The historic resource study presented here exists in two formats. A traditional, printed version is available for study at the park, the Southeast Regional Office of the NPS (SERO), and at a variety of other repositories. For more widespread access, this historic resource study also exists in a web-based format through the web site of the National Park Service. Please visit www.nps.gov for more information.
Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area
Historic Resource Study

Approved by: 

\[Signature\]  
Superintendent  
Date

Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area

Recommended by: 

\[Signature\]  
Chief, Cultural Resources  
Date
Southeast Regional Office

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# Table of Contents

## Foreword
- ix

## Introduction
- Study Purpose and Scope - 2
- Physical Description - 2
- Historical Overview - 3
- Historic Contexts - 4
- Historic Properties - 5

## Chapter One: The River Before 1860
- American Indians During the Historic Period - 9
- The Creek - 10
- The Cherokee - 12
- Early White Settlement - 15
- Transportation - 18
  - Roads and Trails - 18
  - Ferries - 20
  - Bridges - 21
  - Railroads - 21
- Agricultural Development - 23
  - Farmers and Planters - 23
  - Agricultural Production - 24
- Industrial Development - 26
  - Grist Mills - 27
  - Industrial Mills - 29

## Chapter Two: The River After 1860
- The Atlanta Campaign - 37
- The Damage Is Done - 42
- Reconstruction and a New South - 44
- Agriculture - 44
  - Labor Relations - 45
  - Agricultural Production - 45
- Transportation - 47
- Industry - 48
  - Roswell Manufacturing Company - 49
  - Laurel Mills Manufacturing Company - 50
  - Marietta Paper Company - 51
# Chapter Four: Cultural Landscapes, Ethnographic Resources, Archeology, and Museum Collections

- Cultural Landscapes - 105
- Ethnographic Resources - 106
- Archeology - 106
- Museum Collections - 107
- Archival and Library Collections - 108

# Chapter Five: Management Recommendations

- Cultural Resources Documentation - 111
  - Baseline Cultural Resources Reports - 111
  - Mapping - 112
  - List of Classified Structures (LCS) - 112
  - National Register of Historic Places - 112
  - Determinations of Eligibility - 113
- Management of Historic Structures - 113
- Interpretation - 114

# Bibliography

- Primary Sources - 115
- Archaeological Reports - 118
- Secondary Internet Resources - 119
Foreword

We are pleased to make available this historic resource study for the Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area. This study is part of our ongoing effort to provide required historical studies for each National Park Service unit in the Southeast Region. We wish to extend our thanks to Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area Superintendent Kevin Cheri and his staff for their assistance in preparing this study. Editors for this study were Jody Cook and Tommy Jones. Production editor was James Womack III, who also drew some of the maps. We hope that this historic resource study will prove valuable to park managers and others in understanding the historic contexts and cultural resources of Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area.

Dan Scheidt
Chief, Cultural Resources Division
Southeast Regional Office
September 2006
Introduction

On August 15, 1978, President Jimmy Carter signed legislation that authorized the establishment of the Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area (CRNRA) in northwest Georgia. This new unit of the National Park System was a result of a 1964 National Park Service management policy memorandum calling for expansion of the System “through inclusion of additional areas of scenic, scientific, historical and recreational value to the Nation,” and a 1969 policy memorandum that noted the System’s “serious gaps and inadequacies which must be remedied while opportunities still exist.”1 In the 1960s, recreation areas were the fastest growing category of new national parks, and in the 1970s CRNRA was part of a group of recreation areas established “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.”2 Citing “natural, scenic, recreation, historic and other values . . . of special national significance,” the 1978 enabling legislation set aside a 48-mile segment of the Chattahoochee River to assure its “preservation and protection for public benefit and enjoyment.” The total acreage authorized for the new recreation area was not to exceed 6,300 acres. The authorized boundary for CRNRA includes a series of parklands along the river from Buford Dam at Lake Sidney Lanier to Peachtree Creek in northwest Atlanta.3

In October 1984, the original legislation was amended by Public Law 98-568 authorizing Federal support of “State and local efforts to protect the scenic, recreational, and natural values of a 2,000 foot wide corridor adjacent to each bank of the Chattahoochee River and its impoundments.” It also increased the total acreage authorized for CRNRA from 6,300 to approximately 6,800. In 1999, Public Law 106-154 recognized the adverse effect of “land use changes occurring inside and outside the recreation area . . . leaving dwindling opportunities to protect the scenic, recreational, natural, and historical values of the 2,000- foot-wide corridor adjacent to each bank of the Chattahoochee River and its impoundments,” as well as Georgia’s Metropolitan River Protection Act to ensure protection of the corridor, which had been signed into law in 1973. The 1999 Congressional amendment enabled a cooperative effort with the State of Georgia and political subdivisions of the State along the Chattahoochee River “to link existing units of the recreation area through a series of linear corridors” to be established within the CRNRA and elsewhere on the river, and increased the total authorized acreage to 10,000 acres.4

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2. Mackintosh, 71.
Study Purpose and Scope

The Historic Resource Study (HRS) is the primary document used to identify and manage cultural resources (sometimes called historic resources) in units of the National Park System. The study area for this HRS was the region that includes the CRNRA and the surrounding area. This HRS has two goals. The first is to provide overviews of the study area’s history and the historic contexts that helped to shape the area’s cultural landscape. These overviews provide a framework for understanding the significance of the park’s historic resources. The second goal of the HRS is to identify the park’s historic resources, evaluate their significance within the applicable historic context(s), and evaluate their historic integrity. Evaluation of historic resources for this study primarily focused on extant historic structures owned and managed by the National Park Service, although certain historic resources outside Federal ownership were included at the request of park staff. National Register of Historic Places criteria and guidelines were used to identify historic resources, and to evaluate their significance and integrity.

The HRS provides the basis for understanding the significance of the park’s historic resources and their interrelationships, and is a point of departure for the development of interpretive plans. In addition, it serves as a framework within which additional research should be initiated and new information incorporated. This HRS should assist park staff in managing, interpreting, and conducting future research on historic resources in CRNRA.

The report is divided into five main chapters. The first chapter looks at the prehistory of the study area and the historic period before the Civil War. It includes discussion of the prehistoric inhabitants, historic Indian tribes, and early white settlement in the study area, as well as the development of its transportation system, agricultural economy, and industry. Chapter Two looks at the historic period during and after the Civil War and follows developments in agriculture, transportation, and industry in the late 19th and 20th centuries. This chapter also discusses the growth of the City of Atlanta and the evolving role of the Chattahoochee River, especially the impact of the river’s use for hydroelectric power generation and modern recreational activities. The third chapter is an inventory of the park’s extant historic resources, from prehistoric fish weirs to 20th century resort homes. It includes a brief history and physical description of each historic resource identified, as well as an evaluation of the resource’s historic significance and integrity.

Chapter Four is a brief overview of important cultural resources in the park that are not historic buildings and structures (cultural landscapes, archeological resources, museum collections, etc). It notes the types of studies that are needed to document these cultural resources. Finally, Chapter Five offers management recommendations for additional research on historic resources, their interpretation, and the management of museum and archival collections. This chapter also notes which cultural resources are most at-risk and merit special attention.

Physical Description

The Chattahoochee River begins at Chattahoochee Gap in Union County, Georgia, high in the Blue Ridge Mountains. The upper river basin covers much of northeast Georgia and, in prehistoric times, included the watersheds of the Chattooga and Tallulah Rivers until geologic forces turned those river systems into the Savannah River basin. From its source, the Chattahoochee flows generally southeast until turning southwest at the Brevard Fault near Clarkesville, Georgia, about 90 miles northeast of Atlanta.

The Brevard Fault (also known as the Brevard Lineament) is a topographic feature that extends from northeast to southwest across the region from the vicinity of Mount Airy, North Carolina, to near...
Montgomery, Alabama. The Brevard Fault is partially expressed by a long ridge extending from near Gainesville, Georgia, to Atlanta. The ridge is part of the Eastern Continental Divide, with rainwater falling on the southeast side of the ridge draining into the watersheds of the Oconee and Ocmulgee River basins and thence to the Altamaha River and the Atlantic Ocean. Conversely, rainwater falling on the northwest side of the ridge drains into the Chattahoochee basin and ultimately into the Gulf of Mexico.

From Clarkesville to near West Point, Georgia, on the Georgia- Alabama border, the river’s flow parallels the fault, which bounds it on the southeast. Along that route, the river has carved a deep valley that averages 200 feet below the surrounding plateau. This segment of the river valley, the oldest remaining section of the ancient riverbed, encompasses the Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area, a series of parklands along a 48-mile stretch of the river. From the park’s northern boundary just below Buford Dam at Lake Sidney Lanier to the southern boundary at the confluence with Peachtree Creek in northwest Atlanta, the Chattahoochee is impounded once at the Morgan Falls Dam, which forms Bull Sluice Lake below Roswell, about 15 miles north of Atlanta. Wide shoals and deep pools characterize the river within the park boundaries until the Chattahoochee approaches Atlanta, where it spreads to a width of approximately 300 feet in a narrow flat floodplain at the base of steep upland slopes. It continues southwest to the vicinity of West Point, Georgia, about 75 miles below Atlanta, breaches the Brevard Fault, and then flows southward until joining the Flint River to form the Apalachicola River near the intersection of Georgia, Alabama, and Florida. From there the river continues south into the Gulf of Mexico.

In some sections, the Chattahoochee serves as the county line for the four counties along the river banks in CRNRA; Forsyth, Gwinnett, Cobb, and Fulton. Suburban development is rampant along the river corridor east and west of Georgia 400, a multilane highway that has promoted the sprawl of metropolitan Atlanta northward. The series of parklands in CRNRA includes 15 separate NPS units within the authorized boundary; Park Headquarters is located in the Island Ford unit near Roswell in north Fulton County. These units encompass approximately 5,000 acres in Federal ownership, about half of the 10,000 acre total authorized for the park. Utility companies and local governments retain easements of various types in many parcels of the Federally owned and managed lands, and there are also in-holdings for properties where individuals have life estates. Most of the land along the river corridor within the authorized boundary remains in private ownership.

Historical Overview

The Piedmont in north Georgia may have been inhabited by humans as early as 8,000 BCE. Artifacts found within the study area indicate the presence of native populations during the Archaic and Woodland periods. The Archaic period (8000 BCE-1000 BCE) was characterized by nomadic hunter-gatherer societies with little interest in agriculture. Hunting and gathering continued during the Woodland period (1000 BCE-1000 CE), but seasonal and some semi-permanent villages developed, as well as subsistence cultivation of native plants.

Hernando de Soto’s expedition through the American South from 1539 to 1543 could be seen as the beginning of the region’s historic period, but meaningful colonization of present-day Georgia did not occur for nearly 200 years after that time. Eventually, Spain’s interest in and ability to settle and administer its colonial frontiers waned, and the British aggressively expanded their settlements. Finally, the English chartered a new colony, in part to protect the seaport at Charles Town, South Carolina, from the Spanish in Florida. Georgia was established in 1733 between the Altamaha and Savannah Rivers, and “from the headwaters of these rivers [westward] to the south seas.” Much of the upper Chattahoochee River valley, including CRNRA, lay within the territory of the new colony.

After the American Revolution, white settlers flooded the Piedmont, and the former colony’s

6. The units include Bowmans Island; Orrs Ferry; Settles Bridge; McGinnis Ferry; Suwanee Creek; Abbotts Bridge; Medlock Bridge; Jones Bridge; Holcomb Bridge; Island Ford; Vickery Creek; Gold Branch; Johnson Ferry; Cochran Shoals; and Palisades.

7. The park’s authorized boundary is defined in the 1978 enabling legislation and subsequent amendments.
attention began to shift away from the original counties along the Savannah River and the Atlantic coast. Still, by 1820 almost two-thirds of modern Georgia remained Indian territory, and white settlement was generally limited to the lands east of the Altamaha and Oconee Rivers. The State’s modern boundaries were established in 1802 when Georgia ceded to the Federal government any claim to territory that later became Alabama and Mississippi in exchange for $1.25 million and the Federal government’s promise to remove Indians living within those boundaries.

Following the War of 1812, Georgia’s interior developed rapidly, and several key Indian land cessions between 1817 and 1826 extended the State’s formal boundaries to the banks of the Chattahoochee River, including parts of CRNRA. In 1835, some Cherokee signed the Treaty of New Echota, giving up all Cherokee land in the southeast in exchange for land in present-day northeastern Oklahoma. In 1838, Federal troops began to round up Cherokee who had not moved and put them in stockades. During the winter of 1838-1839, the Cherokee Nation moved west, a tragic journey that has become known as the Trail of Tears. With that, all of modern Georgia was thrown open to white settlers.

The invention of the cotton gin in 1797 spurred an agricultural revolution in the South, and cotton production exploded with the advent of short-staple upland cotton in the 1820s. The Georgia Piedmont became a major cotton-producing region, and yeoman farmers and planters alike grew it as a cash crop, along with corn and other staple crops. The State government encouraged improvements to river navigation, development of roads and railroads, and establishment of banks to provide credit to fuel development. Light industry, including grist mills and textile mills, developed where rivers and streams provided sufficient hydropower to turn wheels or turbines, and there were a number of mills within the study area. By 1860, Georgia was second in the South only to Virginia in railroad development and led the region in textile production. With some confidence, Georgia began calling itself the “Empire State of the South.”

In 1861 the issue of slavery finally broke the Union’s fragile bonds, plunging the nation into civil war. Atlanta, an important transportation center and source of food and other supplies for the Confederate army, became a major target of the Union war effort. After the Atlanta Campaign in 1864, Gen. William T. Sherman’s infamous “march to the sea” from Atlanta to Savannah laid waste to a significant portion of Georgia’s railroad, industrial, and agricultural infrastructure.

In the post-war years, the State’s economic recovery was hampered by a shortage of capital and the turmoil of Reconstruction, which did not end until 1877. By then, Georgia and the nation were only beginning to rebound from a major economic depression that had begun in 1873. Not until the 1880s could agriculture and manufacturing be said to have recovered from the disaster of war. Still, Henry Grady’s much-vaunted “New South” was often more dream than reality, and in spite of advances in industrial development, the State’s economy continued to revolve around agriculture, especially cotton.

New labor systems replaced slavery, but in the first quarter of the 20th century the boll weevil devastated cotton culture across the South. The value of cotton lands throughout the region plummeted, and the coming of the Great Depression in the 1930s brought the collapse of many farms throughout the state. Much of the agricultural land in the Chattahoochee River corridor was left fallow or in low-yield agricultural production.

In 1868, the State capital was relocated from Milledgeville to Atlanta. Booming before the Civil War, Atlanta’s growth exploded afterwards, and the city soon outpaced Richmond, New Orleans, and Memphis as the South’s center of business and finance. With prosperity came growth, development, and new demands upon the surrounding countryside and the Chattahoochee River, which became a source of water and power for the expanding city in the 1890s. After World War II, land along the Chattahoochee was increasingly valued for recreational activities, and suburban development of metropolitan Atlanta began to engulf the river corridor.

**Historic Contexts**

This Historic Resource Study is organized around a series of historic contexts, basic historic themes that aid understanding of the forces that have shaped the
The historic contexts represent broad areas of human interaction with this landscape that are part of wider patterns of regional and national development throughout history. Chapters One and Two provide overviews of the study area’s history, and historic contexts associated with the study area are incorporated into these overviews. Each context discusses related events that establish the historic relationships between people and places and provide a foundation for evaluating and interpreting the park’s historic resources. This study includes five broad thematic contexts:

- American Indians, prehistory-1838
- Settlement, Transportation, and Agricultural Development, 1733-present
- The River as a Source of Energy for Industrial Development, 1830-present
- Landscape of Conflict, prehistory-present
- The River and Recreation, 1900-present

Chapter One provides an overview of American Indian habitation in the upper Chattahoochee River valley from prehistory until 1838, when remaining Indians were forced to move west. It looks at the relationship between Indians and the river as well as changes that occurred with white settlement and the expanding frontier. This overview reflects several themes for history and prehistory from the National Park Service’s Revised Thematic Framework (1994), a conceptual tool for evaluating the significance of cultural resources within or outside the NPS: Peopling Places, Expressing Cultural Values, Shaping the Political Landscape, and Transforming the Environment.

In addition, Chapter One provides an overview of early white settlement, including the development of the region’s transportation infrastructure and agricultural economy, which was the primary engine of settlement in the antebellum period. Chapter Two continues discussion of these contexts as they evolved in the late 19th and 20th centuries, especially the transformation and decline of the agricultural economy into the 20th century. Applicable themes from the NPS framework include: Peopling Places, Transforming the Environment, and Developing the American Economy.

Recreational use of the Chattahoochee in the 20th century is discussed in Chapter Two, including the construction of rural retreats on the river by affluent Atlantans, and the 1978 establishment of the Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area to provide public access and recreational opportunities in the wake of urban sprawl. Applicable NPS themes are Creating Social Institutions and Movements, and Transforming the Environment.

### Historic Properties

Relatively few historic structures remain within the Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area. The limited number of structures is mostly the result of sweeping changes in land use that left numerous potentially historic resources obsolete and abandoned. Agricultural or industrial activity has destroyed surface remnants of some sites in the study area, while recreational use, looting, and vandalism destroyed or adversely affected others. Also, because the park’s land acquisition program favored recreational opportunities and natural resource protection, many areas selected for park units were favored for their outstanding natural qualities; acquisition of cultural resources was often only...
incidental. However, as stated in CRNRA’s enabling legislation, preservation of cultural resources is a primary purpose of the park.

Extant historic resources in the study area fall into the following categories: industrial (mills, dams, bridge abutments); military (Civil War picket posts, earthworks, rifle pits); domestic (houses or farmsteads, chimneys, wells, foundations); and burial (cemeteries). The ruins of the Marietta Paper Company Mills, Ivy and Laurel Mills, and Akers Mill demonstrate the effect of industrial development within the corridor, while the remains of Jones and Settles bridges illustrate the human efforts to overcome the transportation obstacle the river represented. The remains of Civil War fortifications show the impact of military use on the environment, and the Hyde Farm, George Power House, and Scribner Cemetery help illustrate farming and settlement activities within the river corridor. Finally, Island Ford Lodge (current park headquarters) is a reminder of the 20th century recreational use of the river corridor.

Chapter One: The River Before 1860

Prior to the arrival of European adventurers in 1492, people had occupied the Americas for thousands of years. Linguistic and genetic studies have led most experts to conclude that the Americas were populated by early people who crossed a land bridge that was periodically open between Siberia and Alaska over what is now the Bering Strait. When and how these early ancestors of American Indians made their way into the Americas are hotly debated among anthropologists, linguists, and others, but the traditional view is that Asian groups crossed a land bridge between Siberia and Alaska as sea levels fell during the last Ice Age some 25,000 to 14,000 years ago. When melting glaciers submerged the land bridge again, the human populations of the Americas were essentially isolated and thereafter developed independently.

The timing of subsequent migration southward through the Americas is not settled, but the conventional view has been that the presence of glaciers from the last Ice Age prevented migration south of the Alaska/Yukon region until about 11,500 years ago. Some scholars have countered with suggestions that the glacial barrier was not insurmountable or that boats were used to travel down the Pacific Coast. What is not disputed is that there is considerable evidence of human occupation of many areas of North America, including the American Southeast, as early as 11,000 years ago. Claims have been advanced for sites of much greater antiquity, but these are isolated sites where interpretation of the geological layers and the accuracy of the dating remain controversial. Although the details of migration remain uncertain, diverse indigenous cultures developed in the Americas and adapted to various environmental conditions for many thousands of years before the arrival of Europeans and their African slaves.9

Knowledge of the prehistoric inhabitants of the study area is based largely upon the archeological record and the ethnological reconstruction of regional American Indian history developed by archeologists and anthropologists. Thus, rather than dealing with specific tribes or events, prehistory tends to establish larger patterns drawn from the material culture left behind by these early peoples. These tangible remains (tools, ceramics, etc.) help determine the technology, settlement patterns, and other characteristics of early peoples and are used to make general assumptions about their cultures.10

Human habitation of the Georgia Piedmont began 10,000-8000 BCE, and the archeological record suggests a long span of human inhabitation of the Chattahoochee River Valley. The prehistory of the area is broken into several periods that are defined largely by changes in tool making, ceramics production, and subsistence strategies. Man-made artifacts found within the study area help define the Paleoindian, Archaic, Woodland, and Mississippian periods, which ranged from approximately 9500 BCE to about 1550 CE when the Spanish invasions or *entradas* of southeastern North America, notably Hernando de Soto’s of 1539 to 1542, brought a rapid end to the Mississippian period.

Archeologists believe that the Paleoindian tradition began about 12,000 years ago, and as stated above, the consensus is that the retreat of glaciers allowed the inhabitants of the Alaska/Yukon area to migrate

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into lower portions of the Americas as nomadic hunters and gatherers. The earliest example of extensive occupation is that of the Clovis culture, which was present in the Great Plains at least 11,200 years ago. The Clovis people (so named from the initial discovery of artifacts near Clovis, New Mexico) are distinguished from later Paleoindian people by their distinctive large, fluted projectile points. Clovis points have been discovered as far south as the Andes, and some of those found in the Southeast are made of stone from non-regional sources. Crafted during the Early Paleoindian period (through 9000 BCE), these points exhibit a high degree of continuity in design and material, suggesting a nomadic population hunting Pleistocene megafauna but not yet fully adapted to regional subsistence patterns and material sources. By the Late Paleoindian period, specialized point design and material indicates that early peoples were adapting to smaller primary prey such as deer and utilizing regional stone resources. They remained nomadic hunters and gatherers and are believed to have built no permanent settlements, instead migrating throughout the region as seasons and food sources shifted.11

The Archaic period (8000 BCE – 1000 BCE) was also characterized by societies of nomadic hunters and gatherers with little evidence of agricultural development. Point technology remained the defining characteristic, and smaller, more refined points composed increasingly of local materials began to appear. Territorial specialization continued, with evidence of seasonal base camps and adaptation to materials and food sources specific to individual stream drainages. By the Middle Archaic period (6000 BCE – 3000 BCE), semi-permanent base camps along watercourses became common. The development of more sophisticated trade networks is associated with a more sedentary lifestyle, and the utilization of shellfish as a food source reinforced the increased emphasis on river valley settlement in Middle Archaic culture. In the Late Archaic (3000 BCE – 1000 BCE), trade networks grew more sophisticated and pottery began to appear along the southeastern coast. Further, the presence of non-native plant species suggests experiments with agriculture, although sustained subsistence-level agriculture was yet to develop.11

The introduction of ceramics is generally considered the defining characteristic of the Woodland period (1000 BCE - 1000 CE), although other technological and cultural innovations such as the introduction of the bow and arrow and the emergence of burial mounds with exotic grave goods are also considered characteristic of the period. Throughout much of the upland Southeast, however, Paleoindians continued traditional settlement and subsistence patterns until around 2,000 years ago when the appearance of permanent settlements and the development of elaborate trade networks around cultural hearths marked the beginning of the Middle Woodland period (300 CE - 500 CE). During this period, western Georgia appears to have been within the diffusional sphere of the Hopewell culture of the Ohio River Valley, although the extent to which this culture actually affected peoples within the Chattahoochee study area is not yet clear. For unknown reasons, the Late Woodland period (500 CE – 1000 CE) is marked by a substantial degree of cultural diffusion and population dispersal, perhaps brought about by the over-exploitation of prey as a result of the introduction of the bow and arrow. Smaller, dispersed settlements and less elaborate graves are further indications of the disruption of cultural continuity and trade networks.

Throughout the Woodland period there was a growing reliance on domesticated plants, especially maize, beans, and squash, a food complex adopted from southwestern Indian groups, but hunting, fishing, and gathering continued as supplements to agriculture. Evidence from the Mississippian period (900 CE to about 1550 CE) suggests that the presumed subsistence problems of the Late Woodland were overcome by an intensification of agriculture. This increased reliance on domesticated food plants provided the economic base for the formation of centralized regional political systems characterized by large ceremonial mound centers around which sizable towns formed, including the great mound complexes at Etowah and at Ocmulgee in Georgia. A system of towns existed as satellites to a ceremonial center, with these towns in turn centers for smaller villages. While the adaptation of agricultural practices allowed for the land to support greater populations, greater populations in turn created greater demand for arable land.

The archeological record indicates that warfare increased during this time as rival factions struggled

to control lands suited to cultivation. Conflict reinforced the need for central political structures (or alliances) and contributed to the value of the mound complexes as central fortifications. Religious influence increased during this period all across the larger Mississippian cultural area extending west to present-day Oklahoma, as far north as the Ohio River Valley, and south to the Florida peninsula. Elaborate trading networks developed in this period, with items such as silver from Ontario, bear teeth from the Rocky Mountains, and whole shells, sharks’ teeth, and turtle shells from the Gulf of Mexico circulating throughout the Mississippian cultural area. The precise relationship of the study area to existing ceremonial mound centers is unknown, although ceramics consistent with the Mississippian period have been located within the Chattahoochee River CRNRA.12

American Indians During the Historic Period

By the time the first Spanish entradas in the 1500s marked the beginning of the historic period, the Mississippian centers had experienced a measure of decline, with some larger mound centers, including Ocmulgee in middle Georgia, abandoned in the thirteenth or fourteenth centuries. Still, Hernando de Soto’s expedition of 1539 to 1542 encountered densely populated urban areas throughout the Southeast, many associated with mound centers, as well as polities organized around extended chiefdoms. However, European diseases spread by de Soto’s expedition are thought to have decimated American Indian populations and led to the collapse of Late Mississippian culture.

Following de Soto’s expedition, the Spanish made little effort to explore or to settle outside the Florida peninsula, and Spanish trade with Indian tribes of the interior Southeast was carried on through intermediaries. As the French and British presence in the Southeast increased in the late 1600s, the political, social, and economic organization of the southeastern Indians had already been transformed as a result of the earlier Spanish contact. As a result, early French and British traders encountered a situation that differed considerably from what had prevailed even a century before.13

As early as the 16th century, the ancestors of the Creek Indians of the historic period came under increasing pressure from the Cherokee, who were gradually expanding from the north into the southern Appalachians. Conflict culminated in a major battle between the Creek and the Cherokee at Slaughter Gap in present-day Union County, Georgia. Though very little is known of the dynamics of the battle, which is thought to have been fought in the late 1600s, the result was a Creek defeat and cession of the sacred Blood Mountain nearby.

After Blood Mountain, the Creek retreated to the Piedmont, but conflict continued, and in the 18th century, a second major confrontation occurred at Ball Ground14 in present-day Cherokee County, Georgia. This, too, resulted in Creek cessions of lands between the Chattahoochee and Coosa Rivers15 as they abandoned the highlands and left most of the territory on the northwest bank of the Chattahoochee firmly in the possession of the Cherokee. With that, the Chattahoochee River as it flowed through the Piedmont (including the study area) effectively became a buffer zone between the two tribes, a more or less neutral territory where both retained hunting rights.16

Archaeologists have identified temporary or seasonal American Indian camp sites at a number of locations in the study area, but the historical record documents only two larger permanent settlements, Suwanee and Standing Peachtree, both on the southeast side of the river. Suwanee Old Town, as it was known by the time white settlers were encroaching on the area, is thought to have been settled by Shawnee Indians in the 18th century, but it was apparently abandoned at an early date and little is known about the town other than its general location at the mouth of Suwanee Creek in what is now Gwinnett County.

14. Ball Ground takes its name from the games played at the site by the Cherokee.
15. The Coosa begins with the junction of the Oostanuala and Etowah River in Rome in northwest Georgia, and flows westward from there into Alabama.
The other village, Standing Peachtree, may have been larger and was certainly better known. There were two earthen mounds, one on each side of the river, indicating prehistoric occupation of some duration. Standing Peachtree is mentioned as a landmark and popular meeting place as early as 1782, although it was apparently abandoned well before the War of 1812.

The location of Standing Peachtree at the mouth of Peachtree Creek figured prominently in the area’s history, as did the place name, which formed the basis of dozens of modern place names in the area. The origin of the name “Standing Peachtree” is not certain, but one tradition attributes it to the presence of a solitary peach tree on top of one of the mounds. Another tradition suggests that the name derives from a large pine or “pitch” tree that was scored by Indians in order to collect resin, with “Peachtree” being a corruption of “pitch tree.” No credible documentation has been found to support either tradition.

The Creek

There is strong anthropological and archeological evidence to suggest that the Muskogee or Creek of the historic period were successors to the earlier Mississippian culture. It is thought that the name “Creek” was derived by shortening “Ocheese Creek” Indians, a name given by the English to the American Indians they found along the Ocmulgee River in the late 17th century. In time, the name was applied to a loose confederation of towns, all speaking dialects of the Muskogean language group. Throughout the 17th century, the confederation absorbed Muskogee and non-Muskogee Indians (such as Apalachicola, Ocone, Ocmulgee, Guale, and Yamasee) who were under pressure from European settlement and slave raiding in coastal areas.

FIGURE 1. Artist’s conception of the prehistoric village at Ocmulgee during the Mississippian period, as depicted in the museum diorama at Ocmulgee National Monument near Macon, GA. (Photograph by T. Jones, NPS-SERO-CRD, 2004)
The Creek continued several aspects of Mississippian culture, but on a reduced scale. Instead of the chiefdom, the primary political entity was the permanent town (italwa) along a river, around which smaller villages (talofa) were clustered. Each town or village might be considered an individual tribe. The central settlement acted as a ceremonial and political center where, advised by elders and councilors, the chief (mico) lived and directed the business of the extended town. Periodically, when there were great issues to consider, leaders from many towns would gather to hold councils. The Creek were successful farmers, raising maize, sweet potatoes, and several varieties each of squash and legumes. Their vegetable diet was supplemented by hunting deer, bear, and turkey, but by the 18th century, European introductions such as domesticated fowl, swine, and goats also contributed considerably to the Creek diet.22

Creek society was organized into matrilineal clans, but marriage was always outside the clan. All clans, which were named for animals or natural forces (e.g., Wind Clan, Eagle Clan), were represented in every Creek town, with clans occupying separate precincts within the town and each household comprising an extended family, again based on matrilineal kinship. Each clan had its own code of etiquette and social behavior. In most towns, the chiefdom was hereditary within a single clan, although the chief’s clan would not be the same clan in every town.

Though there would be some variation throughout the towns of the confederation, the nature of the residential structures described by the famed naturalist William Bartram in the towns of the Upper Creek in the mid-1770s might have been typical.23 The Creek arranged their towns around a central ceremonial ground and public buildings, with neatly arranged streets forming rectangular blocks not unlike those found in European towns. Each family had a lot upon which, depending on the affluence and circumstances of the associated family, one to four rectangular structures might be arranged around an open courtyard. Often occupying only a portion of the lot, the structures were designed for specific uses including winter and summer dwellings, food preparation, and the storage of provisions and wares (for those engaged in trade). The buildings themselves were generally post-in-ground and wattle-and-daub constructions with gable roofs covered with thatch or tree bark. The floors were typically earth or tamped clay.

Following the founding of Charleston, South Carolina, by the British in 1670 and Louisiana by the French in 1699, the trade in deerskins and other pelts with the Creek increased substantially, and a geographical division between Upper Creek and Lower Creek was reinforced by the patterns of trade. Towns along the Tallapoosa-Coosa-Alabama river system, where trade was typically with the French and the Spanish, came to be called the Upper Towns and their inhabitants, Upper Creek. The inhabitants of the Chattahoochee, Flint, and


Ocmulgee basins, who traded almost exclusively with the British in South Carolina and Georgia, were known as Lower Creek.

The Lower Creek especially profited from trade, but all Creek towns began to incorporate European goods into their traditional living patterns. Until the French were expelled from North America in 1763, the Creek were able to exploit the rivalry between them and the British, gaining some leverage in diplomacy and allowing them to resist pressure to cede land to white settlers.

At the close of the American Revolution in 1783, the Creek came under increasing pressure from white settlers pouring down the Piedmont into Georgia from the Carolinas. Hemmed in by expanding white settlement from the east and by the territories traditionally claimed by neighboring tribes to the west and north, the Creek saw their old hunting grounds vanishing. Recurring conflict between the Creek and white settlers led the new Federal government to attempt to induce the Creek to become settled agriculturists, setting up a system of trading posts (known as factories) and distributing livestock, seed, and farming implements. No longer able to negotiate terms among competing European interests, the Creek were increasingly manipulated in trade relationships. As they fell deeper in debt, they had nothing of value but their land, which was gradually lost in repeated cessions to the Federal government.

Although many Creek, especially in the more acculturated Lower Towns, established farmsteads and began to adopt aspects of white culture, pressure from white settlers to remove all American Indians from Georgia and Alabama increased, culminating in the Creek War of 1813-1814, which had a devastating effect on the Creek Confederation. Under relentless pressure from white settlers and inspired by the pan-Indianism espoused by the Shawnee leader Tecumseh, a substantial number of Creek led by Peter McQueen, Menewa, and William Weatherford revolted against white settlers and the acculturated Creek in an effort to re-establish traditional Creek ways of life. As conflict escalated, Federal authorities responded by raising a force of white militia, Cherokees, and about 100 “loyal” Creek, and on March 27, 1814, under the leadership of Andrew Jackson, they eliminated a large force of “Red Sticks,” as the warring faction of the Creek was known, at Tohopeka on the Tallapoosa River in Alabama, a battle commemorated by today’s Horseshoe Bend National Military Park. After the battle, the Treaty of Fort Jackson forced the Creek to give up 30 million acres in southern Alabama and southwestern Georgia and essentially ended their power in the Southeast.

In 1821 the first Treaty of Indian Springs forced the Creek to cede all of their land west of the Flint River, and in February 1825 a second treaty at Indian Springs forced them to cede all remaining Creek land in Georgia to the United States government. Chief William McIntosh, who like McQueen, Menewa, and Weatherford had a Scottish father and Creek mother, was the principal American Indian signatory of the treaty; but he underestimated the reaction from his people and was assassinated at Whitesburg, Georgia, in April 1825.

With his election in 1823, Georgia Governor George Troup took a hard line with the Creek in Georgia, refusing to honor treaty obligations that granted peaceful possession to those Creek who chose to remain on the land and acknowledge the laws and sovereignty of the United States and the State of Georgia. The governor quickly began a campaign to remove all American Indians from Georgia, provoking President John Quincy Adams to threaten Federal intervention to preserve the honor of the treaty with the Creek, but Troup persisted. In the end, the Federal government was forced to negotiate final removal of the Creek to a newly-established Indian Territory (present-day Oklahoma), and by the time Governor Troup left office in 1827, the State had successfully extinguished all Creek claims in the state.

The Cherokee

When British traders from Virginia began to penetrate the southern Appalachian region, they found about 40,000 square miles of territory claimed by the Cherokee. The Cherokee occupied the highland areas of present-day Tennessee, North and South Carolina, Georgia, and Alabama, as well as

24. Pan-Indianism argued that American Indians had to put aside tribal differences in order to present a united front against white encroachment on their territory.

25. The de Soto expedition spent a brief time with the ancestors of the Cherokee in spring 1540 before moving on.
small portions of Virginia, West Virginia, and Kentucky. The Cherokee language is part of the Iroquoian group, and although there is considerable debate over when the tribe first occupied the southern Appalachians, throughout the 17th and 18th centuries, the Cherokee expanded their territorial range to include much of northern Georgia. However, as noted earlier, the river remained a neutral boundary where hunting and trading could be mutually pursued, and there is no direct evidence of extensive Cherokee settlement in or even near the study area.26

At the time of European contact, the Cherokee were a settled agricultural people subsisting largely upon the typical staples of maize, beans, and squash, supplemented by hunting and fishing. The tribe had three major divisions based on geography and dialect. In the Lower Towns in northeastern Georgia and northwestern South Carolina along the Keowee River, the Tugaloo River, and the headwaters of the Savannah River, the Elati dialect was spoken. In the Middle Towns of western North Carolina on the Oconaluftee, Tuckasegee, Nantahala, and Little Tennessee Rivers, the Kituwha dialect was spoken. In the Western or Overhill Towns in eastern Tennessee and along the Hiwassee and Cheowa Rivers of northern Georgia and extreme western North Carolina, the residents spoke the Otali dialect.

Typical Cherokee villages consisted of 30 to 60, wattle- and- daub, round houses. The Cherokee apparently did not build ceremonial mounds but were not averse to using existing mounds found within their territory. Cherokee villages were centered around a council house where the village’s political and ceremonial business was conducted and where perpetual sacred fires were tended. As with the Creek, family identity was matrilineal, and the tribe was divided into seven clans. At contact, each Cherokee town was ruled by a council of elders, but in the 1720s, under the influence of British colonists, thirty- seven Cherokee chiefs for the first time selected an overall tribal chief.

After the founding of the Virginia colony in 1607, English traders began trading with the Cherokee, commencing a long- running alliance between the Cherokee and British. Trade increased substantially with the founding of the Carolina Colony in 1670. By 1684, the Cherokee had entered into a treaty with the Carolinians and were heavily engaged in trade, primarily exchanging deerskins and American Indian slaves for firearms and textiles. The Cherokee became important and valuable allies of the British, a fact that was not lost on the French who were also trading with the Cherokees in the trans-Appalachian region. In 1743 the Cherokee signed a treaty with the British granting them sole trading privileges with the tribe. The conflict between the Cherokee and the Creek Confederation (described above) resulted in Creek cession of much of northwestern Georgia and northeastern Alabama in the vicinity of the Tennessee and Coosawattee Rivers to the Cherokee.

Although the Cherokee were allied with the British at the beginning of the Seven Years or French and Indian War between 1756 and 1763, English treachery led the Cherokee to turn on their former allies. White settlements along the Cherokee frontier were attacked, and forces raised in their defense and for retaliation were soundly defeated. In June 1760 the
Cherokee defeated a force of more than 1,200 men under the command of Colonel Archibald Montgomery near Franklin, North Carolina, and in August of that year, Fort Loudon, a British outpost near the Cherokee capital in southeastern Tennessee, was destroyed and its garrison of men massacred. In retaliation, a year later, a British force numbering 2,600 destroyed all the Lower Towns and the Middle or Valley Towns of the Cherokee, the loss of which forced the Cherokee to capitulate and sign treaties ceding much of their land in Virginia and the Carolinas. At the onset of the American Revolution, the Cherokee sided with the British and attacked colonial settlements and homesteads along the frontier, prompting damaging punitive raids on Cherokee villages by American militia.

In 1783, as a result of their unfortunate alliance with the British, the Cherokee were forced to cede roughly 1,600 square miles in eastern Georgia along with additional lands in Virginia and the Carolinas. Some Cherokee under the leadership of Dragging Canoe withdrew to the vicinity of present-day Chattanooga and continued warfare with white settlers for a decade, but the pressure from white settlement proved too great. In 1794 the Chickamauga band of the Cherokee signed a treaty with the Federal government and became the first of the Cherokee to be forced west of the Mississippi River.

Those Cherokee who remained on lands that had not been ceded began to acculturate rapidly with the whites. Sequoyah invented his famous alphabet, making a written language possible, and tribal leaders organized a constitutional government modeled on that of the United States. Many Cherokee embraced white culture, establishing diffused agricultural homesteads, embracing Christianity, and adopting other aspects of the dominant culture. Intermarriage with whites and growing economic distinctions among the Cherokee themselves marked this period. In 1814, the Cherokee allied with the Federal government to defeat the Creek, but none of this could stop the growing demand of white settlers for American Indian lands beyond the Chattahoochee, nor could it weaken the State’s will to assume control over all lands within its chartered boundaries.

In December 1827, newly-elected Governor John Forsyth and the Georgia legislature claimed jurisdiction over all lands of the Cherokee Nation in Georgia and invalidated Cherokee law in favor of State law. This action initiated a three-way struggle for control over Cherokee lands between the State, the Cherokee Nation, and the Federal government. Under great pressure from white prospectors following the discovery of gold near Dahlonega, Georgia, late in 1828, the State redoubled its efforts to remove American Indians from Georgia.

In 1830, the State organized the Cherokee lands in northwestern Georgia into Cherokee County even before questions of sovereignty finally reached the courts. In 1832, the United States Supreme Court ruled in Worcester v. Georgia that the laws of the State of Georgia did not apply in the Cherokee Nation, and the court reaffirmed the principle that the Constitution vested sole authority to treat with Indian nations in the Federal government. In defiance, the State proceeded with its plans for distributing Cherokee lands to white settlers, and fearful of alienating powerful political interests, President Andrew Jackson refused to enforce the Supreme Court decision. As a result, Georgia’s so-called “gold lottery” to distribute Cherokee land, including
all of the study area on the northwestern side of the river, went on as scheduled in the fall of 1832.\textsuperscript{27}

Realizing that the days of the Cherokee Nation were numbered, a faction led by Major Ridge, his son John Ridge, and his nephew Elias Boudinot negotiated the Treaty of New Echota in 1835, exchanging all remaining Cherokee claims in the East for five million dollars and lands west of the Mississippi in present-day Oklahoma. It was the best terms possible for the Indians, the Ridge faction believed, but a majority of the Cherokee, refusing to believe that the Federal government would abandon them, made no plans to emigrate west.

When only 2,000 Cherokee had begun migrating west by the deadline of May 1838, the Federal government began a forcible roundup and expulsion of the tribe. At least 13,000 Cherokee were rounded up in Georgia, Alabama, Tennessee, and North Carolina, and hundreds died even before they started west in the fall of 1838. The infamous Trail of Tears left as many as 5,000 Cherokee dead from cold, disease, and starvation. Perhaps 1,000 Cherokee evaded the roundup and remained in the East, most of them in the higher elevations of western North Carolina.\textsuperscript{28} In June 1839, with the last of the exhausted tribe straggling into Indian Territory, Major Ridge, John Ridge, and Elias Boudinot, like Chief McIntosh before them, were all assassinated for their role in the debacle.

**Early White Settlement**

The story of white settlement in Georgia is a story of the steady attrition of its American Indian population. Between the founding of the Georgia colony in 1733 and 1838, when the last of the Cherokee were forced from the state, the constant pressure of white settlement on the American Indian frontier resulted in persistent tensions and frequent hostilities. The inevitable pattern of white encroachment on American Indian lands, followed by Indian cession by treaty, repeated itself twenty times between 1733 and 1835. By 1838 all but a handful of the native peoples, including the Creek and the Cherokee, had been expelled from Georgia.

In 1800 most of the area that is now metropolitan Atlanta technically remained American Indian territory. Only a small portion of modern-day Gwinnett County lay within lands already ceded to the State by the Creek, with the western extent of ceded


\textsuperscript{28} Wilkins, 254-315.

\begin{figure}[h]
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\caption{Georgia lottery survey for the home of John Ridge, son of Major Ridge, both of whom were assassinated for signing the Treaty of New Echota. (Georgia Department of Archives and History)}
\end{figure}
territory marked by the headwaters of the Apalachee River. Thus, the majority of the land in the study area was still in native hands, and white contact was limited mainly to a very few land squatters and to traders seeking to peddle goods to the American Indians. In 1798, Georgia’s Constitutional Convention sought to limit frontier disputes between American Indians and whites by prohibiting the settlement of lands until native claims had been legally extinguished and counties organized and surveyed. The prohibition was widely ignored.

The War of 1812 only hastened white encroachment in the upper Piedmont. Recognizing the need to protect settlers from increased harassment by Creek Indians allied with the British, the State built a number of garrisoned forts beyond the state’s western frontier. In 1813 Fort Daniel was constructed at Hog Mountain in present-day Gwinnett County to protect settlers living along the upper Apalachee River. Because of its strategic location, the U.S. Army built a fort at the abandoned Indian village of Standing Peachtree in March 1814. Construction was under the supervision of James McC. Montgomery and included building a boat yard, two large block houses, six dwellings, and a storehouse. Called Fort Gilmer, the fort served as a distribution point for provisions for Andrew Jackson’s troops in Alabama during the War of 1812. The necessity of supplying the new fort, which was sometimes called Fort Peachtree, required construction of a road between the two forts, which followed an established Indian path that ran from Toccoa in northeast Georgia to Standing Peachtree. That road, known as the Peachtree Road, became a major conduit for settlement in the area, and much of its route remains in use today.

The fort at Standing Peachtree was never really tested in the War of 1812, since most conflict on the Georgia frontier was along the lower Chattahoochee Valley. Nevertheless, the fort figured into the larger conflict as a point of departure for provisions sent down river to supply Andrew Jackson’s troops, who mortally wounded the Creek Confederacy at the Battle of Horseshoe Bend in 1814. Even those Creeks who fought with the U.S. in the Creek War did not benefit since, by 1827, the Creek ceded all their remaining holdings in the State of Georgia, leaving the Cherokee as the only tribe in the state. In 1817, the Creek ceded their lands east of the Ocmulgee and its headwaters, out of which Gwinnett County was formed. In 1821 in the first Treaty of Indian Springs they ceded all of their lands between the Ocmulgee and Flint Rivers, which resulted in the formation of five new counties that same year, including Henry County from which DeKalb County and later Fulton County were created. With that treaty, the entire southeastern bank of the Chattahoochee River, including much of what is now the Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area passed out of Indian possession.

The Federal government found itself in the tenuous position of trying to balance agreements made to both the State of Georgia and the Cherokee Nation. In 1802 the State surrendered claim to all lands west of the present state boundary to the United States. In exchange the United States accepted the financial responsibility of negotiating American Indian affairs, understood to mean the termination of native land claims within the state’s boundaries. The Treaty of 1817 made the Federal government the enforcing party with regard to the issue of keeping white intruders off of unceded lands occupied by the Cherokee Nation. Thus, the Federal government was dually charged with extinguishing Indian rights while averting white encroachment on lands disputed between the Cherokee Nation and the State.

After the War of 1812, squatting by whites on Cherokee lands northwest of the Chattahoochee River was becoming all too common, violating terms of the Treaty of 1817 which defined the river as the border between the United States and the Cherokee Nation. In 1820 Andrew Jackson, as an agent for the U.S. government trying to maintain peace with the Cherokee, again crossed the Georgia frontier along the Chattahoochee River, this time to enforce American Indian land rights. Jackson arrived at the Shallow Ford on the Chattahoochee near present-day Roswell in the spring of 1820 and marked the crossing with a warning that land beyond the ford was off limits and that trespassers were subject to expulsion and prosecution.

Intruders on Cherokee lands, beware, I am required to remove all white men trespassing on Cherokee lands and not having a written permit.

29. Ibid., 75.
30. The original Peachtree Road did not include the modern road by that name south of Buckhead, but followed the routes of today’s W. Pace’s Ferry Road and Moore’s Mill Road to Peachtree Creek. Peachtree Road south of Buckhead developed after white settlement of the area began in 1821.
from agent, Col. R. J. Meigs, this duty I am about to perform. The Regulars and Indian Light horse will be employed in performing this service, and any opposition will be promptly punished. All white men with their livestock found trespassing on Indian lands will be arrested and handed over to the civil authorities of the United States to be dealt with as the law directs, there [sic] families removed to U.S. lands, there [sic] crops, houses, and fences destroyed.31

On June 15, 1820, Jackson wrote John C. Calhoun, Secretary of War, that “[o]n excursion through the Cherokee Nation…I found a great many intruders and those on the north shore of the Chatahoochey [sic] not only numerous but insolent in their threatened resistance.”32


FIGURE 6. Detail from map of Georgia,1842, taken from Sidney E. Morse and Samuel Breen’s Atlas of North America, published in three parts between 1838 and 1845. The dashed lines mark county boundaries that followed the Chattahoochee and Apalachee Rivers. (Private Collection of Tommy H. Jones)
James McC. Montgomery, who built much of Fort Gilmer for the government, was one of the earliest white settlers in the area when the Creek ceded their lands east of the Chattahoochee River in 1821. He built a house near the present intersection of Moore’s Mill and Bolton Roads and, in 1825, secured appointment as postmaster of the area’s first post office, which was called Standing Peachtree. In 1837, Montgomery also established a ferry to help accommodate the settlers flooding into the lands of the old Cherokee Nation.33 Construction of the bridge for the Western & Atlantic Railroad and a later vehicular bridge obliterated the largest of the Indian mounds at the old Indian village of Standing Peachtree, and extensive agricultural development of the river’s flood plain destroyed much of the rest, although in the mid-20th century Garrett noted “the remnant of an Indian mound” on the Cobb County side of the river just north of the railroad.34

In the mid-1820s, settlement of the study area was just beginning, but development was rapid. Between 1820 and 1830, the population of Gwinnett County almost tripled, from 4,589 to 13,289, and significantly, the population of slaves (included in those numbers) increased nearly fivefold from 538 to 2,332. By 1830, slaves constituted 17.5 percent of the population.35 The presence of so many slaves is in part indicative of the rising importance of cotton cultivation in the study area as the introduction of upland cotton made it possible for farmers in the upper Piedmont to cash in on the revolution in cotton growing that began with the invention of the cotton gin in 1797.

Still, the percentage of slaves among the entire population was relatively low compared to lower Piedmont and “black belt” counties where slave populations commonly exceeded white populations.36 As a comparative example, in two lower Piedmont cotton counties, Oglethorpe and Putnam, which had similar total populations around 13,000, 58 percent of the population were slaves. On the eve of the Civil War, with statewide slave-based plantation agriculture running full tilt, these percentages, as well as overall population, had not increased dramatically. In 1860, slaves represented only 19.7 percent of a population of 12,940 in Gwinnett37 and 20.7 percent of a population of 14,427 in Fulton. The area never possessed the geographic qualities of soil, climate, and easy water transportation38 that made lands in the lower Piedmont and in the coastal plain so valuable.

Transportation

Use of the Chattahoochee River itself for long-distance transportation was hampered by the Falls of the Chattahoochee and some twenty miles of shoals north of Columbus. While river transportation above Columbus was limited to shallow-draft vessels going short distances, a few barges and flatboats were running between West Point and Standing Peachtree as early as 1838. Since the region’s rivers are generally not navigable above the Fall Line, water transport in the study area was mostly limited to ferry crossings. In the early days, personal travel was mostly on foot or, if one were lucky, horseback. Roads that could sustain wagon and stagecoach traffic evolved slowly and not until the 1840s did rail travel become widespread.

Roads and Trails. The earliest roads in the study area were often simply improvements on the system of prehistoric trails worn by the native peoples and by the herds of woodland buffalo that ranged across the region until they were driven to extinction in the

34. Garrett, Atlanta and Environs, Vol. 1, 8.
35. The raw census data presented here was obtained online from the University of Virginia’s GEOSPAT Geospatial and Statistical Data Center’s United States Historical Census Data Browser, http://fisher.lib.virginia.edu/collections/stats/histcensus. The figures and percentages derived from the raw data were calculated and extrapolated by the authors. Future notations in this text relative to other such calculations should be assumed to be the work of the authors unless otherwise noted.
37. It is worth noting that the population of Gwinnett County actually dropped between 1850 and 1860. While some County land area had been removed for the formation of new counties, the overall population had not increased.
18th century. The early trails and the roads that followed them often followed ridges, where traveling conditions were generally easier, and many were oriented toward fords or shoals on the larger rivers and streams. Of particular interest among the early Indian trails in the study area is the Hightower Trail, commonly attributed to but probably predating the Creek Confederacy. During the historic period, the trail was a major trading route between Augusta, Georgia, on the Savannah River and the towns of the Upper Creeks and the Cherokee. Beyond the Chattahoochee, the trail crossed the Etowah River in the vicinity of the great mound complex at Etowah, and while the ultimate origin of the name “Hightower” is uncertain, it is commonly believed that it is a corruption of the same American Indian word from which Etowah is derived.39

The Hightower Trail was an important trade and settlement route in the history of early Georgia and beyond into Alabama. The trail crossed the Chattahoochee River at the Shallow Ford, near present-day Roswell, a major river crossing and the same one where Andrew Jackson posted his warning to white squatters in 1820. In 1824, the following ad ran in the Milledgeville Southern Recorder:

Chattahoochee: The subscriber has established a ferry across this river at the place commonly known as the Shallow Ford in the upper part of DeKalb County. Travelers from the Carolinas to the Alabama, coming by way of Augusta, Madison, Rockbridge, etc., will find this the nearest and best route. Bridges will be placed on watercourses beyond the ferry. Jacob R. Brooks.40

Ironically, Brooks came to Georgia as the Federal agent responsible for protecting American Indian property and rights against white encroachment. Today the backwater of Bull Sluice Lake near Chattahoochee River Park, a Fulton County park, covers the Shallow Ford.

Another important prehistoric trail intersected the Hightower Trail south of the Shallow Ford. This trail roughly followed the topography of the ridge system associated with the Brevard Fault bounding the river corridor to the southeast, and became the foundation for George Gilmer’s road between Fort Daniel in Gwinnett County and Fort Gilmer at Standing Peachtree. Shallowford Road and Peachtree Road north of Buckhead are two modern roads that trace some of the routes of these ancient trails.

At the time Gwinnett and DeKalb Counties were organized, there were few if any real roads in the area, although Peachtree “Road,” parts of the Hightower Trail and some of the other major Indian trails might have approached the status of proper roads. These early roads were primitive affairs, often impassable for long periods in inclement weather when mud and flooded streams made travel impossible. Road development in the early years often meant little more than clearing trees to widen an ancient hunting path, leaving stumps over or around which horse-drawn carts, wagons, and coaches negotiated passage. Yet out of these came many modern thoroughfares.

The county Inferior Court was generally responsible for the development of infrastructure, and immediately after the counties were organized, the court began the task of marking and opening roads. In Gwinnett alone, no fewer than 35 road projects were authorized by the Inferior Court in the five years between 1821 and 1826. Early road authorizations often established roads radiating from the county seat to adjacent county seats, to important transportation points such as existing roads, and to ferries and bridges over the river and nearby streams. Thus, some of the earliest roads in the study area ran from the Gwinnett County seat at Lawrenceville and from the DeKalb County seat at Decatur to ferries on the Chattahoochee, with the roads to Johnson’s Ferry and Power’s Ferry being two of the most well known of those roads through the study area.

Early roads were financed by bond issue or by toll charges, and although toll roads or turnpikes were often private enterprises needing little more than permission from the county, they were not much used in the study area. The maintenance of early roads, once established, was more problematic, and seasonal rains and winter ice often turned early roads into quagmires. In September 1828,42 for

41. West of Buckhead, the original route of Peachtree Road followed what is now West Pace’s Ferry Road to Moores Mill Road, which it followed from there on to Standing Peachtree.
example, the Gwinnett Inferior Court ordered the comprehensive improvement of public roads, which were to be

opened 20 feet wide and ditched where necessary...stumps cut near to the earth as possible; the roots taken and washes turned into ditches; the swamps, branches and mud-holes to be cause-wayed and signboard of direction put up at the ford of each road.

Ferries. Natural fords are fairly common in the study area, but many, including the Shallow Ford, were soon replaced by ferries that, for a nominal fee, provided a dry and relatively secure means of transportation for people and their possessions, livestock, and trading goods across the river. By the time the State formally annexed the Cherokee territory beyond the river, no fewer than a dozen ferries were operating within the study area. Orr’s Ferry, Gilbert’s Ferry, Collins Ferry, and McGinniss Ferry all provided access between modern Gwinnett and Forsyth Counties. Roger’s Ferry, Waters Ferry, Gates Ferry, Island Ford, and Martin’s Ferry all connected Gwinnett County with Milton County, now north Fulton County. Brooks Ferry at Shallow Ford, Power’s Ferry, Pace’s Ferry, and Montgomery Ferry just below Peachtree Creek all crossed between modern Fulton and Cobb Counties. Generally the ferries were known by the name of the ferry operator, so that a succession of names might be associated with any one ferry location.

Among the earliest recorded ferries were those operated by William Burke beginning in 1823 at an unspecified point west of what is now the city of Atlanta and, as noted above, by Jacob Brooks beginning the following year at the Shallow Ford itself. In 1835, a ferry at Standing Peachtree commenced operation and Power’s Ferry was begun around the same time by Joseph Power, who established his enterprise near today’s Morgan Falls Dam. His brother James also operated a ferry located approximately where Power’s Ferry Road now crosses the river near I-285. Pace’s Ferry was established a few miles south of James Power’s Ferry by Hardy Pace sometime after he purchased the land in 1843.

Between Shallow Ford and Standing Peachtree, the number of ferries increased during the 1840s and 1850s as the populations of nearby Decatur, Atlanta, and Marietta grew. Much of Sherman’s army entered Fulton County in 1864 on Pace’s Ferry Road, which ran from the ferry to Peachtree Road at the crossroads community of Buckhead. Other ferry crossings were used by troops during the Civil War, notably Isham’s Ferry, also known as Isom’s and later Heard’s Ferry, at the mouth of Sope Creek, and Johnson’s Ferry a short distance upriver from there.

In the early period, the authority to establish and operate ferries appears ambiguous. Certainly, the Cherokee themselves recognized the value of providing passage and were known to have held interests in Orr’s, Gilbert’s, Rogers’, and Waters’ ferries. On the State’s part, early ferries were created by legislative decree but the ferries came under the purview of the county once counties were formally organized. The right to establish and operate Martin’s Ferry just east of Vickery Creek, for example, was granted by the Inferior Court of DeKalb County in 1829:

On application order that Rubin Martin be authorized to establish a ferry on the Chattahoochee River above the Shallow Ford at a place now know as Martin’s Ferry and be allowed to charge the following rates as toll: For every road wagon loaded crossing .62; empty .50; cart or two horse wagon .37; for a gig or one horse carriage of any description .25; for a man and single horse .12; footman or lead horse .06 ¼; cattle .04 a head; hogs and sheep .02 a head. Provided he goes bond on a good security in the sum of $1,000.00 for the keeping of a good flat and faithful performance of the duties of ferryman.

The record suggests that Martin may have previously operated a ferry at that location, and the authority for the route may have been more of a regulatory tool on the part of the county to encourage fair rates and a degree of quality control. It also suggests a recognition of and interest in commerce and

44. Cultural Resource Inventory: Chattahoochee Final Report draft (National Park Service Southeast Region Office, 1981), 75.
45. Chaffin. On some Civil War maps, Isham’s Ferry is designated Phillips Ferry.
settlement opportunities beyond the river. It is likely that numerous other ferries operated, albeit perhaps for only a limited period of time, within the study area and provided local competition. Still, most ferries ultimately tied back into the two primary trails beyond the river, the Hightower Trail and the Old Alabama Road, a part of which today runs from Medlock Bridge Road to Riverside Road north of Island Ford.

**Bridges.** The earliest bridges in the study area were wooden, with the best of these covered with a roof to protect the extensive joinery that held the bridge together. A covered bridge was built over Sope Creek within the study area near the site of the Marietta Paper Company’s mill, and it stood until the early 1960s. Damaged by a large truck that was too heavy for the span, the bridge was reinforced with steel beams in 1963, only to be destroyed by arson in 1964. Only one covered bridge survives near the study area, and that is Concord Bridge at Nickajack Creek, southwest of Smyrna.

Though early bridges were built over smaller streams in the area, the width of the Chattahoochee provided a serious challenge to early bridge building. Nevertheless, in 1834, Robert McAfee was authorized to construct and operate a toll bridge near the present Holcomb Bridge. Little is known of the structure, but it was apparently used by Union troops as a crossing point in July 1864.

Better known was the long covered bridge constructed over the river at Roswell Road before the Civil War. Burned by the Confederates in 1864 but quickly rebuilt, it was among the first of a number of bridges that provided access across the river in the study area. A covered bridge built to carry the Atlanta Road at Bolton was the only other bridge in the sixteen miles between the two bridges until the early 1900s. Still, the relatively low cost and ease of operation of ferries compared to the cost of bridge building meant that ferries remained an important component of inter-county travel well into the 20th century.

**Railroads.** The earliest railroad in the region, and one of the first in the nation, was the South Carolina Canal and Rail Road Company’s line that began operation in December 1830 from Charleston to

FIGURE 7. Montgomery Ferry, ca. 1900. (Vanishing Georgia Collection, Georgia Division of Archives and History)
Hamburg, across the Savannah River from Augusta, Georgia. In 1833, the Georgia Legislature chartered the Georgia Railroad, which was originally intended to connect Augusta and Athens, with a branch to Greensboro, Georgia. The opening of Cherokee lands to white settlement prompted the Legislature in 1836 to charter its first State-owned railroad, the Western and Atlantic (W & A), to connect the interior of Georgia with the Tennessee River valley at Chattanooga.48

The W&A was originally authorized to extend to an unspecified river crossing somewhere between Campbellton in what is now south Fulton County and Wynn’s Ferry near Gainesville in Hall County. Stephen Harriman Long, an engineer who conducted some of the initial surveys west of the Mississippi after the War of 1812 and was the first white man to reach the summit of Pike’s Peak in Colorado, surveyed the initial route of the railroad and was responsible for choosing the railroad’s river crossing at Montgomery Ferry near old Fort Gilmer at Standing Peachtree. That choice and the resulting rail route ultimately determined the location of Atlanta and several other Georgia towns and cities.

By October 1838, the southern end of the W & A railroad line had been surveyed and some 50 miles of track were under construction. A railroad bridge over the Chattahoochee at Montgomery Ferry was also constructed before a severe economic depression slowed construction on the line. Not until Christmas Eve 1842 did the first locomotive leave Terminus, the little settlement that had grown up at the southern end of the line. That first train made the round trip between Terminus and Marietta, but passengers insisted on walking across the trestle bridge over the Chattahoochee because they were not sure the bridge would carry the locomotive’s weight. Work on the W&A was slow, and it was not completed to Chattanooga until 1851.

In the meantime, the charter of the Georgia Railroad was adjusted to allow for extension of the main line beyond Greensboro to a connection with the W&A at Terminus, which was renamed Marthasville in 1843, in honor of former Gov. Wilson Lumpkin’s daughter. The first train on the Georgia Railroad

arrived in Marthasville in September 1845, a momentous event for the town’s leaders who quickly recognized that the name “Marthasville” did not do justice to their aspirations for the town, and in December 1845, Marthasville became Atlanta. The following year the Macon and Western Railroad was completed, connecting Atlanta via the Central of Georgia Railroad at Macon with Savannah.

In 1856, the Georgia Air Line Railroad was organized to open a line from Atlanta through Gainesville and the upper Piedmont of South Carolina to Charlotte, North Carolina, where it would connect with similar ventures initiated in the Carolinas and Virginia. The development of this railroad was delayed by the Civil War, but after the war it was revived as the Atlanta and Charlotte Air Line and completed in 1873. At the time, Lawrenceville was the only town in Gwinnett County, so the Atlanta and Charlotte Railroad essentially created the towns of Norcross, Duluth, Suwanee, and Buford along the river corridor in the northern part of the county.

Agricultural Development

The Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area was shaped in part by the long history of agriculture in the area, especially along the rich bottom lands that the river periodically inundated until the completion of Buford Dam in 1956 began to tame the river’s flow. Agricultural development in the study area in the early years appears to have been driven largely by a mixture of subsistence farming and cash crop production rather than the land-wasting, slave-based plantation system found across much of the Deep South.

Farmers and Planters. Based on census data for militia districts along the river, a profile emerges of large nuclear families on small farms that they owned, rather than planters with large slave holdings dedicated to cotton production. The three militia districts adjacent to the river contained some of the most valuable agricultural lands in the county, and by 1840, half of the slave owners owning 30 or more slaves lived in the Pinckneyville, Goodwin, and Sugar Hill militia districts along the Chattahoochee. While this might imply that plantation cotton was the economic engine for the area, further analysis of the census records indicates otherwise.

The 1850 census documents that the vast majority of people in these militia districts were considered “farmers” rather than “planters.” In the Pinckneyville and Goodwin districts, persons counted as “farmers” accounted for almost 80 percent of the population, while “planters” accounted for less than 2 percent. In the Sugar Hill district the number of farmers swelled to more than 90 percent, with less than 1 percent described as planters. The remaining persons in each of the districts (accounting for between 10 percent and 20 percent of the population) had other occupations such as laborer, mechanic, carpenter, and blacksmith.

While slave ownership among the farmers in Gwinnett was not uncommon, most farmers did not hold slaves. The primary labor force was the nuclear family, sometimes supplemented with one or more slaves or boarders. Large families ranging from six to 12 members were typical. Often the parents were born in Virginia or the Carolinas, while most or all of their children might be born in Georgia. The 1850 census records for Harbin’s Militia District along the river in south Cobb County reveal patterns similar to those in Gwinnett. Of 112 “head of households” surveyed in this Cobb district, 83 percent were categorized as farmers. Mechanics represented almost 10 percent of the total. Scattered millers, State employees, railroad workers, merchants, carpenters, and others rounded out the total. As in Gwinnett County, residents were overwhelmingly from the Carolinas and, to a lesser extent, Virginia. Farming families tended to be large, again suggesting that family-oriented agriculture remained the norm rather than the slave-based plantation model.

49. Cooper, 595-96.


52. This information extrapolated by the author based on the 1850 Gwinnett County census data transcribed by Kate Duncan Nesbit and indexed by May Ann Fitzgerald McClung. Indexing is particularly useful for identifying residents of the three specific militia districts cited here, but scattered throughout the transcribed census data (hence no page references).

53. Rhea Cumming Otto, compiler, 1850 Census of Georgia, Cobb County (Savannah, GA: R.C. Otto, 1984). The calculations relate to specific districts, origins, and occupations based upon transcribed and indexed census records. No page reference offered here because information was drawn from throughout entire text.
Federal agents spent much of 1835 through 1837 making valuations on improved properties within the former Cherokee Nation. The property of all inhabitants, Cherokee and white squatters alike, was seized and property owners were reimbursed to the value appraised by the agents. American Indians were then expelled to reservations in the Indian Territory (present-day Oklahoma). Among the list of valuations made in 1836 by Indian agents Joseph Shaw and N. L. Hutchins was the list for “Martin Brannon a white man and Nancy or Ann his wife, late widow of Parker Collins deceased of Forsyth County, Ga. On the Chattahoochee River at McGinnis’ Ferry.”54 The property illustrated in the Brannon dispossession indicates the Brannons were wealthy by frontier standards. Though the dispossessed holdings were not extensive in total acreage, they contained a wealth of bottomland, which was valued at $12 per acre as opposed to the $8 per acre assessed for upland acreage. Additionally, the presence of McGinnis Ferry brought significant income both directly and indirectly through tolls and whatever sales of goods might be likely to result at such a prominent commercial location. The presence of four corncribs and extensive bottomland holdings is an indicator of the importance of corn as a subsistence crop and hints at the value of the grain as a commercial crop. The extensive peach orchard might suggest that peaches were for commercial consumption, although it is more likely that these orchards were planted for hog fodder—a common practice at the time.

Agricultural Production. The census record also documents agricultural activity in the study area. The 1840 census was the first year that specific and substantive agricultural records were collected and was also the first census cycle to include all the northern counties, including Cobb and Forsyth, from the former Cherokee territory in the 1830s. The census data is somewhat limited because it collected data only on specific produce and livestock, but it provides a window into the relative importance of certain agricultural products in the study area.

These records do not provide information specific to the river corridor study area because the records were compiled at the county level. However, there is no reason to believe that agriculture in the study area was radically different from agriculture in the counties as a whole, except on the bottomland river terraces which were more suited to the culture of corn rather than cotton. It is reasonable to assume that cultivation in the study area resembled that typical of adjacent counties, except in places where steep slopes along the river made agriculture altogether unfeasible.

The 1840 census counted livestock such as cattle, swine, sheep, and poultry as well as cereal crops including wheat, oats, rye, and corn.\textsuperscript{55} Farm products and produce such as wool, potatoes, tobacco, cotton, and dairy were also counted and appeared in significant numbers. The number of cattle, swine, sheep, and poultry are not notably different from other counties in the state. Since livestock were raised free range, the state's frontier status and vast open land made this a valuable industry. The production of corn and cotton was not particularly impressive in the counties around the study area. DeKalb County alone accounted for more than half of the area's cotton production. Wheat and oats were raised in significant amounts in each of the counties, but rye was in limited production. Tobacco production was slight and limited mostly to Forsyth County. Cobb County was a significant producer of wool for the area, with 36,057 of the 52,201 total pounds produced in Cobb, Gwinnett, DeKalb, and Forsyth Counties.

The 1850 census\textsuperscript{56} shows a marginal increase in all livestock except cattle and sheep. Cattle decreased because dairy animals were culled into a separate category; cumulatively they represent the same marginal increases. Sheep, on the other hand, showed a dramatic 70 percent increase over the previous decade. The increase in sheep, however, did not correlate to an increase in wool production, which fell from 52,201 pounds in 1840 to 43,667 pound in 1850. Corn production increased considerably, yet remained average for the state as a whole. The same pattern existed with oat production. Wheat production in the area, particularly in Cobb and Gwinnett Counties, was high relative to the rest of the state, but had dropped off almost 26 percent since 1840. Sweet potatoes, separated for the first time from Irish potatoes, accounted for 284,560 bushels, suggesting the importance of this crop along with corn as a subsistence product. Other agricultural products counted for the first time in 1850 were beans and peas (24,524 bushels) and butter (313,139 pounds). Rice enjoyed a very short-lived success with 36,049 bushels produced in Cobb, Gwinnett, DeKalb, and Forsyth Counties, although 81 percent of that total was grown in just one county, Cobb.

\textsuperscript{55} Secretary of State, \textit{Statistics of the United States of America as Collected and Returned to the Marshals of the Several Judicial Districts under the Thirteenth Section of the Act for Taking the Sixth Census} (Washington, D.C.: Blair and Rives, 1841), 252-53.

The cotton economy, especially in the early 1840s, was unstable and depressed, but cotton production rose dramatically in the 1840s, rising from 820,249 pounds in 1840 to 3,120,400 (7801 bales at 400 pounds per bale) in 1850, a 380 percent increase that is indicative of the upper Piedmont's transformation from frontier to settled farm land. Tobacco production rose as well from 7,376 pounds in 1840 to 69,558 in 1850. Forsyth County alone accounted for 59,548 pounds of that total, ranking it among the top tobacco-producing counties in the state.

In 1853, the political landscape was altered when Fulton County was created from the western part of DeKalb County, a change precipitated by the rapid growth of Atlanta and its railroads, industry, and commerce. In 1857, Milton County was created from portions of Forsyth, Cobb, and Gwinnett Counties in the area north of the river, including Roswell. Thus, by the time the 1860 census was taken, the original four counties in the study area (DeKalb, Cobb, Forsyth, and Gwinnett) became six (DeKalb, Fulton, Cobb, Forsyth, Gwinnett, and Milton).

The 1860 census suggests significant changes in land use throughout the study area as production of dairy cattle, sheep, and swine fell by 30 percent to 40 percent and cattle by one-fifth. These steep declines are indicative of increased investment in cotton production at the expense of livestock as prices rose dramatically in the 1850s. The reduction in other crops also was dramatic as tobacco production fell more than 63 percent and sheep production fell by almost 42 percent. Likewise, production of sweet and Irish potatoes fell almost 40 percent, oats plummeted to one-quarter of the 1850 level, and rice culture all but disappeared, with fewer than 203 bushels produced (down from 36,049 in 1850). Only the production of rye and wheat increased during this period. The total bushels of rye increased 175 percent, but it remained a relatively insignificant crop. Wheat production, the only crop to expand significantly, increased by slightly more than 78 percent. In 1860, production reached 195,571 bushels, with the majority of that produced in Cobb and Gwinnett Counties.

Throughout this period, cotton production in Georgia and the Deep South soared, and the dedication of prime agricultural land to cotton agriculture fostered a greater dependence on farm products and manufactured goods imported from outside the region. Hogs, for example, a staple in the southern diet, were commonly imported from Tennessee and the lower Ohio River Valley so that land could be dedicated to cotton. Few were willing to recognize the implications of this dilemma the South created for itself, and the entrenched paradigm of “King Cotton” provided the framework for the complicated series of events leading to southern secession and the Civil War.

**Industrial Development**

Most of the settlers who poured into the Georgia Piedmont after the Revolutionary War were part of an ongoing quest for cheap arable land on which to establish a small farm, and the Georgia land lotteries did much to facilitate that quest. While land and the promise of agricultural development drew early settlers into the study area, a few entrepreneurs saw the long-term potential for industrial development in a region where numerous waterfalls and shoals on rapidly-flowing streams promised a nearly endless supply of energy. Georgia historian Kenneth Coleman explains the origins of the state’s industrial development:

Manufacturing in Georgia between 1783 and 1820 was in the handicraft stage or else consisted of simple first stage processing. Artisans... produced many items for local sale... [The roots of industrialization ran back to the small workshops and mills on farms and plantations and in nascent urban areas where a nucleus of white managers and black and white skilled workers evolved. By the 1820s infant industries that supplemented the agricultural surge were developing.]

The Industrial Revolution was slow to take hold in Georgia, even at Columbus, Macon, and other cities on the Fall Line. Except in Augusta, real industrialization did not begin until the 1840s. As railroads expanded in Georgia, industries followed, resulting in important contributions to the economy, especially in textiles, lumber, naval stores, meatpacking, canning, fertilizer, and bauxite production, among others. Georgia’s many rivers and creeks played


58. Bonner, 145.

an important role in the growth of most of these and other industries key to the region’s economic development, but the precursor to industrial development in the area were the gristmills and sawmills scattered all across the Piedmont. Many of the area’s streams, even relatively small ones, could be dammed to support operation of these small mills.

**Grist Mills.** As early as the first century BCE, humans in the Black Sea basin and China had harnessed the power of falling water for practical ends, making possible more efficient, large-scale production that was simply not possible before. In Europe the use of waterpower grew slowly with the expansion of the Roman Empire but was soon indispensable. Caligula threatened Rome’s bread supply by confiscating mill animals in the first century AD; by the sixth century AD the Goths caused a similar strategic shortage by cutting the water supply to grist mills at Janiculum. After the Norman Conquest, *The Domesday Book* recorded almost 6,000 water-powered mills in England, and by the time the New World was being settled in the 16th century, there were an estimated 60,000 water mills in France alone. With the waves of European immigrations, milling technology was transplanted to the New World, and gristmills were an integral part of early settlement.

As America was settled, suitable agricultural soils and water for livestock and agriculture were the primary demands of many early settlers. Especially attractive, however, were locations with the potential for water-powered mills, since grist mills for grinding corn and other grains were a necessity wherever there was agriculture. Sawmills, too, were water-powered prior to the introduction of steam engines, and numerous sawmills and gristmills were built across the Piedmont in the years before the Civil War.

Corn bread was a staple in the southern diet. Corn meal and flour. One contemporary observer commented:

> They are great walkers and carriers of burdens... in our settlement one of my neighbors used to go, every other week, thirteen miles to mill, carrying a two-bushel sack of corn (112 pounds) and returning with his meal the following day. This was done without any pack-strap but simply by shifting the load from one shoulder to the other, betimes.62

It was the hierarchy of needs, primarily food, that drove mill development. “A millpond and its corn mill were usually the first evidence that a section had been settled, and it was rare that the settlers were not thus provided within five years.” Also prominent in that hierarchy was the desire for lumber for houses and other buildings. Axes and adzes were the only tools necessary for building a log building, and pit-saws could crudely accomplish the task of producing sawn lumber, but both were labor intensive. Most of the earliest buildings were log or, in finer buildings, a traditional timber frame. For the consumer, sawmills brought expediency and a lower cost to the process, facilitating more rapid settlement and allocation of more resources to agriculture or other productive enterprises. As important, perhaps, sawmill lumber brought a level of refinement in building that was not possible before without great expense. As one commentator noted, “[t]he axe produces the log hut but not till the sawmill is introduced, do frame dwellings and villages arise; it is civilization’s pioneer machine: the precursor of the carpenter, wheelwright and turner, the painter, joiner, and the legions of other professions.”64

Naturally, among the first locations scouted by potential settlers were mill sites. Recognizing the importance of mills to settlement and development, Georgia, like many other states, offered incentives to would-be millers and millwrights. Such “mill

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60. Ibid., 270.
61. Ibid., 131-39.
63. Ibid., 7-8. Hunter is quoting Carl Bridenbaugh’s THE COLONIAL CRAFTSMAN (NEW YORK: NEW YORK UNIVERSITY PRESS, 1950; REPRINT, NEW YORK: DOVER PUBLICATIONS, 1990), 18-24, with regard to the establishment of grist mills in the South Carolina interior.
64. Ibid., 17-18.
acts” included a 1777 colonial Georgia law granting 100 acres of land for any “person [who would] build or cause to be built a grist mill on any vacant land,” \(^{65}\) with an additional 500 acres for construction of a sawmill. By the 19th century, little incentive was necessary for entrepreneurs to quickly erect mills as territory was opened for settlement. So important was the miller that during the Civil War, millers and others “engaged (as) operatives in the manufacture, by machinery, of woolen or cotton goods and other articles used for military purposes . . . or in rolling mills” were exempted from conscription into the Confederate Army.\(^ {66}\)

The main components of a typical small-scale water-powered mill in the Piedmont were a dam on a secondary or tertiary watercourse, a millpond, raceway or flume, waterwheel, and a building to house the machinery. The dam was often located in the “knick” of a small stream valley where shoals with an appreciable grade lay below. The main mill building would often lie a considerable distance downstream, ranging from a hundred feet to a quarter of a mile or more.

Water was directed to the mill via a sluice gate at the dam via a headrace or flume, which was essentially a small canal that carried water to the mill. The distance that the water fell between the dam and the mill provided the “head” or energy that turned the wheel and needed to be as great as possible. At the mill, the water flowed through a flume and was directed either over or under the wheel, depending on whether the mill used an undershot or an overshot wheel design. The force of the water caused the waterwheel to rotate.\(^ {67}\) Depending on the placement of the mill, the water would then return to the source stream directly or a short distance downstream via a tailrace, perhaps providing power to additional wheels along the way.

The water power captured by the revolving wheel was conveyed into the mill by the wheel’s central axle and there, utilizing some combination of gears and/or belts, transferred to rotate a millstone or to operate lathes and other small machinery. At larger mills with more water power, the wheel or turbines could harness power for sawing lumber, spinning yarn, blowing furnaces, and creating pounding forces for industrial purposes. At larger mills, it was not uncommon for several mill functions to be laid out at one site, sometimes within the same structure. This was accomplished by tapping into the main wheel with a shaft or belt leading to a dependency structure or addition. Sometimes another wheel with its own sluice gate (or penstock) would be located along the water’s path either before or after the main wheel, thus double dipping into the same power source.

The earliest mill documented in the study area was apparently built by John Woodall in 1813 on the west side of the river near Standing Peachtree.\(^ {68}\) The Cherokee built mills as well, although only two of those have been documented in the study area. They were recorded in 1836 as part of the State’s evaluation of property to determine financial restitution for properties of both whites and Indians living on Cherokee lands condemned by the State of Georgia. William Rogers, ancestor of the famed comedian Will Rogers, was owner of Rogers Ferry in the northern part of the study area, and he owned a grist mill valued at $2,000 and a sawmill worth approximately $500. A second mill in the study area listed in the Cherokee records was located on Waters Plantation, but it was valued at only $10, indicating that it may not have been operational. All evidence of its existence has apparently vanished.

Wofford’s Mill (ca. 1819) was a gristmill and sawmill upstream from Roswell that was operated by a mixed-blood American Indian named Charles Wofford. The site is known to have included a small cabin and a three-story, wood-framed mill built on a stone foundation. Wofford lived on the land with his wife, Agnes, and four children on approximately eight acres of cleared land. When the Wofford’s departed in 1829, the property was valued at $1,782.50.\(^ {69}\) No physical evidence of this mill site has been documented.

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66. Ibid., 602.
67. The most popular waterwheel used in the Georgia Piedmont was called an “overshot” wheel because the water flowed over the top, allowing the water to fall on and with the wheel. Other wheels such as the “undershot,” “breast,” and “tub” were 10 percent to 60 percent less efficient. Where head and mill space allowed, the construction of overshot wheels was preferred because it offered more power for less water.
Early water mills were widespread and remained a regular feature in the study area into the 20th century. For a variety of reasons, some mills were short-lived and left only remnants, such as the Level Creek ruins near Settles Bridge in Gwinnett County. Within the study area, scant archeological evidence has been found of mills predating the 1840s, and the exact number of historic mills in the study area is not known.

**Industrial Mills.** While gristmills and sawmills were numerous in the region, there were relatively few locations with enough water power to support real industrial production. The falls and shoals of major rivers along the Fall Line that runs from Augusta to Macon and Columbus were the most significant of those locations in the state. In the study area, the Chattahoochee River descends roughly 150 feet between Buford Dam and Peachtree Creek, and in that distance the river’s character changes markedly. From Buford Dam to the vicinity of Holcomb Bridge, which is approximately half the length of the study area, the river flows gently over a few shoals and drops only about forty feet. From Holcomb Bridge to Peachtree Creek, however, shoals are more numerous and the river drops another 110 feet. Through the study area, the Chattahoochee has good energy potential because of its great volume, but harnessing the river’s power was difficult.

In 1845, as industrial development was beginning to take hold in Columbus at the Falls of the Chattahoochee, the Georgia Legislature granted Hezekial Foote permission to build a dam on the river near the Western and Atlantic Railroad bridge just below Peachtree Creek. Similar permission was extended to Daniel Aderhold in 1847 and to Johnson Garwood, Hardy Pace, and Pickney Randall in 1850 for a proposed dam near Island Ford in Land Lot 1025, 17th District, 2nd Section. Most likely these were speculative ventures, and none of these dams are known to have been constructed. No evidence for other 19th century dams on the river within the study area has been located.

Although it may have been impractical to use the river for mill development, the power of several rapidly flowing, year-round, tributary streams was more easily harnessed. A report published in 1896 detailed the flow rates of several tributaries to the Chattahoochee, including Suwanee Creek at 700 cubic feet per minute (cfm), Rottenwood Creek at 720 cfm, Peachtree Creek at 1,400 cfm, Nancy Creek at 2,700 cfm, and Sope Creek at 3,720 cfm. The vast majority of early water-powered industry developed along these streams and a few others like Big Creek near Roswell.

**Roswell Manufacturing Company:** Big Creek, historically known as Vickery Creek or Cedar Creek, descends steeply to the Chattahoochee near the city of Roswell. From the plateau at Oxbow Drive northeast of the Roswell town square, the creek makes a sharp turn to the southeast and begins a rapid descent, falling approximately 110 feet over a little more than a mile-and-a-half to its confluence with the Chattahoochee River just upstream from the Roswell Road bridge. This section of the stream carries a considerable volume and cuts a fairly steep and rocky ravine along its route. Although no evidence exists to suggest any early water-powered activity on this section of the creek, there are indications of both early settlement and milling activities in the area, including Wofford’s Mill (discussed above) on the river a short distance upstream in the vicinity of what became the Lebanon community.

Roswell King, Sr. (1765-1844) is the dominant character in the industrial development of Big Creek and establishment of the adjacent city that bears his name. Born in Connecticut, King settled in Darien, Georgia, in the 1780s and made a fortune trading in lumber, rice, and Sea Island cotton. Familiar with the water-powered industries pioneered in New

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71. Sarah Blackwell Gober Temple, *The First Hundred Years: A Short History of Cobb County in Georgia*, 149.
73. Legend has it that Vickery Creek came by its name because it originated on the property of a mixed-blood Cherokee woman named Charlotte Vickery. She was forced to move west on the infamous “Trail of Tears” ([http://georgiatrails.com/trails/vickery1.html](http://georgiatrails.com/trails/vickery1.html)). Kenneth Krakow, in *Georgia Place-Names*, states that the creek and a town by the same name were named for Charlotte or her husband, Cherokee chief Henry Vickery, who died in 1834. The town boasted more than a hundred residents at its apex. Kenneth K. Krakow, *Georgia Place-Names* (Macon, Ga.: Winship Press, 1975), also at [http://www.kenkrakow.com/gpn/georgia_place-names.htm](http://www.kenkrakow.com/gpn/georgia_place-names.htm).
England, he recognized the tremendous advantages of developing southern textile manufacturing “close to the field,” or point of production. Around 1830, King passed through the study area en route to Auraria, a frontier gold mining town in present day Lumpkin County where the Bank of Darien was interested in opening a branch bank to capitalize on the gold rush. It was during this trip that King first recognized the potential of the steep banks of the Chattahoochee at Big Creek.

The State’s “gold lottery” opened the area northwest of the river to settlement in 1832, and King and others from Darien began using the area as a summer resort. All indications are that King continued to reside in Darien until after his wife’s death there in 1839, but it is not known when King made Roswell his year-round residence. On May 16, 1838, he purchased land along Big Creek to build a factory and began development of the site on the western bank of the creek soon after. King had already built a brick kiln and sawmill that furnished materials for construction of Roswell’s several noteworthy Greek Revival houses. The mill and kiln also provided construction materials for the factory.

Construction of Roswell King’s textile mill was completed in November 1839 and it was soon in operation with Henry Merrell, an engineer and mechanic from Utica, New York, managing the operation. At the same time, the Roswell Manufacturing Company was incorporated with Roswell King, his sons Barrington and Ralph, John Dunwoody, James S. Bulloch, Henry Atwood, and others as directors. Roswell King, Sr., was the company’s first president, a position he retained until his death.

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74. Karen G. Wood, “An Archeological Survey of the Presumed Location of the First Roswell Factory” (Southeast Archeological Services, unpublished report commissioned by the Roswell Historical Society, 1989). This cites an 1852 Cobb County Deed Book (No. 2) reference to the original date and intent of the purchase of the property by Roswell King, Sr., in 1838.

in 1844, but his son Barrington was largely responsible for the company’s development.

In a letter dated February 1840 addressed to John Camp, Esq., an insurance underwriter, Merrell provided a narrative description of the factory for the purpose of insurance underwriting:

[The Roswell Factory is] . . . 48 feet long by 88 feet wide in the clear – is three and one- half Stories high: - the basement room to the room next above extends to only about one- half the length of the Factory, caused by being built on a side- hill. The building of this factory was completed in November last.

Walls are of brick and solid: – on the inside they are not plastered, but whitewashed on the brick.

Roof is covered with shingles nailed onto wooden sheeting, is not at present plastered or whitewashed inside.

Gutters are of tin – no wooden cornice.

Floors are of plank tongued and grooved; but not laid in mortar.

Blind holes through the floor, and the door- sills are furnished with combing at least an inch in height: – the stairways have none. There is no porch to the building. All the doors are wood; none covered with iron or tin.

The basement is closed and contains no machinery except the driving drum. The first story is designed for the weaving- room and also contains no machinery but the regulator: – Second story is the Spinning Room – Third Story is the Cardroom and Picking – and the attic intended for mules is yet empty of machinery.

There is no regular Machine Shop; but a turning- lathe and work- bench in the Carding- room at the end nearest the front door. There is no furnace or forge inside the Factory walls.

The Factory is warmed by stoves. There is no fire- heat used in the building for any other purpose than to warm it. There are no sheet- iron stoves in the building. Wood is used for fuel. Nobody is allowed to handle fire or lights in the building accept [sic] managers and watchmen.76

In 1840, the Manufacturing and Agricultural Census described the mill as having 480 spindles and 28 “hands” producing cotton yarn and rope. The value of the manufactured goods was $6,000 but no quantity was stated. The census also shows that the company’s stockholders had numerous slaves: Barrington King, 48 slaves; Roswell King, 19; John Dunwoody, 27; James Bulloch, 43; and Archibald Smith, 33. Although southern textile mills are generally thought to have employed white workers, the use of slaves in textile mills in the antebellum period was not uncommon. It is likely that slave labor was used extensively to build and, to a lesser degree, to operate the mill after it was constructed.

The Roswell Manufacturing Company also built the “Roswell Stores” as a commissary for the mill. Located on the east side of the Roswell town square, the Roswell Stores were a significant component of the commercial character of Roswell’s square. In addition, in 1840, the company constructed two brick apartment buildings to house mill workers. Each building contained 10 apartments, complete with a kitchen, living room, and upstairs sleeping quarters. “The Old Bricks,” as these two apartment buildings came to be known, still stand today on Sloan Street east of the Roswell Stores and are said to be among the oldest apartment buildings in the South. They were converted by Union troops into a temporary hospital in 1864, but have otherwise been in continuous use as apartments since 1840.78

In addition, the company built a number of single family and duplex residences in a mill village that came to be known as Factory Hill, some of the first mill housing in the South. These are simple double- pen buildings with central chimneys and full- width shed- roofed additions at the rear in the manner of New England “saltbox” houses. Many of these residences and Roswell’s original street plan are still extant today.

In the 1840s, the Roswell Manufacturing Company developed new industrial operations, including a large sawmill along Big Creek in 1843. The company also expanded Wofford’s Mill, about a mile northeast of the main factory at the small community of

76. Henry Merrell, “Copy of Description of Roswell Factory drawn up Feb. 1840 with a view to get Insurance.” Prof. James Skinner files, Presbyterian College; Bulloch Hall Library, Roswell, Georgia.

77. 1840 Census of Georgia, Schedule of Mines, Agriculture, Commerce, and Manufacturing (Georgia Archives #331/30-31), Cobb County.

the Roswell Manufacturing Company in 1845 to take a job with the Athens Manufacturing Company in Athens, Georgia, which suggests that the woolen factory was open in 1844. Oddly, however, the woolen factory is not mentioned in George White’s description of the complex in his 1849 Statistics of the State of Georgia. In fact, the company’s minutes do not make any reference to the woolen production figures from the mill between 1843 and 1855 although cotton textile production figures are regularly listed. The “wool factory” listed among the company’s holdings was listed only in passing in the 1852 minutes. Thus, this first woolen factory appears to have been a relatively minor part, an experiment perhaps, of the Roswell Manufacturing Company, with marginal impact on the finances and operation of the mill.

By 1854 the complex on Big Creek had grown considerably, with the addition of a second cotton mill (believed to have been built in 1853) upstream from the 1830s mill as well as a new dam. This new dam, which remains in existence today, is thought to have submerged a mill dam that was constructed a short distance upstream from the original dam in 1848. George White described this second mill:

The new factory is built of brick, with a rock foundation; 143 feet by 53; four stories; overshot iron wheel, 16 feet face 20 feet diameter; contains 5,184 Danforth cap spindles; 32 thirty-six inch cards; and 120 looms, making 2,575 pounds per day No. 20 yarn; number of hands, 250; after the present year 300 will be required.

The second cotton mill roughly tripled the company’s 1849 capacity. To further increase production,

79. George White, Statistics of the State of Georgia: including an account of its natural, civil, and ecclesiastical history; together with a particular description of each county, notices of the manners and customs of its aboriginal tribes, and a correct map of the State (Savannah: W. T. Williams, 1849; Spartanburg, SC, Reprint Co., 1972), 190.
80. Ibid.
81. Temple, 115.
the original factory was expanded with a two-story wing, thereby increasing its capacity alone by one-third. A machine shop, completed in 1853, was added on the headrace to the original mill, and a picker building was constructed north of the second cotton mill. A warehouse near the top of the hill stored bales of cotton that could be fed down a chute to the picker building, where the bales were picked apart and processed for the cotton factories.

Ivy Mill: White’s 1854 description of the Roswell Manufacturing Company mentions the woolen factory with no mention of capacity or products. The company minutes in 1855 indicate that a committee was formed to evaluate the value of the machinery, which was later sold to James R. King, son of Barrington King, for $711.54 on April 20, 1857. Earlier, in 1854, James King purchased property in Land Lots 456 and 457 on the west bank of Big Creek where it joins the Chattahoochee River. The deed stated that, if King built a dam, the water should not pool above the boundary of Land Lot 416 upstream where the Roswell Manufacturing Company’s mill was located. James King, in partnership with his brother Thomas, is thought to have built the new mill, known as Ivy Mill, in 1856 and utilized the equipment purchased from the Roswell Manufacturing Company.

The new woolen factory produced kerseys (a light woolen cloth) and cassimeres (heavy woolen cloth for suits and coats). The 1860 Census indicates only one woolen mill in Cobb County, presumed to be Ivy Mill. At that time the operation had an invested

89. George White, *Historical collections of Georgia: containing the most interesting facts, traditions, biographical sketches, anecdotes, etc. relating to its history and antiquities, from its first settlement to the present time* (New York: Pudney & Russell, 1854; reprint, Baltimore: Genealogical Publishing Co., 1969), 402.

90. Ibid. “The building is in the process of enlargement, and is expected that in an early period there will be an added eight-frames, 1,152 spindles, which will make 650 pound No. 16 yarn; also, machinery for cotton rope; 400 lbs. per day.”

91. Ibid.

capital of $20,000 and products valued at $81,600. The mill employed 14 females and 13 males.\footnote{Ibid., 13.}

Though tied to the King family, Ivy Mill was not part of the Roswell Manufacturing Company.

A two-story brick house, now known as Allenbrook, was built high on the west bank of Big Creek a mile south of the Roswell factory site and just up the hill from Ivy Mill. The house was long thought to have been built as a residence and office for the Roswell mill manager, Henry Merrell. More recent analysis of historical documentation suggests that the house was built between 1851 and 1856 when Barrington King’s son James Roswell King established Ivy Mill, and was probably James King’s residence while he was superintendent of the mills.\footnote{Hartrampf, Inc., and OJP/Architect, Inc. Historic Structure Report: Allenbrook, Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area, Roswell, Fulton County, Georgia. (NPS, 2004). p. 20.}

**Sope Creek Distillery:** Approximately six miles downstream from Roswell, a large stream called Sope Creek falls quickly through a small gorge perpendicular to the river’s western bank. The stream name has long been a source of debate, and while it was sometimes called Soap Creek, the creek has been generally known as Sope Creek.\footnote{The creek has carried two traditional names with similar pronunciation but different spellings. The current and accepted spelling is associated with a Cherokee man known as “Old Sope” who lived in the watershed. Another lesser and unsubstantiated tradition implies that a natural pumice source in the watershed led to the name “Soap Creek.” Research indicates that the most common and oldest spelling is Sope Creek, shifting briefly to Soap in many records, and then mostly readapted to Sope. Both spellings, however, are found throughout the written record. The NPS formally recognizes the site as Sope Creek.}

As noted above, the creek’s flow is substantial (3,720 cubic feet per minute in 1900\footnote{Nesbit, 138-50.}), and the steep terrain creates a long continuous cascade of rapids and shoals for most of the stream’s last two miles approaching the river. However, the creek banks are steep, with few locations that are suitable for building; and although it had great potential for water power, Sope Creek was not developed for industry until the 1850s. Jefferson Howard Land, born in 1843 near Sope Creek, and whose recollections were recounted by his wife, remembered an early distillery at Sope Creek known for its peach brandy. A legitimate establishment, the distillery is thought to have been on the western bank of the creek upstream from the current location of Paper Mill Road bridge.\footnote{Everett E. Bronski, Jr., “Archeological Survey of Cobb-Fulton Counties: Sope Creek Manufacturing Complex” (Atlanta: Georgia Institute of Technology, 1978), 7.}

Land’s wife recalled:

> They used to make some of the best peach brandy out of Sope Creek that anyone ever wanted to taste. When Mr. Land was a young boy his father lived a mile from the mills on the hill toward Marietta. He used to tell about putting the sack of peaches across the saddle bow to carry them to the still to be made into brandy. That was when people had plenty of good peaches and everybody had brandy at home.\footnote{Ibid., 8, citing Ashton Chapman, “Making Paper on Soap Creek,” The Atlanta Journal (May 28, 1933), 10.}

**Denmead’s Mill:** In the late 1840s, the first substantial water-powered mill was developed along Sope Creek when Edward Denmead, a Maryland-born farmer and contractor, built a large flour mill near the site of the old distillery. Called Denmead’s Mill, it was described by White in 1849:

> Denmead’s Mill, situated on Soap Creek, is 6 1/2 miles from Marietta. The main building is three stories high – 40 by 50 feet. It has four runs of [mill] stones, capable of turning out 125 barrels of flour per day. Capitol, $15,000. The flour is of excellent quality.\footnote{White, Historical Collections of Georgia, 401.}

The mill was destroyed in 1864 and not rebuilt, but Denmead appears in the 1870 Federal census in Marietta, with his occupation listed as “railroad contractor.” The site of the flour mill is upstream from the Paper Mill Road bridge on the east bank, but all that remains are scattered foundation ruins and the notable trace of the mill road along the bank. The mill dam site is not known although it may have been located where a small hydroelectric facility was constructed in the early 20th century.

**Marietta Paper Company:** In the mid-1850s, a group of local investors began the development of a paper mill at Sope Creek, about a mile upstream of the confluence with the Chattahoochee River. By the time the Marietta Paper Company was formally incorporated on December 19, 1859, the mill had probably been in operation for several years. The original stockholders in the company were Isaac Sewell, Napoleon Greene, John R. Winters, William...
Phillips, Andrew Edmonson, Moses B. Whitmore, Thomas Waterman, and James Bird. Bird, an Englishmen who had lived in the north before settling in frontier Cobb County, is thought to have brought the experience and skills necessary to build and operate the mill. Much of what is known about the mill is derived from interviews with the widow of Jefferson Land, whom Bird tutored and gave the opportunity to learn the mechanics of the paper industry. Land’s wife recalled:

My husband served his apprenticeship of seven years under Bird at the paper mills at Sope Creek...he went in at 12 years (c. 1854) of age under Jim Bird, an Englishman. Mr. Bird taught Jeff arithmetic and writing in addition to the paper business, and after the first year began paying him a salary of $4 a week.101

Born about 1842, Land would have begun his apprenticeship about 1854, which was probably around the time that construction of the mill began. Land must have learned his trade well, for at the outbreak of the Civil War in 1861, at the age of 19, he was entrusted to operate a paper mill near Columbus, Georgia. The mill on Sope Creek likely began as a venture among Bird, Scholfield, Edmundson, and Bostick Session (operator of the above-mentioned distillery), before they were joined by John Winter. The Marietta Paper Company was incorporated in 1859.102

The paper mill at Sope Creek was built on the east bank on one of the few locations along the creek that were relatively level. The main mill building was divided into five rooms of unequal size. This mill was known as a “rag mill” because, typical of the period, the paper was made from old cotton and linen rags. The five rooms in the building contained the majority of the paper-making process, from sorting rags to production of the final product. A small, detached storage building was also present on the site. A dam stood upstream from the mill site and water was conveyed to the mill via an elevated flume. Hot water and steam used in the process were provided by a boiler in a nearby structure east of the south end of the mill.

Although the exact process used at the mill at Sope Creek is not known, Cobb County historian Sarah Temple notes that the five rooms were arranged north to south as consecutive steps in the process: a sorting room, two rag-cutting rooms, a washing room, and finally, the paper-making room. The building was long and narrow, measuring approximately 210 feet by 45 feet, with heavy load-bearing walls separating each section, probably to retard fire.

Because Sope Creek was a rag mill, it received shipments of old cotton and linen cloth of many types. These were dusted and sorted by kind, color, amount, and type of soiling, etc. The rags then went to the cutting rooms where buttons, clasps, and buckles were removed and the rags cut into small pieces. The small cloth sections were then “cooked” in a caustic solution of lye or soda ash and water to remove dirt and break down any dyes. The heat and caustic solution began the process of rendering the cloth back to its original fibers, the primary component of the final paper product. The cooked rags were then placed into a washing machine, rinsed generously, and periodically subjected to thrashing or agitation to mechanically break down the cloth. The fiber bath was also bleached at this time to provide uniform color to the fiber. Finally, the fiber pulp was taken to the paper-making room and finished into paper. There the water and pulp mixture were passed through a wire mesh screen that caught some of the passing fibers. In repeated cycles, the layers of fibers built up on the screen until they reached the desired thickness. A felt roller lifted the mat of fibers from the screen and fed it through at least one set of rollers to mechanically compress the fiber mat into paper. The damp unfinished paper was placed into a dryer for finishing, then moved into the storage facility.

The above process is typical of the paper-making process in the 19th century but not necessarily the specific process used at Sope Creek. It is clear, however, that Sope Creek provided an excellent site for the production of ledgers for the Army of Virginia and cartridge paper for the “western” Army.

100. Temple, 153.
102. Ibid. The Columbus factory was significant to the war effort for the production of ledgers for the Army of Virginia and cartridge paper for the “western” Army.
103. Bronski, 8.
104. The mill’s operation was probably similar to the process described in R. H. Clapperton’s The Paper-making Machine: Its Invention, Evolution and Development and Edwin Sutermeister’s The Story of Papermaking.
for such an operation, because abundant water was available to power the washing, screening, and rolling processes.
Chapter Two: The River After 1860

Tremendous changes have transformed the river corridor in the last century and a half. From an environment that was essentially rural and agricultural, the study area has been entirely surrounded by suburban development. Unimproved dirt roads, ferries, and wooden covered bridges have been replaced by paved roads, twelve-lane interstate highways, and reinforced-concrete bridges. The free-flowing river has been dammed and controlled from the mountains to the Gulf and become a source of water and hydroelectric power for a metropolitan population that now numbers more than five million. Today, the chain of park units that comprise the Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area has preserved some of the natural beauty and historic resources of the study area and provides outstanding recreational opportunities for the region’s burgeoning population.

The Atlanta Campaign

The Civil War bought direct and violent conflict to the river corridor, especially in the southern portions of the study area. As a major transportation center and an important source of munitions and other supplies for the Confederacy, Atlanta was a prime target in the Union campaign to bring the Confederacy to its knees. During the course of Union Gen. William Tecumseh Sherman’s campaign to take Atlanta, which he commenced in May 1864, what is now the Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area served as camp site, hospital, battlefield, and burial ground for soldiers of both sides.

Union victories at Vicksburg and Gettysburg in July 1863 had given a tremendous boost to morale in the North. These victories, followed by battles at Chickamauga and Chattanooga in the fall of 1863, left Federal forces in control of Chattanooga, Tennessee, and Confederate forces badly weakened and demoralized. With roads turned to mud by winter rains, both sides spent the winter supplying their armies and preparing for renewed fighting in the spring.

In May 1864, General Sherman’s army moved out of Chattanooga, bound for Atlanta, 125 miles to the southeast. Sherman’s objectives were to defeat

Confederate Gen. Joseph E. Johnston’s Army of Tennessee and destroy Confederate war resources in and around Atlanta. \(^2\) Battles at Tunnel Hill, Rocky Face, and Dug Gap near Dalton, Georgia, drove the Confederate army back to Resaca where a two-day battle forced the Confederates to fall back again, leaving Rome, Georgia, occupied by Federal troops. With both armies attempting to outflank the other, fighting was sporadic, but major battles at New Hope Church, Pickett’s Mill, and Dallas between May 25 and 28 resulted in terrible casualties. The intensity and frequency of battles and skirmishes soon filled hospitals in and around Atlanta to overflowing with Confederate casualties. In addition, foul weather slowed the movement of men and machinery, with rain falling almost daily for nearly a month in late May and the first three weeks of June. The roads were quagmires, and soldiers on both sides were wet and muddy for days on end.

Three of the eight main battles around Atlanta were fought in Cobb County within or near the study area, and three prominent mountains in the county (Pine,\(^3\) Lost, and Kennesaw) provided natural defensive positions for Confederate troops as the Union advance continued between June 4 and July 9, 1864.\(^4\) After clashes at Pine and Lost Mountains in western Cobb County in mid-June, Confederate forces withdrew to positions on Kennesaw Mountain, 23 miles northwest of Atlanta, under cover of darkness on June 19. Soaked to the skin, exhausted, and hungry, the Confederate soldiers still managed to quickly improve and expand previously prepared entrenchments and dig a line of rifle pits at the base of the mountain. Other defenses were run in a six-mile arc to the northeast and to the south to cover the railroad and the approach roads to Marietta.\(^5\)

Distinctly visible from 20 miles away, the heights of Kennesaw gave Confederate gunners positions from which they could control traffic on the Western & Atlantic Railroad, which ran near the base of the mountain and was one of the major railroads into Atlanta. As Sherman noted in a telegram to Gen. Ulysses S. Grant, “Kennesaw is the key to the whole country.”\(^6\) He recognized that the Confederates had the upper hand, literally, being positioned on high ground, but both sides were suffering the effects of inclement weather, and any other action was delayed for nearly a week.

On June 26, Sherman attempted to outflank the Confederates again but was driven back at Kolb Farm, and on June 27, the Battle of Kennesaw Mountain commenced under clear skies and a hot sun. The Union and Confederate armies suffered over 4,000 casualties, most of them on the Union side, and Kennesaw Mountain was one of the few clear-cut Confederate victories in the entire Atlanta Campaign. Most military historians have characterized the Federal assault on entrenched Confederate positions “a needless waste of lives.” On July 1, with roads beginning to dry, Sherman started another flanking maneuver, which forced Johnston off the mountain and back to Smyrna and the Chattahoochee River. There he established another defensive line at what is now known as Johnston’s River Line, a series of defensive earthworks that his engineers had already constructed on the western side of the river on a line from the Western & Atlantic Railroad bridge just below Peachtree Creek to Nickajack Creek, over two miles to the south.

Both sides were skilled in constructing sophisticated field fortifications. These commonly included a log revetment roughly 4 feet high behind an earthwork that might be 10 to 12 feet thick at the base tapering to 2 to 3 feet wide at the top. In front of the earthworks, there might be an abatis consisting of sharpened stakes driven into the ground at an angle to slow attacking forces, or tangles of saplings (often bent over from the ground but still rooted), brush, tree branches, and barbed wire.\(^7\) The Confederate commander hoped that, as at Kennesaw, the entrenched Confederate lines could not be breached by assault, and that the attacking army could not afford the kind of casualties suffered at Kennesaw when Union casualties were four times those of the Confederates.\(^8\)

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2. Ibid., 20.
3. Not to be confused with the larger and better known Pine Mountain near Warm Springs in Meriwether County, Georgia.
FIGURE 2. Plate LX, one of several maps of the Atlanta Campaign from Atlas to Accompany the Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies. Some of these are quite detailed and document the several points at which Union forces crossed the Chattahoochee River in July 1864. (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1891-1895)
By July 5, Johnston’s Army of Tennessee had its back to the river and there was “heavy skirmishing along our whole front,” General Sherman recalled. The fighting, he thought, “demonstrated the strength of the enemy’s position, which could alone be turned by crossing the main Chattahoochee River, a rapid and deep stream, only passable at that stage by means of bridges, except at one or two very difficult fords.”9 In later reports, Union generals and engineers offered grudging admiration for the entrenchments built by the Confederates. General Sherman himself noted in his memoirs:

The enemy and ourselves used the same form of rifle-trench, varied according to the nature of the ground, viz.: the trees and bushes were cut away for a hundred yards or more in front, serving as an abatis or entanglement; the parapets varied from four to six feet high, the dirt taken from a ditch outside and from a covered way inside, and this parapet was surmounted by a “head-log,” composed of the trunk of a tree from twelve to twenty inches at the butt, lying along the interior crest of the parapet and resting in notches cut in other trunks which extended back, forming an inclined plane, in case the head-log should be knocked inward by a cannon-shot. The men of both armies became extremely skillful in the construction of these works, because each man realized their value and importance to himself, so that it required no orders for their construction.10

Once again, Sherman set about outflanking Johnston’s Army, ordering General Schofield’s Army of the Ohio to Sope Creek “to effect a lodgement on the east bank” of the river there. Upon arrival, Schofield found the bridge over Sope Creek burned and only with some difficulty established positions on the ridge above the river, taking “every precaution . . . to make a crossing of the river by surprise,” according to Brigadier-General J. D. Cox.11 An “old


fish dam" located about a half mile above Sope Creek was found to offer a foot path across the river, and on July 8, an advance guard crossed the fish dam and established a position on the crest of a hill overlooking Isham's Ford at the mouth of Sope Creek. Troops began crossing by boat while a pontoon bridge was being thrown across the river, which allowed the entire army to cross under cover of darkness that night, “effecting a strong lodgment on high and commanding ground with good roads leading to the east,” according to General Sherman’s report.

Caught by surprise and realizing the Union armies might outflank him, General Johnston had no choice but to abandon his defensive line on the northwest side of the river. On July 9, he withdrew to the southeast side of the river, burning the bridge as he went. It was this retreat that prompted Jefferson Davis to put General John Bell Hood in command of the Confederate forces opposing Sherman.

In the meantime, General Sherman had ordered General Garrard to Roswell to destroy the factories and secure the Shallow Ford. The retreating Confederates had burned the covered bridge on Roswell Road, too, but it was quickly rebuilt, allowing General McPherson’s Army of the Tennessee to cross on July 9. That same day, pontoon bridges were built at Joseph Power’s Ferry, about two miles below the Shallow Ford. Sherman was pleased, noting that:

Thus during the 9th we had secured three good and safe points of passage over the Chattahoochee above the enemy, with good roads leading to Atlanta, and Johnston abandoned his tête- de- pont, burned his bridge, and left us undisputed masters north and west of the Chattahoochee at daylight of the 10th of July.

Over the next few days, most of the Federal forces crossed the river, using the crossings established on July 9 as well as several others. On July 11, a pontoon bridge was built at James Power’s Ferry some two miles south of Sope Creek, and the next day, a bridge was constructed at Pace’s Ferry. Official reports document other important river crossings by Federal forces, including at McAfee’s Bridge near the site of today’s Holcombe Bridge. The most colorful of these reports is surely that of Brigadier-General E. M. McCook, who ordered a detachment across the river at Cochran’s Ford, which was probably in what is now the park’s Cochran Shoals unit. The river was deep at that point, and the soldiers crossed naked, “nothing but guns, cartridge boxes and hats.” McCook reported:

They drove the enemy out of their rifle- pits, captured a non- commissioned officer and 3 men, and the 2 boats on the other side. They would have got more, but the rebels had the advantage in running through the bushes with clothes on. It was certainly one of the funniest sights of the war, and a very successful raid for naked men to make.

It took over a week for Sherman to get his entire army across the river and resupplied, but on July 20, the armies engaged at Peachtree Creek, north of Atlanta. After fierce fighting there, Federal forces swept around the east side of the city, engaging the Confederates at the Battle of Atlanta on July 22. Victory at the Battle of Ezra Church west of the city on July 28 allowed Sherman’s army to lay siege to Atlanta, and throughout the month of August, Union gunners rained artillery shells on the city. On August 31, a climactic battle at Jonesboro south of the city forced the Confederates to withdraw, and

12. Ibid.
13. This river crossing was noted as both Isham’s Ford and as Phillips Ferry in the official records. Later Heard’s Ferry was operated at this location.
15. There were two historic ferries operated by members of the Power family. The best known was operated by James Power and gave its name to modern Power’s Ferry Road. It crossed the river near present-day Interstate 285. The Power’s Ferry used in the initial crossing of Federal forces, was operated by James Power’s brother Joseph Power at a location just below what is now Morgan Falls Dam.
17. Ibid., Vol. XXXVIII, Part II, Reports, p. 761.
on September 2 Mayor James M. Calhoun surrendered Atlanta to Union Brig. Gen. William T. Ward.

The city’s residents were forced to evacuate a week later, and for the next two months Atlanta was a Union military camp. Then on November 14, Sherman gave orders to burn all but “mere dwelling houses and churches” and set out on his infamous “March to the Sea.” Abandoning his supply line to Chattanooga, Sherman determined to live off the land and, vowing to “make Georgia howl,” left a 60-mile-wide path of ruin all the way to Savannah, 250 miles away. Entering that city on December 22, 1864, Sherman telegraphed Lincoln and offered it to him as a Christmas present.

The Damage Is Done

Much was destroyed as the Union army swept through the state, taking what they needed from the surrounding countryside. Throughout the campaign, both armies confiscated livestock and granaries and dismantled fences and buildings to build roads, fortifications, and to kindle thousands of camp fires. The Federals destroyed anything they could not use if it in any way supported the ability of the Confederacy to sustain itself.

The Marietta Paper Company produced writing paper, printing paper, tissue paper, and wrapping paper prior to the Civil War, and it was believed that the mill also provided stock upon which Confederate currency and bonds were printed. Certainly the mills at Roswell supported the Confederate war effort and were legitimate targets for destruction, especially Ivy Mill, which manufactured a woolen cloth called cassimere and known as “Roswell Grey” for making Confederate uniforms. A letter on file with the Roswell Historical Society dated 1863 confirms the mill’s continued role in Confederate wartime production, stating that Ivy Mill was “wholly occupied and on Government work and the mill is run by hands detailed for said purpose.” In the spring of 1864, approximately two weeks before the arrival of Union forces at Roswell, Barrington King left for Savannah with the books for both the Roswell Manufacturing Company and Ivy Mill. He left his son James in charge of both operations with instructions “to run the machinery until driven out by the soldiers.”

As he prepared to cross the Chattahoochee, Sherman dispatched Brig. Gen. Kenner Garrard’s cavalry to destroy the production capacity of the mills along the river, including Roswell Manufacturing Company, Ivy Mill, the mills on Sope Creek, and the New Manchester Manufacturing Company on Sweetwater Creek in Douglas County. On July 5, Garrard’s men burned the Marietta Paper Mill and Denmead’s Mill on Sope Creek and then went on to Roswell where they found the “factories running at full capacity.”

By the time Garrard’s cavalry arrived in Roswell, James King had fled to Savannah, leaving an employee, Theophile Roche, in charge of Ivy Mill. Roche, a French national, hoisted a French flag over the mill, hoping to forestall the mill’s destruction. When General Garrard himself arrived on July 6, however, it took little investigation to see the letters C.S.A. being woven into the cloth. The mill was immediately evacuated and the machinery thrown into the river. The building itself was fired, but it did not burn completely, leaving enough flooring and other material for Union soldiers to rebuild the river bridge that had been burned by the retreating Confederates. That evening Garrard wrote Sherman to inform him of the destruction of the woolen mill and noted that the factory had a “capacity [of] 30,000 yards a month, and has furnished up to within a few weeks 15,000 yards per month to the rebel Government.”

After destroying Ivy Mill, the Union troops continued their methodical destruction by burning the factories of Roswell Manufacturing Company, a task

18. Braely, Wood, and Price, 15. An Athens, Georgia, publication, the *Southern Watchmen*, noted that the “Oglethorpe Rifles” (Company K, 8th Georgia Infantry) were uniformed in grey cassimere from the Roswell factory.

19. Ibid.

20. Ibid., citing Fulton County Superior Court documents.


22. At this time, Roswell Manufacturing Company and Ivy Mill appear to have been separate business entities. Research indicates that the claim of neutrality was made under the a claim that Ivy Mill was managed by Theophile Roche, a French national, and should not be burned. It is not known whether the same claim was made for the cotton mills at Roswell Manufacturing Company, but it is clear that the cotton factories were not burned until July 7.

completed on the evening of July 7. The destruction of the Roswell cotton mills was well documented by Private Silas P. Stevens, who helped set fire to the mills, although his account better describes the meticulous attention paid to setting the fires than it does in summarizing the overall operation:24

I caused to be placed on each floor, beginning at the top, saturated cotton with oil, in great quantities, and carefully arranged everything ready to fire my building, and waited with my men till the aid [sic] had started his fire, as a matter of courtesy. I did not wait long. I lighted the combustibles which went off in a flash, at the

FIGURE 4. Charles Holyland’s sketch of the Roswell Manufacturing Company ruins, view from the southwest, July 1864. (Courtesy of Roswell Historical Society and the City of Roswell)
upper story first, then each successive floor, from the top to the basement. So that I had an interesting blaze at once, while McCloud [Stevens’ commanding officer] fired his machinery hall, from the basement, or engine room: by this act the factory burned more slowly, yet surely. 25

Stevens explained that he used different methods of setting the fires in order to lessen the danger “to the residents of the place who’s [sic] houses were in the immediate vicinity.” He also noted that at least one other building, the “store house,” was put to the torch. Charles Holyland, another of Garrard’s troopers, also left a valuable document of the destruction of the cotton mills in a sketch captioned “Ruins of the Roswell Manufacturing Co’s Mill on The Chattahoochee River, destroyed under order of the War Department on the night of July 7th 1864.”26 Holyland’s sketch is a bird’s eye view of the main factory complex looking southwest from an elevated wooden flume along Big Creek. Included in the image are the burned-out shells of the 1838 and 1854 factories. The 1838 factory and its ell wing addition and lift tower read clearly in the foreground, with the ruins of the 1854 factory in the background. The wooden flume forms the spine of the sketch as both factories and two other buildings are adjacent to it, and the ruins of the old sawmill, later a woolen mill, are visible on the south side of the flume immediately above the 1838 factory. Just above the sawmill stands a two-story machine shop adjacent to the north side of the flume (as are the 1838 and 1854 factories). The proximity of the structure to the flume suggests that one flume provided water, and thus power, to all of the facilities shown in the sketch. Useless with the factory destroyed, the flume and the machine shop appear not to have been destroyed.

The Union troops rounded up the mills’ employees, including Theophile Roche, and shipped them by train to Chattanooga and from there to Ohio where they spent the duration of the war. Although their removal has been blamed on Sherman’s wrath at the bogus claim of neutrality, it appears that a more general policy of removal was in order because other mills’ employees were also transported to the Midwest. The Confederate press made much of the vanished “Roswell women,” but Barrington King wrote his son in 1865 that most of the mill workers had returned. 27

Reconstruction and a New South

At war’s end, exhausted Southerners slowly set about reconstructing their lives and rebuilding homes, stores, and factories. Although there was not the wanton destruction of property in the study area that became legend in the countryside between Atlanta and Savannah, farms and plantations were in shambles and the industries along the river and its tributaries were disabled or destroyed. Reconstruction was slow, but at the same time, the rapid growth of Atlanta after the Civil War was a boon to the surrounding area, supporting property values and providing a ready outlet for farm products throughout much of the study area.

Agriculture

After the war, the value of the state’s agricultural economy was reduced by 80 percent, although half of the loss was in the value of freed slaves. Across the state, the value of agricultural land plummeted between 50 percent and 90 percent. Only in Fulton and DeKalb counties did property maintain a semblance of its pre-war value as Atlanta’s explosive growth did much to sustain the region’s economy. 28

26. Michael Hitt, Charged With Treason (Monroe, N.Y.: Liberty Research Associates, Inc., 1992); and Darlene M.Walsh, Ed. Roswell Pictorial History (Roswell, GA: Roswell Historical Society, Inc., 1985; reprint 1994). The title caption continues, “During the rebellion it was under the control and worked by the Confederate government being one of the most extensive in the South. Situated in the village of Roswell, Cobb Co., Geo. – 9 miles South East of Marietta and 20 miles North West of Atlanta on the Chattahoochee River and is known under the firm Roswell King & Co. It was destroyed when the cavalry on the Extreme left of the Army attempted the crossing of the river. It employed nearly 700 operatives.”
27. Braely, Wood, and Price, 16
The 1870 census illustrates an agricultural economy clearly in depression as, across the state, production showed significant decline from 1860. Cattle and swine production fell over 40 percent, corn and rye production dropped by more than a third, and rice production disappeared altogether. Cash crops suffered as well. Tobacco production virtually collapsed and cotton production in the study area fell as much as 40 percent between 1860 and 1870. While the cotton economy of the upper Piedmont was not as devastated as other regions that were more dependent on slave labor, the loss of infrastructure, men, mules, and other livestock, as well as the vagaries of Reconstruction, severely affected the area’s economy. At the same time, the 1870 census was the first to show a greater population density per square mile in the upper Piedmont than in the lower Piedmont, much of that attributable to the growth of Atlanta.

**Labor Relations.** The war severely disrupted the Southern labor force in two ways. First, farmers and overseers joined the Confederate army, leaving dangerously few people in many places to work the land or manage the large slave population. At war’s end, one-third of Georgia’s 40,000 soldiers were dead or missing and many of those fortunate enough to return home were maimed or crippled, all of which had a profound effect on agricultural production.

In addition, the demise of slavery precipitated a labor crisis in the South’s agricultural economy. Within five years of the war’s end, however, new methods of organizing—some would say exploiting—labor were taking shape. Immediately after the war, planters hired work gangs at a fixed amount per head, but this proved an unreliable and unproductive model. Different rental and crop-sharing agreements with various levels of landowner control evolved into two predominant labor management systems—sharecropping and tenant farming.

Sharecropping allowed a farmer to cultivate an area of land (generally around 35 acres). In exchange, the landowner provided a dwelling, draft animals, and seed, and gave the sharecropper a specified portion or “share” of the crop. Tenant farming differed in that the farmer provided his own seed, draft animals, and fertilizer (often bought on credit at exorbitant interest rates) and paid the landowner rent and/or a percentage of the crop for use of the land and a dwelling. Though both systems could degenerate into peonage, laborers generally preferred tenancy because it at least provided a degree of independence. Planters, on the other hand, often preferred sharecropping because it provided a much greater degree of control and gave unscrupulous planters more opportunity to exploit workers.

The 1880 census was the first to separately enumerate farmers who owned their own land, sharecroppers, and tenant farmers. It provides a useful comparison of the study area and the rest of the upper Piedmont with the rest of the state. The census figures show that nearly 60 percent of farmers in the study area owned their own farms versus about 55 percent of farmers statewide. Slightly more than 37 percent of farmers in the study area were sharecroppers, most of them white, versus just over 31 percent of farmers statewide. Most significantly, less than 4 percent of the study area’s farmers were tenants, which was less than a third of the statewide average.

**Agricultural Production.** By 1880 the counties in the study area appeared well on the road to economic recovery, and Henry Grady was beginning to espouse his vision of a New South of industry and progressive agriculture. The 1880 census showed that most categories of agricultural production met or exceeded those of 1860, although at least some of that was the result of the explosive growth of Atlanta, the population of which doubled in the 1870s, rising from 49,358 in 1870 to 99,975 in 1880. As Atlanta boomed, Fulton County’s population rose nearly 350 percent during the decade, while the other counties in the study area saw a more moderate population increase of about 50 percent. Unlike many parts of the state where farmers struggled through the 1870s and 1880s, the growth of the city

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and its increasing demand for produce, livestock, poultry, and other farm products that the countryside could provide proved to be a boon to many area farmers.

In the 1880 census, corn and wheat remained important agricultural staples, and Gwinnett and Cobb were among the three top counties in the state in corn production, with production of 74,795 and 80,617 bushels respectively.33 In wheat production, Gwinnett and Cobb were among the top five counties in the state, producing 877,139 of the study area’s 1,347,379 bushels. In a continuation of a trend noted as early as 1860, it appears that the production of these crops was necessary to meet local demands, and that Cobb and Gwinnett Counties were becoming the breadbasket for Atlanta. Cotton remained king of cash crops, however, and estimated cotton production more than doubled in the study area between 1860 and 1880.34

In addition, commercial fertilizers came into widespread use following the war, “extending the cotton line fifty- miles to the north.”35 Overall, commercial fertilizers are credited with increasing the amount of improved land in Georgia and promoting an intensification of cotton agriculture in the upper Piedmont. The increase in cotton production meant very little, however, as prices remained stagnant. Between 1860 and 1900, the state’s population doubled to approximately two million people, but in the same period, the aggregate value of the state’s farm land plus farm buildings, machinery, and equipment remained virtually unchanged, with the 1900 figure of $228 million36 barely exceeding the 1860 value. The state and much of the rest of the agricultural South remained in a serious depression through the turn of the century, what some have termed “the Long Depression.” Although cotton production soared, prices plummeted due to overproduction, and the crop lien system, railroads, futures brokerage, and property taxes all became serious drains on agricultural revenues.

In the last quarter of the 19th century, The Grange and its successor the Farmers’ Alliance were dedicated to organizing farmers and promoting collective action in an ill- fated attempt to forge a cohesive political force. Members were encouraged to restrict their political support to candidates who supported their goals, regardless of party affiliation, but too often politicians campaigned for election on agrarian sentiment only to oppose the Alliance in its push for reform legislation. In the end, the Alliance was no match for commodities brokers, bankers, and railroads that boycotted the Alliance farmers and ultimately broke the back of the movement.

Farmers still managed to win some minor battles. Price fixing by the jute manufacturers for the bagging used almost universally for baling cotton prompted the Alliance to launch a successful boycott by promoting the use of newly developed cotton bagging instead of jute. Alliance co-ops developed to provide fair loans, supplies, ginning, storage, and brokerage, but in the final assessment, they could only limit, not prevent, the dominance of industry, banking, and the railroads over agriculture. Land values fell, debts grew insurmountable, and more and more farmers slipped into tenancy and sharecropping as cotton prices remained low. In spite of Henry Grady’s vision of a New South, an industrial South built on the North’s model, Georgia remained largely an agricultural state, economically depressed, and arguably little more than a colony of business and banking interests in the North.

The 1890 census records illustrate most clearly the effect of the ongoing depression in the study area. In spite of the gains made by 1880, the 1890 census documents a reduction in production in almost every agricultural category. Corn production fell 10 percent, hog production more than 36 percent, tobacco 50 percent, and wheat production nearly 60 percent. Even cotton production dropped, falling from 36,721 bales in 1880 to 33,831 in 1890. Although the depression of agricultural production was widespread, Cobb and Gwinnett Counties remained among the top producers in the state for corn,

34. In the 1880 census, the average weight of bales was presented relative to the amount of seed cotton versus lint cotton in each bale (the average ratio of seed cotton versus lint cotton for each county was also provided). In previous censuses, only the total number of bales was reported. Since lint cotton is the more reliable valuation standard, for comparison the author applied the ratios for each county to the total bales reported in 1860 to estimate the amount of lint cotton produced.
wheat, oats, as well as chickens, eggs, and honey. Additionally, Fulton, Cobb, and Gwinnett Counties were among the top 15 percent of the state’s counties in dairy products. 38 Again, all of those farm products were of immediate value in Atlanta, but Cobb and Gwinnett also returned significant cotton crops, producing 10,631 and 11,301 bales respectively.

Ten years later, the 1900 census39 shows production to have picked up again although it likely got worse before it got better, with market crashes occurring twice in the 1890s. Corn and cotton recovered and slightly exceeded their 1880 levels. Wheat recovered to a little less than half of its 1880 level. Most livestock statistics are unreliable because of new counting methods, which for the first time often excluded young animals. Only swine continued to be counted the same and their numbers fell significantly from 34,278 to 24,249 head. Poultry production appears to have fallen off sharply, too, but birds younger than three months were excluded from the count. Gwinnett and Cobb remained among the top producers in the state for oats, wheat, and poultry. The important lesson of the 1900 census is that it shows significant increases over 1860 only in the production of cotton and, to a much lesser extent, corn and sweet potatoes. In short, the agricultural economy stood virtually still for 40 years.

The average farm in the area was white owned and operated as it had been before the war, and many had one or more sharecroppers or tenants. Many sharecroppers and tenants in the upper Piedmont were landless blacks but even more were poor whites. The area’s farmers diversified well ahead of the rest of the state, with counties in the study area frequently among the state’s top producers of corn, wheat, oats, chicken, eggs, and dairy, while still producing a respectable cotton crop. In 1900, the population of the Atlanta metropolitan area reached 419,375,40 providing an excellent local market and explaining the high production of food staples in the study area. Although proximity to Atlanta would later prove to be a double-edged sword for the study area, prior to World War I, it facilitated agricultural diversification and provided the local economy a degree of insulation from the vagaries of the cotton market.

### Transportation

After the Civil War, transportation still depended on the old network of roads, bridges, and ferries. Traditional, covered, wood-truss bridges continued to be built, including the one that was rebuilt at Roswell Road in 1864. But wooden bridges rotted, burned, required frequent repairs, and generally had a relatively short useful life. As the price of steel dropped in the 1870s, many wooden bridges were soon supplanted by durable steel-truss bridges. By the 1890s, steel-truss designs had almost entirely replaced wood in the bridge-building industry. It is not clear when the first steel-truss bridge was constructed across the Chattahoochee River, but it may have been Settles Bridge, the oldest river bridge in the study area today. Built around 1880, it has long been closed to traffic.

The study area benefited from the presence of the Western and Atlantic Railroad, which was one of the first lines brought back into full operation after the Civil War. The W&A crossed the river near Peach-
tree Creek just south of the study area, and “whistle stops” in Cobb County gradually gave rise to communities at Vinings and Smyrna in the late 19th century.

No other major railroad came near the study area. The promise of a spur line to Roswell was never fully realized, although the Roswell Railroad Company was incorporated in 1879 under the control of the Atlanta and Charlotte Air-Line Railroad. Construction began on a spur line that left the main line on Peachtree Road near Oglethorpe University and ran for about ten miles in a northerly direction. Following what are now Roberts Drive and Northridge Road to Dunwoody Place where there was a depot, the railroad terminated at the Roswell Depot at what is now the North River Shopping Center on Roswell Road, less than a half mile from the river. The expense of a river bridge and the steep grade up to Roswell kept the railroad from being completed into the town itself, even after it was acquired by Southern Railroad Company in 1900.

In 1902 the 2.7-mile-long Bull Sluice or Morgan Falls Railroad was completed from the Roswell Railroad’s Dunwoody Station to the power plant then under construction at the falls. President Theodore Roosevelt used the Roswell Railroad to reach Roswell when he visited his mother’s birthplace, Bulloch Hall, in 1905, but the line was never profitable. Service was discontinued in 1921, and some of the only evidence of its existence today is a stone retaining wall and unfinished railroad grade behind Allenbrook.41

Industry

By the last quarter of the 19th century, technological advances, especially in steam-driven turbines, were making possible larger, more efficient, and far more powerful mills. At the same time, the nation’s rapidly expanding network of railroads made it possible to ship products cheaply and quickly all over the country. As a result, cheap flour from giant mills in the Midwest flooded the market, driving down prices such that smaller mills, including Edward Denmead’s flour mill on Sope Creek, could not compete. A few small water-powered grist mills continued to produce corn meal and grits, but most mills were either retrofitted with steam or, later, electricity.

Atlanta’s International Cotton Exhibition in 1881 is credited by some with having spurred a boom in the construction of textile mills in the South, and within three years, Georgia led the nation in textile production. So many mills were put into operation in the Piedmont of Georgia, South Carolina, and North Carolina in the 1890s and early 1900s that the three states soon formed the center of the nation’s

textile industry. Proximity to a railroad and abundant water were prerequisites for the large mills typical of the period.

No new mill sites were developed in the study area in the last quarter of the 19th century, primarily because the study area had plenty of water but it lacked rail service. Construction of the Roswell Railroad did not extend north of the river, and the only other railroad near the study area was the Western & Atlantic Railroad, which crossed the river just beyond the southern end of the study area. There, in 1895, northern capitalists built Whittier Mill, one of the area’s largest textile mills, land adjacent to the Chattahoochee Brick Company.

Roswell Manufacturing Company. In the spring of 1865, Barrington King returned to Roswell, and “astonished” that there had been so little damage to his and other homes in Roswell, he immediately turned his attention to his ruined mills. In June 1865, he was able to report to the board of directors that the foundation of the 1854 mill was in sound condition for reconstruction and that there was enough cotton “on hand to fill one mill with machinery and put in motion without calling the stockholders for one dollar.”

As the economic depression that began in 1873 lifted, the directors of the Roswell Manufacturing Company began to upgrade and expand the mills. In 1883, they built a new cotton factory, millrace, offices, and two warehouses. The new mill was two stories high, built of wood, and measured 152 feet by 77 feet with a one-story office measuring 47 feet by 31 feet at one side. A three-room central office and two warehouses were also built above the mill site along what is today called Mill Street. The flume was extended past the existing factory and another 150 feet past the machine shop to a point believed to be near the foundation of the original 1838 factory. A new overshot waterwheel approximately 15 feet wide and 20 feet in diameter was installed at the end of the flume, and power was conveyed up the hill to the new factory via a cable loop.

Droughts, spring freshets, and freezes continued to affect the flow of water in the creek, however, causing a constant slowdown in mill operations. A low dam was constructed upstream from the mill near the mouth of Oxbow Creek in 1895, and the addition of supplemental steam power two years later, fueled by 2 1/2 cords of wood a day, allowed the mill to be independent of fluctuating water levels.

In 1885, the Sanborn Fire Insurance Company mapped the buildings of the Roswell Manufacturing Company and Laurel Mills Manufacturing Company. These highly accurate maps document building footprints, construction materials, and other information useful in writing fire insurance policies and provide one of the most detailed views of the two mill complexes on Big Creek in the 19th century. The map of the Roswell Manufacturing Company labels the rebuilt 1854 Mill as Mill No. 1 and the 1883 factory as Mill No. 2. Mill No. 1 was described as containing weaving, finishing, carding, and spinning functions on floors one through four respectively.

On the hill above Mill No. 1 was a building marked “Cotton Bale Storage,” and between the two was a small building labeled “ladder room.” A few feet west (downstream) of the main mill building was the dye house with a nearby boiler, small pump house, and water tower, all presumably used for dyeing, heat, and fire protection. A wooden flume conveyed water to the waterwheel assembly at the

43. Ibid., 10.
east end of the main factory. Following the south wall of the factory, the flume continued almost due west past the dye house and then approximately 700 feet downstream past the machine shop and on to the wheel house for Mill No. 2. Mill No. 1 was described as being waterpowered, with steam heat (wood-fueled boilers) and lard-oil lights.

The Sanborn map shows Mill No. 2 as a yarn-spinning mill with a small boiler to the west and drying shed to the east. As described above, the wheel house was on the creek at the base of the hill and conveyed power to the uphill factory via a "wire belt." Here the wooden flume terminated at the wheel house and discharged water through a tailrace. The wheel house also served as the fire pump for Mill No. 2, providing water through a 3-inch pipe. Mill No. 2 used steam heat and water power like Mill No. 1, but lighting was provided by kerosene rather than lard oil. In between Mill No. 1 (400 feet to the east) and Mill No. 2 (300 feet to the west), the machine shop was also next to the iron flume and utilized an exposed wheel for power. Two storage sheds flanked the machine shop to the east and west, and the superintendent's office stood on the hill just above the machine shop.

**Laurel Mills Manufacturing Company.** After being destroyed in 1864, Ivy Mill at the mouth of Big Creek was reborn as Laurel Mills around 1871, when the old mill dam was rebuilt and another mill building was constructed adjacent to the ruined foundations of Ivy Mill. Laurel Mills Manufacturing Company, which operated a mill at Lebanon upstream from Big Creek, applied for incorporation in 1873, and a charter was granted in 1877. Barrington King's son James, part owner of the original Ivy Mill with his brother Thomas, acquired his deceased brother Thomas's remaining interest in the mill in 1874 and appears to have been one of the principal shareholders in the venture. Like its predecessor Ivy Mill, Laurel Mills was also loosely tied to but a separate entity from the Roswell Manufacturing Company.

The 1880 Census supplement on water power provides the best known description of the Laurel Mills complex at the close of the 1870s:

The lowest mill belongs to the Laurel Mills Manufacturing Company. . . running 2 set of cards of woolen goods, jeans, tweeds, and linseys. Water is brought several hundred feet in a canal and wooden flume to the factory, furnishing power on the way to a small flouring mill. At the woolen factory a 60 horse-power wheel is used, with a fall of 19 feet. No trouble is experienced from low or back water. This privilege was formerly improved by a framed dam, but in 1871 this was in a manner replaced, at an expense of $5,000, by one of dry stone, cemented, however, on the face. The stone is laid in and upon the old dam without removing that structure. The new dam is 200 feet long and 18 feet high, with a width of 26 feet at the base. During the heavy March [1881] freshet already mentioned, water worked around one abutment and carried it and the bulkhead away though the main portion of the dam was not injured.

The 1881 flood that damaged the Laurel Mills dam also damaged the upstream dam (or dams) of the Roswell Manufacturing Company, but did not stop production.

The 1885 Sanborn maps showed the Laurel Mills woolen mill south of, and adjacent to, the foundation of the Ivy Mill building destroyed in 1864. A millrace and wooden flume conveyed water around the west end of the new mill to a wheel house, after which the water was discharged via a tailrace directly into the Chattahoochee River, fewer than 100 feet to the southwest. The three-story woolen mill utilized the first floor for picking and carding and the second floor for shearing, while the third floor housed the spinning "mules" or looms. A small store and warehouse stood along the wagon road northwest of the main mill fewer than 200 feet away. North of the main mill was a dye house with a drying shed, boiler, and cistern. Laurel Mills was powered exclusively with water but heated with steam and illuminated with kerosene lamps.

In 1886, the company upgraded machinery and to gain the power that the new machinery required, a new waterwheel was installed. A new dam was also

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47. State of Georgia 1877: 207-8 (Laurel Mill Articles of Incorporation).


constructed a considerable distance upstream from the original dam, which increased the flow or “head” in the millrace during peak production periods.

**Marietta Paper Company.** After the Civil War, the board of directors of the Marietta Paper Company set about reconstructing their paper mill on Sope Creek. Jefferson Land returned to the Marietta vicinity after service in the Confederate army, and although he originally found employment at another paper mill, he is believed to have participated in the reconstruction of the mill at Sope Creek. The mill is known to have been back in operation in September 1868 when *The Marietta Journal* printed the following announcement regarding the Marietta Paper Company:

> Not only will they pay off indebtedness and rescue the Mill from the pressure caused by the disasters of the war, but make this enterprise one of the most important interests in which our whole section is interested – as a branch of productive industry. The paper now being made on a large scale and shown to us by Mr. Faw is unquestionably equal to the best news paper manufactured and is sold at comparably low prices.

Then, just as the paper mill was getting back to full capacity, a fire destroyed part of the mill on the morning of November 7, 1870. *The Marietta Journal* reported on November 11, 1870:

> The Marietta Paper Mill was partially destroyed by fire on last Monday morning. One of the employees went into the front building, where was stored raw material, and in an endeavor to draw some oil, the lighted candle he had with him by some means came in contact with the oil and instantly caught fire, the flames spreading with such rapidity throughout the building that he barely made his escape from the burning interior. Only the front building was burned – the lower building with most of the machinery, was but slightly damaged.

The report is not clear about which structure was burned, although it appears to have been the free-standing storehouse on the small road that bisected the complex opposite the north end of the mill. If so, the damage caused by the fire might not have been catastrophic, but it is not known whether the fire was serious enough to slow or stop production. In any case, the mill was producing paper and advertising for clients just four months later in March 1871.

Still, the mill struggled financially, and when a financial panic in 1873 precipitated a major depression, the debt of rebuilding following the war and the fire sent the company into bankruptcy. On November 4, 1873, the mill complex was sold at public auction to James R. Brown of Cherokee County and, the following year, was reorganized as the Marietta Paper Manufacturing Company. Stockholders included Georgia’s war-time governor Joseph E. Brown, H.M. Hammett, A.S. Edmondston, Saxon A. Anderson, Enoch Faw, C.D. Phillips, and James R. Brown. In 1880 the mill was capitalized at $25,000 and annual production was valued at $25,500.51

The Marietta Paper Manufacturing Company prospered thanks to two innovations by Jefferson Land. The first was to develop a more reliable and inexpensive source of pulp. Paper mills at the time generally used rags or hardwood trees and not pine for pulp. Although pine trees were more abundant than hardwoods, the high levels of resin in pine wood lowered paper quality, often causing odor and discoloration. Recognizing the rich potential in the abundant slash pines in the area, Land began investigating ways to remove resinous residues from pine pulp.52

Little is known of the particulars of the process Land developed, but by 1886, the company was moving forward with construction of a second mill on the west bank of Sope Creek just downstream from the bridge. This second mill, called both the “wood pulp mill” and “Mill No. 2,” was a two-story structure built using stone from the site. Set above a

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50. Chapman, 2.
51. Department of the Interior, Census Office, *Report on the Manufactures of the United States at the Tenth Census (June 1, 1880)*, Vol. 2 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1883, 208. The Sope Creek mill was the only known mill in the county and the census record lists but one site in Cobb – this is presumed to be the Marietta Paper Company.
52. Whatever the particulars of Land’s process for removing resin from pulp, it was overshadowed by the process developed by Charles Herty some fifty years later. See article on Herty in J. McKeen and J. Cattell, *American Men of Science: A Bibliographical Directory* (New York, Science Press, 1938), 640.
By 1888 the Marietta Paper Manufacturing Company was producing the South’s first twine made of paper manufactured from pine pulp, which was the second of Land’s great contributions to the company. As the local paper reported:

One of the new industries in Cobb County is the manufacture of paper twine. Mr. S.A. Anderson has put in machinery at his paper mill for this purpose and is now turning out a good article of twine. The twine is put in balls and will no doubt find a ready sale.53

In developing this product, Land apparently visited a twine-making operation in Holyoke, Massachusetts, but was denied access to the factory. Land’s widow recalled in 1933:

On one occasion he went to Holyoke, Massachusetts, to learn how paper twine was made, but the manufacturers guarded their secret so closely that he was denied admittance to the factory. He wasn’t discouraged, though. He came home, started experimenting, and it wasn’t long before he had built a machine that would turn out as good paper twine twisted just as well as any on the market.54

She later elaborated on Land’s invention, providing insight into the process:

I wish you could have seen the contraption Jefferson got together. Literally out of nothing. You see, the pine paper had to be cut into narrow strips which were twisted uniformly while they were still wet. And if you think it’s easy to make a machine that will do that, why just try it! Jefferson couldn’t find any tubing small enough for his purpose until he went to the drug store in Marietta, and bought the smallest glass tubing they had in the place. He got together some big tin cans in which the paper could be coiled. The strips passed up through the drug store glass tubing to a thing that finished twisting the paper.55

There is little doubt that Land contributed to the company’s prosperity, but as the 19th century drew to a close, more efficient competitors and the mill’s remote location far from a railroad were reducing profits. Moreover, waterpower was by then being supplanted by steam engines and electricity, making it easier to place manufacturing near existing transportation and population centers. In 1894, Saxon Anderson, who still owned an interest in the Marietta Paper Manufacturing Company, purchased the Kennesaw Flouring Mills in Marietta, converted it to a paper mill, and began operations there on March 1, 1885. The original plan was to keep both mills in operation, but a fire at the main mill at Sope Creek led to its final closure in 1902. Following the mill’s closure, the site sat abandoned and deteriorating. The road remained open and the nearby covered bridge was maintained. The natural beauty,

54. Chapman, 3.
the scenic mill ruins, and the covered bridge now made it a popular picnic site. Industrial operation ceased on Sope Creek, although a small hydroelectric facility was placed upstream from the old paper mill in the 1920s, well beyond the boundary of the future recreation area.

**Akers Mill/Banner Mills.** The southernmost industrial site in the study area is on Rottenwood Creek in the Palisades Unit, just southeast of the interchange of Interstate 75 and Interstate 285. In recent years, construction of an interchange between I-75 and Akers Mill Road included an access road along the south bank of Rottenwood Creek very near the mill ruins, which sit at the base of a low bluff amid rugged terrain. Today, the creek’s value as an industrial site is difficult to appreciate, given its sluggish flow between the site and the river. Above the site, however, and evident on a topographic map, the creek falls through a characteristic kink in the stream valley which made this site more typical of a Piedmont mill site than the uncharacteristically steep grade for most of the lower runs of Big and Sope Creeks.

The Akers brothers may have had a grist mill on Rottenwood Creek even before the Civil War; if not, their mill was in operation by the 1870s. In the late 1870s, they built a second mill for flour production just downstream from the grist mill, which only produced corn meal, and renamed the complex Banner Mills. Both mills were wood-framed buildings set on rock piers. In March 1880, when *The Marietta Journal* ran an article titled “A Worthy Enterprise,” the flour mill had recently been redesigned and was considered progressive for the South. The improved design allowed the mill to produce a barrel of flour out of 39 pounds of wheat whereas the older system required 43 pounds. In addition to this sizable increase in efficiency, the new mill also used a series of graduated stones to produce different-sized millings. In addition to producing different grades of flour, multiple stones allowed the stones to stay cool. The older system used uniform stones that ground the grain continually until it was reduced to flour, but the stones would often heat up in the process, “killing” the flour and ruining its taste. *The Marietta Journal* described the new process:

> Our attention was first directed to the operation of cleaning the wheat, a thing which all of our mills of the plan do very imperfectly. The wheat first passes through a rolling machine, is thence carried by the elevators to the top of the building, and let fall a distance of forty feet through a “drop,” in which are arranged, in a spiral zigzag, perforated sheet iron plates, and finally through a decorticating or brush machine. The wheat, now being entirely free from dust and other impurities, is carried to the “French burrs” forty two inch mill-stones, four in number. It is first cracked, or ground into “chop,” which then passes to a set of bolting reels, the work of which is to separate the bran from the middlings. These middlings next pass into a machine called “purifiers” in which the impurities lighter than the farina are removed by means of an air blast. The “purified” middlings pass to a millstone below and are reground, pass through another set of bolting reels and come out as two different grades of flour. Six reels, three purifiers, and two bran dusters do the work of cleaning the flour. “You see,” remarked Mr. Welch, “that by the gradual reduction of the wheat to flour, the effects of [too] great heating are avoided, the flour is not killed in the process of grinding, but is left in the miller’s term the live state.”

Banner Mills, powered by a 36-inch turbine driving an 80-horsepower engine for use when water flow was inadequate, was reportedly able to produce 200 barrels of wheat and 1,500 bushels of cornmeal per day. The article also mentions that the surrounding “hills, which were only a few years ago the hiding place of wild game of the woods, are now adorned with rich harvests.” Presumably at least some of that harvest would be ground at the mill.

**The City of Atlanta**

The growth of the City of Atlanta after the Civil War was phenomenal. From a population of less than 22,000 in 1870, the city grew to over 37,000 in 1880, which put it among the nation’s 50 largest cities and made it the largest city between Richmond and New Orleans. By 1890, Atlanta’s population was over 65,000, and by 1900 there were nearly 90,000 people within the city limits, with another 27,000 in surrounding Fulton County. While the river corridor would not be significantly affected by suburban...
growth until after World War II, the city began depending on the river for water long before that.

When Atlanta built its first municipal water system in 1875, it drew water from the South River, a tributary of the Ocmulgee River, and stored it in a large reservoir at what became known as Lakewood Park in southeast Atlanta. By the 1890s, it was clear that the city's rapid growth was outstripping this supply of water, and the city turned to the Chattahoochee River. In 1892-1893, the city built a new pumping station and a 55-acre reservoir on the crest of a hill on Howell Mill Road northwest of the city. Intake for the system was in the Chattahoochee River near the mouth of Peachtree Creek.

Until after World War I, Atlanta as well as Gainesville and the other cities around the study area that had sewer systems piped untreated sewage directly into the Chattahoochee River and its tributaries. Large septic tanks, first developed in the 1860s, allowed solids to settle, but the effluvia was left untreated on the widely held belief that running water purified itself. Repeated outbreaks of typhoid and cholera soon disabused people of that notion, but not until 1917 did Atlanta start chlorinating the water it drew from the Chattahoochee River.

The 20th Century

At the dawn of the 20th century, except in the small industrial areas along the lower reaches of Big Creek, Sope Creek, and Rottenwood Creek, the study area remained a mostly rural, agricultural environment characterized by dirt roads, covered bridges, and ferries. On the bluffs and uplands above the river, wood-framed and log farm houses sat amid outbuildings, surrounded by agricultural fields and pastures. Periodic flooding still replenished the fertility of the river bottom, which remained some of the area’s most desirable agricultural land. The river’s capacity to generate hydroelectric power was tapped in the early 20th century by a dam at Morgan Falls, but not until the completion of Buford Dam in 1956 did the risk of flooding in the corridor wane. Occasional use of the river corridor for summer retreats began in the early 20th century, and in the years after World War II, Atlanta’s suburbs began spilling into the study area. By 1960, the river corridor was already beginning to be threatened by residential construction in and along the river’s flood plain in Cobb, Fulton, and Gwinnett Counties.

Transportation in the New Century

Prior to World War I, local travel in the study area was by non-motorized vehicles, horseback, or on foot over the network of unpaved roads that crisscrossed the region. Depending on location, the railroads provided connections to Atlanta and elsewhere, but these were little used in the study area as a whole. After World War I, the nation’s transportation system was transformed by the automobile.

Bridges and Ferries. Wooden bridges continued to be built, but by the early 1900s, steel-truss bridges were replacing fords and ferries at various historic river crossings, and several of these survive in the study area. Among the earliest is the bridge that the Cotton States Bridge Company built at Pace’s Ferry in 1903. A modern concrete bridge was built adjacent to the old bridge in the 1970s, but the Pace’s Ferry bridge remains intact as a pedestrian thoroughfare. Also around 1903, the Austin Brothers of Atlanta built a bridge at Power’s Ferry, and in 1906, the Roanoake (Va.) Bridge Company built an steel-truss bridge at Johnson’s Ferry. Neither of these bridges is extant. Further upstream and crossing between Gwinnett and Fulton Counties, Jones Bridge and Rogers Bridge, like the earlier Settles Bridge, are both steel-framed bridges constructed in the early 1900s, and although no longer in use, remnants of these bridges survive.

Jones Bridge, using a camel-back adaptation of the Pratt truss, was constructed in 1904 to replace the old Jones or Martins Ferry. It was operated by both Gwinnett and Milton (now north Fulton) Counties as a toll bridge until the free bridge constructed by the state upstream in 1922 rendered Jones Bridge obsolete. The bridge continued to be used by local residents, but with neither county willing to accept the maintenance costs, the floor boards soon rotted away. During World War II, the spans on the Gwinnett County side were disassembled and stolen, presumably to obtain the steel made valuable by wartime shortages. Today, only the trusses on the Fulton County side remain. The last documented steel-truss bridge from the early 1900s was built at Rogers Ferry, the site of one of the area’s oldest ferries. Operated by two mixed-blood Cherokee, Rogers Ferry was a focus of the Indians’ losing effort.
to sustain their rights within the country's legal system in the late 1830s.

The rapid increase of automobiles in the early 20th century brought a renewed interest in good roads and bridges. Federal aid to states for improved highways, authorized in 1916, prompted Georgia to create the State Highway Commission, which soon became a rich source of patronage and a focus of political power. The nation's entry into World War I in the spring of 1917, post-war economic turmoil, and a corrupt highway department slowed road building in the area, but road construction went into high gear in the 1920s.

In 1922, the state built its first bridge across the Chattahoochee River in the study area on what is now called State Bridge Road, and two years later replaced the old wooden covered bridge on Roswell Road with a modern concrete-arch bridge. Toll free, these and other state-built bridges soon led to the abandonment of toll bridges like Jones Bridge. By 1940, there were at least thirteen toll-free bridges spanning the river from Fulton County.

Although steel-truss bridges continued to be built after World War I, reinforced concrete and steel girders soon supplanted steel trusses as the preferred building method. The oldest surviving concrete river bridges in the study area are the Roswell Road Bridge (1924) and the U. S. 41 bridge (1935), the latter constructed as part of the State's first four-lane highway. The Cumming- Buford Highway (Hwy. 20) bridge was built in 1946, and is a good example of early post-WWII bridge-building technology. Abbott's Bridge (1960) and the McGinnis Ferry bridge (1965) are also reinforced-concrete, but later bridges including the one at Johnson's Ferry (1969) used pre-stressed reinforced concrete, precast off-site. By World War II, bridges across the Chattahoochee had supplanted most of the ferries, although one or two continued to operate for local traffic into the 1960s. Many of the old ferry names survive in modern-day thoroughfares throughout the study area.

Roads. Private and corporate efforts to promote a national system of improved highways suitable for automobile traffic included establishment of the Dixie Highway, which was begun in 1915. By the time a national system of numbered highways was established in 1926, the Dixie Highway was complete from Indianapolis to Miami. Designated U. S. 41, the Dixie Highway originally passed through the towns

FIGURE 7. A postcard view of the state's first four-lane highway, now U. S. 41, around 1950. (Jody Cook Postcard Collection)
of Marietta and Smyrna before crossing the Chattahoochee River at Bolton just south of the study area. It was the first paved road into Atlanta from outside the state and spurred development of an industry of tourist camps, motels, restaurants, and service stations that were the predecessors of the modern hotel chains lining its modern-day counterpart, Interstate 75.

In the late 1930s, the state constructed its first “dualized” (i.e., four-lane) highway, which crossed the river in what is now the park’s Paces Mill Unit and connected Atlanta and Marietta. When the highway was completed in 1939, it was designated as the new route for U.S. 41, and its existence was a major factor in the Bell Aircraft Corporation’s decision to locate its bomber production plant at Marietta. Although the roadway has been greatly altered, the bridge itself has been little altered and remains an historically significant feature.

With the exception of the Dixie Highway, the new U.S. 41, and Roswell Road, nearly all of the local roads in the study area remained unpaved until after World War II. In addition, as the region’s agricultural economy contracted in the first half of the 20th century, bridges were washed out and not replaced and many local farm roads throughout the study area, like the one that ran from Hyde Farm past the George Power House and on to Johnson’s Ferry, were simply abandoned for much of their length.

### Interstate Highways

The final component of the study area’s transportation infrastructure that had a major impact on the river corridor was the system of four-lane, limited-access, divided highways that the State began constructing around Atlanta in 1949. This original system of “expressways,” as these highways were first called, was incorporated into the Federal Interstate and Defense Highway system that Congress authorized in 1956. Two of these Interstate highways, 75 and 285, have had a major impact on the study area.

The first of these highways to be completed through the study area was Interstate 285, which was designed as a perimeter highway to allow travelers to bypass the congestion of downtown Atlanta, where three Interstate highways (20, 75, and 85) converged. Generally twelve to fifteen miles from

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the city’s center at Five Points, Interstate 285, or simply “the Perimeter” as it is called today, bounds the south end of the CRNRA’s Cochran Shoals Unit and crosses the river near the site of James Power’s Ferry. Construction began in 1957 at Interstate 85 northeast of downtown and was completed to Interstate 75 northwest of downtown in 1964. The entire perimeter highway was not completed until the fall of 1969.

Like Interstate 285, Interstate 75, which parallels the route of the old Dixie Highway, was built in stages, beginning in the late 1950s. Construction included a new bridge across the Chattahoochee just north of where U. S. 41 bridged the river in the 1930s. Widened in the 1980s, the bridge is a major intrusion in the Palisades Unit of the Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area. The last segment of Interstate 75, north of Marietta, was completed in 1977.

As had the railroads, the Interstates brought considerable growth and development. Metropolitan Atlanta grew from a five-county area (Fulton, DeKalb, Clayton, Cobb, and Gwinnett) with a population of nearly 560,000 in 1940 to a 20-county area with a population of 3,748,050 in 1998. After the 2000 census, the metropolitan area was expanded to encompass 28 counties, which by 2005 had a combined population of over 5,000,000. In addition, after declining for most of three decades, the population of the city proper began to increase in the 1990s and was estimated at just over 470,000 in 2005. Coming with this tremendous growth has been rampant suburban sprawl that has left little of the study area untouched and obliterated much evidence of the area’s rich history.

**Agriculture in the 20th Century**

The new century seemed to promise a new day for farmers. Shortly before 1900, market prices for most agricultural staples began to climb. Though economists disagree on the exact reason for the turnaround, several factors including depressed production, the Spanish-American War, and a population boom in North America appear to have contributed to the nation’s relative prosperity and explosive growth. Between 1899 and 1919, Georgia’s economy was bolstered by an increase in the value of farm production from $107 million to nearly $638 million, with the vast majority of that income the result of a marked increase in the value of cotton.

Cotton production in the study area increased over 30 percent in the first decade of the 20th century, and increased 50 percent beyond that between 1910 and 1920. With more cotton came more sharecropping, and by 1910 over half of the farmers involved with cotton production in the study area were sharecroppers, a marked contrast with 1880 when only a little more than a third were sharecroppers. In addition, 80 percent of them were white. The number of sharecroppers continued to rise during World War I, while there were only half as many tenant farmers in 1920 as there had been in 1910. Few farmers in the study area owned their own farms.

Typically, cotton was cultivated to the neglect of other crops, especially when prices were high. By 1910, wheat and hog production in the study area had fallen by a third while tobacco production fell by half. Still, the production of corn, sweet potatoes, and milk all increased, and poultry and egg production remained high, reflecting the major impact the Atlanta market had on agricultural production in the study area. Statewide, however, the 1913 USDA Yearbook claimed that in 1910 the “average Georgia farm produced 2/3 pints of milk, 2 eggs and 2/3 of an ounce of butter a week, and 1/3 a hog, 1/12 a beef, and 1/100 sheep per year.” Clearly, the call for diversification of agriculture was not heeded, and Georgia farms still were not producing anywhere near enough food to feed Georgia farmers.

Georgia posted record cotton crops in 1914 and 1916, just as the boll weevil began to appear in fields in southwest Georgia. First appearing in Texas in 1894, the boll weevil infested cotton fields in a steady march eastward across the South, devastating crops in spite of frantic attempts to stop its spread. The effects were relatively small until 1919 when statewide cotton production fell as much as 45 percent. From a normal crop of perhaps 2,000,000 pounds,


61. Range, 171.


63. Range, 183.
the state’s production fell to less than 600,000 in 1923. 64

Progress was made in controlling the boll weevil, but at the same time, cotton production was shifting west. New machinery made cotton production in the large, flat fields of the Mississippi Valley and beyond far more efficient than was ever possible using traditional methods in the smaller fields of the upland South. Prices were soon so low that it was no longer profitable to cultivate cotton in those areas at all. The collapse of the agricultural economy precipitated foreclosures and abandoned farms all across the region. At the same time, the deteriorating farm economy gave added impetus to the “Detroit exodus” as thousands of black laborers fled Jim Crow and abysmal wages for the new assembly plants and opportunities for a better life in the factories in the North. As a result, homesteads were abandoned, tenant houses fell into ruin, fields grew up in broom sedge and pine, uncontrolled erosion ruined fields, and there was a steady depopulation of the countryside. Some continued to eke out a living off the land, but even with improved technology and large crops, nobody prospered. With the South’s farm economy already in depression, the stock market crash in 1929 and the onset of the Great Depression marked the end for King Cotton and the beginning of profound and sweeping changes.

Early government efforts to control cotton production and encourage diversification in other crops began in 1917 but were largely fruitless until the New Deal. Cotton production declined precipitously in the decades between the world wars. In Gwinnett County, where the majority of the area’s cotton was cultivated, production fell from 30,771 bales in 1920, to 25,984 in 1930, to 12,596 in 1940. 65 Still, the 1930 census 66 shows that, in spite of severe market depression, production was greater than it had been in 1910 before it peaked in 1915-1916 but still 15 percent lower than the total reported in 1920. Wheat production fell, too, as did sweet potato and corn, the latter reaching production levels not seen since before the Civil War. Cotton production in the study area continued to fall after World War II with only 850 bales reported in 1965 before it disappeared altogether from the modern landscape. Though farm populations continued to slowly grow in the decades following the Great Depression, the total value of farms in Gwinnett in 1920, which was $20,114,725, was not matched again until the early 1960s. 67

In 1944 Gwinnett produced 323,643 bushels of corn, only 9,930 bales of cotton, and no wheat. Between 1944 and 1954, the value of the county’s agricultural production increased twofold while the percentage of the total accounted for by field crops fell from 69.8 percent in 1944 to 17.7 percent in 1954 and less than 4.1 percent in 1964. During the same period, the value of livestock and livestock products increased from $587,161 in 1944 to $3,713,870 in 1954 and then almost doubled again a decade later to $6,571,733, which accounted for 94.9 percent of the county’s agricultural value. Chickens and cattle cotton and corn, with poultry and poultry products alone accounting for 85.7 percent of the county’s agricultural value in 1964. With the rise in cattle and poultry production, much old farm land was left untended or replanted in trees so that the amount of open farm land fell from 83,244 acres (slightly greater than the 80,799 in 1920) to only 9,542 in 1964. 68 By then farming and ranching in the study area were on the wane as Atlanta’s suburban development began to move into the county.

Industry in the 20th Century

The development of large-scale industrial mills like those along the Chattahoochee River between West Point and Columbus and those in the Carolina Piedmont made it difficult for many smaller mills, like those in the study area, to compete.

Roswell Manufacturing Company. The Roswell Manufacturing Company did better than most in meeting the challenges of a new century, but it did so only by adapting and making constant improvements. Richard Coleman, in his short history of the Roswell mills, reports that in 1898 Mill No. 1 added steam power and Mill No. 2 added electric lights. 69 The 1900, 1905, and 1924 Sanborn maps corroborate

64. Range, 172-173.
67. Ibid., 1.
68. Ibid., 3.
this, noting that the mills were powered by both water and steam and that both mills were outfitted with engine rooms by 1900. Around the same time, two 400-horsepower vertical Holyoke turbines replaced the earlier turbine at Mill No. 1. Coleman also notes that water-powered electrical generators were installed in 1911 in both mills.

In 1926, Mill No. 1 was struck by lightning and the resulting blaze destroyed the main factory building, the picker house, and a warehouse. In response to the loss, the company decided to expand Mill No. 2 using materials salvaged from the defunct woolen factory. Several other small additions and a new dye house were constructed at Mill No. 2 before 1930. Georgia Power Company ran a line to the plant in 1928, and the old water-powered generators and the races were abandoned. The mill operated infrequently during the Great Depression, and the blacksmith shop, no longer needed as trucks and tractors replaced mules and horses, was torn down by workers who wanted the bricks for their homes.

In 1947, Southern Mills purchased the mill, replaced the machinery, and continued operations. During its final thirty years of operation, the capacity of the mills steadily declined, but it continued to produce yarn, cloth, laundry netting, and carpet backing until the mill was closed in 1975. Most of the old machinery was sold for scrap at that time, with the exception of the heavy shop machinery, which was moved to the compressor room. In the 1980s the City of Roswell acquired and renovated the mill for use as retail space and as a component of a pedestrian mall. The structure was listed in the National Register of Historic Places in 1974 as a contributing element of the Roswell Historic District

Laurel Mills Manufacturing Company. In 1900, Laurel Mills operated 67 looms and was capitalized at $55,000. By 1905 a small cotton house was added between the existing factory and dye house, and the wagon road to the west of the complex was improved and widened. Before World War I, an additional warehouse and storage facilities were constructed along with a new water-powered picker house and freestanding restroom facilities. The main factory was enlarged by the addition of a new carding room on the east side of the mill and a new engine room on the north side.

Because of the mill's location close to the river, the completion of Morgan Falls Dam in 1905 (see below) may have affected the operation of the mill. Backwater from Bull Sluice Lake behind the dam appears to have affected water levels in the tailrace, which acted to reduce the head and effectiveness of the turbine. In high water conditions, the lake could back up into the turbine housing and foul it with sediment and debris.

By 1917 Laurel Mills was no longer a viable operation. Reduced water power and the wartime economy were likely the two primary causes. The March 1, 1917, Cobb County Times reported that the Atlanta Woolen Mills Manufacturing Company had purchased and moved the machinery from the Laurel Mills woolen factory. In 1924, the Sanborn Fire Insurance Company's map showed Laurel Mills' buildings as vacant. The entire site has since fallen into ruins.

Hydroelectric Power

Although electric arc lights were being used on a limited basis as early as the 1820s, the age of electricity did not really begin until the last quarter of the 19th century when Thomas Edison’s light bulb and other inventions demonstrated the practicality of its use for a variety of purposes. Commercial power generation began in the fall of 1882 when Edison’s Pearl Street power plant began operation in lower Manhattan. That same year the first hydroelectric plant went into operation at Appleton, Wisconsin. The huge coal-fired dynamos that were necessary to generate enough electricity to operate street cars and heavy industry led to continued improvements in turbines for hydropower, and in 1895 the first large-scale hydroelectric plant was placed in service at Niagara Falls, New York.

Electrical service came to the Atlanta area in 1884 when the Georgia Electric Light Company began generating electricity. In 1889 Joel Hurt’s Atlanta and Edgewood Street Railway Company began operating the first electric streetcars in the city, which were also among the first in the country. Competing lines quickly sprang up, including a streetcar line that ran to the Chattahoochee River at Bolton and eventu-

70. Ibid., 13-14.
71. Ibid.
72. Ibid.
74. Ibid., 18
ally on to Marietta. In the late 1890s, a fierce battle erupted between Hurt and Henry Y. Atkinson, president of the Georgia Electric Light Company, for control of the city’s streetcar lines and electrical generators. Atkinson won that battle, establishing a company that was the predecessor of the modern Georgia Power Company.

**Morgan Falls.** As Hurt and Atkinson’s battle for control of the city’s nascent electrical industry was heating up in 1898, a former Moravian minister named S. Morgan Smith returned to his native South to find a location to build a hydroelectric plant. Smith was born in Davie County, North Carolina, but moved to Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, in 1859 to attend seminary. After service as a chaplain in the Union army early in the Civil War, he became pastor of the Moravian Church in York, Pennsylvania. He later was pastor at the Moravian Church in Dover, Ohio, but a throat ailment forced him to abandon preaching in 1871. Mechanically inclined, he returned to York and acquired a small foundry and machine shop that made farm machinery and, more importantly, waterwheels. In 1874, he founded the York Manufacturing Company and began production of washing machines and later ice makers and air-conditioners.75

The York Manufacturing Company ran into financial trouble as a result of the Panic of 1873, and Smith lost a large sum of money. In 1877, he formed the S. Morgan Smith Company and began making turbines, delivering his first in 1877. Because his design worked well even at low flow, Smith’s turbines quickly gained popularity among grist millers in eastern Pennsylvania.76 His company became one of the primary manufacturers of turbines for grist and textile mills in the country.

The development of hydroelectric power in the 1880s gave Smith a natural avenue for expansion, and in 1895, Smith’s turbines were first used in a

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small hydroelectric facility in Wisconsin. That same year, technological advances made it possible to transmit high-voltage electricity over long distances, and the giant power plant at Niagara Falls went into operation.  

In 1898, Smith and a colleague George C. Smith (no relation) began investigating the possibility of a power plant at Bull Sluice Falls on the Chattahoochee just downstream from the famous Shallow Ford that had figured so prominently in early settlement. Morgan Smith was introduced to Joel Hurt, president of the Atlanta Consolidated Street Railway Company, who in turn introduced him to Jack Spalding, partner in one of Atlanta’s best-known law firms. It is thought that over dinner one evening, Smith, Hurt, Spalding, and Atlanta real-estate developer Forrest Adair drew up plans to develop the Bull Sluice site and organize the Atlanta Water and Electric Power Company. Smith provided the know-how and the turbines, Adair provided the land and water rights, Spalding provided legal services, and Hurt’s streetcar company provided the end consumer for all the power that could be generated.

Construction on the dam at Bull Sluice Falls began in 1902 utilizing a special rail spur that was built from the Chamblee-Roswell railroad to transport materials to the construction site. When it was completed in 1904, the dam was 1031 feet long and 56 feet high, making it the largest dam in the southeastern United States. As Bull Sluice Lake filled, both the old falls and the Shallow Ford disappeared under its waters. The power plant itself was designed and built by Westinghouse, Church, Kerr, & Company and used seven turbines with an output of 10,500 kilowatts.

Morgan Smith died in 1903 before the project was completed, but the board of directors of the Atlanta Water and Electric Power Company named the facility Morgan Falls Dam in his honor (Smith’s middle name, Morgan, was his mother’s maiden name and also the name by which he was known). When the plant began operation in 1904, its first and only customer was Henry Y. Atkinson’s newly formed Georgia Railway and Electric Company, which was incorporated after Atkinson acquired Hurt’s rival company in 1903. In 1911, Atkinson’s successor, Preston Arkwright, acquired Smith’s old company and combined it with the Georgia Railway and Electric Company which was reorganized again in the 1920s into the Georgia Power Company.

In 1906 the original Ellicot water-wheel governors in the Morgan Falls plant were replaced by Lombard governors, and in 1922 the dam was upgraded with Francis horizontal turbines and larger penstocks. In 1924, the facility was upgraded with new turbines and the generators were rewired to increase production from 10,500 kilowatts to 15,000 kilowatts. Two motorized trash rakes were installed in 1926.

The construction of Buford Dam (see below) resulted in additional modifications to Morgan Falls Dam. Like most hydroelectric facilities, Buford Dam generates electricity and discharges high volumes of water during the day to meet high daytime power demands. The discharge is much lower during evening and night hours. The resulting fluctuations in water level might have left an inadequate volume in the river to properly operate the Clayton Street Sewage Treatment Plant 48 miles downstream in Atlanta. But in 1959-60, 16 spillway gates – called tainter gates – were added to the Morgan Falls Dam to raise the level of the reservoir another six feet and increase the reservoir’s capacity to 1,045 million gallons of water. The increased capacity at Bull Sluice Lake allowed the reservoir to absorb the crest from Buford Dam, and by regulating the discharge through Morgan Falls Dam, optimal water levels for operating the Clayton Street Sewage Treatment Plant could be maintained. Other work at that time included installation of a vertical lift trash gate, spillway piers, a spillway bridge, and hoisting equipment. Reinforced concrete walls were also added to the east and west abutments, and all turbines were either overhauled or replaced. The project was a public-private partnership between the City of Atlanta and Georgia Power, costing approximately $910,000.

77. Wright, 107-08; Crist, 26-7.
78. Wright, 109.
80. Wright, 183.
81. “Morgan Falls Dam Enlargement: A Joint Project to Regulate Flow of the Chattahoochee River” (City of Atlanta/Georgia Power, pamphlet, publication date unknown), unpaginated.
In 1964-65, the switch gear was modernized and the powerhouse upgraded. The downstream windows of the powerhouse were also bricked in at this time. The Morgan Falls facility is the oldest major hydroelectric plant in Georgia still operating substantially in its original form. The dam’s current license from the Federal Energy Regulatory Commission (FERC) was issued in March of 1959, and expires in February 2009. Georgia Power has begun the required impact studies for re-licensing the dam for 30 or 50 years.

**Buford Dam.** The development of Morgan Falls Dam signaled a new era for the Chattahoochee River. As metropolitan Atlanta grew, so did its demand for electricity, and by the 1930s it was clear that new sources of power were needed. In addition, the Morgan Falls Dam did nothing to control the floods that continued to periodically rampage down the Chattahoochee Valley. Finally, the city was increasingly dependent on the river for its drinking water. The response to these issues would have far-reaching consequences for the Chattahoochee River and the entire region.

The Federal government had begun some dam building in the early 20th century, chiefly as an aid to navigation and for flood control. Beginning in the 1920s, Columbus businessman James W. Woodruff, Sr., began an intense lobbying campaign for “improvements” to the river, chiefly to make his native Columbus competitive as a port city. Tireless in his efforts, Woodruff gained the moniker “Mr. Chattahoochee.” He was joined by long-time Atlanta mayor William B. Hartsfield, who recognized the river’s importance to Atlanta and was instrumental in incorporating a dam at Buford, Georgia, into Woodruff’s plan, which focused on the lower part of the Chattahoochee Valley.

Federal involvement with flood control really began after the disastrous Mississippi River flood of 1927, but it was the 1936 Flood Control Act that recognized flood control as a “proper activity of the Federal government in cooperation with the States.” The act, which coincided with disastrous flooding of the Ohio in 1936 and 1937, set the stage for a massive transformation of the Chattahoochee, from near its headwaters in the mountains of northeast Georgia all the way to the Florida border where it joins with the Flint River to form the Apalachicola River. Partly as a result of Woodruff’s work, a series of locks and dams were proposed that would aid shipping, improve flood control, generate hydroelectric power, and insure Atlanta’s supply of water.

In 1946, as part of a much larger plan for the nation’s rivers and harbors, Congress authorized construction of a dam on the upper Chattahoochee north of Atlanta. In 1949, Congress appropriated $750,000 to begin planning the new dam, and ground was broken on the Gwinnett County side of the site on March 1, 1950. Completed at a cost of $45,000,000, the dam impounded a 38,000-acre reservoir after the sluice gates were closed in February 1956. Buford Dam was dedicated in October 1957, but not until May 1959 did the lake reach full pool at 1070 feet above sea level. The lake, which quickly became a popular recreation area, was named in honor of native-son Sidney Lanier, who had paid tribute to the river with his poem “Song of the Chattahoochee.”

Although outside the authorized boundaries of the National Recreation Area, Buford Dam and Lake Lanier have had a profound impact on the entire region. Flooding has been virtually eliminated, of course, but there have been unintended consequences that continue to shape the river corridor. In particular, the rapid fluctuations in the river’s level as waters are periodically discharged for power generation have led to erosion in some areas and can have a negative impact on flora and fauna in the riparian zone. The fluctuations also negatively affect recreational use of the river, although the cold water issuing from the bottom of the lake through the spillways has also created an environment that supports recreational trout fishing, something not otherwise possible in Piedmont rivers.

**Suburban Development**

With expanding use of the automobile after World War I, a few people began building year-round residences near the river while commuting to jobs in downtown Atlanta. One of these is the Collins-Yardum house in the park’s Palisades (East) Unit. Built about 1936, it is a single-family stone bungalow, with elements of the Craftsman style. A nearby servant’s
national park service

63

house has disappeared. There is no additional documentation for the building.

Roswell, too, began to attract a few Atlantans, drawn in part by the town’s historic architecture. The noted architect Neel Reid moved to Roswell in 1918 and renovated Mimosa Hall, one of the town’s most significant landmarks. He continued to work in the town until his untimely death in 1926.

In 1932, Barnett Allen Bell, an attorney with the Georgia Power Company, bought the old brick house on S. Atlanta Street that had been built by James King in the 1850s. Rented for many years, it was in poor condition, and rechristening it “Allenbrook,” Bell and his wife Agnes rehabilitated and remodeled the house by adding a two-story porch to the front, replacing the main staircase, and making other alterations to the interior. By 1936, the Bells moved from their home in Peachtree Heights in north Atlanta and made Allenbrook their year-round residence. After her husband’s death, Mrs. Bell sold the property to the National Park Service in 1978.

The same year that the Bells acquired Allenbrook, modern-day Fulton County was taking shape. The ruinous economic conditions in the early 1930s drove neighboring Campbell and Milton Counties to bankruptcy. As a result, on January 1, 1932, both counties were merged with Fulton County. In May 1932, Roswell precinct was ceded by Cobb County to Fulton County, creating the modern boundaries of Fulton County, which stretch some 70 miles with the Chattahoochee River forming the county’s western boundary south of Roswell as well as its boundary with Gwinnett County.

After World War II, suburban development around Atlanta increased dramatically and began to directly affect the study area. In 1952, Atlanta annexed Buckhead, Adams Park, Cascade, and Lakewood, tripling the city’s land area and adding 100,000 to its population. As a result, the Chattahoochee River between Sandy Springs and just north of I-20 became the city’s corporate limits on the west.

Although the city’s population continued to grow, reaching a peak of 497,000 in 1970, the 1952 annexation was the last significant expansion of the city’s boundaries. By the 1960s, racial tensions were adding fuel to the general exodus of white Atlantans from city to suburbs, a trend seen in almost every major city after World War II. Because of these tensions and other reasons, Atlanta was increasingly seen as a threat in Cobb and Gwinnett Counties. So fearful were some residents of Cobb County of the possibility that Atlanta might seek to expand into that county, in 1961, the city of Chattahoochee Plantation was incorporated. With boundaries that formed a long narrow rectangle bordering the Chattahoochee River opposite Atlanta’s corporate limits, the new “city” was meant to take advantage of State law that required annexed territory be contiguous with the city annexing the territory. No city government was ever organized, and in 1995 the city charter was revoked.

By the 1970s, subdivisions were sprawling across much of eastern Cobb County as well as the southern parts of Gwinnett County. Although idiosyncrasies of land owners kept some areas, such as Hyde Farm, from development, residential construction adjacent to the river was a primary impetus for creation of the Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area in 1978.

Recreation

Recreational use of the river did not begin until the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Even then, except for local hunters and fishermen, it was mostly limited to parts of the study area that were accessible by railroad, particularly near Vinings and Roswell. After World War I, improved roads made automobile travel easier, and the steep, picturesque terrain that characterizes much of the river corridor began to attract Atlanta residents who built summer homes and year-round residences away from the heat and congestion of the city. Most of these were around Vinings, but there were isolated examples elsewhere.

A relatively late example of a hunting lodge or vacation cabin in the study area was the Barnwell Cabin, probably built shortly after World War II and located at what is now the Chattahoochee River Environmental Education Center. The small log house was on a parcel of land acquired by the National Park Service in 1985 and was used as a park ranger residence until 1994. All that remains today is a large, rustic-style stone chimney that originally dominated the cabin’s rear elevation and a few foundation blocks. Conversations with NPS employees suggest that the cabin was either a hunt-
Island Ford Lodge. Island Ford Lodge, the Chattahoochee River CRNRA headquarters, was originally built as a summer home. Samuel Dunbar Hewlett (1879-1965) bought the land where the Lodge was constructed in 1925, but it was ten years before he began its construction. Hewlett, a prominent Atlanta attorney, served as chief of staff for Georgia Governor Eugene Talmadge during his first two terms as governor (1933-1937), which may have delayed completion of the Lodge. In 1942, Talmadge appointed Hewlett to the State Supreme Court, but Hewlett served only a few months before resigning and returning to private practice.

The Lodge was built by stone mason John Epps, who is thought to have lived on the property throughout the construction period. This may indicate the existence of an earlier house somewhere on the property. The stone for the foundation and chimneys was apparently quarried in a field near the river upstream from the Lodge, and its cypress logs were brought from property Hewlett owned in the Okefenokee Swamp in south Georgia. Hewlett constructed a temporary railroad spur from the Roswell Railroad to transport the logs and other materials to the site.

In 1950, Hewlett sold the Island Ford property to the Buckhead Century Club, a private club of which the Hewletts were members, but the Hewletts retained rights to an apartment in the southwest corner of the Lodge. In 1955, the club disbanded and the Lodge was sold to the Atlanta Baptist Assembly, and for the next twenty years, the property was used as a retreat and camp facility. The National Park Service took possession of the property in 1979, and in the early 1980s, rehabilitated the site for park headquarters.

Modern-Day Outdoor Pursuits. The corridor today still appeals to a wide variety of outdoor enthusiasms: bird watching, boating, hiking, fishing, running, rock climbing, and picnicking, among others. As early as the mid-1960s, research was undertaken to help determine whether, and how, the river corridor could benefit from development of tourism-based activities. A preliminary study in 1967 noted that the Chattahoochee River Basin “has the resources available for development of a significant tourism business” and that there was a “generally promising future market for outdoor recreation enterprise as an employment source.”

The study noted that tourists were drawn by three activity categories: aesthetic, physical enjoyment, and historical/cultural. Facilities for the last two categories were “generally underdeveloped” in 1967, the study noted, with attention needed to mitigate water pollution problems and “tumble-down buildings” that detracted from roadside views. The study also specifically cited the appeal of Civil War sites for tourism.

Summer Camps and Retreats. The gradual abandonment of agriculture left large rural areas along the river corridor that were ideal for the development of other group camps and retreats. None were actually within the boundaries of the Chattahoochee River CRNRA, but visitors to these facilities commonly used the river and its resources for recreation. One of the best-known was Camp Burt Adams, established by the Boy Scouts just northeast of Vinings in the 1930s. Patronized by troops from all around the Atlanta area, it was demolished to make way for construction of Cumberland Mall in the early 1970s.

The Simpsonwood Conference and Retreat Center, adjacent to but not within the park’s boundaries, is situated on the east bank of the Chattahoochee between Holcomb Bridge Road and Jones Bridge Park. The 227-acre tract was deeded to the North Georgia Conference of the United Methodist Church in 1973 by Ludie Simpson, whose family farmed the area for years. Two large lodges and a conference center were constructed on the property in the 1970s.

83. Kirk Cordell letter to Raymond Luce, May 11, 1999, on file in the CHAT Determinations of Eligibility folder, National Register files, Cultural Resources branch.
86. Ibid., 86-87.
87. Ibid., 98.
In the 1940s, the concept of whitewater as sport took hold in the Southeast, where river conditions are prime for such activity, when a few daring individuals began canoeing rapids. Not until the 1950s, however, did river-running gain popularity as a leisure activity. In the 1970s, clubs dedicated to whitewater rafting sprang up, especially after the 1972 movie “Deliverance,” filmed on Georgia’s Chattooga and Tallulah Rivers.

Although the river through most of the study area might not have rapids to compete with the rivers in northeast Georgia, it was perfectly suited to a more leisurely style of rafting. In the 1970s, WQXI, a local radio station, began promoting an annual “Ramblin’ Raft Race” on Memorial Day weekend. By the mid-1970s, the “race” was attracting as many as 60,000 people. Beginning at Cochran Shoals just north of I-285, the race continued to U.S. 41 at Paces Mill. Among the more popular stops along the way was “Diving Rock,” where the river breaks through the Brevard Fault in the park’s Palisades Unit. Although the annual event was soon notorious for widespread drunkenness, drug use, and debauchery, it continued into the 1980s when the National Park Service forced its cancellation amid concerns about the river’s water quality and damage to natural resources.

There is currently no officially designated concessionaire for raft rentals in the Chattahoochee River CRNRA, possibly contributing to the decrease in rafters from 150,000 a year in the mid-1980s to 75,000 in summer 2001. There are, however, raft rentals available near the river, in spite of continued concerns over water quality. The Upper Chattahoochee Riverkeeper notes that the river is safe “for body-contact recreation” only 85 percent of the time. River users are cautioned to avoid contact with the river in the days immediately after large storms that can cause sewage overflows from the several treatment plants along the river. The National Park Service posts signs at access points to alert the public about water quality in park units, but the river remains popular among rafters, kayakers, canoeists, and motorboat owners.

The park also has an extensive system of trails for bicyclists, hikers, and runners. Outside the CRNRA, additional bike paths run along Columns Drive from Sope Creek to Johnson Ferry Road, Riverside Road near Island Ford, Georgia Highway 141 to the south of Medlock Bridge Road, Peachtree Industrial Boulevard between Suwanee Creek and McGinnis Ferry Road, and Buford Dam Road east of Bowmans Island, although none provides direct access into the park. As part of its overall planning process, the National Park Service is developing an integrated trail system plan with the intent of linking NPS trails to those outside park units.

Rock climbing is a relatively new activity along the corridor, with a variety of sites popular among local climbers. Within the study area, these include destinations along Big Creek near Allenbrook as well as near Island Ford, Morgan Falls, and Palisades. Rock climbing is recognized by the National Park Service as a legitimate recreational opportunity in National Parks, and where appropriate it is allowed in the Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area.

The River Today

Since World War II, the river corridor has undergone tremendous change. Old agricultural land has returned to forest or, more likely, been replaced by the rampant suburban development that began to transform east Cobb County and the southern reaches of Gwinnett County in the 1960s and that now surrounds the study area on all sides. Although the river is a significant source of electrical power, most area residents think of it in terms of recreation, in spite of its reputation among some as a polluted waterway.

As metropolitan Atlanta’s population has grown, so too have industrial and residential impacts on the study area. South of the city itself, the Chattahoochee has been reputed to be one of the most

89. Sally Bethea, president of the Upper Chattahoochee Riverkeeper, email to Marti Gerdes, February 2, 2005, quoting analysis done by the USGS under the BacteriALERT project.
polluted stretches of river nationwide, although court orders have finally forced the city to begin a major rehabilitation of its antiquated water and sewer system.\footnote{Mark Van Putten, “Water for People and Wildlife,” National Wildlife, June/July 2001.} Use of the CRNRA for water-related activities has actually declined in the last decade due to concerns over water quality, but there has been a concomitant increase in land-based activities. Overall visitation to the Chattahoochee River CRNRA in 1998 was 2,898,155, dipping to 2,659,709 in 2000.\footnote{Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area, Georgia,” National Park Service, http://www.nps.gov/chat/index.htm.} This trend is expected to reverse as water quality issues are addressed.

Currently, development along the Chattahoochee is restricted by Georgia’s Metropolitan River Protection Act, originally passed in 1973. This law restricts development within 2,000 feet of the river over the entire length of the study area, prohibits any impervious structures within 150 feet of the river, and requires a 50-foot “no disturb” buffer zone along the river’s shore. In 1998, the law’s application was extended 36 miles downstream of Peachtree Creek to cover additional areas in Fulton, Cobb, and Douglas Counties outside the CRNRA boundary.\footnote{Metropolitan River Protection Act, adopted May 28, 2003. The Act restricts development in order to protect the river and river habitat. The 150-foot restriction is for impervious surfaces while the 50-foot restriction is a “no disturb” buffer. The Act also establishes a buffer for tributaries.} Nevertheless, long stretches of the river corridor remain in private ownership and subject to at least limited development.

The Chattahoochee is unique in that it is the smallest river basin in the nation to serve as the main water source for a major metropolitan area. Metro Atlanta’s rapid growth in recent years has resulted in exceedingly heavy demands on the river. Millions of people in Alabama, Florida, and Georgia drink, irrigate with, recreate on, and otherwise depend on Chattahoochee River water. Concerns over equitable allocation of water from the river erupted in a tri-state “water war” in the 1990s when Georgia proposed construction of a new reservoir near Alabama to better serve Atlanta. Meanwhile, Florida wanted to guarantee its future needs, and environmental groups weighed in with concerns that inadequate flows below the Florida state line would endanger the delicate Apalachicola Bay estuary, which provides some 13 percent of oysters consumed in the U.S.\footnote{Chattahoochee Nature Center, http://www.chattnaturecenter.com/tour/chattahoochee.html (accessed October 18-20, 2004).} By late 2004, the fight was headed to the U.S. Supreme Court after talks broke down in 2003.\footnote{Georgia Public Policy Foundation, “Agenda 2005: A Guide to the Issues,” http://www.gppf.org/article.asp?RT=20&p=pub/Water/water_frontpage.htm (accessed November 3, 2004).}

There are also concerns that the Chattahoochee’s main source of pollution has shifted in the past 20 years from untreated sewage to storm-water runoff associated with increased development.\footnote{Storm-water runoff is also known as “nonpoint” pollution, or runoff consisting of litter, pesticides, fertilizers, petroleum by-products, detergents, mud, poultry farm residue, and other foreign substances.} This runoff flows unfiltered into the river because paved surfaces do not allow it to percolate through soil and vegetation, but instead channel it directly into the river.\footnote{A study in 1998 noted that three-quarters of the pollution in the Chattahoochee stemmed from storm-water drainage and “alterations in stream hydrology” that typically accompany development. Georgia Public Policy Foundation, http://www.gppf.org/article.asp?RT=20&p=pub/Water/water_frontpage.htm.} Other evidence links the loss of vegetative cover and increased paved areas to rising summer temperatures, which increase use of air conditioning which in turn diminishes air quality. The resulting atmospheric pollution falls onto the paved surfaces that drain into the Chattahoochee, further harming the river’s water quality and perpetuating the cycle of pollution.\footnote{Ibid.}

A study by the Georgia Public Policy Foundation in October 2004 recommended “a market-based approach integrating economic and ecosystem needs” to address long-term water-quality issues in the Chattahoochee River and noted that “development practices must be modified to reduce harm to watersheds or the city’s economic growth will stall.”\footnote{Georgia Public Policy Foundation, “Agenda 2005.” This policy study offers more specific recommendations on its webpage, http://www.gppf.org/article.asp?RT=20&p=pub/Water/water_frontpage.htm.} This speaks directly to the adverse effect that uncontrolled development has had on the river and the Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area.
A partnership between the Trust for Public Land and the Nature Conservancy of Georgia continues to work toward establishing a 180-mile greenway on the Chattahoochee from Helen to Columbus. Their proposed Chattahoochee Riverway would protect 500 feet on either side of the river—an initiative that, if successful, would be one of the longest river parks in the United States.\(^{101}\) As of June 2004, more than $160 million had been raised for the project, the intent of which is to reduce pollution, cut water treatment costs, create a regional park system, and curb urban sprawl.

Chapter Three: Associated Historic Properties

One of the purposes of the present study is to identify the extant historic buildings and structures in the Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area (CRNRA) and to evaluate the significance and integrity of those resources according to National Register criteria. The previous chapters have identified a number of resources, such as Roswell Mills and Johnston's River Line, that are adjacent to the CRNRA but outside its authorized boundaries. These are not evaluated in this chapter.

All of the resources included here are within the authorized boundary of the CRNRA, but not all are owned by the NPS. The latter includes historic roads that have not been abandoned, some bridges over the river, and the several fish weirs located in the bed of the river. Except for the abandoned Rogers Bridge, the bridges are owned and maintained by the state, but because they are prominent features in the recreation area, the park should have an interest in their preservation. The state also owns the bed of the river itself, so that formal ownership of the fish weirs is not clear. Nevertheless, the park has an interest in their preservation, too.

The park has relatively few historic buildings and structures, mostly because of broad changes in land use that left historic resources obsolete and abandoned. Agricultural and industrial activity as well as modern suburban development has destroyed surface remnants of many sites in the study area, while recreational use, looting, and vandalism have adversely affected others. In addition, the park’s land acquisition program favored recreational opportunities and natural resource protection, so that in most cases cultural resources were acquired coincidentally.

Nevertheless, cultural resource management is a primary component of the park’s enabling legislation, which states that “Congress finds the natural, scenic, recreation, historic and other values [of the recreation area] are of special national significance, and that such values should be preserved and protected.” Cultural resources survive that represent virtually every phase of human’s interaction with the river, including prehistoric rock shelters and fish weirs, historic farmsteads and cemeteries, Civil War earthworks, ruins of early industrial buildings, bridges, and dams.

Fish Weirs

The only American Indian structures that have been identified in the CRNRA are fish weirs or traps at several locations in the Chattahoochee River. Although only visible when water levels are low or from the air, eleven fish weirs have been located on the Chattahoochee River in the study area. Most of these were probably built by American Indians, some perhaps in prehistoric times, but one or two may have been constructed by early white settlers.

While today’s anglers use rod and reel to catch fish on the river, and usually do so for recreation rather than subsistence, American Indians utilized fish weirs or traps to capture fish, a critical element of their diet. The Cherokee are known to have used such traps, as did early settlers who learned the technique from the Indians or brought the practice with them from Europe. The Indians tended to drive the fish into the traps, while settlers usually let the traps do the work for them. This efficient method allowed a large number of fish to be caught in a short time, with little effort, once the trap was

constructed. Other Indian weirs remain visible on the Etowah River near the Etowah Mounds, as well as on rivers in Virginia, Tennessee, and North Carolina. After 1820, fish weirs were made illegal because they restricted boat passage, but many were not removed.

Typically, fish weirs were made of stone, wood, or both, but sometimes they were of brush or woven basketry. Most common were the “V” or funnel-shaped stone structures like most of those that survive today in the study area, but W-shaped weirs like the Settles Bridge and the “Isman” The weirs lie just beneath the water surface, starting at one bank and angling downstream, meeting another row of stones that angles upstream to the opposite bank. In the middle, at the bottom of the V or W where fish were trapped, log or timber remnants may sometimes be observed, but most of these log structures have long since vanished in floods or become covered by silt. Bill Frazier, an amateur archeologist who has studied the weirs independently and as a member of Archaeological Survey Team Atlanta, has provided a wealth of documentation for the weirs on the Chattahoochee River. Thomas H. Gresham of Southeastern Archeological Services, Inc., has also located a number of weirs. As of March 2000, Frazier had documented eleven fish traps on the Chattahoochee River from below Buford Dam to Peachtree Creek.

The known historic fish weirs within the study area are listed below. Some, but not all, have been given official state archeological site numbers.

- **Bowman’s Island Fish Weir** (9GW344, also known as Site 140) is located below Bowman’s Island and consists of a W-shaped line of rocks (18–36” in diameter) and logs. Not readily apparent in aerial photographs, it is reported to zigzag about 200 feet across a broad, shallow part of the river at the southern end of a long set of shoals. It is most likely of historic Indian or Euro-American origin predating 1820. It was in poor condition in 1996 but its construction, consisting of logs incorporated within the rock walls and at the apex of the Vs, was clearly visible. This weir is the first to catch the full force of the water each time it is released from Buford Dam.

- **Settle’s Bridge Fish Weir** (9GW197, also known as Site 108) lies just below Settles Bridge and consists of a W-shaped line of rocks (18–36” in diameter) most likely of historic Indian or Euro-American origin. It was probably built circa 1810 by Cherokee Indians, but could have been constructed as late as 1820, when Gwinnett County passed a law forbidding the obstruction of more than one-third of the river by dams, fish traps, or other constructions, in order to allow free passage of boats and fish. Although this weir is not apparent in aerial photographs, it was described as “a wooden fish dam” that was observed during a dredging operation in 1993. It ran bank to bank and was made of stones and six or eight timbers, 30’ long with a gap in the middle of the weir.

- **Berkeley Lake Fish Weir** (also known as the Atlanta Athletic Club/Hermitage Plantation weir) (9GW318), above Medlock Bridge Unit, is located behind a residence in Duluth in 1994. It has not been described, but is clearly visible in aerial photographs.

- **Jones Bridge Fish Weir**, Jones Bridge Unit, has been located in Gwinnett County on the east side of Jones Bridge Road off Medlock Bridge Road. No other information is available.

- **Holcomb Bridge Fish Weir #1** (9GW141; also known as 9GW62), in the Holcomb Bridge Unit, is a V-shaped trap located a bit upstream from the Holcomb Bridge Road crossing, in Fulton County. It is approximately 65’ on one side, slanting to the V-notch, which is 8’ wide,
running another 100’ to the opposite river bank. This site was first reported in 1976 by professional archeologists, and Frazier located the site in 1995.

- Holcomb Bridge Fish Weir #2 or Simpson Woods Retreat Fish Dam (9GW 172, also known as 9GW63), Holcomb Bridge Unit, is located just downstream of Holcomb Bridge Fish Weir #1. No condition assessment is available.

- The so-called Isham’s Fish Dam lies about a half mile above the mouth of Sope Creek, just northeast of the Atlanta Country Club. It is also known as Heard’s Fish Trap/Heard’s Ferry Fish Dam and as Isom’s Fish Dam, although the pioneer whose name was given to the nearby ford in the river was Isham. It and the Settles Bridge weir are the only of the study area’s fish weirs that are W-shaped rather than V-shaped. This “fish dam” is the one noted in the Official Records as the route of Cameron’s Brigade (23rd Corps, 8th McCook’s Cavalry) when they crossed the river on July 9, 1864, as an advance guard to cover Schofield’s Army of the Ohio, which crossed the river on a pontoon bridge built that same day just below the mouth of Sope Creek. This may be the same fish dam that was illustrated in Harper’s Weekly in August 1864. This weir was not located in 1997, the most recently documented attempt to find it, but it is apparent in aerial photographs.

- Mulberry Creek Fish Weir (9Co142), Johnson’s Ferry Unit. This structure is located at the mouth of Mulberry Creek, about three-quarters of a mile south-southwest of the George Power House. The late J.C. Hyde, whose farm lies nearby, said George Power’s brother Pinkney Power had a fish dam in the Chattahoochee River below what is now Morgan Falls Dam between 1880-1890, and this may be that trap.

- Cochran’s Fish Dam (or Cochran’s Fish Trap) (9Co78), is located in the Cochran Shoals unit a little less than a mile above the Powers Ferry bridge, near the south end of the unit’s jogging trail. Not located during surveys in 1994 and 1997 but described as of timber construction in a 1972 assessment, it is clearly visible in aerial photographs.

Fish weirs not located for this study but noted in previous documentation include Stricklins Fish Trap on Suwanee Creek. Frazier was not able to locate this weir but noted that it was mentioned in Gwinnett County Inferior Court Records, 1832, page 339. Pace’s Ferry Fish Weir has also been documented as having existed between river miles 302 and 303.

**Significance and Integrity:** The fish weirs are the only structures in the study area that may pre-date white settlement, but the integrity of the weirs varies. All have suffered some degree of deterioration from erosion, flooding, boating, and vandalism. Nevertheless, their original form can be discerned, at least when viewed from the air, and they are important evidence of the Indians’ use of the river. These fish weirs should be formally evaluated by qualified archeologists to determine their eligibility as significant archeological sites. Eligible sites should be nominated to the National Register under Criterion D for their ability to provide important information about the subsistence practices of the historic and prehistoric peoples of the area.

**Roads**

As early as the 1920s, the use of automobiles for transportation began to transform the historic system of narrow dirt roads that developed in the study area in the 19th century. Roads have been straightened, widened, and paved, and some have been abandoned entirely. All of the ferries in the study area have disappeared, as have all of the wooden covered bridges, replaced by steel or concrete bridges in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. In spite of the dramatic changes in and around the study area in the late century, several significant elements of the historic system of roads and bridges remain intact.

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19. Pinkney Power was the youngest son of Isabella and Joseph Power and a younger brother of James C. and George A. Power. “Pink” Power also owned land near his brothers in the Hyde Road/Mt. Bethel area.
21. Ibid.
Although alignments have sometimes shifted with construction of new bridges and elimination of sharp curves, especially after World War II, a number of historic roads remain in active use in or through the study area, some dating to the earliest days of white settlement. These include Pace’s Ferry Road, Paper Mill Road, Johnson Ferry Road, Lower Roswell Road, Roswell Road, Holcomb Bridge Road, Medlock Bridge Road, State Bridge Road, Abbott’s Bridge Road, McGinnis Ferry Road, and the Cumming Highway. Other historic public roads have been partially or completely abandoned in the study area, including Hyde Road, Jones Bridge Road, Rogers Bridge Road, Settles Bridge Road, and Island Ford Road22 just below Buford Dam, but the trace of these roads remain evident on the landscape. Traces of several other abandoned roads are also evident in the study area, mostly local farm roads associated with the area’s agricultural past and roadways associated with the industrial development along Sope Creek. Traces of roads around Hyde Farm and the George Power House are especially significant examples of the local farm roads that once ran through the study area.

These roads played a significant role in development of the study area, but repaving, road widening, and other improvements have left most of them with little other than integrity of location. An exception is Paper Mill Road around Sope Creek, which retains its historic location and alignment and may be one of the few historic roads in the study area that is still in use but that has not been significantly widened or regraded. It retains integrity of feeling, association, and setting.

Although partially overgrown with vegetation, the road traces in the vicinity of Hyde Farm and the George Power House as well as those along the river nearby are still readily apparent and retain integrity of location, design, setting, and feeling. Without their presence, visitors have little sense of the area around Hyde Farm and the George Power House being other than trackless woodland.

**Significance and Integrity:** None of the roads through the study area possess the significance and integrity for individual listing on the National Register. However, Paper Mill Road may be eligible to the National Register as a contributing resource to an expanded Sope Creek Historic District. Likewise, Hyde Road and the other roads around Hyde Farm and the George Power House may be eligible to the National Register as contributing resources to an expanded George Power House Historic District and/or a yet-to-be-nominated Hyde Farm or other Historic District in the area.

**Bridges**

All of the wooden bridges in the study area are gone, but four historic steel-truss bridges cross the river in the study area, although they no longer carry vehicular traffic. Two of these bridges, Settles Bridge and Jones Bridge, are owned in whole or in part by the NPS, and efforts are underway to acquire Rogers Bridge, the most intact of the three. A fourth steel-truss bridge at Pace’s Ferry Road is owned by Cobb and Fulton Counties. There are also several 20th century concrete bridges that cross the river in the study area and at least three of these - Roswell Road (U.S. 19), U.S. 41, and the Cumming Highway (GA 20) - are old enough to be eligible for the National Register.

**Settles Bridge**

Located in the Settles Bridge unit near Suwanee, Settles Bridge was constructed about 1880 and is the oldest river bridge remaining in the study area. Newer bridges in the area rendered it obsolete, and the bridge has long been abandoned. The bridge is within the park’s authorized boundary, but neither

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22. There were apparently two “Island Fords,” one near present-day Buford Dam and the other further south near the park’s headquarters.
the land nor the bridge are wholly owned by the National Park Service. Gwinnett County abandoned the road leading to the east side of the structure and donated that land to the National Park Service along with the eastern half of the bridge. Ownership of the western half of the bridge and its approach remains with Forsyth County. Accessed by a half-mile gravel road that ends in a dirt parking area, Settles Bridge is a single-span, Pratt, through-truss design, the most common type of bridge built in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Although the bridge is still standing, it has deteriorated, and the original wooden decking is missing completely, rendering the bridge impassable even on foot. More significant, the concrete piers that support the eastern end of the bridge have been undermined by erosion of the river bank, which has even exposed the original wooden forms for pouring the piers’ concrete footings. The western end of the bridge rests on a stone abutment high above the water.

Significance and Integrity: Settles Bridge is potentially eligible to the National Register at the local level under Criteria A and C. The bridge is an example of once-common steel truss engineering and is the oldest remaining bridge in the study area. Although the bridge has lost its decking and no longer carries traffic of any kind, the main span over the river as well as much of the steel framing for the approach road on the eastern side of the river survive intact. Surviving elements of the bridge allow visitors to clearly understand its function, although integrity of materials and workmanship have been compromised by the loss of the decking. Integrity of setting, feeling, and association remain strong. As the oldest surviving span across the Chattahoochee River in the study area, Settles Bridge is an important reminder of the transition from fords and ferries to bridges as the primary means of crossing the river.

Jones Bridge
Located in the Jones Bridge Unit, Jones Bridge was completed in 1904 to replace a ferry at the site. John F. Martin, a Virginia native, acquired 2,500 acres of land in 1819 at the current site of Jones Bridge and, taking advantage of the surge in traffic following the 1832 “gold lottery” of former Cherokee lands, established a ferry. After his death, the property passed to his daughters and son-in-law, George H. Jones, and the ferry became known as Jones Ferry. It was operated by the Jones family until 1904, when Fulton and Gwinnett Counties built a toll bridge at the site, contracting with Roanoke Steel and Bridge Company to complete the project. The two counties shared bridge maintenance expenses until the Great Depression, when lack of funds, population changes, and the free state bridge upstream rendered Jones Bridge obsolete.

Originally composed of two separate spans, the span and approach on the Gwinnett County side of the river bank were stolen during World War II; the

23. The Pratt truss is identified by its diagonal members which, except for at the very end, slant down and in toward the center of the span. The horizontal members are called chords. A truss bridge is called “through” if the deck is on the bottom chord, which allows traffic to pass through the structure of the bridge. Carl W. Condit, American Building Art: The 19th Century (New York: Oxford University Press, 1960), 109-12.
which was popular from the late 19th century through the mid-20th century. Large cylindrical steel piers supported the junction of the two spans of the bridge riverbank, while the bridge’s west end rises in the midst of riverfront homes bordering the park boundary to the south. Part of the original sunken road leading to the ferry is visible on the west side of the bridge, although a large residence now occupies part of the old road bed.

**Significance and Integrity:** Although not as old as Settles Bridge, Jones Bridge is also potentially eligible to the National Register at the local level under Criterion C for its design and construction. Although one span is missing, because the bridge was built in repeating units the remaining span clearly conveys the bridge’s significance in the areas of engineering and transportation. The remaining portion of the bridge conveys integrity of materials, and the original design and workmanship are distinct. Also, while the integrity of setting has been compromised by recent riverside residential development at the base of the bridge on the west bank, the overall environs still convey integrity of location, setting, and feeling. Jones Bridge is also important as a representative of early bridges over the Chattahoochee, in particular of bridges at sites of the original ferry crossings.

**Rogers Bridge**

As noted in Chapter 1 of this study, the Rogers family figured prominently in the early history of the study area. Part Cherokee, brothers George and William Rogers had their land seized as part of the tribe’s removal from the state, although George Rogers successfully sued the state, resulting in invalidation of the state’s Indian removal laws in 1839. In the 1820s, the family established a ferry near the location of the present bridge, which was replaced by the present bridge in the last quarter of the 19th century. Spanning the Chattahoochee between Gwinnett and Fulton Counties, Rogers Bridge is located on a stretch of the river where most of the adjacent land remains privately owned. The construction date of this single-span bridge has not been documented, but the design suggests a construction date in the 19th century. Like Jones Bridge, Rogers Bridge uses a modification of the Parker “Camelback” truss.

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24. David Ek E-mail correspondence to Marti Gerdes, August 3, 2005.

Significance and Integrity: Rogers Bridge is potentially eligible to the National Register at the local level under Criteria A for its association with the Rogers family, who were among the area’s earliest settlers. One of their descendants was the noted American humorist Will Rogers. The bridge, and the ferry that preceded it, had a significant impact on the development of the study area as well. The bridge is also the best-preserved of the steel-truss bridges spanning the Chattahoochee River in the study area.

Roswell Road Bridge
The oldest concrete bridge spanning the river in the study area is part of the present Roswell Road (U.S. 19) bridge. The downstream half of the bridge was a two-lane, concrete, closed-spandrel, arch bridge built in 1924, the second of several toll-free bridges that the state constructed across the river in the 1920s and 1930s. In 1953, a two-lane, steel-stringer bridge was built adjacent to the first, and in 1985 the deck of the entire bridge was rebuilt.

Significance and Integrity: The Roswell Road Bridge is potentially eligible to the National Register under Criterion C. Located at one of the most historically significant river crossings in the study area, the bridge is just upstream from the now-flooded site of Shallow Ford, a crossing that gave rise to one of the major prehistoric Indian trails in the region and that was a primary route into the lands of the Cherokee Nation. A covered bridge was built near the location of the present bridge before the Civil War. Burned by the retreating Confederate army, it was immediately rebuilt by Union engineers and continued to serve until the original portion of the present bridge was constructed in 1924.

Design and materials set this bridge apart from the strictly utilitarian design of the steel-truss bridges built in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Improvements in the technology of concrete construction in the early 20th century sparked a renaissance in arch bridge construction, and at the same time, the nature of the material made possible architectural embellishments that were largely absent in steel-truss bridges. The present bridge was surveyed for the Historic American Engineering Record in 1976, and although the original concrete railing on the 1924 portion of the bridge was replaced in 1953, the bridge’s original concrete arches remain intact and in good condition.

U.S. 41 Bridge
The bridge that spans the Chattahoochee near the south end of the CRNRA’s Paces Mill unit was constructed in 1935 as part of the state’s first “dualized” (i.e., four-lane) highway. The bridge was apparently built prior to construction of the highway itself, which was opened in May 1937. The existence of this road was a major factor in the Bell Aircraft Corporation’s decision to locate its production plant at Marietta in 1942. The bridge is an early steel-girder bridge with reinforced-concrete road way and railings. Set on reinforced-concrete piers that may encase steel I-beams, the bridge is 515’ long and composed of ten spans, each 51’-6” long.

Significance and Integrity: Although the bridge is a type common in the 1930s, it is historically significant as one of the only elements of the original four-lane highway that remain intact. The bridge remains in relatively good condition, although certain elements are deteriorating. According to the DOT survey, “it is finished with particularly nicely proportioned concrete balustrades that flare slightly at the approaches... [and] is a fine example of bridge aesthetics.” The bridge is not owned by NPS, but the DOT survey concluded that it was eligible for National Register listing.

Little’s Ferry Bridge
Not much remains of this bridge, which was identified in the State’s survey of historic bridges as 9FU345 and thought to be the remains of the early 20th century bridge known as Little’s Ferry Bridge. The ruins consist of eight wooden pilings in fair condition, but the site has lost its integrity and was deemed ineligible for the National Register.

Farms
While there was a large agricultural community through the study area, little remains of the built environment that community created in the 19th and early 20th century. The most significant surviving cultural resources associated with historic farmsteads and agricultural development in the study area are Hyde Farm, the George Power House, the John Rogers House, and his son William Rogers’ Oakland, none of which are owned by the NPS but

26. Georgia Department of Transportation, Historic Bridge Survey, #121-0015-0.
all are within the authorized boundary of the Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area. Negotiations to transfer ownership of Hyde Farm to the NPS are underway as of this writing. The George Power House is owned by Cobb Landmarks and Historical Society, but most of the historic farmstead, including all of the land surrounding the home site itself, is part of the CRNRA. The two Rogers houses remain privately owned but would be some of the CRNRA’s most significant cultural resources if they ever come into NPS ownership.

Hyde Farm

Hyde Farm, which was originally developed by James Cooper Power (1814-1901), lies on the northwest bank of the Chattahoochee River north of and adjacent to the Johnson Ferry Unit in Cobb County. The farm and the adjacent George Power House farm had their origins in the 1830s, when Joseph and Isabella Power built a log house on a hill top on the northwest side of the river near what is now Morgan Falls. Power operated a ferry at a location just above Morgan Falls and acquired some 1300 acres of land between Willeo Creek and Johnson Ferry Road, including the land on which Hyde Farm, the George Power House, and the Gold Branch Terraces (see below) are located.

In 1832, Joseph Power’s brother James established the better-known Power’s Ferry near where present Interstate 285 crosses the river about six miles downstream from Morgan Falls. Joseph and Isabella Powers’ eldest daughter, Mary Elizabeth, married Joseph Martin and they established a farm near her parents’ farm. Likewise, Joseph and Isabella’s sons James Cooper, George Abner, and Pinkney Joseph married and established farms near their parents along what is now Hyde Road and Lower Roswell Road. Many of the descendants of pioneers Joseph and Isabella Power are buried in the Martin Cemetery, just northwest of Hyde Farm but outside the study area.

Around 1840, Joseph Power’s son James married Rosa Dodd Austin (1812-1894) and must have built the log house in Land Lot 221 that is at the core of Hyde Farm around that time. The Powers and their several children worked the farm for decades until 1874, when Civil War veteran James Hyde and his


27. The Powers’ eldest daughter married a Martin, thus the name of the cemetery.
family moved into the community and started sharecropping on the Power farm, the beginning of the Hyde family’s long tenure on the site. After the death of his wife, James Power spent his last years living nearby with his daughter Emily and her husband Richard Belton.

James Hyde and his family continued to work the old Power farm long after James Power died. The Hydes’ son Jesse worked on the farm, too, and he also worked on construction of nearby Morgan Falls Dam. In 1920, Jesse Hyde gained title to the old James Power homestead, which then encompassed 135 acres, and continued to farm the land until his death. His bachelor sons, J. C. and Buck, carried on the farming tradition using traditional methods, including mule-drawn plows. Even as east Cobb County was engulfed in suburban development in the 1960s, the Hyde brothers were famous for their fresh vegetables and other produce offered for sale off the back of their truck, which they would park at Bethel Methodist Church at the intersection of Power’s Ferry and Lower Roswell Roads.

When Buck Hyde died in 1991, inheritance taxes forced J.C. Hyde to sell off 40 acres of the farm’s bottom lands the following year, but he negotiated with the Trust for Public Land to insure that the remainder of the property would eventually become part of Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area. The 95 acres of Hyde Farm were to remain in possession of the Hyde family until J.C.’s death, with the Trust for Public Land having right of first refusal to purchase the remaining acreage at that time.

Hyde continued farming with his mules until shortly before his death in March 2004. In June 2004, Cobb County tentatively earmarked $720,000 of its “green-space” grant funds to the Trust for Public Land for help in acquiring the 95-acre parcel and transferring ownership to the National Park Service. NPS has long identified Hyde Farm as an important acquisition, and it is within the park’s authorized boundary. As of the date of this report (2006), Hyde Farm continues to be owned by the Hyde family, some of whom are contesting the terms of J. C. Hyde’s agreement with the Trust for Public Land.

Although parts of Hyde Farm are no longer under cultivation, much of the historic road system, fields, and fence lines are still visible, including in the bottom land along the river. The farm features eight historic outbuildings surrounding the main house. The main house at Hyde Farm is a small, end-gabled, log building with historic wood-framed additions on the west end. Facing in a northerly direction, the house is set on fieldstone piers and has a standing-seam metal roof. The house is L-shaped, measuring 46'-3" from east to west and 28'-5" from north to south. Gables on the original log building and the first addition rise to 18'-5" while the gable at the north end of the second addition is slightly lower.

Jesse Hyde expanded the Powers’ original log house around 1925 when he built a one-room, wood-framed addition at its west end. The addition is sided with beveled siding, and at the western end, there is a fieldstone chimney with a clay-based mortar. This chimney is flanked by two 6/6 windows. Two vinyl windows have replaced the original windows on the north and east elevations; one is fixed, the other is a 1/1 single-hung design. A small door is located on the north side of the addition. A one-room, wood-framed ell was added to the rear of the 1925 addition shortly after its construction. This addition served as a kitchen and was also finished with clapboard siding. It has a ridge line slightly lower than that of the main structure. The sides of the ell (east and west elevations) feature 6/6 windows and a door is located at the south end of the ell.

The surrounding landscape is characterized by gently sloping terrain with cultivated fields along the plateau southwest and north of the house. At least nine outbuildings are associated with the house. Most are clustered irregularly southwest of the house, but three, including the well house, are located to the north in front of the house.

- **Barn:** The largest remaining agricultural building on the site is a transverse crib barn (i.e. with two pairs of corncribs across from each other), circa 1910, that stands southwest of the main house. Oriented to the northeast, the barn is two-story, wood-framed, and set on a stone pier. Open sheds flank the barn on the east and west sides. The structure is 51'-5" by 31' and 24'-4" high at the gables. The barn is sheathed with vertical boards and roofed with standing-seam metal. A corral measuring approximately 48' by 60’ is located on the south side of the barn.

- **Corncrib:** Just northeast of the barn is a corncrib, circa 1850, which may be the only outbuilding remaining from James Power’s original farm. Oriented in a northwesterly direction, it is a single-crib, front-gabled structure set on stone piers. The structure measures 18'-5” on each side and is 14'-8” high.
Two doors on the western elevation provide access to the structure, one at ground level and a second providing access to the loft. Wood-framed, the structure is sheathed with vertical board siding and is covered with a sheet-metal roof.

- **Machine Shop/Garage.** A circa 1945 machine shop/garage is located a few feet north of the barn. Oriented toward the southeast, the structure is roughly square in plan, measuring 24’ by 23’, and is 15’- 3” high. The structure is only partially enclosed, with the enclosed part being the machine shop and also used for storage and the open part used as a garage. The structure is sheathed in clapboard and roofed with sheet-metal roofing.

- **Gear House.** Located four or five feet north of the garage, the gear house is a circa 1900 structure measuring about 14’ - 5” by 11’. Front gabled and facing in an easterly direction, the gear house stands about 12’ high. It is sheathed with wide boards and has a sheet-metal roof.

- **Shuck Shed.** The shuck shed, which also dates to the early 20th century, is located a few feet north of the gear house and is of nearly identical proportions to the gear house. It also measures 14’ - 5” by 11’ but is only 11’ - 2” high. The structure is sheathed with vertical board siding and has a corrugated metal roof.

- **Chicken Houses.** Two nearly identical circa 1950 chicken houses are located some distance away from the house to the west. Both measure 15’ by 30’ with rectangular plans and are front-gabled. Probably built for early commercial production, the houses are sheathed in clapboard and have long gable-front projections on the front and smaller shed additions on the rear.

- **Well House.** An open well house is situated beside the driveway a few yards northeast of the house. It appears to date to the early 20th century.

**Significance and Integrity:** Hyde Farm is potentially eligible to the National Register as an historic district under Criteria A and C. It is an exceptionally well-preserved example of farmsteads in the upper Georgia Piedmont with both antebellum and postbellum features. The property is representative of settlement patterns prior to the Civil War and illustrates the evolution of small farms in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. For Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area, the Hyde Farm represents a very rare surviving example of an intact vernacular agricultural landscape, with a main farmhouse, barn, numerous outbuildings, roadways and traces, distinct fields, and fence lines.

Hyde Farm retains a high degree of integrity of location, setting, design, materials, workmanship, and association. The original circa 1840 log portion of the house displays original materials and workmanship, and the wood-framed additions to the house and the eight surviving outbuildings demonstrate the evolution of the property over time. The setting clearly conveys a sense of farm life in the 19th and 20th centuries, with intact landscape elements and a feeling of quiet solitude despite being surrounded by suburban development.
The George Abner Power House (also known as the Power Cabin) occupies a 2.5-acre tract adjacent to and southwest of Hyde Farm. Although owned and operated by Cobb Landmarks and Historical Society, the house is surrounded by land owned by the NPS. The house sits at the end of a long ridge about a quarter mile from the west bank of the Chattahoochee River just downstream from Morgan Falls Dam.\textsuperscript{30}

The house was built by George Abner Power (1821-1914), brother to James Cooper Power, who built the main house at Hyde Farm around 1840. As noted above, George and James Power were the sons of some of the earliest settlers in the area, Joseph and Isabella Power, who first arrived in Cobb County around 1832, when George was still a boy. The character of the house’s construction suggests that it was built not long after George’s marriage in 1843 to Winifred Copeland (1821-1898). They established a 320-acre farm and raised twelve children in the log and wood-framed house above the river.\textsuperscript{31} Winifred Power died in 1898. Five years later, eighty-two-year-old George Power married Elizabeth “Betty” A. Barrett, a 58-year-old widow. The new Power household included Betty’s daughter and granddaughter, all of whom lived with George Power until his death in 1914. They continued to rent the house from George Power’s heirs until George and Winifred Power’s son Charles Geiger Power bought out his relatives’ interest in the property in 1919. After Charles Power’s death in 1925, ownership of the house and surrounding acreage passed to his wife Eva and their several children. After Eva Power’s death in 1947, the property passed to their children, who continued to rent the house.

The house was used as a part-time hunting lodge throughout the 1950s and most of the 1960s, during which time it underwent significant alterations, including the creation of a new window opening in the log pen and partial removal of the loft floor. Around 1960, the Power heirs sold the western half of George Power’s farm for residential development, reducing the Power Farm to about 82 acres. In 1971, the Power heirs rented the house to a tenant who remains in residence at the house in 2006.

When Winnie Power Groover, one of the heirs of Charles Power, died in 1979, her children inherited her forty acres of the old George Power farm. They sold it to the National Park Service in 1985. When the other living heir of Charles Power, his son George, died in 1995, his 80-acre tract, including the house, was conveyed to his widow, Virginia Wing Power, who in turn conveyed it to the Trust for Public Land in 1996. The following year the Trust for Public Land conveyed 80 acres surrounding the homestead to the National Park Service. At the same time, the house and 2-1/2 acres were conveyed to Cobb Landmarks and Historical Society, which now manages the site. Cobb Landmarks commissioned a

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{FIGURE15.png}
\caption{View southwest of George Power House. (Marti Gerdes, NPS-SERO-CRD, 2005)}
\end{figure}

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{FIGURE16.png}
\caption{View northeast rear of Power House. (Marti Gerdes, NPS-SERO-CRD, 2005)}
\end{figure}

\textsuperscript{30} “Cabin” was a term generally used for a small, crudely constructed, and often temporary structure, which this building was not.

study of the house in 1999 and rehabilitated it for continued residential use in 2001. The house is listed in the National Register. The NPS maintains a conservation easement on the 2.5-acre parcel on which the cabin is situated, but has no ownership interest in the cabin.

The house is a one- and-one-half-story house that evolved from a single-pen log building. A wood-framed room was added to the east end of the log pen in the 1850s and a wood-framed kitchen was added to the rear (south) of the log pen in the 1860s. The log pen and the kitchen both have large stone fireplaces and chimneys located on the northwest side of the house. Despite modifications, including significant alterations to the building’s fenestration in the 1960s and to the roof in the 1970s, the house still retains much of its historic character.

Facing in an easterly direction, the original log pen is about 18′-5″ by 22′ in plan with gables rising to about 12′ and features a full-width front porch. The house is set on fieldstone piers with hewn oak sills that measure around 10″ by 11″ in the log pen and 9″ by 10″ in the antebellum addition. The kitchen is set on circular-sawn oak sills measuring about 4″ by 8″, suggesting that it is a post-bellum addition. The log pen has nine courses of hewn logs, mostly pine and poplar, with half-dovetail joints. Floor, ceiling, and roof framing for the log pen and framing for the antebellum addition utilized sash-sawn lumber, while framing for most of the kitchen addition utilized circular-sawn material. The log pen and the kitchen addition are finished with board-and-batten siding. The antebellum addition is finished with clapboards. The only historic window opening that remains unaltered is at the east end of the antebellum addition, but even its sash may have been replaced. The original wood-shingled roofing was replaced with sheet-metal roofing in the early 20th century; the existing metal roofing dates to 2001.

The well was dug shortly after the Civil War and continues to provide water for the house. Two modern wood-framed sheds, constructed in 2001, are located near the end of the terrace on the south side of the house. Most of the old farm roads can still be identified around the site, although only the road leading from Hyde Road remains in use. The remains of George Power’s original terracing of the land are still evident as are the remains of a split rail fence line. George Power never built a barn, and all of the other historic outbuildings associated with the farm were reportedly burned by a tenant in the late 1930s.

**Significance and Integrity:** Like Hyde Farm, the George Power House is potentially eligible to the

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National Register under Criteria A and C as representative of the small farmsteads in the river corridor before and after the Civil War. The house retains its integrity of location, design, setting, feeling and association, but materials and workmanship were compromised by incompatible additions and alterations in the third quarter of the 20th century. The integrity of location and setting are especially strong, with some of the original roads still in use, fence lines recognizable, and some agricultural land still under cultivation, all of which conveys the property’s historic character.

The building’s original design (with subsequent historic additions) also reflects original functions and aesthetic choices. Some of the original siding remains intact, including that on the south wall, the northeast corner, and on the east elevation of the original house. Beneath the house’s new siding, the original log pen remains intact, although compromised by alterations to window and door openings in the 1960s. The fieldstone fireplaces and the majority of stone foundation piers are original or were restored with in-kind materials and workmanship. The landscape and overall setting retain an exceptionally high degree of integrity.

**Rogers Historic District**

John Rogers (1774-1851) settled on the eastern (now Gwinnett County) side of the Chattahoochee in the early 1800s. He married Sarah Cordery, who was half Cherokee and whose sisters were also the matriarchs of several prominent families in the area. During the War of 1812, Rogers served on the staff of Gen. Andrew Jackson, who is thought to have stayed at the house when he was in the area in 1820. Some sources say that he dismantled his original house and moved it to the western (now Fulton County) side of the river around 1819, while others claim he built a new house, the so-called Rogers Mansion House, on the western side of the river in 1831. The house is located on Rogers Circle in the Shakerag community in north Fulton County, near where the family operated a ferry at the present site of Rogers Bridge. John and Sarah Rogers’ son William Rogers (1805-1870) also built a house, called Oakland, near his parents’ house and is buried with them in the nearby family cemetery.

**Significance and Integrity:** Because of associations with a family that played a major role in early settlement in the northern part of the study area, there is the potential for a National Register district in that area, as recommended in the 1980 survey of park resources. Nomination would depend on the integrity of the resources, particularly the Rogers houses, which could not be ascertained during the course of this study. Because most of these resources, including the homes of John and William Rogers, remain privately owned, creation of a National Register district would have to be done in partnership with private land owners and the State.

These properties are potentially eligible to the National Register with local significance under Criteria A. Depending on their integrity, which cannot be evaluated without further study, the houses may also be significant architecturally Criterion C. Will Rogers (1879-1935), the noted American humorist, was related to the family of John Rogers, although he may not have been a direct descendant, as has often been claimed.

**Mills**

All of the known cultural resources associated with the industrial development of the river corridor within or adjacent to the study area lie in three distinct concentrations of structures and ruins on Big Creek (Roswell Manufacturing Company and Ivy/Laurel Mills), Sope Creek (Marietta Paper Company), and Rottenwood Creek (Akers or Banner Mill). These resources demonstrate both the development and the decline of water-powered industry.

33. In the 1960s, the cabin was modified for use as a hunting lodge. Among other changes, most original window openings were enlarged and new windows were created. Because it is a log structure, reversing changes to the windows was not possible without replacing entire walls of logs, which was not warranted given the ongoing residential use of the building. Also, because deed restrictions called for lifetime residency of the caretaker, the 2001 rehabilitation required making the structure viable as a residence long term and year-round, which resulted in necessary compromises. (Conversation with NPS historian Tommy Jones, June 23, 2005.)


in the study area. Likewise, they illustrate the intensification of use at individual sites as well as the inevitable shift in focus from direct water power to steam power and, in the 20th century, electrical power sources such as the Morgan Falls hydroelectric facility. Morgan Falls Dam has been described but not evaluated because it is owned by Georgia Power Company and there is little likelihood that the National Park Service will acquire the structure. In addition the extant and ruined buildings of the Roswell Manufacturing Company’s mills on Big Creek, while outside the authorized boundaries of the CRNRA, are an important part of the context for understanding the other mills and so are included here.

**Roswell Manufacturing Company**

The Roswell Manufacturing Company complex along Big Creek is the most intact of the mills in the study area. The site includes the 1883 factory, now adapted for offices, the 1854 machine shop, the remains of two dams, and various ruins and archeological remnants associated with the factory, some dating to the mill’s original construction in 1838. Most of these resources are located on the western bank of Big Creek, outside the boundaries of the CRNRA, but at least part of the mill’s dams are located on NPS lands.

The best-preserved building in the complex is the 1883 warehouse, which was rehabilitated for shops and offices around 1980. With modern additions, it is a sprawling wood-framed structure finished with board- and-batten siding and features factory window walls that flood the interior with natural light.

The oldest extant structure on the site is the 1854 machine shop built into the hillside below the 1883 building. It is a three-story brick building set on a stone foundation, with a brick dentil course at the top of the walls on all four sides. The gabled roof is finished with modern, green, standing-seam metal roofing. No sash remain in any of the window openings, all of which have been recently closed with wooden louvers. In December 2004, a new gravel road was completed to the building from the west, and on the east end of the machine shop, a covered wooden pedestrian bridge across the creek was completed in fall 2004.

The machine shop derived power from the flume/race that connected the 1838 and 1854 factories. Presumably the first floor contained the waterwheel mechanism that conveyed power to the machinery on the second floor. A wing-wall that once formed one side of the tailrace downstream from the building extends approximately 30 feet to a point where the water entered an elevated wooden flume en route to the 1838 factory and later the turbine for the 1883 factory.

In the 1990s several small-scale archeological explorations were conducted by Southeastern Archeological Services of Athens, Georgia, at both the site of the Roswell Manufacturing Company as well as the Laurel/Ivy Mill site downstream. The purpose of the investigations at the Roswell Manufacturing Company site was to determine the exact site of the original 1838 factory. The survey located elements of the millrace, the remnants of stone piers used to carry the elevated flume, a turbine and
associated machinery associated with the 1883 factory, and rough stone and hewn granite foundation wall remnants believed to be the south wall of the 1838 factory and later used as the tailrace to the turbine assembly. 36

The turbine discharged southwest from the turbine housing into a tailrace extending approximately 59 feet toward the creek. The excavated earthen tailrace is approximately 28 feet wide. A portion of the northeast wall of the tailrace is presumed to be the south foundation wall of the 1838 factory. The wall is composed of both rough stone and hewn granite and measures approximately 41 feet in length. The remainder of the presumed site of the 1838 factory is buried under sediment and obscured by foliage. However, the topography of the site suggests an irregular area of level elevated ground uphill from the exposed foundation wall/tailrace wall, thus indicating the area where the body of the factory most likely stood.37

Upstream from the machine shop stand the ruins of the 1854 factory and the main dam and mill pond for the mill. The ruins of the 1854 factory are more visible than those of the 1838 factory and lie scattered on the wooded hillside east of the machine shop. The ruins are composed of fieldstone and coursed ashlar foundations, partial brick walls, and old machinery. Like the 1838 factory, some portions have been covered by sediment although the footprint of the main factory and the picking shed38 on the hillside above remain discernible. The ashlar wall sections butt up against the fieldstone wall segments; all are dry-laid. The original overshot waterwheel, 16 by 20 feet in diameter and weighing about 4,500 pounds, was mounted on a solid steel shaft. The wheel is gone but the turbine and flywheel remain in position today.

Near the top of the hill above the 1838 picking shed (and just below the pedestrian access to the mill site from Sloan Street at Founders Cemetery), numerous smaller-scale resources can still be found. Further down the embankment is the most intact element at the site – the large metal turbine and penstock and the corrugated metal shed used to shelter them from the weather. One wall of the metal shed is parged brick. The turbine was located at the base of the hill just above the natural floodplain. The turbine was fed by a large cast-iron flume approximately 36" in diameter that still runs east and parallel to the creek. Today, only the bottom half of the flume remains as the top portion was cut off and sold for salvage in the 1960s. While it is known that water discharged from the turbine returned to the mill race en route to the lower machine shop and on to the 1838 factory (and later the turbine for the 1883 factory), the tailrace is not immediately evident at the 1854 site. Further, archeological excavations have not been conducted to determine its dimensions or construction. Given the proximity of the turbine to ground level and the emergence of the race downstream near the machine shop, it can be presumed that the race was excavated and lined with stone.

Approximately 100 yards upstream from the 1854 factory site stands the main dam that was constructed along with the other improvements in 1854. The dam is a gravity dam constructed with rough-cut stone and rises approximately 40 feet in height above the stream bed. The gate housing – used to feed water at the head into the metal flume – was built into the north bank of the creek. Gates at the dam controlled the flow of water through the raceway or flume, and a head gate with steel rakes kept most debris from entering the flume and damaging the waterwheel. Water from this raceway furnished power for the original mill and for a second mill building constructed downstream in 1883. An L-shaped mortared fieldstone wall approximately five feet in height stands approximately 10 feet upstream from the dam, apparently to divert water toward the gate. Today, water spills freely over the dam and the gate, creating a waterfall to the stream below. A contemporary pipeline runs from the base of the dam down the creek then crosses the waterway about 200' further down the hill.

Significance and Integrity: Most of the ruins of the Roswell Manufacturing Company are included in the Roswell Historic District, listed on the National Register in 1974. According to Wood’s archaeological survey of the site in 1989, the Roswell mill complex “may easily be one of the most significant textile industry sites in Georgia.”39 Wood notes:

37. Ibid., 20-22.
38. The Picker-Lapper House, as it was known, was where cotton bales were opened, seeds and debris removed, and the cotton blended (“laps” are large balls of cotton). D. A. Tompkins, Cotton Mill Commercial Features (Charlotte: D. A. Tompkins, 1899), 162-67.
Undoubtedly, it is one of the most intact textile sites in existence in the state. The original Roswell factory represents one of the earliest cotton mills built in Georgia. Over 125 years of evolution in the textile industry is represented at the site. Fortunately, each time a new factory building was constructed it was placed in a new location. Two intact turbines, generators, much of the mill's foundations, walls, and raceways are still intact or partially evident today. The 1854 machinery shop is still standing and has received some renovation work. The unique opportunity for the public to observe the evolution of waterpower use in the textile industry is readily apparent at the Roswell Mills. Fortunately, most of the site is already included in the Roswell Historic District and is listed on the National Register of Historic Places.  

Laurel Mills
Abandoned in the 1920s, the ruins of Laurel Mills lie on the west bank of Big Creek near its mouth at the Chattahoochee River, with the site bisected by Riverside Drive. All of the resources associated with the mills are owned and managed by the National Park Service, but a sewer easement topped by the City of Roswell's board walk crosses the site parallel to the river a few yards from its northern bank. In 1992 a selective archeological survey was conducted by Southeast Archeological Services to determine the distribution of cultural resources at this site, most of which is now part of the City of Roswell's Riverside Park. Ruins of several structures related to the mill are located on the site, but the area south of Riverside Drive is fenced, overgrown and inaccessible. Located on NPS land north of Riverside Drive are remnants of the mill dam and traces of the head and tail races. Significant archeological samples were taken in the area to determine the distribution of artifacts in an effort to confirm the boundaries of the complex and the locations of specific structures known to exist from the Sanborn Insurance maps. The site is obscured by heavy vegetation and silt.

The main mill and picker house site lie south of Riverside Drive near the west bank of Big Creek. The most prominent part of the ruins is a portion of the stone walls of the picker house (circa 1900). Two stone walls that once formed the southwest corner of the picker house run approximately 35' to 45' in length and rise 5'. A second lower wall that was once part of the north wall of the picker house was also located.

40. Ibid.

Located north of Riverside Drive on Big Creek, the mill dam ruins are very close to the existing parking lot at the southern trail head. Evidence of the dam is present on both banks, but the most significant portion lies on the eastern bank, as the western bank has suffered greater erosion. The dam segment on the eastern bank is a dry-laid, rough-stone structure, possibly of partial earthen construction. The segment on the western bank would have housed the gate and the beginning of the headrace, but neither is evident today. The trace of the millrace emerges from the landscape just south of the dam. Although no formal excavation has been conducted, the race appears to be constructed of earthen berms except in one small area south of the dam where reinforced walls were located. The walls are thought to relate to an unidentified structure that once stood adjacent to the race at that location.

Near where the race would have intersected present-day Riverside Drive, the water was conducted into a raised wooden flume and distributed to the picker house and main mill building. An earthen tailrace begins at the southwest corner of the picker house and appears to have run on course with the raised flume to the main mill, where the wooden flume terminated at the waterwheel/turbine housing. This point is marked by a low brick arch that crosses the race and was probably part of the foundation for the waterwheel and/or turbine housing. At this point the discharge water from both the picker house and main mill merged and the tailrace continued due south to the Chattahoochee River.

**Significance and Integrity:** The site of Laurel Mill has very little structural integrity, with the ruins of the mills in poor condition. Only a partial dam, scattered wall remnants, and parts of the millrace remain intact. The proximity of the mills to the river’s floodplain, heavy vegetation, and the paucity of above-ground resources also make the site difficult to interpret. However, the ruins of Laurel/Ivy Woolen Mills are potentially eligible to the National Register as an archeological site under Criterion D. Like the Roswell Manufacturing Company, the site is associated with the industrial revolution in the South and was significant for its contributions to the Confederate war effort.

**Marietta Paper Company**

In 1902, a fire did major damage to the Marietta Paper Company’s mill on Sope Creek, and its owners decided to close the mill. Abandoned, the buildings were allowed to deteriorate. The rugged terrain along Sope Creek prevented development in the immediate area as suburban residential development swept across east Cobb County in the 1960s, but the site was mined for its materials, particularly stone for building and landscaping. On Halloween night 1970, vandals torched the covered bridge over Sope Creek, leaving only the stone abutments and iron beams with which the bridge had been reinforced.

The Marietta Paper Mill ruins, which are owned and managed by the National Park Service, include structures on both the east and west banks of Sope Creek, including structural and retaining walls, chimneys, and piers. Ruined buildings include the main paper mill (Mill No. 1), the pulp mill (Mill No. 2), a series of stone piers that once carried an elevated flume, and the remains of a dam. The ruins at Sope Creek are easier to access and read than...
those at the Roswell Manufacturing Company since extensive ruins remain at the Sope Creek site. The ruins were listed on the National Register of Historic Places in 1973.

The main paper mill ruins lie on the east side of Sope Creek downstream from the bridge. The ruins of the main paper mill (Mill #1) measure approximately 210’ by 45’, with the long axis parallel to the stream. The plan is clearly visible with all four exterior walls at least partially intact, sometimes reaching heights of 25’. The interior masonry walls that divided the structure into five rooms also remain evident. Ruins of the boiler house lie across the trace of a road east of the main mill building and have been identified as the remnants of the boiler room. On the south side of a small stream that enters Sope Creek south of the main mill structure, there is a small stone structure, roughly 25’ by 15’ and believed to have been the oil house. Between that structure and the stream is a large stone retaining wall. The wall is in good condition, but the oil house is so badly deteriorated that only the plan of the building can still be discerned.

About 150 yards north of the main factory building are the ruins of the storage warehouse. Its construction is typical of all structures on the site – rough-cut stone and rubble laid in a red clay mortar. The collapsed walls are substantial enough to read the building’s footprint. Evidence of the dam is visible on both sides of the stream south of the storage warehouse. Below the dam ruins, a series of 27 stone piers appears between the road trace and Sope Creek. These piers, which carried a flume from the dam to the main factory, are spaced about 10’ on center and, like the other structures at the site, are badly deteriorated.44

On the west bank of Sope Creek, just south of Paper Mill Road, stands the ruins of the pulp-grinding mill (Mill No. 2). The ruins are composed of partial exterior walls and a half basement with interior foundation piers. The load-bearing walls and interior piers are constructed of irregular cut stone and rubble laid with red clay mortar. The footprint mea-

44. The first ten piers from the north are in good condition; the next two have disintegrated, the next three are in good condition, the next is disintegrated, the next is partially disintegrated, the following four are in good condition, the next is disintegrated, the next two are in good condition, the next four are partly deteriorated, the last is collapsed.
FIGURE 27. View of piers of millrace to Mill #1. (Marti Gerdes, NPS-SERO-CRD, 2005)


The long axis of the structure runs north-south parallel to the creek. The exterior walls vary in levels of deterioration, rising as high as 20 feet in places. The walls on the south side are reinforced with stone buttresses. The building's original fenestration is still evident, having nine bays across the long side and six bays across the ends, illustrating a building with a regular and apparently symmetrical appearance. Just west of these ruins are the ruins of another structure of similar stone construction. The two buildings are only about 10’ apart. The second building measures approximately 60’ by 30’ with the long side parallel to the road. The ragged partially collapsed walls reach as high as 15’.

Hugging the hillside on the east bank of Sope Creek, where the bridge crosses at Paper Mill Road, is the trace of the mill road with its downslope stone retaining wall. Sections of the wall are in excellent condition – with extant evidence of the skilled craftsmanship used to shape this wall – while much of it has eroded. The wall continues, although broken and eroded in many places, down to the site of Mill #1. There is also evidence that originally two sets of retaining walls formed the roadbed (or formed two roadways, one more elevated). The one closest to the creek bank is mostly washed away, although short sections of this wall are extant about halfway between the road and Mill #1.

A chimney stack stands alone on the ridge above the mill site. The fieldstone chimney is approximately 20 feet tall with a firebox opening on one side. The chimney is shouldered at 10’ or 12’ feet above grade. Another rubble pile in the vicinity appears to have been a second chimney. Subtle foundation traces and the relative location of the standing stack to the rubble pile suggest a small double-pen house with an ell. While the structure has been associated with the mill because of proximity, nothing in the historical record ties this structure to the paper mill. It would appear to be equally likely to have been associated with either early agricultural settlement or one of the earlier water-powered enterprises such as Denmead’s Mill. North of Paper Mill Road and upstream from the pulp mill on the west bank of Sope Creek are the ruins of the machine shop that served the complex, and the remnants of the dam used to power the pulp mill. These resources, however, are beyond the boundary of the CRNRA.

**Significance and Integrity:** Of the existing industrial resources in the study area, the Marietta Paper Mills site retains the highest degree of integrity. The remote location and steep terrain have discouraged development, and its inclusion in the CRNRA has led to structural stabilization and efforts to prevent resource mining (namely the removal of wall stone for landscaping). Integrity of location, feeling, set-
ting, and association are strong. The integrity of materials, design, and workmanship varies in different portions of the site, but is quite powerful in many places.

The ruins of the mills are listed in the National Register45 (see Appendix) with historical significance in the areas of prehistory and industry as well as for its associations with the Civil War. The National Register nomination, which was completed in 1973, should be amended to define the ruins as a “site” rather than a “district.”46 The nomination’s statement of significance should also be re-evaluated to more accurately reflect current knowledge about the site.

**Akers or Banner Mill**

The ruins of Akers Mill, sometimes referred to as Banner Mill, are sandwiched between Rottenwood Creek and the steep slope descending from the Kennedy Interchange at Cumberland Boulevard and Interstate 75. Located just inside the CRNRA boundaries, the badly deteriorated ruins are difficult to access but include the remains of a dam and foundation of a bridge built of dry-laid stone. The mill was probably wood framed, but the abundant loose rubble throughout the site suggests that significant portions of the complex were built with stone. A long, low stone wall approximately 150 feet in length and a series of stone piers run parallel to the creek above the mill site, suggesting the same excavated race and raised flume method used at the others sites. Overall, the site has suffered a fair amount of disturbance from utility development and, more indirectly, from construction of the nearby interstate exchange.

**Significance and Integrity:** Although in ruins, Akers Mill is the best-preserved grist mill site in the study area. Like Laurel Mills, it has lost integrity because of structural deterioration and the fact that it is obscured by vegetation. Nevertheless, it should be considered potentially eligible to the National Register under Criterion A for its capacity to illustrate the development of water-powered industry in Georgia. Together with the other mill sites it contributes to a tangible pattern of early industry in the study area and provides ample opportunity for future industrial archeological studies. Future National Register documentation for this and the other mill sites should approach them collectively, either as a discontinuous district or as parts of a Multiple Property Submission.

**Residences**

In addition to rural farmsteads, there are three NPS-owned residences in the study area that are unrelated to the area’s agricultural past. The most significant of these is Allenbrook, built in the 1850s for the superintendent of Ivy Mills. Extant cultural resources related to early suburban development of the study area are limited, but two properties are significant. Both are located in the lower half of the park’s discontinuous units, with their proximity to Atlanta a key factor in their origins.

The Collins-Yardum property in the Palisades Unit includes four structures ranging from a well to a residence used as recently as 2000. The Island Ford Lodge complex, a circa 1935 retreat for a wealthy Atlanta family, is now park headquarters and a visitor contact station. The complex includes the lodge building and associated landscape features.

**Allenbrook**

Although it is a residential building, Allenbrook47 is associated with the mills along Vickery Creek.

**45.** Listed under the name “Sope Creek Ruins.”

**46.** National Register Bulletin #16, 15. The National Register of Historic Places defines a “site” in part as “ruins of historic buildings.”

**47.** Sometimes referred to as “Allenbrook House,” the house was not part of a large estate or plantation and should be referred to simply as Allenbrook.
having been built as a residence for the superintendent of Ivy Mills. It is the most intact of the cultural resources in the Vickery Creek unit and is architecturally significant as a rare example in Georgia of an I-house built in brick rather than wood. Thought at one time to be associated with Roswell Mills, Allenbrook was actually constructed as a residence for Barrington King’s son James when he was constructing Ivy Mill in the mid-1850s.48 The building, situated on a 3.34-acre parcel of land on the west side of Big Creek, is oriented to the south facing Atlanta Street. To the north, the land slopes away for about 150’ of grassy yard before dropping steeply to Big Creek.

The name Allenbrook is not contemporary with either the building’s construction but was given to the house when it was purchased and renovated by Barnett Allen Bell in the early 1930s.49 In 1978, Bell’s widow sold the house to the National Park Service, which intended to use the house as the entrance to the park’s Vickery Creek Unit. Instead, the house stood vacant for several years, however, until the Roswell Historical Society, working with the City of Roswell and the National Park Service, rehabilitated Allenbrook for their headquarters. The historical society moved into the house in June 1984 and remained there through 1991.50 After the historical society vacated the building, Allenbrook was used as a park employee’s residence through 1997. It has been vacant since that time.51

Occupying a footprint about 41’ by 34’, Allenbrook is a two-story, hipped-roof, masonry building with a one-story, shed-roofed range of rooms across the rear of the main block.52 Walls are 18” thick at the first floor and constructed of hand-made brick laid in a four-course common bond. The foundation is coursed fieldstone, and two chimneys rise at the rear of the main block of the house. A series of triangular brick dentils, five courses high, finish the tops of the walls. Window and door openings are created by jack arches, and windows have board-and-batten shutters and double-hung, six-over-six sash. The roof lines of three different porches are evident in ghost lines on the front of the house. A brick terrace, constructed by the Bells using brick salvaged from one of the nearby mills, is present, but the two-story porch they built in the 1930s is no


50. The Mill Wheel; and Elaine DeNiro, Roswell Historic Society, E-mail to Marti Gerdes, February 17, 2005.


52. The shed-roofed rooms at the rear of the house are sometimes erroneously referred to as an “addition.” A one-story range of rooms at the rear of the main, two-story block is typical of I Houses or the plantation-plain style, as the I-house type was referred to in this region. Note that the construction of the exterior walls of the buildings read as one piece between the main block of the house and the rear rooms with no change in appearance or materials.
longer present. A small shed-roofed porch with boxed columns, reconstructed by the NPS, covers the stoop at the rear entrance.

The main block of the house originally had two rooms and a central hall on each floor with a steep, narrow stairway between floors. The original stairway, which rose from the rear of the house, was replaced in the 1930s and the center hall on the second floor was subdivided for closets. Flooring is heart pine, 11-12” wide, that was stained and varnished by the Bells.

Significance and Integrity: Allenbrook is not part of the Roswell Historic District but is potentially eligible for individual listing on the National Register. It has potential local significance under Criterion A for its association with the Ivy Woolen Mills and may even be considered to have state-wide significance under Criterion C as a rare example of a brick I house in Georgia. The original front porch was replaced prior to the 1930s. Rehabilitation of the house by the Bells included alterations to the floor plan and replacement of some significant features, including the stairway to the second floor and the front porch. Nevertheless, the house retains much of its original character and, in spite of much of the surrounding area having reverted to forest, the integrity of location, setting, and feeling remains strong. Integrity of materials and craftsmanship have been diminished by modern efforts at rehabilitation but have not destroyed the building’s historic character.

The Collins-Yardum House
A good example of an early suburban residence in the study area, the Collins-Yardum property is located in the Palisades Unit on the east side of the river in Fulton County. Owned and managed by NPS, this property includes the main house, a stone- and-concrete outbuilding, the foundation of a tenant/caretaker’s house, and a well. The site is on a bluff above and well back from the river in a mixed pine and hardwood forest. Irregular flower beds extend from several sides of the house and there are walkways with fieldstone borders. The front yard features three large circular beds also bordered with fieldstone surrounding large trees. The lower half of the driveway is edged by similar stonework.53

53. Ibid.
lot. The available deed information does not indicate when this house was built, but maintenance records and interior fixtures indicate it was constructed circa 1936 and renovated after World War II. The house was deeded to Effie Austin Collins sometime after 1945, then deeded to Ruth Yardum as trustee for Effie J. Collins in 1970.

The tenant house was occupied until the mid-1980s by Americus and Inez Gaither. Mr. Gaither worked as gardener/handyman for the Collins family and was granted a life estate in the tenant house after the National Park Service acquired the property in 1979. The caretaker’s house was demolished in 1995 after the Gaithers relocated, but the NPS used the main house as a ranger residence from 1979 until 2000. The building has stood vacant since that time. Funds for maintaining the house have been inadequate, and deterioration has been evident for years.

The house is a one-story building measuring 51’-3” by 37’-5” in plan and with walls 12’-2” high. The asphalt-shingled roof is gabled at the front and hipped at the rear with a cross gable on the east side of the house. The full-width front porch has an unusual side-gabled roof that engages the front gable of the main roof. The stone veneer with broadly beaded mortar joints is the most outstanding architectural feature of the house, since stone construction appears in fewer than 2 percent of the surveyed Craftsman bungalows in Georgia. The stonework on the Collins-Yardum House is unusual, with large vertically oriented granite slabs interspersed among flat, horizontally coursed fieldstone. The front porch is supported by three tapered stone columns and a waist-high stone balustrade with concrete coping. A stone chimney rises at the ridge line.

Behind the house is a late-20th century carport connected by a contemporaneous breezeway carried on metal posts. The other structures associated with the Collins-Yardum House are a stone-and-concrete outbuilding, a well, and the foundation of a servant’s house.

- The origins and purpose of the stone-and-concrete outbuilding built into the side of the hill east of the main house are uncertain. A property appraiser identified it as a

54. Cordell letter to Luce.
smokehouse. Although wood charcoal was noted in the building, the presence of the two concrete vent stacks and the lack of soot on the interior walls and ceiling makes this conclusion improbable. It has also been speculated that the building’s construction partially below grade and its ventilation system indicate that it may have been used for the treatment and storage of wild game, or as a storehouse, but that too seems improbable. The structure appears to post-date construction of the main house, and it is quite possible that it was built as a storm shelter or perhaps even as a fallout shelter during the early years of the Cold War. The structure measures 14'-6" by 16'-3" in plan with foot-thick walls 7'-5" high. A reinforced-concrete slab forms the roof; walls are fieldstone and granite. The interior features a dirt floor with a 4'-high concrete wainscot along the rear wall. The side walls have embedded stones that act as shelves. On the southeast side is the only opening, a single doorway framed by pegged wood timbers with a metal reinforcement bar. The door itself is missing. The building features two roof-top ventilators of cast-concrete. The pipe sections are approximately 2'-4" long and 10" in diameter.

The well, located about 75 feet northeast of the house, measures approximately 6' in diameter and is about 55' deep. The wellhead is a circular stone wall rising about 2' above grade. Masonry is similar to that on the main house, but some of the stone was parged with cement during what was intended as repointing. The well has been capped with concrete inset with slate. Some of the stonework has eroded beneath the outflow pipe on the east elevation.

The ruins of the caretaker’s house lie approximately 30’ east-northeast of the main house and consist of mortared fieldstone foundation walls. The structure appears to have been approximately 20’ by 24’ in plan. It reportedly had a kitchen, living room with fireplace, bathroom, bedroom, and a 22’ by 6’-3” screened porch.

**Significance and Integrity:** Most of the windows are boarded up, and some or all of the original sash have been replaced with aluminum-framed, two-over-two sash. With the exception of the windows, the house is intact and retains virtually all of its character-defining architectural features reflective of the Craftsman style and bungalow house type. The Collins-Yardum House has been determined to be eligible to the National Register by the Georgia SHPO, but documentation of the property remains to be completed. It is significant at the local level under National Register Criterion C as a representative example of a Craftsman bungalow in Georgia. The stone masonry of the house is distinctive. The associated outbuilding and well are also significant under National Register Criterion C for their unusual masonry and are important components of the complex.

The Collins-Yardum House retains a high degree of integrity of location and setting, design, materials, and workmanship, and association with the late 1800s-early 1900s trend of establishing family-owned vacation retreats near large cities. Its original circa 1936 construction is significant because it falls...
bought the property in 1925 and built the current lodge over a five- to six- year period beginning circa 1935 for use as a summer retreat for his family.

The Rustic Style of architecture was a natural, and not uncommon, choice for country retreats of the wealthy in the early 20th century. The style has its origins in the Great Camp Movement of the 1870s and was popularized further by Gustav Stickley and the Craftsman Movement. The style was also commonly used in parks, first in urban settings such as New York’s Central Park and in the Boston “Emerald Necklace” system, and later in national parks. The style remained popular for such retreats during the Depression, with the Callaway family’s great lodge in Harris County being one of the most prominent, Depression-era examples in Georgia.58

Following its use by the Hewlett family, the property was purchased by the Buckhead Century Club in 1950. The club renovated it for use as a clubhouse, partially finishing the basement, closing in the east porch, and expanding the kitchen. The Century Club sold the property in 1955 to the Atlanta Baptist Association, which established a retreat on the site. In 1979, the National Park Service acquired the property and began remodeling the lodge for its present use as headquarters and visitor contact station for Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area.59

Measuring roughly 130’ by 75’ by 30’ on a T- plan, Island Ford Lodge is a one-story, Rustic-style building situated in a wooded environment at the end of a ridge overlooking an island in the Chattahoochee River. A steeply pitched gable roof shelters log walls set on a thick stone foundation that, because of the steep terrain, forms a daylight basement on the north, east, and south sides. Typical of the Rustic style, logs, which are cypress taken from land that Hewlett owned in the Okefenokee Swamp in southeast Georgia, were left in the round with V- notched corners. The stone foundation

Island Ford Lodge

Island Ford Lodge is a Rustic Style (sometimes called Adirondack Style) log building constructed as a private resort lodge in the late 1930s. The property’s ownership has been traced to the 1860s, when Jackson Gregory acquired the land. It passed to William J. Kimberly (owner 1860-1863), Ambry Martin (owner 1863-1913), and W.A. Morgan (owner 1913-1925), before Samuel Dunbar Hewlett, Sr., later an associate justice on the Georgia Supreme Court, within an era not represented by other small-residential resources in the study area, coming in the middle of the Great Depression when new vacation property construction was uncommon.


59. Ibid. The HSAR notes that the property’s period of significance dates to its 1925-1955 association with Mr. Hewlett and the Buckhead Century Club.
walls are 14” thick with beaded mortar joints. Masonry was executed by John Epps, an ex-convict who lived on the property with his wife throughout the construction. Some of the stone was quarried from a field upstream.

The lodge has a gable-on-hip roof, which is side-gabled over the main block with a cross-gabled section running to the rear over the stem of the T. The western (entry) facade has a three-part organization, with a recessed entry that has its own front-gabled roof. The overhanging roof features log brackets at the gable ends. Typical windows are double-hung, 6/6, ranging from one to five windows at each opening. Most date to the original construction but a number of them have been replaced. Two large stone chimneys of uncoursed, mosaic stonework rise from the roof, one on the ridge crest west of the juncture of the ridges and the other on the east slope of the south wing. A large eyebrow dormer with attic vents is centered low on the west-facing roof slope on each wing.

In addition to the lodge, four landscape features are associated with the Island Ford property:

- Down the hill from the lodge is a picnic shelter measuring 17’ by 14’ in plan and about 15’ high. The structure is set on a stone terrace with low stone walls and a double-pitch gabled roof supported by four log posts with short angle braces to the rafter headers. The open-air structure features a coursed-stone chimney and barbecue with a fire pit that was rebuilt in 2004. Roofing was replaced at the same time. Copper flashing was added at the chimney when the roofing was replaced.

- A stone retaining wall with concrete coping shores up the east bank of the creek and channels the stream to the north. The wall is 66’ long and 3’ to 5’ high. The wall is covered by ivy and moss. A trail runs along the embankment next to the wall.

- A series of stone steps lead from the picnic shelter to the creek that lies north and downslope of the lodge. The steps have been inexpertly repointed so that much of the original stone on the risers appears parged.

- A spring box is built into a slope north of the house near the creek. It is 5’ by 5’ by 5’ and constructed of randomly coursed granite with grapevine joints and a concrete wing wall on the southwest slope. The materials and craftsmanship match the lodge and picnic shelter chimney.60

Significance and Integrity: At the time of this study, a National Register nomination is in process for the Island Ford Lodge. It is being nominated as locally significant under Criterion A as a rare surviving example of a historic country retreat near Atlanta; under Criterion B for its association with prominent

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60. Island Ford structure data from the List of Classified Structures.
attorney and justice Samuel Hewlett; and under Criterion C for exemplary representation of Rustic design and construction. Along with its association with Hewlett, Island Ford Lodge is also significant for its subsequent operation as a Baptist retreat, associating the property with the early national tradition of establishing church camps in rural areas. The associated Picnic Shelter, Retaining Wall, Shelter Steps, and Spring Box are also locally significant under National Register Criteria A and C.

The lodge demonstrates high integrity of location, workmanship, and materials, with the exposed logs having been regularly maintained and the masonry joints repointed. The original fenestration pattern and materials bolster the building’s historic character. The integrity of setting is slightly compromised on the south elevation by the nearby metal warehouse; however the overall wooded, riverside setting remains pristine, with views of the island in the Chattahoochee still unparalleled. Although the interior space’s have been dramatically altered in some cases, the original stonework of the fireplaces and the exposed round-log walls strongly convey the character of the interior. In addition, the lodge’s exterior remains largely unaltered and portrays the original aesthetic and functional choices.

Much of the original workmanship of the Picnic Shelter remains and the original function of the shelter is readily apparent. The alterations are confined to the roof; the massive barbecue pit and chimney and stone platform are original. The setting also retains a high degree of integrity. The Retaining Wall and Spring Box retain their historic integrity. The Retaining Wall continues to perform its function. The repointing/parging executed on the Shelter Steps slightly reduce their integrity of materials and workmanship. The presence of the original rustic-style landscape elements at the Island Ford complex, echoing the aesthetics of the lodge itself, add substantially to the interest and significance of the complex.

Much of the original fabric remains intact, although there have been numerous, mostly minor, alterations, many of them related to changes in use and ownership. Most of the entry doors have been replaced and some of the basement windows have been replaced or closed. Renovation, particularly by the National Park Service in 1985, resulted in the loss of a number of significant historic features, including all of the interior doors, bookcases, some flooring and some roof covering. In addition, some door openings were relocated, modern bathrooms installed, and sheetrock partitions constructed. A pre-engineered metal storage building was erected close to the south side of the lodge, detracting from the historic lodge and the views. These alterations and additions have somewhat compromised the building’s historic character. 61

Other Historic Structures

There are a number of other historic structures in the study area that are not significant in and of themselves, but which, nevertheless, can be treated as cultural resources. These resources include sites of wood-framed houses, now vanished except for a chimney or scattered rock or brick piers; agricultural terracing, particularly in the park’s Gold Branch unit; Civil War rifle pits; and the remains of the Roswell Railroad. Regardless of the fact that

61. Ibid.
these above-ground structures and earthworks are not likely eligible to the National Register, the park should manage them as cultural resources and, in consultation with the Regional LCS Coordinator, create LCS records for each.

**Chimneys and Piers**

O’Grady and Poe’s 1980 inventory of archeological sites and the 2006 CAP survey have identified several home sites within the boundaries of the CRNRA that are now marked only by chimneys, piers, and/or landscape features.62 One of the sites identified in 1980 (NPS-5) was located west of Rottenwood Creek in the West Palisades unit, but it was apparently destroyed during construction of the interchange between Akers Mill Road and I-75. A pair of chimneys (NPS-33) noted on a hill above Sope Creek were perhaps associated with the Marietta Paper Company mills.63 Standing chimneys have also been identified at Powers Island (CHAT-83), near Jones Bridge (CHAT-104), in the Bowman’s Island unit off Island Ford Church Road (NPS-43) and south of Richland Creek (NPS-51).64 All that remains of the King House (NPS-51) are some piers and rubble from a long-fallen chimney. Another home site identified in both inventories is near the Chattahoochee Nature Center (NPS-58), but it is not owned by the park.65 Other sites have also been identified in the 2006 survey, including one at Cochran Shoals near Sibley Creek.66

**Gold Branch Terraces**

The so-called Gold Branch Terraces are created by a series of dry-laid fieldstone walls situated in the roughly 150-foot-wide easement the National Park Service holds off of Lower Roswell Road in the CRNRA’s Gold Branch Unit. The easement extends in a northeasterly direction from Surrey Trail just north of its intersection with Conway Drive.

This tract is sandwiched between upscale housing developments, and several homeowners use the easement as extensions to their back yards, installing bird feeders and tree houses, as well as using the area for disposal of yard debris, all on NPS land.

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63. Ibid., 77.
64. Ibid., 86-87.
65. Ibid., 90.
66. The complete report from the 2006 CAP survey was not yet complete at the writing of this HRS.

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Except for its edges, the land is thickly overgrown with blackberries and privet that are extremely difficult to penetrate.

Use of such terracing to control erosion when farming hilly terrain is widespread, although suburban development has obliterated the surrounding context for these terraces. However, the land was part of the extensive holdings of pioneer Joseph Power, who lived nearby in the second and third quarters of the 19th century. The site is thought to have been used after about 1880 by Arthur and Leona Bellah Eavenson, a granddaughter of James Cooper Power, for agriculture and later for grazing cattle, and they may have been responsible for construction of the Gold Branch terraces. The Eavensons’ home stood at the curve of Lower Roswell Road near Hyde Farm Road.67

The terraces include four historic stone walls and a circular arrangement of stones next to a freshwater spring just north of Land Lots 278 and 279. A 1986 archeological survey interpreted the stone walls as erosion control structures, and the 1995 survey describes the stone circle as a well protected by the terrace walls.68 The smallest terrace lies about 50 feet off Lower Roswell Road. It is barely visible, erosion having left it nearly imperceptible in the surrounding landscape. Approximately midway along the length of the easement, a pipe driven into the ground appears to have served as a corner property marker with a remnant of barbed-wire...
fence running east-west nearby. It is in this area that the larger terraces begin, running on a relatively north-south axis in what is believed to be Land Lot 278, which was part of Joseph Power's extensive holdings along this section of the river.

The three larger terraces were created with dry-laid fieldstone and run roughly perpendicular to the easement's length. The terraces vary in length but no remnant is longer than about 50 feet. Their condition varies from good to poor, with some voids that compromise the stability of the walls. Most of the walls are covered with pine straw, sticks, and other debris that helps them blend into the landscape, which has probably kept them from being mined for landscape stones.

The workmanship on the walls is elementary, with no clear attention to overlapping joints for strength or an attempt to make the faces flush. A spring emerges just below the base of the final stonewall at the northernmost end of the easement before it veers west and continues to the larger Gold Branch Unit. The wall curves around and above the spring, which creates a slow stream that flows through the housing development to the north. Above the spring wall is a ring of stones approximately five feet in diameter with a small center depression. This is thought to have been a wellhead as it is immediately above the spring.

Significance and Integrity: A 1995 report by the Southeast Archeological Center noted that the site has “potential for significant antebellum resources.” The 1995 survey recovered early 19th century artifacts associated with an antebellum farmstead and collection of data regarding the nature of pre-Columbian use of the site. The latter included projectile points from the Early Archaic (8000-6000 B.C.) and Late Archaic (3000-1000 B.C.) time periods and other artifacts that indicated nut processing was a key activity at the site.

An 1831 plat map depicts a house on the boundary separating Land Lots 278 and 279, an adjacent agricultural field, and a nearby spring. Artifacts collected in the 1995 survey indicate the site was abandoned after circa 1837 then later occupied between circa 1880 and 1918. Importantly, the report notes that because this land was barred to white settlement prior to the 1832 land lottery, evidence strongly suggests that the site was occupied prior to 1832 by persons of Cherokee descent, although white squatters were known to have illegally settled on Cherokee lands by this time. The absence of historic materials post-dating 1840 might also suggest that the house site was abandoned soon after the property was surveyed in 1830, which might support the suggestion that the farmstead was inhabited by persons of Cherokee descent who were forced to leave Georgia in 1837.

Although the Gold Branch terraces and walls appear to be associated with the area’s agricultural past, the terraces no longer have other agriculture features or buildings associated with them. Without the context of an agricultural landscape, the terraces are difficult to understand and interpret and do not, by themselves, convey significant information about the period during which they were constructed.

**Roswell Railroad**

In addition to the trace of historic roads, the remains of a road bed for the Roswell Railroad are visible in the park’s Vickery Creek unit on the west side of Big Creek in the vicinity of Allenbrook. Construction of the railroad began around 1879, but the expense of a river bridge led to termination of the line about a half mile south of the Chattahoochee River and tracks were apparently never laid north of the river. The railroad was abandoned in 1921, and there is virtually no physical evidence for the railroad’s existence south of the river and only the grade for the proposed track and stone retaining walls near Allenbrook are evident on the north side of the river. Still extant are sections of retaining walls built with large stones, although erosion has caused some of these stones to fall. An hundred-foot-tall outcropping known as “Lovers’ Rock” or “Lovers’ Leap” sits between the railroad grade and the creek. On the underside of the rock, the initials “JRH” can be read clearly; Julia R. Hand was the granddaughter of Roswell King.

69. Gary Prentice and Elizabeth A. Horvath, “An Assessment of the Archeological Resources at the Morgan Falls West (CHAT-57) Site, Tract 105-08 and Tract 105-26, Bull Sluice District, Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area, Cobb County, Georgia” (Tallahassee, Fla.: Southeast Archeological Center/National Park Service, 1995), 1.

70. Ibid., 26, 28.
Significance and Integrity: The Roswell Railroad had some local significance for its relation to the mills at Roswell and the construction of Morgan Falls Dam. However, the wall and railroad grade on the east side of Big Creek behind Allenbrook do not possess the integrity of design, materials, and association necessary to convey their significance and so are probably not eligible for listing on the National Register. As stated earlier, the remaining structural elements of the railroad should be managed as cultural resources and listed as such on the park’s List of Classified Structures (LCS).

Scribner Cemetery

Although the patriarch of the Scribner family, Daniel Scribner, was a physician, he was an integral part of the Mt. Bethel community in eastern Cobb County. His home, which was later occupied by McKenzies who were relatives of the Scribners, is gone, but the small family cemetery remains about 1.5 miles southwest of Paper Mill Road on the east side of a knoll in the Cochran Shoals Unit. The home site is nearby but was not located during field visits for this study. The cemetery is located in a mix of hardwood and pine forest, although the immediate area is dominated by pine and a few cedars (probably ornamental) adjacent to the cemetery.

The cemetery measures approximately 26’ by 14’ and is enclosed by a 3’ high, cast-iron fence. A large granite obelisk approximately 12’ tall dominates the small plot. The obelisk sits on a plinth, and all four sides of the base of the obelisk are inscribed with a name of a family member in the cemetery. One other monument, a carved headstone, is decorated with a Victorian floral motif and marks the grave of Mary W. Andrews. The tops of two other small headstones are nearly buried in the soil. One is inscribed with “M. W. A.”, while the other is a simple field stone marker with no apparent inscription.

The marked burials include:

- Daniel Dana Scribner, M.D. (July 23, 1822 – April 23, 1863)
- Sarah Ansley Scribner (February 16, 1836 – August 9, 1883), wife of Daniel Scribner
- Arthur Scribner (aged 19 months, dates unknown), son of Daniel and Sarah Walter Scribner (aged 17 months, dates unknown) son of Daniel and Sarah
- Mary W. Andrews (June 29, 1826 – July 31, 1882), “Our Mother”

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73. Memo from Jerry Hightower to Chattahoochee National Recreation Area superintendent, December 7, 1981, on file at the recreation area in the Scribner Cemetery folder.
74. According to state law, unless the cemetery has been declared abandoned, the family retains ownership of the individual graves, although the overall site is within the CRNRA boundaries
75. The names, one on each side of the obelisk, are: Sarah Ansley, Daniel Scribner, Walter Scribner, and Arthur Scribner, the latter two being the infant sons of Sarah and Daniel.
Significance and Integrity: Cemeteries are not generally eligible for the National Register unless they are part of an historic district. If so nominated, the Scribner Cemetery would have significance under Criteria A and D. Broad changes in land use in the area make the Scribner Cemetery a rare surviving example of a family cemetery. It conveys important information on burial practices along the upper Chattahoochee in the 19th century. Through the surrounding area has reverted to forest, the degree of change is minimal relative to alterations that have occurred beyond the study area's boundary. The integrity of location, setting, and feeling is strong, as are the materials, workmanship, and association with the Scribner family. Again, if not nominated as a contributing element of a historic district, the cemetery could be managed as a cultural resource and listed on the park’s LCS.

Civil War Resources

A variety of Civil War sites are located in the study area in Cobb and Fulton Counties but only a few earthworks survive that are directly related to the Atlanta Campaign. These include portions of Johnston’s “river line,” which are outside the CRNRA along the west side of the river below Peachtree Creek. Numerous rifle pits/picket posts are also found in the Gold Branch Unit along what is now Bull Sluice Lake, on the west side of the river. These depressions are found at the edge of an inlet that could have served as a site for troops to assemble for a river crossing at Shallow Ford. Other extant earthworks in the study area include a series of possible picket posts on the west side of the Chattahoochee near the old Power’s Ferry crossing between the Palisades and Cochran Shoals units near the present I-285 bridge. rifle pits are also said to exist on the west side of the river in District 17, Land Lot 1035, and at Island Ford. Further investigation of the depressions in the earth in these two areas needs to be done to determine conclusively whether they are indeed rifle pits dating to the Civil War.

Working with the Georgia Civil War Commission, Cobb County hopes to save four segments of Union earthworks between Buckner Road and Nickajack Creek that contain artillery positions believed to be for the 10th and 15th Ohio batteries, who faced Confederate troops between July 4 and July 10, 1864.76 Union troops also established defensive works elsewhere in the study area, in particular at the mouth of Sope Creek.77 Under the command of Maj. Gen. John M. Schofield, Federal soldiers crossed the Chattahoochee on July 9, 1864, at Isom’s Ferry (also known as Isham’s Ferry or Heard’s Ferry78), near Sope Creek some six miles above Pace’s Ferry. Using the dam at the Marietta Paper Mill or walking in the stream itself, another brigade79 waded across Sope Creek then climbed the steep slopes near the main factory of the Marietta Paper Mills, bushwhacking through the woods toward the Chattahoochee. Other Union troops carried pontoon boats down the steep banks of Sope Creek, launching them near the paper mills and floating down to the river where they were used for troop crossing at that location. This Federal crossing forced Johnston to abandon his river line at and below Bolton, withdrawing to the Fulton County side of the river.80 Later the same day, a cavalry division crossed the Chattahoochee at Shallow Ford, a mile below the Roswell bridge.81 A third unit of Union troops forded the Chattahoochee at Cochran’s Ford, a half-mile below Sope Creek. These outflanking maneuvers forced the Confederacy to abandon Johnston’s River Line, burning the railroad bridge across the Chattahoochee en route to defensive lines closer to Atlanta.82

Johnston’s River Line

Although located outside the boundaries of the CRNRA, Johnston’s River Line is one of the most significant entrenchments remaining from the Civil War in the study area. Stretching along the Cobb County side of the Chattahoochee River in an arc between Nickajack and Rottenwood Creeks, the line ran between the communities of Mableton and Vinings, guarding crossings on the Chattahoochee.83 On a ridge overlooking Nickajack Creek and the Chattahoochee River, the line was built by

77. Cultural Resource Inventory, 78.
78. Lenard Brown, 32. Ishom’s Ferry was in Land Lot 207 of the 17th District.
79. Historic marker at Sope Creek parking lot.
80. Temple, 331.
81. Shallow Ford was submerged by Bull Sluice Lake.
82. Fred Brown, 105.
83. Roth, 126.
slave labor along with Georgia Militia troops. It consisted of redoubts of logs and earth interspersed with two- cannon artillery emplacements. Abatis entanglements protected the front along open fields, while segments through the woods were safeguarded by large piles of logs.

Johnston’s line was built primarily by General Johnston’s Confederate Army of Tennessee after it was forced from its Kennesaw Mountain defenses by Sherman’s troops. The rebels initially fell back five miles to the Smyrna Line, defensive works that crossed the railroad near Smyrna on a northeast-southwest ridge before turning to follow Nickajack Creek to the river. Southern troops retreated farther a few days later to the well-established Johnston’s River Line, which was anchored by 13 two-tiered infantry forts. These forts became known as “Shoupades” after their designer, Brig. Gen. Francis A. Shoup, Chief of Artillery for the Army of Tennessee. It was this line that Union commander Sherman later termed one of the most formidable he encountered during the war: “During the night Johnston drew back all his army and trains inside the tete-du-pont at the Chattahoochee, which proved one of the strongest pieces of field-fortifications I ever saw.” These fortifications prevented Sherman’s troops from completing a frontal attack despite their substantial numerical advantage over the rebel forces, and after a week occupying federal earthworks, Union soldiers gave up trying to break through Johnston’s line and forged up river to Sope Creek to cross the Chattahoochee and continue toward Atlanta. Union crossings on the Chattahoochee also took place at Pace’s and Power’s Ferries, at Roswell, and elsewhere.

Although Johnston’s River Line terminates south of the study area, it helps provide context for and illustrates the high standard of earthworks constructed during summer 1864 in and around the study area. Johnston’s River Line was an integral element of the June and July battles leading up to the siege of Atlanta, which included Union and Confederate skirmishes within the study area. A unique aspect of the River Line is that instead of digging trenches for protection, Johnston devised above-grade earthworks, creating both defensive and offensive positions. They were also distinctive because elements had been under construction since August 1863, when work began at Chattahoochee River fords and ferries; these supplemented a circle of fortifications around Atlanta in a radius roughly one-and-one-quarter miles from the city center. The inner line of defenses was never tested. When federal forces threatened to cut the last remaining rail line into Atlanta in early September 1864, the rebels abandoned the city.

At a tactical level, the battles along Johnston’s River Line, at Kennesaw Mountain, and elsewhere that employed engineered earthworks demonstrated the futility of frontal assaults on entrenched positions. Only after repeated experience and casualties, including the monumental losses among Confederate attackers at Gettysburg and Federal troops at Fredericksburg, Virginia, did officers fully understand that accurate rifled muskets and field entrenchments had irrevocably changed infantry combat. Sherman absorbed this lesson, and his advance toward Atlanta relied heavily on outmaneuvering his opponent. The earthworks that survive in and around the study area are a testament to those lessons and to the men killed or injured in these historic landscapes. Many of the earthworks have weathered away, and development has destroyed most of the Shoupades and artillery forts (although some remain on private property). In October 2003, one of the last Union artillery forts—a four-gun emplacement—was bulldozed to accommodate a grocery store and shopping center on Bankhead Highway.

84. Ibid. Southern forces constructed the majority of entrenchments east of Nickajack Creek while Union troops dug those to the west.
85. Temple, 328.
87. Sherman, 66.
89. Temple, 336-337. The crossings took place between July 12 and 17, 1864.
90. Roth, 126-128, 237, 240-241. Johnston’s River Line falls in the 18th District, Land Lots 177, 282, 287, 397-401 (Nickajack Creek bisects Land Lot 401); and in the 17th District, Land Lot 900.
91. Lenard Brown, 58.
Remnants of Johnston’s River Line today are scattered and few. Most are now on or adjacent to developed property, and all are outside the park’s current boundary. However because they were key to the Civil War battles fought within the study area, they are pertinent to this historic context. Cobb County owns about 80 acres of Johnston’s River Line that are slated for preservation.

The northernmost anchor of the line – the site closest to the river and the study area – was the most appropriate section to physically investigate for this report. The area is much impacted by development, primarily by upscale housing. Many homeowners with elements of the line on their property have left these historic earthworks intact where possible and treat them with respect. Some homeowners have carefully built swimming pools and play structures around trenches or four-gun emplacements, but at least one homeowner is using a Shoupade to pile yard debris. The two-gun battery that was the northern anchor to the line was not located using maps and directions available, but it is probable it was destroyed by the newer housing built in the area.

Nearby remnants of Johnston’s River Line were located, however, including the salient angle of the Confederate line (the point that jutted out past the rest of the defensive line of works). These earthworks are situated at the top of a hill fully developed by homes, with the individual sites in residents’ yards. The first site is a trench immediately behind a house at 4522 Rebel Valley View Road and south of its swimming pool. Above this to the west is the four-gun Shoupade in use as a yard debris collection site. This is located behind both 4522 and 4532 Rebel Valley View Road. A child’s elevated playhouse behind 4532 overlooks the Shoupade north of the playhouse. All the earthworks are covered with ivy and rounded from erosion but clearly discernible as man-made constructions. Two are distinct behind 4522 and 4532, but the other two of the four have subsided more and are not as prominent on the landscape. There is also a remnant of an entrenchment on the east side of Rebel Valley View Road behind the house at 4527.

About a half-mile northeast of the salient angle site, an infantry fort can be found above the railroad cut; the current track follows the historic route. Originally a series of infantry forts were dug in here, but apartments and other residences have obliterated all but one. Sherman’s troops advancing down the railroad heavily shelled this Confederate position.

Other remnants of Johnston’s River Line were not physically investigated for this report because of their distance from the study area.

Significance and Integrity: The portions of Johnston’s River Line that survive are well-preserved examples of an infantry line system, with intact trenches, forts, gun emplacements, and rifle pits. These earthworks were listed in the National Register in 1973. The line is significant at the national level under National Register Criterion A for its association with the Civil War; under Criterion B for its association with its engineer, Confederate Gen. Joseph E. Johnston; and under Criterion C for its method of construction. It is an outstanding example of Civil War defensive fortifications, unique for its length and mass, and distinctive because it was one of the few earthworks built well before a Civil War battle. According to the State Historic Preservation Office in Georgia, the site is significant because it constitutes a rare intact example of Civil War fortifications used in the 1864 Battle of Atlanta and because it represents a unique arrangement of fortifications by both Confederate and Union forces. The presence of two sets of fortifications from opposing armies, in their historical relationship and geographic area, give Johnston’s River Line

94. The fort sat atop a ridge and was probably built by the 15th Ohio Light Battery on July 5, 1864; it was supplied with twelve Napoleon cannons – popular, smooth bore, French-designed light-artillery pieces, highly accurate and reliable, with a range of 1,600 yards. The U.S. Army had about 150, while the South possessed about 30 (Antietam on the Web, http://aotw.org/weapons/phyn you id=1 (accessed Oct. 24, 2004). The fort and accompanying Union trenches were part of a twenty-two-acre tract. Pete and Kay Jorgensen, Civil War News, http://www.civilwarnews.com/archive/articles/fort build dozed.htm.

95. To prepare this study, historian Tom Dickey’s “A Tour of Johnston’s River Line,” from Brown’s Guide to Georgia (College Park, Ga.: Alfred Brown Publishing Company, 1972-1982), was used to physically locate extant resources. The starting point is Log Cabin Drive off of Georgia Highway 3/Marietta Boulevard.


97. Ibid., 27.

98. Ibid. This is east from Log Cabin Road, where the railroad track crosses Paradise Shoals Road.

99. Ibid.
a special significance for military history. The line may also be significant under Criterion D for its potential to yield additional information about the Battle of Atlanta through additional archeological investigation.\(^{100}\) Also of note is that the opposing force’s commander, Maj. Gen. William Sherman, considered Johnston’s River Line the best field entrenchment work he had ever seen, commenting on its formidable nature. This also speaks for its exceptional construction, which is underscored by the fact that so much of the line remains intact 140 years after the battle.

Johnston’s River Line retains all seven aspects of integrity: location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association. It retains its original location, and the design is still evident, reflecting the structure’s historic functions, technologies, and aesthetics. Although much of the setting has been developed, the topographic features that shaped its design remain extant and help convey the character of the site during the Civil War. Regarding materials and workmanship, while wooden elements of the earthworks have long since rotted away, the key material – earth, and the way it was formed into fortifications – remains largely as it was during the period of significance. Integrity of feeling and association are compromised by the residential development that now adjoins or surrounds the earthworks, but the property’s combined physical features taken together still convey the site’s historic character.

Civil War Rifle Pits

The best-known of the Civil War earthworks in the vicinity of the study area are those constructed as part of Confederate General Johnston’s so-called “River Line.” Listed on the National Register, Johnston’s River Line is not within the authorized boundaries of the park but forms an important part of the context for much smaller, less significant rifle pits that are within the park’s authorized boundaries. In the Gold Branch Unit, several rifle pits or picket posts line the west side of what is now Bull Sluice Lake, the pits being located east of the inlet that edges south into this park unit. These were apparently built to provide cover for the Union army as it crossed the river at Shallow Ford. Other rifle pits within the park boundaries have been reported in Land Lot 1035 of the 17th District of Fulton County and near Island Ford, but the integrity and significance of these sites have not been assessed.

All of the rifle pits in the Gold Branch unit of the CRNRA are almost obscured by underbrush and trees that cover the area today. The first, and most distinct, of the pits is found at the southernmost edge of the inlet, on the west side of the trail. This appears to be a well-dug entrenchment for protecting the inlet. Prior to construction of Morgan Falls Dam, it would have been a well-concealed site for troops to assemble for a river crossing. The second set of rifle pit depressions is scattered along the peninsula as the trail curves around to the east. They follow a distinct line on an east-west axis. Other possible sites are found uphill from the trail, again on the same east-west line. It is difficult in some locations to tell for certain whether some indentations are natural or man-made, but the distinct east-west axis for those described here leads to the conclusion that these depressions were likely for picket positions.

Rifle pits are also thought to exist within the park boundaries on the west side of the river in District 17, Land Lot 1035 (approximately two-and-a-half land lots north of the junction of Power’s Ferry Road and Interstate 285).\(^{101}\) These are characterized by three depressions, the center being approximately 12’ by 15’.\(^{102}\) Elsewhere in the CRNRA, probable rifle pits are situated east of the river along a ridge above the islands at Island Ford, but these most likely were built by local state militia guarding the crossing prior to the advance of the Union army.\(^{103}\)

**Significance and Integrity:** The picket posts/rifle pits in the Gold Branch Unit/Morgan Falls area are potentially eligible for listing in the National Register with significance at the state level under National Register Criterion A for their association with the Civil War, and under Criterion D for their potential to yield additional information. They are rare examples of entrenchments dug primarily by individual Civil War soldiers, lending them a special military significance. The sites also could yield

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101. Roth, 29, 126, 217-41. A gun battery site is documented in the 17th District, Land Lot 1018.

102. Cultural Resource Inventory), 112.

103. Ibid., 102.
additional data about the Atlanta Campaign through additional archeological investigation.

The picket posts retain high integrity of location, setting, feeling, and association, but limited integrity of workmanship, materials, and design due to weathering over the past 140 years. Although the setting now includes hiking trails, the rifle pits retain their original locations and, given their placement in what is now a park, still convey the character of the site in 1864. The topographic features of the immediate area have not changed despite the creation of Bull Sluice Lake from Morgan Falls Dam; although the hydrologic system has been altered, those changes have not affected the extant rifle pits. The park should consider amending the National Register nomination for the Johnson’s River Line to include these earthworks as part of a discontiguous district based upon Civil War resources. In the interim, the park should list them as cultural resources in the LCS. Further research on the other identified sites is needed to determine their eligibility for listing in the National Register.
Chapter Four: Cultural Landscapes, Ethnographic Resources, Archeology, and Museum Collections

The primary purpose of this study is to provide an historical overview of the Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area and to identify and evaluate its historic structures. The purpose of this chapter is to sketch in broad strokes existing knowledge about the recreation area’s other cultural resources, including cultural landscapes, ethnographic resources, archeological resources, and museum collections.

Cultural Landscapes

Cultural landscapes are defined 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 general types of cultural landscapes, not mutually exclusive: historic sites, historic designed landscapes, historic vernacular landscapes, and ethnographic landscapes.1

The NPS Cultural Landscapes Inventory (CLI) is a web-based inventory of NPS-owned or managed cultural landscapes that have been determined eligible for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places. CLI entries include a site development history, statement of significance, documentation of existing conditions, and condition assessment. The CLI partially satisfies the inventory and assessment requirements for cultural resources under Section 110 of the National Historic Preservation Act. A Cultural Landscape Report (CLR) is a thoroughly researched report which builds on the information gathered in the CLI to further document and assess a site’s historical development, significance, and integrity with the goal of providing a feasible treatment and preservation plan or strategy for the cultural landscape.

To date, there has been minimal investigation or documentation of the cultural landscapes at Chattahoochee River CRNRA. No CLIs or CLRs exist for park resources. However, through initial literature review, site visits, and communication between park and regional NPS staff, it is evident that the park contains several cultural landscapes that may have sufficient integrity to meet National Register criteria. If so identified, these resources would be eligible for listing on the CLI and would need individual CLRs developed to ensure resource preservation.

Cultural landscapes that have tentatively been identified at Chattahoochee River CRNRA include:

- Akers/Banner Mill
- Allenbrook
- Ivy Mill

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Planning for documentation, evaluation, preservation, and treatment of these or other subsequently identified cultural landscapes should be a priority for park staff. CRNRA managers are urged to work with the Cultural Landscapes Program manager in the Regional Office to set priorities for completing Cultural Landscapes Inventories and Cultural Landscape Reports for these historic landscapes. If not already existing, appropriate projects to complete these studies should be entered into PMIS (Project Management Information System) and funding sought for completing the work. Investigation should begin into the historical associations of the Rogers Farm, which lies near the Suwanee and Abbotts Bridge Units, while coordination with The Trust for Public Lands for this land acquisition continues.

Ethnographic Resources

Few traditionally associated peoples retain ties to resources in the study area today. Contemporary representatives of the Cherokee Nation— the present-day federally recognized tribe most likely to have an affiliation with the park— claim no remaining connection with the park. Cherokee representatives believe the lands along the river in the study area are farther south than the lands traditionally associated with the Trail of Tears that involved their ancestors.  

Descendants of other groups, such as ferry operators, farmers, fishermen, and paper and textile mill workers, have not established formal claims or groups that connect them to particular sites or other resources within the recreation area today. A literature review might reveal previously unknown links to contemporary groups, including descendants of the above and of resort lodge owners or visitors, churches that used the river for baptisms, civic organizations, and others. However, an Ethnographic Overview and Assessment of the Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area has not been done, and none is scheduled at the present time.

Archeology

Archeological surveys of the park have been limited to the broad-brush overviews of Ehrenhard in 1979 and 1980 3 and to later, localized surveys conducted when sewers, underground utilities, and roadways were being constructed. The 2001 Parsons report 4 notes 189 archeological sites related to Indian occupation of the study area, but many more sites are likely to be present. The sites are illustrative of the temporal periods from the Archaic to the early historical period of the Cherokee and Creek and include quarries, lithic scatters (remnants from the production of stone tools), ceramic scatters, village sites, fish weirs, and rock shelters.

Extant resources related to American Indian occupation of the study area are limited mostly to archeological sites, and development has compromised many of those. The area around the site of Standing Peachtree is one of the most heavily developed parts of the river corridor. In the 1890s, the City of Atlanta’s water intake facility was built near the junction of Peachtree Creek and the river, and additional industrial and commercial development in the 20th century, especially after World War II, have obliterated what was the most significant Indian settlement in the study area. Along the river in the vicinity of the railroad and vehicular bridges south of the recreation area, there are a number of quarry sites, some of which date from the earliest periods of Indian occupation.


of Peachtree Creek, there has been so much ground disturbance that the potential for undisturbed archaeological resources has been greatly compromised. The 1980 archaeological reconnaissance survey recovered part of an Indian chungke\(^5\) stone as well as bullets dating to the Civil War but little else.

Assumptions that the archeological potential at the site of the core of the Indian village of Standing Peachtree was destroyed when Atlanta built its water intake facility just south of the creek are probably correct.\(^6\) The same may not be true of Fort Gilmer, which many have assumed was also located in the river’s flood plain. However, Garrett places the fort on top of the hill on the north side of the creek, within the authorized boundaries of CRNRA but on a site that remains privately owned. With “a superb view of the river, both up and down,” the hill top is certainly a more logical location for such a fort, and most of that site appears to have remained relatively undisturbed.\(^7\)

Two texts by Bill Jordan provide general overviews of archeology in the Chattahoochee National Recreation Area:

- **Phase 1 Archaeological Survey and Phase 2 Site Evaluation of the Proposed McGinnis Ferry Road Widening Corridor, Fulton and Forsyth Counties, Georgia**
- **Archeological Survey of Proposed Fuel Reduction Areas, Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area Cobb, Forsyth, Fulton, and Gwinnett Counties, Georgia**

Other archeological surveys in the study area have also been completed. These studies generally focused on assessing sites prior to ground-disturbing activities such as road widening, bridge building, or controlled burns. Researchers also evaluated the park as a whole to determine the presence of prehistoric and Civil War-era artifacts.

Occasional sites with lithic scatter (such as at rock shelters) were noted, and Civil War gun positions and possible picket posts were recorded.

There are more than a hundred known archeological sites within the recreation area that are sufficiently significant to warrant nomination to the National Register of Historic Places. A list of archeological reports relating to the Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area will be found in the bibliography for the present report. There has been no comprehensive Archeological Overview and Assessment for the park and none is scheduled at the present time.\(^8\) Full documentation and assessment of fish weirs in the park should be completed. A detailed inventory that states locations and conditions of all weirs within the authorized park boundary would bolster efforts to maintain and preserve these rare resources. Professional archeological assessment of the weirs is also recommended.

**Museum Collections**

The museum collection on site at Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area includes objects ranging from macro-invertebrates and an herbarium collection numbering in the hundreds to cultural heritage objects found in structures acquired by the National Park Service. The macro-invertebrate specimens, estimated to number over 1,000, were being consolidated in fall 2005 into a wet specimens storage cabinet in the park’s Water Quality Lab.

A freshwater mussel survey of the park has also been completed and specimens are included in the park’s museum collection. The museum collection also includes small-mammal and fish inventories as well as a collection resulting from a herpetological survey; these are housed at the Savannah River Ecological Lab in Savannah, Georgia. The majority of the park’s archeological collection is housed in the Southeast Archeological Center in Tallahassee, Florida.

The National Park Service is mandated to acquire and preserve museum collections as directed in the

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5. A game played by early American Indians in the region.

The Native American Graves Protection and Repatriation Act of 1990 requires a written summary of unassociated funerary objects, sacred objects, and objects of cultural patrimony. According to archeological data recorded by the National Park Service in 1980, virtually every major temporal period of human occupation in the southeastern United States is represented in the Chattahoochee corridor. Furthermore, prehistoric sites were present in all major topographic and environmental zones, including Paleo, Archaic, and Woodland aboriginal occupations and historic traditions. Additional investigations in the Chattahoochee corridor documented the presence of 23 historical sites of European affiliation. However, based on available information, Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area has no collections that fall within the scope of the NAGPRA categories, and acquisition of such objects is not anticipated.9

The park’s museum planning documents include a Scope of Collections Statement (SOCS) (1986). This states that the museum collection should be maintained to document and support Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area’s resource management and interpretive programming. As identified in the park’s General Management Plan (Draft), interpretive programs would provide opportunities for the visitor to learn about and study the wide variety of natural and cultural resources found in the corridor, and for developing an understanding of the responsibilities of the individual visitor, the National Park Service, and other entities in protecting these resources.

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 recreation area’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 should illustrate the phenomena of nature and the environmental influences of man along this section of the Chattahoochee corridor.

The SOCS states that the museum collection should preserve those features of the park that cannot safely be left in situ, and that it should serve the research study and reference needs of staff and visitors.

The collection at the museum should be divided into two major categories: the Natural History Collection and the Cultural History Collection. The Natural History Collection – subdivided into two disciplines, biology and geology – will provide a historically accurate record of plant and animal species present in the park, for future reference, interpretation, and research purposes. The Cultural History Collection will include significant historic artifacts representative of the history along this section of the Chattahoochee River and the people who lived here (prehistoric and historic traditions), including military objects and archival material (maps, manuscripts, photographs, etc.).

Specimens of architectural fabric from restored or rehabilitated structures that cannot be retained in the structures should be saved for future reference. Also, objects and documents that chronicle the creation, planning, and management of the park should be maintained. When National Register documentation is prepared for the park based on the findings of this study, any associated museum collections should be included as objects contributing to the significance of the National Register district or site being nominated.

Efforts need to be undertaken to expand and further organize the park museum collection for public and research use. Guidelines for accessioning and cataloging are outlined in the NPS publication Museum Handbook, Part II, and the Automated National Catalog System (ANCS+) manual, both available online at <http://www.cr.nps.gov/museum/publications/index.htm>.

Archival and Library Collections

the office of the chief of science and resource management. They include maps, resource management documents, land files, historic park documents, and various reports and other files. This room also houses a records cabinet with additional accession and collection files. A separate collections cabinet in another room of the park includes deeds, diaries, and the herbarium noted earlier. Other interpretive materials relevant to the park are located in the Chattahoochee Nature Center.

The park library collection has been consolidated in a room in the basement of Island Ford Lodge and includes various histories and biographies, volumes related to indigenous peoples, the Civil War, agricultural development and settlement, manufacturing, and recreation in the river corridor, as well as other types of resource materials normally found in park libraries. The library and archives should be organized for ease of use by researchers. The park should complete accessioning and cataloging of all material pertinent to park history and maintain such information as an aid to the study and interpretation of history and culture in the park. Making some of this material available online is also recommended as funding permits. Documentation for all resource management projects, natural and cultural, should be included in the park’s museum collection. It is also recommended that the park develop a formal Collection Management Plan to guide its museum program.
Based on findings of the current study, the following recommendations are offered as a guide for resource managers in protecting the park’s cultural resources, identifying areas for future research, developing interpretive programs, and achieving other management goals in the Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area. These include recommendations for identifying, evaluating, and otherwise managing cultural resources within the park, while recognizing that implementation may require the park to seek additional funding. 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. Emphasis is on historic buildings, structures, and landscapes, in particular those pertaining to early settlement; the historic development of agriculture, manufacturing, and transportation; and the Civil War. These historic resources include farmsteads, textile mills, a paper mill, a grist mill, roads and bridges, Civil War earthworks, and nineteenth- and twentieth-century residential properties. Archeological resources include several rock shelters and numerous lithic scatter sites, as well as the ruins of stone fish weirs constructed by American Indians that are some of the earliest man-made structures remaining in the study area. All these resource types retain sufficient integrity to convey the significant historic themes represented in CRNRA. The maintenance and preservation of these cultural resources should be the park’s top cultural resource management priority.

Cultural Resources Documentation

Better documentation is needed for all cultural resources at CRNRA. Section 110 of the National Historic Preservation Act requires park managers, in consultation with their SHPOs, to locate, inventory, and nominate to the National Register of Historic Places all properties that appear to qualify. Such documentary research and field investigations help develop a park’s inventory of cultural resources.

The park inventory should include all cultural resources as required for planning, Section 106 and Section 110 compliance, historic resource protection, monitoring, and interpretation. Cultural resources that have been identified and evaluated as eligible should be listed in the appropriate Service-wide inventories, including the Cultural Landscapes Inventory (CLI), Cultural Sites Inventory (CSI-Archeology and Ethnography, under development), List of Classified Structures (LCS), National Catalog of Museum Objects, and the National Register of Historic Places.

Baseline Cultural Resources Reports

NPS policy recommends a number of baseline research reports that provide information for a variety of purposes from planning to interpretation. This Historic Resource Study is one of those baseline reports, providing a general overview of park cultural resources and serving as a framework for further identification, evaluation, and nomination of cultural resources to the National Register of Historic Places. The park also has a Scope of Collections Statement (1986) that was most recently updated in 1992 and may need updating to ensure its accuracy.

Another required baseline report is a park-wide overview and assessment of archaeological sites along with studies that identify and evaluate individual archaeological sites. An inventory of archaeological resources was done in 1980 and should be
updated to ensure that it accurately reflects existing conditions.

Other baseline research reports that the park has not yet completed are an ethnographic overview, a study of cultural affiliations, and an administrative history of the park. Finally, the park does not have a Cultural Resources Base Map that depicts all known historic sites and structures, cultural landscapes, and historic trails and roads. This map should also 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, it should be compiled in a single, comprehensive map for the entire park.

Mapping
GIS mapping should be completed for all the earthworks within the study area, both Civil War resources and those related to historic agricultural use (e.g., the terraces in the Gold Branch Unit off Lower Roswell Road). GIS mapping of Civil War earthworks within the authorized park boundary could be coordinated with county and other agencies that oversee related earthworks outside the park boundary, to create a database and map of all regional earthworks related to the Atlanta Campaign. These earthworks include the Gold Branch Unit rifle pits in the Morgan Fall area and similar locations identified in archeological studies. In addition, mapping of abandoned home sites, especially those with standing chimneys and other features, and of fish weirs and historic roadways would help insure their continued preservation.

List of Classified Structures (LCS)
The National Park Service’s List of Classified Structures (LCS) defines a structure as a constructed work that serves some form of human activity and that generally is immovable. Because the LCS is a listing of structures considered to be “historic,” the following criteria are applied before a structure is entered on the LCS:

- all historic and prehistoric structures within parks of the National Park System that individually meet the criteria of the National Register of Historic Places.
- all structures that are contributing elements of sites or districts that meet National Register criteria, and structures that are managed as cultural resources because of law, policy, or decisions reached through the planning process. These structures include certain structures that have been moved or reconstructed, commemorative structures, and structures that have achieved significance within the last 50 years.

In most cases, in order for a historic structure within a park to be listed on the LCS, it must first be determined eligible for listing in the National Register as noted above. Even if not already a contributing resource in an existing historic district, Determinations of Eligibility (DOEs) can be made in consultation with the State Historic Preservation Office (SHPO). 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 and the final National Register documentation can be submitted at a later date. Before the structure can be “certified,” agreement to its Management Category must be made by the Park Superintendent and a letter stating the same must be sent to the Regional LCS Coordinator.

The only structures identified in this HRS that are located within the park and currently listed on the LCS are the Sope Creek Ruins. All other structures and earthworks identified in this study, both inside and outside the park boundaries, should undergo DOEs. Because many of the structures located outside of the park are contextually related to structures on NPS property, the DOE process should be approached holistically and include all related structures in the study area. Any National Register nominations should also follow that approach.

Prior to this study, fourteen structures were identified by CRNRA and Southeast Regional Office staff as having high potential for NR eligibility and were subsequently listed on the LCS. At that time, listing structures on the LCS was not contingent on SHPO concurrence as it is today. Those structures were moved to the “Shadow” version of the LCS in anticipation of eventual SHPO concurrence. It is hoped that this study can supplement any formal DOEs for those structures when they are submitted to the SHPO.

National Register of Historic Places
Three properties within the boundaries of the CRNRA are currently listed in the National Register
of Historic Places: George A. Power House (Cobb County), Sope Creek Ruins (Cobb County), and part of the Roswell Historic District (Fulton County). Johnston’s River Line (Cobb County) is also listed in the National Register, but it is outside the boundaries of the CRNRA. In conjunction with this Historic Resource Study, National Register nominations for Island Ford Lodge (Park headquarters, Fulton County) and for Allenbrook (Fulton County) are being prepared by the Cultural Resources Division of the Southeast Regional Office.

Determinations of Eligibility
Over the past decade, requirements of the Historic Preservation Act of 1966 have led to the production of several Determinations of Eligibility (DOEs) for properties located within the boundaries of the CRNRA. DOEs were produced for the Barnwell Cabin in the Jones Bridge Unit, the Dispatch Office Complex in the Palisades Unit, and a complex of residential buildings in the Gold Branch Unit. In consultation with and the concurrence of Georgia’s SHPO, each of these properties was determined ineligible to the National Register. Copies of the Statements of Concurrence are on file at SERO.

As noted above, National Register nominations for Island Ford Lodge and for Allenbrook are at the time of this study being written by Cultural Resources Division staff at SERO. Drafts of these nominations will be used as DOEs for SHPO concurrence before formal submission are made to the Keeper of the National Register. Once concurrence is received from the SHPO, the historic resources associated with the two properties will be added to the park’s LCS.

Management of Historic Structures
Several historic buildings under park management are deteriorating. Of particular concern are Allenbrook and the Collins-Yardum House, both of which have remained unoccupied for a number of years. While an historic structure report (HSR) has been completed for Allenbrook and planning has begun for its rehabilitation, little has been done to protect the Collins-Yardum House, which is at risk of demolition by neglect if preservation measures are not taken soon. The house is awaiting funding for a historic structure report and for repair and rehabilitation. Unoccupied structures are at high risk for deterioration, and every effort should be made to expedite completion of an HSR and rehabilitation of the house.

Neglected for decades, Jones Bridge, Settles Bridge, and Rogers Bridge are all deteriorating, in part because none of these bridges is wholly owned by the NPS although all three are located within the boundaries of the CRNRA. In the southern part of the CRNRA, a friends group has been established to help preserve the historic steel-truss bridge at Pace’s Ferry Road. While ownership of Jones, Settles, and Rogers bridges is cloudy, the Pace’s Ferry group might serve as a model for partnerships with the NPS that could support preservation of these historic resources. Without protective coatings, the steel structure of these bridges will eventually deteriorate to the point of collapse. In addition, the piers at the eastern side of Settles Bridge have been so badly undermined by the river’s flow that the stability of the entire bridge has been compromised. The CRNRA should work with State and local officials to resolve questions of ownership and look for ways to preserve these important resources.

The ruins of mills and other structures in the CRNRA will require continued care if they are to be preserved. The ruins of Akers Mill are especially vulnerable to deterioration due to rampant growth of vegetation, inaccessibility, and other causes. Abandoned roads, including the bed of the erstwhile Roswell Railroad, are also vulnerable, primarily from erosion and reforestation of the trace of
these roads. The routes of the most important of these roads, especially the Roswell Railroad and the roads around Hyde Farm and the George Power House, should be identified and perhaps maintained as trails to insure their continued preservation.

**Interpretation**

CRNRA should consider creating displays at Park Headquarters at Island Ford and at other appropriate locations in the park that orient visitors to the cultural resources in the recreation area. Some park units have interpretive signs for individual resources, but there should be a single location in the park, perhaps at Island Ford, that provides an overview of cultural resources. Interpretive markers for the dams on Big Creek, Allenbrook, Akers Mill, the river bridges, and other resources would introduce visitors to park resources that they might otherwise overlook.
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Secondary Internet Resources


As the nation’s principal conservation agency, the Department of the Interior has responsibility for most of our nationally owned public lands and natural resources. This includes fostering sound use of our land and water resources; protecting our fish, wildlife, and biological diversity; preserving the environmental and cultural values of our national parks and historical places; and providing for the enjoyment of life through outdoor recreation. The department assesses our energy and mineral resources and works to ensure that their development is in the best interests of all our people by encouraging stewardship and citizen participation in their care. The department also has a major responsibility for American Indian reservation communities and for people who live in island territories under U.S. administration.

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