats that could be paddled or poled in shallow waters—were occasionally used when wagons could not ford the streams.[350]

Despite the poor travelway surfaces and seasonal uncertainties, most parts of Kentucky and Tennessee witnessed at least limited improvements in the road connections to their county seats and important trade centers during the postbellum period. Roads continued to be

343. *Parch Corn Creek Component Landscape Cultural Landscape Inventory*, supplemental information, page 5 of 19.
344. McBride and McBride, IV-6.
345. Ibid.
346. Ibid., IV-6–IV-7.
347. Ibid., V-64.
348. Howell et al. (1981), 21.
349. McBride and McBride, V-67.
350. Howell et al. (1981), 35.

used as they had been before the Civil War: to drive stock to towns, to haul goods in wagons or on sleds, and for foot and horse travel. Roads were used to convey goods to the rural stores from wholesalers located in Knoxville or Louisville. Peddlers used the roads to bring goods directly to houses. Peddlers, also known as drummers locally, were especially important for distributing goods and news from circa 1870 to 1903, as most farmers were so poor that they were unable to maintain accounts at local stores.[351]

The poor quality of roads in the Big South Fork region was a hindrance to economic recovery and the emergence of commercial agriculture within the region, as was occurring elsewhere. Cultural geographer Carl Sauer notes that the more rugged sections of Appalachia consistently lacked good road connections during this period. Goods had to be hauled by wagons using teams of draft mules or horses. Even with teams of strong animals and large, sturdy wagons, the teamsters were often unable to travel during winter weather events. Sleds apparently sometimes replaced wagons, at least for local transportation.[352] Sauer has suggested that the tradition of subsistence agriculture contributed to the ongoing lack of improved transportation systems in eastern Kentucky during the postbellum period, thus contributing to the region's isolation and continued focus on antebellum lifeways, which increasingly contrasted the changes occurring within better connected parts of Kentucky and Tennessee.

Big South Fork was not the only region where roads were problematic. Inadequately maintained toll roads in many areas led to protests and government responses:

> Increasing dissatisfaction with road conditions and control by private companies led to cries of 'free roads, free markets' in the late 1880s. Violence against the toll gates and houses greatly reduced the value of toll companies and contributed to their eventual purchase by county governments. In 1894, a special tax was levied in Kentucky to help counties assume control of some sections of roads, and in 1896, a bill allowed for further control and purchase of roads by counties. By 1913, only 300.5 miles of toll roads existed in Kentucky. Counties purchased some road improvements, but lack of resources at the county level no doubt slowed progress in road building in some areas.[353]

During the 1870s and 1880s, as the country began to emerge from the effects of the Civil War and financial conditions improved, interest in railroads was renewed on the part of state governments, as well as investors who sought to connect communities, markets, and sources of raw materials.[354] Throughout the nation, the growth and development of the railroads during the fourth quarter of the nineteenth century had important implications for regional and local settlement patterns, economic development, access to material goods and trade networks, and the creation of new landscape typologies. Railroad corridors were used to string the first telegraph and telephone lines, thus also influencing modern communication.[355]

Rail lines offered a commercial advantage to the communities traversed. While towns had previously formed around crossroads or navigable waterways, new towns now formed around rail lines. Towns located along or near a rail line enjoyed numerous benefits not available to those without rail service. These advantages were well-understood by citizens, especially business leaders, who lobbied long and hard for railroads, frequently donated land and rights-of-way, and issued bonds to fund construction in order to support completion of lines through their communities.[356] Oftentimes, older towns that were bypassed declined in population, while business and industrial interests relocated. The railroads

351. McBride and McBride, V-67.
352. Ibid., V-68.
353. Ibid.
354. Ibid., V-63.
355. Ibid., citing John R. Stilgoe, *Common Landscapes of America. 1580 to 1845* (New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1983).
356. Ibid., V-64.

thus shaped demographics, economics, and the character of the landscape.

State governments encouraged railroad construction by granting charters and offering tax incentives. In Kentucky, for example, the state government granted more than 210 charters for railroad companies during the postbellum period. Some businessmen recognized the enormous advantages afforded the railroad companies and began to form large organizations, such as the Louisville and Nashville, to benefit from their development. In response to the need for regulation to avoid concerns of monopoly and abuse, the Kentucky Railroad Commission was established in 1880. Among other endeavors, the commission worked to standardize gauge sizes and improve transferability between lines.

Between 1870 and 1900, the number of miles of railroad track in Kentucky tripled, affording residents access to broader markets where they could sell their own goods and raw materials and helping to make goods that residents needed to purchase cheaper. The railroads also offered a much faster and easier mode of personal travel in a region that had been plagued by poor and unreliable roads.[357]

The first rail line to pass through the Big South Fork region was the Cincinnati Southern Railway, which extended between Cincinnati, Ohio, and Chattanooga, Tennessee by 1880. The line followed the route of the historic American Indian Tennessee, Ohio, and Great Lakes Trail and later adopted for the Somerset, Jackson Road (present-day U.S. Highway 27).[358] The rail line was instrumental in bringing the outside world closer to Big South Fork. The line, however, was located too far from the river basin itself to influence the local economy on a daily basis, although it would eventually serve as a trunk line from which branch lines could reach the gorge interior.

Among the transportation needs of local residents was access to larger markets for their farm products and the byproducts of several local cottage industries. Transportation systems in general were essential for making the transition from subsistence farming to commercial production. It was also critical to the extractive industrial enterprises that began to arise during the late nineteenth century within the Basin.

One of the first extractive efforts conducted by local residents was logging. During the late nineteenth century, the demand for timber increased greatly due to the needs of the railroads to build rail lines using wooden ties, and to power its steam locomotives. The local logging economy, however, preceded railroad development. Because rail lines remained some distance from many of the nineteenth century logging sites and camps, early loggers relied on the river to transport timber to market. Spring and fall rains provided lumbermen with sufficient water power to move their logs downriver. Mules and oxen skidded the logs from forest stands onto bluffs overlooking the river, where they could be rolled or dropped into log chutes or slides that carried them to the water to await river level rises resulting from heavy rains. Once the logs reached the river, they were arranged into rafts designed to combine the logs that would float with those that would sink. Buoyant logs were associated with some local tree species, such as tulip poplar, while oak logs were dense and could not be transported downstream without falling to the bottom of the river. The rafts were floated downstream to the Cumberland River to lumber yards in Burnside, Kentucky.[359]

Another local industry that preceded railroad establishment was coal mining. By the 1880s, local small-scale coal mines were being developed by private enterprises.[360] As the demand for coal began to rise due to its use to power locomotives, heating systems, and boiler plants, larger companies began to target mining in the area. Establishment of large commercial mines would

357. Ibid.
358. Ibid., III-50.
359. *Parch Corn Creek Component Landscape Cultural Landscape Inventory*, supplemental information, page 8 of 19.
360. Ibid., page 9 of 19.

require the development of more economically viable systems for transporting the coal to market.

The Cincinnati and Knoxville Railway. The Cincinnati Southern Railway linked Cincinnati, Ohio, with Knoxville, Tennessee, traversing eastern Kentucky and Tennessee. This rail line followed a route first proposed during the 1850s that had never been realized.

Competition between railroad interests in Louisville and Cincinnati delayed construction of the line. Prior to the completion of the line, goods being transported south from Cincinnati had to pass through Louisville, resulting in delays and added expense. The proposed line was designed to prevent these delays. Its construction bypassed Louisville; as such, it was opposed by railroad companies in the city determined to avoid losing the fees associated with transporting goods through their rail system. Business interests in Lexington and other Bluegrass cities, which considered themselves competitors of Louisville railroad interests such as the Louisville and Nashville Railroad, supported the proposed new line. Louisville was initially able to block the charter needed by Cincinnati to construct the line. With some Federal intervention and persistence, the Cincinnati and Knoxville prevailed. Rights-of-way for the rail line were granted by Tennessee in 1870 and Kentucky in 1873.

Construction soon progressed southward. However, as the line reached the rough terrain associated with the eastern Kentucky and Tennessee border east of Big South Fork, construction became more difficult and required expensive bridges and tunnels, and an excessively curving alignment to complete. Work in the area resulted in the need for additional funding, and delayed the anticipated completion date. The Second District section that extended between Danville, Kentucky, and Oakdale, Tennessee, encompassing land east of Big South Fork, was known as the "rathole" for the steepness of the grades. The Cincinnati Southern was completed through Knoxville by December 1879 and opened in 1880.[361] Soon after its completion, the line was leased to the Cincinnati, New Orleans, and Texas Pacific Railroad in 1881.

Transportation improvements led to an increase in commerce and manufacturing at Big South Fork and throughout the eastern United States. These changes directly affected access to goods from outside regions, and heavily influenced the growth of industry, commerce, and agriculture in the Big South Fork region. These changes affected community composition, leading some communities to grow at faster rates than others, and increasing differences between communities. Communities that did not benefit from transportation improvements became increasingly isolated and often declined.[362]

The arrival of the railroad played a key role in the Big South Fork region's industrial development. With the introduction of the railroad, the Big South Fork region suddenly became connected to a larger world, broader markets, and the changes that were occurring elsewhere due to industrialization. Large segments of McCreary, Scott, Morgan, and adjacent counties that had previously been isolated due to poor roads were suddenly able to connect with larger communities and urban areas.

The railroad provided an alternative to shipping products to market via the river system. The railway also offered local residents the opportunity to sell timber from their land. Tie yards, where logs were fashioned into railroad ties, opened in several places along the line to take advantage of this opportunity.[363] In addition to the access provided to markets, the Cincinnati Southern provided new opportunities for wage labor.

The railroad had a direct effect on at least three aspects of Big South Fork's economy: coal mining, oil drilling, and logging.[364] At the same time as the railroad was completed, making the region more

361. McBride and McBride, V-64.
362. McBride and McBride, V-63.
363. Hutchinson et al., 14.
364. *Parch Corn Creek Component Landscape Cultural Landscape Inventory,* supplemental information, page 7 of 19.

accessible, the demand for coal began to increase dramatically.[365]

In 1881, two coal mines were opened in Scott County that employed local workers and used the railroad to ship coal north to Lexington and south to Georgia. In 1884, a branch line was built from Flat Rock, Kentucky, to Barren Fork, where the Barren Fork Mining and Coal Company (later the Eagle Coal Company) set up mining operations. Other mines were soon opened by Louis Bryant along the railway a few miles south.[366] Lines were also run from Robbins to Leak's Mills in 1884, and from Oakdale to DeArmond in 1881.

Coal mining soon began to exert a much greater impact on the local economy and landscape. The Cincinnati Southern Railway line eventually evolved into a trunk system from which spur lines could extend into the gorge. Eventually, twelve branch lines would be built from the Cincinnati Southern line within Tennessee alone. Construction of these spurs was precipitated by the availability of valuable mineral and timber deposits. The expansion was also supported by an increase in the availability of steel, which had been in short supply prior to the 1880s. In addition to steel, the railroads created a market for coal, stimulating mining. Firms such as the Stearns Company established deep ties with the railroad companies, negotiating contracts to supply the railroads, which in turn provided a stable customer base that allowed them to invest in expensive activities like coal mining.[367]

Locally, the community most immediately affected by construction of the Cincinnati Southern Railway line was Oneida, Tennessee. Several trunk lines were eventually built from Oneida. The first extended to Fork Mountain in 1904, awhile the second linked Oneida and Jamestown in 1913.

Other Nineteenth Century Transportation Systems

River travel. The focus on development and maintenance of railroads during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries led to the relative neglect of both roads and rivers. River towns experienced a general decline in terms of their role in trade and transportation networks after the Civil War. This trend was not unique to Kentucky and Tennessee. A study conducted in the early 1930s concluded that traffic on inland rivers and canals largely disappeared between 1870 and 1900.[368] Boat traffic on the Cumberland River, for example, declined in the late 1880s and early 1890s; by 1913, only one packet line remained in operation.

Despite the introduction and growth of rail systems, river transportation continued to be crucial to the economy of the Big South Fork region during the late nineteenth century. Ironically, rivers were often used to transport the materials for construction of the rail lines that would eventually take business away from the river communities. Even though rail service was often more expensive, the railroad's speed and lack of seasonal disruptions offered a tremendous advantage over water transportation.

Despite the decline in use, navigation of the Cumberland River was improved in 1892.[369] A dam was later completed 26 miles below Burnside, the head of navigation of the Cumberland in 1911, rendering year-round navigation of the Cumberland to Burnside possible. At Burnside, travelers could connect to rail lines.[370]

Flatboats and barges as well as log rafts and loose logs frequented the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River. Logs continued to be floated down river to mills and tie yards for much of the remainder of the nineteenth century. The logs were often accompanied by crews, either riding atop the logs or following alongside from the river banks. Chutes were often necessary to convey the

365. Ibid., page 9 of 19.
366. Hutchinson et al., 15.
367. McBride and McBride, V-65.
368. Ibid., V-66.
369. Ibid.
370. Ibid., V-66–V-67.

logs into the river. Difficult sections of the river were sometimes amended with splash dams constructed of loose timbers piled together and filled with stone and mud. These dams were dynamited when enough logs and water had accumulated behind them, sending a large and violent flood of timber downstream. Remains of these splash dams, testimony to commercial lumbering, are still observable on many small streams.[371]

Bicycles. Another transportation-related trend of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries was the use of bicycles. Although much of the country experienced a bicycle craze around the end of the nineteenth century, the poor condition of rural Tennessee and Kentucky roads was not especially conducive to bicycle travel. Bicycles cost as much as $150 in 1893, but declined in price to between $3 and $5 by 1902. Whereas the expense of a horse, wagon, or buggy made long-distance transportation prohibitive for many citizens, the low cost of bicycles contributed to their popularity. Bicycles increased the distance a person without a horse could travel per day from 2 to 3 miles, to 10 to 20 miles, and expanded the social mobility of many people in the region. Bicycles were especially useful in this regard within towns and cities, and for use in traveling between towns in the flatter portions of the region. The degree to which bicycles were used in the towns of Big South Fork is unknown; however, they appear in advertisements and articles in the *Fentress County Gazette* in the 1910s.[372]

Twentieth Century Travel and Transportation

By the twentieth century, with the advent of rail transportation, regional economic specialization and diversification began to influence demographics as well as the character of the Big South Fork landscape. While initial industrial activities focused on small scale local family timbering and coal mining endeavors, mineral extraction opportunities soon attracted outside companies to the area. Of these, the most influential was the Stearns Coal and Lumber Company, which acquired thousands of acres of land within the Big South Fork region during the first half of the twentieth century, subsequently clearing extensive areas of older growth forest in widely dispersed parts of the contemporary park. The Stearns Company established a strategic base in Stearns, Kentucky from which to market the vast amount of coal found on its land. At Stearns, the company constructed a coking station for the Cincinnati Southern Railway, approximately midway between Cincinnati and Chattanooga. Stearns also developed several coal mines in the region, including deep mines along the Big South Fork River between the Kentucky-Tennessee border and Yamacraw, and along Rock Creek. The company also established communities to support the mines in Fentress, Scott, and McCreary Counties. These included Barthell, Worley, Comargo, Blue Heron, and Yamacraw.[373]

The railroads slowly began to influence settlement patterns in the region. Railroads also stimulated the expansion of other transportation networks. In much of Appalachia, early settlement occurred primarily along the valley bottoms, where fertile soils and access to water resources were afforded. Many of the better roads were located along the valley bottoms to connect settlements and to facilitate transportation. In contrast, the railroads built to reach the coal seams and timber lands of the rugged interior were forced to follow the plateaus as much as possible to facilitate locomotive use. These rail lines established new

371. Ibid., V-67.
372. Ibid., V-69.
373. Hutchinson et al., 15.

connections to upland areas, perhaps reinforcing the sense of isolation within the stream valleys. At the same time the use of waterways for travel was being abandoned and the introduction of new fertilizers and farming equipment began to render the upland plateaus viable for farm production.

New communities soon began to develop at key railroad junctions to fill the jobs associated with railroad management, maintenance, and freight administration. The business districts of existing towns began to shift from an orientation toward road and river corridors to the emerging rail lines. Businesses also migrated toward town margins as railroad companies built lines to avoid the more expensive town centers. Oftentimes, this resulted in the development of a second business center that revolved around a new depot to respond to the need for distribution and handling of freight, mail, and passengers.[374] Shanty towns that housed railroad workers sprang up in many locations. These towns were typically composed of closely spaced and poorly constructed housing and stores. Dwellings were often temporary structures purposely constructed to be easily moved as the need arose.

Accompanying the rail lines were many new types of buildings and objects on the landscape. The rail lines themselves featured graded beds, tracks, bridges, and tunnels, as well as depots, dwelling houses for employees, shanties, section houses, tool houses, special sleeping quarters, signal towers, car sheds and cleaning yards, ash pits, ice houses, sand houses, oil storage houses, oil mixing houses, water stations, coaling stations, engine houses, freight houses, platforms, roundhouses, switchyards, and turnpits.[375]

Rail Lines within Big South Fork

During the early twentieth century, coal and lumber companies developed smaller spur railroads into previously isolated areas such as the Big South Fork River gorge. Although these lines were initially built to support industrial operations, once built, they were used to carry other freight and passengers.

Two spur or branch lines were built into the Big South Fork interior to support coal mining and logging operations. These included the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad (1902–2005) and the Oneida and Western Railroad (1913–1954). The Stearns Coal and Lumber Company established the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad as a spur line from the Cincinnati Southern Railway in order to transport coal and lumber from mines and timbering sites within the plateau and gorge.[376] As a side benefit, the railroad was also used extensively by local residents to meet their transportation needs.

The Oneida and Western Railroad was founded by the Tennessee Stave and Lumber Company to support logging operations. The Oneida and Western Railroad similarly proved integral to the travel and transport needs of local communities, including the county seat of Oneida. Local residents used the line to convey farm products and goods,, as well as the byproducts of mineral extraction, to market. Each of these railroads operated a main line from which it built spurs, as needed, to connect logging and mining sites and housing camps. The spurs were narrow gauge operations referred to as “Dinky” lines, that relied on small steam locomotives. Private logging or mining contractors often built spur lines to connect the lines to timbering sites located in the hollows. Log chutes were built to convey timber down slope, while inclines were also built to transport logs uphill when the nearest rail line was located on a ridge top. Major inclines were located at Speck and Gernt on the Oneida and Western Railroad in the southern part of the region, and at Station Camp and Lonesome associated with Stearns Company holdings. The Tennessee Stave

374. McBride and McBride, V-64-65.
375. Ibid., V-65.
376. The Cincinnati Southern Railway later became the Southern Railroad, the Norfolk and Western, and finally part of the CSX system.

and Lumber Company also had an incline along the Wolf River.[377]

To facilitate river and stream crossings, the railroad companies constructed bridges that required careful engineering. These bridges variously featured a variety of construction techniques, including gable and truss systems, trestles, and concrete ballast.[378]

The Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad was the first, founded in 1902, by the Stearns Company. Many of the railroad's initial employees were hired from the Cincinnati Southern Railway. By 1907, the line had reached Rock Creek, and had begun to transport coal, lumber, and passengers. Additional construction of the line required completion of a major bridge over the Big South Fork at the mouth of Rock Creek in 1909. The line was completed to its proposed terminus at Bell Farm in 1923. By the time of its completion, the line included stops at the mining towns of Barthell, Comargo, Worley, Yamacraw, Oz, White Oak Junction, Cooperative, Fidelity, and Exodus, as well as Bell Farm. Stearns later extended the rail line from Bell Farm for another 20 miles upstream along Rock Creek into Tennessee between about 1924 and the early 1930s. This line was known as the Stearns Logging Railroad. It did not offer the extensive passenger service of the main line.[379] The line later provided access to one of the Stearns Company's largest operations near Devil's Jump along the Big South Fork River—the Blue Heron Mine complex.

In 1912, the Oneida and Western Railroad was founded by the Tennessee Stave and Lumber Company, which had first established a sawmill at Verdun.[380] The line traveled through portions of Scott and Fentress counties in Tennessee, supporting smaller independent coal and lumber companies.[381] Construction of the rail line began in 1913 with track laid near Oneida (Figure 89). Work continued until 1921, when the line reached East Jamestown. In 1930, the line was extended another 9 miles to Jamestown. Although the company proposed extending the route several more miles, competition from trucking that benefitted from an improved road and highway system built in part by Works Progress Administration (WPA) workers, coupled with changes in the economy associated with the Great Depression and World War II, led to a decline in the railroad business, and this was never undertaken. The rail line was abandoned in 1954. After it closed, the coal mines located along the line that followed White Oak Creek were also abandoned, as there was no road available to access the obscure location.[382]



FIGURE 89. An Oneida and Western Railroad crew using a track jack. Source: National Park Service.

These two rail lines supported local residents in several ways. Country stores were able to acquire goods more easily. Before construction of the Oneida and Western Railroad, the nearest depot for Big South Fork residents in Tennessee was in Glenmary in southern Scott County. With the arrival of the rail line, goods could be transferred from the Cincinnati Southern Railroad to the Oneida and Western, and delivered to Louvain or East Jamestown.[383] Prior to this, store owners

377. McBride and McBride, V-66. An incline is a log conveyance system that uses counterbalanced weight arrangements to move loaded log cars up and downhill.
378. William B. Butler, *Railroads in the National Parks* (Estes Park, Colorado: Rocky Mountain National Park, November 2007), 13.
379. McBride and McBride, V-66.
380. Ibid., V-65–V-66.
381. Howell et al. (1981), 27.
382. Ibid., 28.
383. Ibid., 69.

often traveled long distances over rough roads to haul goods for sale in their stores, making their goods very expensive.[384] The rail lines established to support mineral extraction and industry also offered a means for short- and long-distance travel, access to markets, and opportunities for wage earning jobs.

While the rail lines and wage opportunities supported the community in many ways, they ultimately led to dramatic changes in demographics, societal bonds, and the character and quality of the landscape.[385] In general, railroads continued to play an important role in the local economy until coal and timber resources were slowly exhausted in the 1950s. However, competition from trucking also influenced local demographics beginning in the late 1920s, contributing to an overall decline in the dominance of railroads over the remainder of the twentieth century. The history of each of the rail lines is discussed in more detail below.

Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad. Justus Smith Stearns chartered the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad Company on May 22, 1902, as a wholly-owned subsidiary of the Stearns Company, responsible for operations of the Stearns Coal Company and the Stearns Lumber Company. For Stearns, chartering the railroad was a way to exploit the value of his land, which included vast timber and coal resources in southeastern Kentucky and northeastern Tennessee. In 1904, the two subsidiary companies were merged to form the Stearns Coal and Lumber Company, while the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad Company was reincorporated as the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad.[386] Although fully owned by the Stearns Company, the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad was chartered as a common carrier that would extend to the Cincinnati Southern Railway toward Jamestown, with the intention to continue on to Chattanooga, Tennessee. However, by the time the line reached the mouth of Roaring Paunch Creek, the company had determined to develop its coal and logging interests along Rock Creek, and focused its activities more locally. Instead of turning south, Stearns redirected the line north along the Big South Fork.[387] The Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad was subsequently designed to provide access to lumber and coal mine sites along Rock Creek and Big South Fork. It also furnished a means for marketing McCreary County coal.

Construction of the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad line began at the Hemlock Siding site at the Cincinnati Southern Railway yard in Stearns, Kentucky, and progressed westward down Cooper Creek to Roaring Paunch Creek. With the change in the company's direction, the line was expanded to the reach the first coal mining community to be developed at Barthell, near the Big South Fork River, by May 15, 1903.[388] Construction of the railroad was accomplished using contract labor.[389] The first 3.5 miles were particularly challenging to construct, as they were built on a hillside above the creek that was itself sloped at a 3.5 percent grade.

The first coal car was brought to Stearns, Kentucky, on June 1, 1903, pulled by the Alco Consolidation No. 1 engine, originally purchased for Stearns Salt and Lumber Company operations in Michigan.

In addition to coal operations, the company was heavily involved in logging. The Stearns Company made arrangements to buy logs from local property owners along the upper Big South Fork and its tributaries. For a number of years, many millions of board feet of lumber were secured in this manner.

Tie and lumber yards were established in several locations to provide timber for the tram roads and main lines of the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad. Timbering was facilitated by the installation of a double cut electric-driven band mill, the first in the United States, in 1903. At this time, many logs continued to be transported from timbered sites via the river. Transport of logs along the river was supported by construction of booms

384. Ibid., 68.
385. Howell et al. (1981), 94.
386. Hutchinson et al., 19.
387. Howell et al. (1981), 94.
388. Hutchinson et al., 16.
389. Howell et al. (1981), 95.

below the mouth of Roaring Paunch Creek that were used to catch and hold the logs to be loaded onto railroad cars and taken to the mill to be sawn.[390]

One man who lived near the river described some of the challenges associated with the operation, including the company's unsuccessful attempt to float white oak logs downstream:

> When Stearns Company first come in this country, they went across the river at the mouth of Station up the mountain there, and on top out up there. Didn't have no cars nor trucks nor nothing. Had these big Percheron horses. Put up a big camp there and logged there a year or two, and built a big chute from the top of the mountain to the river. Put that stuff in the river and floated it to Yamacraw. Well, they went to cutting this white oak, and the people told 'em, said, "Now this white oak timber won't float here, it'll sink, the butt logs of it." "No" the company man said. "Hell it floated in Michigan." An old fellow said, "Yeah, and it's a helluva long ways from here to Michigan too." And they just put her in there and they just come very near going busted, Why that river was just piled full of big white oak logs. And they moved out of there then and my brother-in-law and his old man moved in there and logged right smart bit of it out.[391]

In 1905, Stearns opened coal mines no. 3 and 4 at the new mining camp of Worley. By 1906, the rail line had been completed as far as Yamacraw, where mine no. 10 opened. Here, Stearns established a concrete tipple as well as a store, school house, and dwellings.[392]

At Yamacraw, the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad was faced with crossing the Big South Fork River. In 1909, the existing **Yamacraw Bridge** was built to span the river (Figure 90). The 565-foot-long bridge was designed by Ward Baldwin, a civil engineer based in Cincinnati, Ohio, and was a notable achievement in railway engineering.[393] The engineered structure features a 56-foot reinforced and ballast-filled concrete arch, the first and one of the longest of its type to be built in the South.[394] Yamacraw developed rapidly after the bridge was completed.

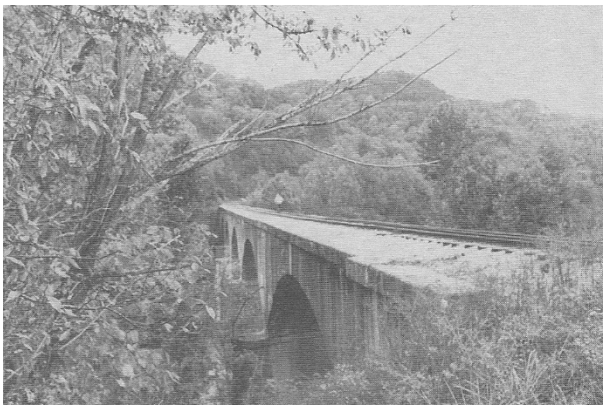


FIGURE 90. The Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad over the Big South Fork River at Yamacraw, Kentucky. Source: National Park Service.

Soon after completion of the Yamacraw Bridge, a large flood destroyed the logging booms associated with the river transport of timber and sent a river full of logs crashing against the bridge. The bridge withstood the force, but company employees had to be

> . . . rushed to the boom at Tatesville above Burnside to reclaim the Stearns Company logs. They worked almost nonstop at this extremely dangerous task for two days and then the logs had to be shipped back to Stearns on the Southern Railroad at considerable additional expense. This episode suggested that a better means of transporting logs was needed; acquisition of additional land far to the west of the river made rail transportation indispensable to the logging operation.[395]

As the railroad was extended, additional mines came into production. After crossing the Big South Fork River, the railroad was extended along Rock Creek, reaching Stearns's coal mine no. 14 at Exodus by 1913. By 1915, the railroad was 17 miles long. By 1921, the line was extended west from White Oak Junction to Cooperative, and

390. Hutchinson et al., 13.
391. Howell et al. (1981), 95, from oral history, individual not identified.
392. Hutchinson et al., 19.
393. Ibid., 17.
394. Howell et al. (1981), 95–96.
395. Ibid., 96.

completed to Bell Farm, 19 miles from Stearns, by 1923. Along this stretch, the rail line provided access to mine no. 15 where the Stearns Coal and Lumber Company maintained an agreement to lease Bryant family mineral rights. With its lease due to expire in 1923, the Stearns Company subsequently purchased Bryant family interests and began consolidating its land holdings on either side of the Big South Fork River. Acquisition of additional forest land sparked a massive resumption of logging operations that had been suspended in 1909.[396]

The Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad operated using twelve steam locomotives of the dinky shay variety. The engines had diagonally-mounted pistons on one side. These workhorses were better able to pull loads up the numerous climbing turns associated with the small spur lines, like the Kentucky and Tennessee line.[397]

Although Stearns had begun its logging operation without benefit of the railroad, rail transportation quickly became an integral part of this enterprise. To support logging endeavors, Stearns began, in 1924, to extend the Kentucky and Tennessee rail line from Bell Farm southwest along Rock Creek toward East Jamestown. The first 5-mile extension and all subsequent spurs belonged to the Stearns Coal and Lumber Company, rather than to the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad, which allowed the common carrier line to remain short enough to be exempt from Interstate Commerce Commission regulations.[398]

The new line would eventually stretch 21 miles from Bell Farm to Redmon Mountain above the Wolf River in Pickett County, Tennessee. The track was of the standard-gauge variety, and could accommodate the engines and cars already on the line. As new areas were targeted for timbering, the line was extended further and small logging camps were set up along the railroad extensions. Spurs were laid and taken up, as needed, to facilitate the logging of areas lying some distance from the main line of the logging railroad. Workers lived in small prefabricated cabins that were moved using railroad cars to camps associated with each new timber stand.

With the renewal of logging operations, Stearns decided to remodel its aging mill facilities. This included construction of two derricks to unload log cars and construction of a trestle over the holding pond to facilitate moving logs into place.

Work on the logging railroad could be dangerous for workers. Minor derailments occurred fairly frequently. Nonetheless, the only recorded accident that endangered the lives of the railroad crew occurred because a switch had been incorrectly thrown, shunting a rapidly moving train onto a siding that ended at a massive boulder. The crew members were able to jump to safety before impact. Also of concern was the fact that people used the track as a path for walking. Because livestock were allowed to range freely, they often found their way onto the tracks, resulting in danger to both animals and trains. The resulting interference with the operation of the rail lines was an important factor that influenced the passage of the Public Act in 1947 making it illegal to allow livestock to roam free.[399]

In 1937, the Kentucky and Tennessee built a new 1.5-mile spur line across Roaring Paunch Creek to a mine site north of Devil's Jump along the Big South Fork River. To facilitate the Roaring Paunch stream crossing, an existing bridge was purchased from the New York Central Railroad and reconstructed by Kentucky and Tennessee engineers. The mine site, developed by the Stearns Company, was reached via a 3,200-foot tunnel constructed through a mountain at Ice Camp Branch from the Paunch Creek side to the Big South Fork.[400] Coal mine no. 18, also referred to as Blue Heron, opened in 1938. Blue Heron became one of the Stearns Company's largest coal

396. Ibid., 96.
397 Conley Blevins and Arvo Blevins, Oral History Collection, Accession BISO69, Tape Catalog Number RE6A (Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, Ethnography, 1982 collections).
398. Ibid., 96–97.
399. Ibid., 99–100, and Humphrey, 19.
400. Hutchinson et al., 18.

producing mines. The mine, however, was productive for only slightly over fourteen months. After that, the coal seam, where the company had built a state of the art half-million-dollar tipple, became depleted; from 1940 onward, the facility was used to process and load coal from the Stearns Company's other mines. Seams were mined on both sides of the river valley. The tipple and bridge at Blue Heron's Mine 18, along with a bridge that crosses the Roaring Paunch and abutments of another Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad bridge (LCS ID 092215), survive within the park today.[401]

During the heyday of Stearns logging and coal mining operations, circa 1905 through 1950, it was the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad that held the vast operation together. Logs and coal were shipped from the gorge interior and the plateau to Stearns, Kentucky; supplies were shipped to the company stores; workers were transported to and from work; mail traveled back and forth; and company doctors used hand cars to make calls. Employees and their families were offered low excursion fares for travel to Stearns and Store 14 to enjoy baseball games, holiday celebrations, and employee picnics, as described in a public relations booklet quoted by Benita Howell:

> The Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad, owned and built by the company through these timbered mountains and deep canyons, over turbulent streams and placid rivers, welds the vast area into one, from the logging camps at the far boundaries in the deep forests 40 miles away, along beautiful Rock Creek to Exodus, which nestles in a wider valley. Truck gardens and mountain flowers intersperse the miner's homes as we roll through Fidelity and branch around to the mining village of Co-operative.
>
> At White Oak Junction oil derricks rise against the background of green. Then on to the village of Oz and to where Rock Creek joins the Big South Fork of the Cumberland. The ribbons of steel cross the river there on a bridge built in 1907. It was then the largest reinforced concrete railroad bridge ever built in the South. Surface-scarred by time and flood, its towering arches stand firm-rooted on the bed rock of the Cumberland and its hundred-foot spans link bank to bank in impressive artistry. A little farther on, homes dot the valley on both sides of the river at Worley. A giant tipple spans the rails there and busy electric mine locomotives shuttle cars back and forth across a big bridge over the river from the nearby mines. Three miles away on a spur track is the new great coal field at Blue Heron. On up the steep grade of the gorge another tipple bridges the tracks at Barthell, and then the four hundred and fifty foot climb to the terminus at Stearns to connect with the main line of the Southern Railroad from Cincinnati to New Orleans.
>
> The first locomotive for the Kentucky and Tennessee was heavier and more powerful than any of the big iron horses then used on the entire central division of the Southern system, and when they moved it, they had to take off some of its heavy parts and load them on flat-cars to distribute the weight for the mainline bridges in order to make delivery to the railroad at Stearns. Upwards of a thousand passengers a day move back and forth on the Kentucky and Tennessee between these busy and picturesque centers of work and life.[402]

The Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad began to decline after World War II for several reasons. Much of the Stearns coal had been sold as locomotive fuel. In the early 1950s, the railroad industry replaced coal-fired steam locomotives with oil and electric diesel engines, substantially diminishing the market for coal. Also, oil and natural gas had begun replacing coal for domestic and industrial heating. At the same time, logging activities began to slow substantially once the Stearns holdings had been cleared of timber by 1950.

The Kentucky and Tennessee rail line within Tennessee closed in 1950. Passenger service was discontinued on the remaining sections of the line on January 1, 1952, while the section of the main line that connected White Oak Junction and Bell

401. Ibid., 19.

402. Howell et al. (1981), 98, from a Stearns Coal and Lumber Company public relations booklet published in 1938.

Farm was abandoned on March 28, 1952.[403] The White Oak Junction to Cooperative branch and the main line between White Oak Junction and Oz were taken up in 1957, leaving only 10.5 miles of line in service between Stearns and Yamacraw. From 1957 until 1964, the Kentucky and Tennessee continued to operate using its steam powered engines. Most of the coal extracted from the company mines was being sent to power plants, such as Kentucky Utilities and Georgia Power, and to independent coal dealers in single-car spot sales. It is interesting to note that the Kentucky and Tennessee continued to use steam engine locomotives as late as 1964, at which point the company began to convert to diesel engines, effectively ending the age of coal-fired steam.[404] As the Stearns mines closed, the Kentucky and Tennessee was pulled back to Cooperative. Today, visitors can still travel the last section to carry trains between Blue Heron and Stearns via the Big South Fork Scenic Railway Line, a tourist excursion operation.[405]

Blue Heron mine no. 18 was closed in 1962, while Oz mine no. 16 continued operations until 1966. Thereafter, the Kentucky and Tennessee operated on proceeds from truck loading of coal from three smaller mines not located on the surviving rail line. In 1969, the Federal Coal Mine Health and Safety and National Environmental Policy acts of 1969 doomed the surviving small truck mines, since bringing them up to compliant levels of safety and environmental standards would have been prohibitively expensive. Because none of these mines were served by rail lines, and trucking coal to the railroad was an expensive process, they were abandoned.

In response, Stearns Company decided to develop a new rail-served mine committed to compliance with mine safety laws.[406] The Justus Mine opened in 1968, postponing complete abandonment of the Kentucky and Tennessee line. By 1974, the Kentucky and Tennessee was the only independent carrier that survived of the original five Cumberland area short lines. Coal production at the Justus Mine was estimated at 3,000 tons per day that year. The coal was shipped north and south over the Southern line to steam-generated electric plants from Ohio to Florida. The Justus Mine was sold to the Blue Diamond Coal Company in 1975, while the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad separated from the Stearns Company in 1976.[407]

As noted above, since the 1980s, the Kentucky and Tennessee has been adaptively reused as an excursion train that visitors ride between Stearns, Kentucky, and the Blue Heron Mine Complex within the park. The train is conveyed using a steam locomotive.

Oneida and Western Railroad. The second rail line—the Oneida and Western Railroad— was chartered in 1912 by the Jamestown Railroad Company and owned by the Tennessee Stave and Lumber Company. The Oneida and Western was initially planned to extend between Glenmary and Jamestown, although its charter was later amended to suggest the route would line Oneida, Tennessee, with Albany, Kentucky.[408] Work on the line began in Oneida, Tennessee in 1913. The line followed Pine and White Oak creeks on its way toward East Jamestown. The line was extended across the Big South Fork River by July 1915.

Passage across the Big South Fork River required bridge construction. The resulting trestle bridge included a pin-connected, double intersection Whipple through-truss for the main span, with deck girders and trestle supports for the east approach span. The Oneida and Western Railroad Bridge is a National Register-eligible historic engineering resource that survives within the park today. It is one of very few such designed Whipple Truss bridges to survive today. The Whipple Truss is an engineering style manufactured between 1847 and 1900, suggesting that this bridge was used elsewhere and moved to the site in 1915. The bridge served the railroad until its abandonment in 1954. The bridge, along with the Oneida and Western right of way, are owned by Scott County,

403. Ibid., 13–14.
404. Hutchinson et al., 18, 20.
405. Howell et al. (1981), 97.
406. Hutchinson et al., 20.
407. Ibid.
408. Ibid., 21.

Tennessee.[409] The portion of the Oneida and Western right of way located in Fentress County was transferred to NPS.

By 1916, the line had been completed as far as Gernt, a lumber center located on White Oak Creek that would become a small community, and the smaller community of Christian. By 1918, the line had reached Stockton. and was completed as far as East Jamestown by 1921. The rail line further enhanced the opportunities available to Big South Fork residents for transporting products to market. The section between Gernt and Stockton was prime timber land and a focus of company operations. The Doss Spur and incline built from Stockton opened up the extensive timber of the Wolf River Valley, and logging boomed there between 1918 and 1924.

East Jamestown in Fentress County remained the terminus for many years. The line was extended another 7 miles to Jamestown proper in 1930, with the hope that increased access to new timber reserves would generate additional revenues. However, by the time this leg was complete, the incline and spur had been pulled out, and the economic picture looked decidedly less promising for the future.[410] Although the railroad continued to function, it lost money during fourteen of its last fifteen years and was finally closed in 1954, never reaching its goal of the Cumberland River.[411]

Despite ongoing economic problems, the Oneida and Western line facilitated extensive logging and coal mining operations in a very rugged area, and provided a means of transportation for those who worked in these industries, as well as those who farmed land near or along the railroad.[412] In addition to Gernt, the rail line precipitated the development of a community at Zenith.[413] Small clusters of houses were built along the Oneida and Western, west of the Oneida and Western Bridge. Small communities included those at East Laurel, with a post office, and at Briar Point west of Zenith, without a post office, as well as the communities at Christian and Hagemeier. (The German and Welsh heritage of miners and loggers is reflected in the names of many of these communities.)

Zenith was located 17 miles west of Oneida. It served as a camp for the Webb Hammock mines that operated during the 1920s and 1930s and the Marlow mine that opened and closed in the 1940s. Top quality cannel coal was loaded onto the Oneida and Western at Zenith, first from a tipple spanning the main railroad track and later from a larger tipple built over a siding across North White Oak Creek. Railroad facilities at Zenith included a telephone shack and a gravity-flow water tank.[414]

The Tennessee Stave and Lumber Company contracted work on the railroad to one of its affiliates—Eagle Construction Company—for the first two years of railroad construction. They were later joined by Oneida and Western employees.[415] Many of the railroad crew members were natives of Scott and Fentress Counties. Workers were divided into section crews that numbered from five to seven men. Occasionally, part-time workers were hired to handle emergencies such as washouts or derailments. Local residents—farmers, loggers, and saw mill hands—worked for the railroad from time to time, filling available part-time jobs. Section camps were established at Gernt and East Jamestown. Many of the workers lived on the uplands and walked back and forth to the tracks.

> The section foreman might use his motor to pick up the workers. A number of section crew members who lived along the Leatherwood Road in Scott County met their crew foreman early each morning at the Big South Fork Bridge. Foremen had to live in the camps close by the track side telephone shacks that provided communication with the agent in Oneida.[416]

409. National Park Service, "Hiking Trails from Leatherwood Ford Trailhead" pamphlet.
410. Howell et al. (1981), 101.
411. Hutchinson et al., 21.
412. McBride and McBride, V-66.
413. Hutchinson et al., 15.
414. Howell et al. (1981), 108.
415. Hutchinson et al., 21.
416. Howell et al. (1981), 103.

Local residents remembered that African American construction crews were also brought in to lay the track. The workers were housed in camps along the track supplied by rolling stores. They were issued scrip rather than money to further ensure that they stayed in the camps. Many local residents harbored racial prejudices based on incidents that occurred within Glenmary during the early 1900s. Local tradition suggests that several African American workers met with violent deaths at the hands of crew bosses or one another, and are believed to be buried in unmarked graves along the railroad tracks.[417] One of these is located in an area overlooking Leatherwood Ford. As noted by Tom Des Jean, one example of this occurred when a lumber boss reportedly killed a worker with a club because he did not want to pay the man his wages. The murdered man was buried on site, but his death was never reported to the authorities. The grave is marked with a stone but no inscription.[418]

Local residents who helped lay track beyond Christian described some of the equipment and construction methods used in the late 1910s and early 1920s. The railroad was built to standard gauge and laid with 75-foot and 85-foot rail. The right of way was graded using a steam shovel operated by an engineer and a fireman. Horse and mule teams brought ballast to the site in carts and wagons. Handcars hauled rail sections and tools over the completed rails to the construction site. Heavy equipment referred to as rail dogs, similar to logging dogs, lifted the rails from the cars and dropped them over the cross ties. The first cross ties were hand-hewn and supplied by local farmers. Later, they were fashioned in sawmills. Construction crews bolted together rail sections, whereas today track joints are welded, forming longer sections (i.e., continuous welded rail or "ribbon rail"). After setting the correct rail elevation that often involved banking curves and setting the gauge, the rails were spiked to the cross ties.[419]

Within this topographically diverse region, bridges were a special challenge to the construction of the Oneida and Western Railroad, particularly crossings of Big South Fork, Pine Creek, and North White Oak Creek. Bridges built along White Oak Creek were typically constructed using lumber boxes. Pumps were used to drain the boxes while the bridge foundations were under construction. The final steel structure was constructed using a timber scaffold that supported the workmen as they fitted and riveted prefabricated metal sections into place.[420]

Section crews also maintained the rail lines after establishment. The materials used to construct the lines contributed to the heavy maintenance needs that followed. Cinders and local rock served as ballast. The section men dynamited rock near the track and crushed it with knapping hammers to fit the needs of the rail bed and banking. The local sandstone, however, often crumbled into sand, causing the track to shift, and requiring repair. Crews regularly worked to maintain a solid footing of ballast by tamping it under the track and adjusting the banking of curves, replacing deteriorated cross ties, and realigning rails that no longer held the proper gauge. The rails were typically cast from a gauge of 65 or 75 pounds per yard of steel, with a heavier gauge of 85 pound steel used in places subject to stress. In contrast, track weight today is typically 140 to 150 pounds per yard, suggesting that the lighter track was frequently subject to misalignment and other problems. Cross ties were installed untreated, unlike today's creosote-impregnated timbers, and subject to rotting within seven years, requiring frequent replacement.[421]

Crews and their tools and supplies were conveyed along the line first in hand-pumped lever cars, and

417. Ibid., 101–102; Des Jean, "Invisible People."
418. Tom Des Jean, unpublished manuscript "Cemeteries of the Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area." <www.nps.gov/biso/learn/historyculture/cemeteries.htm>.
419. Ibid., 102.
420. Ibid.
421. Ibid., 103.

later in gasoline-powered motor cars. Crews traveled with rail jacks, tamping picks, track gauge, a level board, spike maul, crowbar for lifting spikes, cleaver to chisel out short rail sections, and two-man hacksaw. The section crews were also involved in clearing vegetation along the line, and used brush hooks to cut weeds and woody growth.

Work by the crews was necessary to avoid disasters such as derailments. These events did, however, occur periodically. The worst derailment on the Oneida and Western occurred on the bridge over Big South Fork when several cars came uncoupled from the locomotive and their emergency brakes failed to take hold. The cars and caboose went off the rails and continued into the river. Fortunately, the brakeman and conductor were able to jump to safety. Later, the engineer on that run remembered dreaming about the accident and waking up jumping out of bed.[422]

The Oneida and Western was owned and operated by the Andersons and Hagemeyers of Cincinnati, Ohio, and Oneida and Harriman, Tennessee. The headquarters for the railroad was located in Oneida.

The Oneida and Western had a depot in Oneida and stations at Verdun, Reed's Station, Toomey, Speck, Gernt, Zenith, Christian, Briar Point, Hagemeyer, Stockton, East Jamestown, Hugarth, and Jamestown. The company's band saw lumber mill was established at Verdun, 2 miles west of Oneida. A 1933 Sanborn fire insurance map identifies these extensive operations, where one million square feet of lumber was stored for the manufacture of furniture parts. The Tennessee Stave and Lumber Company set up an incline at the East Jamestown terminus to hoist logs to the railroad track from the creek several hundred feet below. Band mills near Gernt and elsewhere contributed logs and lumber to the main yard and mill at Verdun.[423] These operations were supported by several spur lines that extended from the main Oneida and Western trunk. Loggers deposited logs along the line by way of chutes.[424]

The Oneida and Western was a thriving enterprise in its early years. In addition to timber, outgoing shipments using the Oneida and Western line included coal from the mines at Gernt, Zenith, and Hagemeyer; cattle, sheep, hogs, and turkeys from local farms; and grocery items intended for country stores. Passenger trains were also available to convey people between the valleys and the Southern Railroad line, which offered service to Knoxville, Chattanooga, and Cincinnati.[425] During its heyday, the Oneida and Western made as many as six round trips per day.

Coal exploration along the railroad right-of-way was stimulated by the availability of transportation. During the 1920s, the Tennessee Stave and Lumber Company became the Tennessee Lumber and Coal Company, reflecting the company's diversifying interests. In 1924, the Tennessee Stave and Lumber Company opened a mine at Hagemeyer. It was operated by the Jackson-Laxton Coal Company. The mine was located approximately 20 miles west of Oneida. Access was provided by the Oneida and Western line.[426]

In 1930, the Tennessee Lumber and Coal Company applied to the Interstate Commerce Commission for permission to extend its line 7 miles from East Jamestown to Jamestown, Tennessee. The timber reserves in the White Oak Creek Valley had been nearly depleted and the company hoped to expand operations into new territory, while also establishing a passenger depot at Jamestown. The Oneida and Western Railroad built the depot in 1930, which still stands today. A motor car was added to the line to handle passengers, mail, and express freight on a single round trip, scheduled daily except Sunday.[427] In spite of the extension of the railroad, business rapidly diminished. Depressed economic

422. Ibid., 105.
423. Hutchinson et al., 21.
424. *Parch Corn Creek Component Landscape Cultural Landscape Inventory*, supplemental information, page 8 of 19.
425. Hutchinson et al., 21.
426. Ibid., 23.
427. Ibid., 21.

conditions and labor unrest at the Zenith coal mines during the 1930s further reduced the railroad's freight business and eventually forced the company into receivership.[428] (Refer to Historic Context Two: Extractive and Manufacturing Industries.)

In 1942, the two banks that controlled the Oneida and Western sold the line to the Crown-Healy Company, a construction firm from Chicago, Illinois. This company anticipated the building of the Tennessee Valley Authority Dam on Wolf Creek near Jamestown, hoping to use the rail line to transport construction materials to the construction site. Due to the entry of the United States into World War II, however, the project was suspended. Crown-Healy was not selected when new bids were submitted in 1946 and the firm applied to the Interstate Commerce Commission to abandon the Oneida and Western.[429]

Instead, the Jewell Ridge Coal Company of Virginia bought the railroad circa 1947, intending to further develop coal resources along the route. Dwindling business and mounting operating expenses forced another application for abandonment of the 37 miles of track in 1953 before the Jewell Ridge Company's plans could be implemented. Ironically, the last freight hauled by the Oneida and Western was cement to the Wolf Creek dam construction site in 1949. By 1953, the Oneida and Western schedule had dwindled to two or three trains per week.[430] The U.S. mail contract ended in June 1953, at which time the passenger motor car was discontinued. The Interstate Commerce Commission granted the company's abandonment request and the line was terminated on March 2, 1954.[431]

Circa 1956, Commercial Metals of Dallas, Texas, purchased the rails and steel bridges from the abandoned railroad. When the railroad was abandoned, the steel was pulled up and sold for scrap. The section crew workers broke out the bolts and lifted the spikes. The rail sections were loaded onto flatcars with a derrick and hauled to Oneida.[432] Scott County officials prevented demolition of the surviving bridges and instead decided to acquire them and secure easements to a right-of-way along the railbed with the intention of creating a fire access road to this part of western Scott County.[433]

Local citizens opposed abandonment of the Oneida and Western, and employees tried to fight the loss of their jobs in the courts. The Oneida and Western had become an important part of life in Fentress and Scott Counties. It created jobs not only for railroad workers, but also in the logging outfits, sawmills, and mines along the right-of-way. The general freight, mail, and passenger services afforded by the railroads were used by most residents and travel on the existing roads remained a time-consuming ordeal. The railroad link between the towns of Oneida and Jamestown was more direct than any of the available roads even after they were improved.[434] Loss of the railroad contributed to a general outmigration of families from the area, and once again diminished connectivity between the low-lying communities, contributing to the favorability of living above on the plateau.

The remaining influence of the railroads was described by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers as they began to study the area in 1958:

> Today, the area is fairly well served by railroads. The Cincinnati, New Orleans, and Texas Pacific Railroad, which is leased and operated by the Southern Railway system, runs in a northeast-southwest direction through the approximate center of the Tennessee portion of the basin and generally follows the eastern edge of the watershed lying in Kentucky. This is the main Southern Railway route from Cincinnati to southern points and is heavily traveled. The Tennessee Railroad connects with the Southern Railway at Oneida and runs generally in a southeasterly direction to the edge of the basin. The Brimstone Railroad

428. Howell et al. (1981), 100–101.
429. Hutchinson et al., 22.
430. Howell et al. (1981), 101.
431. Hutchinson et al., 22.
432. Howell et al. (1981), 103–104.
433. Hutchinson et al., 22.
434. Howell et al. (1981), 101.

> operates from the town of New River for a distance of some 12 miles up the valley of Brimstone Creek. A private railroad owned by a coal and lumbering concern runs in a westerly direction from Stearns, Kentucky.[435]

River Travel

River transport of logs continued into the twentieth century. Burnside, Kentucky, was an important terminus for logs traveling down the river. To facilitate their removal for loading onto rail cars, large log booms were constructed along the river. Companies that used the wood in manufacturing were established at Burnside. One of the largest companies operating in Burnside was the Chicago Veneer Company, which bought out the Rhodes Junk Lumber Company in 1901. The Chicago Veneer Company provided poplar veneer to the Pullman Company of Chicago. It became the Burnside Veneer Company circa 1918–1921.[436]

In 1911, a dam was built at Burnside to facilitate travel and regular use of the Cumberland River, which generally fluctuated throughout the year, rendering travel and commercial transport unpredictable. A new lock completed on the Cumberland River in 1916 also facilitated travel.

River traffic declined precipitously beginning in 1929 after a disastrous Cumberland River flood. Mail service continued on the Cumberland River until 1934. The small gasoline-powered boats used to support the service also delivered small amounts of freight to stores and individuals, parcel post from mail-order catalogues, and informal passenger service during this period.[437]

Roads

Transportation improvements that affected community life and economic conditions during the early to mid-twentieth century included the paving of roads and the increasing use of automobiles and trucking of freight. Roads slowly improved due to the introduction of mechanical rock crushers in 1905 and the use of oil treatments during the early years of the twentieth century. One of these early rock crushers was purchased and set up at the mouth of Cub Branch in the late 1930s where two local entrepreneurs, Rudy and Arnold Colditz, discovered an outcrop of limestone. This material was quarried and crushed and was sold as a road building material locally (Figure 91).



FIGURE 91. The rock crusher used by Rudy and Arnold Colditz to produce road building material. Source: National Park Service.

Drainage improvements such as the laying of culverts and grading of swales and crowns using horse-drawn scoops also increased the viability of local roads. The establishment of state highway controls during the early twentieth century was another important stimulus associated with road improvements. The establishment of the national mail systems including Rural Free Delivery in the mid-1890s and Parcel Post in 1913 also resulted in road maintenance programs, increased communication opportunities for local communities, and access to material goods via mail order businesses.[438]

As noted previously, most of the primary roads that currently exist within the Big South Fork region were in place by 1874. However, several smaller roads that provided access to the rail

435. U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, *Review Report on Big South Fork Cumberland River*, June 30, 1958, 5.
436. McBride and McBride, V-67.
437. Ibid., VI-8.
438. Ibid., V-68.

depots for lumber and coal were established during the early twentieth century.

Two types of roads that related directly to industrial activities that were built during this period included the pole road and the tram road. At the local level, the lack of transportation greatly hindered logging efforts. In areas where rail lines could not be laid, local pole roads were crucial for the removal of lumber. Pole roads were tracks of parallel peeled saplings, eight to ten inches in diameter, joined at the ends like sections of log pipe, or side by side to create a more stable and less muddy surface. Benita Howell describes them as follows:

> Heavy flatbed wagons were pulled over these tracks by mules or horses. These cars had cast-iron wheels with a concave rolling surface that fit over the poles. Because the poles varied in size and shape and were not held in place by cross ties, the tracks did not have a constant gauge. Therefore, the axles were designed so that each wheel could move freely over a distance of about twelve inches to adjust for differences in gauge. Even so, 'depolements' were common; an expert driver could expect to have to cope with at least one a day. Sometimes accidents occurred when the brittle cast-iron wheels broke under the weight of a heavy load. Men and animals were seldom hurt, but it was an inconvenience to have to lay down poles under the wheels of a disabled car and pull it back onto course.[439]

The Whitson Company used a pole road to transport lumber from Slick Ford in Wayne County, Kentucky, to the Oneida and Western depot at Stockton, Tennessee. The Whitson pole road was built in 1914–1915 and used for approximately ten to fifteen years. This road extended for 4 miles along Rock Creek.[154]

According to local resident Willie Frogge, most logging operations laid their own pole roads. Many of these pole roads later became the beds for rail lines or modern paved roads; rail lines were also used as road beds when the steel was removed. Pole roads were constructed by John Blevins circa 1890 and Virgil Pyles along Dry Creek circa 1902. Research conducted by Rita Ellis on the Burns Pole Road suggests that it extended from Mt. Pisgah to Bell Farm, along the north side of Rock Creek. In some places, it followed the course of the current Peters Mountain and Parker's Mountain roads, and traveled near the Dolen School. The Stearns logging railroad was built, in part, on the old Burns Pole Road bed.[440]

Tram roads were similar to pole roads. They used 2x4 planks rather than poles to accommodate the track and tram cars fashioned with flat-surfaced, double-flanged wheels. The tram cars were described as more dangerous than pole cars because their brakes were less effective. On steep grades, the mules pulling the cars had to be unhitched and the cars "wildcatted" to the bottom of the hill, with the teamster riding it down and braking constantly to avoid crashing or traveling out of control (Figure 92).[441]

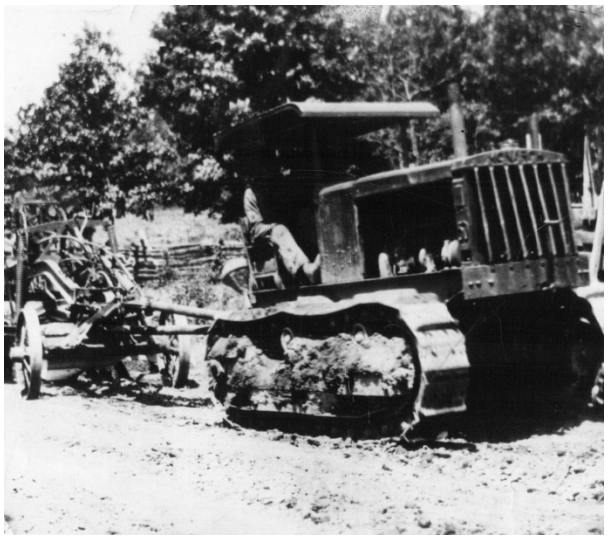


FIGURE 92. The first pull type of grader to be used in Scott County. Source: Scott County Historical Society, image no. 627.

Throughout the pre-war period, local residents continued to use old roads and fords as well as traditional wagon transport. Automobiles began to be part of the Big South Fork landscape beginning in the 1930s and 1940s. The popularity of cars led to an increase in touring and tourism by the end of

439. Howell et al. (1981), 75.
440. McBride and McBride, V-68.
441. Howell et al. (1981), 75–76.

World War II, initiating a service industry that accelerated after the war.[442] A flurry of road building activity after the war not only stimulated economic growth by improving transportation, but also created many jobs related to mining, shipping rock asphalt and gravel, and road construction. In the late 1940s, the expansion of farm-to-market roads also increased the communication and accessibility of many rural areas and greatly spurred economic growth and wage labor; however, farm access roads in southeastern Kentucky remained rugged even into the 1940s.[443] Access to automobiles and improved roads, however, also made outmigration easier. Outmigration, which included movement of residents north to work in cities as well as resettlement on new farm land on the plateau, increased substantially between 1929 and 1945.[444]

Road paving was not completed in the most rural areas for many decades. As noted above, local residents continued to rely to a great degree on the short-line railroads established to convey timber and coal for travel and transportation until their demise in the 1950s and 1960s.[445] Systematic work to upgrade roads in order to accommodate automobiles did not begin to influence construction processes within the region until the 1920s. Construction of paved highways and bridges beginning in the 1930s allowed trucks to compete with the railroads for available freight business just as poor business conditions were reducing the overall volume of freight. Although automotive travel and transportation of freight by trucks grew in importance during the 1920s and 1930s, it was not until well after World War II, and the development of the interstate highway system in the 1950s that rail lines lost their dominance in long-distance shipping of freight.[446] Local roads were finally upgraded beginning in the 1970s. In 1975, road improvements were made to Tennessee Highway 297. Much of the road was paved in 1982, with the exception of the gorge. Paving of roads within the gorge was not completed until 1985–1986.[447]

Where local roads needed to cross streams and the Big South Fork River, bridges and culverts were required. Leatherwood Ford Road, and an associated river shallows crossing, is known to have been present by the early twentieth century. The ford was improved during the New Deal era through construction of a concrete low water bridge (LCS ID 579462) in 1938–1939 that remained in use until the current Tennessee Highway 297 bridge was completed in 1982 (Figure 93).

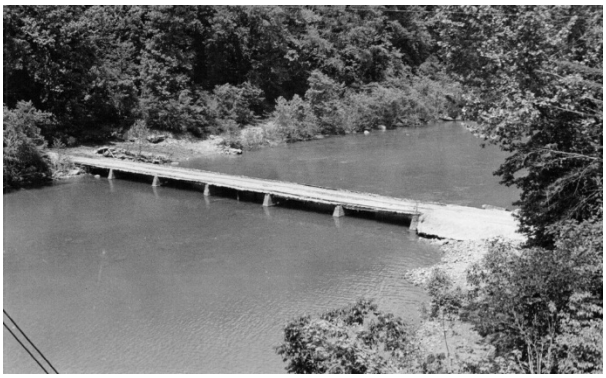


FIGURE 93. The re-planked Leatherwood Ford Low Water Bridge near Oneida, Tennessee. Source: National Park Service.

As part of park development during the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers administration that began in the 1970s, approximately 90 miles of roadway were slated for construction or improvement, along with a 425-mile system of trails for hiking, bicycling, and equestrian use (Figure 94 and Figure 95).[448] The National Park Service has continued to maintain the network of trails identified and expanded by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers throughout the gorge and the plateau for the benefit of visitors.[449]

442. McBride and McBride, VI-8.
443. Ibid., III-49, citing Harriet Simpson Arnow, *Flowering of the Cumberland* (Lexington, Kentucky: University of Kentucky Press, 1963, reprinted 1984), 387.
444. Ibid., VI-9.
445. Howell et al. (1981), 191.
446. McBride and McBride, VI-8.
447. Cari Goetchus and David Hasty, Trip Report, BISO, July 7–12, 1997, 12.
448. *Parch Corn Creek Component Landscape Cultural Landscape Inventory*, supplemental information, page 15 of 19.
449. Ibid., page 20 of 19.



FIGURE 94. A view of a hanging footbridge over the Big South Fork River. Source: Scott County Historical Society, image no. 763.



FIGURE 95. A swinging bridge near Glenmary, Tennessee. Source: Scott County Historical Society, image no. 492

Today, the primary or arterial roads that traverse the park include Kentucky Highway 92 in the northern section, Tennessee Highway 297 that extends through the center and provides access to the Bandy Creek Visitor Center, and Tennessee Highway 52 in the southern portion. Each of these road corridors traverses the park in an east-west direction. There are no roads that extend through the park in a north-south direction, although U.S. Highway 27 edges the park to its east, while Divide Road skirts portions of its western boundary (Figure 96 through Figure 98). U.S. Highway 127 and Kentucky Highway 167 edge the park to its west.

Today, Tennessee Highway 52 and Tennessee Highway 297 are part of the Cumberlands of Tennessee Heritage Trail, a driving tour.



FIGURE 96. An undated view of U.S. Route 27 near New River, Tennessee. Source: Scott County Historical Society, image no. 469.

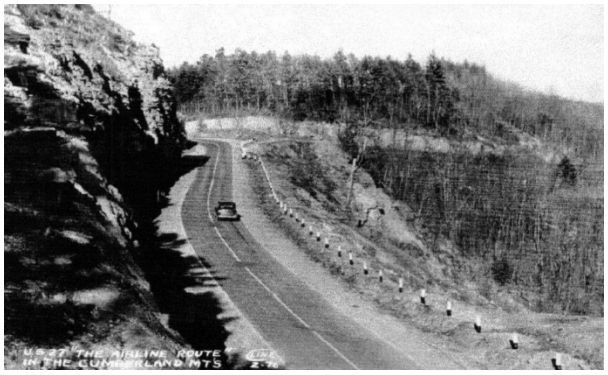


FIGURE 97. An undated view of U.S. Route 27 near New River, Tennessee. Source: Scott County Historical Society, image no. 469.



FIGURE 98. An undated view of U.S. Route 27. Source: Scott County Historical Society, image no. 469.

Significance

National Register Status of Big South Fork River and Recreation Area

As noted in the agriculture context chapter, Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area is not currently listed in the National Register of Historic Places. Several properties located within the park, however, have been determined eligible for listing by the State Historic Preservation Offices (SHPOs) of Tennessee and Kentucky. Properties associated with transportation, including road and railroad bridges, were evaluated in 1981.[450] Three resources were determined eligible in the areas of engineering and transportation: the Leatherwood Ford Low Water Bridge, Oneida and Western Railroad Whipple Truss Bridge, and Yamacraw Bridge. None of these features has since been documented or listed through preparation of National Register nominations.

Since assuming responsibility for the park in 1990, the National Park Service has identified and documented additional structures, sites, and landscapes that reveal important connections to the park's significant historic contexts of early settlement, nineteenth and twentieth century agriculture and industry, transportation, and recreation. These efforts have expanded our understanding of the integral link between environmental conditions and the area's historic resources, and suggested further consideration of the potential eligibility of several additional sites for listing in the National Register of Historic Places.

In 2000, the National Park Service initiated work on a Multiple Property Documentation Form (MPDF) for Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area that addressed historic resources within the Tennessee portion of the park. Although the MPDF has not yet been completed, the National Park Service anticipates pursuing the listing of portions of the park or individual properties in the future. The historic structures considered for their eligibility for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under the park's historic transportation context are discussed in detail below. The information draws on the assessments developed for the draft MPDF, and may also serve as the basis for future nomination development.

National Register Criteria for Evaluation

In order for a property to be eligible for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, it must possess significance under one of four criteria. The Criteria for Evaluation state:

> The quality of significance in American history, architecture, archeology, engineering, and culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and:
>
> A. That are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or
>
> B. That are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or
>
> C. That embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction, or that represent the work of a master, or that possess artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or

450. Letters from Herbert L. Harper, Executive Director and Deputy State Historic Preservation Officer, Tennessee Department of Conservation, Tennessee Historical Commission to E. C. Moore, Engineering Division, U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, February 24, 1981, and September 14, 1981, re: Request for SHPO opinion on determination of eligibility-architectural properties in Big South Fork; Determination of Eligibility Notification National Register of Historic Places Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service, McCreary, Scott, and Fentress Counties, April 13, 1981.

D. That have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.[451]

Significance of Big South Fork's Transportation Properties

Based on documentation reviewed for this study, Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, either in whole or in part, likely constitutes a rural historic district significant at the state and local level under National Register Criterion A for its association with the early settlement, agriculture, and rural community life and economy of the Upper Cumberland region in Tennessee; Criterion C for rare surviving examples of bridge engineering; and Criterion D for its potential to yield information important to understanding the human history of the area. The diverse surviving resources of the park are united historically and physically in their representation of European-American activity and rural life in the Upper Cumberland between circa 1786 and 1974, with 1786 representing the earliest documented date of settlement reflected in a chimney stone of a regional farmstead, and 1974 as the year that Congress enacted a law rendering the property a federal park.

Under the context of historic transportation systems, Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area possesses a long history of regional transportation networks and features established to facilitate passage through the rugged terrain for local residents as well as through travelers. These transportation features served to connect local farms with markets, and the later export of by-products resulting from local extractive industries. These transportation systems have included the river; the American Indian trails that served as the basis for early European-American travel; road development that eventually evolved into state highways used by motor vehicles; and finally, rail systems built to reach the sites of coal mining and logging operations. Establishment of some of these systems required careful engineering and the construction of long and complex bridge spans. Resources that survive with integrity within this context appear eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places.

The Big South Fork River was a major conduit for the transportation of locally-produced farm and cottage industry products during the early nineteenth century. The river represents the most vital link of the area's first settlers to the commerce and trade of the Cumberland River. In addition to the river, three roads passed through the gorge, connecting towns on the plateau to the east and west. These routes, which formed around American Indian trails, were the basis for the contemporary Kentucky Highway 92, Tennessee Highway 297, and Tennessee Highway 52. Smaller roads followed the three creek corridors that became the focus of early settlement in the region—No Business, Parch Corn, and Station Camp. The basin was also rich in timber and coal deposits. To extract the timber and coal, corporate entities created local rail lines—the Oneida and Western and the Kentucky and Tennessee—as well as associated railroad spurs, lumber towns, and mining sites.

Properties associated with this historic context are significant in the areas of community planning and development, engineering, exploration and settlement, agriculture, industry, and transportation.

Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area is significant at the local level under Criteria A and D in the area of community planning and development for the sites of the No Business Creek, Parch Corn Creek, and Station Camp Creek communities developed along stream corridors during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Transportation features associated with this area of significance include the earthen roads that parallel the stream corridors, forming the central spine of each of the communities.

Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area is significant at the local level under Criteria

451. National Register Bulletin: *How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation* (Washington, D.C.: Department of the Interior, 1995).

A and D in the area of exploration and settlement for surviving evidence of American Indian trails through the area that were used by the long hunters to traverse the gorge region. These trails formed the basis for later settlement.

Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area is significant at the state level under Criterion A in the area of industry and Criteria C and D in the area of engineering for the surviving evidence of two railroad lines, four associated bridge features, and three road bridges, developed during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries to support industrial and transportation needs.

Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area is significant at the state and local levels under Criteria A and D in the area of transportation for the presence of three important travel routes that cross the gorge, and have supported settlement, farming, industry, recreation, and tourism. Each road generally follows the route of an earlier American Indian trail, and has remained in use since early settlement. The routes include Kentucky Highway 92, and Tennessee Highways 52 and 297.

Integrity of Historic Resources

Integrity is the ability of a property to convey its historic significance. According to the National Register Bulletin titled *How to Complete the National Register Registration Form*, the seven aspects of integrity are location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association. These are applied to each contributing property, taking into account its level of significance and the criteria under which it derives its significance. For a property to contribute to the proposed Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area historic district, it must possess several, and usually most, of the aspects of integrity.

Overall Assessment of Integrity

Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area possesses integrity of location, setting, feeling, and association due to the continued presence of historic cultural landscape elements that suggest deep connections between the environment and agriculture, industry, transportation, and recreation that resulted in communities with deep ties and a unique cultural heritage. The integrity of the potential historic district is enhanced by the landscape's protection as part of a federally administered unit of the National Park System. Both plateau and gorge landscapes are relatively free from intrusive elements and the number of non-contributing resources is minimal. Integrity of design, materials, and workmanship of historic buildings and structures is present, although the loss of many former components that helped to form unified sites diminishes this integrity, as does work conducted to address adaptive reuse, stabilization, and repair of these features that has resulted in alteration to their historic appearance.

Assessment of Individual Resource Integrity

Tennessee Highway 52. This road corridor generally follows a travel route first established by American Indians, and expanded by early settlers. It has been paved and widened to accommodate contemporary vehicle use, which has diminished its integrity. The road appears to possess sufficient integrity to render it eligible for listing in the National Register, including as a contributing structure to a potential rural historic district.

Tennessee Highway 297. This road corridor generally follows a travel route first established by American Indians, and expanded by early settlers. It has been paved and widened to accommodate contemporary vehicle use, which has diminished its integrity. In 1982, a bridge crossing of Big South Fork replaced use of the New Deal era low water bridge. This has also diminished its integrity. Nonetheless, the road appears to possess sufficient integrity to render it eligible for listing in the National Register, including as a contributing structure to a potential rural historic district.

Kentucky Highway 92. This road corridor generally follows a travel route first established by American Indians, and expanded by early settlers. It has been paved and widened to accommodate contemporary vehicle use, which has diminished its integrity. The road appears to possess sufficient

integrity to render it eligible for listing in the National Register, including as a contributing structure to a potential rural historic district.

Oneida and Western Railroad Line. This rail line was abandoned in the 1950s and the track was subsequently removed. The rail line has lost integrity as an active, useful transportation corridor. Surviving above and below ground evidence of the rail line likely possesses information potential. Archeological resources include remnants of switching yards, water tank locations, and crew camps that can be found along the rail line.

Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad Line. Only one third of the original Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad line established during the early twentieth century remains in active use today. The remainder has been abandoned, with the track subsequently removed. Despite the loss, the surviving segment appears to possess sufficient integrity to render it eligible for listing in the National Register, including as a contributing structure to a potential rural historic district.

No Business Creek Community Road. This road dates to development of the No Business Creek community along the stream corridor during the early nineteenth century. It is associated with former dwelling and farm complexes. Stone retaining walls, drainage culverts, and other landscape features survive along the road. Although its integrity is diminished due to the loss of most aboveground features of the farm community, the road appears to possess sufficient integrity to render it eligible for listing in the National Register, including as a contributing structure to a potential rural historic district. The No Business Creek community road and traces of farm lanes arising from it also constitute a potential archeological site.

Parch Corn Creek Community Road. Like the No Business Creek community road, the travel corridor associated with the Parch Corn community followed the route of the stream corridor during the early nineteenth century. This road survives with diminished integrity due to the loss of community features. It appears to possess sufficient integrity to render it eligible for listing in the National Register, including as a contributing structure to a potential rural historic district.

Station Camp Creek Community Road. Station Camp Creek community road also survives to recall the former collection of farmsteads that once followed the stream corridor within the Big South Fork gorge. Although its integrity is diminished due to the loss of most aboveground features of the farm community, the road appears to possess sufficient integrity to render it eligible for listing in the National Register, including as a contributing structure to a potential rural historic district.

Yamacraw Bridge (E023). The Yamacraw Bridge that was used by the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad to cross Big South Fork in the northern segment of the park appears to have been little altered. It was determined eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places in 1981. This bridge, which is owned by the K&T Scenic Railroad, continues to possess sufficient integrity to render it eligible for listing in the National Register, including as a contributing structure to a potential rural historic district.[452]

Leatherwood Ford Low Water Bridge (E018; HS-19; ID LCS 579462). The Leatherwood Ford Low Water Bridge crosses the Big South Fork near Tennessee Highway 297. The bridge is composed of a series of concrete piers that parallel the flow of the river, and a wooden planking surface. The bridge is designed to be washed over during high water periods. Flooding

452. Most of the bridges described here are owned by entities other than the National Park Service. Thus while they may be significant or eligible for listing in the National Register, they are not eligible for funding and maintenance by the National Park Service.

has damaged the bridge several times. The majority of the wood planking has been replaced, as has the concrete approach leading to the bridge from the nearby park parking area. Although much of the planking is not original, the bridge retains integrity of design, location, association, feeling, and setting and was determined eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places in 1981 in the area of Engineering. It is also possibly eligible as a contributing structure to a potential rural historic district.[453]

Roaring Paunch Plate-Girder Bridge, Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad line (E021). At one time, six plate-girder bridges were associated with the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad line through the Basin. The Roaring Paunch Plate-Girder structure is the best, and only surviving, example of this bridge type in the area today. This bridge afforded access to the Blue Heron Tipple and Tram beginning in the 1930s. The bridge appears to have been little altered since its original construction and possesses sufficient integrity to convey its historic associations. The bridge was determined eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places by the Kentucky SHPO in September 1981, and remains eligible for listing today, including as a contributing structure to a potential rural historic district. It is owned by the K&T Scenic Railroad.

Whipple Truss Bridge, Oneida and Western Railroad (E009). The Oneida and Western Railroad Bridge that survives within the park crosses Big South Fork in the northern segment of the park. It was built in 1915, and remained in use until 1954. Although aspects of the bridge are in deteriorated condition, it has been little altered and appears to possess integrity. The bridge was determined eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places in 1981. This bridge, which is owned by Scott County, remains eligible either as an individual resource or as a contributing structure to a potential rural historic district.

Toomy Stop Bridge, Oneida and Western Railroad (LCS No. 92213). The Toomy Stop Bridge spans Pine Creek. It was also associated with the Oneida and Western Railroad line. The bridge is a two-span plate girder structure manufactured by the Detroit Bridge and Iron Works in 1887. The bridge, which is owned by Scott County, is an early example of this bridge design type and was determined to meet National Register criteria as an example of a type and method of construction in 1981.

Burnt Mill Bridge (E003), Boat Launch, and Picnic Area. Located on the Clear Fork tributary of the Big South Fork, the Burnt Mill Bridge is a popular riverside area for shore fishing, wading, picnicking, boat access, and baptisms. Boulders in the streambed, moderate rapids, and views to the bluffs above characterize the river in this section. This bridge as a Pratt through/Pratt pony truss structure, is a historic engineering resource and the only surviving bridge of this type within the Basin. Honey Creek Road leads south to the Burnt Mill Bridge boat launch and picnic area, as well as the trailhead of the John Muir Trail. This bridge, which is owned by Scott County, is likely eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places.

Peters Bridge (E001). The historic Peter Bridge, which was a Pratt through truss bridge, was demolished and replaced with a new structure. (This bridge is owned by Morgan County.)

North White Oak Bridge. The North White Oak Bridge is a plate and girder bridge on the Oneida and Western Railroad bed that crosses North White Oak Creek. It is a low (less than 5 foot) plate-sided, hot-riveted girder structure that was only recently discovered. It represents the only example of this low-sided plate style bridge anywhere within the basin of the Big South Fork. As a pristine example of this type of engineering structure, it is considered eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. It remains to be evaluated for eligibility. The bridge is owned by

453. Tennessee State Historic Preservation Office, 1981.

the U.S. Government and managed by the National Park Service at Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area.

State Boundary Markers (LCS No. 92213). There are two boundary stones located within the park that mark Kentucky and Tennessee state lines. The Tennessee boundary stone is a small sandstone block that extends approximately 1 foot, 6 inches from the ground, and measures 10 inches by 7 inches. The inscription is worn but portions of "TENN" can still be discerned. A USGS survey benchmark medallion has been set into the top of the marker. The Kentucky boundary stone is similar in form and size. These stones are thought to have been installed in 1889. The two stones are in fair condition. However, they possess sufficient integrity to be considered for listing in the National Register of Historic Places as part of a larger historic district.

Contributing Properties

- Kentucky Highway 92
- Tennessee Highway 297
- Tennessee Highway 52
- Yamacraw Bridge
- Roaring Paunch Plate-Girder Bridge
- Whipple Truss Bridge, Oneida and Western Railroad
- Toomy Stop Bridge, Oneida and Western Railroad
- Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad line (Big South Fork Scenic Railway)
- No Business Creek community road
- Parch Corn Creek community road
- Station Camp Creek community road
- Leatherwood Ford Low Water Bridge
- Burnt Mill Bridge
- North White Oak Bridge
- State boundary markers

Potential Archeological Sites

- Oneida and Western Railroad line

Non-contributing Properties

- Post-1974 park roads and bridges (including Peters Bridge)

Kentucky Highway 92
Yamacraw Bridge

Big South Fork Scenic Railway

Kentucky and Tennessee
Railroad Line ruins

Roaring Paunch
Plate-Girder
Bridge

Toomy Stop Bridge
Oneida and Western
Railroad Line ruins

Burnt Mill Bridge

Whipple Truss
Bridge

Leatherwood
Ford low water
bridge

No Business Creek
commmunity road

Parch Corn Creek
commmunity road

Station Camp Creek
commmunity road

State boundary
markers

Tennessee
Highway 297

Tennessee Highway 52

Peters Bridge

STEARNS

ONEIDA

JAMESTOWN

PLATEAU

CUMBERLAND

KENTUCKY
TENNESSEE

Roaring Paunch Creek

Bear Creek

Big South Fork Cumberland River

Bussy Creek

North Fork Camp Creek

Parch Corn Creek

Laurel Fork

Station Camp Creek

Oak

North White

New River

Clear Fork

SCOTT STATE FOREST

Private Property

North

0 1 2 3 Kilometers

0 1 2 3 Miles

Historic Context Four: Recreation along the Big South Fork (Pre-Twentieth Century to 2012)

Introduction

The majestic landscape of Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area sprawls over more than 125,000 acres of tableland plateau that has been cut by the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River to form a scenic yet rugged gorge characterized by canyons, cliffs, arches, rock shelters, tumbling waterways, and waterfalls. The Big South Fork River Basin is richly endowed with plant and animal life, ever-changing scenery, and a wide range of natural resources that afford many opportunities for outdoor recreation. The wooded gorge, rising high above the river valley, coupled with the most minimal of developed cultural features, bestow a rare sense of wilderness on the region that enhances many popular recreational pursuits.

Over its large land area, the park offers an extensive array of outstanding recreational opportunities. These range from hiking, biking, climbing, and equestrian trails to many types of boating activities, camping, swimming, picnicking, hunting, and sightseeing. The water that has, over eons, sculpted the cliffs and coves of the basin, remains one of the park's primary natural assets. The river offers some of the best whitewater canoeing opportunities in the eastern United States. The river and most of its major tributaries are also popular destinations for stream fishing. Sightseeing is another recreational attraction of Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area. Park trails and overlooks afford spectacular views of dramatic landforms and formations associated with the Big South Fork River gorge, some of the most spectacular in the region. From the rim of the gorge, visitors can experience the rugged beauty and drama of the landscape from designed scenic overlooks. Views of the steep walls and massive bluffs of the gorge offer an interesting contrast to the rolling bucolic landscape of the adjacent plateau. Trails and roads adapted from historic use, have been developed to support park recreational needs, and to provide access to overlooks, swimming holes, hunting areas, campgrounds, boat launches, picnic areas, and backcountry terrain.

The natural resources and features that support recreational uses along the Big South Fork were known to local residents well before the park was established. Plentiful supplies of fresh water, free-flowing streams, fertile floodplains, ample timber, mineral deposits, and a variety of flora and fauna supported the needs of pioneers moving west after the Revolutionary War. At the same time, the foreboding wilderness of the gorge, which is one of its primary attractions for visitors today, also proved an impediment to settlement, and the region remained relatively sparsely populated.

While today visitors are attracted to hunting and fishing for sport, the region's extensive faunal resources are known to have been attractive to both American Indians and European-American explorers and settlers prior to the twentieth century to support food, shelter, and tool-making needs. Prior to the late eighteenth century, American Indians as well as long hunters traveled

to the area to hunt and trap a variety of animals—white-tailed deer, beaver, raccoon, muskrat, and bear—which continue to be the object of sport hunting today. Other species that were introduced by early settlers, such as wild boar and hogs, are now among the list of wildlife available to hunters. Historically-important game birds—ruffed grouse, turkey, bobwhite and several species of duck—are also present within the park.

The Big South Fork River and its tributaries support sixty-two species of fish, with channel catfish, walleye, muskellunge, large and smallmouth bass, sunfish, and three species of trout being the most important game species. Although fish is thought to have been only a minor food resource for European-American hunters and later settlers, fishing is a recreational activity that links today's visitor with current and former residents of the region.

One of the fishing methods used historically by local residents, but not practiced today, was the fish trap. These structures were fashioned out of rocks or baskets and placed into the river at strategic locations to form V-shaped fences or dam structures. Once the fish entered the V-shaped structure, they were caught with trotlines, bows, gigs, or spears, or even shot with guns.[454] Knowledge of these types of practices, as well as other evidence of pre-park cultural activities and land uses, that can be tied directly to the natural processes of the area is interpreted to visitors by park personnel and programs.

In 1974, the Big South Fork River Basin and watershed was selected for inclusion in the National Park System as the first combined National River and National Recreation Area based on its natural resource values as well as its recreational potential. The park was intended to preserve the natural qualities of the river while facilitating exploration and enjoyment of its waters through visitor recreation. As noted in the park's enabling legislation, the varied objectives for establishing the Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area included:

> . . . conserving and interpreting an area containing unique cultural, historic, geologic, fish and wildlife, archaeologic, scenic and recreational values, preserving as a natural free-flowing stream the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River, major portions of its Clear Fork and New River stems, and portions of their various tributaries for the benefit and enjoyment of present and future generations, the preservation of the natural integrity of the scenic gorges and valleys and the development of the area's potential for healthful outdoor recreation.[455]

To address the dual objectives expressed in the enabling legislation, the Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area was divided into two zones with distinct though complementary management goals. The first zone encompassed the river and its environs within the gorge rim. The second included the adjacent plateau between the gorge rim and the park boundary. The gorge was to be maintained as a natural area, with activities and physical development presenting minimal disturbance to the existing environmental character. The plateau and adjacent areas were to be the focus of developments that would provide a variety of outdoor recreational opportunities to the public.[456] Although recreation is permitted within the gorge, the degree to which it is facilitated by new park roads and structures is limited, and conforms to the goal of leaving no new cultural imprints.

Most of the recreational features present within the park originated after park establishment in 1974, and therefore do not constitute historic resources.[457] The park does, however, include

454. Tom Des Jean, "Fishtraps of the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River" (Oneida, Tennessee: National Park Service, 2010), 3, 4, 19.
455. Big South Fork Enabling Legislation, PL 93-251.
456. Miller, Wihry & Lee, Inc., *Master Plan; Design Memorandum, No. 7, for Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area*, Volume 1. Prepared for the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, 4-3.
457. Historic resources are typically fifty years of age or older.

small areas that were formerly part of national forest land protected and made available to the public for recreation in the 1930s. Historic recreation features, such as trails, picnic areas, and campgrounds, were developed by Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) and Works Progress Administration (WPA) enrollees.

Few recreational features associated with local lifeways prior to park establishment survive within the park today, although knowledge of how residents used natural landscape features for enjoyment and leisure has been collected through oral histories and other research (refer to Figure 118 at the end of this chapter). This information remains of value to interpretation and in protecting and managing natural resources. Additionally, the park as a whole reflects significant trends in federal protection of natural resources and recreational park development, as the earliest example of a combined National River and National Recreation Area. These topics are considered in more detail below.

The History of Recreation in the Big South Fork River Basin and Associated Contexts

Recreational Activities of Local Residents Prior to Park Establishment

Relatively little is known about the recreational activities associated with the Big South Fork River Basin area prior to the twentieth century. Most residents lived modestly on small farms or worked in industrial pursuits. Leisure time as we know it today was more limited and generally tied to community functions associated with church, school, and shared work tasks that were often transformed into social occasions. Social events, such as weddings, also afforded opportunities for recreational enjoyment and relaxation for the gorge's hard-working communities. Dances, musical concerts, and picnics were popular pastimes for local farming families.

In considering the social customs of the region based on her research and oral history, Benita Howell writes:

> For as long as family farms remained the predominant means of livelihood along the Big South Fork, recreation was tied to work activities, especially labor exchange between kind and neighbors. 'Workings' were organized for every task from clearing land, barn raising, and house building, to corn husking, bean shelling, and molasses making. Strenuous or technically complex work required more labor, more tools and implements, or more specialized expertise than a single household could muster. The lighter but monotonous food preparation tasks probably could have been accomplished without assistance of the community, but these workings were as much social as economic in function. They provided a socially approved setting in which young people could initiate a courtship. For all of the participants, the burden of monotonous work was relieved by conversation and rewarded by a big dinner spread by the hostess and other women whose families were present. In the more liberal households, the working often ended with square dancing.[458]

Throughout her interviews with former residents of the region in the 1970s, Howell heard stories of the recreational enjoyment residents derived from shared work activities. Older residents described log rollings and barn raisings, as well as candy making, corn huskings, and bean shellings. She noticed an apparent change in the means for accomplishing heavy work during the mid- to late-nineteenth century as ". . . informal mutual aid with unspecified obligations for future repayment was replaced by some more formal arrangement for hiring labor. Workers were paid in return services, goods, or cash."[459] The less demanding activities, such as corn huskings and bean shellings, appear to have persisted as community-wide events well into the twentieth century.

458. Howell, *Folklife*, 114.

459. Ibid.

Activities such as candy-making were important as a pretext for young people to meet.

Howell also notes that young people engaged in recreational activities through school programs and activities. During the early twentieth century, however, "school consolidation and access to automobiles substantially enlarged young people's social networks and introduced a host of alternative social and recreational activities."[460]

Also of importance to communities located within the river basin were church-related revivals and family reunions or homecomings, which were held at places of worship during the summer months. Music often accompanied spiritual and religious events and occasions as well as secular activities. Local residents are known to have regularly organized musical events, dances, and festivals.[461] One of the cultural resources related to these activities was the camp meeting shed, a resource that was present within the park when the land was acquired by the federal government, but is absent today. These structures were observed

> . . . across the broad region encompassing Big South Fork. Their use and appearance is synonymous with the Kentucky/Tennessee/North Carolina section of the United States. As structures, they offer a form of public meeting space that is both clearly delineated from the interior and an integral part of the surrounding countryside. In style they repeat many of the local building characteristics and materials, while offering a functional orientation for performances, services, or discussions. Construction is simple and rustic, traditionally post and beam. The level of freedom, openness, and involvement with the natural environment is virtually unsurpassed by any other architectural form. The appropriateness of camp meeting sheds as a place for rural public gatherings and festivities cannot be overstated.[462]

The introduction of lumber and coal mining companies in the later nineteenth and early twentieth centuries led to construction of camps to house workers arriving from other regions. These wage workers had different recreational needs and interests than the local farmers and their families. Writing of the employees of the Stearns Lumber and Coal Company, Howell notes:

> Single men who lived in the camp boardinghouses were too tired for much recreation after work, but they might while away their weekends with drinking and gambling. They had to exercise some restraint, however, because the Stearns employee who did not show up ready for work Monday morning was laid off for the week. Repeated infractions were grounds for firing. The company did offer some recreational opportunities to its employees. Public dances were held each Saturday night at Bell Farm, and sports, especially baseball or softball and horseshoes, were popular in the Stearns camps.[463]

Residents are also known to have enjoyed outdoor recreational activities relating to the region's natural resources such as boating, swimming, hunting, and fishing (Figure 100 and Figure 101). Residents fished for Red Horse catfish, bass, walleye, and bluegill. Another popular recreational past-time for local children was frog gigging. Frog gigs are poles with a multi-pronged spear at the end used to catch the amphibians.

460. Ibid., 114–115.
461. Ibid., 126–149.
462. Miller, Wihry, Lee, Inc. "Historic and Indigenous Architecture: Design Criteria; Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area," Working Paper No. 3 (Rugby, Tennessee: Building Conservation Technology, Inc., n.d.), 23.
463. Howell, *Folklife,* 115.

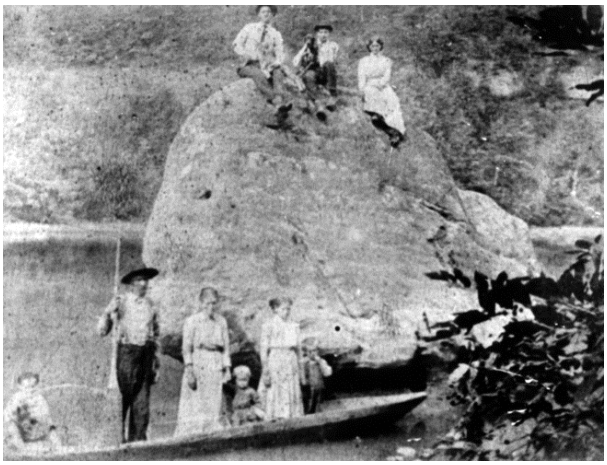


FIGURE 100. C. J. S. Marcum and family, 1900. Source: Tennessee State Library and Archive.



FIGURE 101. Children on a johnboat excursion on North White Oak Creek, Zenith, 1930s. Source: National Park Service.

The traditional names of features along the river, such as Jake's Swimming Hole, are derived from the recreational experiences of local residents. While these names survive to suggest these historic uses, little remains in the way of physical evidence of these activities within the park today. Physical resources relating to the social and recreational activities of local residents are also rare if not completely absent from the landscape today.

Because travel to the area was challenging, recreational visits by outsiders during the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries were likely infrequent at best. During the late nineteenth century, however, several modest resort hotels were developed near the river basin to provide access to the healthful benefits afforded by the unsullied forests and stream valleys. As noted by Kim and Stephen McBride in their historic context study of the region:

> An increased interest in health remedies, and in the contribution of environmental factors to health issues are related to the development of larger hotels and selective town growth in the [region] during the [post-bellum] period. Small resorts, often built around a natural spring, were popular from the 1790s to the 1830s in other areas of Kentucky and Tennessee, but it was not until this later period that they became popular in the Big South Fork region. While most of the early resorts originally stressed the medicinal qualities of their local water or mountain air, later emphasis was more on entertainment.[464]

During the 1870s through the 1890s, national interest in visiting resorts for health became even more popular, with a boom in mineral baths and spas occurring nationwide, but in the Southeastern United States in particular.

Three examples of resorts developed to take advantage of the medicinal and recreational qualities of the basin landscape were located in the southern portion of the region at Rugby, Allardt, and Deer Lodge. While these resorts introduced visitors to the spectacular scenery and natural environment of the basin, they were relatively short-lived and little evidence of these developments survives today.

Although Rugby was a complex settlement financed by a wealthy English socialist, Thomas Hughes, to offer opportunities for the younger, unlanded sons of English gentry, advertisements for the town dating from the 1880s also suggested the environmental and health benefits associated with life in the community. The townsite was carefully planned, and included structures such as a library and a large hotel, as well as planned green spaces and recreational amenities that were not found in association with other towns in the region. Despite these amenities, Rugby quickly experienced financial problems, and was in severe

464. McBride and McBride, V-14, citing Richard A. Boisvert, *Kentucky Salt Licks: A Preservation Planning Perspective* (Lexington, Kentucky: University of Kentucky, 1984), 62.

decline by the early twentieth century.[465] However, features of the town were restored and preserved in the 1960s. Rugby's Victorian architecture and townsite arrangement are unique within the region. Rugby has become a popular local tourist attraction. Much of the townsite was listed in the National Register of Historic Places in 1972.

Other townsites with resorts that advertised the benefits of the healthy environment of the Upper Cumberland plateau were Deer Lodge and Allardt. Both towns featured fine hotels by the end of the nineteenth century. Tourists and residents alike were courted by descriptions of beautiful scenery and fresh mountain air. Allardt appears to have been developed based on a visit made to Rugby by John Shepard, an Englishman from Huron County, Michigan, during the winter of 1880–1881. Mr. Shepard was associated with the firm of Allardt & Gernt of Port Huron, Michigan, and had previously helped establish townsites in Michigan for German immigrants. Mr. Shepard introduced the firm to the area, which was in the process of identifying land to establish a new townsite for hundreds of Michigan families whose homes had burned in a large fire. Allardt died before a new colony could be established. In his recognition, the colony was named in his honor.[466] Although the colony was primarily associated with agricultural pursuits, advertisements to promote growth of the community heralded "For Health Come to Allardt," and stressed the townsite's reasonably priced but fertile land, mild climate, rugged beauty, and industrious citizens.[467]

1930s-era Recreational Pursuits Associated with Federal and State Park Developments

The lifeways and recreational pursuits of residents and visitors were impacted by devastating floods that swept through the region in the 1920s, affecting the Cumberland River and several of its tributaries. These floods in particular raised concerns for human safety. In response, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers initiated surveys of the affected waterways, including the Big South Fork River, in 1929 to determine a course of action. The resulting report, "Cumberland River Survey for Navigation, Flood Control, Power Development, and Irrigation," proposed to dam the Big South Fork River at Devil's Jump as a flood control measure and for hydroelectric power generation (Figure 102). This proposal, however, was never acted upon; the situation was complicated by the establishment of the Tennessee Valley Authority in 1933, as the new agency attempted to wrest control of damming projects on the Cumberland River from the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers.

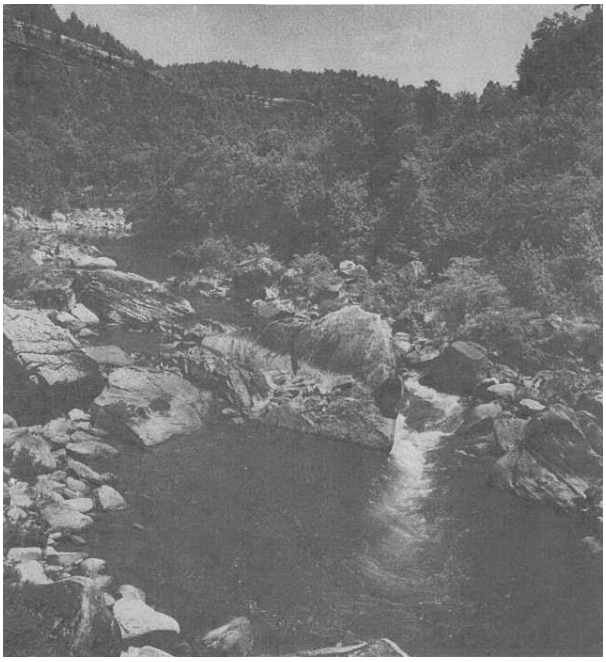


FIGURE 102. An undated view of Devil's Jump. Source: National Park Service.

It was also around this time that the federal government began to establish forest reserves in the Southern Appalachian Mountains due to concerns resulting from exhaustive farming and logging practices that were affecting streams, rivers, and other water supplies. One of the earliest federal forest reserves in Kentucky was the Cumberland Purchase Unit, intended to support timber production, flood control, and the protection of the watershed of the navigable portion of the Cumberland River. The basis for establishing a system of protected federal forest

465. McBride and McBride, V-14.
466. Ibid.
467. Ibid., V-14–V-15.

reserves was first introduced as part of the 1897 Sundry Civil Appropriations Act. This appropriations act formed the primary statutory basis for the management of forest reserves in the United States, and identified the purpose for establishing reserves to include forest improvement, timber production, and watershed and forest protection.

The Sundry Civil Appropriations Act was followed in 1900 by a Congressional appropriation to investigate the potential for establishing Appalachian forest reserves. Gifford Pinchot, the first chief of the federal division of forestry, was familiar with Southern Appalachian forests and considered them to hold great potential as national reserves. The Act of March 1, 1911, or Weeks Act, furthered the goal of establishing a national forest system by permitting the federal government to purchase private land in order to protect the headwaters of rivers and watersheds of navigable streams in the eastern United States.[468] Consideration of establishing a national forest in Kentucky began in 1914. To support this effort, the state legislature passed the Enabling Act, which formally gave state consent to the federal government to acquire by purchase, gift, or condemnation land in the mountainous portion of the state for a national forest reserve.

Land to be included in the reserve was identified as early as 1930. Purchase of land within the targeted area began in 1933. Parcels were acquired from several sources including the Stearns Lumber and Coal Company, Castle Craig Coal Company, and Warfork Land Company. Pollution and erosion caused by timbering and strip mining conducted by these companies threatened the health of several water systems within the area.[469] Although proposals were made to expand the forest reserve area to include the headwaters of the river in 1933, 1934, and 1935, the government did not pursue expansion at this time. In hindsight, acquisition of these additional proposed lands would have prevented some of the pollution that wreaked havoc in the area until the logging and mining companies left the region in the 1950s and 1960s.

In 1937, Cumberland National Forest was established from the land that had been acquired since 1933. This federally protected reserve edges Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area to the west, north, and east within the Commonwealth of Kentucky. As part of its emerging policies, the federal government quickly introduced new timber management practices within the reserve that targeted soil and water conservation. The government also terminated mining operations wherever possible. Where former mine owners maintained mineral rights, agreements were put in place to cease operations within a particular time frame. Administration of the national forest land evolved to include wildlife management programs as an integral component of conservation land use.

The U.S. Forest Service also quickly established policies that connected natural resource conservation with natural resource-based recreation. Hunting seasons were established for deer and other mammals; private groups and organizations, such as the League of Kentucky Sportsmen, were instrumental in convincing the federal government to permit hunting within the national forest.

Facilities to support recreational activities in national forest land, like state and national parks, included trails, roads, campgrounds, boat launches, bathhouses, and picnic areas. Much of this infrastructure was developed during the late

468. U.S. Forest Service, "The Weeks Act," http://www.foresthistory.org/ASPNET/Policy/WeeksAct/index.aspx (accessed June 8, 2012).

469. In 1937, Stearns decided to sell approximately 47,000 acres to the United States Forest Service. However, Stearns retained the mineral rights, a move that would cause considerable controversy when the company attempted (unsuccessfully) to exert their right to strip mine within the forest. The sale of Stearns land to the U.S. Forest Service meant the movement of at least ninety some leases off the property and the dismantling of a large number of mining and domestic features." McBride and McBride, VI-9–VI-10.

1930s by enrollees in federal make-work programs such as the CCC and WPA. These programs resulted from the Emergency Conservation Act of 1933 that authorized the President to hire unemployed citizens to conduct useful work focusing on the restoration of the country's depleted natural resources on federal or state land.

Camps of CCC enrollees were set up in numerous locations throughout the United States, including state and federal parks (Figure 103). The enrollees built roads and trails, cleared trees and underbrush for fire-fighting purposes, and constructed campgrounds and picnic facilities for visitors.



FIGURE 103. View of the CCC bunkhouse, 1989. Source: National Park Service.

CCC camps were established throughout the Upper Cumberland Plateau region beginning in 1933. Camps were located at Bell Farm, Pickett, and Stearns. Members of Company No. 597, established in Stearns, Kentucky, in 1933, were involved in developing Cumberland Falls as a State Park for recreation (Figure 104). The CCC maintained a base in Stearns until 1936.[470] It is believed that fifteen, 200-man CCC camps operated at one time or another within the Cumberland National Forest.[471] Evidence of CCC activities within Big South Fork includes trails and stone culverts along Divide Road. The CCC also built a fire tower and bunkhouse on a knob along Fork Ridge Road that falls within the boundaries of the park today. A sign on the bunkhouse noted that the structure was built by CCC Company 1471 in 1934. The tower and bunkhouse are noteworthy owing to the fact that they were used by Alice Sharp, one of the first female fire watches.[472] The original wooden tower was replaced in 1967 by a steel one that was removed about ten years later. The concrete piers for the tower and the collapsing bunkhouse, which are of archeological interest, are all that remains of the development today.



FIGURE 104. African American and white members of the CCC crew stationed in Stearns working in the area. Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Daniel Boone National Forest.

The WPA, established in 1935, was broader in scope than the CCC. In the Big South Fork region, the WPA worked, with the assistance of the CCC, to develop recreational sites in the Cumberland National Forest in Kentucky, and Frozen Head,

470. *Parch Corn Creek Component Landscape, Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area Cultural Landscapes Inventory*, supplemental information, page 13 of 19.

471. The U.S. Forest Service web site relating the history of the Daniel Boone National Forest notes: "Despite the importance of this program to the Cumberland and the fine work accomplished by the C.C.C. Camps, the benefits of much of which we are enjoying today, little or no factual or statistical records remain in the files of the Daniel Boone National Forest." Available at http://www.foresthistory.org/ASPNET/Publications/region/8/daniel_boone/chap29.htm (accessed November 29, 2012).

472. Correspondence with National Park Service, Big South Park National River and Recreations Area, February 2016.

Standing Stone, Pickett, and Cumberland Mountain State Parks in Tennessee.[473]

The area around Yahoo Falls included one of the state's highest waterfalls, magnificent vistas, and natural arches. Yahoo Falls was not targeted for recreational development during the 1930s due to its post-logging condition, which included denuded hillsides and extensive erosion. By the 1960s, the site had become more stable due to forest growth. Hoping to attract more visitors to the Stearns Ranger District, and recognizing that further logging of the region would prove challenging and detrimental to the environment, Forest Supervisor Robert Collins established Yahoo Falls as a recreation area. Facilities developed to support the recreation area included an access road that led to the top of the gorge from the Alum Ford Road; a picnic area with a shelter and potable water, fire pits, and toilets; a primitive campsite; and engineered trails with stonework that helped visitors navigate the steep slopes leading into the gorge.

Later, as part of the National Bicentennial celebration,

> For the history buffs, Collins ordered the construction of a cemetery at the entrance to the Yahoo Falls Recreation Area. This cemetery would contain only one grave, that of a Jacob Troxel, one of the major players in LEGION OF THE LOST MINE. With the help of a local congressman, a government-issued marker was acquired and installed at the head of the "grave." The marker would identify Jacob Troxel as a veteran of the Philadelphia County Militia in the Revolutionary War.[474]

The historical marker, which is not associated with a grave site, is present along the access road today, but is located within Daniel Boone National Forest.

Cumberland National Forest was renamed Daniel Boone National Forest in 1966 in honor of the pioneer who had first explored and encouraged settlement of the region in the late eighteenth century. Small portions of the national forest, including Yahoo Falls, were transferred to the national park unit for administration by the National Park Service in 1987. Today, the U.S. Forest Service and the National Park Service maintain cooperative agreements for land and visitor use management of these adjoining properties, including trails that extend across the boundaries between the two parks such as the Sheltowee Trace National Recreation Trail.

Also abutting Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area are Scott State Forest and Pickett State Park. Both were established in the 1930s within Tennessee on land acquired for conservation and recreation purposes. These state park lands also feature recreational resources, some of which were constructed by CCC enrollees during the 1930s.

Pickett State Rustic Park and Forest is located along the western margin of Big South Fork National River in Pickett County, Tennessee. This 19,200-acre reservation includes a 1,000-acre area managed by the Tennessee Department of Environment and Conservation as a state park. The remainder is managed as a state forest by the Tennessee Division of Forestry. The State Forest was established in 1935 on nearly 12,000 acres of land donated by the Stearns Coal and Lumber Company in 1933 after the majority of the best timber along the Big South Fork River had been logged. The land was to be managed as a game reserve. Between 1935 and 1942, CCC enrollees were involved in the development of hiking trails, a recreation lodge, ranger station, several rustic cabins, and the 12-acre Arch Lake, which was used for boating and swimming. The CCC used locally quarried sandstone to build many of these recreational features. Two CCC camps were involved in the work at the park. These were located on land the Stearns Coal and Lumber Company had given for the state forest property beginning in October 1934, near Wartburg. Additional recreation features were constructed

473. *Parch Corn Creek Component Landscape Cultural Landscape Inventory*, supplemental information, page 13 of 19.

474. Samuel Perry, "Yahoo Falls: An Historic Overview," 2.

by the state in the 1950s. The developed area established by the CCC is listed in the National Register of Historic Places.

Today, Pickett State Rustic Park and Forest offers public recreation in the form of boating, camping, lodging, fishing, tennis, horseback riding, swimming, picnicking, and hiking. A portion of the park is now referred to as Pickett CCC Memorial State Park and houses a CCC museum. The State Forest portion of the reserve is used for hunting, and also features 35 miles of hiking trails and roads that can be used for horseback riding. Rock climbing, bird watching, and swimming are also permitted. The state periodically harvests timber within the state forest. The state also maintains cooperative agreements with the National Park Service for land and visitor use management, including trail use that extends across the boundaries between these two areas and monitoring of the many hundreds of archeological rock shelter sites in the forest.

Scott State Forest is completely surrounded by Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area. It is managed by the Tennessee Division of Forestry. The park was established by the state in 1938 after acquiring land through a tax delinquency sale. The state forest is primarily used for research involving genetic studies of tree species. The studies are intended to develop improved variations of tree species by testing new cultivars. Visitors are permitted to use the state forest for several recreational activities including hunting, hiking, and horseback riding. Scott State Forest surrounds the intensively-used Bandy Creek campground associated with Big South Fork. The state and federal agencies that manage these properties have maintained a cooperative approach that benefits visitors to both sites.[475]

1960s-era Recreational Pursuits Associated with Federal and State Park Developments

During the late 1950s and early 1960s, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers began to revisit the idea of damming the Big South Fork River for flood control, watershed protection, and to provide public recreational opportunities. Studies prepared in 1958 suggested one and two dam alternatives, both of which targeted Devil's Jump for impoundment. At a minimum, the proposed dam at Devil's Jump would impound 29 miles of the main stream, as well as 16 miles of Clear Fork and 37 miles of New River. The other proposed alternative was to build dams at both Devil's Jump and Helenwood, Tennessee, approximately 40 miles to the south. The 1958 proposal also described the recreational opportunities that would be afforded, including a variety of water-related sports, fishing, and sightseeing.[476] Public response to the agency's proposals, however, was decidedly negative, and the project did not move forward. By the time the proposals were revisited in the late 1960s, significant changes had taken place in the practice and public perception of natural resource conservation, suggesting a third alternative for managing the Big South Fork River.

Environmental and Recreational needs. It was during the early 1960s that the emerging science of ecology began to suggest an increasing need for environmental stewardship and the protection of water and soil resources, profoundly influencing federal land management policies. Concurrently, the federal government had begun to recognize the need to provide more outdoor recreational facilities at the state and federal level, particularly in proximity to urban areas.

Based on a series of studies conducted in the late 1950s that identified new park, parkway, and seashore opportunities for preservation, and a

475. National Park Service, *Final General Management Plan/Environmental Impact Statement, Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area* (Oneida, Tennessee: Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, Department of the Interior, February 2005), 212–219.

476. U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, "*Review Report on Big South Fork Cumberland River*" (Nashville, Tennessee: U.S. Army Engineer District, Nashville, June 30, 1958).

report prepared by the Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission to study the problem in a comprehensive way, the federal government established the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation in 1962 to address these needs. The studies suggested that the National Park Service would assume a heightened responsibility in planning a national recreation program and administering areas for that purpose.[477] In addition to preparing a National Recreation Plan, the Bureau was tasked with identifying important wild rivers that could serve recreational needs. In 1963, it selected the Big South Fork to be considered a potential wild river during the original screening process. The river was further studied by the Southeast Task Group Wild Rivers Study in 1964; the task group included representatives of the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation, National Park Service, Bureau of Sport Fisheries and Wildlife, U.S. Forest Service, Commonwealth of Kentucky, and State of Tennessee.[478]

In 1963, the federal goal of providing more recreational opportunities within the national park system resulted in a Federal Executive Branch Policy Governing the Selection, Establishment, and Administration of National Recreation Areas, issued by the Recreation Advisory Council. The policy statement recommended that:

> Greater efforts must be made by Federal, State, and Local governmental and private interests to fulfill adequately the steeply mounting outdoor recreation demands of the American people; The Federal government should provide leadership and stimulus to this effort, but does not have sole or primary responsibility for providing recreation opportunities; Present Federal programs should be augmented by a system of national recreation areas made up of a limited number of areas where the recreation demand is not being met through other programs.[479]

The National Recreation Areas proposed by the council were envisioned to:

- Provide Federal investment in outdoor recreation that is more clearly responsive to recreation demand than other investments that are based primarily upon considerations of preserving unique natural or historical resources, the need to develop and conserve public lands and forests, or the requirements of major water resource development undertakings;

- Be areas which have natural endowments that are well above the ordinary in quality and recreation appeal, being of lesser significance than the unique scenic and historic elements of the National Park System, but affording a quality of recreation experience which transcends that normally associated with areas provided by State and local governments;

- Be consistent with Federal programs relating to national parks, national forests, public lands, fish and wildlife, water resource development, grants for urban open space, recreation programs on private agricultural lands, and programs for financial assistance to States in providing recreation opportunities.[480]

Guidelines developed in conjunction with the policy statement suggested that National Recreation Areas should possess natural endowments well above the ordinary in quality and recreational appeal, affording a recreational experience that transcends that normally associated with recreation areas provided by State and local governments. They were also expected to include large land areas and to be located and designed to achieve a comparatively high recreation carrying capacity in relation to the types of recreation expected to be available. National

477. National Park Service, "Questions of Resource Management 1957–1963," available at http://www.cr.nps.gov/history/online_books/anps/anps_5.htm (accessed June 6, 2012).
478. U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, U.S. Department of the Interior, U.S. Department of Agriculture. Big South Fork, Cumberland River (Kentucky-Tennessee), *Interagency Field Task Group Report* (December 1969), 26–27.
479. National Park Service, *Handbook of Administrative Policies for Recreation Areas* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1968), 69–72.
480. Ibid.

Recreation Areas were to be significant enough to assure interstate patronage; be strategically located within easy driving distance—not more than 250 miles from urban population centers to be served—and readily accessible at all times, for all-purpose recreational use. Additionally, outdoor recreation was to be the dominant or primary resource management purpose. Where natural resource conservation was also envisioned, the uses were expected to be compatible and not result in detriment to the environment. National Recreation Areas were to be considered for existing or proposed Federal water impoundments, and could include within their boundaries "scenic, historic, scientific, scarce or disappearing resources, provided the objectives of their preservation and enjoyment can be achieved on a basis compatible with the recreation mission."[481]

Finally, the policy indicated that National Recreation Areas were to be established by an Act of Congress. Upon the request of the Executive Office of the President, the Recreation Advisory Council would review specific National Recreation Area proposals, based upon studies made or prescribed by the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation. The Council would recommend appropriate actions for each proposed National Recreation Area involving authorization, modification, priority of establishment, and the agency or agencies responsible for its management. In some cases, a joint federal-state management arrangement might be recommended.[482] Early National Recreation Areas were established by interagency memoranda of agreement between the U.S. Bureau of Reclamation and the National Park Service. The resulting parks were managed by several different federal agencies, most of which were operating within the Department of the Interior or the Department of Agriculture, such as the National Park Service, Bureau of Land Management, and U.S. Forest Service.

The first National Recreation Area to be authorized was Boulder Dam (later renamed Lake Mead) National Recreation Area, in 1964. The national park unit was located in southeast Nevada and northwest Arizona. This was quickly followed by Spruce Knob-Seneca Rocks National Recreation Area, under the administration of the U.S. Forest Service, and Delaware Water Gap National Recreation Area in Pennsylvania and New Jersey, under the administration of the National Park Service, both of these were established in 1965.

Delaware Water Gap National Recreation Area was an example of a proposed impounded reservoir to be co-managed for recreation, and was the first National Recreation Area to be administered by the National Park Service east of the Mississippi. The park was envisioned to serve 10 million visitors annually from the New York and Philadelphia metropolitan areas. When the proposed Tocks Island dam project came under heavy attack from conservationists and others, especially after the National Environmental Policy Act of 1969 forced greater consideration of the environmental effects of such projects, Congress ordered the transfer of lands acquired by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers for the project to the National Park Service in 1978 and designated the Delaware River within the recreation area a national scenic river, rendering future dam construction an incompatible use, similar to the experience at Big South Fork.

Environmental policy. In 1963, two reports radically transformed policy priorities within federal agencies involving land management. The primary document that led to this transformation was the *Report of the Advisory Board on Wildlife Management in the National Parks*. The study, known primarily as the Leopold Report for the name of the committee chairman who led the investigation, A. Starker Leopold, was prepared on the request of Secretary of the Interior Stewart Udall in response to the problem of elk overgrazing at Yellowstone National Park.

The committee's investigations revealed that current land management policy was contributing

481. Ibid.

482. Ibid.

to unexpected changes in the ecology of Yellowstone National Park, and, by association, other natural and wilderness areas. Alarmed by the implications of this finding, the committee exceeded their charge, and presented a blueprint for altering the basic management philosophy for the national parks. The Leopold Report suggested that the primary purpose of the parks was the maintenance of the ecological balance amongst plant and animal communities located in America's national parks, and restoration to their condition at the time of European Contact as nearly as possible. The report recommended that a permanent staff of scientists oversee management priorities in each park.

A second study prepared within a year of the Leopold Report addressed the related question of scientific research within national parks. Known as the Robbins Report after its chairman, W. J. Robbins, this document corroborated the findings of the Leopold Report and advocated the emerging shift in approach increasingly adopted by scientific and conservation communities. The Robbins Report suggested an increase in the amount of scientific research conducted in the parks to support ecosystem preservation.

By 1963:

> Adoption of the Leopold report's recommendations as well as continued pressure to diversify the system to include recreation as well as preservation strained a National Park Service already undergoing change and growth from Mission 66. In the next six years these two issues would demand continual adjustment and reinterpretation. Secretary of the Interior Stewart Udall signaled the new tone with his 1964 letter on national park management. In it the secretary reaffirmed the Leopold report as a guideline and differentiated the management prescriptions for natural, historic, and recreational areas. The latter was a tacit admission of the growing complexity of the agency's mission.[483]

The complexity of federal management policies continued to grow over the next decade. Within ten years, the influence of the Leopold Report had led to passage of several federal acts that served to diversify the role and duties of federal agencies in managing land and natural resources. In 1964, Congress passed the Wilderness Act, which authorized the federal government to acquire wilderness areas for the benefit of present and future generations of Americans. Wilderness areas were defined as large tracts of undeveloped land that would not be subject to logging, mining, road development, or other cultural activities resulting in disturbance to plant and animal communities and such natural environmental features as soil and water. The Wilderness Act was part of a broader strategy to establish a National Wilderness Preservation System, composed of federally owned and designated wilderness areas administered to remain unimpaired for the use and enjoyment of the people. The legislation prompted the National Park Service to carefully examine all parks that potentially qualified as wilderness areas and provided additional legal protection for park areas threatened with development. The National Park Service argued that the application of this legislation to parks was redundant because they were already managed for roadless preservation. The Wilderness Act would be used to prevent certain projects intended to provide access to undeveloped park interiors, such as the Tioga Road in Yosemite National Park.

In 1965, Congress passed the Land and Water Conservation Fund Act, which established a fund for acquisition of new recreation lands either within or adjacent to existing park units or as new parks themselves. A portion of the money to be provided to the fund would come from fees charged at existing parks. The fund was administered by the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation.

The Land and Water Conservation Fund Act was followed in 1966 by passage of the National Historic Preservation Act, which defined the

483. Lary M. Dilsaver, ed., *America's National Park System: The Critical Documents* (New York, New York: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, 1994), chapter 6, available at http://www.cr.nps.gov/history/online_books/anps/anps_6.htm (accessed February 22, 2014).

duties of the National Park Service with regard to historic sites and structures. The act authorized the Secretary of the Interior to create and maintain a national register of historic districts, sites, and structures and to establish programs of matching grants to states and to the National Trust for Historic Preservation. The National Park Service became the coordinating agency for these activities and its director the executive director of the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation.

In 1967, President Lyndon B. Johnson signed into law the Clean Air Act, which provided another layer of protection for park resources, but also demanded management compliance. Parks were identified as areas of desired maximum air purity. As such their airsheds would be more tightly constrained in terms of the production of pollutants.

In 1968, President Johnson signed both the Wild and Scenic Rivers Act and the National Trails System Act. The Wild and Scenic Rivers Act provided for the protection and preservation, in free-flowing condition, of selected rivers that possessed outstanding scenic, recreational, geologic, fish and wildlife, historic, or cultural value.

Congress further declared that

> . . . the established national policy of dam and other construction at appropriate sections of the rivers of the United States needs to be complemented by a policy that would preserve other selected rivers or sections thereof in their free-flowing condition to protect the water quality of such rivers and to fulfill other vital national conservation purposes.[484]

The Act identified eight rivers and adjacent lands in nine states as initial components of the wild and scenic river system, to be administered variously by the secretaries of Interior and Agriculture. It also named twenty-seven other rivers or river segments to be studied as potential additions to the system.[485]

Today, there are five national rivers in the National Park System: Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, Buffalo National River, Mississippi National River and Recreation Area, New River Gorge National River, and Ozark National Scenic Riverways.[486] The Buffalo became the first designated National River in 1972. It was within the context of these new park types that Big South Fork was established in 1974 for its scenic, ecological, and historic values. Big South Fork was the first designated combined National River and Recreation Area. Initial development of park facilities and administration of the large land area fell to the responsibility of the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers.

The National Trails System Act of 1968 provided for the establishment of national recreation trails accessible to urban areas, to be designated by the Secretary of the Interior and the Secretary of Agriculture according to specific criteria to be established by Congress to recognize exemplary trails of local and regional significance as well as national scenic trails. The Act designated two national scenic trails as components of the trails system: the Appalachian Trail and the Pacific Crest Trail, also referred to as the Pacific Crest National Scenic Trail. It also ordered fourteen other routes to be studied for possible national scenic trail designation. Along with the Wild and Scenic Rivers Act, this legislation expanded the diversity of units in the National Park System.

This legislation was followed in 1969 by the National Environmental Policy Act, which formed the nation's basic charter for environmental protection. It directed federal agencies to carry out their functions in a way that avoided or minimized environmental degradation and required them to conduct planning with studies of potential environmental impact for all development

484. U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, *Intragency Report*, 68.

485. National Park Service, "National Park System Timeline," available at www.nps.gov/history/hisnps/NPSHistory/timeline_annotated.htm (accessed June 6, 2012).

486. "National Rivers," available at http://usparks.about.com/blparktypes-nr.htm (accessed June 6, 2012).

projects. In addition, the planning process would be open for public input.

> This latter provision was to have extraordinary results as conservation organizations in particular became powerful players at the required hearings. NEPA rounded out a short period during which the duties and ground rules of the NPS evolved with dizzying speed especially for old-time employees, hired at a time when the parks were distant, serene enclaves of natural landscape architecture.[487]

In 1970, the extensive diversification of responsibilities assumed by the National Park Service due to the flurry of Congressional legislation passed during the 1960s resulted in passage of the General Authorities Act, which specified that all units administered by the National Park Service were part of the same "system" and that they were to be managed according to the provisions of the Organic Act of 1916 and other related laws. This Act followed efforts conducted by Secretary of the Interior Stewart Udall in 1968 to prepare handbooks that would help the agency address the diverse administrative needs of natural, historic, and recreation areas.

Thus, the changes set in motion by the Leopold and Robbins Reports in 1963 and the rapid passage of legislation that followed in the 1960s led to a broad expansion of the national park system in the 1960s and 1970s. While some additions to the park system arose from a series of omnibus bills disparagingly called "park barrel legislation" by opponents, recognition of the need to protect unique and fragile ecosystems such as lakeshores, seashores, and free-flowing rivers and to provide outdoor recreation opportunities to a larger cross section of Americans added several categories of park types to the National Park System. The creation of the Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, established in 1974, and many associated features, were the direct result of these activities.

Big South Fork History, 1969 to Present

By the time the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers again pursued plans to address flood control and hydroelectric power production along the Big South Fork River in the late 1960s, the political and social climate had changed dramatically. In 1969, the Corps published an "Interagency Report" jointly with the Department of the Interior and Department of Agriculture that suggested several alternatives for the river basin, including damming of the river, as well as the establishment of a national park unit that would serve to protect environmental resources while also supporting regional recreational needs.[488] The report concluded that the Big South Fork River, including its tributaries below the town of New River, Tennessee, met all of the criteria for inclusion in the national wild and scenic rivers system as a national scenic river. This determination followed the selection of the Big South Fork as a potential wild river during the original screening process conducted by the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation in 1963, and further studies prepared by the Southeast Task Group, Wild Rivers Study, in 1964.[489]

As part of these alternatives, the 1969 interagency report suggested a boundary to encompass the gorge from rim to rim for a total of ninety-eight river miles to ensure preservation of the river, its scenic values, and its recreational opportunities.[490] Inclusion of the river in the National Wild and Scenic Rivers System would preclude the use of a dam to produce hydroelectric power, as only free-flowing rivers could be included in the system. The report noted that the river gorge offered outstanding recreational opportunities resulting from an "exceptional combination of natural and scenic resources, well above the ordinary in both quality and recreational appeal."[491] The report also suggested that:

> The national recreation area alternative is located and designed to achieve a

487. Dilsaver, chapter 6.
488. U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, *Intragency Report*.
489. Ibid., 4.
490. Ibid., 68.
491. Ibid., 80.

> comparatively high recreation carrying capacity in relation to the type of recreation primarily to be served in this proposal. The primary emphasis would be to provide and maintain the high quality experience associated with recreational use of the free-flowing river area and the adjacent lands on the Cumberland Plateau in a spacious, natural environment.[492]

The report established some of the parameters that would later guide development of the National Park Unit:

> The predominant, most salient resources of the area is the free-flowing Big South Fork River and its deeply incised canyon. The special resources of the adjacent plateau and canyon areas included in the proposed boundaries complement the unique resource of the free-flowing river area by providing a great variety of quality outdoor recreation resources. Public hunting and trapping would be enhanced through restoration of game species and intensive management of the habitat. Included would be programs to improve forest conditions by selective timber harvest and planting of food and cover crops. Where appropriate, better hunting access would be provided.[493]

> Development and use of the natural resources within the national recreation area would be undertaken with utmost consideration given to expected environmental impacts on both the quality and quantity of outdoor recreation opportunities. Development of outdoor recreation resources within the national recreation area would emphasize protection and full public enjoyment of the many outstanding scenic, scientific, geologic, ecologic, and cultural values. An extensive road building program is not planned. However, a scenic motor-nature trail following sections of the abandoned Oneida and Western Railroad right of way would be desirable for optimum public recreation benefits. Primary attention would be given to improving or providing access to key areas along scenic corridors in such a way as to provide scenic visits as well as turnout and parking at trail heads, overlooks, and interpretation points.[494] To further vacation and weekend recreation use, six overnight and two vacation-oriented campgrounds would be constructed within the national recreation area. Nine primitive campgrounds would also be built along the main canyon of the Big South Fork and its New River and Clear Fork tributaries.[495]

Following the recommendations in the report, Big South Fork was designated as a National River as well as a National Recreation Area in 1974. When asked why the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers was given the funding and mandate to purchase and build the Big South Fork recreational infrastructure, Senator Howard H. Baker responded that it was a practical means of ensuring that the park was established and constructed. By involving the Corps of Engineers, which had previously developed plans for a hydroelectric dam, in the process, he effectively neutralized opposition to national river designation for Big South Fork.[496] Special consideration was given to distinguishing between the two parts of the park—the river, which was to be treated as wilderness, and the recreation area, which would include developments to accommodate public recreation— by creating separate management zones. The strategy devised by the federal government was to protect the gorge and river corridor from development as consistent with National River designation, while considering ways to accommodate recreational pursuits within the surrounding plateau land as part of a National Recreation Area.

Establishment of the Big South Fork as a National River served to preserve its free-flowing condition in addition to the scenic, natural, and cultural values of the area, and the primitive condition of the gorge.[497] Park designation ensured that the dynamic natural processes that had shaped the landscape would not be affected by dam

492. Ibid.
493. Ibid., 82.
494. Ibid., 83.
495. Ibid., 87.
496. Oral interview with Senator Howard Baker, Jr., by Kim McBride, June 15, 2004.Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area: Oral History Index, Tape Number: Cat. BISO 43506.
497. *General Management Plan* (2005), 19.

development, while meeting outdoor recreation demand in a way not possible in a park typology established primarily for preservation of natural and historical resources.[498] Special mandates were enacted regarding permitted uses and activities within the gorge due to its National River designation. These included rules and regulations involving hunting, fishing, and trapping, the nature of camping facilities, motorized boat use, and road development.[499]

The scenic, ecologic, and historic values of the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River were all fundamental considerations in the creation of the National River and Recreation Area in 1974. Although many of the park's features have great scenic beauty, a large part of the region's potential interest was considered to lie in interpreting the connections between geologic, ecologic, and anthropologic processes.[500]

The central feature of scenic and recreational interest within the basin is the gorge of the Big South Fork. Its massive bluffs and deeply entrenched valleys are considered to be one of the most spectacular settings of any stream in the eastern United States. The trip down the river through the confining walls of the steep and narrow gorge is described as awe-inspiring. The changing character of the river and its tributaries—placid and calm in dry seasons but fierce and forbidding in times of heavy rainfall—and their rugged courses attract substantial interest from floating enthusiasts from a wide area, while the large pools with their sand beaches offer opportunities for swimming enthusiasts. The natural free-flowing river is considered to offer some of the best whitewater canoeing in the eastern United States.

Recreational pursuits conceived for the park were to be both active and passive and to offer a broad range of natural and cultural resource-based outdoor recreational and educational opportunities relating to its dramatic sandstone gorges, imposing bluff lines, some of the nation's largest water-sculpted arches, and other notable geologic formations.

Park establishment was initially effected by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, tasked with development of proposed recreational features prior to transfer of the property to the administrative responsibility of the National Park Service. To guide these efforts, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers commissioned a master plan in 1980 that outlined the development of roads, overlooks, campgrounds, picnic areas, equestrian centers, trails, and other features.[501]

After the majority of the work proposed in the 1980 master plan had been completed, responsibility for the park was transferred to the National Park Service in 1991. Since park transfer, the National Park Service has continued to expand trail systems, overlooks, campgrounds, and other recreational opportunities for visitors while protecting the region's unique and important natural and historic cultural heritage.

Currently, the National Park Service is managing this area according to the tenets of the Organic Act as well as NPS Management Policies, including the Statutory Requirements to prepare a General Management Plan (GMP) soliciting citizen input. The Big South Fork's GMP (2007) was established through consensus with the local communities, state, and local governments, and all of the various users of the national park unit. It serves as the management guide for future development, preservation, and conservation by the National Park Service.

Today, Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area is open year-round for public enjoyment. Nearly one million visitors enjoy the park's amenities each year. Visitation increases dramatically in the summer, with the heaviest use

498. National Park Service, "Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area," available at http://www.nps.gov/biso/parkmgmt/index.htm (accessed June 6, 2012).
499. *General Management Plan* (2005), 20.
500. Miller, Wihry & Lee, Inc., Master Plan; Design Memorandum, No. 7, for Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, 4–30.
501. Ibid.

occurring on weekends and holidays. Water sports are the park's most popular attraction, although sightseeing, hunting, fishing, and camping are also enjoyed by thousands of visitors each year. The types of recreation afforded within the park are described below.

River-related activities. The Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area was established, in part, to preserve the free-flowing Big South Fork and its tributaries. This river system affords some of the highest quality rafting and canoeing in the eastern United States. The upper reaches of the river, those located upstream from Leatherwood Ford, are the most popular for whitewater rafting and kayaking, while canoeing most commonly occurs downstream from Leatherwood Ford. Whitewater conditions are generally associated with spring rains.

Visitors also float, wade, and swim in the river, generally in association with river access points located along roads and trails.

Fishing is permitted during specific seasons and regulated by both of the states represented within the park (Figure 105). Visitors fish the larger and smaller streams as well as in the headwaters of Lake Cumberland. Creek fishing is more popular with local residents than with regional visitors. Because certain activities are regulated within the gorge as part of the National River designation, motorboats are not permitted except within the part of Lake Cumberland located north of Devil's Jump at Blue Heron. Motor boating on the slack waters of Lake Cumberland occurs largely in the summer but spans spring and fall; lake elevations fluctuate seasonally. Non-motorized boats are permitted to float anywhere in the Big South Fork, its tributaries, and streams.

Hunting along the rivers for deer and waterfowl is popular for local and regional hunters. Hunting is permitted seasonally in accordance with state regulations and safety zones established by the National Park Service.

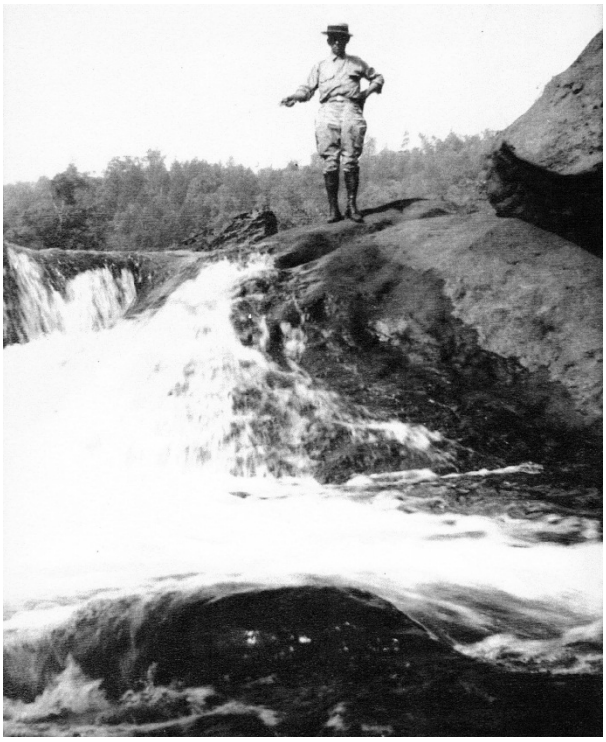


FIGURE 105. View of a man at Angel Falls, 1915. Source: National Park Service and Tennessee State Library and Archives.

Roads and trails. Within the park there are over 300 miles of trails and 400 additional miles of roads. These trails are both single-use and multiple-use. Some of the trails connect to or are part of trail systems administered by other state or federal agencies. Within the gorge, motorized vehicle uses are restricted and trails are the only way for visitors to reach amenities and the river.

Hiking trails are available in the gorge as well as on the plateau, and often provide access to some particular historic or natural feature. There are short, paved trails leading from parking areas to overlooks, loop trails for day-hiking, and long-distance trails that can be used for backcountry camping.

Two of the park trails—John Muir and Sheltowee Trace—are designated National Recreation Trails. The geologic feature of the Twin Arches, which can be seen along the Twin Arches Loop Trail, has been designated a Tennessee State Natural Area.

Hiking as well as horseback riding are permitted on the park's trails. Horseback riding is very popular within the park, which has achieved a

reputation for being a premier equestrian destination. Equestrians come to the park from the local area as well as nearby states to enjoy the trails (Figure 106). Many bring their own horses and camp at special campgrounds. Visitors without horses and who wish to ride may rent horses from a concessionaire inside the park or a licensed business outside its boundaries. Pack trips for hunting, fishing, and camping are also available and offer another means for visitors to have an extended experience in the backcountry. Horseback riding is excluded from some trails. Many of the horse-accessible trails are located between White Oak Creek and the Tennessee state line, and consist of 15- to 25-mile loops. Some marked routes can be used for horse-pulled wagons.

Biking is permitted on three single-use, dedicated trails and all of the horse trails and marked multi-use trails, as well as the roads. The mountain bike trails have also attained a national reputation for excellent design and a range of technical expertise required ranging from simple and easy to difficult and strenuous.

Sightseeing. Many visitors travel the park's roads to take in the natural setting. Overlooks provide scenic views of the gorge and the river below. Historic sites are also available for easy visits to view pastoral scenes and sites of past coal extraction. Big South Fork is not considered a touring park; however, where visitors are afforded regular opportunities for scenic vistas along designed parkways or road corridors it is enjoyable for windshield tours.

Camping. Campgrounds offering visitors the conveniences of improved campsites are located at Bandy Creek and Blue Heron. The Station Camp and Bear Creek horse camps offer specialized equestrian camping facilities. A small primitive campground is available at Alum Ford. Improved group campgrounds are also available, and groups are also allowed by special permit to camp in certain open fields. Other than these areas, camping is permitted along some back roads and in the backcountry areas reached by foot or horse.

Hunting. Hunters travel long distances to Big South Fork in search of large game. Small game hunting is also a popular local activity. Hunting seasons and limits are regulated and enforced by the National Park Service based on state laws. Hunting is available throughout the park except designated safety zones around developed sites. The limitations placed on vehicle use within the gorge curtail hunting activities there to a degree.

Other activities. Rock climbing and rappelling are also popular pursuits within the park. The terrain of Big South Fork is attractive as a climbing destination, including its extensive network of sandstone cliffs.

Nature study involving photography, bird watching, and flower or plant identification, is another of the activities enjoyed by growing numbers of visitors. Park staff offers special programs for many of these activities.

The Big South Fork Scenic Railway is a sightseeing train that extends into the gorge at the Blue Heron mine from Stearns, Kentucky. This seasonal offering is managed by the McCreary County Heritage Foundation. The route extends from a restored depot in historic downtown Stearns into the gorge through the redeveloped mining community of Barthell and on to the Blue Heron Mining Community site.

The park also provides regular programs and sponsors special events to interpret the wide variety of resources available.

Rustic lodging in the backcountry, accessed only on foot or horseback, is provided by a concessionaire at Charit Creek Lodge. The lodge is located within the gorge near the confluence of Charit Creek and Station Camp Creek.

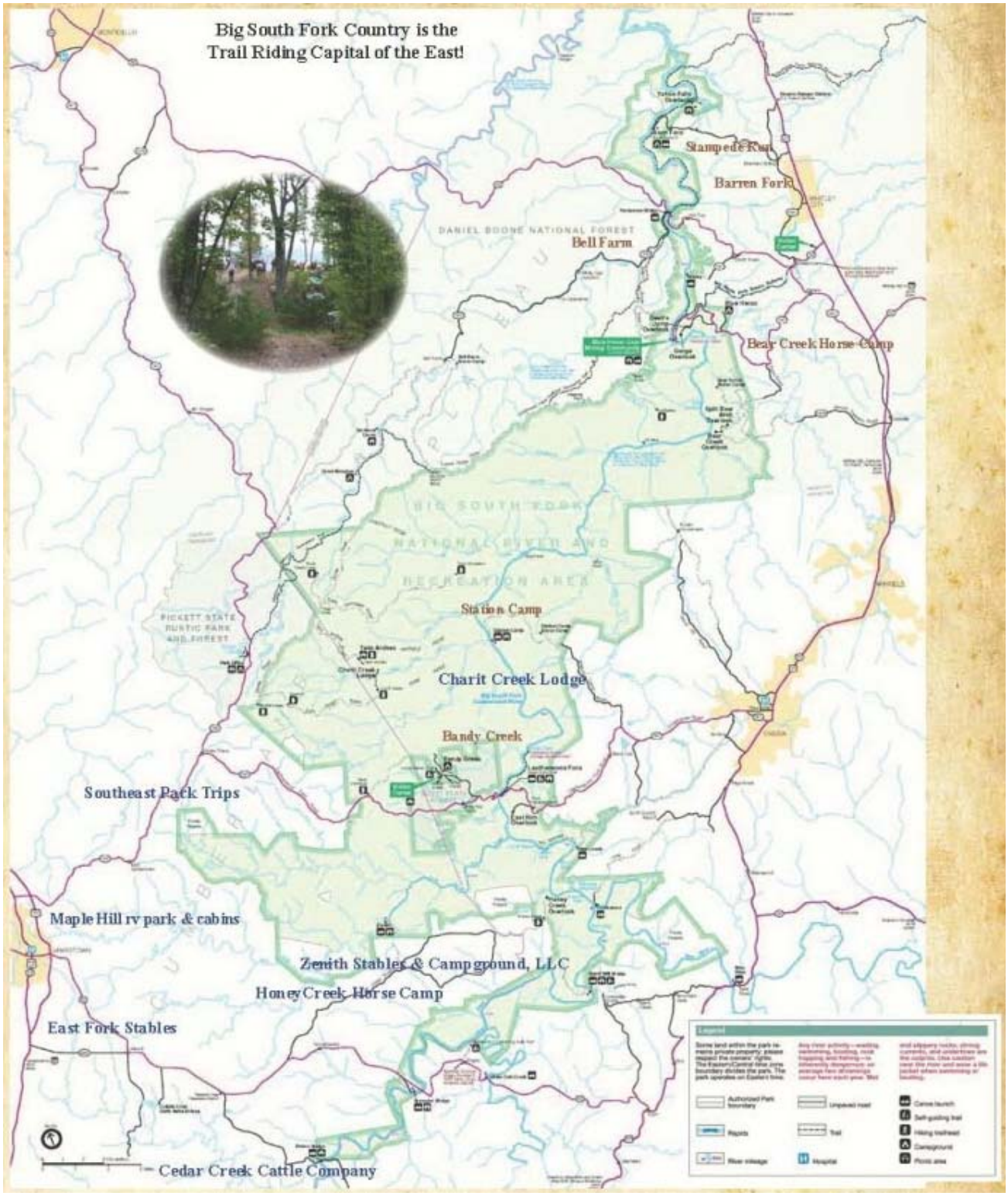


FIGURE 106. A map showing equestrian trails near the Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area. Source: National Park Service.

Recreation Features Associated with the Park

The recreational features and sites located within the park are identified below by geographic region, beginning with the northern portion and continuing south.

Yahoo Falls to Worley, Kentucky

Sheltowee Trace National Recreation Trail. Sheltowee, which means Big Turtle in the Shawnee language, was the name given to Daniel Boone by the Shawnee Indians during his years of exploration within eastern Tennessee and Kentucky. The Sheltowee Trace National Recreation Trail, established in 1976, extends for 282 miles, tracing the route followed by early Kentucky explorers and pioneers. The trail connects Big South Fork with Pickett State Park and Daniel Boone National Forest. It also follows the alignment of the Big South Fork River from Big Creek and the Yamacraw Bridge southward. The Koger Arch, a broad geologic formation resulting from rock shelter erosion, is accessible from the trail near Yamacraw.

Big Creek Boat Launch. The park's northernmost access road is Big Creek Road. It leads to a boat launch located on the eastern bank of the river near the park's northeastern boundary.

Yahoo Falls Overlook. One of several scenic overlooks within the park, this site affords visitors vistas of the falls, considered to be the highest in the Commonwealth of Kentucky (Figure 107).



FIGURE 107. River overlook at Yahoo Falls picnic area, 2013. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Yahoo Falls Picnic Area. This facility is located along the Sheltowee Trace National Recreation Trail near Yahoo Falls. A trail leads from the Jake Troxel Grave Site along Tennessee Highway 700 to the picnic area. An access road, picnic area, trails, and campsite were developed by the U.S. Forest Service in the 1960s to attract visitors to the Stearns Ranger District as part of the Daniel Boone National Forest. A picnic shelter that had fallen into a state of disrepair was restored in 2011 (Figure 108).



FIGURE 108. The restored shelter at the Yahoo Falls picnic area. Source: National Park Service.

Yahoo Falls Trail. The Yahoo Falls Trail is a 1-mile-long trail takes visitors behind the waterfall, through a rock shelter, and to two scenic overlooks that feature views of the falls (Figure 109; see also Figure 107). At the time of park establishment, trails already existed in this area as part of the U.S. Forest Service development of the Daniel Boone National Forest.[502]

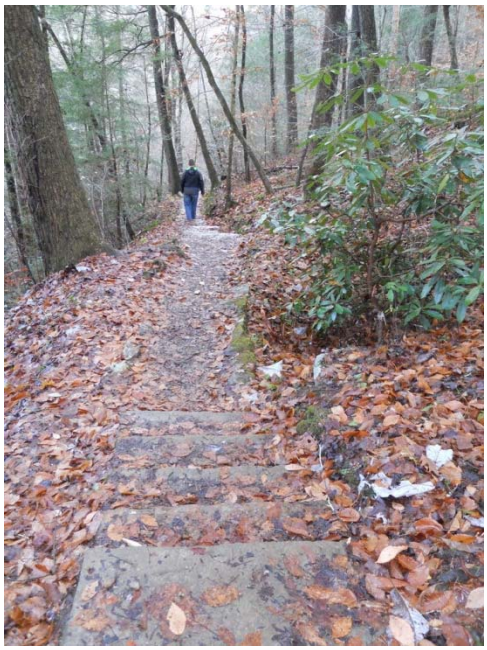


FIGURE 109. Yahoo Falls Trail, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Yamacraw-Yahoo Falls Loop Trail. A 15.4-mile trail extends between the Yamacraw Bridge and Yahoo Falls, providing access to Yahoo Arch, a geologic feature formed from erosion of a rock shelter. The trail continues across Tennessee Highway 700 and along Negro Creek, crossing into Daniel Boone National Forest and returning to the bridge. Canoe access is afforded at Yamacraw.

Alum Ford Boat Launch. Alum Ford is a river crossing thought to have been part of a American Indian trail that predated European-American settlement of the region. Today, the ford marks the head of Lake Cumberland, an impoundment of the river formed by construction of the Wolf Creek Dam in 1952 by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers. The reservoir is the ninth largest in the United States. The lake extends for 101 miles, including a short distance into the park. A boat ramp located at Alum Ford is accessed from Tennessee Highway 700.

Alum Ford Campgrounds. The Alum Ford campground is a primitive complex that features seven campsites and a vault toilet facility.

Exiting the campgrounds to the south is the Sheltowee Trace National Recreation Trail, which leads to a house foundation and standing chimney. Near this is a frame and timber Adirondack-style shelter built by the U.S. Forest Service in the 1960s (Figure 110).



FIGURE 110. View of the Adirondack-style shelter, 2005. Source: National Park Service.

Worley Boat Launch. Worley was established in the early twentieth century as a mining camp community. Remnants of the mining operations are evident, including mine tailings, several building foundations, and two long sets of concrete staircases that lead straight up the steep slopes. Today, visitors pass through the site to gain access to the river along a trail that follows the steeply sloped terrain of a narrow ravine or along an abandoned rail line. The boat launch is used primarily by local residents for river access and is a popular local swimming and fishing spot, but also functions as a stop for canoeists and a trailhead for hikers.[503]

502. Ibid.

503. Some recreational pursuits within the park are curtailed due to problems with water quality

Worley to the Kentucky-Tennessee Border

Big South Fork Scenic Railway. The Big South Fork Scenic Railway, operated by a concessionaire, offers recreational train rides along the historic Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad line between Blue Heron and Stearns, Kentucky.

Blue Heron Mine Complex Outdoor Museum. Blue Heron was a major coal mining site where the Stearns Logging and Coal Mining Company established a small mining community. The U.S. Army Corps of Engineers developed an outdoor museum on the site in the 1980s. The Blue Heron Mining Community exhibit tells the story of the Stearns Company's 25-year mining history on the site using exhibits, ghost frame structures, and a restored tipple. This popular exhibit attracts many visitors. Access is afforded by paved roads and the Big South Fork Scenic Railway from Stearns, Kentucky. Located within the complex are river access points for boating, picnicking, and shore fishing, as well as trails that lead through the outdoor exhibits and to several overlooks. These trails are connected to longer trail systems that extend through the area. The complex is accessed via Kentucky Highway 742. Visitors can experience the Wagon Arch along the road. This geologic formation once included a wagon road along its summit.

Devil's Jump and Gorge Overlooks. Two overlooks are located along the roads that provide access to the Blue Heron Mine Complex. These offer scenic views of the river rapids at Devil's Jump and the gorge. Each overlook is accessed via a short spur trail from a parking area. Devil's Jump was named for the dangerous shoals that caused logging rafts to skip and careen dangerously through this section of the river. The men who rode timber down the river in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries were known as raft devils, for the way their rafts skipped and jumped when they hit the shoals of this part of the river. The Gorge Overlook features a vault toilet and picnic tables for the comfort of visitors.

Blue Heron Campground. Located along the access road to the Blue Heron Mine Complex is a campground that offers forty-five camp sites, restrooms, a fire ring, a small fishing pond, and a dump station.

Blue Heron Loop Trail. This trail begins along Kentucky Highway 742 past the Blue Heron Campground. It follows the gorge rim for 6.5 miles, providing access to views of Crack in the Rocks, the Blue Heron Mine complex, river rapids, streams, and rock bluffs, including access to the Devil's Jump Overlook.

Catawba Overlook. The Catawba Overlook is accessed via a 1.6 mile trail that follows a portion of the Kentucky Trail near the Blue Heron Mine complex after crossing the restored tipple bridge. The overlook is named for a species of rhododendron that grows nearby.

Kentucky Trail. The Kentucky Trail extends for 19 miles, linking the John Muir National Recreation Trail near No Business Creek with the Sheltowee Trace National Recreation Trail near Rock Creek. The trail provides access to Difficulty and Troublesome creeks, Oil Well Branch, Big Spring Falls, and the Catawba Overlook.

Bear Creek Horse Camp. Above and to the north of Bear Creek is a plateau that consists of two large, flat ridges that border the gorge rim and provide exceptional views of the river basin. The area has been developed with overlooks, equestrian campgrounds, and trails for the recreational enjoyment of visitors. It features water and electric hook-ups, bathhouses, and horse tie-out areas.

Split Bow Arch Overlook and Trail. The Split Bow Arch Overlook affords views of a geologic formation that features a narrow finger of bluff that has split away from the main bluff, leaving a thin bridge. The arch is visible from the overlook

affected by former mining and other industrial operations. This location is one of the sites where caution is advised due to acid mine drainage.

as well as from a trail that leads to the base of the arch from a parking pull-off along the access road leading into the park from Mount Pleasant Road (Kentucky Route 1470), and includes steps underneath that lead to a narrow passageway.

Bear Creek Overlook. The Bear Creek Overlook is located atop a large bend in the river. It is accessed from a 1/2-mile trail connected to a parking pull-off along the access road leading into the park from Mount Pleasant Road (Kentucky Route 1470). The parking pull-off is located near the ruins of the early-twentieth-century Newtie King Farmstead site that features the remains of past cultural activities such as a dwelling foundation, lawn, field patterns and hedgerows, as well as former road corridors. There are also rock outcroppings that contain several basin-shaped solution cavities that were used as storage containers by prehistoric hunters and gatherers 3,000 or more years ago. The farmstead site has been designated an Administrative Landscape by the park and is managed as a cultural resource.

Ledbetter Trail. Access to the Ledbetter Trail is provided from Laurel Ridge Road, an unimproved route that follows the western edge of the park for portions of its length within Kentucky. The road also follows Oil Well Branch, where wells were drilled in the nineteenth century to extract deposits of black and green oil used in various industrial products. This road also passes the site of the 1818 Beatty oil well, often considered the first "commercial" oil well in the country.[504] The trail is connected to hiking and equestrian routes.

Slaven Branch Equestrian Trailhead. The Slaven Branch equestrian trailhead is accessed from an unimproved road leading north from Foster Crossroads in Tennessee and the Grave Hill Road west of U.S. Highway 27. Associated with the facility is a parking area, several hitching posts, and the Slaven Branch Trailhead.

Kentucky-Tennessee Border to Scott State Forest

John Muir National Recreation Trail. Two segments of the John Muir National Recreation Trail pass through the park. The trail arises from the Sheltowee Trace National Recreation Trail near the Hidden Passage trailhead in Picket CCC Memorial State Park. It follows No Business Creek and Chestnut Ridge, as well as the ridge where the Maude's Crack formation is located, to the Big South Fork River. Along the route, the trail intersects the Terry Cemetery multi-use trail that travels southwestward to Gobbler's Knob. Thereafter, the trail generally follows the river southward as far as the Oneida and Western Rapid near Jake's Swimming Hole. A connector trail completed circa 2015 extends the John Muir Trail to Honey Creek. Other completed segments of the trail exist within the eastern portion of Cherokee National Forest near the Hiwassee State Scenic River, Polk County, Tennessee. Expansion of the trail, including connection of the western and eastern segments, is planned.

The trail commemorates John Muir's travel through the area in 1867 documented in his book *A Thousand Mile Walk to the Gulf*. Existing sections of the trail were constructed in 1972 through the efforts of the Youth Conservation Corps and the Senior Community Service Employment Program. Segments of the trail completed by 1974 contribute to the significance of the park within the recreation context as a rural historic district.

Rock Creek Loop. In the western portion of the park, west of Divide Road, is a short access road that leads to the trailhead for the Rock Creek Loop hiking trail. This trail connects to the Sheltowee Trace National Recreation Trail and the John Muir National Recreation Trail.

Gobbler's Knob. To the east of the Rock Creek Loop and Divide Road is another short access road that leads to the Terry Cemetery Trail

504. In 1970 the Commonwealth of Kentucky noted in House Resolution 78 that the Beatty well was the first commercial oil well in the United States, predating the Drake Oil Well near Titusville, Pennsylvania, by forty-one years.

trailhead. The trail is accessible to hikers and equestrians.

Terry Cemetery Trail. The Terry Cemetery Trail is accessible to hikers and to equestrian users. It leads to an overlook known as Maude's Crack, associated with a large opening in the sandstone cliffside. This natural, geologic feature allows hikers to access the base of the cliff, but the climb is strenuous and difficult. From this overlook visitors can see a large expanse of the No Business valley.

Twin Arches Loop Trail. The Twin Arches Loop Trail arises from a trailhead located along the Twin Arches spur road that leads into the park from Divide Road. Picnic grounds are located at the trailhead. The trail is 0.7 miles long and leads to the base of the arches. The Twin Arches are the result of headward erosion that has occurred over millennia along a narrow ridge. The formation is thought to be the largest natural bridge in Tennessee, and one of the largest such features in the world.

Charit Creek Lodge. Charit Creek Lodge is a complex of historic and contemporary buildings and landscape features located within the gorge at the junction of Charit and Station Camp Creeks (Figure 111). This rustic facility provides food and overnight accommodations for up to forty-eight guests in a scenic valley setting, and is used as a base camp for hunting and fishing parties. This complex is managed by a concessionaire. The lodge can only be reached by trail. Several trails connect to the lodge area, including Fork Ridge Trail.

The site is said to be the location of an early long hunter's station camp. Prior to development as a hunting lodge, the farmstead complex consisted of a farmhouse, a four-crib log barn, a corn crib, and a log smithy. Based on available deed records, the farmhouse is thought to date to 1832. The lodge was extensively modified in the 1960s by Joe Simpson to serve as the Parch Corn Hunting Lodge, a commercial hunting venture. Game resources sought by hunting parties included deer, goat, European wild boar, and grouse, most of which were stocked by Mr. Simpson.[505]

In 1976, the National Park Service and the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers signed an interim management agreement for continuing use of the lodge that resulted in additional rehabilitation at Parch Corn Hunting Lodge, and its renaming as Charit Creek Hostel. The U.S. Army Corps of Engineers enhanced the resources available for visitors by renovating the Booger Blevins and Jack Blevins cabins brought to this location by Joe Simpson from other nearby sites.[506] Later, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers built a new board-and-batten kitchen, restrooms and shower buildings, a steel frame horse barn, and a utility building. Charit Creek Hostel subsequently offered lodging to hikers, bicyclists, and equestrians, as well as hunters and fishermen. Although some of the buildings and landscape features can be traced to original nineteenth century farm use, the site has been extensively modified from its original use and character due to the numerous changes made in the 1960s and 1970s (Figure 112). Today, historic resources associated with the camp include the John Blevins Barn, John Blevins Corn Crib, and John Blevins Smithy.

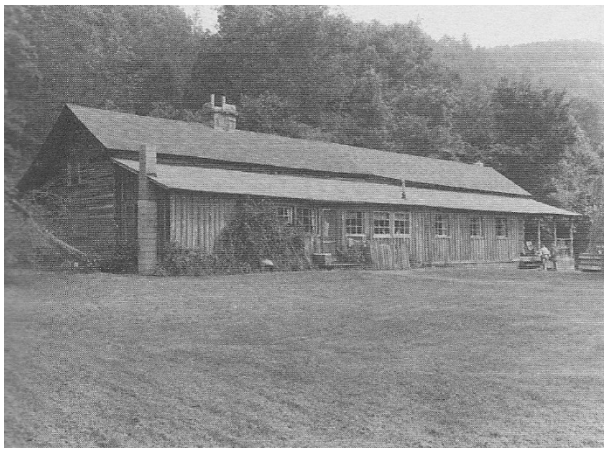


FIGURE 111. An undated view of the Charit Creek Lodge. Source: National Park Service.

505. *Big South Fork Cultural Landscape Inventory,* page 13 of 19.

506. These structures had been moved to this location from other nearby sites by Joe Simpson.



FIGURE 112. Overview of Charit Creek Lodge complex, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Middle Creek Equestrian Center. Located along the park's western edge and accessed from Divide Road is the Middle Creek Equestrian Center. The center provides facilities for riders and their horses using the park's equestrian trails.

Fork Ridge Trail. The Fork Ridge Trail arises from the road leading to the Middle Creek Equestrian Center. This trail leads east to Charit Creek Lodge.

Sawmill Trail. The Sawmill trailhead is located along Fork Ridge Road. This trailhead provides access to the 4.2-mile Slave Falls Loop trail, which features side trips to Slave Falls as well as Needle Arch, a thin delicate geologic formation that remains from erosion of a rock shelter.

Station Camp Horse Camp. The Station Camp Horse Camp is located along the eastern edge of the park and is accessed from Station Camp Road. The camp is a concessionaire-operated facility that offers equestrian amenities.

Station Camp. The Station Camp recreation facilities include a picnic area and canoe launch located across the river from the confluence of Station Camp Creek and Big South Fork. A gravel road that leads to an established ford provides access to the facilities.

Scott State Forest to Peters Bridge

Bandy Creek Visitor Center. The park's primary visitor contact station is the Bandy Creek Visitor Center, located on a broad, level plateau adjacent to the Scott State Forest along a spur road that arises from Tennessee Highway 297 (Leatherwood Ford Road) (Figure 113 through Figure 115).



FIGURE 113. An aerial view of the Bandy Creek Recreation Area at Big South Fork, circa 1982. Construction of the Leatherwood Ford Road Bridge can be seen in the foreground. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 114. Dedication of the Bandy Creek Recreation Site, April 1986. Source: U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, Nashville District.



FIGURE 115. Bandy Creek Visitor Center, 2014. Source: National Park Service.

Bandy Creek Campground and Group Camp. Adjacent to the Bandy Creek Visitor Center along a spur road is the Bandy Creek Campground and Group Camp site. These camping facilities offer tent sites, electric/water hookups, restrooms and bathhouse facilities, trail access, picnic facilities, a small visitor information station, and a covered pavilion at the group camp site. The campground also includes play structures and a swimming pool built by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers in 1988.

Bandy Creek Stables. Bandy Creek Stables are a concession-managed facility available to visitors for boarding their horses while camping at the adjacent Bandy Creek Campground. From the stables, equestrians can easily reach the park's extensive trail system. The facility includes paddocks and stalls.

Oscar Blevins Loop Trail. The trailhead for the Oscar Blevins Loop Trail arises from the spur road that leads to the Bandy Creek Visitor Center. The 3.7-mile loop trail provides access to the sites of rock shelters, one of which exhibits historic inscriptions, a historic road trace and another old wagon road, the ruins of the Billie Blevins Farmstead, and, atop a small plateau, the Oscar Blevins Farmstead, composed of a an 1879 log cabin, mid-twentieth-century dwelling, corn crib, outbuilding/smokehouse/shed, barn, root cellar foundation, and fields and pasture, orchard trees, black walnut trees, fences and fencelines, a driveway, feeding bin, hay bins, and a spring site. Located across Old Leatherwood Ford Road is the Katy Blevins Cemetery and the Lora Blevins Farmstead, both of which are surviving historic resources associated with pre-park lifeways. The surviving resources of the Blevins farmsteads are described in more detail in Historic Context One: European-American Settlement and Occupation of the Big South Fork.

John Litton Farm Loop Trail. Further east is the John Litton/Charles Rudy Slaven Farmstead. The farm edges the North Fork Fall Branch. The farm is accessed along the John Litton Farm Loop Trail from the Bandy Creek Campground. Surviving buildings and structures associated with the farmstead include a log house, log barn, wood-frame garage, pond and associated earthen dam, access road, road traces, fencing, hedgerows and fencelines, fields, stream, fruit trees and pawpaw shrubs, and a hog pen set within a rock shelter.

Leatherwood Ford. River access for canoes and other boats is afforded at Leatherwood Ford located adjacent to Tennessee Highway 297. Canoeists and rafters use this boat launch feature. Trails and a universally-accessible boardwalk are associated with the ford site, as are river shallows for water play, picnic sites, shore fishing, and restrooms/showers.

Leatherwood Loop Trail. A 3.2-mile strenuous walking trail, the Leatherwood Loop reaches an overlook that provides views of the Cumberland Plateau's defining topography. The loop begins by following the Oneida and Western Trail along the river, later climbing the gorge wall to the rim and a spur trail to the overlook. A portion of the trail follows the Old Leatherwood Ford Road.

Angel Falls Rapids. The Angel Falls Rapid Trail extends for 2 miles each way, forming a 4-mile route that follows an old roadbed along the river provides access to one of the most hazardous rapids on the river. This scenic walk affords views of the river and gorge walls (Figure 116). Many visitors expect to see a falls here. However, the falls were removed by explosives around 1967 in an attempt to develop an annual canoe race that would help the local economy.



FIGURE 116. Angel Falls in the 1950s. Source: National Park Service.

Angel Falls Trail. The Angel Falls Trail is a loop route that begins at the Leatherwood Ford parking area and extends 2.8 miles to the Angel Falls Overlook where views are afforded of a massive extent of cliffline and the 600-foot-deep river gorge. The treacherous Angel Falls Rapid is visible from the overlook. This is one of the most popular day-hike destinations within the park. This trail is part of the John Muir National Recreation Trail system.

Grand Gap Loop Trail. The Grand Gap Loop Trail totals 12.4 miles in length. It is reached from the Angel Falls Overlook. This trail is part of the John Muir National Recreation Trail system.

Oneida and Western Trail. The Oneida and Western Trail extends for 2.3 miles to the Oneida and Western Railroad Whipple Truss Bridge, a National Register eligible structure erected in 1915 and used by the rail line until its abandonment in 1954. It follows a proposed alignment of an extension of the railroad that was never completed. This railbed was once the rail link with Oneida that served logging and mining operations within what is now the National Recreation Area and ran as far west as Jamestown. This trail includes a portion of the John Muir National Recreation Trail.

East Rim Overlook. Located along spur roads that arise from the highway, the East Rim Overlook offers views of the gorge from near the park administrative headquarters area (Figure 117).



FIGURE 117. View from the East Rim overlook. Source: National Park Service.

Jake's Swimming Hole. The John Muir National Recreation Trail provides access to a traditional swimming area known as Jake's Swimming Hole along the Big South Fork south of its confluence with North White Oak Creek.

Pine Creek Boat Launch. Near Jake's Swimming Hole is a boat launch accessible from the Oneida and Western Trail. Upstream from the boat launch, the river is known for a series of named rapids that include Rion's Eddy, The Ell, Washing Machine, and Double Falls. Long Road and Honey Creek Road enter the park from both the east and the west near the rapids, providing access to this section of the river.

Honey Creek Trail. Honey Creek Road leads northeast from Mt. Helen Road to the Honey Creek Trail trailhead. Nearby is the Honey Creek State Natural Area, a 109-acre parcel set aside in 1970 by the former landowner, Bowater, Inc., as a Pocket Wilderness Recreation Area, and designated a state natural area in 1973.

Honey Creek Overlook. The Honey Creek Trail ends at the Honey Creek Overlook, which affords a scenic view of the river basin near The Ell.

Burnt Mill Bridge (E003), Boat Launch, and Picnic Area. Located on the Clear Fork tributary of the Big South Fork, the Burnt Mill Bridge is a popular riverside area for shore fishing, wading,

picnicking, boat access, and baptisms. Boulders in the streambed, moderate rapids, and views to the bluffs above characterize the river in this section. Burnt Mill Bridge is a canoe access point. This bridge is another historic engineering resource, a combination Pratt through/Pratt pony truss bridge. Honey Creek Road leads south to the Burnt Mill Bridge boat launch and picnic area, as well as the southern trailhead of the John Muir National Recreation Trail.

Confluence Boat Launch. Long Road provides access to a boat launch located at the confluence of New River and Clear Fork.

Zenith Boat Launch. To the west of the Honey Creek Overlook, Zenith Road arises from Mt. Helen Road and provides access to a boat launch, including a canoe access point, and picnic area at Zenith. Zenith is the location of an early mining community. The remains of many features of this small mining camp are still found throughout the day-use area. Mine openings, tailings, and foundations still remain from the circa 1913 settlement built adjacent to the Oneida and Western Railroad. This site is tightly confined by the gorge along North White Oak Creek. The gorge walls are steep. While not specifically developed, the area is popular for picnicking, water play, fishing, and access for river floating due to the relatively difficult run to Leatherwood Ford. A gravel road provides vehicle access. This site is also used to access the Oneida and Western railbed by fording the stream.

Mill Creek Equestrian Facility. Also arising from Mt. Helen Road is a short spur road that leads into the park and an equestrian facility at Mill Creek.

White Oak Creek Boat Launch. Southeast of Rugby, Tennessee, along Tennessee Highway 52 is the White Oak Creek boat launch.

Brewster Bridge. Further southwest near the point at which Tennessee Highway 52 crosses the park, a spur road leads to the Brewster Bridge site, which includes picnic grounds and a boat launch and canoe access point. This site has been used for many years for river access and picnicking. A recently constructed highway bridge now spans the gorge here. The previous roadway and bridge remain alongside the more recent travelway.

Peters Bridge (E001). In the southwestern corner of the park, another local road corridor skirts the park, providing access to a boat launch, canoe access point, and picnic grounds along Clear Fork where the Peters Bridge crosses the stream. Primitive camping and shore fishing also occur here. This bridge is another historic resource, a Pratt through truss bridge.

Joe Branch Picnic Area. Joe Branch, a tributary of Clear Fork, has been developed for recreational uses that include horse and wagon trails, primitive camping, picnicking, pond fishing, and hunting. Access to the site is by four-wheel-drive vehicle.

Rugby Area. Short destination and loop trails lead between Rugby and the park along Clear Fork. Some of the trails date to the nineteenth century when Rugby was founded.

Gentleman's Swimming Hole Trail. The Gentleman's Swimming Hole Trail is accessed from an unimproved spur road that leads into the park from the restored historic utopian community of Rugby, Tennessee.

Darrow Ridge Area

Darrow Ridge is located in the southwestern corner of the park. Access to the area occurs along Darrow Ridge Road, which arises from Tennessee Highway 154 northeast of East Jamestown, Tennessee. This portion of the park has historically supported logging, mining, and scattered oil and gas development activity involving wells, equipment, and access roads. Scenic resources include Laurel Fork (also known locally as East Laurel) and an associated gorge. Four trails are accessible from Darrow Ridge Road; these primarily follow historic access road traces, and include:

- Darrow Ridge Trail
- Christian Cemetery Trail

- Little Cliff Trail
- Tar Kiln Trail

These trails are popular for equestrian and approved for ATV use only for licensed hunters during hunting season.[507]

Recreation in the Vicinity of Big South Fork

The Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area is surrounded by other regionally important recreation sites, which provide a wide variety of visitor experiences. Some offer similar opportunities to those afforded at Big South Fork. The larger publicly-owned recreation areas are listed below. Not included are state wildlife management areas and large privately-owned areas cooperatively managed with the states as public hunting areas. In addition, privately owned resources include Barthell Historic Mining Town.

- Lake Cumberland and two associated state parks
- Dale Hollow Lake and associated state park
- Cumberland Falls State Resort Park
- Daniel Boone National Forest
- Pickett State Rustic Park and Forest
- Obed National Wild and Scenic River
- Frozen Head State Natural Area
- Norris Lake and associated state park
- Cumberland Gap National Historical Park
- Standing Stone State Park
- Lone Mountain State Forest[508]
- Fort Southwest Point
- Sergeant Alvin York State Park and Grist Mill
- Windrook Recreation, Coal Creek Off Highway Vehicle area
- Colditz Cove State Natural Area
- Cumberland Mountain State Park
- Historic Rugby
- Historic Stearns Depot and Museum

Significance

National Register Status of Big South Fork River and Recreation Area

As noted earlier, Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area is not currently listed in the National Register of Historic Places. Several properties located within the park have been determined eligible for listing by the State Historic Preservation Offices (SHPOs) of Tennessee and Kentucky, although none of the properties associated with recreation context have yet been evaluated.[509] And while none of the features identified as part of the 1981 evaluation relates to recreational activities, additional documentation of the park's history suggests expansion of the list of eligible resources to include sites and structures associated with the context conveyed above as part of this chapter.

National Register Criteria for Evaluation

In order for a property to be eligible for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, it must possess significance under one of four criteria. The Criteria for Evaluation state:

> The quality of significance in American history, architecture, archeology, engineering, and

507. *General Management Plan* (2005), 212–219.
508. Ibid., 206.
509. Letters from Herbert L. Harper, Executive Director and Deputy State Historic Preservation Officer, Tennessee Department of Conservation, Tennessee Historical Commission to E. C. Moore, Engineering Division, U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, February 24, 1981, and September 14, 1981.

culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and:

A. That are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or

B. That are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or

C. That embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction, or that represent the work of a master, or that possess artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or

D. That have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.[510]

Significance of Big South Fork's Agricultural Properties

Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area likely constitutes a rural historic district significant at the state and local level under National Register Criteria A, C, and D for its association with early settlement, agricultural activities, rural community life, industry, architecture, transportation, and recreation within the Upper Cumberland Plateau region of Kentucky and Tennessee between circa 1786 and 1974.

Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area possesses a long history of recreation at the local level relating to community life, later becoming a focus of tourism. Surviving evidence of historic recreational activities within Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area reinforces our knowledge of the long-standing deep connections between cultural activities and the natural environment. This evidence exists primarily in relation to federal efforts conducted in the 1930s as part of New Deal era programs to provide recreational amenities for the general public in association with national forests and state parks, and during the 1960s in response to emerging federal legislation intended to improve public access to recreational sites. Designation of Big South Fork as a National River and Recreation Area in 1974 established the entire area as an important recreational resource. Properties associated with this context are significant in the area of recreation.

Integrity of Historic Resources

Integrity is the ability of a property to convey its historic significance. According to the National Register Bulletin titled *How to Complete the National Register Registration Form*, the seven aspects of integrity are location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association. These are applied to each contributing property, taking into account its level of significance and the criteria under which it derives its significance. For a property to contribute to the proposed Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area historic district, it must possess several, and usually most, of the aspects of integrity.

Overall Assessment of Integrity

Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area possesses integrity of location, setting, feeling, and association due to the continued presence of historic cultural landscape elements. These suggest deep connections between the environment and agriculture, industry, transportation, and recreation that resulted in communities with deep ties and a unique cultural heritage. The integrity of the potential historic district is enhanced by the landscape's protection as part of a federally administered unit of the National Park System. Both plateau and gorge landscapes are relatively free from intrusive elements and the number of non-contributing resources is minimal.

510. National Register Bulletin: *How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation* (Washington, D.C.: Department of the Interior, 1995).

Integrity of design, materials, and workmanship of historic buildings and structures is present, although the loss of many former components that helped to form unified sites diminishes this integrity. Also diminishing this integrity is the work conducted to address adaptive reuse, stabilization, and repair of these features that has resulted in alteration to their historic appearance.

Assessment of Individual Resource Integrity

CCC Bunkhouse at Fork Ridge Road. The wooden bunkhouse was built by CCC Company 1471 in 1934. The structure is currently collapsing and in fair to poor condition, but appears to possess sufficient integrity to render it eligible for listing in the National Register as a contributing feature of a potential rural historic district.

Stone Culverts along Divide Road built by the CCC. Divide Road edges the park along its western boundary. Stone culverts were built in the 1930s by the CCC for storm water management. The culverts appear to possess sufficient integrity to render them eligible for listing in the National Register, possibly as contributing features of a potential rural historic district.

Yahoo Falls Overlook. The Yahoo Falls Overlook, which includes stonework and a stone pier and wood rail fence, was established in the 1960s. Features of the overlook have been repaired and replaced. However, it generally appears to possess sufficient integrity to render it eligible for listing in the National Register, possibly as a contributing feature of a potential rural historic district.

Yahoo Falls Trail. The 1-mile-long Yahoo Falls Trail was developed by the U.S. Forest Service as part of Daniel Boone (formerly Cumberland) National Forest in the 1960s. It has been extensively updated with steel bridge structures and other features to facilitate passage and repair washouts. However, the trail appears to possess sufficient integrity to render it eligible for listing in the National Register, possibly as a contributing feature of a potential rural historic district.

Yahoo Falls Picnic Area. This facility is located along the Sheltowee Trace National Recreation Trail near Yahoo Falls. An access road, picnic area, trails, and campsite were developed by the U.S. Forest Service in the 1960s to attract visitors to the Stearns Ranger District as part of the Daniel Boone National Forest. A picnic shelter that had fallen into a state of disrepair was restored in 2011. Although the integrity of these facilities have been diminished by subsequent changes, this recreational complex appears to possess sufficient integrity to render it eligible for listing in the National Register, potentially as a contributing feature of a potential rural historic district.

John Muir National Recreation Trail. The John Muir Trail is the park's longest continuous hiking route. Constructed in 1972, the trail affords access to many features of Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area. It appears to have been little altered since initial construction and to possess sufficient integrity to render it eligible for listing in the National Register, possibly as a contributing feature of a potential rural historic district.

Sheltowee Trace National Recreation Trail. This trail was built circa 1979 through 1982. As such it postdates the period of significance and does not constitute a contributing resource.

Alum Ford Campgrounds, Shelter. The Alum Ford campground is a primitive complex that features seven campsites and a vault toilet facility. Exiting the campgrounds to the south is the Sheltowee Trace National Recreation Trail, which leads to a house foundation and standing chimney. Near this is a frame and timber Adirondack-style shelter built by the U.S. Forest Service in the 1960s. The shelter appears to possess sufficient integrity to render it eligible for listing in the National Register, possibly as a contributing feature of a potential rural historic district.

Charit Creek Lodge Complex. The Charit Creek Lodge complex provides food and overnight accommodations for up to forty-eight guests in a scenic valley setting, and is used as a base camp for hunting and fishing parties. The site

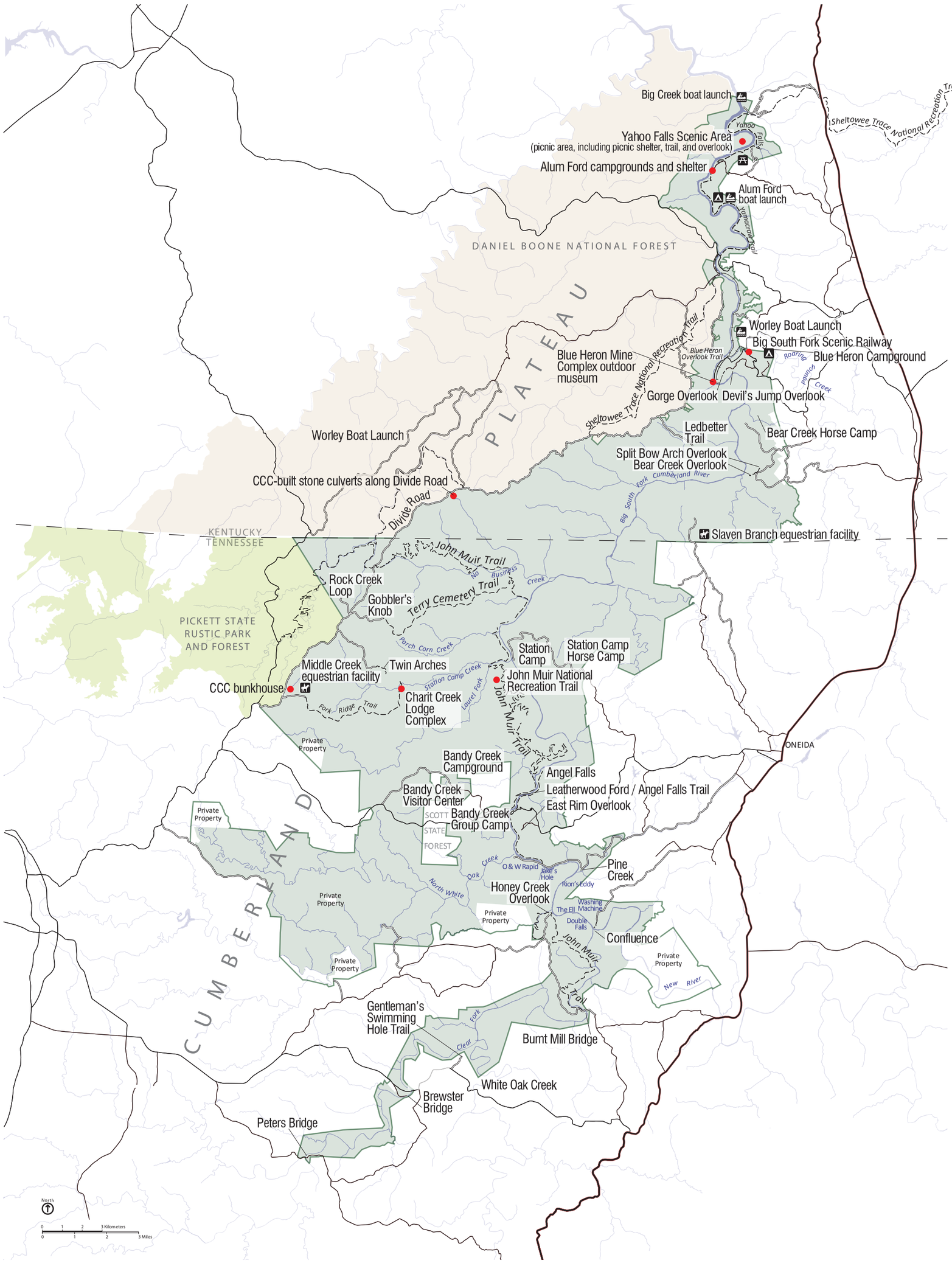
is said to be the location of an early long hunter's station camp. Prior to development as a hunting lodge, the farmstead complex consisted of a farmhouse, a four-crib log barn, a corn crib, and a log smithy. The farmhouse is thought to date to 1832. The lodge was extensively modified in the 1960s by Joe Simpson to serve as the Parch Corn Hunting Lodge, a commercial hunting venture. In 1981, four of the structures associated with the complex were determined eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. These included the barn, corn crib, smithy, and lodge. The current complex continues to reflect its recreational use and appearance since the 1960s, and the complex appears to possess sufficient integrity to render it eligible for listing in the National Register, possibly as a historic district or a contributing feature of a potential rural historic district.

Contributing Properties

- CCC Bunkhouse at Fork Ridge Road
- Stone Culverts along Divide Road built by the CCC
- Yahoo Falls Overlook
- Yahoo Falls Trail
- Yahoo Falls picnic area
- John Muir National Recreation Trail
- Alum Ford campgrounds, shelter
- Charit Creek Lodge Complex

Non-contributing Properties

- Sheltowee Trace National Recreation Trail
- Park trails, overlooks, boat landings, and other recreational facilities that postdate 1974


Big Creek boat launch
Yahoo Falls Scenic Area
(picnic area, including picnic shelter, trail, and overlook)
Alum Ford campgrounds and shelter
Alum Ford boat launch
Sheltowee Trace National Recreation Trail
DANIEL BOONE NATIONAL FOREST
PLATEAU
Worley Boat Launch
Big South Fork Scenic Railway
Blue Heron Campground
Blue Heron Mine Complex outdoor museum
Gorge Overlook
Devil's Jump Overlook
Ledbetter Trail
Bear Creek Horse Camp
Split Bow Arch Overlook
Bear Creek Overlook
Worley Boat Launch
CCC-built stone culverts along Divide Road
Divide Road
KENTUCKY
TENNESSEE
Slaven Branch equestrian facility
John Muir Trail
Rock Creek Loop
Gobbler's Knob
Terry Cemetery Trail
PICKETT STATE RUSTIC PARK AND FOREST
Station Camp
Station Camp Horse Camp
Middle Creek equestrian facility
Twin Arches
John Muir National Recreation Trail
CCC bunkhouse
Charit Creek Lodge Complex
Private Property
ONEIDA
Bandy Creek Campground
Angel Falls
Bandy Creek Visitor Center
Leatherwood Ford / Angel Falls Trail
East Rim Overlook
Bandy Creek Group Camp
SCOTT STATE FOREST
Pine Creek
Honey Creek Overlook
Confluence
CUMBERLAND
Gentleman's Swimming Hole Trail
Burnt Mill Bridge
White Oak Creek
Brewster Bridge
Peters Bridge
North
0 1 2 3 Kilometers
0 1 2 3 Miles

Historic Context Five: Effects of War on the Big South Fork Region

Introduction

The Big South Fork Basin has been both directly and indirectly affected by several wars, domestic and foreign, since early settlement. The wars that have influenced settlement, land use, and demographics within the region include the Revolutionary War, the War of 1812, the Civil War, and World Wars I and II. While the region's earliest settlement by European-Americans was influenced to a great degree by the Revolutionary War, outmigration and abandonment of the gorge by residents was also a result of societal changes wrought by World War II. Thus these two bellicose events may be seen as bracketing historic settlement within Big South Fork.

The Revolutionary War

Prior to the Revolutionary War, little European-American settlement occurred within the Big South Fork region. The region was generally claimed by American Indian tribes—primarily the Cherokee and the Shawnee—for hunting purposes. However, French and British trappers and explorers, as well as the European-American long hunters, are known to have begun visiting the area by the mid-eighteenth century.[511] European-American settlement was generally discouraged within the region due to the American Indian presence. In 1763, a British proclamation forbade any settlement west of the eastern continental divide along the Alleghenies after the French and Indian War led to tenuous relationships between those of European descent and American Indians in the area. Even travel within the Upper Cumberland Plateau could be risky.

By the close of the American Revolution, pressure to open the area to settlement increased. Thus, despite the fact that the Cherokee maintained claim to and remained a presence within the region, North Carolina had established a western land office in Hillsboro to handle claims beyond the Alleghenies as early as 1783, while Virginia land records indicate that deeds were purchased in the area in the mid-1780s.[512] By 1786, as evidenced by an inscription found on a chimney stone of a former Scott County gorge farm, immigrants had reached the country west of the Cumberland Mountains.[513] Some of the early residents were Revolutionary War soldiers; the federal government began to grant land in the area to Revolutionary War veterans as payment for their military service during the late eighteenth century. Veterans who established claims in the area included Elisha and Richard Harve Slaven, who acquired land in Kentucky from the mouth of Bear

511. Long hunters were eighteenth century explorers and hunters who explored the American frontier wilderness of Virginia and North Carolina, including what would become Kentucky and Tennessee. The long hunters provided information that proved useful to later settlers of the region.

512. McBride and McBride, III-6, citing Arnow 1960, reprinted 1983, 309.

513. *Big South Fork Cultural Landscape Inventory*, 2 of 19, citing McBride and McBride, II-A.

Creek to the mouth of Parch Corn Creek by the early 1800s, and Jonathan Blevins.

Despite these late eighteenth century land grants, the area was not officially opened to settlement until after the Third Tellico Treaty was signed in 1805. With this treaty, the Cherokees ceded all land north of the Duck River and extended the previous cessation boundary east to the Tennessee River, including the entire Cumberland Plateau.

The War of 1812

By the 1810s, settlement within the Big South Fork Basin had begun in earnest. In addition to farming, the region quickly became the focus of mineral extraction and processing activities. Deposits of salt brine and niter, the mineral form of potassium nitrate also known as saltpeter, first discovered by the French and British explorers and the long hunters, were of particular interest. The presence of both salt and saltpeter resulted in an influx of settlers and entrepreneurs during the early nineteenth century. By the early nineteenth century, both of these elements were in short supply and therefore in great demand. One of the key drivers of demand was the War of 1812, while another was the popularity of the flintlock rifle.

After the Revolutionary War, Kentucky became a center for gunpowder manufacture. The flintlock "long" or "Kentucky" rifle that became popular during and after the Revolutionary War used gunpowder made from saltpeter for firing. Many settlers in Kentucky and Tennessee considered the rifle to be a staple of pioneer life. By 1805, several powder mills had been established in Lexington, Kentucky; the saltpeter needed to produce gunpowder was generally imported from India. When war in Europe prompted Congress to pass anti-import acts in 1807 and 1809, the mills were forced to seek out domestic sources of saltpeter.

To supply this need, the caves and rock shelters throughout the Cumberland Plateau were explored to locate and produce niter. Land records for the region indicate that land purchases were made with the obvious intention to mine saltpeter and salt. Local residents also benefitted from the presence of these minerals because by using simple techniques, they could economically mine the minerals for much needed cash. In fact, much of the mining that took place within the Big South Fork gorge was of the cottage-industry type. Land owners were able to revisit a niter mining operation whenever saltpeter was in need and meet demands as they emerged, including once the immediate crisis relating to the War of 1812 had ended. For example, demand again rose during the Civil War, fifty years later.

One of the archeological surveys conducted within the park identified sixty-nine niter mining sites on the plateau, and correlated their locations to extant evidence of wagon trails and roads. Archeological investigations have also indicated that many sandstone rock shelters and cliffs in the No Business Creek area and other parts of the gorge were mined. The rocks within some rock shelters still exhibit the tell-tale white crystals of potassium nitrate on their surface. Other cultural evidence of mining activities, such as graffiti is present in some known niter mining sites. This graffiti list dates of 1813, 1817, and 1860, suggesting the temporal range of saltpeter extraction in the area.

The process of commercial sandstone mining and saltpeter manufacture within the region during the nineteenth century was not highly advanced, although it did require specialized equipment and substantial physical labor. Niter mining artifacts and evidence collected and analyzed by archeologists within the park include portable leaching vats, hollowed-out leaching troughs, hand-adzed wooden planks, yokes and stakes, wooden pry bars, a mattock-like tool, a large cast iron kettle, ladders, blasting holes, sand piles, and blasted cliff walls with large piles of cobbles. All these sites and artifacts testify to the extent and importance of this unique cottage industry to lifeways of the gorge.

The War of 1812 contributed to the exploitation of deposits of saltpeter in the Upper Cumberland Plateau. During the war, the price of saltpeter quintupled. Saltpeter mining was soon practiced by anyone who could find a good source of potassium nitrate. The limestone caves of

Kentucky, Missouri, and Tennessee were a particular focus of these efforts, including Mammoth Cave and Great Saltpeter Cave in Kentucky. At Big South Fork, the sandstone cliffs and rock shelters within Kentucky and Tennessee were also an important source of the mineral. The yellow-brown sandstone of the Upper Cumberland Plateau was noted for containing high-grade potassium nitrate, a relatively pure form of saltpeter. "Rock saltpeter," as it was called, soon became prized due to its purity; the potassium nitrate could be leached or levigated from the sandstone without adding potash lye, saving one step in processing. Miners also sometimes found entire blocks of pure saltpeter embedded within the sandstone, which eliminated two steps of chemical processing. These blocks also generated a more volatile product. Rock saltpeter was aggressively mined within Big South Fork until the war ended in 1815.

At the end of the War of 1812, the price of saltpeter diminished rapidly due to reduced demand. At the same time, however, a concomitant rise in the price of salt led to a shift in entrepreneurial activity in the region. The potential for economic gain, coupled with a regional shortage of the mineral, induced many to purchase land in the gorge for the purpose of salt processing, or encouraged local land owners to take up salt production.

After the War of 1812, salt processing began to occur in the region on an industrial scale. Like the saltpeter industry that preceded it, the production of salt quickly became one of the basin's notable, if short-lived, extractive industries. Salt mining as a focus of local industry, however, also preceded the War of 1812.

The landscape surrounding the Big South Fork River was locally known for its salt springs and seeps. Americans Indians as well as the long hunters had processed the salt from these features to preserve food. During the early nineteenth century, salt was considered "more indispensable than any other product."[514] Because of the importance of salt to early settlement, the Commonwealth of Kentucky passed acts to encourage the manufacture of salt. In exchange for verifiable salt production, title to Kentucky land could be had at a reduced price.

Between 1811 and the early 1820s, three partnerships were established for the purpose of salt manufacture within the gorge. These partnerships were incorporated under the names Frances and Slavey; Beatty, Conn, and Henderson; and Huling, Erwin, and Zimmerman. The first partnership involved John Frances and Richard Slavey of Wayne County, Kentucky. These two men reached an agreement with the Commonwealth of Kentucky in 1811 to survey 1,000 acres of land on the Big South Fork River for the purpose of salt production. Slavey, who knew of a salt spring near his home on Rock Creek, took advantage of this fact to arrange favorable terms with the Commonwealth. Their agreement noted that if the partnership could produce 1,000 bushels of salt within three years, the two men would be given a patent to the land. Although they drilled for and found salt brine near the mouth of Bear Creek, the partnership was never unable to meet their quota, despite seeking two extensions of their agreement.

Frances and Slavey later transferred their claim to another partnership that, included Martin Beatty, Stephen T. Conn, and Lilburn Henderson and operated under the name Beatty and Company Saltworks. Like the earlier partnership, the group made several efforts to extract enough salt to make a profit. At the same time, a third partnership, formed by three Virginians—Marcus Huling, Andrew Erwin, and Peter Zimmerman—under the name Huling and Company also began to explore and drill for salt near the Beatty and Company site. The Virginians knew the salt business first hand,

514. J. W. Tuttle, "The Beatty Salt Well" in Augusta Phillips Johnson, *A Century of Wayne County Kentucky 1800–1900* (Louisville: The Standard Printing Co., 1939) 65.

and sought to apply their drilling and marketing skills in Kentucky.

Disputed land claims and financial complications between all of the parties involved made operations difficult, while the meager output at individual well sites led to frequent drillings and moving of operations. In order to support their operations, the two partnerships brought in extensive drilling and processing equipment, including steam pumps, drills, and boiling kettles, and built workers' cabins as well as roads leading to the various saltworks. Surviving records of the salt mining activities describe how horses and mules were used to supply the power to pump the brine to the surface, as well as the problems the workers had keeping steam boilers running.

Today, few resources survive on the sites of these mines, which are represented by place names on maps, such as Lick Creek and Salttown.

Although the salt industry never gained a permanent foothold in the Basin, salt drilling did lead to the discovery of the nation's first commercial oil well in what is now McCreary County, Kentucky, on land thought to have been owned by Beatty (see also Historic Context Two: Extractive and Manufacturing Industries).

Civil War Activities in Big South Fork

While the Upper Cumberland Plateau did not witness any major strategic battles during the Civil War, the Big South Fork region was the site of a host of encampments, two minor skirmishes, one minor battle, and troop movements associated with a major campaign. The area was also subject to extensive guerrilla warfare.

The Civil War proved highly disruptive to lifeways and the agricultural economy of the Big South Fork region. Located at the junction between Union and Confederate interests, Big South Fork experienced its own version of Civil War.

Although many residents of eastern Tennessee were Union sympathizers, the state as a whole elected to secede from the Union and became a member of the Confederacy. Kentucky, on the other hand, was initially neutral, but later brought under Union control.[515] The juxtaposition of Union and Confederate sympathies, occurring along a tenuous line that extended through the Big South Fork River Basin, led to volatility in the region and contributed to divided loyalties among neighbors and even families. The war also disrupted the supply chain of material goods, limiting access to larger markets for local residents.

One of most disruptive aspects to life in the region was the enlistment of men into both armies, the Home Guard Militia, and guerrilla bands. Most residents of the Upper Cumberland joined the Union Army, although some joined the Confederate Army. Tennessee residents often traveled to Kentucky under cover of darkness to enlist in the Union army, including freedmen and escaped African American slaves. Some of these Tennesseans were African Americans. In this way, many local residents left the area during the war, some never to return. The loss of these men had a significant economic, political, and social impact on the region (Figure 119). The availability of labor, experienced farm managers, and businesses all declined. Remaining family members, including wives, children, and elderly parents, were forced to assume a range of additional responsibilities within the household and on the farm.

Guerilla Warfare. Guerilla warfare was a constant threat to life in the Upper Cumberland Plateau. This guerilla activity, locally known as bushwhacking, consisted of the periodic raiding of homes with the intent to destroy property, steal livestock, and injure or kill residents. Bushwhacking was conducted by both sides, including pro-Union citizens in response to the increased hostility expressed toward them by Confederate citizens, and pro-Confederates against Union sympathizers.[516] The most

515. *Big South Fork Cultural Landscape Inventory*, 5 of 19.

516. Ibid.

notorious of the Confederate guerillas was Champ Ferguson (Figure 120). His Ferguson gang operated throughout the Upper Cumberland Plateau. Opposing Ferguson was a local Union guerilla band led by Tinker Dave Beatty (Figure 121).



FIGURE 119. The grave of a Civil War veteran. Source: National Park Service.

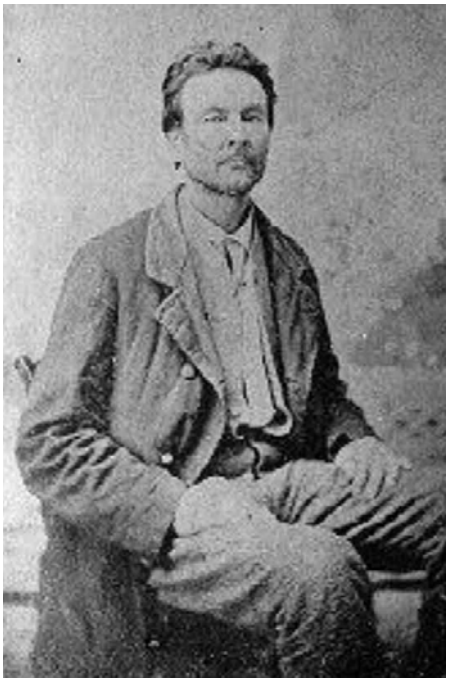


FIGURE 120. Champ Ferguson. Source: National Park Service.

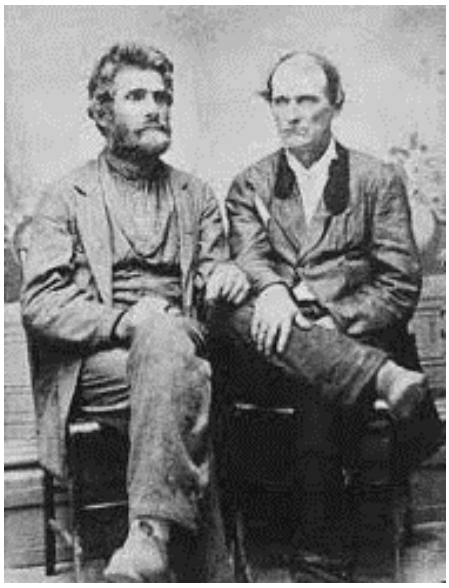


FIGURE 121. Jonathan Hale (left) and Tinker Dave Beatty (right). Source: Fentress County Historical Society.

This violent and dangerous guerilla warfare led some people to abandon their farms and move away. Local residents devised several means to counteract the raids. Sometimes children would act as lookouts. Local resident Bill Miller noted in an interview that his grandfather, who was five or six years old at the time, carried "a bugle at the creek . . . they would put him on a rock to watch up and down this hollow for people coming. If he saw anybody coming, his job was to blow the bugle so that they could get the stock up in the hills and hide them, to keep them (rebels) from stealing

them."[517]

Another resident, Frona Thompson, described raiding etiquette:

> Them, those old rebels got a coming through ya know, trying to take the place, they took over, and killed everybody they could. People had to leave, I don't know much about back then, that was before I was born. My mother told the story, and she said them old rebels would come in and take everything, they would rob the bees and leave the gums open, and the bees would all freeze to death in the winter time. And they sold grandpa's hay stacks off, and fed the horses and let them loose. Grandpa had to cut buds in the spring to feed his cattle. They wasted everything . . . . They would open up a potato hole, them rebels, and leave them open, and what they didn't loot they let them freeze, wasted hay, robbing bees. And my mother said, she always heard said, if a kid would sit down on something, them rebels weren't allowed to push them off. She said grandma had made grandpa a new set of clothes and they were laying on the bed, and she heard something and jumped up, and when they came in she sat down on them. One of those old rebels tried his best to get her off of them, and she just clung to them. Well, he didn't get them.[518]

Many described hiding livestock, food, and other goods from both guerillas and soldiers. According to Oscar Blevins:

> There is a place in the bluff there [at the Parch Corn place] that they kept their meat. Would climb up a ladder to get up in there . . . . They would come in the house, and if you had something they wanted to eat, they took it. But they had a place back up the creek where they kept their horse, to keep them from taking their horses.

Kirby King noted that "they would just ride up and go through and steal and kill and do what they wanted to. Take what you wanted. They had to keep the horses hid, the beaves [sic] and other things hid."[519]

Two children, the Tackett boys, are said to have died due to guerrilla raiding activity when they were accidentally smothered to prevent detection by raiders (Figure 122).[520]



FIGURE 122. The graves of the Tackett boys, November 2010. Source: National Park Service.

By the end of the Civil War, these guerilla activities had taken a heavy toll on the people and landscape of the basin. Several farms stood abandoned and perhaps were never reoccupied. Animosities that had arisen between families were difficult to heal.

Military Engagements. The Civil War skirmishes that occurred within the region included Travisville and Duck Shoals, while the Battle of Huntsville was the only true military engagement. Troop movements associated with the Campaign for Knoxville passed through the Basin and affected the lives of local residents in several ways (Figure 123).

517. McBride and McBride, IV-8–IV-9.
518. Ibid., IV-9.
519. Ibid.
520. Des Jean and Hermann.

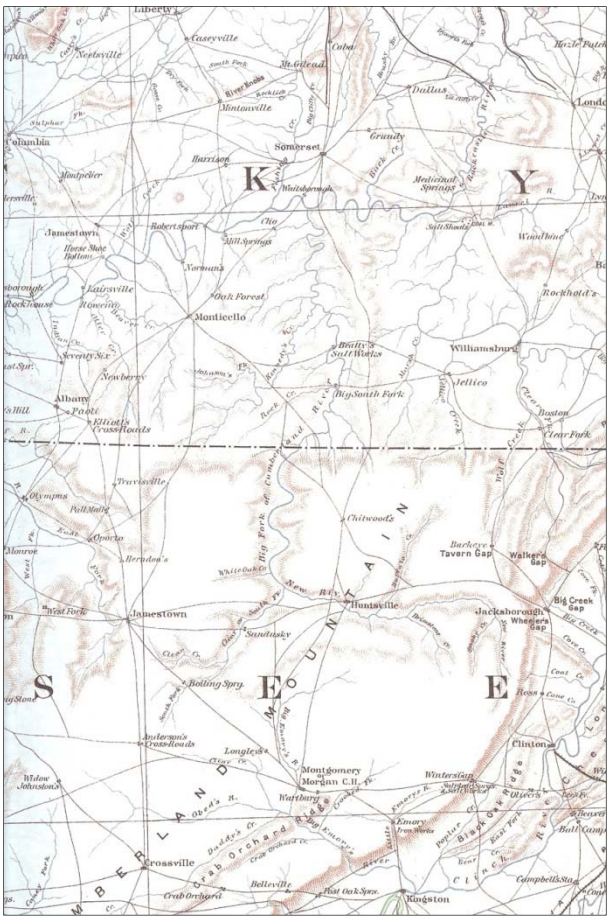


FIGURE 123. Map of the Big South Fork region from the *Atlas to Accompany the Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies*.

Travisville skirmish. The Travisville skirmish, which occurred on September 29, 1861, is thought to be the first military engagement of the Civil War to occur within the state of Tennessee. In the engagement, the Union's 1st Kentucky Cavalry, along with members of the Kentucky Home Guard, surprised and dispersed about 100 Confederates encamped at Travisville, located in Pickett County, Tennessee, west of Big South Fork. There were no reported casualties.

Duck Shoals raid. In June 1863, a Confederate guerilla force of approximately eleven men is known to have attacked local residents in the Big South Fork River valley near No Business Creek (Figure 124). The guerillas raided the farms of Armpstead Blevins, the Widow Miller, and Peter Burke, eventually taking control of the Burke farm. The following day, however, the Confederate guerillas were ambushed by a force of some thirty to fifty Union Home Guard members. Nine of the Confederate guerillas were killed at the Burke Farm or drowned in the river trying to escape.[521]



FIGURE 124. France Miller cabin on No Business Creek. The woman at the center is France Miller's first wife, Elizabeth. She died and France married 20-year-old Elizabeth Slaven in 1923, when he was 67. This photo thus predates 1923. Source: National Park Service.

Battle of Huntsville. The Battle of Huntsville occurred on April 13, 1862, in Huntsville, Tennessee, located to the east of the gorge. The engagement pitted Union Col. William Clift, and a band of loyalists from Scott and Morgan counties who had been authorized to "annoy the enemy's rear," against Confederate Capt. T. M. Nelson. Clift had established a base at Huntsville, within the Confederate-controlled region. Clift used the base to enlist recruits for the 7th East Tennessee, eventually mustering men from Scott, Morgan, and Fentress counties, including members of the Scott County Home Guard. To protect the base, Clift directed mounted patrols to oversee Confederate activity within the Upper Cumberland Plateau during the summer of 1862. In the meantime, Clift built fortifications around his camp near the town. After detecting the camp, Nelson's Confederate troops were easily able to overcome Clift's fortifications, dispersing or

521. McBride and McBride, IV-9, citing Smith, 163–167; Des Jean and Hermann.

capturing all of them. No casualties were reported.[522]

Knoxville Campaign. The Big South Fork region also witnessed a significant movement of troops through the gorge in August 1863, as Union Gen. Ambrose Burnside and his Army of the Ohio traveled east as part of a planned invasion of the Confederate stronghold of Knoxville, Tennessee. In anticipation of his movements, Burnside engaged Tinker Dave Beatty to disrupt and spy on Confederate forces within the Big South Fork region during the summer preceding his march east. Burnside also sent a force of 1,500 cavalry, under the command of Col. William Sanders, to ride through the Big South Fork area in June 1863. The cavalry burned bridges and captured Confederates soldiers.

In his quest to secure Knoxville, Burnside moved his 23rd Corps toward the city from various points in Kentucky between August 12 and 20, 1863. The troops were spread over a wide area and followed several routes to reach Knoxville. The divisions of Brig Gen. Samuel P. Carter and Burnside himself followed what was called the Ridge Road or Montgomery Road—approximately the route of present-day U.S. Highway 27—stopping in Oneida overnight. In Oneida, Burnside established his headquarters at the home of Esquire Blevins.

Other columns traveled southward Jamestown and through the No Business Creek valley via the road from Monticello.[523] Burnside noted in his accounts of travel through the region that although "the opposition of the enemy has been trifling, the natural obstacles have been very serious."[524]

As they passed through the area, the soldiers likely foraged for farm products and livestock, and destroyed property. In order for the men, wagons, and equipment to pass through the rugged area, the troops were forced to conduct road widening and improvement efforts.[525] These were likely of great benefit to local residents.

One resident, Will Miller, noted:

> My dad said there was a whole regiment come through there once, when he was just a little boy. They passed through day and night, pulling the cannons with horses. They were going to Knoxville.[526]

Bill Miller, grandson of Will Miller and another Big South Fork resident, stated:

> About the Civil War, from what I could find out what he told me they came through here [Station Camp] for two days and nights, soldiers, and one column after another . . . . Can you imagine on that little road . . . that many troops.[527]

The movement of Burnside's troops through the Big South Fork region is also documented in the accounts and diaries of several officers and soldiers. Samuel Harrison of the 44th Ohio Volunteer Infantry produced a diary that describes the route taken by the troops and the enormous size of the columns of men and equipment passing through the Basin. Harrison mentions the establishment of camps, particularly as part of longer stops at Chitwood and White Oak Creek. The White Oak Creek Camp was located approximately 1 mile east of Sunbright, while Camp Chitwood was located at Flat Gap, just south of present-day Winfield.

522. Michael R. O'Neal, "The Civil War on the Upper Cumberland Plateau in Tennessee" (Huntsville, Tennessee: Scott County Historical Society, 1982), 21–22.
523. John Muir, "Thrice Dead Dreary Town of Jamestown" in *A Thousand-Mile Walk to the Gulf* (Boston, Massachusetts: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1916).
524. McBride and McBride, III-9, from the Official Record, Series L, Vol. XXX: 261–262.
525. OR, Series I, col. 30, part 2, 544–566.
526. McBride and McBride, IV-6–IV-7, from Will J. Miller. Oral history collected by Benita Howell. Lexington, Kentucky: University of Kentucky, 1979–1980.
527. Ibid., IV-7, from William (Bill) Miller. Oral history collected by Steven Humphrey, 1981.

Burnside eventually succeeded in his campaign to capture Knoxville, as General Ulysses S. Grant secured Chattanooga. By November 1863 most of East Tennessee was under U.S. Army control. In East-Central Tennessee, however, the lack of a large occupying force within the region led to continued Confederate raiding and killing despite efforts to contain the activities by the Union Home Guard and guerilla forces.

Other Effects of the Civil War on Big South Fork lifeways. Those residents who were not in the army or active in guerrilla warfare are known to have participated in the war effort in other ways. Once again, niter became a sought-after material, and was extracted from the sandstone cliff walls of the gorge landscape and fashioned into gunpowder that could be shipped to Union troops by residents.[528] A description of niter mining and gunpowder manufacturing as a cottage industry on the Upper Cumberland Plateau was recounted by Frona Thompson. Mrs. Thompson described her Cherokee grandfather, Edmund Stevens, who made gunpowder in the No Business Creek area of Big South Fork and sold it to the Union army. She explained how Confederate soldiers destroyed a batch of powder:

> My grandpaw Stevens, he had a big sheet of powder up on top his house to dry; he made powder ya know, for the Union. He had it just about dry and most of it put away, and he heard Rebels coming, they were riding their horses. And he jumped out across the Pine Creek there and hid against the bushes. Said he'd seen the man come on top of the house and throw his powder off.[529]

Frona Thompson also described her mother's role as lookout:

> Well, she was a small kid like, but shucks she could run faster than a horse. She'd be away from the place . . . and hear the Rebels a coming, said she'd run a hollering to her daddy . . . that the Rebels were a coming. So he could jump out the back door and run across the creek and hide. He said he could of killed that man who throwed his powder off, but . . . he knowed if he did . . . they would get him . . . .[530]

Henry C. Smith also told of Jimmy Slaven making gunpowder near the Verdun Reed lands near Oneida, Tennessee. A niter mining operation was described at Peter Cave Hollow on Pine Creek in Scott County, Tennessee.[531]

Several hardships arose from the war. These included a disruption of governmental services, church services, and other community events; a general breakdown of the social and political structure of society; physical damage to farms and houses; and breaks in trade and transportation; as noted.[532] The war led to the destruction of property and a reduction in wealth and agricultural productivity. In particular the roving bands of guerilla fighters with both Confederate and Union sympathies interfered with everyday life as well as commercial enterprises. The divided loyalties among residents diminished the very important cooperative component of the regional economy.

The very isolated region was forced to return to a subsistence-based mode of living due to the constant interruption and danger posed by the guerilla raiders and the less frequent large army movements that passed through the region. Farm life was made more difficult as passing military personnel and guerillas stole horses and crops and destroyed buildings, and relationships between

528. W. Stephen McBride, "The Civil War in the Upper Cumberland Plateau and its Effects on the Local Population: A Guide of the Major Events and Themes, for Teachers and Interested Citizens of the Upper Cumberland Plateau of Tennessee and Kentucky" (Oneida, Tennessee: Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, October 2012), 18.
529. Howell, personal interview with Frona Thompson.
530. Ibid.
531. Tom Des Jean, "Niter Mining in the Area of the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River," presented at the 23rd Annual Ohio Valley Symposium on Urban and Historic Archeology, March. 5, 2005, Carter Caves State Park, Kentucky.
532. Ibid., 19.

farmers were severed. Although some farms were isolated enough to avoid a guerilla raid, the cooperative and interdependent economy was essentially put on hold for four years.

As noted by local resident Rev. A. B. Wright about life in the region during the war:

> During four years the country was in the throes of an awful strife. Civil courts were suspended in Tennessee. Anarchy prevailed everywhere. Post offices and post-roads were abandoned. No stores were kept . . . all kinds of merchandise were things of the past. Pastors abandoned their churches . . . many homes on both sides, during this dreadful war, were burned in our section.

John Muir visited the area in 1867 after the war, publishing an account of his travels. He described his encounter with one local resident:

> Passed the poor, rickety, thrice-dead village of Jamestown, an incredibly dreary place. Toward the top of the Cumberland grade, about two hours before sundown I came to a log house, and as I had been warned that all the broad plateau of the range for forty or fifty miles was desolate, I began thus early to seek a lodging for the night. Knocking at the door, a motherly old lady replied to my request for supper and bed and breakfast, that I was welcome to the best she had, provided that I had the necessary change to pay my bill. When I told her that unfortunately I had nothing smaller than a five-dollar greenback, she said, "Well, I'm sorry, but cannot afford to keep you. Not long ago ten soldiers came across from North Carolina, and in the morning they offered a greenback that I couldn't change, and so I got nothing for keeping them, which I was ill able to afford." "Very well," I said, "I'm glad you spoke of this beforehand, for I would rather go hungry than impose on your hospitality."
>
> As I turned to leave, after bidding her good-bye, she, evidently pitying me for my tired looks, called me back and asked me if I would like a drink of milk. This I gladly accepted, thinking that perhaps I might not be successful in getting any other nourishment for a day or two. Then I inquired whether there were any more houses on the road, nearer than North Carolina, forty or fifty miles away. "Yes," she said, "it's only two miles to the next house, but beyond that there are no houses that I know of except empty ones whose owners have been killed or driven away during the war."[533]

The Civil War also affected life in the region by helping to put an end to the practice of slavery. Although relatively few African Americans had lived in the Upper Cumberland area before the Civil War, most were slaves. The Emancipation Proclamation of January 1, 1863, legally freed the enslaved people in Confederate states. However, the number of residents who owned slaves was relatively low, so emancipation was not as heavily felt in the Basin as in the western part of Tennessee. Those not released from slavery by the proclamation may have later been freed due to General Burnside's Knoxville Campaign when the area came under Union control. Those African Americans who did not leave the area during the war, certainly fled after the war ended.[534]

Because Kentucky remained a Union state, slaves in the commonwealth were not freed by Lincoln's presidential proclamation. Many Kentucky slaves are known to have been freed during and after spring 1864 by joining the U.S. Army at Camp Nelson and other U.S. Colored Troop enlistment stations. The wives and children of these troops in Kentucky were emancipated after the Freedman's Bureau Act of March 3, 1865. The remaining slaves were freed through the Thirteenth Amendment in December 1865. Kentucky, however, did not ratify the amendment until 1976.[535]

World War I

Little information about how the region was affected by World War I has been identified for this study. However, it is known that the federal government began commissioning many sources of raw materials, rail lines, and other civilian resources nationwide on behalf of the war effort beginning in 1917. This may have affected local

533. Ibid., citing Muir.
534. Ibid.
535. Ibid., 20.

residents in several ways, including an increase in the markets for timber and coal, and a decrease in the availability of the rail lines for general civilian use in favor of military needs. Local residents are also known to have enlisted in the Army and fought in the war (Figure 125).



FIGURE 125. Crowd sending off World War I soldiers at the Southern Depot of the Oneida Scott Company, 1917. Source: Tennessee Library and Archives.

A rise in anti-German sentiments within the United States also affected some local residents, particularly those in the community of Wartburg, Tennessee, founded by German immigrants in 1845. At the time the United States entered World War I in 1917, Wartburg remained strongly German in its composition; surprisingly few of the original settlers had elected to forgo their German citizenship. Wartburg residents continued to express feelings of loyalty to their homeland even during the war, resulting in threats of violence by non-German residents.

By the time the United States entered World War I, agricultural innovations had already begun to affect life in the Basin. Farmers had started to move from the stream valleys within the gorge to the plateau. However, the costs associated with the equipment and soil amendments required to effectively farm the plateau precluded many gorge farmers from relocating. An agricultural extension agent for Morgan County is known to have complained in 1917 that there were only two or three threshing machines in all of Morgan or Scott counties and no wheat mills, suggesting the level of poverty.[536]

It was also during this period that county extension offices were established to support local farmers. These offices were created in response to government concerns regarding food production rates and labor shortages, resulting from an inability of some farmers to harvest their crops. These labor shortages may have occurred due to the loss of residents through World War I enlistments, and are noted in reports prepared by the Emergency Demonstration Agent in 1917 and 1918.[537]

After World War I, local residents benefitted when surplus army trucks were made available for sale at affordable prices.

Another outcome of World War I that affected the region was a decrease in immigration. Possibly resulting from the disruptions in Europe from the war and from nationalism in the United States, the flow of immigrants into the nation began to decline in most parts of the country after 1918. With their ongoing need for a reliable workforce, some of the larger coal companies continued to seek foreign-born immigrants to work in their mines. These efforts were further hampered when Congress passed the Emergency Quota Act in 1921, which limited the number of immigrants allowed to enter the country.[538]

536. McBride and McBride, V-18, from Kyker 1917.
537. Ibid., V-17, citing Ethel Freytag and Glena Kreis Ott, *A History of Morgan County, Tennessee* (n.p. Specialty Printing Company, 1970), 232–236.
538. Ibid., V-6, citing Harry Caudill, *Night Comes to the Cumberlands: A Biography of a Depressed Area* (Boston, Massachusetts: Little, Brown, and Company, 1963). The Emergency Quota Act was initiated as temporary legislation but was successful in adding new limiting features that remained a part of successive immigration laws and were responsible for the dramatic decrease of immigration into the United States. The act restricted the number of immigrants admitted from any country annually to 3 percent of the number of residents from that same country living in the United States based on the preceding U.S. Census. Based on that formula, the number of new immigrants admitted in

An associated impact from World War I that affected the region and the whole country was the outbreak of Spanish influenza, thought to have been brought back to the United States by returning soldiers. According to several oral histories, its occurrences in Scott County, resulted in government closure of schools and other assemblies; even social visits were discouraged. According to Jennings Hatfield, "Sam Burnett had a coffin shop and worked day and night."[539]

World War II

World War II proved to be a watershed for life in the Big South Fork Basin. Even though outmigration trends ebbed and even reversed for a time during the Great Depression, residents generally began to leave the gorge in earnest after World War II, never to return.

Decades of intensive logging was one of the factors contributing to outmigration from the region. By the late 1930s, much of the timber in the basin had been logged over by large corporations such as Stearns. In fact, in 1937, Stearns sold 47,000 acres of exhausted land within the Upper Cumberland Plateau to the U.S. Government to form the basis for the Cumberland National Forest (see also Historic Context Six: Effects of Public Works on the Big South Fork Region).

Another factor was the economic downturn associated with the Great Depression which, when coupled with concurrent progressive reforms of labor practices and lumber codes, led to decreased prices and diminished productivity. Although the electric band mill at Stearns that reopened in 1926 had become the largest in Kentucky by 1941, there was little timber left to mill. Production increased in response to demands resulting from World War II; after the war, however, the timber industry throughout the Basin collapsed.

Coal prices also declined in response to the Great Depression; by 1935 many of the mines had closed due to financial considerations exacerbated by growing labor disputes. Those that remained open operated on a reduced schedule. In response, the Oneida and Western Railroad curtailed train service along its line within the region to two days per week. The coal companies in the region never recovered as coal and steam driven engines were increasingly replaced by diesel and gasoline fueled machinery.

In 1942, the two banks that controlled the Oneida and Western sold the line to the Crown-Healy Company, a construction firm from Chicago, Illinois. This company anticipated the building of the Tennessee Valley Authority Dam on Wolf Creek near Jamestown, hoping to use the rail line to transport construction materials to the construction site. However, due to the entry of the United States into World War II, the project was suspended. Crown-Healy was not selected when new bids were taken in 1946, and the firm applied to the Interstate Commerce Commission to abandon the rail line.[540]

Despite the threat posed by Germany in World War II, the anti-German sentiments that had troubled residents of Wartburg appear to have diminished substantially by the 1940s, perhaps due to an increase in the assimilation of the German residents into American society.

Agricultural activity increased during World War II as a result of economic conditions. Farm populations rose from 46 to 58 percent, while the number of farms increased 55 percent. Not surprisingly, the percentage of farm products used

1921 decreased to approximately one-third of the number of new immigrants in 1920.

539. Interview with Jennings Hatfield by Gary Sexton, Interviewer, and Tom Des Jean, former park archeologist, Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, January 22, 2001. Mr. Hatfield, born in 1908, worked in logging and also drove a coal truck. He died a little over a year after he was interviewed.
540. Hutchinson et al., 22.

by farm households also increased from 66 percent to 74 percent. At the same time, however, commercial crop production also increased within tableland or plateau areas.[541] During World War II, better-paying factory jobs became available in many northern cities. Many local residents moved north to take advantage of these jobs.

After the Depression abated and as World War II drew to a close, the agricultural trends of the 1930s and early 1940s reversed. Due to new employment opportunities in the manufacturing, trade, and service industries, there was a general decline in agriculture, forestry, and mining. The number of regional farms began to decrease again, while the average size of farms began to increase again after 1945. The percentage of those involved in farming also declined to below 50 percent of the total population. A general exodus of farmer-loggers and farmer-miners began in earnest after World War II and continued steadily through the 1950s and 1960s. Additionally, new diesel and gasoline farming machinery replaced much of the human work force previously necessary to farm fields. Subsequently, the displaced workforce went north to new factory jobs.

The Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad also began to decline after World War II for several reasons. A flurry of road building activity after the war not only stimulated economic growth by improving transportation, it also created many jobs related to mining, shipping rock asphalt and gravel, and road construction. Competition from trucking that took advantage of an improving highway system and new roads built in part by Works Progress Administration workers, led to a decline in the role of the rail line.

Automobiles were increasingly part of the Big South Fork landscape beginning in the 1930s. The availability of private automobile transportation led to an increase in touring and in tourist related growth after World War II and a related service industry that also grew after the war.[542]

Significance

As noted previously, Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area is not currently listed in the National Register of Historic Places. Several properties located within the park have been determined eligible for listing by the State Historic Preservation Offices (SHPOs) of Tennessee and Kentucky, and are addressed under the relevant historic contexts (Agriculture, Industry, Transportation, and Recreation) addressed in earlier chapters of this HRS. There are no additional properties associated with the effects of war on the Big South Fork Region.

541. *Big South Fork Cultural Landscape Inventory*, 6 of 19.

542. McBride and McBride, VI-8.

Historic Context Six: Effects of Public Works on the Big South Fork Region

Introduction

The Big South Fork Basin has been directly and indirectly affected by public works efforts since the 1930s. The primary programs that have influenced life in the region have included the Civilian Conservation Corps in the 1930s; hydroelectric power generation by the Tennessee Valley Authority beginning in 1939; and flood control and park establishment efforts conducted by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers between the 1920s and 1990. Also, since the National Park Service assumed responsibility of the National River and Recreation Area, the park has continued to implement projects planned or initiated by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, as well as to realize other improvements in support of conservation of natural and cultural resources and enhancement of recreational opportunities for visitors.

Federal programs and activities began to influence life in the region during the late 1920s and 1930s as the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers became involved in public works to address the problem of river flooding following disastrous events throughout Appalachia and the Midwest in 1927 and along the Cumberland River in 1929. Extremely heavy rains in the central basin of the Mississippi River in 1926 led to overflowing of the river and its tributaries. The Mississippi breached its levees, and the Cumberland River reached record levels. The flood affected an area reaching from Kansas to Tennessee and from Illinois to Louisiana, causing millions of dollars of damage and the deaths of more than 200 people.

Many cities in Tennessee are located along major rivers, and thus vulnerable to flooding. The construction of reservoirs and dams, subject to breaks during severe flooding, added to these problems. In response to the flooding of the Cumberland River in the 1920s, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers published a report in 1930 titled *Cumberland River Survey for Navigation, Flood Control, Power Development and Irrigation*. This study outlined plans for damming portions of the Cumberland River and its tributaries. Before these plans could be realized, the Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA) was established in 1933 as an independent public agency tasked with increasing standards of living by controlling flooding and generating hydroelectric power through dam construction along the Tennessee River. Although the Cumberland River was under the administrative responsibility of the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, the TVA began to develop its own plans for damming the river, including the Big South Fork. The two agencies battled for control of the river for many years, delaying further action on either plan, as further discussed below.

The Civilian Conservation Corps

The New Deal and the CCC

By the early 1930s, unemployment in the United States had reached more than 25 percent; the Great Depression had left Americans tired, hungry, and without hope. In his speech accepting the nomination as the Democratic Party's

presidential candidate in the summer of 1932, Franklin Delano Roosevelt pledged himself and the country to a "new deal" for the American people. Immediately after his inauguration in March 1933, Roosevelt and his administration began to move forward with New Deal programs, which included passage of banking reform laws, emergency relief programs, work relief programs, and agricultural enhancement programs. The second New Deal, which evolved later in Roosevelt's presidency, included union protection programs, the Social Security Act, and programs to aid tenant farmers and migrant workers.

One of the first of the New Deal programs to be initiated was the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC), a public works program with two primary goals: conservation of the nation's natural resources and the creation of jobs for unemployed young men. The work of the CCC focused on soil conservation and reforestation, including the planting of millions of trees on land suffering from fires, natural erosion, or lumbering. CCC workers also dug canals and ditches, built wildlife shelters, stocked rivers and lakes, restored historic battlefields, and cleared beaches and campgrounds. By September 1935, more than 500,000 young men had lived and worked in CCC camps, most for six months to a year.

The camps were overseen by the U.S. Army, which gained experience in managing large numbers of recruits that later served as preparation for the massive enrollment of civilians to support military needs during World War II. From 1933 through 1939, approximately 2.5 million young men participated in the CCC.[543]

CCC Activities in the Big South Fork Region

CCC camps were established throughout the Upper Cumberland Plateau region beginning in 1933 to build roads and trails, plant trees, create fire breaks, and construct reservoirs and dams. Concurrent with CCC activities in the region was the decline of the logging industry. By the mid-1930s, much of the best timber had been logged from along the Big South Fork. In 1933, the Stearns Coal and Lumber Company donated nearly 12,000 acres of land to the State of Tennessee to be developed as a forest recreational area that eventually became Pickett State Park, set within Pickett State Forest, which was to be managed as a game reserve.[544]

In 1937, the Stearns Company, transferred its surface rights in approximately 47,000 acres in McCreary and Wayne Counties, Kentucky to the United States. The property was to be used as a national forest under the administration and management of the United States Forest Service, pursuant to the Weeks Act of 1911. This land became part of the Cumberland National Forest, now known as the Daniel Boone National Forest. The deed reserved the mineral rights to metals, coal, oil, gas and limestone associated with the land in perpetuity. Mineral extraction was subject to the rules and regulations prescribed by the Secretary of Agriculture in 1911. Stearns continued to operate underground mines and support facilities in cooperation with the Forest Service and in compliance with the 1911 Rules and Regulations until 1975.[545] The sale of the Stearns property to the U.S. Forest Service necessitated the movement of at least ninety lease holders from their properties and resulted in the dismantling or abandonment of a large number of mining and domestic resources.

543. John A. Salmond, *The Civilian Conservation Corps,* 1933–*1943* (Durham, North Carolina: Duke University Press, 1967), v.

544. Pickett State Park website (available at http://tnstateparks.com/parks/about/pickett; August 22, 2014); and McBride and McBride, VI-9.

545. McBride and McBride, VI-10, citing also Birdwell, 1990. The retention of mineral rights caused controversy when the Stearns Company attempted (unsuccessfully) to exert its rights to strip mine within the forest.

Both of the former Stearns holdings were the object of efforts conducted by the CCC to accommodate recreation and promote land and water conservation. Company 597, established in 1933 in Stearns, Kentucky, worked to develop Cumberland Falls State Park. A CCC sub-camp was established at Bell Farm in 1934, though not completed until 1937; this camp remained active until 1942. Its 40 to 50 workers spent weekdays at Bell Farm and weekends at Stearns. They constructed a road from Bell Farm to Fidelity in 1934 and served on fire duty in 1936.[546] The bunkhouse and the fire tower on Fork Ridge, in what is today Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, were built by Company 1471 from the Bell Farm CCC Camp (Figure 126 and Figure 127).[547] (Although the fire tower is no longer extant, the bunkhouse, as well as stone road culverts constructed by the CCC, remain in the park today.)

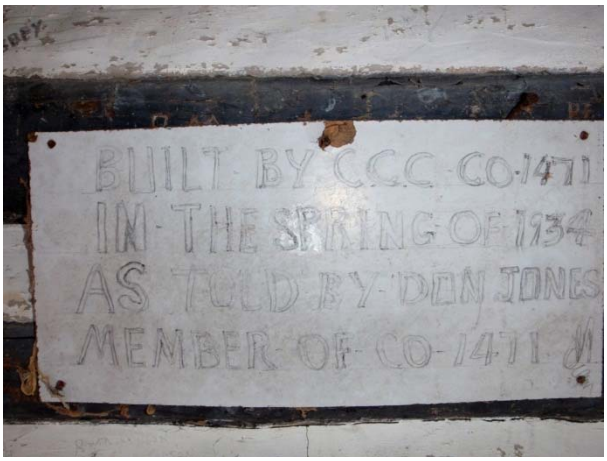


FIGURE 126. Sign at CCC bunkhouse in 2000. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 127. CCC bunk house near Fork Ridge in 2000. Source: National Park Service.

Another camp established on the land Stearns had given for the Pickett State Forest, was established in October 1934. This and Company 1463 based in a camp located 2-1/2 miles east of Wartburg helped to develop the area between 1934 and 1942.[548] The CCC constructed hiking trails, five rustic cabins, a recreation lodge, a ranger station and a 12-acre lake. A dam was built on Rock Creek and a fish hatchery was planned. Cattle were relocated from the drought-stricken western U.S. to Rock Creek. Today, the park memorializes and preserves the unique work of the CCC who first developed the park. The Pickett CCC Museum features interpretative exhibits and artifacts, depicting CCC contributions to Tennessee's parks and natural areas.

Another CCC camp was established at Allardt, but was abandoned in April 1934 when Camp Hill McAlister was established at Rock Creek. Approximately 200 men were housed at Camp Hill McAlister. They worked on the road leading to the campsite and constructed a water tank at the spring for the Store 14 lumber camp.

The CCC camps consisted of groups of young men organized into dozens of companies. The CCC companies engaged in construction tasks that included building hand-hewn stone drainage

546. McBride and McBride, VI-6, citing *McCreary County Record*, February 20, 1934, April 17, 1934, February 11, 1936, November 16, 1937, August 11, 1942, from Ellis, 1982; Birdwell 1990.

547. Former park archeologist Tom Des Jean has noted that few records exist for much of the CCC construction throughout the region of the Upper Cumberland Plateau, although some information about the CCC camps has been provided as part of oral histories. Tom Des Jean, correspondence with authors, March 2014.

548. McBride and McBride, VI-9.

culverts, overlooks, and wood-framed fire towers and cabins. The CCC camps included African Americans enrollees who worked as part of CCC companies active in the Cumberland Forest.[549] In 1935, the federal government also established the Works Progress Administration (WPA). The WPA offered a variety of paid jobs for America's unemployed work force. The WPA was involved locally in developing recreational sites at Cumberland (now Daniel Boone) National Forest and Pickett State Park in Tennessee.

The Tennessee Valley Authority and Its Effect on the Big South Fork Area

The TVA was established by Congress on May 18, 1933. President Franklin Roosevelt directed Congress to create "a corporation clothed with the power of government but possessed of the flexibility and initiative of private enterprise."[550] The TVA was formed to improve navigability on the Tennessee River, provide for flood control, plan reforestation and the improvement of marginal farm lands, assist in industrial and agricultural development, and aid national defense in the creation of government nitrate and phosphorus manufacturing facilities at Muscle Shoals, Alabama. Formation of this agency was to have significant effects on rural life in the Big South Fork region.

The Tennessee River extends through seven states and some of the poorest areas of the South. In the 1930s, much of the farmland in the Tennessee River Valley was in poor condition, with depleted and eroding soil as a result of decades of intensive farming. Only 10 percent of rural dwellers had electricity.[551] Section 23 of the TVA Act gave the TVA a mandate to improve "the economic and social well-being of the people living in said river basin." [552]

Between 1933 and 1944, sixteen dams were constructed by the agency. The dams consisted of two types: higher dams built on tributaries to the Tennessee River, which flooded large portions of land and created huge reservoirs, and lower, broader dams along the Tennessee River. These dams were designed to control navigation and flooding on the river. A system of locks allowed ships to pass from one dam to the next, opening a 650-mile channel from the Ohio River to Knoxville.[553]

In October 1933, construction began on the first of the TVA dams—the Norris Dam on the Clinch River. Named for Senator George Norris of Nebraska, author of the legislation that created TVA, the Norris Dam, when completed in 1936, stretched 1,860 feet across the Clinch River to form the Norris Reservoir. The town of Norris was a planned community constructed nearby to house construction workers. In the 1930s, the TVA established demonstration public parks at several locations on Norris Reservoir; these parks later became the nucleus of Tennessee's state park system.

In November 1933, work began on Wheeler Dam, named for Joseph Wheeler, Confederate general

549. Although professing to follow non-discriminatory hiring practices, the CCC was hindered by a rigid segregation policy and hiring quotas. African American participation was set at 10 percent of membership by 1936, roughly the proportion of African Americans in the population. However, African American communities were disproportionately affected by the worsened economic conditions. Furthermore, after the summer of 1935, camps were not racially integrated. African Americans came to the Big South Fork area to serve in segregated camps specified for African American enrollees. Tom Des Jean, correspondence with authors, March 2014, and the New Deal Network website, accessed on April 14, 2014.
550. "From the New Deal to a New Century," accessed at http://www.tva.com/abouttva/history.htm.
551. Ibid.
552. "TVA: Electricity for All - Rural Electrification," accessed at http://newdeal.feri.org/tva/tva10.htm.
553. "TVA: Electricity for All – The Dams and Their Builders," accessed at http://newdeal.feri.org/tva/tva09.htm.

and later U.S. Senator. Also completed in 1936, this dam stretches 6,342 feet across the Tennessee River and impounds Wheeler Reservoir. Wheeler is one of nine reservoirs that creates a navigable waterway on the Tennessee River from Knoxville, Tennessee, to Paducah, Kentucky, and helps to cover the Muscle Shoals, rock formations that had previously blocked navigation on the Tennessee River.

By June 1934, more than 9,000 people were working for the TVA. Electricity generated by TVA dams helped transform life in the region, providing lighting and modern appliances that made life easier and farms more productive. The TVA also created new jobs for residents of the region.

TVA electrical power was introduced to the Big South Fork area through a series of small cooperative power companies organized as early as 1939, although much of the region would not be electrified until after World War II.[554]

The TVA occupied two former World War I nitrate plants in Muscle Shoals. By 1934, the TVA had adapted the plants for the development and manufacture of phosphate-based fertilizers. These fertilizers were then introduced on test farms at county-level soil-conservation associations, where private farmers could see the benefits of using the fertilizers to enrich the soil.[555] The TVA also promoted and educated farmers on land management techniques, such as rotating crops to allow farm land to lay fallow and replenish soil nutrients, and terracing hillside farms. The program also encouraged the dissemination of information and knowledge among farmers.[556]

With the entrance of the United States into World War II in December 1941, the demand for production of aluminum for airplanes and armaments led to an increasing need for electricity. In response, the TVA began one of the largest hydropower construction programs undertaken in the United States. At the program's peak in 1942, twelve hydroelectric projects and a steam plant were under construction, with design and construction employment reaching 28,000.[557] By the 1950s, the TVA had become the nation's largest electricity supplier. By the 1960s, the condition of the region's farms and forests had greatly improved due to the programs and technical support afforded by the TVA.

U.S. Army Corps of Engineers Planning and Construction along the Big South Fork

Planning and Proposals, 1930s–1950s

In addition to the TVA, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers has been involved in addressing the need for navigational and flood control improvements in the Cumberland River watershed since 1881. Based on a report to Congress, navigation of the Cumberland River was improved in 1892.[558] A dam was later completed 26 miles below Burnside, the head of navigation of the Cumberland in 1911, rendering year-round navigation of the Cumberland to Burnside possible.

However, following severe flooding in the late 1920s, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers began to consider potential solutions to avert future threats to human life along the Cumberland and its primary tributaries, such as Big South Fork. One of the products of the investigation was a set of aerial photographs of the entire Cumberland River and related maps created in 1929–1930 (Figure 128).[559]

554. Tennessee Valley Website, accessed April 14, 2014
555. Valley Bloom, Viewed from the Tennessee Valley Authority website on April 14, 2014.
556. Scientists of the Soil, Viewed from the Tennessee Valley Authority website on April 14, 2014.
557. Ibid.
558. Ibid.
559. Des Jean, *Administrative History*, Part I, Legislative History.

These initial investigations were followed by the "308" study of the Cumberland River Basin, conducted in 1933–1935, that included plans for hydroelectric power projects at two impoundment locations along the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River: the Devil's Jump Dam and the Helenwood Dam. Both would be constructed as flood control dams and would include associated impoundment lakes.[560] Devil's Jump is located upstream of Blue Heron, and is visible from the tram bridge. Helenwood is located along Clear Fork east of the park near its southeastern boundary.

Two additional studies followed in 1935–1937 that addressed the potential construction of flood control dams on the Cumberland River and tributaries, including the proposed dam at Devil's Jump. Flood control on the Ohio River was also discussed, with plans for upstream reservoirs.[561] The plans were abandoned when the country began to mobilized to participate in World War II.

With the entry of the United States into World War II, another program led to changes in the region. Beginning in October 1942, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers rapidly began to acquire land in the Oak Ridge area of Anderson County, Tennessee, southeast of what was to become Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area. The purpose of government land acquisition at Oak Ridge was to support the Manhattan Project and development of the atomic bomb.

In 1946, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers refocused their efforts to address flood control and hydroelectric power generation in association with several rivers systems, including the Ohio and Mississippi. They also presented a general development plan for the entire Cumberland River. Dams at Devil's Jump and Helenwood were discussed in these studies, but no recommendations were made.[562]

After studies of the Ohio and Mississippi River systems were completed, feasibility studies of the Big South Fork Reservoirs proceeded in the 1950s under the general plan for the development of the Cumberland River Basin (Figure 129 and Figure 130). A U.S. Army Corps of Engineer Type I "framework" study of the Ohio River Basin was authorized by a resolution adopted on May 16, 1955, by the U.S. Senate Committee on Public Works, which identified potential development sites including the Devil's Jump Reservoir.[563]

Resolutions by the Committees on Public Works of the House and Senate, adopted on March 12, 1949, and again on April 18, 1951, ordered the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers to submit a report reviewing all studies and information on the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River. This report, submitted to the 87th Congress in 1961, concluded that the hydroelectric power potential of the Big South Fork could best be developed through the construction of a single high dam at the Devil's Jump site.[564] Beginning in 1962, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers sought to gain funding for the construction of a 200 million dollar, 483-foot-high hydroelectric dam on the Big South Fork at Devil's Jump. The dam was approved for construction five times by the Senate and rejected each time by the House Public Works Committee.[565]

560. Ibid., citing House Docs. 259 & 306, 74th Congress 1st Session). Interagency Report cites "308" study of the Cumberland River Basin as House Doc. 38, 73rd Congress, 1st Sess.
561. U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, *Big South Fork, Cumberland River, Kentucky and Tennessee, Interagency* Report *to Committee on Public Works United States Senate* (U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, U.S. Department of the Interior, U.S. Department of Agriculture, December 1969). See also U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, *Big South Fork,* Cumberland *River (Kentucky–Tennessee) Interagency Field Task Group Report* (U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, U.S. Department of the Interior, U.S. Department of Agriculture), December 1969.
562. A development of the Cumberland River Basin was presented in House Document 761, 79th Congress (1945–1947). *Interagency Report.*
563. Des Jean, *Administrative History.*
564. Ibid., citing the document House Document No. 38; reviewed and published as H.Doc. 175 87th Cong., 1st Sess.
565. Des Jean, *Administrative History*.

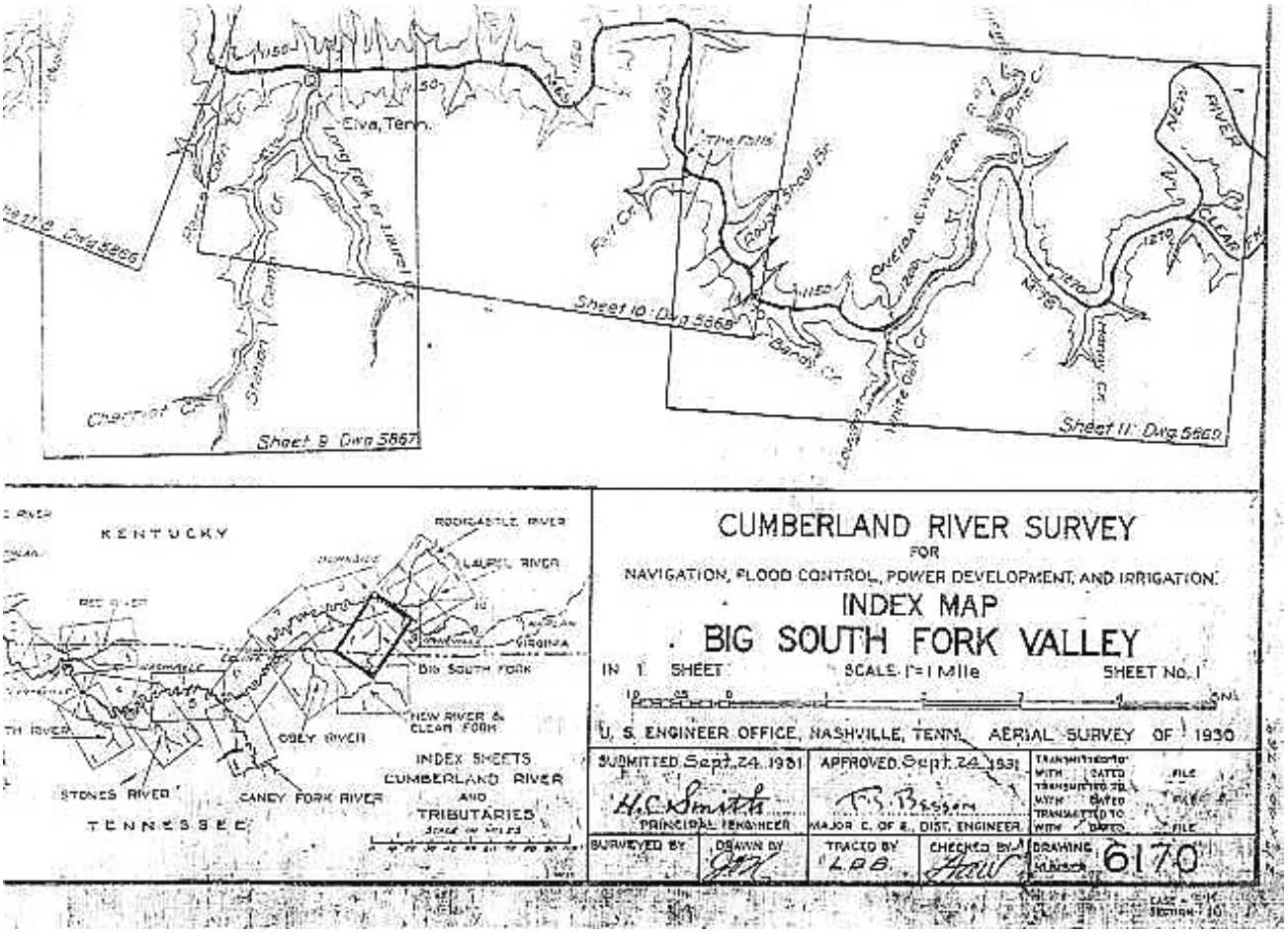


FIGURE 128. Reservoir high water map based on U.S. Army Corps of Engineers aerial photographs, 1929–1930. Source: Tom Des Jean, *Administrative History of Big South Fork National River and Recreational Area* (2010).

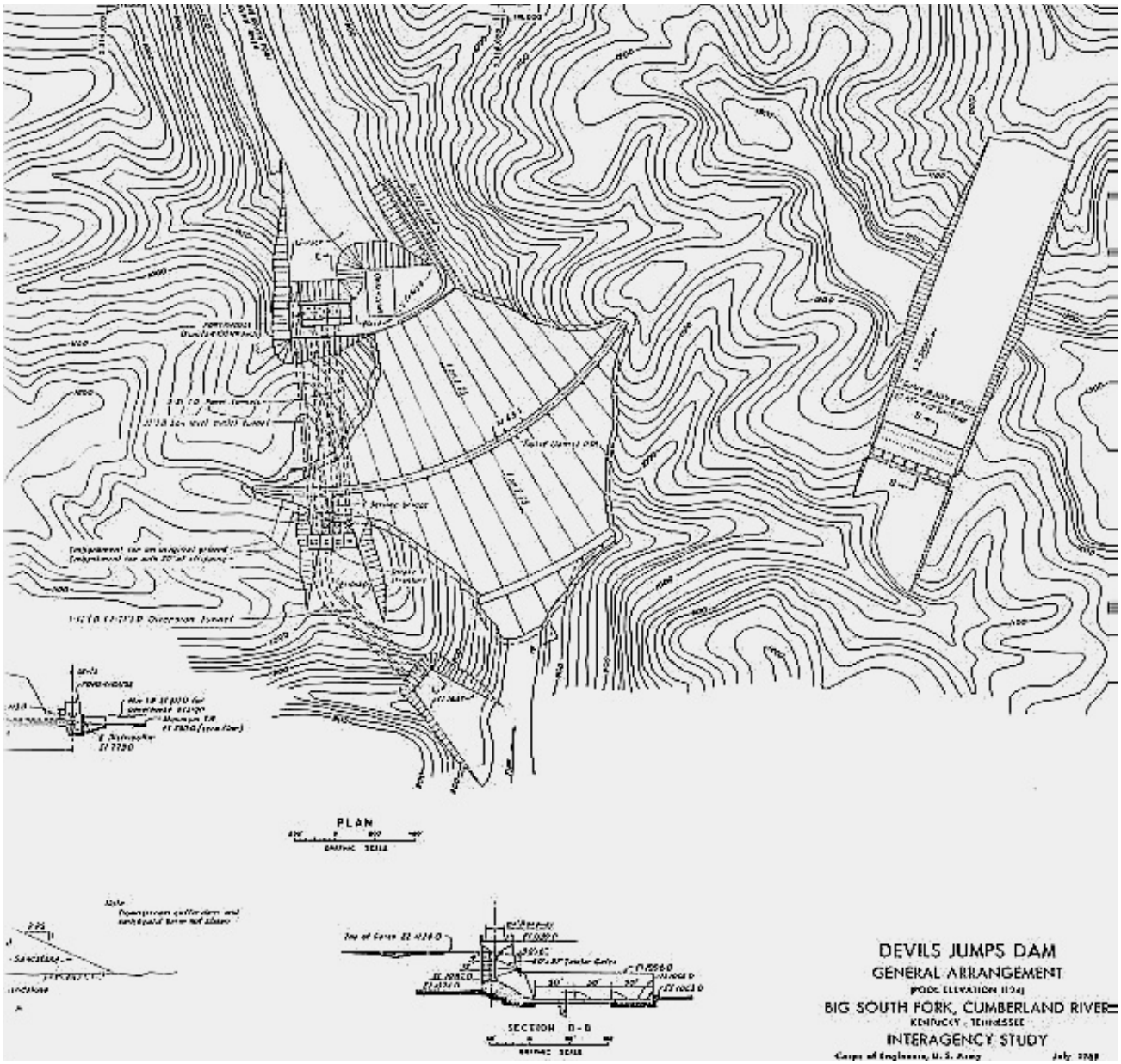


FIGURE 129. U.S. Army Corps of Engineers scaled drawing of the proposed Devil's Jump Dam and Reservoir, 1969. Source: Des Jean, *Administrative History of Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area*, 2010.

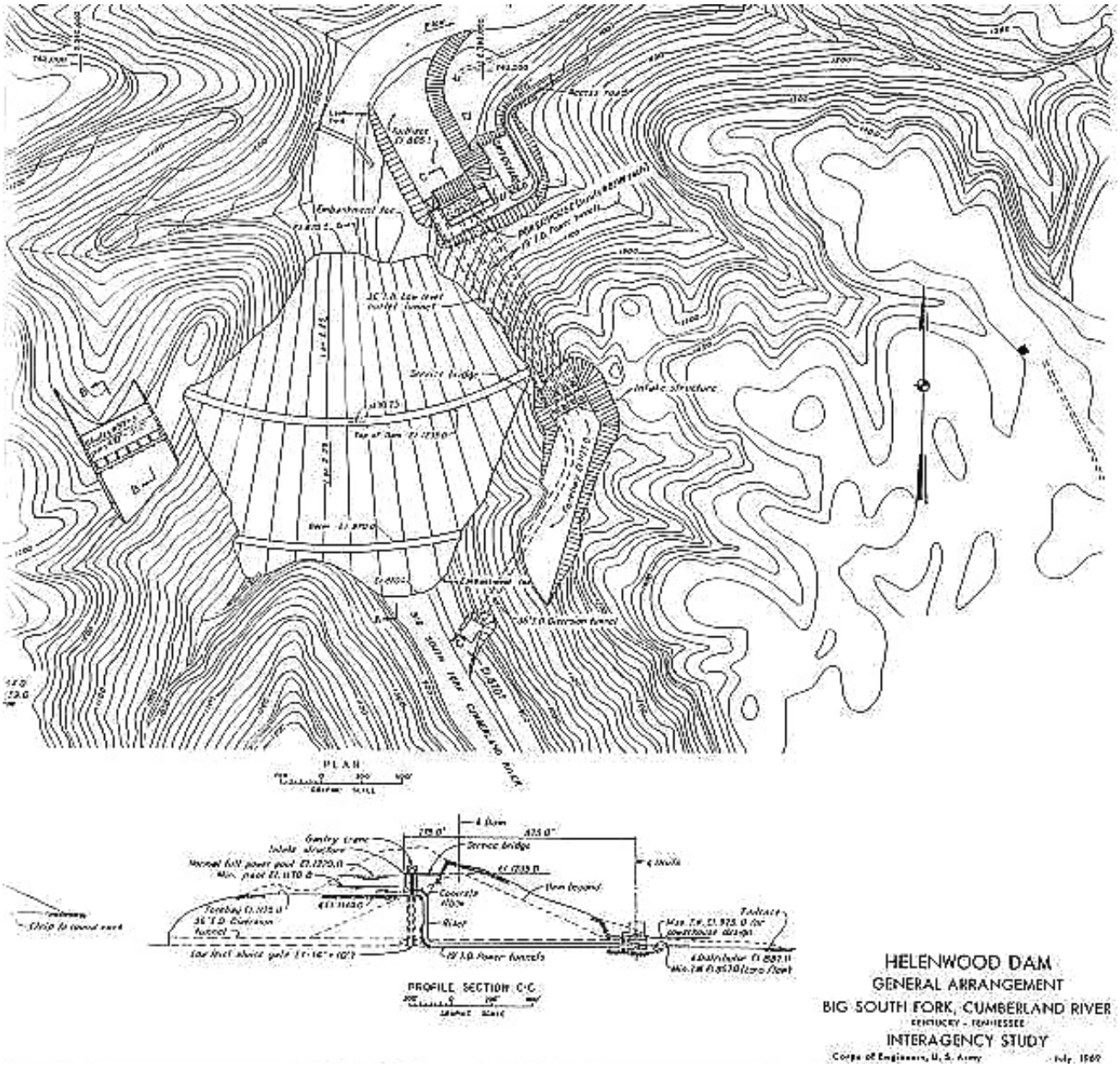


FIGURE 130. U.S. Army Corps of Engineers scaled drawing of the proposed Helenwood Reservoir Dam, 1969. Source: Des Jean, *Administrative History of Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area*, 2010.

Establishment of Cumberland National Forest (Later Daniel Boone National Forest)

Establishment of the Cumberland National Forest in 1937 reflected more than thirty-five years of legislation that began when President Benjamin Harrison approved passage of the Forest Reserve Act of 1891. Based on this act, 13 million acres of land was placed into forest reserves; the act also outlined the need and benefits of establishing additional federal reserves to protect and manage forest lands.[566] This was followed by the Sundry Civil Appropriations Act of June 4, 1897, which established management provisions and monies for obtaining the recommended additional reserves. By 1900, 45 million acres had been targeted for inclusion within federal forest reserves.

Additional Congressional legislation passed on May 25, 1900, and March 4, 1907, appropriated funding for the investigation and study of forest land in the Appalachian Mountains to determine the feasibility of purchasing land and establishing a forest reserve in the region. As a result of these studies, the U.S. Forest Service identified several challenges inherent in creating a forest reserve within Appalachia, such as the rough mountainous terrain, the high speculative cost of land, the strong family ties of residents to the land, the difficulty of control and management of river and tributary stream systems, and land rights that made legal acquisition of the land complex, as many people could claim ownership of a single parcel.[567]

Despite these challenges, the potential for establishing a Cumberland Mountain forest reserve was further supported by passage of the federal Act of March 1, 1911, also known as the Weeks Act, which allocated money for examination and acquisition of land located on headwaters and navigable streams with the purpose of protecting water quality. At the same time, the State of Kentucky passed enabling legislation on March 17, 1914, which granted the federal government the right to acquire the land needed for the establishment of a National Forest Reserve in the high mountain region of Kentucky, specifically 900,000 acres at the headwaters of the Cumberland River watershed.

In 1930, Cumberland Purchase Unit, an area encompassing 1.3 million acres, was established along the headwaters of the Cumberland River. The federal government immediately began procedures to acquire land within the unit area, although funding was not made available until 1933. Between 1933 and 1935, 44.5 million dollars in funding was allocated for the acquisition of this land. At the same time, CCC camps were established to control forest fires and develop site improvements such as roads, forest fire lookout towers, overlooks, trails, telephone lines, and campgrounds within the reserve area. In 1937, the Stearns Company sold 47,000 acres in McCreary and Wayne Counties, Kentucky, to the federal government for inclusion in the forest reserve. On February 23, 1937, President Franklin Delano Roosevelt signed the proclamation establishing the Cumberland National Forest.

Local residents initiated a grass roots movement to rename the reserve after Daniel Boone, the Kentucky pioneer and hero in the 1960s. The State of Kentucky passed a resolution urging the Forest Service to consider renaming the site. In 1966, President Lyndon Johnson signed a proclamation renaming the reserve Daniel Boone National Forest. In 1967, the forest reserve was expanded to include the Redbird Purchase Unit, a 60,000-acre noncontiguous parcel of land located due east and acquired from the Red Bird Timber Company.[568] Recreational facilities were expanded in several regional parks and federal reserves during the 1960s. At Daniel Boone National Forest, the new facilities included campgrounds, a picnic area,

566. *National Forest History*, June 2012.
567. Summary of report by forest officer R. S. Bruce of the Forest Service, 1907, cited in *National Forest History*, June 2012.
568. "A History of the Daniel Boone National Forest," Viewed from the Daniel Boone National Forest website on April 11, 2014.

trails, and an overlook at Yahoo Falls and Alum Ford.

Other federal projects that impacted the area included flood control projects associated with the Pine Creek watershed. In 1964, a plan developed by the Department of Agriculture was approved for the Pine Creek watershed in Scott County under Public Law 566. The Pine Creek watershed includes the urban center of Oneida, Tennessee, and is located southeast of Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area. This plan provided for conservation land treatment, four floodwater retarding structures, and 32,000 feet of stream channel improvement. One of these—multi-purpose structure no. 4—had been constructed and was supplying water to Oneida, Tennessee, by the time the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers published an interagency report in 1969 addressing concerns regarding flooding along the Big South Fork River. At the same time, land acquisition for a second floodwater retarding features—multi-purpose structure no. 1— was nearing completion. This dam was to be used for flood prevention and to create associated recreational features and facilities, including a park. A grant under Section 214 of the Appalachian Redevelopment Act of 1965 was received to facilitate completion of the watershed project.[569]

A Wild and Scenic River

In 1963, the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation identified the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River as a potential Wild and Scenic River. This designation was studied further by the interagency Southeast Task Group for Wild Rivers Study of 1964. The task group included the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation, National Park Service, Bureau of Sport Fisheries and Wildlife, U.S. Forest Service, Commonwealth of Kentucky, and State of Tennessee. The findings of this Task Group were compiled in several unpublished preliminary reports. The final report, published in May 1964 by the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation, stated that a wild and scenic river would be the best use of the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River and its resources.

In light of changing public attitudes toward the creation of a natural and recreational area, Kentucky Senator John Sherman Cooper, a proponent of the Devil's Jump dam, submitted legislation for another study. This study, authorized by Section 218 of Public Law 90-483, directed that two concurrent studies be conducted on the Big South Fork: an update of earlier U.S. Army Corps of Engineers studies; and an interagency task group study to be prepared jointly by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, National Park Service, and the U.S. Department of Agriculture to investigate all alternatives for the Big South Fork River Basin. The resulting *Interagency Field Task Group Report* (1969) identified six "feasible and appropriate" alternative uses for the area: the creation of a reservoir and associated recreational uses; designation as a national forest, a Wild and Scenic River, a national recreation area, a national park, or a national river and recreation area.[570]

Despite the findings of the interagency report, legislation for construction of the dams was still in play. The Devil's Jump Dam and Reservoir project was considered in studies authorized under Section 206 of the Appalachian Redevelopment Act of 1965. By this time, however, environmental groups had begun to challenge the wisdom of constructing dams on the nation's waterways. After lengthy debates and numerous appeals by the Tennessee Citizens for Wilderness Planning, under the direction of William and Lianne Russell, the Bluegrass Chapter of the Sierra Club, and Justice William O. Douglas, among others, the Devil's Jump dam project was reconsidered, and the area's potential as a Wild and Scenic River investigated in earnest. Advocates of this approach were prepared to legally challenge the proposed Devil's Jump dam project; however, soon after planning for a dam in the Red River Gorge of Kentucky was abandoned, the Big South Fork was selected to be preserved as a part of the Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, one of

569. *Interagency Report*, 4.

570. *Interagency Field Task Group Report.*

the "feasible and appropriate uses" identified by the Interagency Field Task Group Report in 1969.[571]

According to Senator Howard H. Baker, Jr.:

> . . . as a member of congress, my father, even before he was elected to this, was a great advocate of the Tennessee power company's plans for two dams. He did not represent them, Tennessee Electric and Power, but was very familiar with what they had in mind, one dam at the confluence of New River and Clear Fork and one at Devil's Jump. He was always in favor of that and the Tennessee and Kentucky delegations repeatedly entered legislation to authorize construction. By the time I was elected to the Senate it seemed clear to me that was not going anywhere. I. . .do recall that John Cooper, Thruston Morton, Sen. Gore, Sr., and I, had a meeting shortly after I was elected to the Senate, that we decided no realistic chance to get funds for the high dam and the other dam and we should shift our focus. Cooper was the ranking Republican on the Senate Works Committee and I was the most junior member. Morton and Gore concurred that we should ask the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers to do a survey of the highest and best use of the gorge. That really was the beginning of the Big South Fork park. When we agreed to that, others, mostly because they were happy to not have to tell us no on the dam appropriations, decided it was a good idea and we passed a resolution asking for the study by the Army Corps of Engineers. That was the beginning.
>
> [The] . . . decision making rested almost entirely on the Tennessee-Kentucky delegations, and especially the Senate delegations. I believe that John Sherman Cooper probably deserves more credit for pursuing this than anybody else in the U.S. He was from Somerset, knew the area and the people, and felt that a park, or at least a dedicated area, was what we should pursue . . . .
>
> The principal opponent, strangely, was the Stearns Coal and Lumber Company, which owned a great deal of land in Tennessee and Kentucky, including great tracts in what is now the Big South Fork park. Irony of it was, I have represented the Stearns Company in private life and was absolutely floored when they indicated to me that they thought this was a bad idea, but they did. And in that case I said, "thank you for your views" but that is not what we are going to do. They were only one example.[572]

Establishment of Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area (1974)

A bill and accompanying map to authorize the National River and Recreation Area were submitted to Congress and passed as part of the Water Resources Development Act of 1972. In 1973, the act was vetoed, however, after passing Congress. After again being put to a vote in 1974, the Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area was authorized by Section 108 of the Water Resources Development Act of March 7, 1974 (PL-93-251).

When Senator Baker was asked why Congress gave the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers the mandate and funding to purchase and create the Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, he noted that it may have been the only time that this approach was taken, and that:

> It was not a matter of high principle, it was a matter that the delegation and I could not get it out of the Interior committee; and as you know, you have to get it out of committee before it can reach the floor, given ordinary circumstances. . . .That was a unique way to do it, and may be the only time it was ever done that way. But it was not done as a matter of grand legislative strategy but because it was the only way we could get it done, that we could get it out of the Public Works Committee, which has jurisdiction over the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers. We could not get it out of the Interior Committee. So it worked.[573]

571. Des Jean, *Administrative History*.
572. Des Jean, *Administrative History*, citing 2005 Oral History, Tape No. BISO-43506.
573. Ibid., citing Baker Tape# BISO-43506.

Regarding the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, the Senator noted:

> . . . I have always suspected that they wanted to do a good job and a quick job to enhance the opportunity that they might do something else some future time. It was new for them but that turned out to be an advantage and they had no other competing projects of a similar type. So they really dug in and did it in a hurry and I think they deserve high marks for it.[574]

The enabling legislation that established the Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, describes the purpose as:

> . . . conserving and interpreting an area containing unique cultural, historic, geologic, fish and wildlife, archaeologic, scenic and recreational values, preserving as a natural free-flowing stream the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River, major portions of its Clear Fork and New River stems, and portions of their various tributaries for the benefit and enjoyment of present and future generations, the preservation of the natural integrity of the scenic gorges and valleys and the development of the area's potential for healthful outdoor recreation.[575]

Today, the Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area website notes that "the scenic, ecologic, and historic values of the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River have created an area of unique beauty with outstanding outdoor recreational opportunities."

Big South Fork was the first unit of the National Park System to receive the dual National River and National Recreation Area designation. Both were relatively new park typologies established in the early 1970s in response to the environmental movement and federal policies calling for an expansion of the National Park Service to offer a wider range of amenities for the public. The establishment of the park reflected a decision that preservation and recreational enhancement were appropriate goals for the area—preservation to ensure continuation of the dynamic natural processes that have shaped the landscape, and recreation to accommodate demand in a more active way than areas established primarily for preservation of natural and historical resources.[576] Thus the establishment of Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area also suggested that the goals of preservation and recreation are compatible.

The park was initially administered by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers; the agency was responsible for establishing campsites, picnic sites, canoe access areas, equestrian use areas, and guest lodges and building roads and trails for hiking, bicycling, and equestrian use. After these recreational amenities were completed, the park would be transferred to the National Park Service. As part of their efforts, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers transformed the Blue Heron mine site into an interpretive center, restoring features of the complex including the large tipple across the river. (See also Historic Context Two: Extractive and Manufacturing Industries, Including Salt and Oil Drilling, Coal Mining, and Logging.)

After passage of PL-93-251, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers initiated a series of public hearings to explain to the local citizenry the impacts of the project on life in the area, including the eminent land condemnation and purchase that would occur. Representatives from several agencies attended these meetings, including the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, the National Park Service, and members of Congress from Kentucky and Tennessee. As work proceeded to develop the precise boundaries of the federal park, lines shifted in some cases as legislators attempted to "… provide adequate real estate to do what the act calls for; on the other hand, it is not necessary to acquire particularly, farms and residences that are

574. Des Jean, *Administrative History,* citing Russell Tape No. BISO-43516.

575. PL 93-251. Enabling legislation, March 7, 1974.

576. Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area web site, accessed at www.nps.gov/biso/parkmgmt/index.htm.

not necessary for the purpose of the act."[577] Eventually, land for the park was secured from both willing sellers as well as through eminent domain. Many local residents remained distrustful of the federal government due to the role that the TVA, U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, National Park Service, and U.S. Forest Service had had in managing large areas of land and displacing families from their ancestral homes. Today, for example, 80 percent of McCreary County, Kentucky, is owned by the federal government. Although the park has contributed benefits to residents, their concerns about federal ownership remain due to the diminished potential for economic growth and expansion of the tax base.

The 1974 Enabling Legislation was later amended by Section 184 of the Water Resources Development Act of 1976 (PL-94-587). The authority to prepare a Master Plan for the park was granted with the approval of the General Design Memorandum and the Final Environmental Impact Statement (1976).

The Senate Public Works Committee of 1972 developed maps identifying proposed boundaries and identifying the two areas of the park that would be managed in distinct ways: "Gorge Areas" and "Adjacent Areas." However, during implementation, the boundaries were adjusted and redrawn. Two objectives noted in defining the boundaries were to provide adequate land for the purpose of the park, and to avoid acquiring private property (i.e., farms and residences) not needed to create the park. As noted by Col. H. J. Hatch of the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, ". . . these two purposes are operating in opposition from time to time. So granted, it is a continued exercise of compromise."[578] Parcels of land belonging to multiple individual landowners were excluded from the park, although Hatch sought to address citizens' concerns over possible preferential treatment given to some landowners.

The master planning process for the park began in 1978 and was completed in 1983 (MP 2-2), under the direction of the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, Nashville District. As the lead agency, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers undertook the construction of developments outlined in the 1983 Master Plan.[579] To determine the best routes for trails, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers had surveyors identify scenic, cultural, and geologic areas, including 2,900 points of interest; those locations were used to plan the trail system for the park. The TVA was then engaged to build trails within the designated corridors.[580]

While some of the planned construction was completed, other features were not realized during the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers' tenure, including the Bear Creek Kentucky Lodge and Horse Camp, the Station Camp Horse Camp, and the Middle Creek Horse Camp. The trail system and roads were also not completely finished according to the Master Plan; portions of the John Muir Trail, for example, are still under construction by the National Park Service as of 2014.

Other issues that remained unresolved during this period included the status of federal government responsibility for the waters entering the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River from the severely polluted New River, and the status of the Oneida and Western Railroad right-of-way, both of which were targeted for additional study as mandated by PL93-251. Several tracts of land condemned for purchase by the federal government were never acquired by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers and became part of a reservation known as Deferred Lands. The National Park Service has worked to address the future of these parcels as part of a Lands Protection Plan.[581]

Amendments to the 1974 Water Resources Development Act passed in 1990 included authorization for the transfer of authority to the

577. Col. H. J. Hatch, Oneida Public Meeting, 1975, 69, quoted in Des Jean, *Administrative History,* 8.
578. Des Jean, *Administrative History,* citing Col. H. J. Hatch, Oneida Public Meeting, 1975, 69.
579. Miller, Wihry, Lee, Inc. USACE Master Plan, 1983.
580. Tom Des Jean, correspondence with the authors, March 2014.
581. Des Jean, *Administrative History,* 11.

National Park Service, as well as 2 million dollars of additional funding to complete park development. The amendments also included "administrative access" to the gorge of the park by motorized vehicles, among other items.

The administration of the park was formally turned over to the National Park Service in a summer ceremony in August 1991. Since that time, the National Park Service has continued to develop trail systems throughout the gorge and plateau, while working to protect and conserve surviving evidence of pioneer life and industrial activity, preserving and protecting this unique, wild and scenic river and its environs, while making possible its use for recreation.

Significance

As noted in other context chapters, Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area is not currently listed in the National Register of Historic Places. Several properties located within the park have been determined eligible for listing by the State Historic Preservation Offices (SHPOs) of Tennessee and Kentucky, and are addressed under the relevant historic contexts (i.e., Agricultural, Industry, Transportation, and Recreation, as addressed in earlier chapters of this Historic Resource Study). There are no properties within the park associated with this historic context within the Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area.

Historic Resources of Big South National River and Recreation Area

This chapter provides more detailed information about the character, configuration, and history of each of the historic cultural resources located within Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area that have been assessed as part of this HRS. The resources are organized in accordance with the contexts with which they are most closely linked. The resource descriptions are illustrated with maps and photographs wherever possible.

Agricultural Context Resources

Surviving Farm, Community, and Burial Resources

The Oscar Blevins, Lora Blevins, and Litton/Slaven Farmsteads are the only historic farmsteads within the Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area that survive with integrity. These farmsteads are all located on the plateau. They contain buildings and structures representative of vernacular Appalachian architecture, and landscape features resulting from evolving settlement patterns during the late nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The cultural landscapes and individual features of each of these farmsteads are described in detail below.

There are also several additional farmstead properties located within the park that continue to reflect historic associations with early settlement and nineteenth and twentieth century agriculture at Big South Fork, but have lost overall integrity. Aboveground evidence of these properties is also described below.

Oscar Blevins Farmstead

The Oscar Blevins Farmstead extends over a 23.6-acre area immediately south of West Bandy Creek Road in Fentress County, Tennessee. The property is located northwest of the Bandy Creek Visitor Center and can be accessed from Old Leatherwood Ford Road, or from the Oscar Blevins Loop Trail that extends for 3.7 miles between a trailhead near the visitor center, the Lora Blevins Farmstead and Katy Blevins Cemetery, the Oscar Blevins Farm, and Bandy Creek. The park offers visitors a printed trail guide, "A Guide to the Oscar Blevins Loop Trail" at the visitor center that provides interpretive information about cultural and natural resources located along the route.

The Oscar Blevins Farmstead is a historic vernacular landscape. It contains many extant features typical of an Upper Cumberland Plateau farm: five log and wood frame structures, including a log cabin (circa 1879), dwelling (circa 1950), corn crib (circa 1925–1935), outbuilding/smokehouse/shed (1950), and barn (1963), as well as a root cellar foundation, fields and pasture, orchard trees, black walnut trees, fences and fencelines, a driveway, feeding bin, hay bins, and a spring site. The farmstead landscape is characterized by gently rolling upland hills. Approximately 10 acres of cleared and open land serve as the setting for the circa 1879 log house and circa 1925–1935 corn crib as well as the three other structures and numerous small-scale landscape features. The earlier log house and the corn crib are located in the south central portion of the clearing, while the circa 1950 structures are situated on the northwestern end of the site. The

1963 barn is positioned at the southeast corner of the clearing. Each of these structures is sited along the entrance drive. Split rail fencing edges the driveway to the south, framing a large horse pasture. Additional pastures are located east of the 1950 farmhouse and the barn. The pasture east of the farmhouse contains a row of apple trees. Walnut trees edge the driveway. The unfinished root cellar is located in the forested area surrounding the clearing. Within the woodland southwest of the barn is a spring (Figure 131 and Figure 132).



FIGURE 131. View southeast to features of the Oscar Blevins Farmstead from an adjacent pasture, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

The Oscar Blevins Farmstead is a well-preserved example of a late nineteenth to early twentieth century plateau agricultural complex designed to meet the needs of subsistence farming. The composition and arrangement of the features reflect regional settlement patterns, while the structures are representative of local vernacular architecture. The farmstead exhibits the change in settlement patterns that resulted from the emigration of settlers to the plateau to afford better access to markets and transportation routes. Despite the range of construction dates (1879 to 1970) represented, the existing buildings reflect local trends in design, materials, and workmanship. Although several of the older structures were modified over time to meet evolving needs, the property exhibits all aspects of integrity. Alterations to the structures and additional outbuildings on the site convey the evolution of the site as a working post-bellum farmstead. The historic landscape also retains integrity of setting and feeling, and continues to convey the sense of solitude associated with an Appalachian farmstead. The Oscar Blevins Farmstead survives with sufficient integrity to convey its historic associations as a cultural landscape and appears eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places either individually or as part of a larger historic district.

Brief History of the Oscar Blevins Farmstead. Jonathan Blevins (1779–1863) was the first recorded member of the Blevins family to settle in the Big South Fork area. Born in present day West Virginia, Blevins traveled through the Cumberland Gap to the Big South Fork region. Blevins is indicated as living within the Parch Corn Creek area by 1815. The Blevins family appears to have married into the Smith family, resulting in their relocation to the No Business Creek community. He later moved to Station Camp Creek, where he lived for the rest of his life.

In 1879, John "Jack" Blevins, great-grandson to Jonathan Blevins who identified himself as a preacher, built the east portion (pen) of the existing older log house.[582] According to an agricultural production survey taken in 1880, the Blevins property was comprised of 200 acres. Of these, 20 were in cultivation, while 24 were devoted to raising hogs and other livestock. The remaining acres were not planted but were likely used for hunting, timbering, and grazing.[583]

582. The term "pen," when referring to log construction, indicates the number of rooms within the structure. Thus, a single-pen log building would consist of one room. Often, pens were constructed as additions at the end gables of existing structures, with a separate exterior entrance associated with each pen.

583. McBride and McBride, V-34.

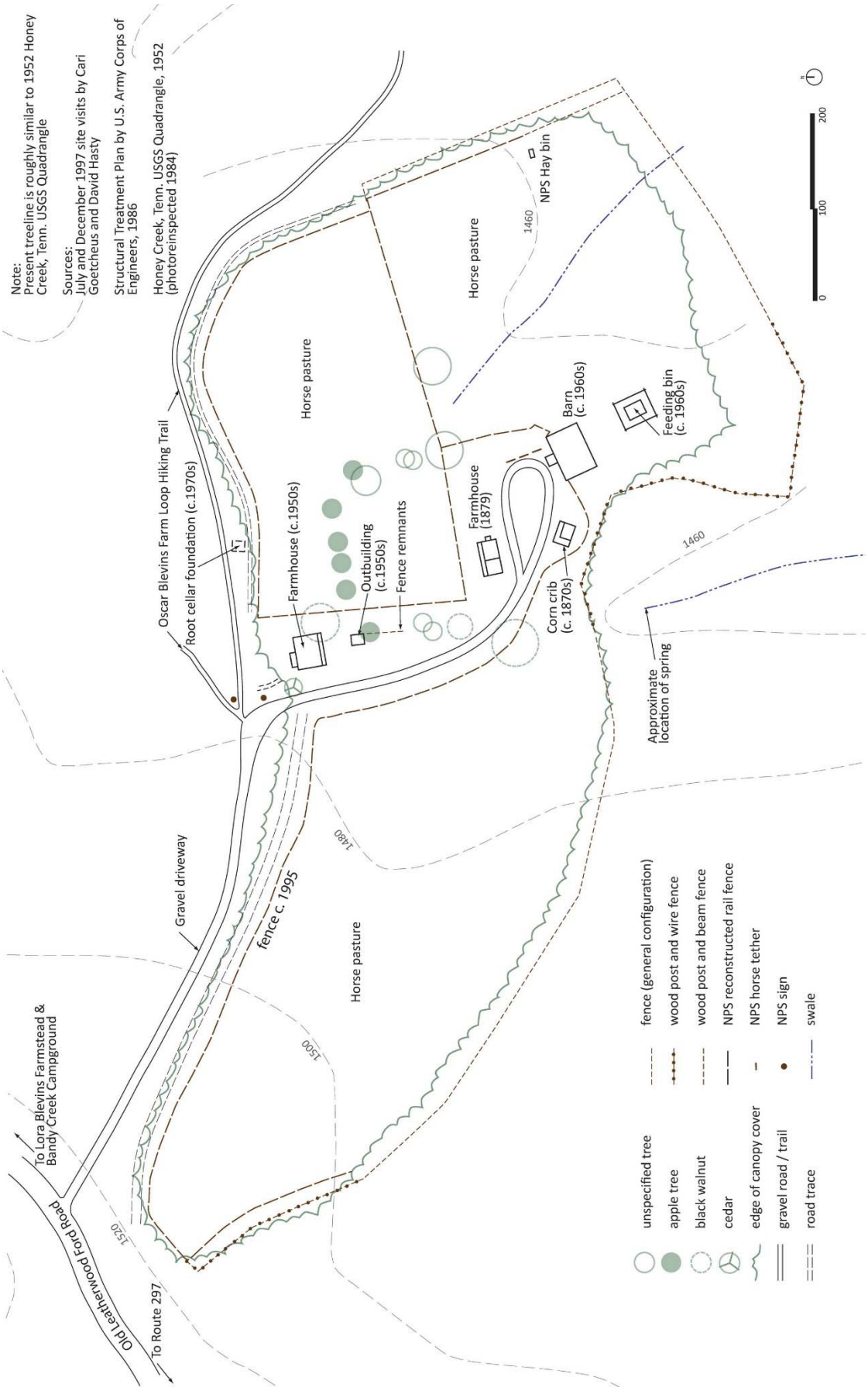


FIGURE 132. Site plan of the Oscar Blevins Farmstead, Source: Map developed by Sonia Brenner for WJE.

The west pen of the log house was added in 1925; it was also around this time that the corn crib is thought to have been constructed.

In 1940, Jack Blevins' son Oscar acquired the farm. In 1950, he began construction of the new wood-framed farmhouse, located on higher ground at the north end of the property and a small wood-framed outbuilding immediately to its south.[584] The original cabin was repurposed for use as a barn.[585] In 1963, a large timber-framed barn with plank siding was constructed to the southeast of the farmhouse. Rooms at the east end of the farmhouse were constructed in 1968. Construction was initiated on the cut sandstone root cellar in the 1973; however, it was never completed due to the plans in process to establish a federal park at Big South Fork.[586]

The Blevins family moved from the farmstead after the property was acquired by the federal government in 1981.[587] Since that time, the property has been used to pasture horses. To support this use, the National Park Service has constructed various feeding bins, hitching posts, and split-rail fences. Other alterations to the site since 1981 have included establishment of the Oscar Blevins Loop Trail and the removal of a shed addition to the circa 1879 cabin.[588]

In 1986, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers developed a Structural Treatment Plan for stabilizing several of the property's structures. The National Park Service has undertaken several stabilization efforts since assuming administrative responsibility for the property in 1990 (Figure 133).



FIGURE 133. View of the original cabin, showing paling fence remains in foreground, 1990. Source: National Park Service.

Oscar Blevins Farmstead Resources

Log Cabin (LCS No. 92185; HS-10). The original cabin on the present-day Oscar Blevins Farmstead is thought to have been built circa 1879 by "preacher" John Blevins as a single-pen log structure.[589] The dwelling featured a gable roof and a stone chimney attached to the east elevation.[590] In 1925, a sawn lumber pen to the west of the original structure was constructed.[591] Following the construction of the west pen, a shed roof porch addition was made along the south elevation.[592] After several changes in ownership, Oscar Blevins and his wife Ermon moved into the log house in 1940, and resided there until construction of the nearby frame house in 1950.

The cabin, as it appears presently, is a vernacular one-and-one-half-story building with a rectangular plan that measures 37 feet by 17 feet (Figure 134). The building has a dry laid stone foundation and corrugated metal clad, wood-framed gable roof. The long axis of the structure is oriented east–west with a random course ashlar chimney at the east elevation. A wood post-framed

584. Terry A. Ferguson, Robert A. Pace, Jeffrey W. Gardner, and Robert W. Hoffman, "An Archeological Reconnaissance and Testing of Indirect Impact Areas within Selected Development Sites on the Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area," September 15, 1986 (Knoxville: University of Tennessee), C-2. *Oscar Blevins Farmstead Cultural Landscape Inventory* (1998).
585. Ibid., 18.
586. Ibid.
587. Ibid.
588. Ibid., 2, 15, 17, 18.
589. Ferguson, Pace, Garner, Hoffman, C-2.
590. *Oscar Blevins Farmstead Cultural Landscape Inventory*, 1998, 18.
591. Ferguson, Pace, Garner, Hoffman, C-2.
592. Oscar Blevins Log Cabin, List of Classified Structures entry, 2008.

portico is located along the north facade of the building and supports a metal shed roof.



FIGURE 134. The original cabin, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

The building has a double-pen plan. The east pen is constructed of hewn oak, pine, and poplar logs joined with half-dovetail notching, while the west pen portion is constructed of sawn timbers joined with square notching.[593] Oscar Blevins's son described the cabin as have been built using timbers from a wrecked railroad trestle.[594] This account is supported by physical evidence consisting of a pattern of cuts and notches on some of the timbers.[595] The gable ends of the building are clad in vertically oriented plank siding. Two entranceways are located on the north facade, one associated with each pen of the building. A third entryway is located on the south elevation of the east pen, directly aligned with the opposing doorway on the north elevation.

Between 1996 and 2006, the National Park Service conducted several stabilizations efforts in association with the cabin. These included mothballing the dwelling with large pieces of plywood across the entryways on the north and south sides of the building, replacing sill logs, installing a protective portico with a corrugated metal shed roof on the north elevation of the 1879 cabin, and resetting the chimney stones.

The cabin was determined eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places in 1981. The cabin possesses sufficient integrity to continue to convey its historic associations and contributes to the significance of the Oscar Blevins Farmstead (Figure 135).

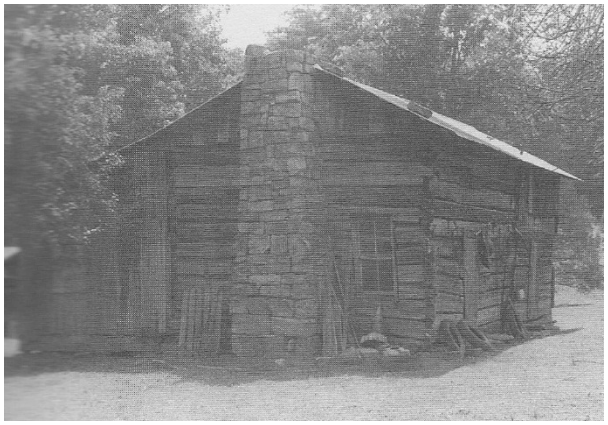


FIGURE 135. An early view of the original cabin. Source: National Park Service.

Corn Crib (LCS No. 504439, HS-12). The corn crib, located south of the cabin, was constructed between 1925 and 1935 when Jack Blevins (Oscar's father) lived at the farmstead with his family. This partially enclosed vernacular structure included a grain storage pen and a covered accessway to allow for the loading and unloading of grain.

Today, the corn crib is a partially enclosed one-story structure composed of two sections connected by a common corrugated metal wood-framed gable roof (Figure 136). A single pen is located at the east side of the corn crib and is of log construction. It has a dry-laid stone pile foundation and consists of hewn logs joined by half-dovetail notching. Similar to the cabin, the corn crib was reported by Oscar Blevins's son to have constructed of timbers from a wrecked railroad trestle.[596] A wood-framed entryway is located on the west end of the north facade. The covered accessway is located at the west side of the building and consists of an unpaved drive oriented on a north–south axis. The west side of the drive is

593. Ibid.
594. Conley Blevins and Arvo Blevins. Oral History Collection, Accession BISO69, Tape Catalog Number RE6A. Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, Ethnography collections. 1982.
595. Ibid.
596. Ibid.

enclosed by a log-framed wall with vertically oriented plank siding.

The unpaved drive was added by the National Park Service in the mid-1990s when the area became the location of the park's horse operation. At that time, running water and electricity were also added.

The corn crib possesses sufficient integrity to continue to convey its historic associations and contributes to the significance of the Oscar Blevins Farmstead.



FIGURE 136. The corn crib, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.



FIGURE 137. View of the later cabin from the front, circa 1950s. Note coal/wood shed in distance. Source: National Park Service.

Circa 1950 Dwelling. The Oscar Blevins residence was constructed in two phases. The original portion of the house, located to the west, was constructed in 1950. It was two bays wide and had a wood-framed porch (Figure 137). In 1968, a one-bay addition was constructed at the east end of the house.[597] Today the structure is a three-bay, one-and-one-half-story wood-framed structure with a dry laid stone pile foundation The building has a rectangular plan, and an asphalt-shingle gable roof oriented on an east–west axis, and two brick chimneys located along the ridge line. The building is clad in asphalt sheet siding with a light beige faux-brick pattern. Wood-post-framed porches are located along the south facade as well as the east portion of the north elevation. The porches are supported on a stone pier foundation and have a wood-framed deck with plank flooring. Entryways, one associated with each bay of the building, are located on both the north and south facades, and accessed from the porches. Rough-cut stone stairs provide access from grade to the porch level.

Although the residence was not included in the list of properties determined eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places in 1981, as part of the overall Oscar Blevins Farmstead cultural landscape, the residence, which was built during the proposed rural historic district period of significance, appears to contribute to the evolving nature of agricultural lifeways at Big South Fork (Figure 138).



FIGURE 138. The 1950 Oscar Blevins Farmstead residence, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

[597] Ferguson, Pace, Gardner, Hoffman, C-2.

Outbuilding/Smokehouse/Shed (LCS No. 511850, HS-16). Little is currently known about the outbuilding that stands south of the twentieth century residence. This vernacular wood frame structure has been described as a smokehouse, as well as a shed. It is thought to have been constructed circa 1950, although this date has not been confirmed.

The shed/smokehouse is one-story wood-framed structure set on dry laid stone piles. It has a rectangular plan with vertically oriented plank siding and a wood-framed gable roof with corrugated metal roofing (Figure 139). A wood door is centered on the north elevation.

Like the twentieth century residence, this shed is an important component of the Oscar Blevins Farmstead cultural landscape. It was built during the proposed rural historic district period of significance and reflects the evolving nature of agricultural lifeways within the region. The twentieth century shed possesses sufficient integrity to continue to convey its historic associations and contributes to the significance of the Oscar Blevins Farmstead.



FIGURE 139. The shed, view southeast, 2010.Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Barn. The barn was constructed in 1963 by Oscar Blevins in the style of a three-bay English barn. It is a two-story timber-framed structure with a rectangular plan clad with vertically oriented plank siding and a metal double gable roof (Figure 140). The main entrances are located on the north elevation and associated with each bay. The entrances are comprised of large hinged gates constructed of vertical planks. There is an open area above the center door that provides access to the upper level hay loft.

Like the twentieth century residence, the barn is an important component of the evolving nature of the Oscar Blevins Farmstead cultural landscape. The barn possesses sufficient integrity to continue to convey its historic associations and contributes to the significance of the Oscar Blevins Farmstead.



FIGURE 140. The Oscar Blevins Farm barn, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Root Cellar Foundation. The root cellar foundation was constructed in 1973 along the edge of the pasture northeast of the twentieth century residence. This hand-hewn stone and concrete block structural foundation is built into the rolling terrain to take advantage of subterranean cooling (Figure 141). The rectangular-plan of the foundation is approximately 7 feet tall and has a door opening located on the narrow elevation. The foundation dates to the overall period of significance proposed for the park. It possesses sufficient integrity to continue to convey its historic associations and contributes to the significance of the Oscar Blevins Farmstead.



FIGURE 141. The root cellar foundation, 2013. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Lora Blevins Farmstead

The Lora Blevins Farmstead extends over a 36.2-acre area that edges Old Leatherwood Ford Road north of West Bandy Creek Road in Fentress County, Tennessee. The property is located northwest of the Bandy Creek Visitor Center and can be accessed from Old Leatherwood Ford Road, or from the Oscar Blevins Loop Trail.

The Lora Blevins Farmstead is a historic vernacular landscape that contains many extant features typical of an Upper Cumberland Plateau farm: a log house, pole barn, log corn crib, privy, fields, orchard trees, black walnut trees, fences, hedgerows and fencelines, a driveway, concrete block foundation, and animal pen.[598] Many of these structures and features are located within a cleared area that parallels Old Leatherwood Ford Road. Adjacent to the farmstead is the Katy Blevins Cemetery (see below), an outparcel that edges the road and is enclosed by a perimeter fence.[599] The farmstead landscape is characterized by gently rolling wooded hills. A clearing on the hilltop provides the setting for the four log structures and numerous small-scale landscape features that comprise the farmstead.

The Lora Blevins Farmstead is another well-preserved example of an early twentieth century plateau agricultural complex designed to meet the needs of subsistence farming. The composition and arrangement of the features reflect regional settlement patterns, while the structures are representative of local vernacular architecture. The farmstead exhibits the change in settlement patterns that resulted from the emigration of settlers to the plateau to afford better access to markets and transportation routes.

The majority of the surviving features date from 1929. Although several of the structures were modified over time to meet evolving needs, the property exhibits all aspects of integrity. Alterations to the structures and additional outbuildings on the site convey the evolution of the site as a working early twentieth century farmstead. The historic landscape also retains integrity of setting and feeling, and continues to convey the sense of solitude associated with an Appalachian farmstead. The Lora Blevins Farmstead survives with sufficient integrity to convey its historic associations as a cultural landscape and appears eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places either individually or as part of a larger historic district (Figure 142).

598. Although labeled the Clara Sue Blevins homesite by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers land office and in the pamphlet titled "A Guide to the Oscar Blevins Loop Trail," the property is referred to as the Lora Blevins farmstead by the NPS. All of the structures were built by Lora Blevins.

599. Ibid., 2.

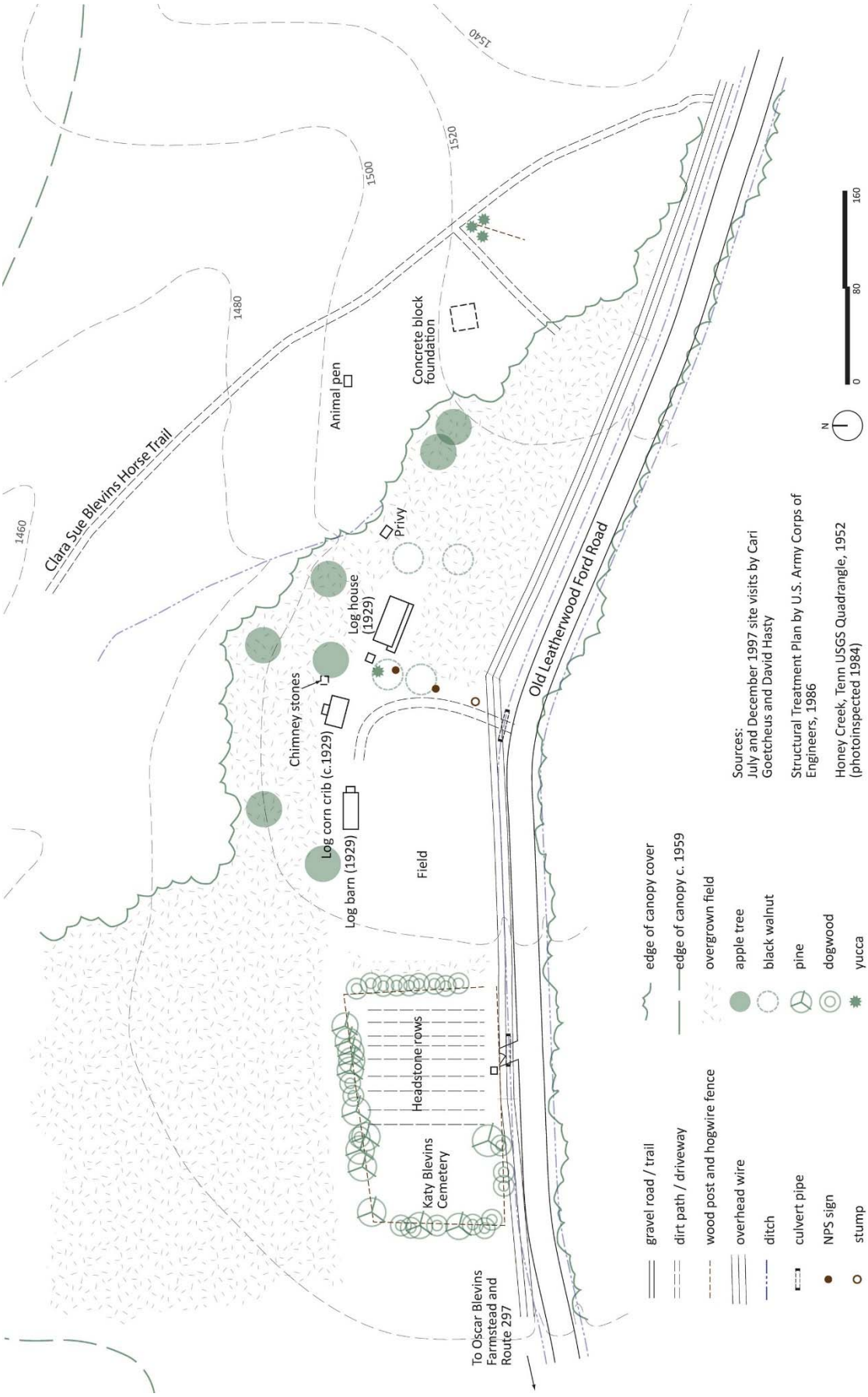


FIGURE 142. Site plan of the Lora Blevins Farmstead. Source: Map developed by Sonia Brenner for WJE.

Brief History of the Lora Blevins Farmstead. In 1929, George Blevins, a descendant of original settler Jonathan Blevins, constructed a log barn, corn crib, and house at the peak of a rolling hill along Old Leatherwood Ford Road (Figure 143). The three structures formed the basis of the existing historic farmstead.

Between 1929 and 1974, various alterations and additions were made to the structures. The original house, which was most likely constructed as a single-pen structure, was expanded through the addition of a second log pen on the west end of the house, making it a double-pen structure.[600] In 1962, Lora Blevins removed the original stone chimney and constructed a concrete block chimney in its place (Figure 144).[601]

A one-story, log lean-to shed roof addition set on stone piers was constructed along the north elevation of the corn crib after its initial construction. A second small one-story shed addition was also constructed on the east side of the crib with a shed roof, wood pier foundation, and vertical plank siding. Alterations to the barn since its original construction have included the construction of a one-story shed addition with vertical plank siding on the east façade and small shed additions with vertically oriented plank siding on the north and south facades of the barn (Figure 145).



FIGURE 143. George and Anne Blevins, late 1930s. Source: National Park Service, provided by Mrs. Poppie Blevins-Dishman.

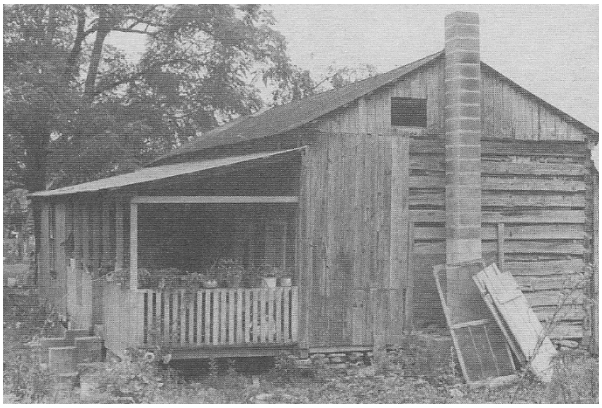


FIGURE 144. The Lora Blevins House, 1985. Source: National Park Service.

600. Lora Blevins House, List of Classified Structures entry, 2006; although not expressly stated in the *Cultural Landscape Inventory*, the west pen appears to be the addition based on the location of the chimney.

601. *Lora Blevins Farmstead Cultural Landscape Inventory*, 18



FIGURE 145. The Lora Blevins House, 1985. Source: National Park Service.

New free-standing structures were also built during the active period of farm use. A small shed, located northeast of the house, was constructed using vertically oriented plank siding. A second house was also constructed in associated with the farmstead; only the foundation of this structure survives today. Wood animal pens, a privy, fences, landscape features, and the Katy Blevins cemetery also appear to date to this period of development, although the exact date for many of these alterations and additions could not be determined through existing resource materials and requires additional archival research.

In 1974, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers acquired the property from Clara (Campbell) Blevins, a relative by marriage who had become owner of the property, as part of development of the park. Following the acquisition of the farmstead as part of the park, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers made various alterations to the farmstead, including the development of a hiking trail and construction of wood fences.

In 1986, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers developed a Structural Treatment Plan for stabilization of the property's buildings. The National Park Service has conducted several stabilization projects since assuming administrative responsibility for the farmstead in 1990.

Lora Blevins Farmstead Resources

Log House (LCS No. 92179, HS-5). The original single-pen portion of the log house was constructed in 1929; a single-pen addition was built at a later date. The building is a one-and-one-half story double-pen dwelling measuring approximately 40 feet by 18 feet, with a dry laid stone foundation and a corrugated metal roof. It is oriented on an east–west axis with a random ashlar stone chimney at the east elevation (Figure 146). A wood-framed portico extends the entire length of the south elevation (Figure 147).

The log construction consists of hewn yellow pine joined with half-dovetail notching and chinking. The end gables are clad with vertically oriented plank siding. There are three entrances to the structure, one entrance on the north elevation and two entrances on the south elevation.[602]

Between 1996 and 2006, the National Park Service conducted stabilization, repair, and alteration work on the house. The scope of the work included the replacement of deteriorated sill and wall timbers. A new corrugated metal roof was installed over the existing roof of the house. The log pier foundation under the house was replaced, and the dry laid stone foundation and pier stones were reset.[603]

In 1996, the concrete block chimney on the house was removed and the random coursed hand-hewn ashlar sandstone block chimney was reconstructed.[604] At approximately the same time, the lean-to addition on the north facade of the house was removed and a wood-framed portico was constructed along the south elevation of the structure. The portico, which has a metal shed roof, was installed to protect the main entrance facade from harsh weather conditions.

602. Lora Blevins House, List of Classified Structures entry HS-5.
603. Lora Blevins House, List of Classified Structures entry HS-5, 2006; Lora Blevins Corn Crib, List of Classified Structures entry HS-6, 2008.
604. Lora Blevins House, List of Classified Structures entry HS-5.

In addition, modifications and alterations made to the structures have included the removal of non-historic additions and implementation of protective measures.

The log house was determined eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places in 1981, and appears to retain sufficient integrity for listing today.



FIGURE 146. The front and eastern side of the Lora Blevins House in 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.



FIGURE 147. The rear and western side of the Lora Blevins House in 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Log Corn Crib (LCS No. 92178, HS-6). The original portion of the log corn crib was constructed in 1929, while additions were made at later undetermined dates. The corn crib is a partially enclosed structure measuring 25 feet long by 20 feet wide. It is composed of two sections connected by a common corrugated metal wood-framed gable roof (Figure 148). The north section of the corn crib is a single-pen structure of log construction. This structure has a log lean-to addition attached to the north elevation and a wood-framed shed addition with vertically oriented plank siding attached to the east elevation. The log construction portion of the building has a dry-laid stone foundation and consists of hewn logs joined by half-dovetail notching. The end gables have vertically oriented plank siding. The wood-framed shed addition and covered driveway have wood post foundations. The covered accessway is located at the south side of the building and consists of an unpaved travelway oriented on an east–west axis. [605]



FIGURE 148. The Lora Blevins Farm corn crib, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Stabilization repairs and alterations were performed on the corn crib between 1996 and early 2006. The scope of the work included the replacement of deteriorated sill and wall timbers. Modifications and alterations made to the structure included the removal of non-historic additions and implementation of protective measures. A new corrugated metal roof was installed over the existing roof. Portions of an older shingle roof remain visible on the corn crib. Deteriorated stone pier foundations under the corn crib were also repaired.

605. Lora Blevins Corn Crib, List of Classified Structures entry.

The corn crib was determined eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places in 1981, and appears to retain sufficient integrity for listing today.

Pole Barn (LCS No. 92177, HS-7). The original log pole barn was constructed in 1929 by George Blevins as a one-and-one-half-story structure, with additions made at a later date. The two-story double-crib pole barn, located on the west side of the hilltop, is of log construction and measures approximately 40 feet long by 13 feet wide (Figure 149). The barn has a stone pile foundation and corrugated metal gable roof. A one-story wood-framed shed addition with vertically oriented plank siding is attached to the east facade. The log construction consists of partially hewn yellow pine with half-dovetail notching. The end gables are clad in vertically oriented plank siding. There is no chinking between the logs. A double-wide opening is located at the center of the south elevation and extends through the barn. The north elevation has a large opening at the upper level that provides access to the upper level hay loft.[606]

The barn, similar to an English hay barn due to its central driveway, is unusual in its use of traditional materials and vernacular design of an earlier period.[607]



FIGURE 149. The Lora Blevins Farm barn, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Between 1996 and 2006, the National Park Service conducted stabilization, repair, and alteration work on the barn. The scope of the work included the replacement of deteriorated sill and wall timbers. Prior to this work, many of the timber posts in the barn had collapsed or exhibited severe deterioration due to powder post beetle infestation. A new corrugated metal roof was installed over the existing roof. Deteriorated stone pier foundations were also repaired.[608] Finally, vertical plank shed additions on the north and south elevations were removed and new timbers installed.[609]

The barn was determined eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places in 1981, and appears to retain sufficient integrity for listing today.

606. Lora Blevins Pole Barn, List of Classified Structures entry.
607. Ibid.
608. Lora Blevins House, List of Classified Structures entry HS-5, 2006; Lora Blevins Corn Crib, List of Classified Structures entry HS-6, 2008.
609. Lora Blevins Pole Barn, List of Classified Structures entry HS-7, 2006. Although archival documentation does not specify, it is assumed based on existing physical evidence that the shed additions were located on the north and south facades.

Privy (LCS No. 92181). A small privy is located on the Lora Blevins property to the east of the log house. The wood frame structure measures approximately 4 feet by 5 feet in plan. It is clad with vertical weatherboards, and has a single door attached with bracket hinges (Figure 150). The shed roof is covered with corrugated metal. The privy is thought to have been constructed circa 1940–1960.

Although it was not included in the list of buildings determined eligible for listing in the National Register, the privy appears to possess integrity and contributes to the significance of the Lora Blevins Farmstead as a cultural landscape.



FIGURE 150. The Lora Blevins Farm privy, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Katy Blevins Cemetery. The Katy Blevins cemetery[610] is located southwest of the Lora Blevins Farmstead along Old Leatherwood Ford Road. It contains stone headstones and wood crosses that are loosely arranged into rows (Figure 151). The cemetery is surrounded by a wood-framed wire fence and contains grave markers dating from the 1930s to the present. Many settlers associated with the Lora Blevins farmstead as well as neighboring farmsteads are interred on the cemetery including members of the Blevins, Slaven, and Phillips families. The cemetery is an outparcel within the park. It contributes to the cultural landscape of the farmstead.



FIGURE 151. The Katy Blevins cemetery in 2013. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Litton/Slaven Farmstead

The John Litton/Charles Rudy Slaven Farmstead extends over 184 acres along the North Fork of the Fall Branch, a tributary of the Big South Fork River, within Scott County, Tennessee.[611] The property features a tightly grouped dwelling precinct composed of buildings, structures, and landscape elements set within an undulating stream valley. The farmstead is surrounded by rolling wooded hills that abut a steeply-sloped mountainside characterized by rock outcroppings (Figure 152). The small creek that runs through the valley has been dammed to form a pond. The dwelling precinct abuts a tree line between the hills and the creek ravine.

610. *Lora Blevins Farmstead Cultural Landscape Inventory*, 27, identifies the cemetery as the "Katy Blevins Cemetery." Other sources, including *Geology and History of the Cumberland Plateau* (Oneida, Tennessee: National Park Service, Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, 2000), 6, indicated the "Katie Blevins Cemetery" (accessed at http://www.nps.gov/biso/planyourvisit/upload/webgeo.pdf, February 2016.)

611. *Charles Rudy Slaven/John Litton Farmstead Cultural Landscape Inventory* (1998), 2.



FIGURE 152. The Litton/Slaven Farmstead, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

The features that comprise the Litton/Slaven Farmstead cultural landscape include a log house and cabin, log barn, shed, hog pen set within a rock shelter, pond and associated earthen dam, access road, road traces, fencing, hedgerows and fencelines, fields, stream, fruit trees and pawpaw shrubs. There is also a remnant still set within a rock shelter. A contemporary trail and footbridge provide visitor access to the site from the Bandy Creek campground and the John Muir National Recreation Trail (Figure 153).

The farmstead is a well-preserved example of the subsistence lifestyle, settlement patterns, and vernacular architecture of the rural and isolated community in the Big South Fork River basin. The farmstead is representative of a subsistence agricultural landscape in the post-bellum period.

The Litton/Slaven Farmstead is another well-preserved example of an early twentieth century agricultural complex designed to meet the needs of subsistence farming. The composition and arrangement of the features reflect regional settlement patterns, while the structures are representative of local vernacular architecture. The existing buildings reflect local trends in design, materials, and workmanship, materials. Although several of the structures were modified over time to meet evolving needs, the property exhibits all aspects of integrity. Although later alterations to the buildings have somewhat diminished the integrity of design, the addition of outbuildings, expansion of agricultural fields, and the manmade dam depict the evolution of the property over time. The historic landscape also retains integrity of setting and feeling. The setting, within a clearing in the wooded hills of the Big South Fork River basin, and clear visual connection between the structures has been maintained and the feeling of isolation and solitude associated with an Appalachian farmstead remains. The Litton/Slaven Farmstead survives with sufficient integrity as a cultural landscape to convey its historic associations and appears eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places either individually or as part of a larger historic district.

Brief History of the Litton/Slaven Farmstead. John Litton was a local farmer who settled this property circa 1900. Litton soon built a single pen one-and-a-half-story timber-framed house with stone foundation on a hillside overlooking the stream valley, and a timber-framed barn in the ravine along the creek bed, southwest of the house. Litton resided on the farmstead with his wife, Polly, and their five children.[612]

At an undetermined date between 1900 and 1974, ownership of the property was transferred to the Charles Rudy Slaven family. Slaven made several additions and alterations to the property. For example, he built the extant wood-framed coal house/wood shed along the path west of the house, a wood-framed animal pen against the rock outcroppings, and an earthen dam with pond south of the house. Slaven also added an enclosure on the west and south facades of the house and a wrap-around porch on the east and north elevations. The wrap-around porch was later removed.613 Slaven modified the barn by enclosing the entrances into the gabled end walls and covered the walls with plank siding. The exact date of many of these alterations and additions is not presently known. Also, as the Slaven family

612. Ibid.

613. Litton/Slaven House, List of Classified Structures entry.

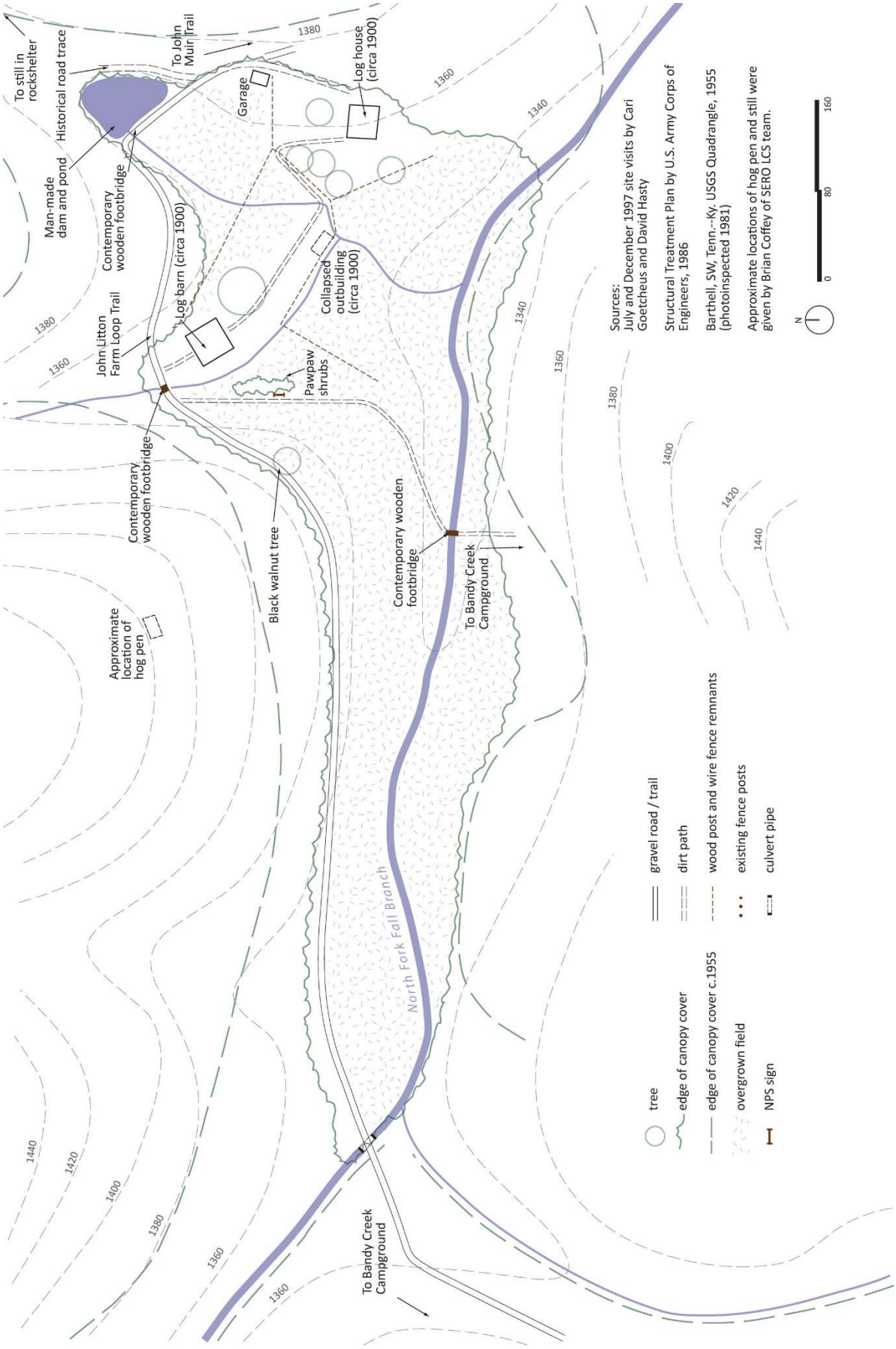


FIGURE 153. Site plan of the Litton/Slaven Farmstead. Source: Map developed by Sonia Brenner for WJE.

grew, it expanded the agricultural fields onto adjacent plateau land in order to grow additional marketable crops.

Following acquisition of the farmstead by the federal government for inclusion within the park, various alterations were made to the farmstead. These alterations included the development of the John Litton Farm Loop hiking trail and construction of split rail fences.[614]

In 1986, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers prepared a Structural Treatment Plan for stabilization of farm features. The National Park Service has conducted several stabilization repairs and alterations since 1990 when they assumed administrative responsibility for the park.[615]

Litton/Slaven Farmstead Resources

Log House and Cabin (LCS No. 92183, HS-9). The original single-pen dwelling on the property was built by John Litton in circa 1900 as a one-and-one-half-story log structure. An enclosed wood-frame addition was constructed at the west and south elevations of the house by Charles Rudy Slaven at a later date. The existing building measures 29 feet by 26 feet and has a stone pier foundation with a root cellar enclosed by hand-hewn sandstone block walls. The house has vertically oriented wood plank siding over the log construction and is capped by a wood-framed gable roof covered with corrugated metal (Figure 154). The wood siding is covered by various vintages of asphalt sheet siding, some of which has a red faux-brick pattern.

The log construction consists of hewn hemlock joined with half-dovetail notching and chinking. Some of the logs measure 20 inches in diameter. The end gables are clad with vertically oriented plank siding. There are two entrances to the structure; one is located on the north elevation, providing access to the first floor level, while the other occurs within the south elevation, providing access to the root cellar.[616]



FIGURE 154. The Litton/Slaven Farmstead house, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Stabilization efforts performed on the house by the National Park Service include replacement of sill and wall timbers and wood flooring, installation of a new standing-seam metal roof in 2005, removal of the wrap-around porch, and repointing of the stacked stone foundation piers.[617]

The house was determined eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places in 1981, and appears to retain sufficient integrity for listing today.

Log Barn (LCS No. 92182, HS-8). The original side-opening English milk barn was constructed in 1900 as a two-story timber-framed and log structure on a dry laid stone foundation. The structure, which measures 32 feet by 32 feet in plan, has a wood-framed gable roof covered with corrugated metal roofing (Figure 155). A driveway runs through the center of the barn, perpendicular to the gable roof, that is accessed through double wide openings on the east and west facades. Three stalls of log construction are located to either side of the driveway, for a total of six cribs. The cribs range in size from 12 feet to 20 feet in width. Previously existing openings at the end gables have

614. *Charles Ruby Slaven/John Litton Farmstead Cultural Landscape Inventory*, 19.
615. Litton/Slaven House, List of Classified Structures entry.
616. Litton/Slaven Barn, List of Classified Structures entry.
617. Litton/Slaven Barn, List of Classified Structures entry HS-8, 2006.

been covered with plank siding. The lower floor of the barn has hewn poplar, hemlock, and oak log construction with no chinking, while the upper floor has vertically oriented plank siding.[618]

Repairs made to the barn by the National Park Service include replacement of deteriorated sill and wall timbers and corrugated metal roofing.[619]

The barn was determined eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places in 1981, and appears to retain sufficient integrity for listing today.



FIGURE 155. The Litton/Slaven Farmstead barn, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Shed (LCS No. 92184). The shed is an open-front shed roof structure that rests on a stone footer foundation. The shed measures 14 feet, 7 inches in width by 8 feet, 2 inches in depth, and is approximately 9 feet in height. It is located along the path west of the house. The wood-frame structure features vertically oriented plank siding, a corrugated metal shed roof, and wood plank flooring (Figure 156). The date of construction is unknown.

Although it was not included in the list of buildings determined eligible for listing in the National Register, the shed appears to possess integrity and contributes to the significance of the Litton/Slaven Farmstead as a cultural landscape.



FIGURE 156. The Litton/Slaven Farmstead shed, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Hog Pen Set within a Rock Shelter. The hog pen consists of two timber-framed fenced areas that abut a sandstone rock outcropping referred to as a rock shelter. The fence has horizontal wood plank rails and dry laid stone infill (Figure 157). The date of construction is unknown, although it likely dates from circa 1920–1974.[620] A water trough has been cut into the stone as part of the feature.

Although it was not included in the list of structures determined eligible for listing in the National Register, the hog pen appears to possess integrity and contribute to the significance of the Litton/Slaven Farmstead as a cultural landscape.



FIGURE 157. The Litton/Slaven Farmstead hog pen, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

618. Litton/Slaven Barn, List of Classified Structures entry.

619. Litton/Slaven Barn, List of Classified Structures entry HS-8, 2006.

620. Ibid.

Pond and Associated Earthen Dam (LCS No. 232905, HS-14). The property features a small pond formed through construction of an earthen dam across a small creek that flows from an adjacent cliff. The pond is located at the peak of a hill on the south side of the farmstead, overlooking the house and barn. A trail that extends behind the farmstead crosses the dam.[621]

The dam was determined eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places in 1981, and appears to retain sufficient integrity for listing today.

No Business Creek Community

The No Business Creek community formed within the Big South Fork River gorge during the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, eventually becoming one of the larger settlements within the region. The linear community, which follows the alignment of the stream corridor in a settlement pattern referred to as dispersed hollow, is located within northwest Scott County, Tennessee. The No Business Creek community is a cultural landscape that once featured farmsteads, commercial venues, rock walls, springs and spring houses, barns, roads, cemeteries, schools and churches, boat landings, fords, and mills, as well as the site of a Confederate grave on Big Island. Natural resources associated with the community include No Business Creek, two of its principal tributaries—Tackett and Dry Branch—and varying terrain comprised of level river terraces edged by steeply sloped hillsides. Rock outcrops associated with the hillsides provided an important source of stone for constructing walls and fences as well as dwelling and outbuilding foundations, as did the prevalent supply of locally sourced timber.

Today, however, the community is in ruinous condition (Figure 158). There are no residents and no surviving intact buildings or structures. Although evidence of the former community extends over a large area and encompasses a wide range of feature types, few of these features survive with integrity today.

Although the cultural landscape of the community can still be perceived to a degree above ground, for the most part the value of the No Business Creek cultural resources resides in the information potential of the archeological resources, including remnant and observable traces of cultural features located along the historic No Business Road corridor. The hand-hewn sandstone slab culverts, dry-stacked retaining walls and fences, and house foundations all provide evidence of the material culture of the No Business Creek community. Also in evidence is information regarding the road, its method of construction and maintenance, and connecting the community. The No Business Creek community likely constitutes an archeological district eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places, although assessment of information potential is generally beyond the scope of this HRS.

Brief History of the No Business Creek Community. Richard Slaven was a Revolutionary War veteran who relocated to the Big South Fork region after receiving a land grant in the area for his military service. In 1796, he became the first permanent settler in the No Business Creek community. Over the course of the nineteenth century, the settlement became one of the largest in the area, eventually reaching a peak population of 300 residents. The settlement was composed of a linear arrangement of farmsteads that paralleled the No Business Creek corridor, with houses perched on elevated land above the floodline, and fields established to take advantage of level areas of fertile soils and other arable land. Livestock generally foraged freely within the stream valley and over the sloped terrain above. Farmers harnessed the power of the stream by constructing mills and using associated mill ponds and stone-lined mill races to direct the flow to a mill wheel. Churches, stores, cemeteries, a school, and lodging facilities were also part of the community. No Business Road paralleled the stream and linked the

621. Litton/Slaven Earthen Dam, List of Classified Structures entry HS-14, 2006.

properties within the community; other roads led off of No Business Road to the sites of other homesteads. The No Business Creek community road was present by the early nineteenth century. Under Tennessee law, residents were paid or otherwise obliged to maintain the road corridor and associated structures. Local residents were heavily dependent on the road for travel and transportation of good; over time, the road was been stabilized and enhanced through construction of stacked stone retaining walls, culverts, and bridges.

The No Business Creek community remained a viable settlement through the early to mid-twentieth century. Local farmers continued to practice subsistence agriculture throughout the life of the community. However, the introduction of wage labor in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries for logging and mining companies eventually drew many away from their farms. During the early twentieth century, improvements in agricultural technology and soil amendments rendered farming of the plateau feasible for the first time. Many families also migrated out of the gorge during the early twentieth century seeking new opportunities on the plateau. Others who enlisted in the military and civilian support services during World War II decided not to return to the area after the war. In 1960, Dewey Slaven became the last resident to leave the community of No Business.[622]

There are several ruinous resources located within the former community of No Business Creek that collectively provide an understanding of its composition and configuration. These include the following.

Ransom Boyatt Farmstead ruins. The Ransom Boyatt Farmstead is located at the far western end of the No Business Creek community. It closely edges No Business Creek near its confluence with a small unnamed tributary. The farmstead ruins feature the stone foundation and standing chimney of the dwelling house; the foundation of a barn structure and a corn crib; a road trace; and rock retaining walls (Figure 159). A rock shelter that was used for several purposes by the family is located nearby.

The stone dwelling foundation outline measures 42 feet by 25 feet in plan. It is composed of large fieldstones laid in a rectangular form; features such as building entrances can be discerned from the arrangement of the foundation stones. The two-hearth chimney, fashioned from hewn red sandstone, sits at the center of what was once a two-pen log house (Figure 160). The stone footers of a corn crib are also visible nearby.

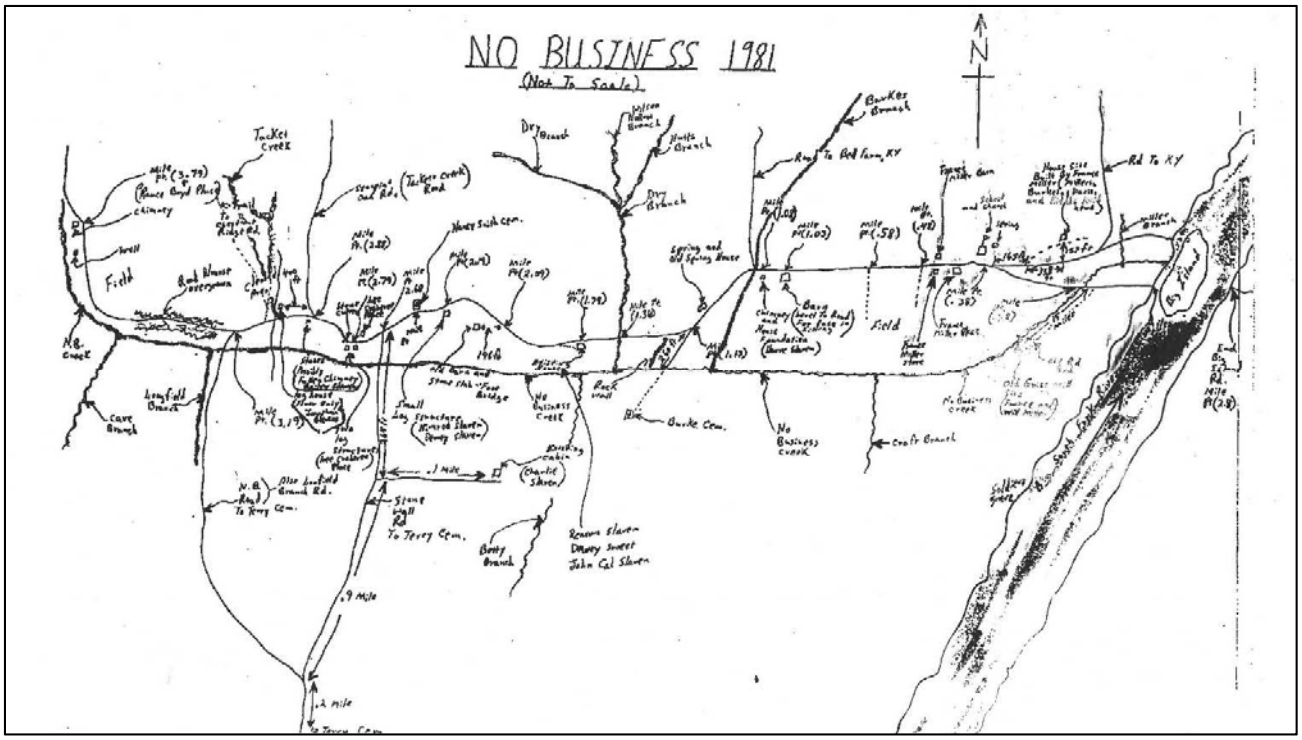
The house site is located on a level area at the edge of an open farm field and overlooks an expanse of floodplain that may have been used historically to cultivate crops. The park continues to maintain open fields traditionally associated with the property.

North of the homesite, along the steep incline of Chestnut Ridge is a rock shelter that may have been used by Boyatt as a blacksmithy. Large flat slabs of sandstone stacked in the shelter may relate to a moonshine operation.

During the early twentieth century, this farmstead is known to have been occupied by Ransom Boyatt and his wife, Poppie Litton Boyatt. Boyatt was the son of Jurdan Boyatt, an early settler of the Station Camp Creek and No Business Creek communities. The farm was composed of approximately 75 acres that focused around the arable floodplain of the stream valley. In 1933, Ransom Boyatt was found dead in the cabin after his son Jerome became a suspect in the shooting death of two Pickett County law officers.[623]

622. NPS park website, http://www.nps.gov/biso/historyculture/nobusiness.htm (accessed January 16, 2012).

623. For more information about this conflict refer to Benita J. Howell, "The Saga of Jerome Boyatt: A Mirror of Attitudes toward Law and Lawlessness," *Tennessee Anthropologist* VIII no. 1 (Spring 1983).


NO BUSINESS 1981
(Not To Scale)
N
Field
No Business Creek
Dry Branch
Rock Wall
Rock Chimney
Stone Fireplace
Stone Foundation
Barn and Stone Fireplace
Foundation
Spring and Old Spring House
Burke Cem.
Rock Wall
Rock Chimney
Stone Foundation
Stone Fireplace
Stone Foundation
Stone Fireplace
Stone Foundation
Rock Wall
Rock Chimney
Stone Foundation
Rock Wall
Rock Chimney
Stone Foundation
Rock Wall
Rock Chimney

The surviving evidence of the farmstead exhibits the vernacular design and construction techniques of the former Upper Cumberland Plateau community of No Business Creek. The site typifies the confined but picturesque setting enjoyed by gorge farmsteads during the nineteenth century.



FIGURE 160. View of the Ransom Boyatt cabin ruins including the sandstone chimney and stone foundation, 2013. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Lee Crabtree Farmstead ruins. Surviving evidence of the Lee Crabtree Farmstead edges No Business Road near the Long Wall (described below). The farmstead falls within the section of the creek valley where the floodplain forms a wide level basin. The site includes evidence of a dwelling house, gardens, and outbuilding features (Figure 161). Remnant cultural vegetation, such as bulbs and ornamental shrubs, are also present on the site.

Dewey Overlook Field. An expansive farm field occupies a level plinth or terrace overlooking No Business Road in the general vicinity of the long wall. The field appears to have been enhanced through topographic leveling and the use of rockwork to retain the slope. The park continues to maintain the open field associated with the site.



FIGURE 161. Surviving evidence of the Lee Crabtree Farmstead includes stone walls, foundations, steps, metal artifacts, and cultural vegetation, 2013. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Long Wall. Nearby and across the stream from the road is the so-called long wall, a 100 foot long dry-laid rock wall thought to have been built circa 1920–1960. The wall appears to have served as a property or field boundary fence as it is free-standing for much of its length, although its precise purpose is not currently known (Figure 162).



FIGURE 162. View of a typical portion of stone long wall with park archeologist Jessie Moore, 2013. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Big Meadow Wall. Another rock wall feature edges the southern margin of the No Business Creek floodplain near an open field or marshy area known as Big Meadow. The wall is difficult to discern through the vegetation from No Business Road. The purpose of the wall is not currently known.

Crabtree/No Business Rock Slab Culvert. Within close proximity to the ruins of the Lee Crabtree Farmstead is a stone culvert associated with the road corridor. The culvert is a carefully constructed dry-laid stone box sited at a curved section of the road through which drainage is directed to prevent the travelway from being washed out (Figure 163). This culvert is thought to have been constructed circa 1920–1960.



FIGURE 163. No Business rock slab culvert, 2013. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Footbridge Piers. The location of a former footbridge crossing of No Business Creek is marked by a large dry-stacked stone pier across the stream from the road. On the opposite bank across from the pier is a large boulder that has the remains of cabling tied around it (Figure 164). These features likely supported a bridge structure that is no longer extant.



FIGURE 164. Stacked stone bridge pier, 2013. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Smith-Slaven Cemetery. On a hillside edging No Business Road to its north is a small family cemetery that contains several marked and unmarked gravestones. The most notable among those buried in the cemetery is Richard Slaven, an early settler known to have received land in the region based on his military service during the Revolutionary War. His grave is marked by a stone etched with "RS 1848" (Figure 165).



FIGURE 165. Richard Slaven's headstone marker, 2013. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

No Business Mill Race. Evidence of a mill race is visible from No Business Road just east of the Dewey Overlook Field. The mill race is composed of an earth and stone channel through which stream flow could be redirected and forced through a mill wheel (Figure 166). Only the race remains in evidence today.



FIGURE 166. View of the mill race from No Business Road, 2013. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

No Business Hotel ruins. The so-called No Business Hotel was a boarding house located just east of the mill race. The ruins of the hotel consist of two rows of 5-foot-tall hand-hewn sandstone columns set into the ground and blocks of stone strewn around the site (Figure 167).



FIGURE 167. View of the No Business "Hotel" ruins, 2013. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Station Camp Creek Community

Like No Business, the Station Camp Creek community was a dispersed hollow settlement that followed the Station Camp Creek stream valley within the Big South Fork River gorge during the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Station Camp Creek is located within Scott County, Tennessee. Farmsteads, businesses, and institutional features such as churches and schools lined Station Camp Road, which followed the linear form of the creek (Figure 168). Farms were sited along the road to take advantage of the fertile soil of the stream valley and floodplain.

Today, several resources survive to depict the character and configuration of the Station Camp Creek community, although, like No Business, the community has fallen into a state of ruins. Many features are obscured under heavy vegetative growth. Aside from ongoing commercial use of the Charit Creek Lodge complex, there are no residents and no surviving intact buildings or structures. Although evidence of the former community extends over a large area and encompasses a wide range of feature types, few of these features survive with integrity today.

Although the cultural landscape of the community can still be perceived to a degree above ground, for the most part the value of the Station Camp Creek cultural resources resides in the information potential of the archeological resources, including remnant and observable traces of cultural features located along the historic Station Camp Creek Road corridor. The Station Camp Creek community likely constitutes an archeological district eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places, although assessment of information potential is generally beyond the scope of this HRS. The properties that survive today with a complement of aboveground resources include the following.

Charit Creek Lodge Complex. The primary surviving property associated with the Station Camp Creek community is the Charit Creek Lodge Complex. Because the property was adapted for use as a commercial hunting facility in the 1960s, Charit Creek Lodge is addressed in more detail in the Recreation resources section below.

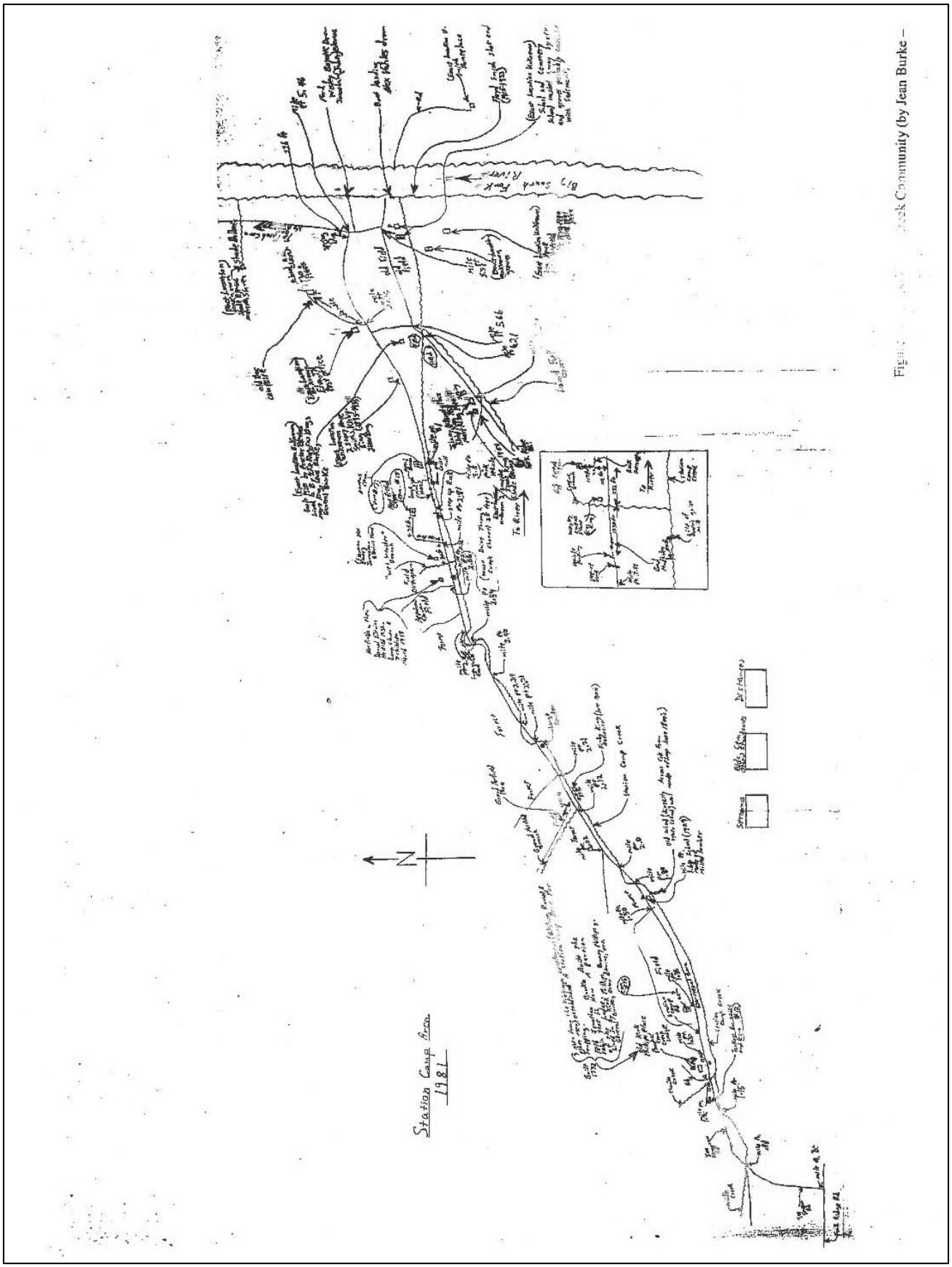


FIGURE 168. Sketch of Station Camp Creek community, circa 1981. Source: Map drawn by Jean Burke and provided to National Park Service, Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area.

The Tackett Cabin Ruins and Graves. The ruins of the Tackett Cabin and a small associated graveyard are also located in close proximity to Station Camp Creek. The property features a standing sandstone chimney and the rectangular outline of the former Tackett log cabin, now marked by corner footer stones (Figure 169). The wooded site is approached by a steeply-sloped earthen road. The two graves are located approximately 75 feet to the northwest of the cabin ruins (Figure 170). The Civil War-era graves are said to be those of two children smothered while hiding from marauders during a guerilla raid (Figure 171).



FIGURE 169. Chimney associated with the Tackett cabin ruins, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.



FIGURE 170. One of the two gravestones associated with the nearby burial ground, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

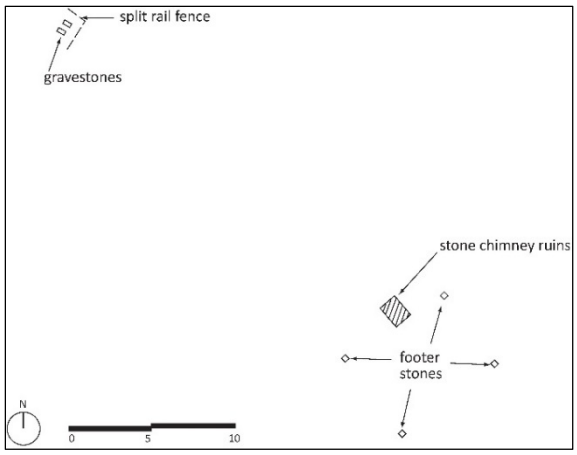


FIGURE 171. Site plan of the Tackett Cabin ruins and grave markers. Source: Map developed by Sonia Brenner for WJE.

Parch Corn Creek Community

The Parch Corn Creek community, like No Business Creek and Station Camp Creek, was a linear, dispersed hollow settlement of farmsteads that followed the stream valley (Figure 172 and Figure 173). Like the No Business and Station Camp creek communities, the Parch Corn Creek community also falls within Scott County, Tennessee. It, too, was linked by a road corridor that generally followed the alignment of the stream. Like the other two gorge communities, Parch Corn Creek is in a ruinous state; few aboveground resources survive today with integrity to convey its historic associations. The properties that survive today with a complement of aboveground resources include the following.

Parch Corn Creek Farmstead ruins. The Parch Corn Creek Farmstead was located along Parch Corn Creek near its confluence with Big South Fork. The farmstead encompassed 51.65 acres, and featured a well-developed house precinct that included a single-pen log house built in 1881 by John Litton for Armpstead Blevins. The 9-acre core of the farmstead still exhibits evidence of former farm fields, as well as chimneys and chimney falls associated with the cabin ruins (LCS No. 100405, HS-17), foundations of outbuildings, an outhouse (LCS No. 100406, HS-15), a rock ledge and spring, a stone wall remnant, historical road traces, and the grave of Helen Blevins. Today, a blazed equestrian trail leads through the property, and connects to a trailhead along the Terry Cemetery Road.

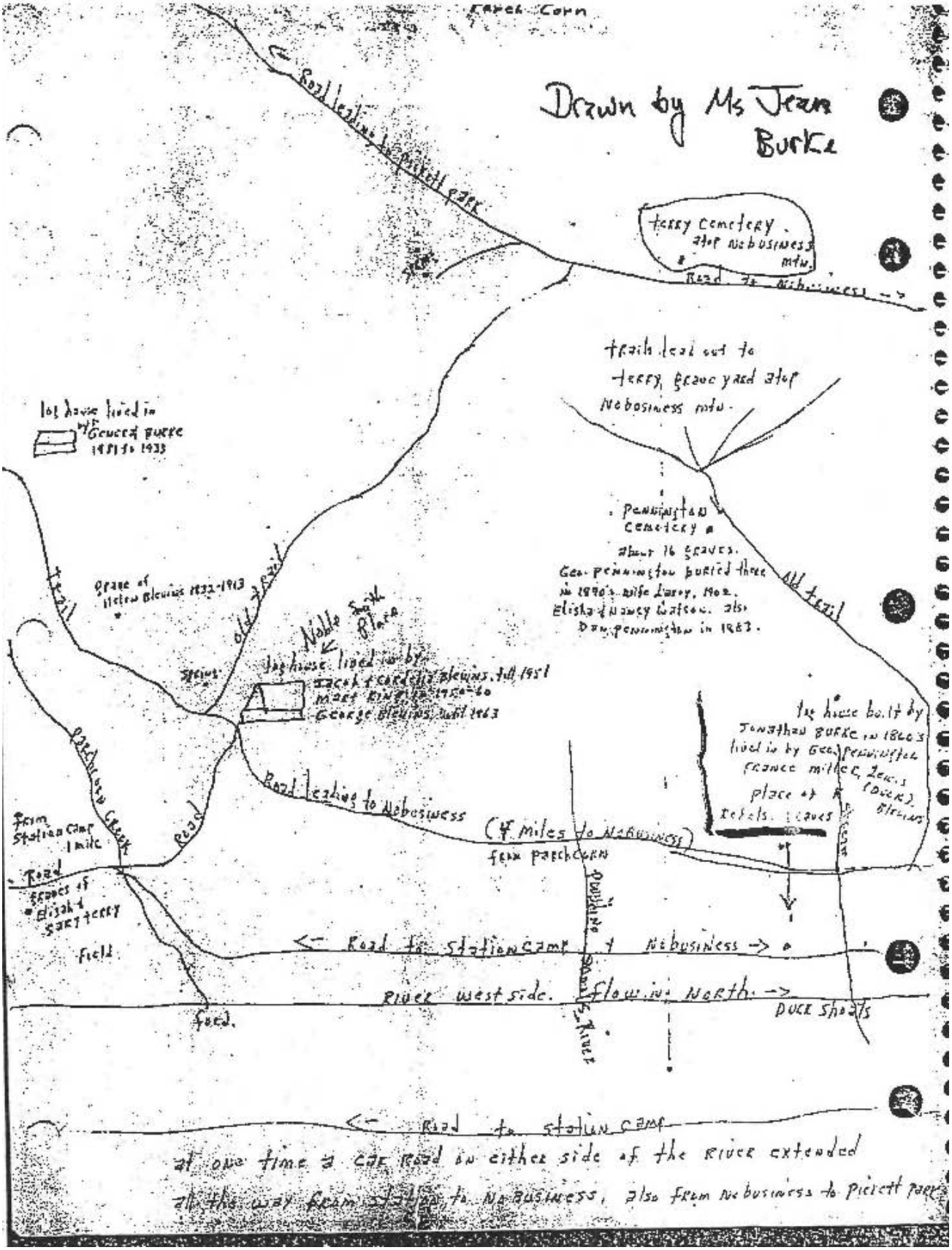


FIGURE 172. Sketch of Parch Corn Creek community, circa 1981. Source: Map drawn by Jean Burke and provided to National Park Service, Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area.

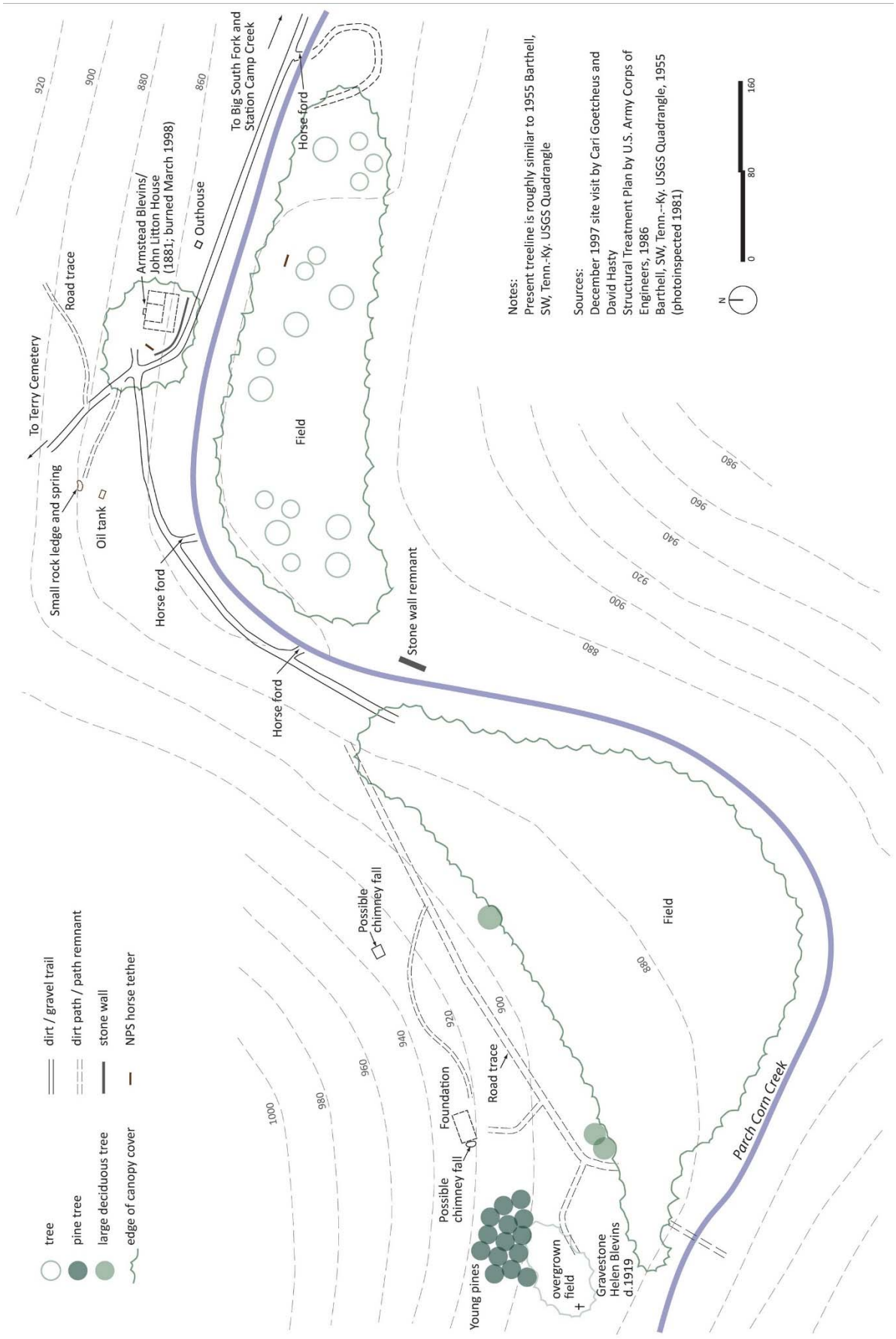


FIGURE 173. Site plan of the Parch Corn Creek community. Source: Map developed by Sonia Brenner for WJE.

Little is currently known about the farm property. According to tradition, the Blevins family arrived in the area circa 1820 from Virginia. The family is thought to have established a grist mill at Parch Corn Creek in the mid nineteenth century. The recovery of two millstones near an impoundment upstream of the cabin and fields on Parch Corn Creek seems to bear this out.[624]

In 1881, John Litton, a neighboring farmer, built the single-pen hand hewn log cabin for Armpstead Blevins and his wife Helen. The house measured 16 feet square. It was later enlarged to 28 feet by 37 feet in plan. Helen Blevins died in 1913 and was buried on the property. Two of Armpstead and Helen's children are thought to have continued to reside in the house until the 1960s.

The extant privy is thought to have been constructed in the late 1960s or early 1970s. It is a 5 foot by 6 foot shed-roofed, plank-sided box frame structure located east and downstream from the cabin ruins (Figure 174). It is set into the slope of the stream terrace above the creek and faces the road.



FIGURE 174. The privy that survives at Parch Corn Creek Farmstead. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 175. The Armpstead Blevins cabin prior to its loss to fire. Source: National Park Service.

The National Park Service stabilized the cabin in 1993 (Figure 175). The loss of the Armpstead Blevins cabin to fire in 1998, and the overgrown and ruinous condition of the farmstead have led to a loss of integrity. Nevertheless, the park continues to maintain some of the open field conditions traditionally associated with the property.

Newtie King Farmstead ruins. The Newtie King Farmstead is located on the plateau in Kentucky near a pull off along Bear Creek Road, which leads into the park from Mount Pleasant Road (Kentucky Route 1470). The Newtie King property is in ruinous condition, but contains evidence of past cultural activities including a house foundation, nearby rock walls, a lawn and picnic table, and surrounding fields (Figure 176). There are also rock outcroppings containing several basin-shaped solution cavities that were used as storage containers by prehistoric hunters and gatherers 3,000 or more years ago.

Due to lost integrity, this property does not appear eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. However, the homesite has been designated an Administrative Landscape by the park. As such, it is managed as a cultural resource by the park and surviving cultural landscape resources are protected to the extent possible. For example, the field patterns are maintained by the National Park Service through mowing.

624. Tom Des Jean, former park archeologist, correspondence with the authors, 2014.



FIGURE 176. Surviving evidence of the Newtie King Farmstead includes the foundation evident in the rear, and lawn and tree plantings, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Industry Context Resources

Surviving Industrial and Engineering Resources

Blue Heron Mine Complex. The Blue Heron Mine Complex is situated along the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River in the Kentucky portion of the park. A town was constructed to support the Blue Heron Mine, also known as Stearns Lumber and Coal Company mine no. 18.

The mine community was abandoned in 1962 following the closure of the mine. At that time, many of the original buildings were removed, while others were left to deteriorate. Interpretation of community features was introduced during the 1980s by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers. At the time no original buildings remained on site with the exception of the tipple and sand house. Metal frames or "ghost structures" were constructed to reflect the configuration of the buildings historically present at the site.

Structures currently present at Blue Heron include the tipple and bridge, mine entrance, train depot, sand house walls, and ghost structures. The tipple has been restored to reflect its appearance when the mine was in operation (Figure 177). The structure sits over rails that would have allowed trains to receive coal from chutes located in the structure above. The steel and wood-framed building is clad in grooved sheet metal panels and is connected to a bridge that crosses Big South Fork (Figure 178).



FIGURE 177. Blue Heron tipple and bridge, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.



FIGURE 178. View of the bridge that extends from the Blue Heron tipple across Big South Fork, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Coal Tipple and Tramway Bridge (LCS No. 578708, HS-18). When it began operations in 1938, the Blue Heron tipple was a modern, state-of-the-art coal processing facility (Figure 179). Coal was first cleaned at the working face of the mine. However, the tipple also contained horizontal picking tables ahead of the three loading booms. Workers hand-cleaned the coal as it moved along on the tables. Coal fragments from the main shakers passed through vibrating screens and were moved with special fine-tooth segments and conveyors; fine fragments were collected to meet the rapidly growing demand for stoker coal.

Among the special features of the tipple's design were a separate mine-car dump bin and a two-speed reciprocating feeder and apron-type inspection table over which a large percentage of the mine output could be inspected.[625]

The Stearns engineers had experience with drop-bottom mine cars, which had been in use for sixteen years at some of the company's other mines. For the Blue Heron facility, the Stearns central shop fabricated fifty drop-bottom, 42-inch gauge mine cars. These cars could be unloaded "en train" into a 120-ton track bin located next to an inspection dump hopper. Coal from the hopper and inspection table was then conveyed to the main screens by a 76-foot-long apron-type feeder.[626]

Coal was processed in the tipple through a mechanized system that allowed for great efficiency:

> Vibrating screens handling 1x0" material, which had passed through the top section of the main shaker, prepared stoker coal by removing all the coal less than three-eighths of the picking tables was moved to the carbon track by the same conveyor that carried the under-size from the vibrators and which also moved the picking-table rejects to a seventh track, where the refuse was loaded into railroad cars for disposal. A cross conveyor, situated beyond the ends of the booms and encircling the crusher, delivered block, egg, or nut from the ends of the booms (in raised positions) to the crusher and carried the crushed product to a recirculating conveyor or to a choice of four loading tracks. Six sizes (from largest to smallest)—block, egg, nut, slack, stoker, and carbon—could be loaded simultaneously.
>
> The main screen consisted of two balanced single-deck sections, each 8 feet wide, which were suspended from short pendulum hangers. Five screen plates in each section, ten in all, provided 320 square feet of screening surface. Two plates in the upper section and one in the lower were fixed, but all other seven plates were arranged for quick changing to make any standard size in the range [of] 1-inch round to 8-inch round. The double-deck vibrating screen measured 5x14 feet and sat horizontally] under the main shaker. The crusher, a 36x54 inch single-roll type of welded construction, had special manganese-steel fine-tooth crushing segments and roller bearings on both roller and counter shafts. Frictional resistance was so slight that a normal-torque motor would start the unit without hesitation.
>
> Nineteen motors comprised the plant drive list and the total connected horsepower was 353. Except for one speed reduction on the inspection table, V-belts were used for the drive connections between motors and equipment. Wiring for both light and power was protected in rigid conduit and BX was used at the motors to provide flexibility for belt and adjustment. Magnetic starting and control switches were grouped in a dust-tight room and the pushbutton controls were mounted on a panel at the trimmer's platform. Automatic sequence starting was not selected, but instead the buttons were positioned on the panel in proper relation to the starting sequence. The two starting buttons and a speed change button for the inspection equipment were mounted at the inspection table. Emergency stop buttons were situation at four different points in the plant.
>
> Protection against loading tramp iron with the stoker coal was afforded with lading-chute magnets designed and built at the Stearns main shop. Original plans included installing high-pressure oil-spraying equipment for dustless treatment of all coal sizes. A mine-tack scale with an automatic attachment was installed just ahead of the inspection hopper. Galvanized corrugated-steel originally covered the roof and sides of the entire plant.[627]

625. Hutchinson et al., 162–163.
626. Ibid.
627. Ibid.

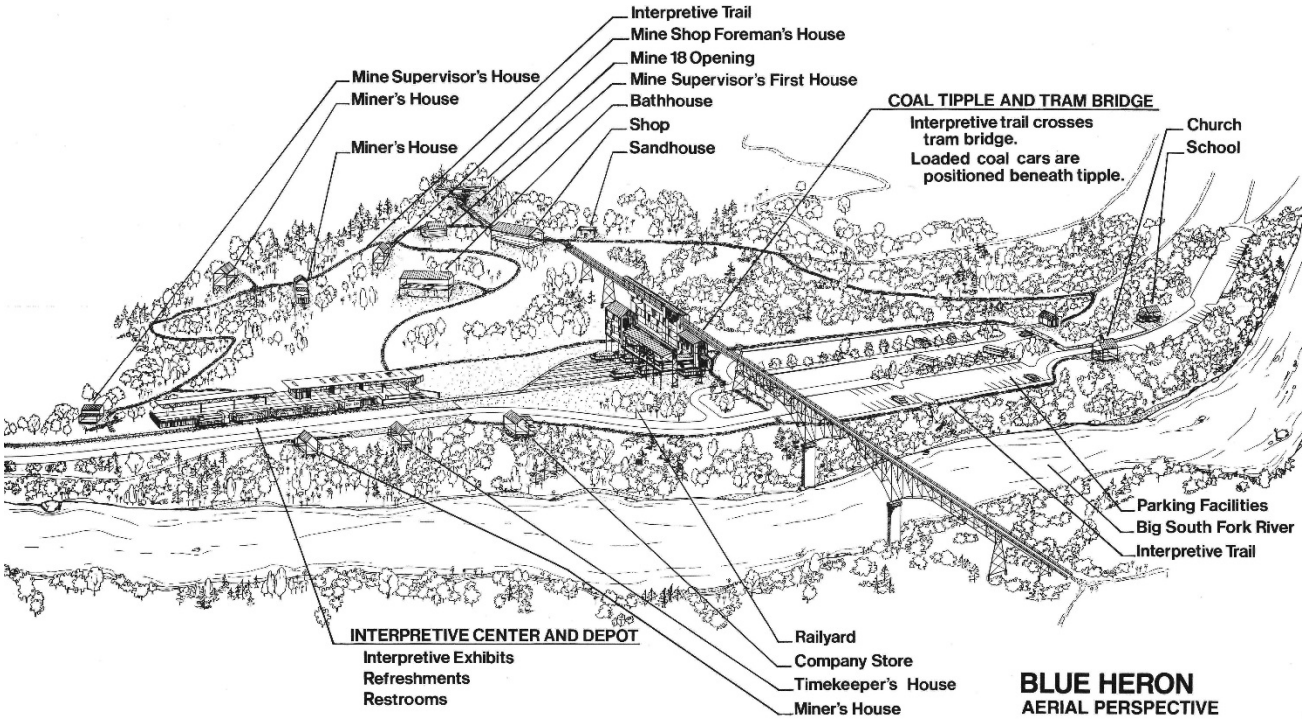


FIGURE 179. Sketch showing aerial perspective of Blue Heron Mine and interpretive area. Source: National Park Service.

Sand House Walls. The original walls of the sand house, located at the east end of the tramway bridge, still stand and convey to the visitor the knowledge that occasionally the rails would become "slick," especially during the winter, and had to be roughened with sand for the tram engines to gain traction.

Remains of the conveyor system used to process coal from other mines at Blue Heron Tipple are barely visible on the south side of the tipple and tramway bridge in the grass median of the upper, eastern parking lot.

Mine entrance. One of the original mine entrances remains in evidence today. The U.S. Army Corps of Engineers reestablished the opening and reinforced it with concrete to aid in interpretation. The Corps also laid railroad tracks extending out of the mine, as they would have been when the site was operational (Figure 180).



FIGURE 180. The interpreted Blue Heron mine entrance with mining equipment, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Interpretive resources. The present-day train depot is a modern concrete and steel structure built by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers in the 1980s. This rectangular, open-air building is defined by an overhanging exposed truss roof and contains a train platform adjacent to the railroad (Figure 181). The train depot houses restrooms, a gift shop, and a park ranger office.



FIGURE 181. Blue Heron train depot, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

The outlines of seven residences, including the supervisor's residence, are interpreted on the site using steel frame ghost structures. Each structure represents a different theme of life at Blue Heron. The structures are typically defined by a covered porch and a gable roof, and are easily identifiable as residences (Figure 182 and Figure 183).

In addition to the residences, ghost structures interpret a bathhouse, repair shop, schoolhouse, church, and company store. The frame structure of the bathhouse is covered by a saltbox roof. It extends over surviving concrete foundation walls (Figure 184). The repair shop is a long rectangular frame structure with a gable roof. The one-room schoolhouse that once occupied the site is now represented by an L-shaped frame structure with a gable roof (Figure 185).

The former church building is a frame structure with a gable roof. A set of stairs leads visitors into the structure. A small cupola is located on the roof near the front of the building.

The company store, a common feature of coal towns in the area, is represented by a frame structure with a side wing and covered porch; the main portion of the store is covered by a gable roof while the side wing and porch are covered by shed roofs.



FIGURE 182. One of the ghost structures that interprets a Blue Heron Mine Complex residence, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.



FIGURE 183. A Blue Heron ghost structure representing the supervisor's residence, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.



FIGURE 184. The Blue Heron ghost structure representing the bathhouse, 2010. Note the concrete remains of an original structure to the right. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.



FIGURE 185. The Blue Heron ghost structure representing the school house, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Gauging Stations (E017, E019). Two concrete gauging stations are present within the gorge. One is located near Burnt Mill Bridge, while the other edges the Big South Fork River at Bear Creek. These concrete block structures were constructed to monitor water levels likely during the late 1920s, possibly in response to the flooding that occurred within the region. They appear to contribute to the industry context by providing loggers with information about when river levels were high enough to float logs to market. These gauges appear unaltered and possess sufficient integrity to be considered for listing in the National Register of Historic Places as part of a larger historic district.

Mining communities: Yamacraw, Barthell, Comargo, Worley, Zenith, Gernt, Oz, White Oak Junction, Cooperative, Fidelity, Exodus. A number of railroad communities were established in conjunction with the expansion of the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad, as its line was extended to reach the locations of new mines created by the Stearns Coal Company. These communities were established from 1903 until 1918, and inhabited as long as the local mines were in service. They included **Barthell**, located on Roaring Paunch Creek near its confluence with the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River, and supporting Stearns Coal Company coal mines no. 1 and no. 2; **Comargo,** similarly located near the confluence of Roaring Paunch Creek and the Big South Fork River, supporting mine no. 2 (and abandoned after the flood of 1929); **Worley**, located along the banks of the Big South Fork and supporting mines no. 3 and no. 5; **Yamacraw,** located on both sides of the Big South Fork River and supporting mines no. 10 and no. 11; **Oz**, located on the western bank of the Big South Fork along the Rock Creek tributary beyond Yamacraw, and supporting mine no. 16; **White Oak Junction**, located farther west than Oz, across the Big South Fork and down its Rock Creek tributary from Yamacraw, and supporting mine no. 15 and mine no. 17; and **Cooperative,** located west of White Oak Junction and serving mines no. 15 and no. 17. The Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad continued to be extended west from Cooperative to support two additional coal mines, Fidelity North A and Fidelity South A, and the town of **Fidelity** on the banks of Rock Creek. The rail line was then extended further west to a terminus near the town of **Exodus** on the banks of Rock Creek, established to service mine no. 14.[628] Other smaller

628. Correspondence by Tom Des Jean with the authors, 2014.

coal mining communities located within the boundary of Big South Fork include **Gernt** and **Zenith**.

In addition to the mines themselves, features associated with the mining communities and sites that survive today include remnant bridge and building foundations, residential mining camps and town sites, and relic spur rail lines and inclines. Although these resources typically do not retain integrity aboveground, they likely possess information potential as archeological sites.

Salttown/Salienville (Beatty Saltworks No. 1). As identified through archeological studies, the saltworks site includes the remains of a stone fireplace constructed of unmortared sandstone, built into the hill directly opposite an old road running along the terrace (Figure 186). A nearby ravine is thought to result from erosional processes related to digging the well.[629] Other large, excavated depressions with rocks stacked to form piles and walls nearby are thought to be the remains of the salt extraction camp.[630] Although these resources do not retain aboveground integrity, the saltworks site likely possesses information potential as archeological sites.

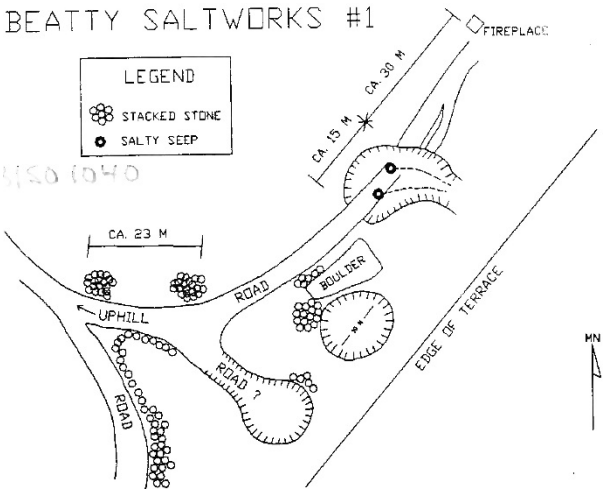


FIGURE 186. Plan of Salttown/Salienville (Beatty Saltworks No. 1). Source: Prentice (1993), Figure 30.

No Business Creek Community (mill race, piers, hotel ruins, walls, other remnant features). At No Business Creek, evidence of a mill race that may have supported a grist or other type of mill can still be discerned, as well as piers and other remnant features. Although these features lack aboveground integrity, they do possess information potential as archeological sites. Evidence of niter mining and home production of alcohol remain in the rock shelters around No Business Creek. These features also possess information potential as archeological sites.

Oil well sites along Oil Well Branch. As the coal industry grew throughout the Big South Fork region, oil and natural gas industries also emerged. The existence of oil springs and reserves within the region led to exploration and drilling at various locations throughout the region. Although these efforts often had limited success, remnant features of oil drilling operations remain at several locations, including the Beatty Well (where oil was found in 1818 by entrepreneurs drilling for salt), and where a single capped pipe remains as visible evidence of these efforts. Other sites include oil fields located along the Little South Fork and around Allardt and Rugby; the American well, located north of the Big South Fork area on the Cumberland River; oil exploration by Forest Oil, a subsidiary of Standard Oil, near the Rugby colony; drilling by several out-of-state oil companies in Overton and Pickett counties. Little remains to indicate the locations of these sites, and remnant features—which include drill pads, well casings, chimney falls, and pier stones related to several home sites—lack aboveground integrity; however, the oil well sites may possess information potential as archeological sites.

629. Prentice (1993), 99.

630. Ibid., 102.

Transportation Context Resources

Surviving Transportation and Engineering Resources

Several road corridors, rail lines, and bridge structures survive with integrity within Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area that can be tied to the transportation history of the region. These transportation resources reflect settlement patterns and land use history spanning an extended period that begins before recorded history and continues through park establishment. The individual resources of significance are described below.

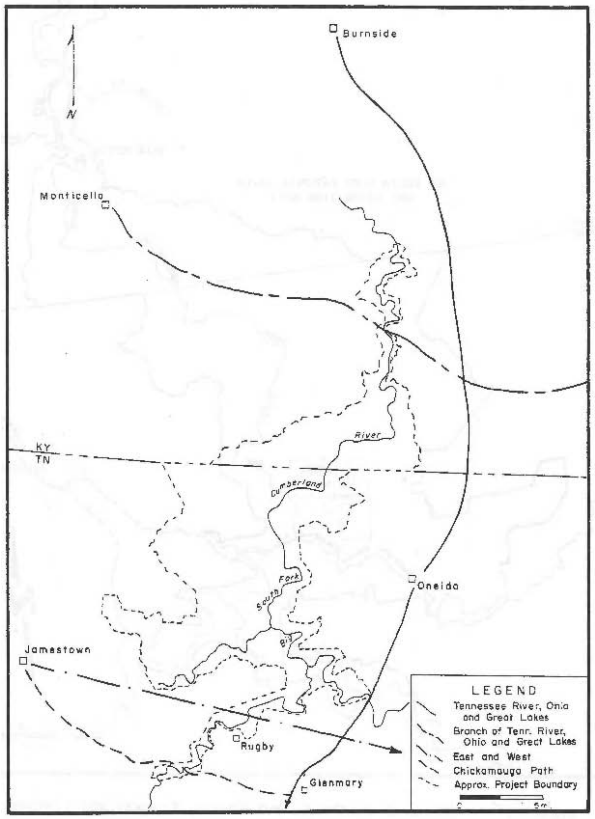


FIGURE 187. Diagram of Native American trails associated with the Big South Fork area at the time of European-American settlement. These trails formed the basis for the existing Tennessee Highway 52 and Kentucky Highway 297. Source: National Park Service.

Kentucky Highway 92. The Kentucky Highway 92 road corridor generally follows a travel route first established by Native Americans known as the Baker-Watters Bridle Way that connected settlements at Yamacraw with those located near Williamsburg, Kentucky. The route was later adopted for use by European-Americans to link the communities of Williamsburg and Monticello. The road remained an important travel corridor for local residents throughout the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

During the late twentieth century, the route was paved and widened to accommodate vehicular use. Today, the road is a two-lane asphalt paved county highway. The road appears to possess sufficient integrity to be considered for listing in the National Register of Historic Places either individually or as part of a larger historic district.

Tennessee Highway 297. Tennessee Highway 297 crosses the Big South Fork River gorge in the south central portion of the park, first passing through the relatively level plateau area occupied by the Bandy Creek Visitor Center. The present-day road crosses the river via a bridge constructed in 1982 that replaced daily use of the historic Low Water Bridge that survives to its north.

This road corridor, also known as Leatherwood Ford Road, is a route known to have been present by the early twentieth century. Leatherwood Ford Road became the focus of plateau settlement during the early twentieth century.

The road was improved in 1975 and paved in 1982, except for the gorge section. Paving of roads within the gorge was not completed until 1985–1986.[631] Although Tennessee Highway 297 has been paved and widened to accommodate contemporary vehicle use, which has diminished its historic integrity, the road appears to possess sufficient integrity to be considered for listing in the National Register of Historic Places either individually or as part of a larger historic district.

631. Cari Goetchus and David Hasty, Trip Report, BISO, July 7–12, 1997, 12.

Leatherwood Ford Low Water Bridge (LCS No. 579462, HS-19). The Leatherwood Ford Low Water Bridge crosses the Big South Fork near Tennessee Highway 297. It was the site of a ford used by Native Americans, and early explorers and settlers. The ford was later incorporated into an important local travel route known as Leatherwood Ford Road. The ford was improved during the WPA era through construction of a concrete bridge. The low water structure, designed to be passable during low water periods, functioned between its construction in 1938–1939 and construction of the current bridge circa 1981-1982.

The bridge is composed of a series of concrete piers that parallel the flow of the river, and a wooden planking surface. It is designed to survive overwash during high water periods. However, the bridge planking deteriorates frequently and washes away approximately every seven years. Also, periodic damage to the supporting steel I-beam construction has caused some of the beams to be replaced at least once since 1982. Flooding has damaged the bridge several times (Figure 188). Repairs have involved replacement of the wood planking, along with the concrete approach leading to the bridge from the nearby parking area. Although none of the planking is original, the bridge retains integrity of design, location, association, feeling, and setting. The bridge was determined eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places by the Tennessee SHPO in September 1981 due to its design and association with the WPA. The SHPO concurrence letter notes: "The minimum 'go-with-the-flow' design approach embodied in the 'Low Water' bridge provides an interesting contrast to the conventional design. Although there have been replacements of portions of the bridge due to wash out, it retains the basic configuration and function and is eligible under Criterion 60.6c."[632]



FIGURE 188. The low water bridge after a washout. Source: National Park Service.

Tennessee Highway 52. Tennessee Highway 52, which spans the far southern portion of the park, is thought to generally follow the route of an east–west Native American trail that predates European-American settlement of the region (Figure 187). The trail linked settlements near present-day Jamestown and White Oak Creek. The state highway is a two-lane, asphalt paved rural route that passes from east to west through a very short section of the park. It links Jamestown, Tennessee, the Fentress County seat, to the west, with Rugby and Elgin to the east. Elgin is located at the intersection with U.S. Highway 27, another important travel corridor that follows the route of a Native American trail.

Although Tennessee Highway 52 has been paved and widened to accommodate contemporary vehicle use, which has diminished its historic integrity, the road appears to possess sufficient integrity to be considered for listing in the National Register of Historic Places either individually or as part of a larger historic district.

Oneida and Western Railroad Line ruins. The Oneida and Western Railroad was an important transportation route that stretched between Oneida and Jamestown, Tennessee

632. Herbert L. Harper, Executive Director and Deputy State Historic Preservation Officer, letter to E. C. Moore, Chief Engineering Division, Corps of Engineers, Nashville District, September 14, 1981.

(Figure 189 and Figure 190). It was established to support industrial activities conducted within the Basin during the early twentieth century. The line was abandoned in 1954 and the track was subsequently removed. One of the bridges associated with the railbed (see below) was left in place and reused as part of Oneida & Western Road, which appears to follow the original rail line route and provides access into the park.

Other evidence of the line that survives today within the park includes concrete bridge piers and stone hut foundations. The rail line has otherwise lost integrity as an active transportation corridor and no longer possesses sufficient aboveground evidence to convey its historic associations. Surviving above and below ground evidence of the rail line likely possesses information potential, however, and constitutes an archeological site.

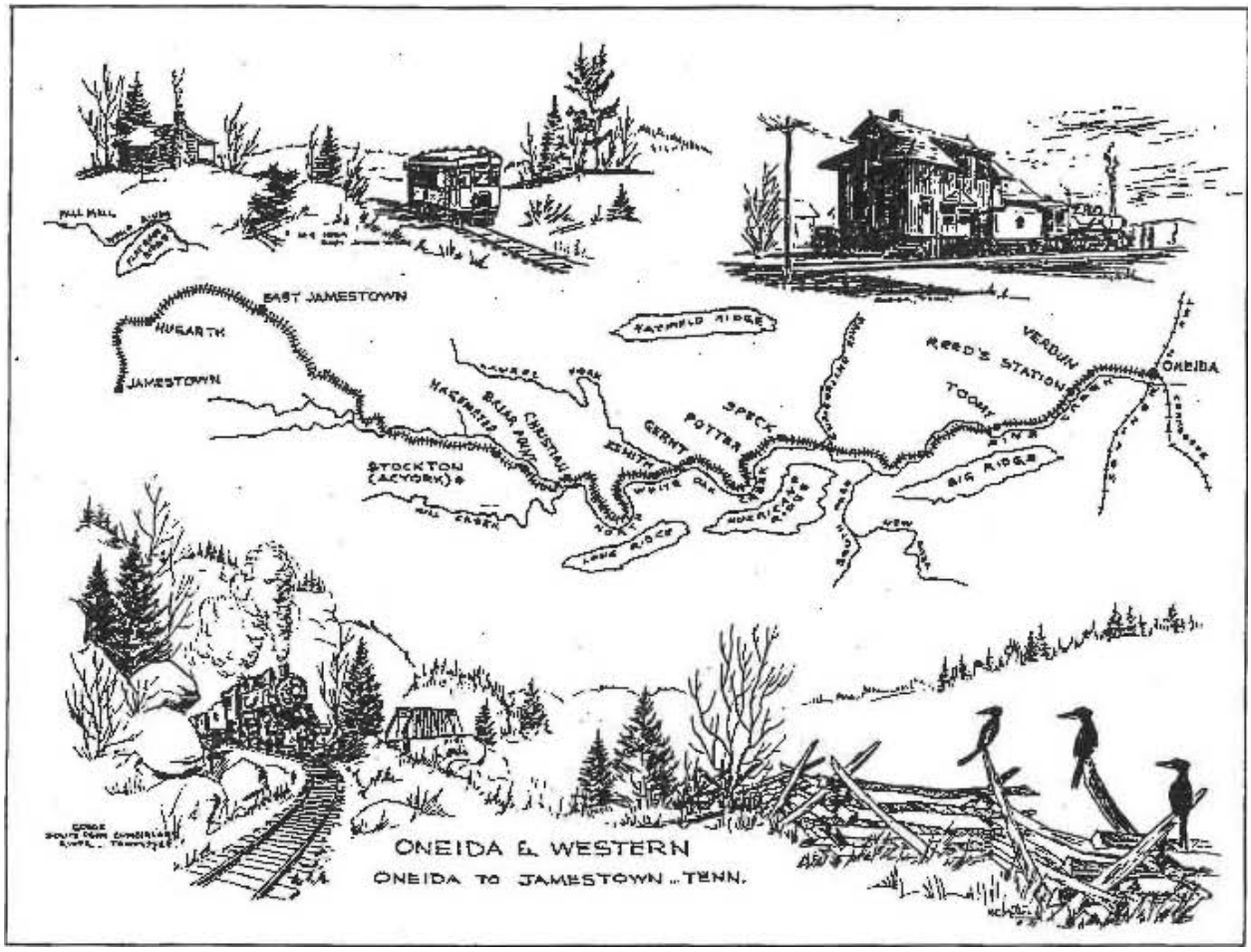


FIGURE 189. Sketch plan of the Oneida and Western Railroad line. Source: National Park Service.

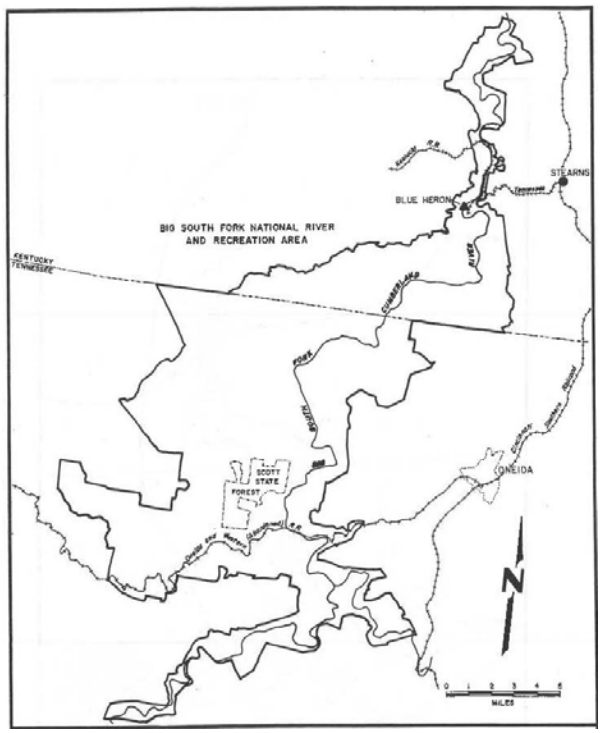


FIGURE 190. Route of the Oneida and Western Railroad line as it passed through Big South Fork. Source: National Park Service.

Oneida and Western Railroad Whipple Truss Bridge (E009). The Oneida and Western Railroad Whipple Truss Bridge that survives within the park crosses Big South Fork in the southeastern segment of the park. The bridge was erected in 1915 and served the railroad until its abandonment in 1954. The bridge is of the Whipple truss design, an engineering style used during the mid to late nineteenth century. It appears that the existing bridge was previously used by another railroad and then moved to Big South Fork and adapted to accommodate the needs of the Oneida and Western Railroad line. It is a rare surviving example of the Whipple truss design.

Although aspects of the bridge are in deteriorated condition, it has been little altered and appears to possess sufficient integrity to convey its historic associations. The bridge was determined eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places by the Tennessee SHPO in September 1981. The SHPO concurrence letter notes:

> The bridge includes four spans—three riveted plate girder approach spans and a 200 foot Double Intersection Pratt or Whipple truss. Fabricated prior to 1890 the bridge design uses pin-connected, wrought iron structural members.
>
> Based on the results of the state-wide bridge survey, which is in progress, the Whipple design is rare in surviving examples of truss bridges and as such meets National Register criterion 60.6c as an outstanding example of a type and method of construction. The setting is also significant since the west abutment is on a huge boulder.[633]

The portion of the Oneida and Western Railroad right-of-way located in Fentress County was transferred to the NPS.

Toomy Stop Bridge (LCS No. 92213). The Toomy Stop Bridge spans Pine Creek. It was also associated with the Oneida and Western Railroad line. The bridge is a two-span plate girder structure manufactured by the Detroit Bridge and Iron Works in 1887. The bridge is an early example of this bridge design type and was determined to meet National Register Criterion 60.6c as an example of a type and method of construction in 1981. The former railroad bridge was later converted for vehicular use and incorporated into the route of Oneida & Western Road.[634] It is not clear whether this bridge falls within the park boundary, but it too is one of Scott County's resources.

Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad Line (Big South Fork Scenic Railway). The Stearns Company established the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad in 1902 to facilitate transport of timber and coal resources extracted from the Big South Fork region. During the heyday of Stearns logging and coal mining operations, circa

633. Herbert L. Harper, Executive Director and Deputy State Historic Preservation Officer, letter to E.C. Moore, Chief Engineering Division, Corps of Engineers, Nashville District, September 14, 1981.

634. Ibid.

1905 through 1950, it was the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad that held the vast operation together.

By 1907, the line had reached mine sites where a company town was established along Rock Creek, and soon began to transport coal, lumber, and passengers. Additional construction of the line required completion of an extensive bridge over the Big South Fork at the mouth of Rock Creek in 1907 (see the description of the Yamacraw Bridge below). After completion of the Yamacraw Bridge in 1909, the line continued westward. By 1923, it had been completed to its proposed terminus at Bell Farm (Figure 191). By the time of its completion, the line included stops at the mining towns of Barthell, Comargo, Worley, Yamacraw, Oz, White Oak Junction, Cooperative, Fidelity, Exodus, and Bell Farm. A spur line, referred to as the Stearns Logging Railroad, was later built up Rock Creek from Bell Farm approximately 20 miles between circa 1924 and the early 1930s. The line did not offer passenger service like the main line.[635] The spur later provided access to the Blue Heron mine, one of the Stearns Company's largest operations that was located near Devil's Jump along the Big South Fork River.

The rail line began to decline after World War II for several reasons. Much of the Stearns coal had been sold as locomotive fuel. In the early 1950s, the railroad industry replaced coal-fired steam locomotives with oil and electric diesel engines, substantially diminishing the market for coal. Also, oil and natural gas had begun replacing coal for domestic and industrial heating. In addition, logging had slowed substantially as the Stearns holdings had been completely timbered by 1950.

The Tennessee portion of the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad closed in 1950. Passenger service was discontinued on the remaining sections of the line on January 1, 1952. The section of the main line that connected White Oak Junction and Bell Farm was abandoned on March 28, 1952.[636] The rails associated with the White Oak Junction to Cooperative branch and the main line between White Oak Junction and Oz were taken up in 1957, leaving only 10.5 miles of line in service between Stearns and Yamacraw. Since the 1980s, the Kentucky and Tennessee has been adaptively reused as a touring train that visitors ride between Stearns, Kentucky, and the Blue Heron mine camp site within the park. The train is conveyed using a steam locomotive.

Only a third of the original rail line remains in active use today. The track has been removed from the rest of the line. The abandoned section continues to exhibit evidence of the former rail line, such as reinforced concrete bridge abutments (LCS No. 92215) near the former Worley mine complex. Although it does not retain integrity, the abandoned section likely constitutes an archeological resource. The surviving segment possesses sufficient integrity to be considered for listing in the National Register of Historic Places as part of a larger historic district.

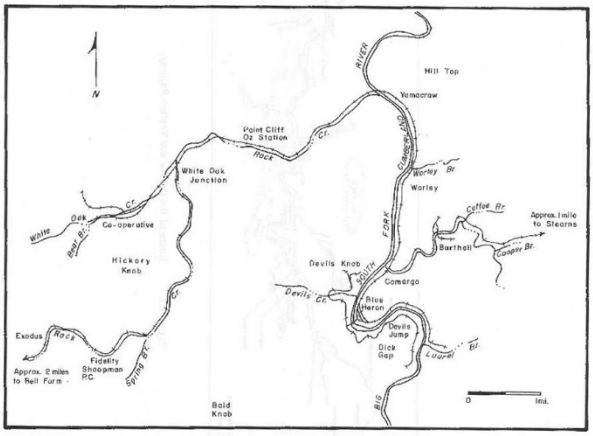


FIGURE 191. Route of the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad line as it passed through Big South Fork. Source: National Park Service.

Yamacraw Bridge (E023). The Yamacraw Bridge, built in 1909 to convey the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad across the Big South Fork River in the northern segment of the park, is the oldest bridge within the park. The 565-foot-long bridge was designed by Ward Baldwin, a civil engineer based in Cincinnati, Ohio, and was a notable achievement in railway engineering.[637] The engineered structure features a 56-foot reinforced

635. McBride and McBride, V-66.
636. Hutchinson et al., 13–14.
637. Ibid., 17.

and ballast-filled concrete arch, the first and one of the longest of its type to be built in the South.[638] Yamacraw developed rapidly after the bridge was completed. The bridge appears to have been little altered since its original construction and possesses sufficient integrity to convey its historic associations. The bridge was determined eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places by the Kentucky SHPO in September 1981. It appears to possess integrity and remain eligible for listing.

Roaring Paunch Plate-Girder Bridge (E021). At one time, six plate-girder bridges were associated with the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad line through the Basin. The Roaring Paunch Plate-Girder structure is the best, and only surviving, example of this bridge type in the area today. This bridge afforded access to the Blue Heron Tipple and Tram beginning in the 1930s. The bridge appears to have been little altered since its original construction and possesses sufficient integrity to convey its historic associations. The bridge was determined eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places by the Kentucky SHPO in September 1981. It appears to possess integrity and remain eligible for listing.

Burnt Mill Bridge (E003). Constructed by the Oneida and Western Railroad circa 1914–1918 and located on the Clear Fork tributary of the Big South Fork, the Burnt Mill Bridge (Figure 192) is a popular riverside area for shore fishing, wading, picnicking, boat access, and baptisms. This bridge is another historic engineering resource, a combination Pratt through and Pratt pony truss bridge, the only surviving structure of the kind within the Basin. This bridge was considered to possess state level significance in 1981, but not formally evaluated for National Register eligibility, as it was recommended for consideration as a part of a larger study of historic bridges by the Tennessee Department of Transportation. The National Register status of this bridge is not currently known. It is likely eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. Also of interest is a cistern structure located upslope and adjacent to the Burnt Mill Bridge (Figure 193). A nearby mine adit was covered during work associated with construction of a paved parking area in the early 1990s, and additional grading and construction of a comfort station were completed in 2010; however, the mine adit remains, although obscured.



FIGURE 192. Burnt Mill Bridge, located on the Clear Fork Tributary. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 193. Cistern structure located upslope and adjacent to Burnt Mill Bridge, 2014. Source: National Park Service.

North White Oak Bridge. Constructed by the Oneida and Western Railroad circa 1914–1918, the North White Oak Bridge (Figure 194 and Figure 195) is a plate and girder bridge on the Oneida and Western Railroad bed that crosses North White Oak Creek. It is a low (less than 5 foot) plate-sided, hot-riveted girder structure that was only recently discovered. It represents the only example of this low-sided plate style bridge

638. Howell et al. (1981), 95–96.

anywhere within the basin of the Big South Fork. As a pristine example of this type of engineering structure, it is considered eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. It remains to be evaluated through a Determination of Eligibility. The bridge is owned by the U.S. Government and managed by the National Park Service at Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area.



FIGURE 194. North White Oak Bridge, which crosses North White Oak Creek, 2014. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 195. View looking across North White Oak Bridge, 2014. Source: National Park Service.

No Business Creek Community Road. This road dates to development of the No Business Creek farm community that grew up within the stream valley during the early nineteenth century. Stone retaining walls, drainage culverts, and other landscape features survive along the road. Although it has lost integrity of setting due to the lack of aboveground features associated with the farm community, the earthen road possesses sufficient integrity to be considered for listing in the National Register of Historic Places as part of a larger historic district.

Parch Corn Creek Community Road. Like the No Business Creek Community road, the travel corridor associated with the Parch Corn Creek community followed the route of the stream corridor. Evidence of the route established during the early nineteenth century survives today, although few of the historic community features remain present. The earthen road possesses sufficient integrity to be considered for listing in the National Register of Historic Places as part of a larger historic district.

Station Camp Creek Community Road. The road that historically served the Station Camp Creek community also survives within the Big South Fork gorge. Like Parch Corn Creek and No Business Creek community roads, Station Camp Creek community road follows the alignment of a stream valley; farmsteads and other features were historically sited along the road that are little represented aboveground today. Although its integrity is diminished due to the loss of most aboveground features of the farm community, the earthen road possesses sufficient integrity to be considered for listing in the National Register of Historic Places as part of a larger historic district.

State Boundary Markers (LCS No. 92213). There are two boundary stones located within the park that mark Kentucky and Tennessee state lines. The Tennessee boundary stone is a small sandstone block that extends approximately 1 foot, 6 inches from the ground, and measures 10 inches by 7 inches (Figure 196). The inscription is worn but portions of "TENN" can still be discerned. A USGS survey benchmark medallion has been set into the top of the marker. The Kentucky boundary stone is similar in form and size (Figure 197). These stones are thought to have been installed in 1889. Although the specific need for the stones is not currently clear, they were likely placed in response to a property dispute or purchase effort. The two stones are in fair condition. However, they possess sufficient integrity to be considered for listing in the

National Register of Historic Places as part of a larger historic district.



FIGURE 196. Tennessee State boundary stone. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 197. Kentucky State boundary stone. Source: National Park Service.

Recreation Context Resources

Surviving Historic Resources

Several recreation-related resources survive within Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area with integrity that can be tied to the historic recreation context associated with the park. These recreation resources are located throughout the park. They reflect mid-twentieth century demographic changes that resulted in the establishment of federal forest reservations and a unit of the national park system for the benefit and enjoyment of the public. The individual resources of significance are individually described below.

Charit Creek Lodge Complex. The Charit Creek Lodge Complex features components of a historic nineteenth and twentieth century gorge farmstead property that was extensively altered in the 1960s to serve as a commercial hunting lodge. As such, it has been evaluated herein as a recreational resource. Structures on the site today include the lodge, two relocated historic cabin structures, three heavily altered farmstead structures dating to the early twentieth-century, and a number of utilitarian and support structures constructed in the 1980s (Figure 198 through Figure 201). Several of these features were part of the original farm; others have been moved to the site. Many of the structures have been extensively altered to accommodate new uses.

Charit Creek was originally the location of a long hunter base or station camp during the late 1700s. In 1824, Burdine Young and Anderson Young patented 100 acres on the Middle Fork of Station Camp Creek that year.[639] Young later improved the eastern portion of the tract that includes the lodge complex; the original log cabin is thought to have been built in 1832.[640] Ali Hatfield purchased the Young property in 1832. Hatfield sold the property to William Tackett in 1848, who later transferred the land to Anderson Smith in 1853.[641] The property was owned by several others over

639. Entries 77 and 78, Fentress County, Kentucky warrant 345, South of Walker's Line. See HABS entry "Burdine Young Farm (Charit Creek Lodge, Hog Farm, BS40e, BS40i, BS41).

640. Wayne County Deed Book F:64. See HABS.

641. Wayne County Deed Book, F:64, Fentress County Deed Book E:280, and Fentress County Deed Book H:13.

time, including Isaac King, Jonathan Burke, John Blevins, Kirk Phillips, and Joe Simpson.

John Blevins, a descendant of Jonathan Blevins, one of the long hunters thought to have established a long hunter station camp in the area during the eighteenth century, owned the property during the early twentieth century. Blevins is known to have raised hogs on the property.

As part of the property's conversion into a hunting lodge, several buildings were moved onto the property by Joe Simpson, including cabins that are used today as guest houses. Although some of the buildings and landscape features can be traced to original nineteenth century farm use, the site has been extensively modified from its original use and character due to the numerous changes made in the 1960s and 1970s. Nonetheless, the property is a cultural landscape that also includes a road, fields, fencing, and planted vegetation.

Charit Creek Lodge/John Blevins House (LCS No. 92187, HS-2). Charit Creek Lodge is a one-and-one-half-story log saddlebag home with a one-story single-pen addition connected to the original house by a frame structure (Figure 202). The lodge features a gable roof covered with corrugated metal. A shed-roofed porch edges the single-pen addition. Another shed-roofed board and batten shed addition extends across the rear of the saddlebag structure and the frame hyphen. Chimneys are located at either end of the building (Figure 203).

The original structure is composed of hemlock and poplar logs with white concrete chinking. It may include the original single-pen log structure built by Burdine Young circa 1832, based on deed records. It was extensively altered by Joe Simpson in the 1960s to serve as the central structure of the Parch Corn Creek Hunting Lodge, a commercial operation. The single-pen addition is thought to have been assembled from the remains of another saddlebag structure brought to the site from a nearby farmstead. It was connected by board and batten sheathed balloon framing and an extension of the roof. The existing roof is not the original and has changed the appearance of the building.

In 1976, the National Park Service and the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers signed an interim management agreement for continuing use of the lodge that resulted in additional rehabilitation at Parch Corn Hunting Lodge, and its renaming as Charit Creek Hostel. Later, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers built a new board-and-batten kitchen, restrooms and shower buildings, a steel frame horse barn, and a utility building. The complex subsequently offered lodging to hikers, bicyclists, and equestrians, as well as hunters and fishermen.

The Charit Creek Lodge structure has lost integrity as a farmstead resource. However, it has served recreational needs since the 1960s. As such it contributes to the recreational context of the park's proposed rural historic district.

Charit Creek Lodge cabins. There are also two cabins associated with the lodge property that were moved to the property from other nearby sites by Joe Simpson (Figure 204). The U.S. Army Corps of Engineers enhanced the resources available for visitors by renovating these two structures, known as the Booger Blevins and Jack Blevins cabins.[642]

While these retain a character that is consistent with the local vernacular architecture, they are not original to the property and are not individually eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. They do, however, contribute to the cultural landscape of the lodge as a recreational complex established during the period of significance as a commercial hunting retreat.

642. These structures had been relocated to this location from other nearby sites by Joe Simpson.



FIGURE 198. Smithy at Charit Creek Lodge. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 199. Modified corn crib, Charit Creek Lodge. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 200. Barn, Charit Creek Lodge, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.



FIGURE 201. Former privy, Charit Creek Lodge, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.



FIGURE 202. View of Charit Creek Lodge, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

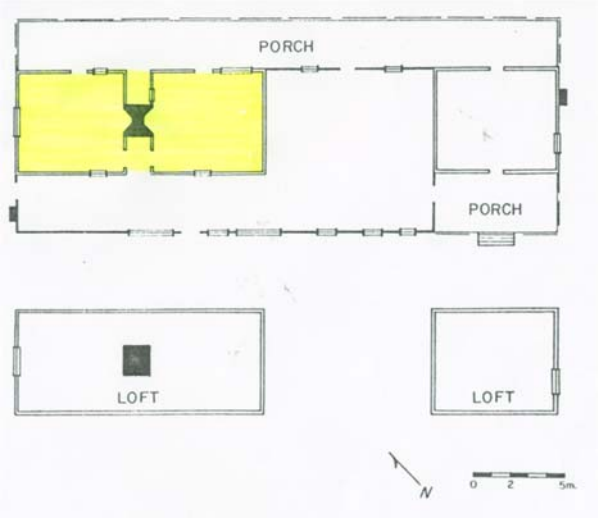


FIGURE 203. Diagram of the Charit Creek Lodge with the original saddlebag structure built by Burdine Young indicated in yellow. Source: National Park Service.



FIGURE 204. Additional lodging structures at Charit Creek, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

John Blevins Barn (LCS No. 92186, HS-1). The John Blevins Barn is thought to have been constructed circa 1925–1930 to support subsistence agricultural activities. The barn is an example of the vernacular folk architecture of Southern Appalachia and exhibits the design and construction techniques of the former residents of the isolated Station Camp Creek community.

The barn is a large, two-story, four-crib log structure that measures 34 feet square in plan, and is constructed of hand-hewn hemlock and oak logs with half-dovetail corner notching (Figure 205). Several massive, hewn logs span the length of each elevation. The gable roof is covered with corrugated metal, while the barn rests on rebuilt stone footers. The gable ends are open at the top. Attached to the two posts are evenly-spaced vertical boards that serve as a ventilator. This suggests that the upper portion of the barn was likely used as a tobacco loft.[643]

The barn is one of the features that survive with integrity from its early twentieth century construction date. The principal change to the building involved stabilization and repair of the foundation and sill logs by the National Park Service in response to damage caused by flooding. The barn was determined eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places in 1981 by the Tennessee SHPO. It is the only barn of its type in the region. It survives with sufficient integrity to convey its historic associations and appears eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places either individually, or as part of a Charit Creek Lodge cultural landscape or a larger historic district.



FIGURE 205. The John Blevins Barn, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

John Blevins Smithy (LCS No. 92189, HS-4). The John Blevins Smithy is thought to have been constructed circa 1920–1930 to support subsistence agricultural activities. The smithy is an example of the vernacular folk architecture of Southern Appalachia and exhibits the design and

643. LCS entry.

construction techniques of the former residents of the isolated Station Camp Creek community.

The smithy is a one-story, single-crib structure constructed of rived oak logs with V-notched corners (Figure 206). The structure measures 14 feet square in plan. It rests on a dry-piled stone foundation. The gable end walls of the building are of vertical plank construction. The gable roof is covered with a replacement corrugated metal roof. There is a single doorway in one gable end.[644]

The smithy is one of the features that survive with integrity from its early twentieth century construction date. The principal change to the building has involved stabilization through replacement of a sill log and roof beams and the addition of a corrugated metal roof by the National Park Service. The smithy was determined eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places in 1981 by the Tennessee SHPO. The building is a unique example of the type within the region. It survives with sufficient integrity to convey its historic associations and appears eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places either individually or as part of a Charit Creek Lodge cultural landscape or a larger historic district.



FIGURE 206. The John Blevins Smithy, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

John Blevins Corn Crib or Smokehouse (LCS No. 92188, HS-3). The John Blevins Corn Crib or Smokehouse is thought to have been constructed circa 1920–1937 to support subsistence agricultural activities. The building is an example of the vernacular folk architecture of Southern Appalachia and exhibits the design and construction techniques of the former residents of the isolated Station Camp Creek community.

The corn crib or smokehouse is a small, one-story, single-crib outbuilding that measures 16 feet by 17 feet in plan. The structure is framed with hand-hewn, half-dovetail notched poplar, pine, and hemlock logs (Figure 207). It features a gable roof covered with corrugated metal. A circular metal chimney protrudes from the roof, and, along with the chinking of the walls, suggests smokehouse use. The gable end walls are of vertical weatherboard. The structure rests on sandstone footers. A single doorway is located in one of the gable ends and a sliding vertical window has been mounted on its side on the wall opposite the doorway.[645]

The corn crib or smokehouse is one of the features that survives with integrity from its early twentieth century construction date. The principal changes to the building have involved installation of a casement window in each end gable, a corrugated metal roof, and replacement of wall chinking. The structure was determined eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places in 1981 by the Tennessee SHPO. The building is a unique example of the type within the region. It survives with sufficient integrity to convey its historic associations and appears eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places either individually or as part of the Charit Creek Lodge Complex cultural landscape or a larger historic district.

644. LCS entry.

645. LCS entry.



FIGURE 207. The John Blevins Corn Crib or Smokehouse. Source: National Park Service.

Other Recreation Context Features

CCC Bunkhouse at Fork Ridge Road. The CCC is known to have constructed a fire tower and bunkhouse on a knob along Fork Ridge Road. The site falls within the boundary of the park. A sign on the bunkhouse, since removed, noted that the structure was built by CCC Company 1471 in 1934. The original wooden tower was replaced in 1967 by a steel structure that was removed 10 years later. The cement piers for the tower and the collapsing bunkhouse are currently all that survive on the site within an overgrown forest landscape (Figure 208).

The bunkhouse is a chinked log structure that features a gable roof that extends in front of the building to form a generous covered front porch beneath the gable end. In its current ruinous condition, the building does not appear eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. It should be evaluated for its information potential as an archeological site.



FIGURE 208. The collapsing CCC bunkhouse located on a spur off of Fork Ridge Road, 2012. Source: National Park Service.

CCC Stone Culverts along Divide Road. During the mid-1930s, camps of Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) enrollees were established in several locations in the Big South Fork region. The young men participating in the program engaged in construction tasks that included building hand-hewn stone drainage culverts, overlooks, and wood-framed fire towers and cabins. Several of the stone culverts constructed by the CCC to improve the condition of Jamestown, or Divide Road as it is now called, survive today at the western edge of the park. Surviving culverts that possess integrity would contribute to the significance of a rural historic district encompassing all or part of the park. Little information was obtained about the location or condition of surviving culverts through research conducted for this study, however.

Yahoo Falls Scenic Area. The Yahoo Falls Scenic Area was formerly part of the Daniel Boone National Forest, which was established in 1937 as the Cumberland National Forest, and officially renamed in honor of long hunter and explorer Daniel Boone in 1966. The U.S. Forest Service established the Yahoo Falls Recreation Area within the national forest in the 1960s. A small portion of the national forest, including Yahoo Falls, was transferred to Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area for administration by the National Park Service in 1987.

Yahoo Falls is one of the state's highest waterfalls. The landscape around the falls features magnificent vistas and examples of natural stone arches. Despite these amenities Yahoo Falls was not initially developed for visitor recreation in the 1930s due to the environmental scarring derived from years of logging and associated erosion.

Robert Collins, assigned the role of forest supervisor of the Cumberland National Forest in 1953, was instrumental in enhancing natural resource conservation within the national forest unit during his tenure. Hoping to attract more visitors to the Stearns Ranger District, and recognizing that further logging of the region would prove detrimental to the environment, Collins established Yahoo Falls as a recreation area during the 1960s. Facilities developed to support use as a recreation area included an access road that linked the top of the gorge with Alum Ford; a picnic area with potable water, fire pits, and toilets; a primitive campsite; and trails.

A feature added later for the 1976 National Bicentennial was a gravestone sited to mark the presumed burial place of a legendary local figure, Jacob Troxel (Figure 209). No one is buried here, however. The gravestone is located along the access road to the scenic area.



FIGURE 209. Gravestone placed by the U.S. Forest Service for the 1976 National Bicentennial (2010). No one is buried here. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Stone work associated with the trail, the overlook, and features at the picnic area, such as a stone drinking fountain and picnic shelter, which has had the wooden structure restored, possess sufficient integrity to contribute to the park as a rural historic district within the recreation context (Figure 210). The individual features that comprise the recreation area developments of the 1960s are described below.



FIGURE 210. Stone drinking fountain at the Yahoo Falls picnic area, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Picnic Area. The picnic area features a wooden shelter and a stone drinking fountain. The shelter is believed to have been constructed during the 1960s. It was restored in 2012 after it fell into a state of disrepair.

Yahoo Falls Trail and Overlook. The Yahoo Falls trail and overlook provide access to and views of the 113-foot-high Yahoo Falls. The 1-mile loop trail is stone-lined and supported by stone retaining walls and hand cut stone steps (Figure 211). The trail has been repaired over the years to allow passage through washed out sections. Steep metal steps have been used where the earthen grade can no longer be maintained. The trail passes behind the falls and through one of the largest rock shelters in the area. The trail also provides access to an overlook, composed of a stone platform edged by stone piers and log guardrails that affords views of the Big South Fork River (Figure 212).



FIGURE 211. The Yahoo Falls trail, including stone steps, 2010. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.



FIGURE 212. The Yahoo Falls trail overlook, affording a view of the river, 2010. The stone work of the overlook is attributed to the U.S. Forest Service in the 1960s. Source: Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

Alum Ford Campgrounds and Shelter. Alum Ford is located near the northern end of the park. Located in association with the ford site is a campground with campsites and a vault toilet facility. Visitors can access the Sheltowee Trace National Recreation trail to the south of the campground. The trail leads to the foundation of a house, including a standing chimney. Near this is a frame and timber Adirondack-style shelter built by the U.S. Forest Service in the 1960s (Figure 213). This feature appears to possess sufficient integrity to contribute to the significance of the park within the recreation context as part of a larger rural historic district.



FIGURE 213. The Adirondack-style shelter near the Alum Ford campground, 2005. Source: National Park Service.

John Muir National Recreation Trail. A section of the John Muir National Recreation Trail passes through Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area. This segment of the trail begins at Hidden Passage trailhead in Picket CCC Memorial State Park. The trail follows the river through the park for a long section, crossing the Leatherwood Ford Low Water Bridge, extending into the eastern portion of Cherokee National Forest near the Hiwassee State Scenic River, Polk County, Tennessee, and then to Honey Creek. Connection of the western and eastern segments was completed circa 2015. The trail commemorates John Muir's travel through the area in 1867 documented in his book *A Thousand Mile Walk to the Gulf*. Existing sections of the trail were constructed in 1972 through the efforts of the Youth Conservation Corps and the Senior Community Service Employment Program. Segments of the trail completed by 1974 contribute to the significance of the park within the recreation context as a rural historic district.



FIGURE 214. The Stearns CCC crew. Source: U.S. Forest Service, Daniel Boone National Forest.

Sheltowee Trace National Recreation Trail. Sheltowee is derived from a Native American term for turtle. Daniel Boone was given the name Sheltowee by Chief Blackfish of the Shawnee tribe. The Sheltowee Trace National Recreation Trail is a 290-mile-long backcountry path named in honor of Boone. It extends through much of the area explored and settled by early pioneers such as Boone within Kentucky and Tennessee. The Sheltowee Trace National Recreation Trail follows the route of the Hidden Passage Trail, located within Pickett State Park, later traversing Natural Bridge and Cumberland Falls state parks, as well as Big South Fork and Daniel Boone National Forest. The trail was designated a national recreation trail in 1979. It post-dates the proposed period of significance for the park and thus constitutes a non-contributing recreational resource.

Big South Fork Scenic Railway. As noted previously, a portion of the Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad line remains in service for excursion use by a concessioner. A steam locomotive is used to convey historic rail cars between Stearns, Kentucky, and the Blue Heron Mine Complex for visitors.

Cultural Landscapes, Ethnographic Resources, Archeology, and Museum Collections

The primary purpose of this chapter is to provide a broad understanding of the cultural resource types associated with Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area not specifically addressed in the previous historic context chapters of this HRS. These resource types include cultural landscapes, ethnographic resources, archeological resources, and museum collections. Relevant information relating to each is conveyed below.

Cultural Landscapes

As defined by the World Heritage Committee, cultural landscapes are cultural properties that represent the combined works of nature and of man. The National Park Service defines cultural landscapes as geographic areas (including both cultural and natural resources and the wildlife or domestic animals therein) associated with a historic event, activity, or person, or that exhibit other cultural or aesthetic values. There are four categories of cultural landscapes: historic sites, historic designed landscapes, historic vernacular landscapes, and ethnographic landscapes.[646]

Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area contains several cultural landscapes that can be characterized as historic landscape sites and historic vernacular landscapes.

The National Park Service records the resources and cultural and aesthetic values attributed to cultural landscapes through the Cultural Landscapes Inventory (CLI) initiative, an internet-based inventory of National Park Service-owned or managed properties determined eligible for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places. CLI property records include a site development history, significance evaluation, integrity assessment, identification of features contributing to significance, and condition assessment. The CLI partially satisfies the inventory and assessment requirements for cultural resources under Section 110 of the National Historic Preservation Act. More detailed information about cultural landscapes is developed through preparation of a Cultural Landscape Report (CLR), a thoroughly researched report that builds on the information gathered in the CLI. The CLR provides more extensive historic and existing conditions documentation, significance evaluation, and integrity assessment, with the goal of supporting a feasible long-term

646. Robert R. Page, Cathy Gilbert, and Susan A. Dolan, *A Guide to Cultural Landscape Reports: Contents, Process, and Techniques* (Washington, DC: US Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Cultural Resource Stewardship and Partnerships, Cultural Landscapes Program, Washington DC, 1998), 12.

treatment and preservation plan or strategy for the management of the cultural landscape.

In 1998–2000, the National Park Service completed a preliminary CLI for Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area as a whole, as well as CLIs for four of its historic vernacular landscapes: the Parch Corn Creek Farmstead, the John Litton/Charles Rudy Slaven Farmstead, the Oscar Blevins Farmstead, and the Lora Blevins Farmstead. Work was also initiated at the time on CLIs for Salttown/Salienville (also known as Beatty Saltworks No. 1) and the Ransom Boyatt Farmstead. These CLIs, however, were never completed due to a loss of integrity. There have been no CLRs prepared for the park or any of its cultural landscapes.

Based on preparation of this HRS, including an associated literature review, site visits, and resource assessment, Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area contains several cultural landscapes with sufficient integrity for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. These cultural landscapes may merit preparation of individual CLRs to ensure appropriate resource protection and preservation; they may also be found to contribute to a larger rural historic district within the park, or could be listed individually in the National Register of Historic Places.

Cultural landscapes identified at Big South Fork as part of this study include:

- Oscar Blevins Farmstead
- Lora Blevins Farmstead
- John Litton/Charles Rudy Slaven Farmstead
- Charit Creek Lodge Complex
- Blue Heron Mine Complex
- Yahoo Falls Scenic Area
- Low Water Bridge Transportation Complex
- Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad line

Additional cultural landscapes of interest, but which do not appear to possess aboveground integrity, include:

- Worley
- Salttown/Salienville (Beatty Saltworks No. 1)
- Parch Corn Creek Farmstead
- No Business Creek community
- Ransom Boyatt Farmstead ruins
- Parch Corn Creek community
- Station Camp Creek community

Planning for the documentation, evaluation, preservation, and treatment of these and any other cultural landscapes that may be identified in the future should be a priority for park staff, who are encouraged to work with the Cultural Landscapes Program manager in the Southeast Regional Office to set priorities for completing Cultural Landscapes Reports for these historic landscapes. If not already submitted, appropriate projects to complete these studies should be entered into the National Park Service Project Management Information System (PMIS) and funding sought for completing the work.

One of the important aspects of the park's cultural landscapes that is not currently documented is their relationship to ethnographic resources. Further study is needed to connect surviving resources with cultural lifeways. It is recommended that the park collect this information by conducting personal interviews with those knowledgeable about these cultural landscapes, such as park personnel Wally Linder and Donny Kidd, who have long-standing ties to the area (see also Ethnographic Resources below).

Ethnographic Resources

The National Park Service is often the steward of resources that are considered important by indigenous people and cultural groups who have cultural, spiritual, and subsistence connections to park resources. These ethnographic resources include both the cultural and the natural features in a park that are assigned significance in the cultural system of a people traditionally associated with parklands before their designation as a national park. Ethnographic resources can include extant cultural features, such as structures, archeological sites, wildlife and other natural features, sacred or ceremonial locations or landscapes, and the material culture preserved in park museum collections, as well as intangible features, such as cultural values and traditions.[647]

There are several legislative mandates that require the National Park Service to work with traditionally associated peoples in an effort to include their perspectives in the planning, management, and interpretation of ethnographic resources. These are rooted in the Organic Act of 1916, the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, and the National Environmental Policy Act of 1969. The National Park Service developed a specific ethnography program in 1981 to distinguish an applied cultural anthropology program that focused on working with living populations related to archeological sites or studies. Recognition of the program first appeared in 1985 in Director's Order No. 28, *Cultural Resource Management.* As part of new policy directives, parks were required to include ethnography in general management plans in order to understand how contemporary communities are traditionally associated with a park's lands and resources. More specific policies for ethnography were instituted in the 1988 National Park Service *Management Policies* (as most currently updated in 2006). Beyond the guidelines outlined in National Park Service policy documents, legislation such as the American Indian Religious Freedom Act of 1978 (AIRFA) and the Native American Graves Protection and Repatriation Act of 1990 [25 USC 3001-13] (NAGPRA) requires research, consultation, and action to protect the interests of indigenous people. Ethnography was first included as an individual cultural resource category in 2001. These policies require consultation with people that have traditional associations with parklands.

Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area can be tied to several important ethnographic groups and practices relating to its long history of cultural use. Many of these relationships were extensively documented by anthropologists prior to National Park Service administration of the park, and later by agency personnel. The work of Dr. Benita Howell, professor of Anthropology at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, resulted in several research reports and published books, such as *Folklife along the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River*. Howell alone collected more than 250 personal interviews relating to the ethnographic history of the park and region. Anne Malanka, a former National Park Service employee, published "*Some is Better Getters*" from information collected during a 1991 Big South Fork oral history project. Dr. Kim McBride, professor of archeology at the University of Kentucky, has also conducted extensive research and several personal interviews relating to the park's ethnographic history. Finally, Tom Des Jean, the park's former archeologist, has also conducted several personal interviews and explored aspects of the region's ethnographic history. The results of these efforts could be used to inform an Ethnographic Overview and Assessment for the park.

Many of the groups formerly associated with the park, however, are far removed from the experience of Big South Fork, either physically, or generationally. Few families remained on the land after circa 1950. Today, the strongest connections are the surviving evidence of family cemeteries located within the park, some of which remain in

647. National Park Service, *NPS-28: Cultural Resource Management Guideline* (Washington, D.C.: NPS, 1998), 157, 181.

private ownership. After circa 1900, much of the land within the park was owned by the Stearns Company. Some of those employed by Stearns were immigrants of various ethnic groups, while others were African Americans. Work crews and camps were often composed of groups of similar heritage. African American crews often encountered issues of segregation, while both immigrants and African Americans encountered prejudice. The park has been in contact with some of these former Stearns employees and interviewed them about their particular experiences.

Today, one of the most prevalent ethnographic traditions associated with the park is that of hunting. This practice was one of the earliest lifeways of the Big South Fork Basin, and remained so throughout the European-American settlement and occupation period. Today, it is still a popular recreational activity within the park, practiced regularly by visitors as well as the descendants of former residents. In fact, through the efforts of the National Park Service to reintroduce extirpated species, hunting opportunities have been enhanced.

Several of the important surviving examples of cultural lifeways are farmsteads located in the gorge and on the plateau. Ethnographic information is currently needed to help effectively interpret these farmsteads and to reconstruct the historic chronology of the area. Personal interviews conducted with persons familiar with these farmsteads while they remained in active use would be very helpful in determining the ethnographic heritage of these resources.

To guide and direct the ongoing collection of ethnographic resource information, the park should seek funding to complete an Ethnographic Overview and Assessment, the principal planning and guidance document for this resource type. Completion of an Ethnographic Overview and Assessment of the park should be a priority for park staff. If not already submitted, appropriate projects to complete these studies should be entered into the National Park Service PMIS database and funding sought for completing the work. There is some urgency for these studies, as many of those with direct personal knowledge of the area's history are elderly.

Archeology

Archeological resources on federal lands, both sites and collections, are protected by law. Several federal acts have defined the responsibility of the federal government in protecting archeological resources. The protection of archeological resources on federal property began when President Theodore Roosevelt signed the Antiquities Act of 1906 into law. The law set up penalties for the unauthorized collection or excavation of historic or prehistoric ruins or monuments situated on federal land. The Act also empowered the president to set aside as national monuments any historic landmarks, historic or prehistoric structures, or other objects of historic or scientific interest on lands controlled by the federal government. The federal agencies assigned to oversee these national monuments were required to offer proper care and management of the resources. This included care of the objects collected from sites in a museum so the public can view them. Finally, the law also regulated and established a permit system for legitimate study of archeological resources; only those people qualified under the Secretary of the Interior's Standards permitted to conduct archeological investigations, while the projects themselves have to meet specific criteria. Permitted activities are identified as those providing for the benefit of the public through study and interpretation. The department overseeing the land, such as the Department of the Interior, is allowed to issue permits. These requirements also protect archeological resources from looting.

In 1935, President Franklin Delano Roosevelt signed the Historic Sites Act that declared the preservation of historic sites, buildings, and objects a national policy. The Act authorized the Secretary of the Interior to obtain information, survey, conduct research, maintain, and preserve sites with archeological significance. It also established the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation.

The National Historic Preservation Act of 1966 established the National Register of Historic Places, which enabled archeological sites to be listed. It also provided additional federal protections for archeological materials, including Section 106, which required that all federal agencies afford the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation the opportunity to comment on any undertaking that might affect a property listed on, or eligible for, the National Register.

In 1974, the federal government passed the Archeological and Historic Preservation Act, which made federal agencies responsible for mitigating the damage caused by their actions to important archeological sites. The Act focused attention on significant resources, but did not require that they be of national significance. The Act was intended to limit the potential for destruction of archeological sites throughout the country by actions funded or otherwise supported by federal agencies.

The 1979 Archeological Resources Protection Act (ARPA) protected archeological resources and sites on federal lands and American Indian lands as an irreplaceable part of America's heritage. The Act also called for the preservation of objects and associated records in a suitable repository once recovered from a site. ARPA established penalties and fines for breaking the law.

Finally, the Native American Graves Repatriation Act of 1990 specified special treatment for American Indian human remains, funerary objects, sacred objects, and objects of cultural patrimony, and stipulated that illegal trafficking in human remains and cultural items may result in criminal penalties. Also issued in 1990 was Federal Code of Regulations 36 CFR 79, which provided government-wide regulations for the curation and care of federal archeological collections required by the National Historic Preservation Act and the Archeological Resources Protection Act.

To meet the requirements of federal policy in the area of archeological resources, Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area has been the subject of numerous archeological studies and investigations. Several preceded National Park Service administration of the park, and were conducted on behalf of the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers. One of the earliest was a Phase I Archeological Reconnaissance Survey conducted in McCreary County in Kentucky, and Pickett, Fentress, Scott, and Morgan Counties in Tennessee, in 1980. In 1984, *An Archeological Survey and Testing of Proposed Construction Areas and Road Right-of-ways in the Blue Heron Developments Sites and Blue Heron, Devils Jump, and Leatherwood Ford Overlooks of the Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area* was completed in anticipation of the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers development of interpretive features.

After the National Park Service became the steward of the park, the agency began an intensive survey of archeological resources. During the early 1990s, several seasons of field survey were completed by the National Park Service's Southeast Archeological Center, research essential to complete an Overview and Assessment of the archeological resources of the National River and Recreation Area. These investigations were planned as part of the center's implementation of the Systemwide Archeological Inventory Program. Later, an additional year of excavations was added to the program to conduct a representative sample of the range of historic site types known to occur in the park and evaluate their research potential and eligibility for nomination to the National Register of Historic Places. In 1999, SEAC performed additional archeological testing of selected historic sites.

SEAC intended to prepare the much-needed Archeological Overview and Assessment for the park, drawing all of the findings of field investigations together, and providing conclusions regarding National Register eligible sites. Follow up to the Overview and Assessment, as indicated in the 1999 report titled *Archeological Testing of Selected Historic Sites at Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area*, which summarized 1997 field investigations and the steps anticipated to follow it as the final year of survey, was intended to include preparation of National Register nominations for those sites considered eligible for listing, submission of current site forms

to the state historic preservation offices for each of the known archeological sites in the park, and any necessary revisions to the park's cultural site inventory.

Funding for the Archeological Overview and Assessment, however, has never been secured, and this report has yet to be completed. In addition, the park is in need of an Archeological Site Inventory.

As noted by former park archeologist Tom Des Jean, approximately one-fourth of the archeological sites listed in the Archeological Sites Management Information System (ASMIS) for the National Park Service's Southeast Region are located within Big South Fork.[648] The extensive list of known resources illustrates a long continuum of cultural use pertaining to pre-settlement American Indian activities, early settlement hunting, farming, and industry, and nineteenth through twentieth century agriculture, industry, transportation, and recreation. Tom Des Jean suggests that there are more than 100 known archeological sites within the park that are likely eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places.

In addition to the need for a parkwide Archeological Overview and Assessment, and Archeological Site Inventory, Big South Fork would benefit from completion of a survey of the gorge cliffline where most of the remaining undocumented evidence of prehistoric rock shelter, niter mining, and moonshining activity is likely to be recorded. Additional research into the local history of niter mining and moonshining would support an understanding of these sites as they are discovered and documented. Completion of these investigations is also warranted in light of the constant threat of relic collecting that targets these sites. The best way to protect the resources is to have knowledge of their locations. To date, the park has prosecuted four Archeological Resources Protection Act infractions. Three of these infractions were discovered at rock shelters on the west side of the park in Kentucky, while the fourth was associated with a site near the center of the park in Tennessee. Violations have been averted at many other locations and park rangers and Resource Management staff now monitoring hundreds of rock shelters annually.

Museum Collections

Although museum objects are sometimes perceived as entities separate from other park resources, they possess a critical link to the park's physical history. National Park Service museum collections inform and enhance every aspect of park work, from resource management and interpretation, to research and public accountability. Natural and cultural objects and their associated records provide baseline data, serving as scientific and historical documentation of the park's resources and purpose. Museum objects are acquired, preserved, exhibited, and researched to foster understanding and increase knowledge. They are primary sources of cultural and scientific information, and must be preserved in perpetuity while also being made available for research needs both within the National Park Service and to others.

The National Park Service is mandated to acquire and preserve museum collections as directed in the Antiquities Act of 1906, the Historic Sites Act of 1935, and the Management of Museum Properties Act of 1935. Other legal mandates and authorities include the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, the Endangered Species Act of 1973, and the Archeological Resources Protection Act of 1979. A park's museum collection may include both natural and cultural collections. In addition, archeological collections, except inalienable and communal property (as defined by the Native American Graves Protection and Repatriation Act of 1990), recovered from within park boundaries through systematic collection are federal property and must be retained in the park's museum collection in

648. Tom Des Jean, former park archeologist, Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, correspondence with the authors, 2015.

accordance with 43 CFR 7.13 and National Park Service *Management Policies* (2001).

Curation and associated costs must also be covered in collecting permits as described in the 2001 *Management Policies*, Director's Order 24 (*Museum Collection Management*), and NPS-77 (*Natural Resource Management Guideline*). Specifically, project budgets must include funding for the basic management of collections that are project-generated. Collections management includes cataloging; labeling; conservation examination and treatment (including specimen preparation); initial storage of objects and specimens; and organization and storage of project documentation, including appraisal, arrangement, description, finding aid production, and appropriate archival housing.

One of the foundational documents prepared by the National Park Service to guide museum collections policy is the Scope of Collections Statement (SOCS). A SOCS is a stand-alone document that states the significance of the museum collection and sets limits on it based on the park's purpose and interpretive objectives as enunciated in legislation, other mandates, and park-specific planning documents. Preparation of a SOCS is required by NPS *Management Policies* (2001, Chapter 5), Director's Order-24 (*Museum Collection Management*) and Director's Order-28 (*Cultural Resource Management*).

At Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, the park's museum planning documents include a SOCS (2009) and a Collections Management Plan (CMP) (2012). The park's SOCS defines the scope of present and future museum collection holdings that contribute directly to the understanding and interpretation of the park's purpose, themes and resources, as well as those objects that the National Park Service is legally mandated to preserve. It is designed to ensure that the museum collection is clearly relevant to the park; it serves to prevent arbitrary, unnecessary, and excessive growth of the museum collection while preserving the unique values associated with Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area.

The SOCS notes that the purpose of the park's museum collection is:

- To preserve, document, and make accessible historical, archeological, and scientific collections and documentation related to the cultural and natural resources of Big South Fork.
- To preserve, document, and support scientific research related to the park's cultural and natural resources.
- To increase knowledge and inspiration among present and future generations through exhibits, research, and interpretive programs.
- To contribute to the scientific body of data through research, accessibility, and dissemination of information.
- To preserve and document the management actions associated with the preservation of the park and its resources.[649]

The SOCS also notes that, as of 2008, the park had cataloged museum collections totaling over 583,446 objects and archival documents. The natural history collection included 5,977 biology and 96 paleontology specimens, of which over 900 biology and 44 paleontology specimens were catalogued. The bulk of the collections were identified as being in the cultural disciplines of archeology, history, and archival materials.

In the SOCS, the park also recorded a cataloging backlog of over 107,380 items, most of which were archeological artifacts, biology specimens, and archival collections. Through cataloguing of the

649. National Park Service, "Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area Scope of Collections Statement" (Oneida, Tennessee: Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, 2009), 6–7.

uncatalogued historical and archeological material, unaccessioned archival material, and unaccessioned natural history collections, the park anticipates that the true extent of the collection will become more evident. There are several additional tasks requiring attention that would support the use of the collection by researchers, including digitizing of photographs, maps, and fragile documents. This need is anticipated to continue to grow; museum collections will continue to be created through future research, resource management, and interpretation programs and projects, as well as through documentation of the park's administrative history.

The SOCS states that the museum collection is intended to be an extension of the park's primary resources. Objects in the collection must relate to the park's resource management goals and objectives and to interpretive themes. Historical and archeological materials found within the park boundary must be accessioned and catalogued into the park's museum collection. The types of collection materials should illustrate the phenomena of nature and the environmental influences of man within the area encompassed by the park.

The large size of the collection, and of the unaccessioned material, suggests several needs. One is for appropriately conditioned and appointed archival storage space; another is for a full-time staff person to oversee the work. A new multi-park storage facility is currently being constructed at Great Smoky Mountains National Park. This Collection Preservation Center, which will be hosted and staffed by Great Smoky Mountains National Park, will serve five regional parks. Portions of the Big South Fork artifact and object collections will be transferred to the new facility; paper documentation will not be transferred. Organizing the transfer of a portion of the collection will be a large undertaking, although it will help the park to address the need for conditioned space to house its artifacts and museum objects.

A park's SOCS is generally updated every five years. Big South Fork has been due to revisit this foundational document since 2015.

Archival and Library Collections

In accordance with National Park Service *Management Policies* (December 2000), rare books, books that are not rare, and other library materials retained for their physical properties, associative value, or for purposes of exhibition in museum exhibits or historic furnished rooms are to be managed as part of the park's museum collection.

Traditional library materials are not managed as part of the park's museum collection. Policies and procedures covering library materials are also outlined in Chapter 5 of the 2000 M*anagement Policies*, and Director's Order 28 (*Cultural Resource Guideline*). The park should consider developing a separate SOCS for the library that would guide the acquisition of library materials to enhance the park's management goals.

Recommendations

Preparation of this HRS for Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area has resulted in the identification of several recommendations for the future management of historic cultural resources, including potential research efforts and interpretive programming. These recommendations consider issues surrounding the identification, evaluation, and management of cultural resources. Implementation of the recommendations may require the park to seek funding that is beyond its annual operating budget.

The park's significant cultural resources include both prehistoric and historic buildings and structures, as well as cultural landscapes, archeological sites, artifacts, and archival collections. This HRS focuses primarily on historic period resources, although there are several prehistoric features, such as rock shelters and roads, known to have been adapted for use by European-Americans during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries; connections between prehistoric and historic period cultural activities are noted as possible within the study. Historic period resources are tied to several historic contexts, including evidence of early European-American settlement, the development of lifeways involving agriculture and industry, regional transportation systems, and recreational opportunities and pursuits. They include farmsteads; mineral extraction, processing, and shipping sites; roads and bridges; and recreational properties. Based on the relatively few examples of resources associated with these important contexts, the HRS recommends that the maintenance and preservation of National Register-eligible properties, many of which are fragile and need additional documentation, should be the park's top cultural resource management priority.

Cultural Resources

Protection of historic cultural resources within park boundaries is a critical National Park Service management consideration. Park management is well aware of this responsibility and has adopted a proactive stance toward resource conservation. Because of the fragility of historic resources, it is recommended that the park continue to maintain this level of awareness and stewardship. Many of the park's cultural resources are in remote areas that can be difficult to access. This presents a challenge for regular monitoring and maintenance, which contributes to the threat posed by vegetative growth, weather, vandalism, and related deterioration. Although maintenance of the park's remote resources poses a difficult challenge, park management has made a commendable effort in this regard that should continue. Limited staff and budgets add to the challenges associated with maintaining resources within the rugged and extensive park landscape.

The park's historic cultural resources, including dwellings and outbuildings, roads, rail lines, bridges, walls, and industrial features, offer significant value in the quest to understand and interpret the unique history of the region. Vandalism or further deterioration of the limited number of surviving cultural resources reduces research potential and the ability of park managers and other to understand features within context. In addition, the park possesses rare examples of several resource typologies, including vernacular agricultural outbuildings, rock shelter adaptations associated with moonshining, extraction sites of niter mining and salt production, railroad bridges, and narrow gauge rail lines associated with early twentieth timbering and coal mining that may not

exist elsewhere, suggesting a need for vigilant oversight and stewardship.

Park management practices currently protect, to the extent possible, surviving cultural resources and limit the potential for visitors to negatively impact fragile features. There are several threats posed by conditions outside the park, however, that also have the potential to affect cultural resources. These include the development of new or widened public roads, commercial or residential properties within the park viewshed, and mineral extraction on adjacent lands. These actions could affect park historic properties directly, or potentially contribute noise, light, air, and water pollution that would be detrimental to the park visitor's experience and hazardous to the environment. The park should monitor potential development along the boundary to ensure that park resources are protected, and work with the states of Kentucky and Tennessee and local counties to protect against inadvertent resource damage due to adjacent private, county, or state activities.

Cultural Resources Documentation

Better documentation is currently needed for all cultural resources at Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area. Section 110 of the National Historic Preservation Act requires park managers, in consultation with their state historic preservation officers, to locate, inventory, and nominate to the National Register of Historic Places all properties that appear to be eligible for listing. The documentary research and field investigation required to prepare nominations would contribute important knowledge to the park's inventory of cultural resources, and support the park's efforts to manage and protect these resources.

It is recommended that the park complete an inventory of all existing historic cultural resources within Big South Fork boundaries to meet the objectives of National Park Service planning policy and Section 106 and Section 110 compliance, as well as historic resource protection, monitoring, and interpretation needs. The inventory should be used to create in-depth files for all cultural resources. The information collected should include the age, condition, alterations, and recommended treatment for each structure. It should include photographs, Global Positioning System (GPS) coordinates, and locational mapping. The region's List of Classified Structures (LCS) team has already captured much of this information; however, additional information needs to be collected, particularly for resources that are difficult to access and have not been well-documented to date, as well as non-historic features.

Compilation of accurate information about structural and cosmetic changes to the park's more recent buildings will assist future cultural resource management decisions should these structures be determined significant in the future.

Cultural resources that have already been identified and evaluated as eligible should be listed in the appropriate Servicewide inventories, including the Cultural Landscapes Inventory (CLI), Cultural Sites Inventory, LCS, National Catalog of Museum Objects, and National Register of Historic Places.

Baseline Cultural Resources Reports

National Park Service policy suggests that each park develop several baseline reports that provide information for a variety of purposes ranging from planning to interpretation. This HRS is one of the required baseline reports, designed to provide a general overview of park cultural resources and serve as a framework for further identification, evaluation, and nomination of cultural resources to the National Register of Historic Places. The baseline documents for the park currently in place include:

- Master Plan – U. S. Army Corps of Engineers (1980s)
- Continuity of Operations Plan (1999)
- Resource Management Plan (1999)

- Historic Context Study (2000)
- Museum Collection Management Plan (2000)
- Museum Collection Condition Survey (2002)
- Fire Management Plan (2003)
- Cemetery Guidelines (Plan) (2013)Museum Security and Fire Protection Survey (2005)
- General Management Plan (2005)
- Oil and Gas Management Plan (2012)
- Structural Fire Management Plan (2013)
- Fields Management Plan (2006)
- Environmental Management Plan (2006)
- Strategic Plan (2007–2011)
- Scope of Collection Statement (2009)
- Collections Management Plan (draft, 2012)
- Historic Resource Study (2016)

Additional foundational documents have been initiated, including the following:

- Long Range Interpretive Plan
- Museum Emergency Operations Plan

Documents that have not been initiated, and which are still needed for the park, include:

- Archeological Overview and Assessment
- Archeological Site Inventory
- Backlog Cataloging (ICMS)
- Ethnographic Overview and Assessment
- Museum Housekeeping Plan
- Administrative History

Of these, the most critical for the park to develop include the Administrative History, Ethnographic Overview and Assessment, Archeological Overview and Assessment, and Archeological Site Inventory. For the archeological studies, much of the information needed to support their preparation was collected by the National Park Service's Southeast Archeological Center during the 1990s, diminishing the amount of work needed to be conducted.

Mapping

The park also plans to complete a Cultural Resources Base Map to depict the locations of all known historic sites and structures, cemeteries, cultural landscapes, and historic trails and roads. In addition to extant cultural resources, this map should include archeological and ethnographic resources as well as documented Civil War troop movements through the area. While this information may already exist in a number of individual maps and other sources, a single, comprehensive map should be compiled for the entire park for ease of reference. Locational knowledge is essential when developing maintenance and management strategies to ensure the continued preservation of cultural resources. This is particularly true where the potential for fire and heavy vegetative growth to obscure visible remains is high, such as in the streamside communities of the gorge.

Recent availability of Laser Detection and Ranging (LIDAR) mapping technology in the area adds a useful tool for documenting and assessing cultural resource sites. LIDAR technology affords an enhanced approach for historians, archeologists, and social geographers involved in determining the physical history of the Big South Fork region.

List of Classified Structures (LCS)

The National Park Service's List of Classified Structures (LCS) is a record of all historic structures located within the National Park System. The LCS defines a structure as a constructed work that serves some form of human activity and that is generally immovable. Because the LCS is a listing of structures considered to be "historic," a structure must meet one of the following criteria before it is entered in the LCS:

- All historic and prehistoric structures within parks of the National Park System that individually meet the listing criteria of the National Register of Historic Places.

- All structures that are contributing elements of sites or districts that meet the listing criteria of the National Register, and structures that are managed as cultural resources because of law, policy, or decisions reached through the planning process. These structures might also include certain structures that have been moved or reconstructed, commemorative structures, and structures that have achieved significance within the last fifty years.

In order for a historic structure within a park to be listed on the LCS, it should first be determined eligible for listing in the National Register. Even if a resource has not been identified as a contributing resource of an existing historic district, eligibility of individual features can be assessed in consultation with the State Historic Preservation Office (SHPO) for purposes of LCS listing criteria. Once concurrence is received from the SHPO in the form of a signed and dated letter, the structure(s) can be entered on the LCS, while National Register documentation can be submitted at a later date.

Prior to this study, several structures were identified by the park and Southeast Regional Office staff as having high potential for National Register eligibility and were therefore listed in the LCS. Later, several features found to have severely diminished integrity were moved to the "shadow" version of the LCS. Features on the "shadow" LCS require further consideration to determine whether they are eligible. Several of the features currently on the "shadow" LCS for Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area were determined to have lost historic integrity as part of this HRS. As such, these former structures appear not to meet the eligibility requirements for the LCS; the HRS thus does not recommend pursuit of DOEs for these properties, and the National Park Service should consider removing them from the LCS.

There are, however, several structures, such as the Lora Blevins privy and the Oscar Blevins corn crib, barn, smokehouse, and root cellar, included on the "shadow" LCS that are associated with farmsteads identified herein as eligible cultural landscapes. These buildings were placed on the "shadow" LCS due to their late date of construction, or because they were not included in the determinations of eligibility made in 1981. Based on the period of significance identified herein for the potential Big South Fork Historic District—circa 1783 to 1974—consideration should be paid to moving the abovementioned structures onto the LCS as representative of evolving nature of life within the region.

Among the structures included on the park's active LCS list are two structural ruins—the John Litton Cabin at Parch Corn Creek, and the Ransom Boyatt Farmhouse. As part of this study, these two sites have been determined ineligible for listing in the National Register as aboveground resources due to lost integrity. They may, however, be eligible for listing as archeological resources.

All structures identified in this study as potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places should be evaluated through preparation of a DOE. Those currently included on the "shadow" LCS that are determined eligible should be moved to the active LCS.

Determinations of Eligibility

Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area is not currently listed in the National Register of Historic Places. In 1981, as the property was being acquired and developed by the federal government for future inclusion in the National Park System, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers initiated evaluation of the forty-nine buildings and structures that survived within the boundaries of the park for their eligibility for listing in the National Register of Historic Places.[650] Nineteen of these were determined eligible for listing, primarily as examples of locally significant vernacular architecture. Most were associated with five farmsteads. Later that year, four additional bridge structures were determined eligible in the areas of engineering and transportation. Some of these properties were later

650. Hutchinson et al., 179, 182–183.

determined to be non-NPS property, as noted below. None of the features determined eligible for listing in 1981 have since been documented or listed through preparation of National Register nominations. Several of the eligible features have since been lost. The features identified as eligible in 1981 are listed below, with their inventory numbers indicated. Those that have since been lost are marked with an asterisk.

McCreary County, Kentucky

- U.S. Forest Service Barn (B081)*
- Alfred King House (B104)*
- Eldred King House (B105)*
- Robert Dwayne Tapley House (ON06B)*

Scott County, Tennessee

- Ted Q. Wilson House (BS15)*
- Noble Smith House (BS26)*
- Charit Creek Lodge barn (BS40)
- Charit Creek Lodge corn crib (BS40E)
- Charit Creek Lodge smithy (BS40I)
- Charit Creek Lodge (BS41)
- Litton/Slaven Log Barn (BS50)
- Litton/Slaven outbuilding/shed (BS50A)
- Litton/Slaven Log House (BS51)
- Lora Blevins barn (H007)
- Lora Blevins corn crib (H007A)
- Lora Blevins Cabin (H008)
- Ralph M. Burke Frame House (H018)*
- Luther Thompson Frame Barn (H033)*

Fentress County, Tennessee

- Oscar Blevins Cabin (H002)

Engineering Properties

- Whipple Truss Bridge, Oneida and Western Railroad (E009) [651]
- Blue Heron Coal Tipple and Tramway Bridge (E020)
- Plate-Girder Bridge, Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad (E021)
- Yamacraw ballast-filled concrete arch bridge, Kentucky and Tennessee Railroad (E023) [652]

Also of interest, although not formally identified as eligible in 1981, are the Burnt Mill Bridge and the North White Oak Bridge. Assessment of National Register-eligibility is recommended for both of these bridges.

National Register of Historic Places

Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area is not currently listed in the National Register of Historic Places, and there are no properties located within the park that have been individually listed. As a result of preparation of this HRS, it is recommended that the National Park Service consider nominating the park as a historic district, complete the draft Multiple Property Documentation Form that was initiated in the 2000s, or complete National Register nominations for the properties that have been determined eligible for listing.

Management of Historic Structures

Surviving historic buildings under park management are deteriorating due to weathering, age, and the impermanent nature of the construction materials. Of particular concern are the features of the Lora Blevins Farmstead, Oscar Blevins Farmstead, the John Litton/Charles Rudy Slaven Farmstead, and Charit Creek Lodge. With the exception of the Charit Creek Lodge complex,

651. The Whipple Truss Bridge is owned by Scott County rather than the NPS.

652. The Yamacraw bridge is owned by the K&T Scenic Railroad rather than the NPS.

extant buildings are generally unoccupied, and have been so for a number of years.

Historic Structure Reports (HSRs) have not been completed for any of the buildings and structures located within the park. Park staff have conducted regular maintenance of these buildings, but often critical repair decisions have to be made without the benefit of research or specific guidance in the area of historic preservation, and many repairs have been made with local NPS labor, due to limited funding availability. All extant buildings are in need of some kind of repair and appropriate preservation treatment. Unoccupied structures are at high risk for deterioration, and every effort should be made to complete HSRs to support appropriate treatment of these significant historic resources.

Also at risk are the surviving road and railroad bridges within the park that have been identified as eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. Like the extant buildings, these bridges continue to deteriorate, in part due to their remote locations or exposure to flooding and other environmental conditions. In addition, piers can be undermined by the river's flow, compromising the stability of bridges. The park should work with state officials to preserve these important resources. As noted above, the bridges previously assessed as eligible, as well as Burnt Mill Bridge and the North White Oak Bridge, should be considered.

The historically significant low water bridge at Leatherwood Ford is constantly being overwashed by flood waters. Many portions of the bridge have been rebuilt over the years, but the historic piers have been maintained. Protection of historic fabric is a high propriety for the park and repairs are being planned for the non-historic components. The Tennessee SHPO is being consulted for all proposed work.

There are also numerous ruins of buildings, structures, and industrial features that will require continued care if they are to be preserved. Many are especially vulnerable to deterioration resulting from vegetative growth, inaccessibility, and other factors. Abandoned roads and rail lines are also vulnerable to erosion, reforestation, lack of maintenance, and improper use. The park intends to document these routes using GPS equipment.

Interpretation

Opportunities exist to broaden the park's interpretation of regional life. Traditionally, park interpretation has focused on the pre-park farmsteads of the plateau that are in close proximity to the visitor center and easily accessible trails, as well as the Blue Heron mine site. The park provides interpretive material at the visitor center relating to natural history and pioneer lifeways, including pamphlets that support self-guiding tours. At Blue Heron, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers developed extensive outdoor interpretive exhibits, as well as a museum, in the 1980s. Visitors can travel to the museum on a historic steam engine train from Stearns, Kentucky. Expanded topics that the park might consider in order to enhance its interpretive programming include early pioneer settlement, gorge lifeways, subsistence agriculture, the effect of the Civil War on the region, the influence of industrial activities and large corporations on gorge life, the arrival of the railroad, the aftermath of corporate industrial activities, and the emerging role of conservation, recreation, and park development.

Archive and Manuscript Collection

The park has a small archive and manuscript collection that includes irreplaceable documents from the early settlement period and the nineteenth through early twentieth century agricultural and industrial history of the landscape, as well as valuable graphic and photographic park development-era sources. Recent work to process and arrange the archives and manuscript collection has proven valuable for this report and others. The National Park Service should make every effort to continue processing and cataloging archival material, providing appropriate storage facilities, properly curating, conserving as needed, and protecting this valuable collection while making it more accessible to future researchers.

The park would benefit from additional staff and storage space to address present cataloguing needs. As of 2016, construction of a multi-park storage facility located in Townsend, Tennessee, is nearly complete. The facility will house much of Big South Fork's museum collections. However, the large backlog of uncatalogued collection material should potentially be accessioned prior to the relocation of a portion of the collection to the planned new facility. In some cases, it will be important to consult with tribes that maintain an interest in the park to address inadvertent discoveries and any issues with NAGPRA remains and objects in the park collections. In addition, the creation of a finding aid to help researchers identify and locate materials would be very useful.

Another need is the preparation of an archival survey that could be used to identify data gaps in the park's archives. Identification of gaps could be used to focus additional research in such areas as microfilm copies of old newspapers, records from the National Archives, and copies of primary source material from libraries, academic institutions, historical societies, and private collectors.

Finally, there are a number of surviving park residents, retired NPS employees, and others who have worked at the park on park projects who should be interviewed to collect additional information about the park's historic cultural resources. These individuals in particular should include park archeologist Tom Des Jean, who worked at Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area from the mid-1980s until his retirement in 2014. In order to properly record his extensive knowledge of the park and its resources, an in-depth personal interview should be conducted with Des Jean in the near future. Additional individuals to be considered for interviews include park employees Wally Linder and Donny Kidd, as well as the following local residents identified by Mr. Des Jean as having special knowledge of the Big South Fork area:

- Letha Hammock (89), Oneida, Tennessee: Ransom Boyatt Farm/No Business area
- Clayton Terry(80+), Indianapolis, Indiana: Lora Blevins farmstead)
- Mary Watson (80+): Lora Blevins farmstead
- Mazine Terry (80+), Indiana: Lora Blevins farmstead
- Jeff Boyatt (80+), Oneida, Tennessee: general knowledge
- Lawrence Blevins, Oscar Blevins's son (60+), Jamestown, Tennessee: Oscar Blevins farmstead
- Freeman Slaven, Bessie Slaven's son, Oneida, Tennessee: Station Camp Creek
- Appalonia, Bessie Slaven's daughter (80+), Oneida, Tennessee: Station Camp Creek
- James Smith (80+), Jamestown, Tennessee: general knowledge
- Fay Slaven, Bessie Slaven's daughter: Station Camp Creek
- Dorethy Slaven, Bessie Slaven's daughter: Station Camp Creek
- David Smith, Muncie, Indiana: Descendant of the Smiths of No Business and Station Camp, and great-great-grandson of John "Hawk" Smith
- Nora Newport (90), Oneida, Tennessee: Station Camp Creek
- Rudy Slaven (70+), Jamestown, Tennessee: Litton-Slaven farmstead
- Sam Story (70+), Robbins, Tennessee: High Point, Mountain View, Robbins, and New River
- Vick Slaven, Stearns, Kentucky: Beech Grove and Stearns, Kentucky
- Roger Winchester, Stearns, Kentucky: Bell Farm and Stearns, Kentucky
- Lon Whaley (90), Oneida, Tennessee: Stearns logging
- George Roark (88), Oneida, Tennessee: general knowledge
- Lillard Miller, Oneida, Tennessee: No Business

- Creston Burke, Haden Burke's son, Oneida, Tennessee: No Business
- Donny Kidd, Oneida, Tennessee: Peters Mountain, No Business
- Otis Watson (80+), Oneida, Tennessee, general knowledge
- Wallace Linder, Jamestown, Tennessee: general knowledge
- John Marian Thomas (80+), Oneida, Tennessee, general knowledge

There are currently 302 transcribed, catalogued, and indexed oral history personal interviews in the park's collections. Another seven interviews await transcription and cataloguing at this writing. Future research efforts would benefit from conducting, transcribing, and cataloguing additional interviews.

In addition to the archeological studies and interviews, additional research would be helpful in several areas to support documentation and interpretation. These subject areas include Civilian Conservation Corps activities in the Big South Fork region, the oil extraction industry, logging, moonshining, and lifeways in the streamside communities, among others.

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