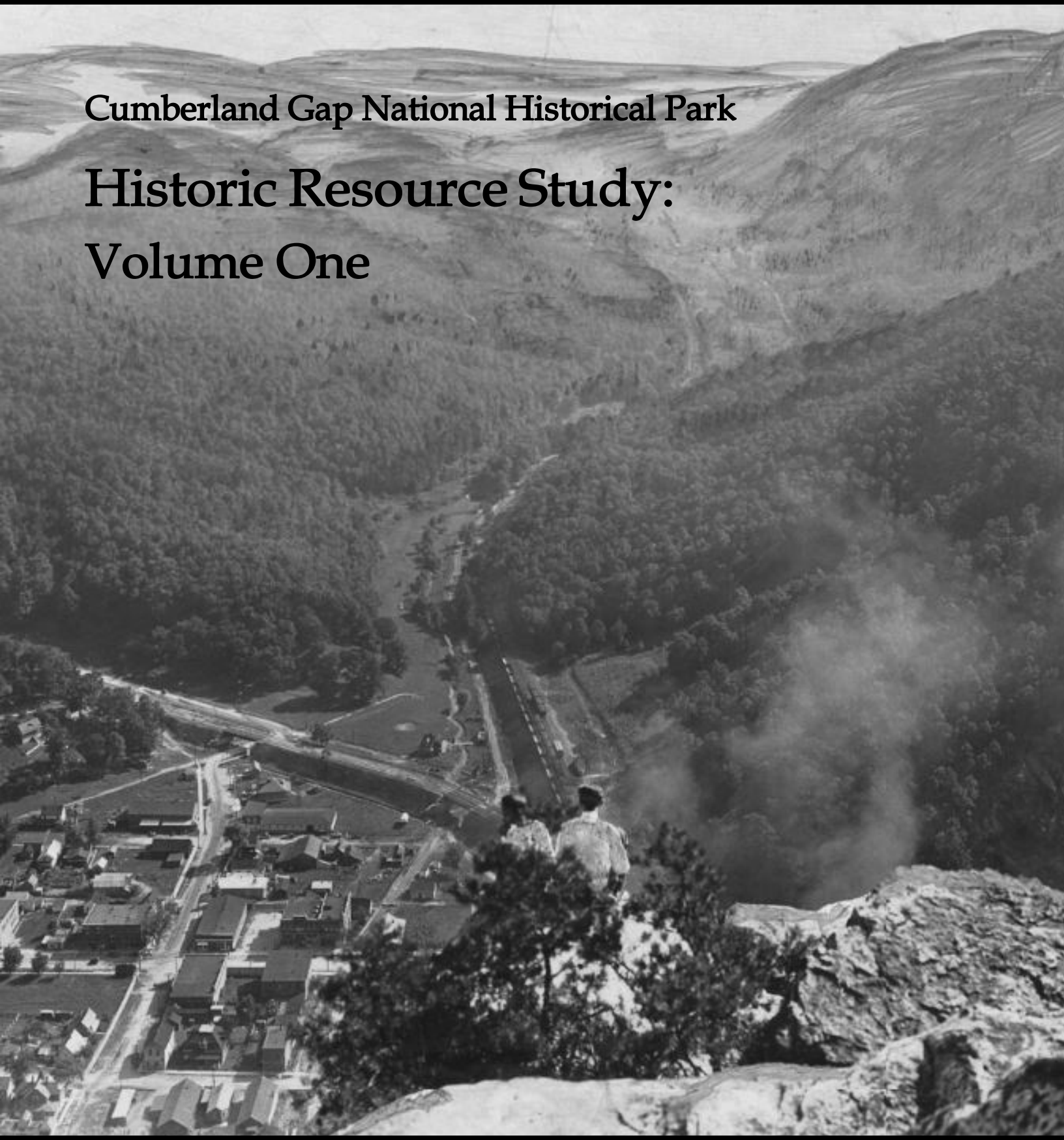
National Park Service
U.S. Department of the Interior

Cumberland Gap National Historical Park
Kentucky, Tennessee, and Virginia

Cumberland Gap National Historical Park

Historic Resource Study:
Volume One



Cultural Resources, Partnerships and Science
Southeast Region

Cultural Resources, Partnerships and Science Division
Southeast Region
National Park Service
100 Alabama Street, SW
Atlanta, Georgia 30303

About the front cover: Overlooking Cumberland Gap from the top of the Pinnacle, ca. 1920s. Source: Herald-Post Collection, University of Louisville Photographic Archives, Louisville, Kentucky.

This manuscript has been authored by North Wind Resource Consulting, LLC, under Contract Number 140P5123P0038 with the National Park Service. The United States Government retains and the publisher, by accepting the article of publication, acknowledges that the United States Government retains a non-exclusive, paid-up, irrevocable, world-wide license to publish or reproduce the published form of this manuscript, or allow others to do so, for United States Government purposes.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This report represents the results of a Historic Resource Study (HRS) conducted for Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. Established by presidential proclamation on June 11, 1940, the park derives its name from a notch within the Cumberland Mountains, known as Cumberland Gap. This notch, which was caused by a fault block that runs perpendicular to the northeast-southwest axis of the mountain chain, served as part of a cultural trail network for Indigenous people and a gateway for American western expansion in the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. In 2022 alone, 732,916 recreation visitors, and 6,306,152 non-recreation visitors were reported (National Park Service 2024).[1] The park encompasses 24,547 acres of land in Bell and Harlan Counties, Kentucky; Lee County, Virginia; and Claiborne County, Tennessee.

This HRS provides an overview of the park's history, identifies, and evaluates historic resources located within its boundaries within their appropriate historic contexts, and updates the status of historic properties currently listed in the NRHP. The HRS serves as a planning and resource management tool that will assist the park in preparation of National Register nominations and interpretive and educational programming. This HRS does not evaluate historic landscapes specifically; however, the historic contexts and recommendations within are intended to assist the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park with identification and evaluation of cultural landscapes through the preparation of Cultural Landscape Inventories (CLIs) and Reports (CLRs) for applicable historic properties. The HRS report was prepared in accordance with the requirements and standards set forth in *NPS-28: Cultural Resource Management Guideline* (National Park Service 1998) and will assist the National Park Service in meeting its obligations under Section 110 of the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA) as amended.

The HRS encompasses all above-ground resources over 25 years in age and addresses any resources less than 25 years old that are considered to be exceptionally significant. At the request of the National Park Service, subsurface archaeological resources and those associated with Indigenous populations were excluded from this report. A brief context on Indigenous history has been provided, however, to acknowledge the significance of Cumberland Gap as a transportation corridor for Indigenous peoples, and to contextualize later European American exploration and settlement within the Cumberland Gap region.

In consultation with the National Park Service, the following six themes were identified as a framework for the HRS evaluations:

- Early Exploration and Settlement of the Tri-State Area (10,000 BCE–1925).
- Cumberland Gap during the Civil War (1861–1865).
- Industrial Development of Cumberland Gap (1810–1971).
- Early Efforts at Park Establishment (1870–1950).

[1] The National Park Service defines "non-recreational" visits as travel between inholdings, commuter traffic; trades people; civilian guides; government personnel (other than National Park Service staff); civilian use of facilities for meetings; and National Park Service-independent research activities (National Park Service 2024).

- Establishment of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park and the Mission 66 Program (1945–1972); and,
- Cumberland Gap in the Modern Age (1973–Present).

With the exception of excluded resource types, the completed inventory represents a comprehensive listing of all known historic properties in the park. This HRS evaluates over 240 park resources, including nine districts, containing a total of 151 buildings, structures, objects, and sites; 37 individual buildings and/or structures; and 54 archaeological sites. Additionally, 13 building and structures and 13 archaeological sites remain unevaluated due to a lack of available information regarding their history and/or development.

Districts. There are two historic districts within the park boundaries that are already listed in the NRHP. These districts include the Hensley Settlement Historic District and the Cumberland Gap – Virginia/Kentucky/Tennessee Historic District. These two districts were listed in the NRHP in 1979 and 1980, respectively. Collectively, these two districts have a total of 60 contributing and 9 non-contributing resources.

In addition to the districts listed above, there are an additional three historic districts within the park that have been determined or recommended eligible for listing in the NRHP. These districts include the Pinnacle Overlook Developed Area Historic District, Pinnacle Road Circulation Corridor Historic District, and the Chadwell Gap Coal Company Historic District. Collectively, these three districts contain a total of 34 resources, all of which are considered contributing to their respective districts. Additionally, two of the contributing properties—the Pinnacle View Road (formerly Skyland Road) and the Pinnacle Interpretative Shelter and Comfort Station—have been determined to be individually eligible listing in the NRHP.

The remaining four historic districts, which include the Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area, the Sugar Run Picnic Area, the Cumberland Gap Job Corps Conservation Center, and the National Park Service Maintenance Area, are recommended not eligible for listing in the NRHP. Archival research suggests that the Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area has historical significance for its association with recreational development within the park under the Mission 66-era program, and that the Cumberland Gap Job Corps Conservation Center, Sugar Run Picnic Area, and National Park Service Maintenance Area possess historical significance for their association with the Job Corps program. However, due to modern alterations, none of these districts retain sufficient integrity to be eligible for listing in the NRHP under any Criteria. It is further recommended that none of the individual resources located within these four districts possess the standalone significance necessary to be individually eligible for inclusion in the NRHP.

Individual Buildings, Structures, and Archaeological Sites. Of the 38 individual buildings and structures that were evaluated as part of the HRS, 24 do not meet the 50-year age requirement for NRHP listing and do not demonstrate the "exceptional importance" required for listing under Criteria Consideration G, as defined in *National Register Bulletin 22: Guidelines for Evaluating and Nominating Properties that Have Achieved Significance within the Past Fifty Years* (National Park Service 1998). Because of this, these properties, which include six trails, eight

bridges, two culverts, seven buildings, and one object, are recommended not eligible for inclusion in the NRHP.

Of the remaining 14 buildings and structures, two have been determined or are recommended individually eligible for listing in the NRHP. These properties include the Cumberland Gap Tunnel and the Object Lesson Road. The 12 remaining properties, consisting of the Shillalah Creek Trail/Road, Tri-State Peak Shelter, Tri-State Marker, Cumberland Gap National Historical Park Visitor Center, Little Railroad Tunnel, Martin's Fork Cabin, Pinnacle Pump House, Visitor Center Parking Area, Entrance Sign, Fort McCook Access Trail, Anne B. White House, and the O'Dell House and Garage, have undergone significant modifications that have substantially diminished their historic integrity. Therefore, these 12 properties are considered not eligible for inclusion in the NRHP.

Of the 54 archaeological sites that were evaluated as part of the HRS, 48 are recommended eligible for listing in the NRHP under one of six themes (see Appendix F). The remaining six sites, which include the Neal, Snyder, Mullins Coal Mine (CUGA00011.000), Station Creek (CUGA00059.000), Susan Baker/C.C. Powell (CUGA00057.000), Russell/Colson (CUGA00058.000), Station Creek Junction (CUGA00186.000), and Upper Station Creek Homestead (CUGA00186.000), are recommended not eligible for listing in the NRHP as they do not demonstrate significance under any of the four NRHP Criteria.

Unevaluated Properties. Lastly, one building, 13 archaeological sites, and 11 structures located within the park's boundaries could not be evaluated. The only building that could not be evaluated is the Old Millenium Cabin, a single room log cabin that was moved to the east lawn of the park's Visitor Center by the National Park Service in 2000. As the exact age of the building is not known, and its origin is unclear, the building is not recommended to be evaluated for NRHP listing.

The 13 archaeological sites include Colson Lane & Chimney Fall (CUGA00092.000), Sand Quarry (CUGA00137.000), Ramps Homestead (CUGA00164.000), Cudzu Rifle Pit (CUGA00096.000), Fern Curve Defenses (CUGA00101.000), Walter Rifle Pit (CUGA00144.000), Little Dam Valley (CUGA00117.000), Whichway Camp (CUGA00145.000), Howard Gulley House (CUGA00008.000), Battery 7 Outerworks (CUGA00193.000), Battery 7 Camp (CUGA00196.000), Tiprell Dugouts (CUGA00198.000), and Battery 1 Camp (CUGA000199.000).[2] The NRHP eligibility of these sites cannot be determined as archival research yielded no information on their age and/or association, and they were not relocated during survey; thus, their current condition is not known.

The 11 unevaluated structures include the Colson Trail, Ewing Trail, Lewis Hollow Trail, Skylight Cave Trail, Brownies Creek Trail, Brush Mountain Trail, Fort Lyon Trail, Fort McCook Trail, Ridge Trail, Sand Cave Trail, and LMU Trail. These resources have not been fully documented and additional archival research is needed before an eligibility recommendation can be made. For this reason, they are currently recommended unevaluated for NRHP listing.

[2] Numbers beginning with CUGA00 used here and elsewhere in this HRS are unique identifiers that have been assigned to archaeological sites located within the park by the National Park Service.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Executive Summary ii
Chapter One: Introduction 1
Description of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park 1
Geology and Soils 2
Climate 3
Flora and Fauna 3
Water Resources 6
Summary History of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park 6
Authority and Purpose of the Historic Resource Study 7
Project Scope and Methodology 8
Literature Review 8
On-site Project Kick-off Meeting and Field Investigation 9
Supplemental Archival Research and Context Development 10
Determination of Historic Contexts 11
National Register Evaluations 12
Chapter Two: Early Exploration and Colonization of the Tri-State Area 15
Precontact History of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park 15
Paleoindian Period (10,000 to 8,000 BCE) 16
Archaic Period (8,000 to 1,000 BCE) 16
Woodland Period (1,000 BCE to 900 CE) 18
Mississippian Period (900 to 1750 CE) 19
European American Encounters and Early Exploration 20
Early Colonization and Community Development 28
European American Lifeways in Southern Appalachia 39
Black American Community Development in the Tri-State Area 40
Road Construction: A Catalyst for Settlement 43
Vernacular Architecture of the Cumberland Gap 46
Log Cabins and Other Residential Architecture 47
Barns and Outbuildings 49
Schoolhouses 51
Cemeteries 52
Known Resource Types 54

Homesteads/Settlements 54
Cemeteries 55
Roads 57
Chapter Three: Cumberland Gap During the Civil War 60
U.S. Army and Confederate Occupation of the Cumberland Gap 60
Known Resource Types 66
Earthworks 66
Batteries 68
Camps 68
Rifle Pits/Trenches 69
Roads 71
NRHP Eligibility for Civil War Era Fortifications and Defensive Works 71
Chapter Four: Industrial Development of Cumberland Gap 73
Introduction 73
Environmental Conditions Contributing to Regional Extractive Industries and Manufacturing 74
Logging in the Tri-State Region 74
Iron Production at Cumberland Gap 76
History of Coal Mining in the Appalachian Mountains near Cumberland Gap 82
Other Industries at Cumberland Gap 86
Railroad Construction at Cumberland Gap 90
Contributions of Black Americans in the Industrial Development of the Tri-State Region 93
Known Resource Types 95
Coal Mines 95
Iron Foundries 96
Railroad Infrastructure 96
Other Industries 97
NRHP Eligibility for Industrial Resources 97
Chapter Five: Early Efforts at Park Establishment 100
Introduction 100
Initial Tourism Efforts at Cumberland Gap 101
Hotels and Resorts 101
Automobile Tourism Comes to the Gap 112
The Dixie Highway (U.S. Highway 25 East) 112

Skyland Road 119
Politics of Park Establishment 123
Known Resource Types 126
Roadside Attractions 126
Roads 127
Tourist Hotels/Cabins 127
Miscellaneous Tourism-Related Infrastructure 129
NRHP Eligibility for Pre-Park Tourism-Related Infrastructure 129
Chapter Six: Establishment of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park and the Mission 66 Program 132
Land Acquisition and Park Establishment 132
Planning a Park at Cumberland Gap 136
Building the Park: Initial Improvements at Cumberland Gap Under Mission 66 141
Pinnacle Overlook 141
Skyland Road 143
Visitor Center 145
The Mission 66 Master Plan and Later Improvements at Cumberland Gap 148
Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area 148
Tri-State Peak 153
The Job Corps At Cumberland Gap 156
Restoration of Hensley Settlement 164
Known Resource Types 167
Mission 66 Resources 167
NRHP Eligibility for Job Corps Resources 176
Chapter Seven: Cumberland Gap National Historical Park in the Modern Age 178
Prelude to the Restoration of Cumberland Gap 178
Construction of the Cumberland Gap Tunnel 182
Restoration of the Historic Wilderness Road 188
New Infrastructure Associated with the Restoration 190
Modern Improvements to Existing Resources 195
Known Resource Types 196
Cumberland Gap Tunnel 196
Parking Areas 197
Bridges 197

Trails 201
NRHP Eligibility for Resources Related to the Restoration of Cumberland Gap 201
Chapter Eight: National Register of Historic Places Evaluations 203
Resources Listed in the National Register 203
Historic Districts 203
Resources Determined or Recommended Eligible for Listing in the National Register 209
Historic Districts 209
Individual Properties 212
Resources Determined or Recommended Not Eligible for Listing in the National Register . 216
Resources Evaluated as Potential Historical Districts 216
Individual Properties 218
Unevaluated Resources 224
Individual Properties 224
Resources Recommended Not Eligible for Listing in the NRHP Due to Age 226
Chapter Nine: Management Recommendations 240
Resource Inventory and Evaluation 240
National Register Nominations and Amendments 241
Interpretation 241
Archives 243
Chapter Ten: Summary and Conclusions 244
Bibliography 248
Appendices: Confidential Information 279
Appendix A. Site Plan Maps 280

LIST OF PHOTOGRAPHS

Photograph 1. Lige Gibbons' log cabin. 49
Photograph 2. Willie Gibbons Granary (CUGA00035.007). 50
Photograph 3. Bert Hensley Hen House (CUGA00043.002). 50
Photograph 4. Hensley Cemetery (CUGA00038.000). 53
Photograph 5. Denny Cemetery (CUGA00177.000). 53
Photograph 6. Overview of Hensley Settlement. 54
Photograph 7. View of cellar at the 1920s Homestead (CUGA00078.000). 56
Photograph 8. Overview of Denny Cemetery (CUGA00177.000). 56

Photograph 9. Overview of the Object Lesson Road (101674). 57
Photograph 10. Overview of Fort McClellan as it appears today. 68
Photograph 11. Overview of the Fort Lyon Rifle Trench No. 1 (CUGA00203.000). 70
Photograph 12. Iron water tank at the Neal, Snyder, and Mullins Coal Mine (CUGA00011.000) 95
Photograph 13. Architectural remains of the John G. Newlee Iron Foundry (CUGA00016.000) 96
Photograph 14. Little Railroad Tunnel (CUGA00075.000) 97
Photograph 15. Architectural remains of the New South Brewery/Schneider Meat Packing Plant (CUGA00031.000) 98
Photograph 16. Daniel Boone D.A.R. Marker (91404). 127
Photograph 17. Current view of a segment of Pinnacle Road (formerly Skyland Road) that follows its original alignment. 128
Photograph 18. Architectural remains of the Cumberland Mountain Hotel (CUGA00055.000) 128
Photograph 19. Sky Walls (CUGA00138.000) 129
Photograph 20. Skyland Outbuilding (CUGA00217.000). 130
Photograph 21. Pinnacle Privy (CUGA00206.000). 130
Photograph 22. Interpretive Shelter and Comfort Station located within the Pinnacle Overlook Developed Area. 168
Photograph 23. Overview of a typical campsite in the Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area. 169
Photograph 24. Overview of the Tri-State Peak Shelter and its associated markers. 170
Photograph 25. View along the original segment of Pinnacle Road (formerly Skyland Road) near the Fort McCook Parking Area. 171
Photograph 26. Visitor Center. 172
Photograph 27. View of Park Headquarters Building. 173
Photograph 28. View of the Ranger Station. 175
Photograph 29. Overview of the Sugar Run Picnic Area. 175
Photograph 30. Overview of the Cumberland Gap Tunnel 197
Photograph 31. Overview of the main Visitor Center parking lot. 198
Photograph 32. Overview of the Iron Furnace Parking Area. 198
Photograph 33. Overview of the Colson Trail Parking Area. 199
Photograph 34. Overview of the Daniel Boone VIC Parking Area. 199
Photograph 35. Overview of the Thomas Walker Parking Area. 200

Photograph 36. Overview of the Skyland Road Bridge #1 and #2. 200
Photograph 37. Overview of Wilderness Road Trail. 201

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Map of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park showing major roads and developed areas (Image courtesy of the National Park Service). 1

Figure 2. Map depicting the soil unit classifications within Cumberland Gap National Historical Park (Figure courtesy of the USDA NRCS). 3

Figure 3. Photograph showing the dense forest within Cumberland Gap National Historical Park with the Pinnacle Overlook in the foreground, ca. 1964 (Photograph courtesy of the National Park Service). 4

Figure 4. Map of the middle British colonies in North America depicting the Cumberland Mountains (then known as the Ouasioto Mountains) and the territories of Indigenous groups in the area, ca. 1776. Note the red arrow pointing to what was then referred to as the "Ouasioto Mtn. Gap," which would later be known as the Cumberland Gap (Figure courtesy of Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.). 15

Figure 5. Sample of bifaces, projectile points, and flake tools recovered from archaeological testing at the Station Creek Site (Site 44LE146/CUGA00059.000) (Figure courtesy of Cornelison, Jr. and Horvath 1994). 18

Figure 6. Excerpt from the Map of the Indian Tribes of North America, ca. 1836 (Figure Courtesy of the Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.) 21

Figure 7. Woodcut print of the Cumberland Gap as it may have appeared to Dr. Thomas Walker, ca. 1872 (Figure Courtesy of the Library Photograph Collection, Tennessee State Library and Archives, Nashville, Tennessee). 23

Figure 8. Portrait of Daniel Boone and his hunting party while viewing Kentucky for the first time by William Tylee Ranney, ca. 1849 (Image courtesy of the Gilcrease Museum, Tulsa, Oklahoma). 25

Figure 9. General map of the new settlement of Transylvania, showing the location of Cumberland Gap and the trail through it, ca. 1776 (Image courtesy of the Tennessee State Library & Archives, Nashville, Tennessee). 26

Figure 10. John Filson's Map of Kentucky, showing the location of the Warrior's Path, denoted by the red arrow, and the alignment of the Wilderness Road, denoted by the blue arrow (Figure courtesy of the Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.). 27

Figure 11. View of the present-day reconstructed Martin's Station, now within Wilderness Road State Park, in Ewing, Virginia (Image courtesy of Virginia State Parks). 28

Figure 12. Rendering of the Cumberland Ford settlement with the Shelby/Renfro House in the foreground, ca. 1800s (Image courtesy of Cornett 2009). 29

Figure 13. Photograph of the grist mill in Cumberland Gap, ca. 1885–1890 (Sweet 2014). 30

Figure 14. View of the Town of Cumberland Gap under occupation by U.S. forces, ca. 1863 (Image courtesy of Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.) 31

Figure 15. Overview of Town of Cumberland Gap, ca. 1920s (Image courtesy of the Tennessee Postcard Collection, Tennessee State Library and Archives, Nashville, Tennessee). 32

Figure 16. Photograph of Alexander Arthur, ca. 1880s (Image courtesy of Cumberland Gap Broadcasting Company [https://www.angelfire.com/ky2/cumberlandgapbc/mhpage/arthur12.jpg]). 34

Figure 17. 1890 newspaper advertisement for Middlesborough (Image reprinted from the *Courier-Journal,* May 4, 1890). 35

Figure 18. View along Cumberland Avenue in Middlesboro, ca. 1920s (Image courtesy of the Ronald Morgan Postcard Collection, Kentucky Historical Society, Frankfort, Kentucky)..... 36

Figure 19. Photograph of Sherman Hensley, ca. 1950s (Image courtesy of Cox 2005)..... 38

Figure 20. Aerial view of the Hensley Settlement after restoration, ca. 1970s (Image courtesy of the University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky)..... 38

Figure 21. M. H. Gass' photograph showing a typical Appalachian family in East Tennessee (exact location unknown), ca. 1910 (Image courtesy of Library of Congress, Washington D.C.). 40

Figure 22. A Black family in front of their cabin in Claiborne County, Tennessee, ca. 1880–1900 (Image courtesy of Lincoln Memorial University, Harrogate, Tennessee). 41

Figure 23. Excerpt from the 1891 Sanborn map showing the old grist mill (Image courtesy of the Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.). 42

Figure 24. Photograph of George W. Bell, date unknown (Image courtesy of the Southeast Kentucky Community and Technical College, Cumberland, Kentucky). 42

Figure 25. View of the Wilderness Road as it appeared at the turn of the twentieth century, ca. 1900 (Image courtesy of Pusey 1921). 44

Figure 26. Photographs showing the Object Lesson Road under construction and after completion, ca. 1908–1909 (Image courtesy of *Manufacturers' Record*, October 28, 1909). 45

Figure 27. Photograph of a family in front of a crude single-pen cabin near Harrogate, Tennessee, ca. 1906 (Image courtesy of the George Grantham Bain Collection, Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.). 46

Figure 28. Photograph of the single-pen Cupp Cabin (CUGA00120.000) before its restoration by the Job Corps, ca. 1964. Note the wood shingles and stone chimney on the gable end of the structure (Photograph on file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky [Classification No. 930, Negative No. 1995]). 47

Figure 29. Illustration showing the diverse types of corner notches used in log cabin construction (Image courtesy of Montell and Morse 1976). 48

Figure 30. Willie Gibbons Barn (CUGA00035.006) as it appeared before its reconstruction by the Job Corps (Image courtesy of Job Corps 1969). 51

Figure 31. Brush Mountain Schoolhouse (CUGA00044.001) at Hensley Settlement, ca. 1947 (Image courtesy of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. 52

Figure 32. Chapter 2 Known Resources. 59

Figure 33. Portrait of Brig. Gen. Felix Zollicoffer, ca. 1860s (Image courtesy of the Mississippi Department of Archives and History, Jackson, Mississippi). 61

Figure 34. Map of Cumberland Gap showing the location of Civil War earthworks, ca. December 1862 (Base image courtesy of the National Archives and Records Administration, College Park, Maryland). 62

Figure 35. Army of Brig. Gen. George Morgan evacuating the Cumberland Gap, September 17, 1862 (Image courtesy of the Ronald Kentucky Postcard Collection, Kentucky Historical Society, Frankfort, Kentucky). 65

Figure 36. Section drawing of the Fort McClellan earthwork, showing revetments reinforced with gabions, ca. 1860s (Image courtesy of the Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.). 67

Figure 37. Confederate camp showing characteristic camp layout and shelter types, ca. 1870 (Image courtesy of the Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.). 69

Figure 38. Photograph showing typical construction of Civil War era rifle pits on a picket line (not within the boundaries of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park), ca. 1860s (Image courtesy of the Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.). 70

Figure 39. Chapter 3 Known Resources. 72

Figure 40. Photograph of the Wilderness Road showing the road's primitive condition, ca. 1850s–1880s (Image courtesy of Bell County Historical Society, Middlesboro, Kentucky). 73

Figure 41. Photograph of a log raft on the Clinch River in Claiborne County, ca. 1920s (Image courtesy of Looking Back at Tennessee Photograph Collection, 1890–1981, Tennessee State Library and Archives, Nashville, Tennessee). 75

Figure 42. Sketch of a typical bloomery forge operated by a bellows (Figure courtesy of Scott 2012). 77

Figure 43. Excerpt from the Southwest Virginia and Contiguous Territory Map, showing the location of the Bales Forge, denoted by the red arrow and the Newlee's Iron Furnace, denoted by the yellow arrow, ca. 1886. Note the location of the Cumberland Gap in the left-central portion of the image (Figure courtesy of the Document Bank, Library of Virginia, Richmond). 77

Figure 44. Engraving of the Cumberland Gap (Newlee's) Furnace by Harry Fenn, ca. 1872 (Image courtesy of the Cumberland Gap Broadcasting Company [https://www.angelfire.com/ky2/cumberlandgapbc/mhpage/cgapmill20.jpg]). 79

Figure 45. Postcard showing the Cumberland Gap (Newlee's) Furnace after it was abandoned, ca. 1910s (Image courtesy of Kramer Art Company, Cincinnati, Ohio). 79

Figure 46. Map of Southwestern Virginia and Environs, showing the location of iron deposits (red) and coal beds (brown) in proximity to Cumberland Gap (red box), ca. 1892 (Image courtesy of Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.). 80

Figure 47. Photograph of men working at iron ore mines near Cumberland Gap, ca. 1890 (Image courtesy of *Souvenir of Middlesboro*, October 1890 [https://www.angelfire.com/ky2/cumberlandgapbc/mhpage/1890sov42.jpg]). 80

Figure 48. View of the Watt's Iron Furnace, ca. 1906 (Image courtesy of Ashley and Glenn 1906). 81

Figure 49. Engraving of John Ralston, one of the earliest operators in the Cumberland Gap coalfield, ca. 1906 (Image courtesy of Tipton 1906). 82

Figure 50. Miners at Ralston's coal mine on Mingo Mountain, ca. 1890 (Image courtesy of *Souvenir of Middlesboro*, October 1890 [https://www.angelfire.com/ky2/cumberlandgapbc/mhpage/1890sov45.jpg]). 83

Figure 51. Map showing the location of major coal mines in the vicinity of Cumberland Gap (red box), ca. 1908 (Image courtesy of the Native Heritage Project [https://nativeheritageproject.com/2013/10/24/mingo-holler-claiborne-county-tn-and-bell-county-ky/]. 84

Figure 52. Postcard showing a typical coal mine in the Cumberland Gap region, ca. 1920s (Image courtesy of Kentucky Coal Education [http://www.coaleducation.org/coalhistory/postcards/postcards.htm]). 85

Figure 53. Postcard for the New South Brewery and Ice Company, ca. 1900 (Image courtesy of the Cumberland Gap Broadcasting Company [2012newssouthcolor.jpg (1084×668) (angelfire.com)]). 87

Figure 54. Buildings associated with the Schneider Meat Packing Plant as they appeared after the property's condemnation, date unknown (Image courtesy of the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park Archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky). 89

Figure 55. Schneider Meat Packing Plant building and vehicles as viewed by park visitors from the Park Maintenance Road following its condemnation, date unknown (Image courtesy of the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park Archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky). 89

Figure 56. Excerpt from Map Showing the Proposed Tennessee, Alabama, and Georgia Railroad, depicting the alignment of the Knoxville, Cumberland Gap, and Louisville Railroad (orange line) and the Louisville and Nashville Railroad (purple and green lines) through the Cumberland Gap, ca. 1892 (Figure courtesy of the Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.). 91

Figure 57. Louisville & Nashville Railroad, looking towards the south portal through Cumberland Gap, date unknown (Image courtesy of Lincoln Memorial University, Harrogate, Tennessee). 92

Figure 58. Cumberland Gap Tunnel, ca. 1900 (Image courtesy of Tennessee Post Card Collection, Tennessee State Library and Archives, Nashville, Tennessee). 92

Figure 59. Photograph of the of the train wreck along the KCG&L Railroad, ca. 1889 (Image courtesy of Lincoln Memorial University, Harrogate, Tennessee). 93

Figure 60. Chapter 4 Known Resources. 99

Figure 61. Illustration by Harry Fenn of a teamster driving oxen through the Cumberland Gap, ca. 1872 (Image courtesy of the *Appleton's Journal of Literature, Science, and Art*, March 16, 1872). 100

Figure 62. Excerpt from a sketch map showing the adjoining lands of the Harrogate Land Company and the Cumberland Gap Park Company, ca. 1891 (Image courtesy of Harrogate Land Company 1891).....102

Figure 63. Photograph of the Four Seasons Hotel, ca. 1890s (Image courtesy of the Cumberland Gap Broadcasting Company [https://www.angelfire.com/ky2/cumberlandgapbc/mhpage/fourseasons1.jpg]). 103

Figure 64. Rendering of the Harrogate Inn, ca. 1891 (Image courtesy of *Souvenir of Middlesboro*, October 1890 [https://www.angelfire.com/ky2/cumberlandgapbc/mhpage/1890sov54.jpg]). 104

Figure 65. Photograph of the Four Seasons sanitarium building after its purchase by LMU, ca. 1890s (Image courtesy of the Cumberland Gap Broadcasting Company [https://www.angelfire.com/ky2/cumberlandgapbc/mhpage/lmugrantlee10.jpg]).....105

Figure 66. Postcard showing young men climbing to the top of the Pinnacle, ca. 1909 (Image courtesy of the Kraemer Art Company, Cincinnati, Ohio).....106

Figure 67. Photograph of G. B. Cockrell, ca. 1900 (Image courtesy of Carolyn LeVesque [https://www.flickr.com/photos/levesque-allen-gambill/3757830831]).....107

Figure 68. Postcard for Cudjo's Cave, showing the gift shop and the original cave entrance high up on the cliff face, ca. 1930 (Image courtesy of the Cumberland Gap Broadcasting Company [https://www.angelfire.com/ky2/cumberlandgapbc/mhpage/cudjospostcard.jpg)]).....108

Figure 69. Postcard showing Fern Lake in the winter, ca. 1900. Note the pavilion at right-center (Image courtesy of the Office Equipment Co., Louisville, Kentucky).....109

Figure 70. Photograph showing two horse drawn wagons near the old "Tri-State Marker" located near the saddle of the Cumberland Gap, ca. 1870–1900. Note the man (at right) standing beside a stone that denotes the Tri-State junction (Image courtesy of Stereographic Views of Louisville and Beyond, University of Louisville, Photographic Archives, Louisville).....110

Figure 71. Tri-State Marker as it appeared following its move to the Tri-State Peak, ca. 1920s (Photograph from Souvenir Folder of Middlesboro, KY, and Cumberland Gap. Tenn., author's personal collection).....110

Figure 72. Photograph showing the location of the Daniel Boone Monument along the Dixie Highway, ca. 1920s (Image courtesy of Wiley 2014). 111

Figure 73. Excerpt from the Map of the Dixie Highway, showing the proposed alignment from Knoxville through the Cumberland Gap, ca. 1915 (Image courtesy of the Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.). 113

Figure 74. Postcard showing the entrance to the Dixie Highway through the Cumberland Gap, ca. 1917 (Image courtesy of the Postcard Collection, University of Kentucky, Lexington).....114

Figure 75. Excerpt from the Outline of the Dixie Highway Map, showing the new alignment of the highway through Jellico (as denoted by the red box), ca. 1919 (Image courtesy of the Florida Ephemera Collection, State Library of Florida, Tallahassee, Florida). 114

Figure 76. Photograph showing U.S. Highway 25E as it passed through the Gap, ca. 1928. Note the wooden staircase at the center of the photograph, which led to the Pinnacle prior to construction of Skyland Road (Image courtesy of Caufield and Shook Collection, University of Louisville, Photographic Archives, Louisville). 115

Figure 77. Bathhouse at Bartlett Park constructed by the WPA, ca. 1936. Note the pavilion in the background (Image courtesy of the Goodman-Paxton Photographic Collection, University of Kentucky, Lexington). 116

Figure 78. Postcard showing the Little Tunnel Inn on U.S. Highway 25E, with the Cumberland Gap in the background, ca. 1935. Note the "log cabin" appearance of the building (Image courtesy of Curt Teich and Co., Inc., Chicago, Illinois). 117

Figure 79. Photograph of the Indian Rock Inn and Café, ca. 1940s (Image courtesy of Wiley 2014). 118

Figure 80. Postcard for the Cumberland Mountain Hotels and Cottages, ca. 1940s (Image courtesy of Mackhardt Travel Service, New Orleans, Louisiana). 118

Figure 81. Postcard for the Harris Tourist Courts, ca. 1940s (Image courtesy of the Cline Company, Chattanooga, Tennessee). 119

Figure 82. Postcard showing Skyland Road, ca. 1930s (Image courtesy of Comer's Drug Store, Cumberland Gap, Tennessee). 120

Figure 83. Photograph showing the filling station and blockhouse with a sign pointing across the road to the Pinnacle, ca. 1930s (Image courtesy of Wiley 2014). 121

Figure 84. Photograph showing the entrance to Skyland Road with souvenir shop and archway, ca. 1930s (Image courtesy of the Cumberland Gap Broadcasting Company [https://www.angelfire.com/ky2/cumberlandgapbc/mhpage/pinnacleentrance10.jpg]). 122

Figure 85. Photograph showing a man sitting on a stump overlooking the Pinnacle Parking area, ca. 1930 (Image courtesy of Caufield and Shook Collection, University of Louisville, Photographic Archives, Louisville). 122

Figure 86. Photograph showing the wooden overlook platform at the Pinnacle, ca. 1940s (Image courtesy of Tennessee Department of Conservation Photograph Collection, 1937–1976, Tennessee State Library and Archives, Nashville, Tennessee). 123

Figure 87. Photograph of Robert L. Kincaid and family, ca. 1940s (Image courtesy of Ancestry.com). 125

Figure 88. Original boundaries proposed for Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, showing the location of Pine Mountain State Park and the Kentucky Ridge Development (Image courtesy of *The Courier-Journal*, October 22, 1938). 126

Figure 89. Chapter 5 Known Resources. 131

Figure 90. Photograph of the Governors of Kentucky, Tennessee, and Virginia meeting at the Tri-State Peak, ca. 1943. Note the concrete Tri-State Marker located at their feet. This geodetic

marker replaced the old cornerstone marker in 1934 (Image courtesy of *The Courier-Journal*, September 5, 1943). 133

Figure 91. Cudjo's Cave as it appeared at the time of the park's establishment, ca. 1940s (Image courtesy of the Cumberland Gap Broadcasting Company [https://www.angelfire.com/ky2/cumberlandgapbc/mhpage/cudjoes1.jpg]). 134

Figure 92. Photograph of the Howard J. Douglass with survey blueprints for Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, ca. 1950 (Image courtesy of *The Courier-Journal*, September 3, 1950). 135

Figure 93. Excerpt from the 1955 Existing Conditions Map for Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, showing its layout shortly after it was transferred to the National Park Service and before its Mission 66-era development (Image on file at eTIC [no. 547310-CUGA_380_3008B]). 137

Figure 94. Photograph of the Cumberland Mountain Hotel property after its condemnation, ca. 1957 (Image courtesy of Sirna 2015). 138

Figure 95. Excerpt from the 1956 Development Plan for Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, showing the proposed Mission 66 redevelopment (Image on file at eTIC [no. 41187-CUGA_380_3003D]). 139

Figure 96. Photograph of the Superintendent's secretary, Virginia Huff, and park historian, Hobart "Hobie" Cawood, in front of the temporary park headquarters at the Hotel Cumberland, date unknown (Image courtesy of Wiley 2014). 140

Figure 97. Photograph of the O'Dell House, ca. 1957. This location served as the temporary park headquarters from 1957 until 1959 (Image courtesy of Tennessee Department of Conservation Photograph Collection, 1937–1976, Tennessee State Library and Archives, Nashville, Tennessee) 140

Figure 98. Pinnacle Parking Area under construction, ca. 1956 (Image reprinted from National Park Service 1956). 141

Figure 99. Construction of the Pinnacle Overlook Terrace, taken in September 1956 (Photograph on file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky [Classification No. 978, Negative No. 2461]). 142

Figure 100. Postcard showing the Interpretive Shelter and Comfort Station as it appeared shortly after its construction, ca. 1960s. Note the trailside exhibits installed on the interior (Image courtesy of Walter and Co. Inc., Williamsburg, Virginia) 143

Figure 101. Worker applying asphalt binder along shoulder of original segment of Pinnacle View Road (formerly Skyland Road), ca. 1957 (Image reprinted from National Park Service 1957). 144

Figure 102. Cumberland Gap National Historical Park Visitor Center shortly after its construction, ca. 1963 (Image courtesy of Luckett 1964). 145

Figure 103. Postcard showing the Visitor Center shortly after its construction, ca. 1960 (Image courtesy of Walter H. Miller & Co., Inc., Williamsburg, Virginia). 146

Figure 104. Dedication ceremony for Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, July 4, 1959 (Photograph on file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky).....147

Figure 105. Photograph of Vice President Nixon in front of the Interpretive Shelter and Comfort Station, ca. 1959 (Image courtesy of Jack E. Boucher, National Park Service [Negative Number: C59-JB-226]). 147

Figure 106. Excerpt from the January 19, 1959, Preliminary Plan drawing, showing the proposed campground and picnic area (Image reprinted on file at eTIC [no. 694220-CUGA_380_3046B]). 149

Figure 107. Excerpt from the July 1961 as-built drawing, showing the expanded campground and picnic area (Image reprinted on file at eTIC [no. 56221-CUGA_380_3100A]). 149

Figure 108. Photograph of Comfort Station under construction, ca. 1961 (Image reprinted from National Park Service 1961a). 150

Figure 109. Photograph showing the completed campground loop and parking spurs, ca. 1962 (Image reprinted from National Park Service 1962).....151

Figure 110. Photograph of the Camp Tender's Residence following completion, ca. 1963–1964 (Image on file at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky). 152

Figure 111. Photograph of campground amphitheater under construction, ca. 1965 (Image on file at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky).....153

Figure 112. Park historian F. B. Sarles points to the Tri-State Marker as it appeared ca. 1957 (Image courtesy of the Dept. of Conservation Photograph Collection, 1937–1976, Tennessee State Library and Archives, Nashville, Tennessee). 154

Figure 113. 1963 Tri-State Peak Development Plan for Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, showing the layout of the trail system and Orientation Shelter, as proposed under the Mission 66 program (Image on file at eTIC [no. 549747-CUGA_380_3108_0001_of_0001]). 154

Figure 114. Tri-State Peak Shelter under construction, ca. 1964 (Image reprinted from National Park Service 1967).....155

Figure 115. View of the Tri-State Peak Shelter, shortly after completion, in 1967 (Image reprinted from National Park Service 1967).....156

Figure 116. Plan map showing the JCCC at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, prepared by G. F. Justice on June 7, 1965 (Image courtesy of Job Corps 1966).....158

Figure 117. Aerial view showing the layout of the Cumberland Gap JCCC, taken on October 21, 1968 (Image courtesy of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park [Image no. BUG-5JJ-147]). 159

Figure 118. Overview of the Cumberland Gap JCCC, ca. 1968. The view is to the northeast, with the gymnasium (at right) and combination basketball/volleyball court (at left) in the foreground (Image reprinted from Job Corps 1968).....159

Figure 119. Working drawing for the Park Maintenance Area, showing its original layout, ca. 1967 (Image on file at eTIC [no. 689341-CUGA_380_2056_0001_of_0001]). 160

Figure 120. Excerpt from a Working drawing for the Sugar Run Picnic Area, showing its original layout, ca. 1967 (Image on file at eTIC [no. 546868-CUGA_380_2052_0001_of_0001]). 161

Figure 121. Comfort station at the Sugar Run Picnic Area as initially constructed by Job Corps, ca. 1969 (Image courtesy of Job Corps 1969). 162

Figure 122. JCCC enrollees constructing stone steps to the top of the Fort McCook earthwork, ca. 1969 (Image courtesy of Job Corps 1969). 163

Figure 123. Sign announcing the closure of the Cumberland Gap JCCC, ca. 1969 (Image courtesy of *The Middlesboro Daily News*, June 21, 1969). 164

Figure 124. Members of the Job Corps pose at the Bert Hensley cabin with former Hensley resident Jesse Gibbons, ca. 1966 (Image courtesy of National Park Service [https://www.nps.gov/cuga/learn/historyculture/bert-hensley-house.htm]). 165

Figure 125. Chapter 6 Known Resources. 177

Figure 126. Photograph of a traffic accident along U.S. Highway 25E near the Cumberland Gap, ca. 1950s. Note the road sign in the background, which reads “Welcome to Kentucky” (Image courtesy of Wiley 2014).....179

Figure 127. Woman stands along the side of U.S. Highway 25E as it passes through Cumberland Gap, ca. 1940s (Image courtesy of University of North Texas Libraries, Denton, Texas). 180

Figure 128. Schematic drawing showing the location of the proposed 750-foot-long tunnel through the Cumberland Gap and proposed restoration activities, October 1966 (Image courtesy of National Park Service 1966).....181

Figure 129. Sketch showing the route of the proposed Cumberland Gap Tunnel as recommended by the ARC in 1973 (Image courtesy of *The Knoxville News-Sentinel*, June 10, 1973). 182

Figure 130. Photograph of Sen. Walter “Dee” Huddleston, ca. 1980 (Image courtesy of the Portrait Print Collection, University of Kentucky, Lexington).....183

Figure 131. Photograph of the pilot tunnel showing tracks for transporting materials to the construction site, ca. 1985 (Image courtesy of Wiley 2014). 185

Figure 132. View of the northbound portal under construction, ca. 1991 (Image courtesy of Cumberland Gap Tunnel Authority [https://cgtunnel.com/about.html]). 186

Figure 133. Rendering of the exterior of the Cumberland Gap Tunnel, ca. 2001 (Image courtesy of Federal Highway Administration 2001).....187

Figure 134. Spectators at the dedication ceremony for the Cumberland Gap Tunnel, ca. October 1996 (Image courtesy of *Bristol Herald Courier*, October 19, 1996). 188

Figure 135. Restoration activities in the saddle of the Gap, ca. 2002–2003 (Image courtesy of Cumberland Gap Tunnel Authority [https://cgtunnel.com/about.html]). 189

Figure 136. LMU students planting trees on the old U.S. Highway 25E roadbed, ca. 2002 (Image courtesy of Robert Droz [https://losthistory.net/us-highways/cgap2002a.htm]). 190

Figure 137. Restored entrance to Gap Cave, ca. 2000 (Image courtesy of Cumberland Gap Tunnel Authority [https://cgtunnel.com/about.html]).....191

Figure 138. Overview of the Visitor Center Parking Area before reconstruction, taken in September 1964 (Photograph on file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky [Classification No. 910, Negative No. 1551]). 191

Figure 139. Aerial imagery showing current location of U.S. Highway 58 with the Colson Trail Parking Area, denoted by the red arrow, ca. 2003 (Image courtesy of Google Earth). 192

Figure 140. Plan for the Daniel Boone VIC, ca. 2002 (Image courtesy of Ledbetter 2002). 193

Figure 141. Photograph of interpretative sculptures at the Daniel Boone VIC designed by Vincent Ciulla Design, ca. 2006 (Image courtesy of Cumberland Gap Tunnel Authority [https://cgtunnel.com/about.html]). 193

Figure 142. Trail map of the Cumberland Gap Area, showing the location of the Thomas Walker Parking Area, denoted by the red arrow, the Iron Furnace Parking Area, denoted by the orange arrow, and the Daniel Boone VIC, denoted by the blue arrow, ca. 2001 (Image reprinted on file at eTIC [no. 692992-CUGA_380_60040_A_0001_of_0001]).....194

Figure 143. Section drawing showing restorations to the L&N Railroad Tunnel (Little Tunnel), ca. 2001 (Image courtesy of National Park Service 2001). 195

Figure 144. Chapter 7 Known Resources. 202

Figure 145. Resources Determined or Recommended Eligible for Listing in the NRHP. 227

Figure 146. Resources Determined or Recommended Not Eligible for Listing in the NRHP. ...228

Figure 147. Unevaluated Resources. 229

Figure 148. Resources Recommended Not Eligible for Listing in the NRHP Due to Age. 230

Figure 149. Map of the NRHP-listed Cumberland Gap – Virginia/Kentucky/Tennessee Historic District.....231

Figure 150. Map of the NRHP-listed Hensley Settlement Historic District. 232

Figure 151. Map of the NRHP-eligible Pinnacle Overlook Developed Area Historic District...233

Figure 152. Map of the NRHP-eligible Pinnacle Overlook Developed Area Historic District...234

Figure 153. Map of the NRHP-eligible Chadwell Gap Coal Company Historic District.....235

Figure 154. Map of the Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area, a district that has been determined not eligible for listing in the NRHP. 236

Figure 155. Map of the Cumberland Gap Job Corps Conservation Center, a district which is recommended not eligible for listing in the NRHP. 237

Figure 156. Map of the National Park Maintenance Area, a district which been recommended not eligible for listing in the NRHP. 238

Figure 157. Map of the Sugar Run Picnic Area, a district which is recommended not eligible for listing in the NRHP. 239

Figure 158. Plan map of 1920s Homestead Site (CUGA00078.000), Bell County, Kentucky. ..281

Figure 159. Plan map of Braden House Site (CUGA00085.000), Bell County, Kentucky. 282

Figure 160. Plan map of Briar Patch Site (CUGA00087.000), Bell County, Kentucky. 283

Figure 161. Plan map of Cumberland Gap Mountain Hotel Site (CUGA00055.000), Bell County, Kentucky. 284
Figure 162. Plan map of Dimple Site (CUGA00177.000), Bell County, Kentucky....285
Figure 163. Gerber Site (CUGA00158.000), Bell County, Kentucky. 286
Figure 164. Plan map of Neal, Snyder & Mullins Coal Mine (CUGA00011.000), Bell County, Kentucky. 287
Figure 165. New South Brewery/Schneider Meat Packing Plant (CUGA00031.000), Bell County, Kentucky. 288
Figure 166. Plan map of Pinnacle Perch Site (CUGA00122.000), Bell County, Kentucky. 289
Figure 167. Plan map of Sky Walls Site (CUGA00138.000), Bell County, Kentucky. 290
Figure 168. Plan map of Thick Site (CUGA00141.000), Bell County, Kentucky. 291
Figure 169. Plan map of Tiny Chimney Site (CUGA00142.000), Bell County, Kentucky. 292
Figure 170. Plan map of Denny Cemetery Site (CUGA00177.000), Lee County, Virginia. 293
Figure 171. Plan map of Gap Creek House Site (CUGA00103.000), Lee County, Virginia. 294
Figure 172. Plan map of Intersection Site (CUGA00114.000), Lee County, Virginia....295
Figure 173. Plan map of Lewis Hollow Homestead 2 Site (CUGA00178.000), Lee County, Virginia. 296
Figure 174. Plan map of Station Creek Junction Site (CUGA00186.000), Lee County, Virginia. 297
Figure 175. Plan map of Switchback Site (CUGA00139.000), Lee County, Virginia. 298
Figure 176. Plan map of Upper Station Creek Homestead Site (CUGA00185.000), Lee County, Virginia. 299

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Aspects of Integrity as Defined in National Register Bulletin 15 13
Table 2. Supplemental Documents Used to Evaluate the NRHP Eligibility of Park Resources 13
Table 3. Homestead Sites Located within Cumberland Gap National Historical Park 55
Table 4. Buildings and Structures within the Park Headquarters Area that were originally part of the Cumberland Gap JCCC....173
Table 5. Buildings and Structures Located within the National Park Service Maintenance Area. 174
Table 6. Summary of Resources within the Cumberland Gap Historic District – Virginia/Kentucky/Tennessee (NRIS #80000336), by listing. 204
Table 7. Summary of Resources within the Hensley Settlement Historic District (NRIS #80000367), by listing. 207

Table 8. Civil War-Era Sites Recommended Individually Eligible for Listing in the NRHP. 214

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

DESCRIPTION OF CUMBERLAND GAP NATIONAL HISTORICAL PARK

Cumberland Gap National Historical Park was authorized by Congress on June 11, 1940, and officially opened in 1959. The park straddles a Tri-State area that encompasses 24,547 acres in Bell and Harlan Counties, Kentucky; Lee County, Virginia; and Claiborne County, Tennessee (Figure 1). More than half of the park, or 14,091 acres, has been designated as recommended wilderness. The park derives its name from a 600-foot-wide, V-shaped pass in a long ridgeline of the Cumberland Mountains, which since historic times, has been known as the Cumberland Gap (Gap). The Gap created by this geological fault block served as an Indigenous hunting and trade route and eventually as a gateway for European American expansion in the eighteenth and early-nineteenth centuries. In the mid-1770s, the establishment of the Wilderness Road through the Cumberland Gap facilitated the migration of more than 300,000 pioneers from the eastern colonies to the interior lands of the Ohio River Valley.

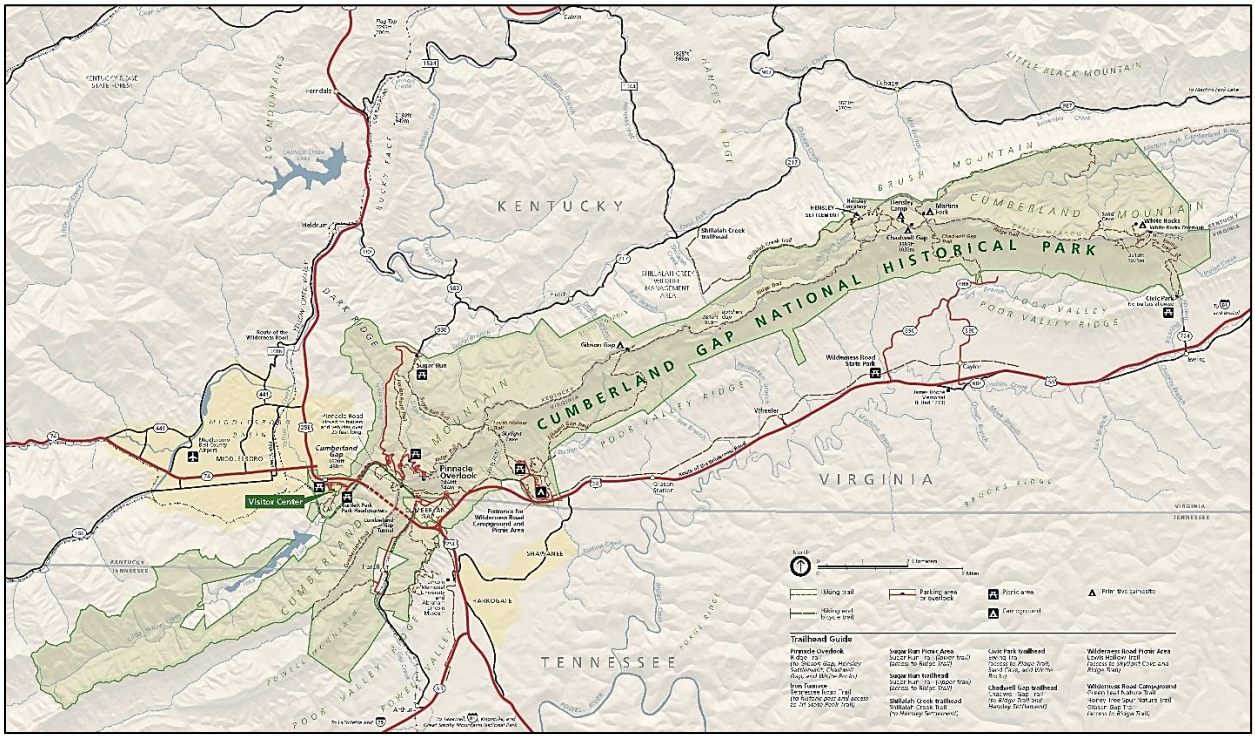


Figure 1. Map of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park showing major roads and developed areas (Image courtesy of the National Park Service).

The park provides a variety of attractions that allow visitors to explore the beautiful, natural scenery of the Cumberland Gap and to engage with the rich history of the region. For example, park visitors can learn about the Gap's strategic role during the United States (U.S.) Civil War by viewing interpretive exhibits at many of the earthwork fortifications present within the current park boundaries. Additionally, guided tours of Gap Cave (formerly Cudjo's Cave) and the restored mountain community of Hensley Settlement provide visitors with unique opportunities

to explore and learn about the geology and ecology of an underground cave system as well as the culture and customs of the area's Appalachian communities. The park also offers many scenic hiking trails that direct visitors to picturesque viewpoints, such the Pinnacle Overlook and the Tri-State Peak. Many of the hiking trails that comprise the park's expansive trail network evolved from historic roadbeds and Native American hunting trails. U.S Highway 25 East (U.S. Highway 25E) serves as the main southeast-northwest thoroughfare through the park; however, it can also be accessed by State Route (S.R.) 688 and S.R. 724 in Virginia; U.S. Highway 58 in Tennessee and Virginia; and S.R. 988 and the Shillalah Creek Trail in Kentucky.

Geology and Soils

Cumberland Gap National Historical Park is situated within the Cumberland Mountain section of the Appalachian Plateaus physiographic province, which extends from New York to Alabama and encompasses several mountain ranges. Its diverse geologic setting reflects numerous mountain-forming periods that occurred millions of years ago, and involved the folding, faulting, lifting, and shifting of sedimentary rocks. This activity, along with the ensuing erosional and weathering processes, helped to create a rich and diverse landscape that is characterized by caves, cliffs, natural gaps, ridges, springs, streams, and valleys. Among the park's extensive array of notable geologic features are the White Rocks, Pinnacle, Devil's Garden, and Sand and Gap caves. These features are comprised of sandstone, conglomerate, shale, siltstone, limestone, and dolomite varieties of sedimentary rocks.

In addition, the Appalachian Plateaus are known for their coal beds, iron ore, and limestone flux, which were discovered by geologists and attracted industry to the region. Remnants of historic coal and iron mines, as well as limestone, sandstone, sand, and gravel quarries are present within the park and attest to its importance in supporting the economic development of the Tri-State region. Soils within the park are shallow and are formed in either residuum or colluvium of limestone, shale, siltstone, or sandstone (Ahlman et al. 2005). Sandstone is the most abundant parent material and occurs mostly on the west side of Cumberland Mountain. According to the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) Natural Resources Conservation Service (NRCS) Web Soil Survey, the park contains 21 different soil series (Figure 2).

The predominant soil types within the park are the Helechawa-Varilla-Jefferson (4,807 acres [19.8%]) and Alticrest-Totz-Helechawa soil complexes (4,595 acres [18.9%]). Both feature well-drained soils formed on rocky slopes, benches, terraces, hillsides, and mountainsides. They are characterized by their deep brown coarse loamy sand as well as their dark grayish brown fine gravelly and sandy loam. Neither complex is well suited for agriculture, in part because of the weather-resistant sandstone parent material on which these series mainly occur (Sundin et al. 2013).

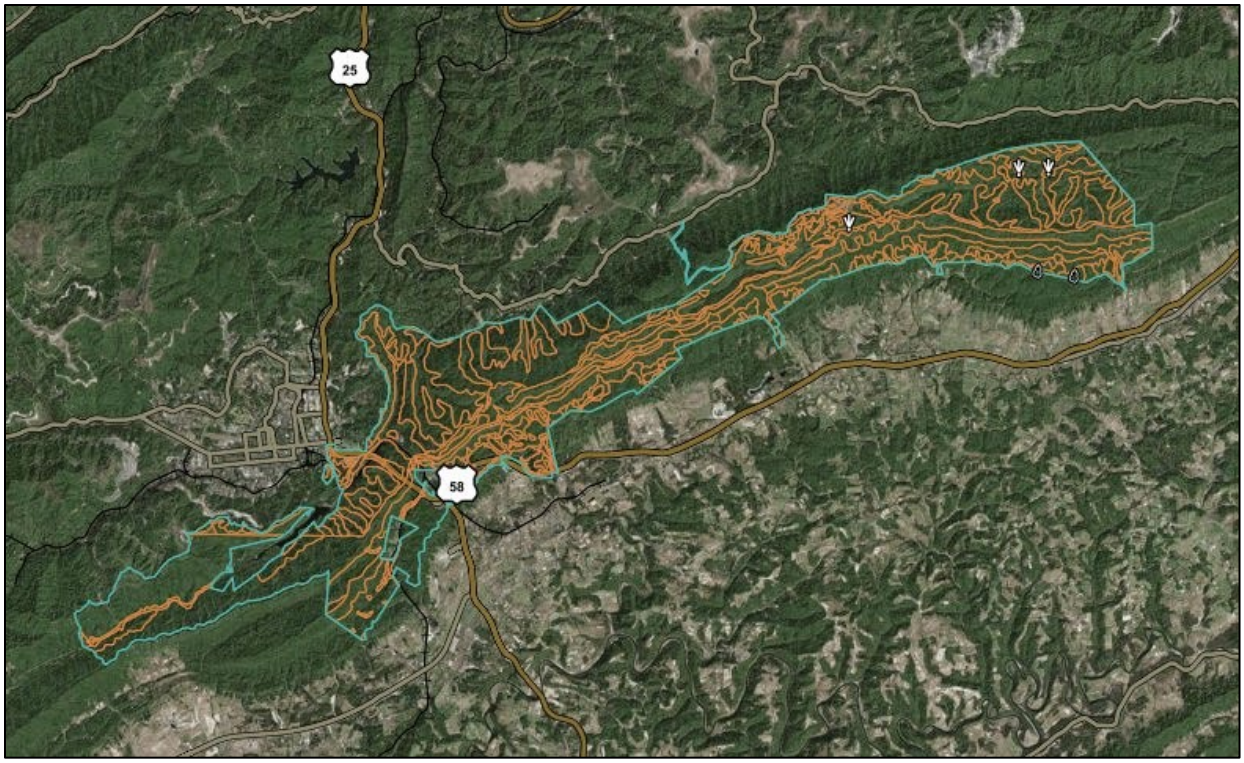


Figure 2. Map depicting the soil unit classifications within Cumberland Gap National Historical Park (Figure courtesy of the USDA NRCS).

Climate

The region surrounding Cumberland Gap National Historical Park has a fairly mild subtropical climate, which can turn unpredictable at higher elevations. The park's lowest elevation is 1,100 feet and its highest is 3,500 feet. Summers are hot and humid, with the warmest month being July, which has an average temperature of 76 degrees Fahrenheit. Winters are generally mild with rain and occasional snow showers occurring between January and March (NPS 2024a). The coldest month is January during which the temperature averages 36 degrees Fahrenheit. The average rainfall is 48 inches, and the wettest month is June, which experiences an average of 2.9 inches of precipitation. Approximately three to six scattered snowstorms pass through the region annually, each of which brings less than 10 inches in the lower elevations but significantly greater accumulation at higher elevations (Krakow 1987). The snowstorms can cause temporary road closures due to fallen trees, low visibility, and ice.

Flora and Fauna

Cumberland Gap National Historical Park is recognized as one of the most biologically rich and diverse forest ecosystems in the eastern United States (U.S.) (National Park Service 2016). More than 150 years of activities including logging, agriculture, mining, construction, and recreation have altered and/or impacted the landscape within the park's boundaries.

Approximately 90 percent of the park is covered by forest, most of which is comprised of a mixture of second- and third-growth Eastern hardwood and conifers, as well as needle-leaved, and broad-leaved evergreens (Figure 3). Hardwoods include the American beech (*Fagus*

grandifolia) and Scarlet Oak (*Quercus coccinea*), conifers consist of the shortleaf pine (*Pinus echinate*) and the Eastern hemlock (*Tsuga canadensis*), and evergreens consist predominantly of the Eastern red cedar (*Juniperus virginiana*) (National Park Service 2016). Historically, the American chestnut was a dominant hardwood species of deciduous tree within the park's upper canopy (National Park Service 2016); however, their numbers decreased significantly during the early 1900s due to blight. The cabins of Hensley Settlement on Brush Mountain on the east side of the park stand as a testament to these trees, as hand-hewn chestnut logs used in their construction remain visible today.

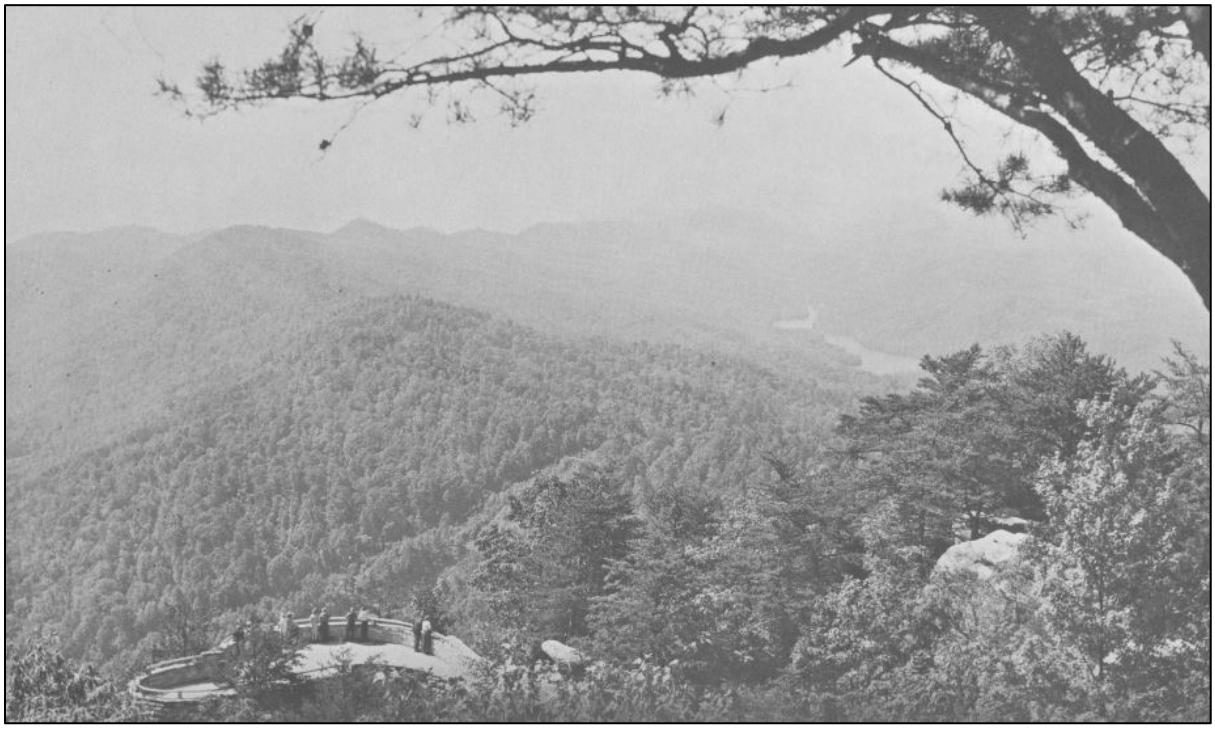


Figure 3. Photograph showing the dense forest within Cumberland Gap National Historical Park with the Pinnacle Overlook in the foreground, ca. 1964 (Photograph courtesy of the National Park Service).

Two different studies were conducted in the park in the mid to late-2000s that resulted in the classification and mapping of between 33 and 37 vegetation communities among its low-lying wetlands and high-elevation mountain bogs, and steep cliffs and deep alcoves (Jordan and Madden 2008; White 2006). Among these are four rare discontinuous vegetation communities that total 630 acres (or three percent) of the park and are considered to represent globally imperiled and critically imperiled vegetation communities. These include the Hi Lewis Pitch Pine Barrens, Swamp Forest-Bog Complex, Cumberland Streamside Bog, and Dry Calcareous Forest/Woodland (National Park Service 2013; White 2006). The Hi Lewis Pitch Pine Barrens encompasses 62 acres of south-facing slopes in the southern portion of the park on the Kentucky side. It includes pitch pine and Virginia pine, which are at risk of pine beetle outbreaks. The Swamp-Forest Bog Complex is found in patches along the Davis Branch and Shillalah Creek and totals 52 acres. It is characterized by rosebay rhododendron and hemlock, which is susceptible to infestation by hemlock wooly adelgid (National Park Service 2013; White 2006). The Cumberland Streamside Bog consists of four separate parcels that together add up to 2.5 acres. It

is found at the northern end of the Davis Branch as well as at the northeast corner of Martins Fork. This vegetation community faces threats from vegetation succession. The Dry Calcareous Forest/Woodland occupies 418 acres along a band of limestone beneath a ridgeline and consists of white ash, shag-bark hickory, and northern red oak. While only white ash is susceptible to emerald ash borer, when disturbed, the entire park is vulnerable to invasive plant species. Additionally, the white fringeless orchid (*Platanthera integrilabia*), which was recently discovered in the park, is listed as threatened and is protected under the Endangered Species Act of 1973.

The varied ecological landscape of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park supports over 970 identified vascular plant species, which exhibit tissues that distribute resources throughout their stems, roots, and leaves. Of these, 108 are non-native species, 31 are considered extremely aggressive invasive species, and 90 are rare or sensitive (National Park Service 2016). Among the flowering plants are the Trumpet vine (*Campsis radicans*), Beetleweed (*Galax urceolata*), Mountain sweet pepperbush (*Clethra acuminata*), Black huckleberry (*Gaylussacia baccata*), and Mountain laurel (*Kalmia latifolia*). The park's invasive species include the autumn olive (*Elaeagnus umbellata*), Japanese stiltgrass (*Microstegium vimineum*), multiflora rose (*Rosa multiflora*), and privet (*Ligustrum sp.*) (White 2006). Furthermore, kudzu, an invasive deciduous perennial vine, is an ongoing eradication challenge for the park.

In addition to trees, shrubs, and flowering plants, the park also has several geographically divergent colonies of lichen throughout its landscape. Nearly 50 species of lichen have been identified in the White Rock cliff system on the east side of the park. A few of these, such as the navel lichen (*Umbilicaria torrefacta*), are otherwise known to only occur in the American and Canadian Rocky Mountains, or on the bark of trees, such as the Hypotrachyna lichen (*Hypotrachyna croceopustulata*) (Walker and Ballinger 2007). The abundant assemblages were found to thrive on the southern sides of the cliffs where higher temperatures and lower moisture occurred, and where anthropogenic and natural disturbances were uncommon. Other rare lichen species present within the park include the Rim lichen (*Lecanora rupicola*), which is native to the Rocky Mountains, and the Cup lichen (*Cladonia pocillum*), which naturally inhabits the northeast United States and Rocky Mountains.

Several surveys were conducted within the park in the early 2000s to inventory its vertebrate assemblages. The surveys resulted in the identification of 145 species of birds, 40 species of mammals, 36 species of reptiles and amphibians, and roughly 27 species of fish (National Park Service 2013). The bird assemblage was dominated by interior forest species that thrive in large, mature forests such as the Tennessee Warbler (*Vermivora peregrine*), Swainson's Thrush (*Catharus ustulatus*), Yellow-throated Vireo (*Vireo flavifrons*), Acadian Flycatcher (*Empidonax virescens*), and the Scarlet Tananger (*Piranga olivacea*), which are common sights in the spring and fall. The mammal assemblage consisted of white-tailed deer and gray squirrels, which are regularly encountered along the roads and trails, an increasing number of black bears, racoons and opossum that visit campgrounds and picnic areas, as well as skunk, rabbits, fox, and bats that roost in the park's many caves. Two bats—the Indiana bat (*Myotis sodalist*) and northern long-eared bat (*M. septentrinalis*) are currently listed as endangered and protected under the Endangered Species Act of 1973. The reptiles consist of two distinct types of turtles, such as the Eastern box turtle (*Terrapene carolina*), two distinct types of lizards like the eastern fence lizard

(*Sceloporus undulatus*), as well as seven types of Colubrid snakes and two types of vipers. The amphibian assemblage is comprised of 14 species of salamanders and nine species of frogs and toads. The fish assemblage is comprised mostly of trout, carp, minnow, dace, sucker, bass, and darter varieties. In the 1960s, brook trout was introduced into Martin's Fork and Shillalah Creek (National Park Service 2013). The Blackside dace (*Chrosomus cumberlandensis*) is currently listed as threatened under the Endangered Species Act of 1973.

Water Resources

Cumberland Gap National Historical Park contains more than 62 miles of streams bordered by forests and accentuated by mountain laurel and rhododendron (National Park Service 2015). The headwaters of several large streams are situated within the park. On the Kentucky side are Little Yellow Creek, Martin's Fork, Shillalah Creek, Devil's Garden, Sugar Run, and Davis Branch, which flow into the Cumberland River. Both the Davis Branch and Shillalah Creek are designated as "outstanding state resource waters" by the State of Kentucky (National Park Service 2016). In Virginia, Lewis Hollow and Station Creek flow into the Powell River drainage of the Upper Tennessee River basin.

The park protects the head of the Martins Fork and Shillalah Creek watersheds. In June 2001, the Fern Lake Conservation and Recreation Act was introduced in the U.S. House of Representatives (H.R. 268) requesting an acquisition of 4,500 acres of the Fern Lake watershed, situated in Kentucky and Tennessee to be included within the park's boundary (House Committee on Resources 2001). It was not until 2004 that the bill passed the House and Senate, and Congress authorized the acquisition that provides protection of the vista of Fern Lake and its watershed from the Pinnacle Overlook, and protects the water supply for Middlesboro, Kentucky. In the spring of 2008, 1,850 acres were transferred to the National Park Service in two phases. The following year, a third and fourth phase were completed and involved the transfer of 2,173 acres encompassing the headwaters, but not the lake itself. In 2023, The Nature Conservancy (TNC) and The Conservation Fund purchased the lake and its adjoining property totaling 712 acres, which they plan to sell to the National Park Service. After these decades-long efforts, the acquisition of lands around Fern Lake increased the park acreage by approximately 20 percent (National Park Service 2015a). These watersheds encompass a variety of terrestrial and aquatic habitats, including some that are globally imperiled. The rich assembly of wildlife that depend on these habitats include federally threatened and endangered species.

Summary History of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park

The history of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park is complex and inextricably tied to the broader context of the Appalachian region. Situated on the Kentucky-Virginia-Tennessee border, the park encompasses 24,547 acres and commemorates the Cumberland Gap's important association with the Wilderness Road. Native Americans, including the Cherokee and Shawnee, used the Wilderness Road as an important game trail and trade route for centuries before the region was opened to European American settlement by frontier explorers like Daniel Boone and Thomas Walker.

As the Wilderness Road served as the main transportation route from northwest to southeast, the Cumberland Gap also played an important strategic role for both Federal and Confederate forces

during the Civil War. In the decades after the war, the southern Appalachian Mountains experienced a period of enormous growth as new industries, such as coal mining, drew new residents to the Cumberland Gap. By the turn of the twentieth century, the region surrounding the Cumberland Gap was made up of a patchwork of small mountain settlements. Many of these communities, including the Hensley Settlement, consisted of small family-owned enclaves situated in mountain hollows throughout the region.

By the 1920s, population growth and industrial development had begun to threaten the region's pristine natural beauty. In response, regional boosters pushed for the establishment of a national park in the southern Appalachian Mountains to protect the region's spectacular natural environment from the processes of industrialization. Following decades of public pressure, President Franklin Roosevelt signed the bill authorizing the park on June 11, 1940.

The development of the park began in earnest in the mid-1950s under the Mission 66 program. The program was intended to dramatically expand park infrastructure and visitor use facilities to accommodate the massive growth in tourism that had been overwhelming America's national parks since the end of WWII. At Cumberland Gap, Mission 66 developments included the construction of a visitor center, a campground amphitheater, comfort stations, group shelters, park roads, maintenance, and equipment storage buildings, and more than a dozen trails. Mission-66 era improvements at the park also coincided with the creation of the Job Corps program, a poverty work program introduced as part of President Lyndon B. Johnson's War on Poverty and Great Society initiatives.

As stated in its foundation document, the purpose of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park is "to preserve, protect, and interpret the geologic "doorway to the west"—the Cumberland Gap—through the southern Appalachian Mountains, together with the natural, historic, and cultural features that have made the area integral to and symbolic of centuries of American history." Since 2016, nearly 900,000 visitors have come to the park annually to explore its visitor center, 85 miles of foot and horse trails, and five backcountry camping locations.

Authority and Purpose of the Historic Resource Study

According to the National Park Service's Cultural Resource Management Guideline (National Park Service-28), an "HRS provides a historic overview of a park or region and identifies and evaluates a park's cultural resources within historic contexts" (National Park Service 1998:25). An HRS integrates existing research from many fields of study with an examination of a park's resources, including buildings and structures, objects, and landscape features, to develop a series of narrative contexts that are used to address the significance and NRHP eligibility of resources managed by park staff. The resultant NRHP eligibility recommendations are "hallmarks of an effective HRS," as they assist park staff in formulating decisions pertaining to the interpretation and management of its cultural resources (National Park Service 1998:25).

This HRS has two goals. The first is to provide an overview of the park's history and the historic contexts that helped shape the cultural landscape. The overview establishes a framework for understanding the significance of the park's historic resources. The second goal is to identify the park's historic resources, evaluate their significance within applicable historic context(s), assess

their historic integrity, and provide recommendations for their preservation and management. NRHP criteria and guidelines have been used to identify historic resources, and to evaluate their significance and integrity. Although the evaluation of historic resources focuses primarily on extant above-ground resources administered by the National Park Service as part of the park, additional features that exist only in the archaeological record are also noted herein. The completion of this document will assist the park in meeting their obligations to the National Park Service Organic Act, which directs national parks to promote individual parks through the conservation of natural, historic, and wildlife resources for the enjoyment of future generations, and Section 110 of the National Historic Preservation Act, which directs federal agencies to fully integrate historic preservation into all ongoing programs (U.S. Department of the Interior 2005; National Park Service 2021).

Project Scope and Methodology

The scope of the HRS for Cumberland Gap National Historical Park was developed by the Southeast Regional Office of the National Park Service, and includes conducting a comprehensive field inventory of either previously identified historic properties, potential historic properties that may have sufficient significance and integrity for NRHP eligibility, or resources that lack significance or integrity for NRHP eligibility; conducting background and archival research of selected published and documentary sources of known or presumed relevance to the history and development of the park and surrounding area; and preparation of a final report that includes detailed historic contexts; the results of field survey; an inventory of all surveyed properties; recommendations for additional research and documentation through the preparation of new or updated NRHP nominations, development of Special History Studies, or completion of any additional identification and evaluation efforts such as a Rapid Ethnographic Assessment Project (REAP) or Ethnographic Overview and Assessment (EOA); and accompanying photographs, maps, and/or data spreadsheets. The HRS will serve as documentation for consultation with the three State Historic Preservation Offices (SHPOs) in achieving a consensus determination of eligibility for all properties in the Park.

Literature Review

Research for the project began with an intensive literature review to locate and collect all past and in-progress archaeological and architectural inventories and cultural landscape studies that have been conducted or are currently being conducted within the legal boundaries of the park. This effort required both online and in-person records searches of archival databases and files maintained by the Kentucky Heritage Council, the Tennessee Historical Commission, and the Virginia Department of Historic Resources. Other locations that were searched include the county archives or clerk's offices for Bell, Harlan, Claiborne, and Lee counties, and the Kentucky, Tennessee, and Virginia Departments of Transportation.

Additionally, the following online sources were consulted for information on previously recorded buildings and structures, historic districts, and cultural landscapes located within the park: the Cultural Resources Inventory System (CRIS) database (https://it.cr.nps.gov/cris); the Library of Congress' HABS/HAER/HALS Collection (https://www.loc.gov/pictures/collection/hh); National Park Service National Historic Landmarks (NHL) Program (https://www.nps.gov/subjects/nationalhistoriclandmarks/nhldata.htm); NRHP

NPGallery Database (www.nps.gov/subjects/nationalregister/database-research.htm); National Park Service Park Histories Program (https://www.nps.gov/parkhistory/parkhistories.htm#m); and the National Park Service DataStore, which is part of Integrated Resource Management Applications (IRMA) (https://irma.nps.gov/DataStore).

Lastly, relevant cultural resource reports and other documentation from projects that were either completed and/or funded by National Park Service were provided to North Wind electronically. North Wind also consulted primary and secondary sources that were previously collected from the park archives in November 2022 as part of a separate contract with the National Park Service to prepare NRHP Determinations of Eligibility (DOEs) for three Mission 66-era component landscapes (i.e., Pinnacle Overlook, Skyland Road, and the Wilderness Road Developed Area) and one structure—the Tri-State Peak Shelter and its associated markers—located within the park. The majority of these documents were part of the Resource Management Record Collection (Catalog No. CUGA 5585), which, according to its Finding Aid, contains pre-park planning documents as well as records associated with the management of its resources. Documents consulted from this collection included historic superintendent reports, project completion reports, condition assessments, manuscripts, press releases, newspaper and magazine articles and clippings, and historic photographs and other ephemera dating primarily from 1935 to 2006.

The information compiled during the literature review was used to prepare a preliminary list of resources requiring documentation as part of the field investigation. North Wind also used the information gathered during the literature review to identify potential themes and historic contexts relative to these resources to be researched further during a supplemental archival research effort. These themes, as well as the list of potential resources, were sent to Jessica McNeil and William Hunter of the National Park Service electronically on June 1, 2023, for review prior to the on-site project kick-off meeting.

On-site Project Kick-off Meeting and Field Investigation

An on-site project kick-off meeting took place at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park on Tuesday, June 6, 2023. Attendees included North Wind project manager Greta Rayle, and National Park Service staff William Hunter and Jessica McNeil. The main purpose of the meeting was to review the accuracy and completeness of the preliminary list of resources, and to discuss any fieldwork and/or research protocols. Applicable themes for the HRS were also discussed to help guide the supplemental archival research effort.

Following the meeting, a field investigation of all buildings and structures 25 years in age or older was conducted by North Wind personnel Greta Rayle, M.A., RPA, and Kasey Fulwood, M.A. over a six-day period between June 9–14, 2023. All buildings and structures recently photographed by North Wind in November 2022 as part of an effort to record and provide NRHP DOEs for Mission 66-era properties located within the park were not re-documented as part of the current inventory.

During the field investigation, North Wind also attempted to relocate previously recorded archaeological sites with above-ground resources; however, limited, or inaccurate locational information due to the passage of time since their original recording and dense vegetation made relocation of some archaeological sites extremely difficult. Examples of sites that could not be

relocated for these reasons include the Finley Hensley Springhouse Site (CUGA00045.004), Sand Quarry (CUGA00137.000), Whichway Camp (CUGA00145.000), and West Peak Encampment (CUGA00208.001).

Photography. Field documentation consisted of digital photography to NRHP standards.[3] A minimum of two exterior views (e.g., front, rear, and side elevations) of all buildings and structures were taken, with additional photographs taken to illustrate character-defining features and/or modifications. Photographs were also taken from key vantage points to provide an overview of the resources' relationship to the surrounding environment. Photo-documentation of archaeological sites included overviews, as well as photographs of any visible above-ground features.

Mapping. Prior to the field documentation, shapefiles for previously documented cultural resources located at the park were uploaded as a layer file to a tablet running ESRI's Field Maps application software (version 21.1). Detailed mapping and data collection for each building, structure, and archaeological site that was documented by North Wind was collected using a Juniper Systems Geode GNS2 global positioning system (GPS) receiver. This provided a horizontal accuracy of roughly 30 to 60 centimeters (cm) in the field without additional correction. When encountered, all cultural resources were point plotted in Field Maps, which records their UTM coordinates. Geospatial data collection followed the standards outlined in *Field Data Collection with Global Positioning Systems Standard Operating Procedures and Guidelines*, written by the National Park Service in 2002.

The goal for the field documentation effort was to provide a nuanced assessment of the condition and integrity of all resources documented within the park in order to provide definitive NRHP eligibility recommendations. The results of the field inventory were used to confirm the adequacy and completeness of the historic contexts developed as a result of the literature review. Additionally, locational data collected during the field documentation will be used to create the maps in this report, and also to prepare CRIS and respective state inventory forms for all documented properties, to be provided to the National Park Service along with the HRS.

Supplemental Archival Research and Context Development

The historic contexts contained within this document were developed from primary and secondary source materials, maps, and photographs compiled by North Wind in 2022 and 2023, respectively. In 2023, North Wind staff returned to the park archives to conduct a thorough search of collections and materials related to the park's development outside of the Mission 66 Period (1945–1972). Themes researched during this effort included early exploration and settlement of the Tri-State area; Cumberland Gap and the Civil War; industrial development; early park planning and establishment; overview of the Melungeon and Black American community in the Tri-State Area; parkwide infrastructure improvements performed as part of the Job Corps initiative; and the restoration of Cumberland Gap. Materials available at the archives such as National Park Service correspondence; previous NRHP nominations; cultural landscape

[3] Per the National Register Photo Policy Factsheet (National Park Service 2013a), these standards include the use of a six megapixel or greater digital Single-Lens Reflex (SLR) camera; Tag Image File format (TIFF) or RAW format images; standard naming format (e.g., State_county_property name [or district name]_0001, _0002, etc.) for all digital image files; and submission on a CD-R or DVD-R Archival Gold disk.

inventories (CLIs) and NRHP DOEs for the park; park and administrative histories; historic maps and site plans; historic photographs; and satellite imagery were reviewed as part of this additional research effort. Again, the majority of the sources consulted during this effort were part of the Resource Management Record Collection (Catalog No. CUGA 5585).

Additional in-person research regarding the history of Cumberland Gap prior to the park's establishment was conducted at the Carnegie-Vincent Library at Lincoln Memorial University and the Abraham Lincoln Library and Museum in Harrogate, Tennessee. Documents at these repositories provided additional information on Native American land use patterns and lifeways; early European American exploration and settlement of Cumberland Gap; Civil War-era activities in the Gap; pre- and postbellum industrial development; and the experiences of Black Americans in the region.

Supplemental archival research was also conducted electronically using the National Park Service Park History Program website, and the Electronic Technical Information Center (e-TIC), the online central information management system for all National Park Service-generated planning, design, and construction drawings, and scientific, cultural, and general reports. As-built plans, annual reports, historic resource studies, historic photographs, and other pertinent documents available for download from these repositories provided additional information on historic management practices, programming, visitation, and construction programs that have influenced the park's overall development. Primary document research on events transpiring at Cumberland Gap in the periods before and after the park's establishment was also conducted using online sources such as ancestry.com and newspapers.com.

Determination of Historic Contexts

This HRS evaluates the significance and integrity of above ground cultural resources at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park under six historic contexts. These six contexts were developed by North Wind in consultation with the National Park Service and include:

1) Settlement and Community Development in the Cumberland Gap Region (8000 BCE–1925), which describes the patterns of early Indigenous and European American settlement within the park area, including cultural land use by local Native American tribes, early exploration of the Cumberland Gap by Daniel Boone and others, and the role of the Wilderness Road in opening settlement to the American West. This chapter also discusses the establishment of frontier settlements surrounding Cumberland Gap and provides descriptions of typical buildings and structures built by early settlers in the region.
2) Federal and Confederate occupation of the Cumberland Gap (1861–1865), describing the Cumberland Gap's strategic position for both the U.S and Confederate States armies and the defensive fortifications constructed at Cumberland Gap during the Civil War.
3) Private Industrial Activities in and around Cumberland Gap (1810–1971), which provides an overview of mining and iron smelting and blacksmithing activities occurring in the area, and how development of these industries affected the broader development of the communities around the present-day boundaries of the park.

4) Early Development of the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park (1870–1950), which describes the rise of tourism regionally and within the Gap itself, expansion of investment interests, road construction and the impact of the national rise in road tourism on the Gap. Additionally, this section includes the history of the people who were impacted by the park's development and the events and projects that ultimately led to the establishment of the park.
5) National Park Service Mission 66 Planning and Development (1945–1972), which discusses Mission 66, a ten-year, system-wide program designed to address deferred maintenance of the National Park System and to upgrade facilities for visitor comfort, education, and enjoyment. Park Service planners at Cumberland Gap utilized Mission 66 funding to develop a new master plan for the park, and completed several improvements, including the construction of the visitor center, Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area, and Tri-State Peak, and improvements to Pinnacle (formerly Skyland) Road and Pinnacle Overlook.
6) Restoration of the Cumberland Gap (1973–1996), which describes efforts by early park developers and National Park Service officials to restore the historic appearance of Cumberland Gap in order to recreate an idealized eighteenth-century landscape at the park. This chapter discusses obstacles to restoration and provides a summary of highway improvements that were undertaken to return the Gap to its frontier era appearance.

National Register Evaluations

Upon completion of the research and field investigations, all collected data was analyzed, and the identified resources were evaluated for their potential eligibility for listing in the NRHP. National Register evaluations were conducted in accordance with the guidelines presented in *National Register Bulletin 15: How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation* (National Park Service 1997). In order for a historic property to be considered eligible for listing in the National Register, it must:

- Be associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history (Criterion A); or
- Be associated with the lives of persons significant in our past (Criterion B); or
- Embody the distinct characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction, represent the work or a master, possess high artistic values, or represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction (Criterion C); or
- Yield, or be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history (Criterion D).

Additionally, a property must be evaluated within an important historic context and retain integrity of those features necessary to convey their significance. Aspects of integrity that must be considered per *National Register Bulletin 15* (National Park Service 1997) are summarized in Table 1. In order for a property to be considered eligible, a majority of these aspects must be retained.

Table 1. Aspects of Integrity as Defined in National Register Bulletin 15 (Source: National Park Service 1997)

Aspect of Integrity	Definition
Location	The place where the historic property was constructed or the place where the historic event occurred
Design	The combination of elements that create the form, plan, space, structure, and style of a property
Setting	The physical environment of a historic property
Materials	The physical elements that were combined or deposited during a particular period of time and in a particular pattern or configuration to form a historic property
Workmanship	The physical evidence of the crafts of a particular culture or people during any given period in history or prehistory
Feeling	A property's expression of the aesthetic or historic sense of a particular period of time
Association	The direct link between an important historic event or person and a historic property

Additional guidance has also been developed by the National Park Service, and other federal agencies, which supports federal, state, and local efforts to manage distinct types of historic properties. A list of supplemental documents that were utilized as part of this HRS are provided in Table 2 below. Each entry includes a list of resource types commonly found within Cumberland Gap National Historical Park that were evaluated using the guidance provided by these documents.

Table 2. Supplemental Documents Used to Evaluate the NRHP Eligibility of Park Resources

Name of Bulletin	Resource Types	Citation
National Register Bulletin 18: How to Evaluate and Nominate Designed Historic Landscapes	Parks and campgrounds, parkways, drives, and trails	Keller and Keller 1994
Bulletin 22: Guidelines for Evaluating and Nominating Properties that Have Achieved Significance Within the Past Fifty Years	Properties that are less than 50 years old and demonstrate "exceptional importance" or are considered a contributing property to a NRHP eligible historic district	National Park Service 1979; revised 1990, 1996, and 1998
National Register Bulletin 30: Guidelines for Evaluating and Documenting Rural Historic Landscapes	Agriculture (cropping and grazing), industry (mining and lumbering), recreation, transportation systems, conservation	National Park Service 1989; revised 1999
National Register Bulletin 40: Guidelines for Identifying, Evaluating, and Registering America's Historic Battlefields	Civil War-era earthworks, rifle pits/trenches, batteries, camps, roads	National Park Service 1999

continued

Table 2. Supplemental Documents Used to Evaluate the NRHP Eligibility of Park Resources

Name of Bulletin	Resource Types	Citation
National Register Bulletin 41: Guidelines for Evaluating and Registering Cemeteries and Burial Places	Family burial plots, single or grouped gravestones that represent a distinctive folk tradition	National Park Service 1992
National Register Bulletin 42: Guidelines for Identifying, Evaluating, and Registering Historic Mining Properties	Adits, shafts, prospect pits, machine cut trenches, drill holes	National Park Service 1992
Guidelines for Identifying and Evaluating Historic Military Landscapes	Civil War-era earthworks, rifle pits/trenches, batteries, camps, roads	Loechl et al. 2009
National Park Service Mission 66 Era Resources Multiple Property Documentation Form (MPDF)	Mission 66-era landscapes, visitor centers, interpretative structures, trails, roads, signs, ranger stations, campgrounds, and day-use areas	Carr et al. 2015
Mission 66 Campgrounds: Consensus DOE Process Guidelines	Mission 66-era campgrounds	Quinn Evans Architects 2022

CHAPTER TWO:
EARLY EXPLORATION AND COLONIZATION OF THE TRI-STATE AREA

PRECONTACT HISTORY OF CUMBERLAND GAP NATIONAL HISTORICAL PARK

Prehistoric use of the Cumberland Gap region spans more than 12,000 years prior to the arrival of the first European explorers in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, respectively (Ahlman et al. 2005). Prehistoric land use within the region is associated with several Indigenous groups who inhabited areas to the north and south of the Cumberland Gap. The southern tribes were comprised of the Cherokee, Choctaw, Chickasaw, and Creek, or Muskogee (Muscogee), while tribes north of the Ohio River were the Shawnee, Wyandotte, Mingoe, Tuscarawnee, and Delaware. These early inhabitants established settlements on either side of the Cumberland Mountains (then known as the Ouasioto Mountains) that were connected by an elaborate system of trading and hunting trails (Figure 4). One such trail, which would later come to be known as the Warrior's Path and Wilderness Road, was initially forged by migrating herds of elk and buffalo that served as a major food source for Indigenous groups in the region. The area surrounding present-day Cumberland Gap National Historical Park became the setting of several skirmishes between local tribes and early settlers as Native Americans sought to protect this natural gateway to their territories and to preserve their traditional way of life.

Figure 4. Map of the middle British colonies in North America depicting the Cumberland Mountains (then known as the Ouasioto Mountains) and the territories of Indigenous groups in the area, ca. 1776. Note the red arrow pointing to what was then referred to as the "Ouasioto Mtn. Gap," which would later be known as the Cumberland Gap (Figure courtesy of Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.).

Due to the limited intensive archaeological research that has been conducted up to this point, evidence for interactions between these groups within the current park boundaries is minimal (Williams 1982; Bryne 1990; Ahlman et al. 2005). As late as November 1975, assessments of archaeological resources within Cumberland Gap National Historical Park stated, "no prehistoric Indian sites have been reported within the park boundaries" (Walker 1975). By 1991, there were "only four reported prehistoric archaeological sites within the park" (Horvath 1991). Of these, one was a multicomponent site (Site 15BL174/CUGA00056.000) with the prehistoric component consisting of an unknown number of non-utilized chert flakes and a non-diagnostic chert biface fragment, making it difficult to assign a temporal affiliation (Bryne 1990). As of 2005, nearly 90 known archaeological sites have been documented within the park; however, only ten of these have prehistoric temporal affiliations. Five of these ten sites were discovered during archaeological testing in 2005. Most are multicomponent sites, with their prehistoric components lacking substantial and/or temporarily diagnostic features (Ahlman et al. 2005).

The few known prehistoric sites within Cumberland Gap National Historical Park date to the Middle Archaic and Early Woodland periods and are located in Virginia (Ahlman et al. 2005). Walker (1975) has suggested, however, that the area within the park was likely utilized by Indigenous groups through the late Mississippian Period (ca. 1300 to 1600 CE). The following narrative provides detailed information regarding the prehistoric cultural chronology of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park.

Paleoindian Period (10,000 to 8,000 BCE)

The Paleoindian Period was characterized by groups arriving to the region at the end of the last ice age. Early inhabitants of the region lived in small bands of between 20 and 50 people and practiced a subsistence economy based on hunting and gathering. During this period, the Indigenous groups gathered plants and hunted Pleistocene megafauna, such as mammoth, mastodon, and bison, along with deer and other smaller game that were attracted to natural salt licks in the area. They organized into highly mobile bands and used manufactured stone tools, such as projectile points and flint knappers. A few of these artifact types, including diagnostic Clovis, Cumberland, Lanceolate, Quad, and Meserve type projectile points, have been recovered as isolated finds among the uplands and along rivers and terraces in eastern Tennessee (Chapman 1985). No archaeological sites temporally affiliated with the Paleoindian Period have been identified within the park likely due to these groups' seasonal migratory patterns and lack of permanent habitations and hunting camps.

Archaic Period (8,000 to 1,000 BCE)

The Archaic Period witnessed a transition from a highly nomadic lifestyle to a more sedentary routine that involved establishing lithic quarries and seasonally occupied hunting camps (Cornelison, Jr. and Horvath 1994). Based on environmental and cultural changes, this period is further subdivided into the Early Archaic (8,000 to 6,000 BCE), Middle Archaic (6,000 to 4,000 BCE), and Late Archaic (4,000 to 1,000 BCE). Native American groups settled in the lowlands as well as in upland rock shelters where they exploited the landscape's natural resources during the Early Archaic period. The subsistence strategy shifted during this period from utilizing Lanceolate projectile points to broad corner-notched points, reflecting the extinction of several of the Pleistocene megafauna like the mastodon and bison. Instead, the Indigenous groups relied on foraged plants and nuts, smaller game such as deer and rabbit, and began to fish nearby

sinkholes, rivers, and streams. This evolution in their subsistence strategy also prompted the manufacture of new lithic tools, which began to appear during the Middle Archaic. Tools made of bone and other raw materials consisted of mortars, pestles, atlatls, knives, and axes. The success of these new strategies lead to an increase in population during the Late Archaic Period, and as a result, habitation sites grew in number and overall size. The Indigenous groups also began to rely more on aquatic resources and started to explore horticulture as well (Ahlman et al. 2005). During the Late Archaic, the Indigenous peoples in the vicinity of the Cumberland Gap began producing woven baskets and pottery to store, collect, and transport their food as evidenced by documented steatite (soapstone) bowls and other vessel types. Additionally, rock art began to appear for the first time on the walls and ceilings of rock shelters.

Several rock shelters within and around Cumberland Gap National Historical Park are more than likely temporally affiliated with the Archaic Period; however, most have not been formally recorded as archaeological sites. For instance, Faulkner et al. (1984) notes that footprints have been found preserved in mud and the charred remains of cane torches have been found on the floors in caves throughout Kentucky and Tennessee indicating "that these Late Archaic period cavers went thousands of feet into the perpetual darkness." Among the several rock shelters within the Cumberland Gap region that may be associated with the Archaic Period is the Skylight Cave in Virginia where projectile points and tools were previously discovered (Site 44LE0027/CUGA00154.000). The cave has reportedly been excavated several times by amateurs and was assigned a Pre-Contact Native American temporal and cultural affiliation. Additionally, the Sand Cave (Site 15HL001/CUGA00022.000) in Kentucky, which has no assigned cultural or temporal affiliation, reportedly showed signs of "Aboriginal occupation" according to the region's earliest settlers (Webb and Funkhouser 1932). It should be noted that the oldest cave art in Tennessee is associated with the Archaic Period. The site was discovered in a cave outside of the park on the Cumberland Plateau. The art, which was determined to be nearly 6,000 years old based on radiocarbon dating methods, consisted of a charcoal pictograph of an anthropomorph (a stylized human-like figure) and quadruped (Simek et al. 2013).

In addition to the rock shelters, a few Archaic Period camps have also been documented within the park. Two multicomponent sites, the Russell/Colson Site (Site 44LE145/CUGA00058.000) and the Station Creek Site (Site 44LE146)/CUGA00059.000), were both discovered along U.S. Highway 58 and near the Wilderness Road Campground in Virginia. Lithic material dating to the Middle and Late Archaic periods was recovered at both sites beneath early nineteenth century homestead contexts. Shovel testing at the two sites resulted in the discovery of prehistoric diagnostic artifacts, several of which were collected and curated. The lithic assemblage at the Russell/Colson Site (Site 44LE145/CUGA00058.000) was comprised of 442 pieces of flake stone debitage manufactured from local chert, as well as one core, one drill, one flake tool, two unifaces, two preforms, four bifaces, eight projectile point fragments, 13 scrapers, one trianguloid-bladed and broad stem Savannah River Cluster projectile point (dating to Late Archaic), and one biconvex and trianguloid White Springs Cluster projectile point (dating to Middle Archaic). The lithic assemblage at the Station Creek Site (Site 44LE146/CUGA CUGA00059.000) included four bifaces, three projectile point fragments, one scraper, and one straight stemmed and wide barbed Wade type projectile point (dating from Late Archaic to the Early Woodland periods), as well as more than 520 pieces of flake stone debitage (Cornelison, Jr. and Horvath 1994) (Figure 5). The density and diversity of these lithic assemblages identified

within the park confirms the Cumberland Gap area was a highly utilized hunting ground (Bryne 1990).

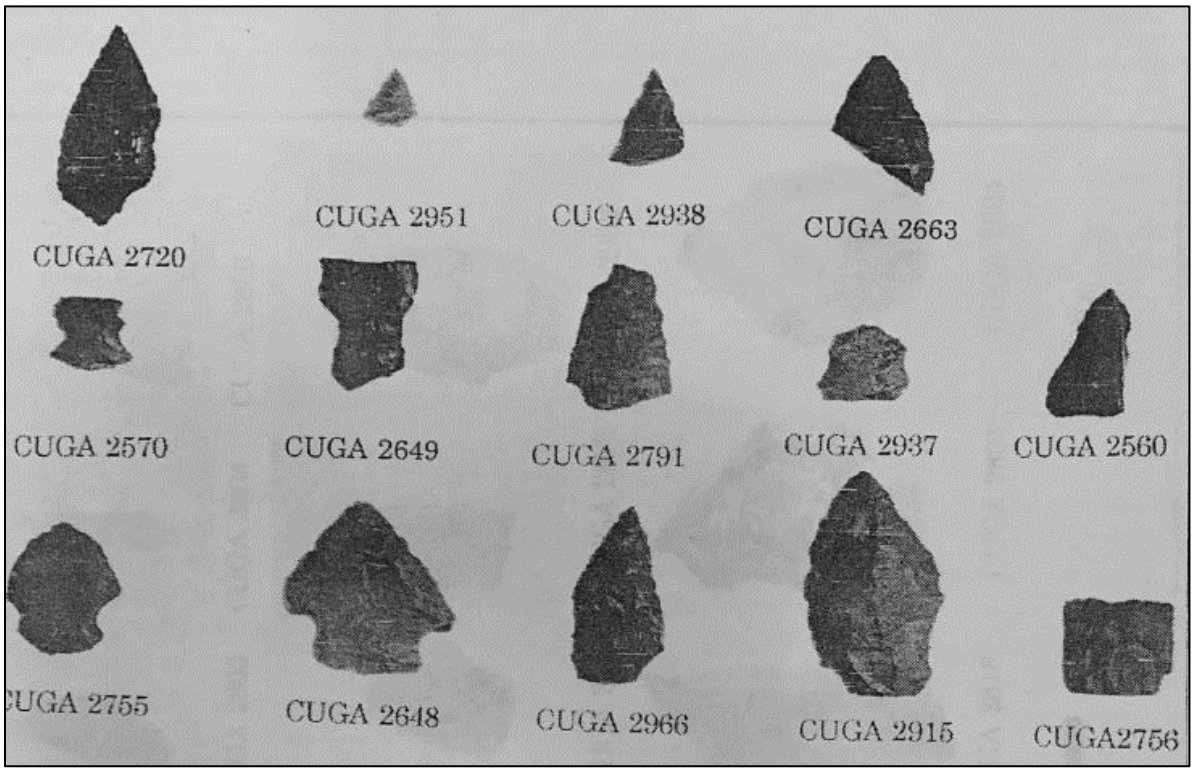


Figure 5. Sample of bifaces, projectile points, and flake tools recovered from archaeological testing at the Station Creek Site (Site 44LE146/CUGA00059.000) (Figure courtesy of Cornelison, Jr. and Horvath 1994).

Woodland Period (1,000 BCE to 900 CE)

The Woodland Period is characterized by further changes in the Indigenous groups' settlement and subsistence patterns, as well as their social organization and cultural diversity (Ahlman et al. 2005). Groups like the Adena (900 BCE to 500 CE) and their descendants, the Hopewell (200 BCE to 400 CE), were widely distributed throughout the northeast and central regions of North America between 1,000 BCE and 200 CE. They constructed more permanent habitations for their small villages, which appeared as circular, paired-post constructed houses, as well as earthworks in the shape of mounded pyramids, and geometric shapes representing animals, birds, and serpents. These mounds reflect a significant religious and ceremonial aspect of these cultures that was introduced during this period. Many of the mounds were used for burial and ritual purposes. They also developed extensive long-distance networks to trade goods like shell, soapstone, and copper. Their territories included present-day southern Ohio, Kentucky, Indiana, and West Virginia, and extended south all the way to Florida and east to the Mississippi River.

The Woodland Period witnessed the ongoing development of agricultural practices, pottery making, and advances in art while people continued to practice a semi-nomadic lifestyle that involved hunting and gathering. The Hopewell expanded their hunting capabilities through the adoption of the bow and arrow; however, overhunting likely contributed to an overall decline in

wild game populations during this period. As a result, agriculture became a critical component for survival, and the Woodland peoples began to invest their time in gardening and cultivating plants, such as squash, sunflower, tobacco, and maize. They continued to manufacture baskets and other pottery to store their food. Their ceramics consisted of limestone-tempered, cord-marked, and plain pottery types (Ahlman et al. 2005).

Only one prehistoric lithic scatter site (Site 44LE103/CUGA00052.000) temporally affiliated with the Woodland Period has been identified within the park (Horvath and Frantz 1989); however, a mound site dating to this period that yielded "many bones and artifacts" was "partially removed" in Middlesboro around 1900, suggesting that other Woodland Period sites may be present (Webb and Funkhouser 1932, Walker 1975). Additionally, several camps and burials, as well as artifacts denoting trade between Indigenous groups, have been documented in and around the Little Tennessee River Valley and its terraces south of the Tri-State area and Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. In particular, maize kernels dating from 400 CE were found at site known as the Icehouse Bottom Site in the Little Tennessee River Valley (Ahlman 2005:13). No evidence of winter and summer structures dating to the Woodland Period have been found in eastern Tennessee, however, suggesting the area within the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park continued to function as a highly mobile space where hunting and trading continued to occur among the tribes who established semi-permanent camps and villages to the north and south.

Mississippian Period (900 to 1750 CE)

The Mississippian Period is known for its mound-building culture; however, it is also characterized by its socio-political complexity, mortuary offerings, and intensified agricultural practices that have their roots in the Mississippi Valley (Cobb 2003; Cornelison, Jr. and Horvath 1994). During this period, several distinct tribes were spread throughout the present-day Midwest, East, and Southeastern regions of North America from southern Indiana, southern Ohio, central and eastern Kentucky, and western West Virginia (Henderson 2006). They relied heavily on the cultivation of maize, beans, and squash, which prompted the adoption of a more permanent sedentary lifestyle with an organized social stratification. A cultural trait of this period is the development of the chiefdom around 1000 CE and its associated settlement hierarchy as population sizes reached upwards of 2,000 people within one community. The chiefdoms had powerful leaders who exercised complex administrative control over their populations via means of economic, political, and ritual methods (Cobb 2003; Koerner 2009).

Groups established villages and towns, which included new features such as plazas that ranged between 80 and 250 feet in diameter, defensive structures like wooden palisades, and pyramids or platforms that were used as communal spaces and for religious ceremonies (Cornelison, Jr. and Horvath 1994). Surrounding these spaces were additional houses and farmsteads with corncribs and storage structures. Most of the households were multi-family and sheltered between 40 to 50 individuals. Loose trade routes helped to connect these settlements as far west as the Rocky Mountains or to the Gulf of Mexico where they obtained goods such as copper and shell. Shell was utilized to temper pottery during this period, and new vessel types were produced, including jars with handles and colanders, and decorative effigies. Pottery was defined by guilloche designs, or precise repetitive incised curvilinear and rectilinear patterns (Cross 2023).

The Fort Ancient culture appears during this period and is believed to have absorbed other cultural groups like the mound-building Adena. They arrived in Eastern Kentucky around 1,000 CE and occupied the region until 1750. During this period, groups developed the hoe to tend to their crops, and crafted tools from stone, bone, horn, shells, and antlers. Tools included awls, discoidals (small, circular round disks), and projectile points. They supplemented their diet by hunting game around salt springs and licks and fishing in the local rivers.

In Boone County, Kentucky to the north-northwest of Cumberland Gap, at least eight villages affiliated with the Fort Ancient culture have been discovered. Archaeologists who studied these villages found features, including hearths, limestone slabs, burials, postholes, and mounds, as well as artifacts including decorated pottery, smoking pipes, and lithic tools that were representative of nearly 700 years of occupation and long-distance trade (Henderson 2006). The high diversity of artifacts and non-local materials reflected the expanding trade network with groups who lived outside the Ohio Valley in regions like the Midwest, Great Lakes, and Southeast. These longer trading excursions exposed groups to not only new materials and goods, but also to new ideas regarding religion, spirituality, and people.

It is likely that Fort Ancient groups initially learned about the arrival of Europeans between the mid-1500s and early 1600s (Henderson 2006). Unfortunately, the presence of European settlers brought diseases like smallpox, which devastated Fort Ancient populations, and foreshadowed an ongoing disruption to the Native American groups' traditional way of life. Although no archaeological sites temporally affiliated with the Mississippian Period have been identified within the park, the Ely Mound and Carter-Robinson Mound are located just outside the park's boundaries in Lee County, Virginia. However, most of the documented sites associated with this period have been found within the Central Basin of north-central Tennessee, which is referred to as the Middle Cumberland Region.

European American Encounters and Early Exploration

Spanish explorer Hernando de Soto traveled through present-day eastern Tennessee and the general southeast region of North America while exploring for gold and a passage to the Pacific between 1539 and 1540. He encountered many Native American groups during his expedition, including at least six bands and chiefdoms associated with the Mississippian Culture in present-day Tennessee. These included the Chisca tribe, Chiaha chiefdom, and members of the Toqua village. The Chisca tribe had a significant population within present-day eastern Tennessee and southwestern Virginia when de Soto encountered them near the Nolichucky River, about 60 miles southeast of Cumberland Gap. The villages of the Chiaha chiefdom, where de Soto spent several days, were scattered along the French Broad River in eastern Tennessee, approximately 40 miles south of the park. The ancestral village of Toqua, which had at least two earthen mounds, was situated near the south bank of the Little Tennessee River in present-day Monroe County, Tennessee, roughly 70 miles south-southwest of the Cumberland Gap.

Several members of these bands provided de Soto, and his men supplies for their journey such as gruel and honey, and relayed information to him regarding the location of mineral resources. However, others like the Muskogean-speaking Coushatta, whose homelands were in present-day Tennessee, Georgia, and Alabama, attacked the Spaniards for having raided corn from their

storehouses (Hudson 2018). Many of these prehistoric tribes suffered tremendous losses to their populations due to the infectious diseases that were introduced by the European explorers, the hostilities that ensued after their arrival, and the ongoing encroachment of their lands. As a result, a number of these bands and chiefdoms were absorbed into larger neighboring tribes, such as the Cherokee and Shawnee where they sought refuge and survival (King 2005; Wright 1986) (Figure 6). Several theories for these two tribes' origins have been discussed among anthropologists and historians, with most agreeing that they descended from earlier Woodland and Mississippian period mound builders. The Cherokee are believed to have arrived in Southern Appalachia from the Great Lakes, and the Shawnee likely came from their settlements along the Ohio River in present-day Ohio and Kentucky, or from the East Coast as far north as New York and as far south as the Carolinas (King 2005; Mooney 2009; O'Donnell 2004; Schutz 1975).

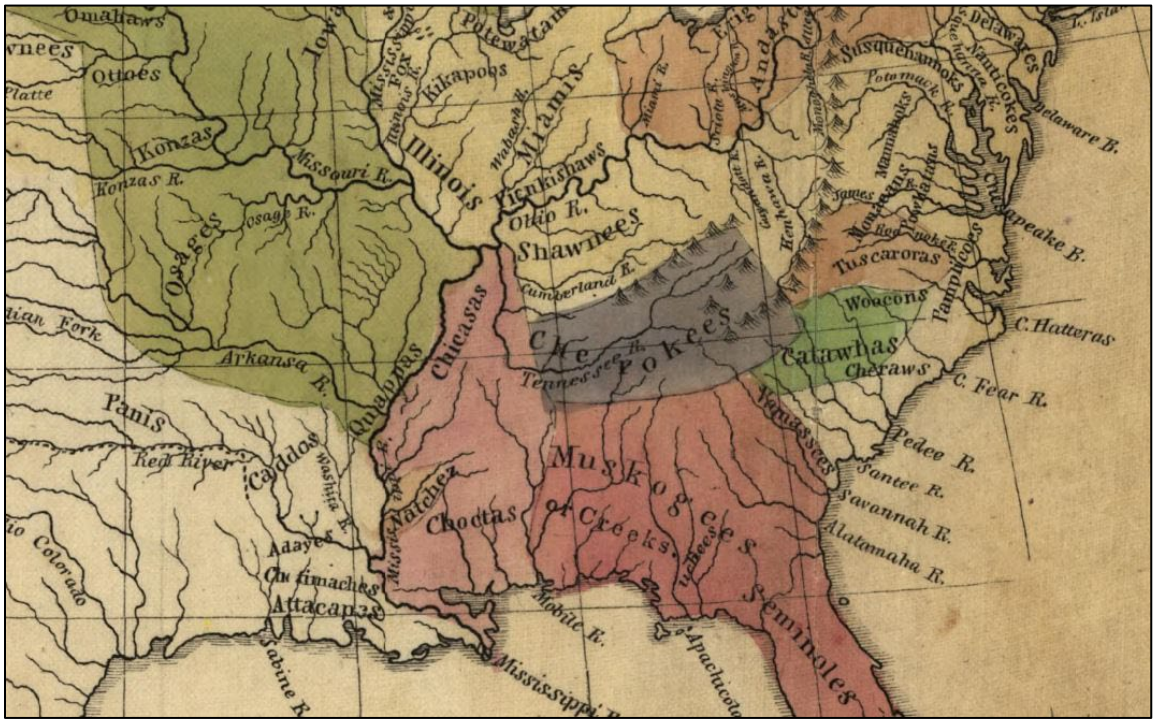


Figure 6. Excerpt from the Map of the Indian Tribes of North America, ca. 1836 (Figure Courtesy of the Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.)

The Cherokee homelands were situated on both sides of the southern Appalachian Mountains and south of the Cumberland River when Europeans began arriving to the North American continent. Although they occupied a concentrated area, the Cherokee settlements flourished and were based on a permanent-sedentary and agrarian way of life. Their hunting range encompassed 40,000 square miles among the present-day states of Alabama, Georgia, Kentucky, North and South Carolina, Tennessee, West Virginia, and Virginia (King 2005). The Shawnee homelands spanned a wide geographic area in the early seventeenth century. Accounts from early French and Dutch explorers and fur trappers situate them between the Delaware and Ohio rivers, the North River in the Shenandoah Valley, and between present-day Georgia and South Carolina along the Savannah River. Among these early explorers was Pierre Le Moyne d'Iberville, who described the Shawnee as "being spread out over Carolina and Virginia in the direction of the

Mississippi" (Gallay 2008). By the mid-seventeenth century, the Shawnee and neighboring tribes were hunting in present-day West Virginia and Kentucky.

The Cherokee, Shawnee, and other Eastern Woodlands tribes continued to utilize the rich lands surrounding Cumberland Gap for centuries. They traveled in the footsteps of the buffalo and elk on a trail that was known by the Shawnee as Athiamiowee, which translates to the Path of the Armed Ones (Snead 2011). Its route spanned from present-day New York down through the Appalachian Valley and into the Shenandoah and Cumberland valleys, passing through the Cumberland Gap between present-day Virginia and Kentucky. The trail typically followed rivers, streams, and creeks with several branches leading farther south to Alabama, Georgia, and Florida. The Indigenous peoples throughout the region used it as a thoroughfare to reach their hunting grounds and trading locales, establishing shared and disputed territories with one another in a network based on economic and social exchange. As a result, frequent raids amongst the tribes were commonplace in the ensuing decades.

By the late seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries, the Shawnee whose villages were comprised of bark-covered houses, were widespread throughout eastern North America. Among them was the Piqua village of Eskippakithiki (translates to "place of blue licks"), which is situated near the Bert T. Combs Mountain Parkway within present-day Clark County, Kentucky, approximately 90 miles north of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. Eskippakithiki was initially established along what was being referred to as the Warrior's Path and among the plains between the Lulbegrud and Upper Howard creeks. In 1736, the village was home to nearly 200 families and surrounded by a palisade (Kleber 1992). The village became a meeting point for other Indigenous groups, European explorers, and deerskin traders.

In the mid-eighteenth century, European American explorers began to venture into the Cumberland Gap region in significant numbers. In 1748, the Loyal Land Company, a land speculation firm formed in Virginia with the express purpose of promoting the settlement of western lands, secured a royal charter with a grant of 800,000 acres to be located north of the western boundary between Virginia and North Carolina. The company selected Dr. Thomas Walker, of Albemarle County, Virginia, to serve as its agent of exploration, tasked with surveying the area and selecting the location of the grant (Collins 1975). Two years later, in the spring of 1750, Dr. Walker began his exploration of the region west of the Blue Ridge Mountains. Walker was joined on his expedition by other frontier explorers, including Ambrose Powell, William Tomlinson, Henry Lawless, John Hughes, and Colby Chew (Johnston 1898).

Walker's party followed the well-worn trail used by the region's Indigenous groups from Big Lick (near present-day Roanoke, Virginia) to the foot of the Cumberland Mountains (Krakow 1987). They initially referred to the trail as the "Indian Road" but soon discovered that the tribes, particularly the Shawnee to the north and the Cherokee to the south, not only used it for hunting and trading, but also as a tool to conduct raids on rival villages. As a result, the trail was dubbed the Warrior's Path (or Great Warpath) by these early explorers and surveyors.

Walker's group continued to follow the trail across the Holston, Clinch, and Powell rivers before making their most important discovery on September 13, 1750. That day, the party encountered a natural break in the mountain chain that Walker referred to as "Cave Gap," but which would

later come to be known as Cumberland Gap (Figure 7) (Krakow 1987). At the time, Walker noted in his journal that the surrounding laurel trees in the vicinity of the Cumberland Gap exhibited crosses and figures carved by the local Indigenous peoples that utilized the area (O'Malley 2011). From the Gap, the party continued following the Warrior's Path down Yellow Creek to the Cumberland River (Collins 1975).

Figure 7. Woodcut print of the Cumberland Gap as it may have appeared to Dr. Thomas Walker, ca. 1872 (Figure Courtesy of the Library Photograph Collection, Tennessee State Library and Archives, Nashville, Tennessee).

Although Walker's survey of the Cumberland Mountains helped expose the region and its resources to a wider audience, travel through the area was temporarily halted with the outbreak of the French and Indian War in 1754. The war, which transpired between the British and French regarding who had claim to the upper Ohio Valley, involved several tribes on both sides. Among the tribes were the Cherokee who allied with the British, and the Shawnee who allied with the French. During this time, the Shawnee village of Eskippakithiki was attacked by another tribe and abandoned altogether, and a smallpox outbreak wreaked havoc on the Indigenous tribes throughout middle North America.

Exploration of the region did not resume until the signing of the Treaty of Paris in 1763, which signaled the end of the war and victory for the British whose territory expanded east of the Mississippi River. The British made attempts to protect their Cherokee allies' territory with the signing of the Royal Proclamation of 1763, which forbid colonists from settling west of the Appalachian Mountains. Colonial land speculators, frontiersman, traders, and eager settlers

ignored the directive, however, and poured into what they considered open and free territory to squat on tribal lands (Calloway 2007). That year, a small party of longhunters led by Elisha Wallen (Walden) crossed into Kentucky by way of the Cumberland Gap (Krakow 1987). It was during this same period that famed American frontiersman Daniel Boone first became acquainted with the territory of Kentucky. Boone heard stories about the territory's rich hunting grounds while serving as a civilian teamster under British General (Gen.) Edward Braddock during the French and Indian War. During the war, Boone formed a close friendship with fellow teamster John Findley, a fur trader from Pennsylvania who had traveled extensively in the region west of the Blue Ridge (Aron 1996).

After the war ended, Boone settled with his new wife, Rebecca, on a farm in the Yadkin River Valley of North Carolina. While living there, Boone met many influential local citizens, including Judge Richard Henderson, a respected colonial jurist and land speculator. In the spring of 1769, a chance encounter with his former companion John Findley reignited Boone's interest in Kentucky (Aron 1996). In March 1769, Boone, Findley, and Boone's brother-in-law, John Stewart, met with Judge Henderson in Salisbury, North Carolina to discuss their plan to embark on an extended hunting expedition into the Kentucky interior. Henderson wanted to establish a new western colony for local settlers and offered Boone his support in exchange for information about the territory west of the Cumberland Mountains (Collins 1975).

Boone's party, which included Findley and Stewart, as well as several camp-tenders, set off from the Yadkin River Valley in May 1769. The group's journey took them through Moccasin Gap, across Clinch Mountain, over Walden's Ridge, and up the Powell Valley to Cumberland Gap (Collins 1975). While approaching the Gap, the party encountered a group of colonists led by Joseph Martin of Albemarle County who were busily engaged in the construction of a new settlement at Martin's Station on the south side of Cumberland Gap. The settlement was being constructed on behalf of the claimants of Thomas Walker. From the Martin's Station settlement, Boone's party passed through Cumberland Gap and continued following the Warrior's Path north along Yellow Creek before eventually fording the Cumberland River near present-day Pineville. They spent the following two years exploring the Kentucky wilderness (Figure 8). Boone passed through the Cumberland Gap once again in May 1771 on his return trip to the Yadkin River Valley.

Upon his return to North Carolina, Boone reported to Judge Henderson that conditions in the territory of Kentucky seemed suitable for future settlement. Unfortunately, Boone's return occurred at an inopportune time for Henderson, who had recently been relieved of his duties as Justice of the Superior Court and lacked the financial backing necessary to establish a new colony at that time. In 1773, Henderson's inaction, combined with increased competition from other surveying parties, led Boone to launch his own settlement attempt in the Kentucky wilderness. Boone's party of colonists included six families from the Yadkin River Valley, along with 40 single men that joined the group in the Powell Valley (Collins 1975).

Figure 8. Portrait of Daniel Boone and his hunting party while viewing Kentucky for the first time by William Tylee Ranney, ca. 1849 (Image courtesy of the Gilcrease Museum, Tulsa, Oklahoma).

In October 1773, as the party moved toward Cumberland Gap, Boone's oldest son, James, was killed near Walden's Creek by a war party that was comprised of members from several of the regional tribes including the Shawnee and Cherokee (Collins 1975). James Boone's death was part of a larger breakdown in the relationship between local Native American tribes and European Americans moving into the area that occurred along the American frontier in the mid-1770s. As large groups of European Americans moved into the region south of the Ohio River, conflicts between them and Native American tribes in the trans-Appalachian region reached a tipping point. In 1774, Lord Dunmore's War saw fighting between the colonial militias and local Native American groups in the region. Daniel Boone aborted his ill-fated settlement attempt when Captain William Russell of the Clinch Valley recruited him to warn the scattered surveying parties in Kentucky of the ongoing hostilities with local tribes. As the war dragged on into autumn, Boone was commissioned as a lieutenant, and later a captain, in the Virginia militia. Lord Dunmore's War ended in October 1774 with the defeat of the Shawnee leader Cornstalk at the Battle of Point Pleasant. Subsequently, the Treaty of Camp Charlotte was signed on October 19, 1774, with the Shawnee agreeing to its terms, which included relinquishing their ancestral hunting grounds south of the Ohio River (Winkler 2014). The colonists' victory over the Shawnee served as a major catalyst for the settlement of present-day Kentucky.

In the aftermath of the war, Judge Richard Henderson, along with other prominent North Carolinians, including Nathanial Hart and John Luttrell, organized a land speculation company called the Louisa Company (Collins 1975). In January 1775, the Louisa Company was reorganized as the Transylvania Company. Two months later, Boone, acting as a representative of the Transylvania Company, joined Richard Henderson at a meeting of the Grand Council of

the Cherokee Nation held at Sycamore Shoals (near present-day Elizabethton, Tennessee). Despite opposition from some members of the Cherokee Nation—most notably Chief Dragging Canoe—the Council voted to approve the sale of a vast tract of land consisting of 20 million acres of land between present-day central Kentucky and Tennessee, situated south of the Ohio River between the Cumberland River and Cumberland Mountains (Hulbert 1903). The subsequent treaty, known as the Treaty of Sycamore Shoals, was negotiated, and signed on March 17, 1775, and led to the establishment of the Transylvania Colony. The treaty also facilitated the development of a right-of-way through the Cumberland Gap (Figure 9).

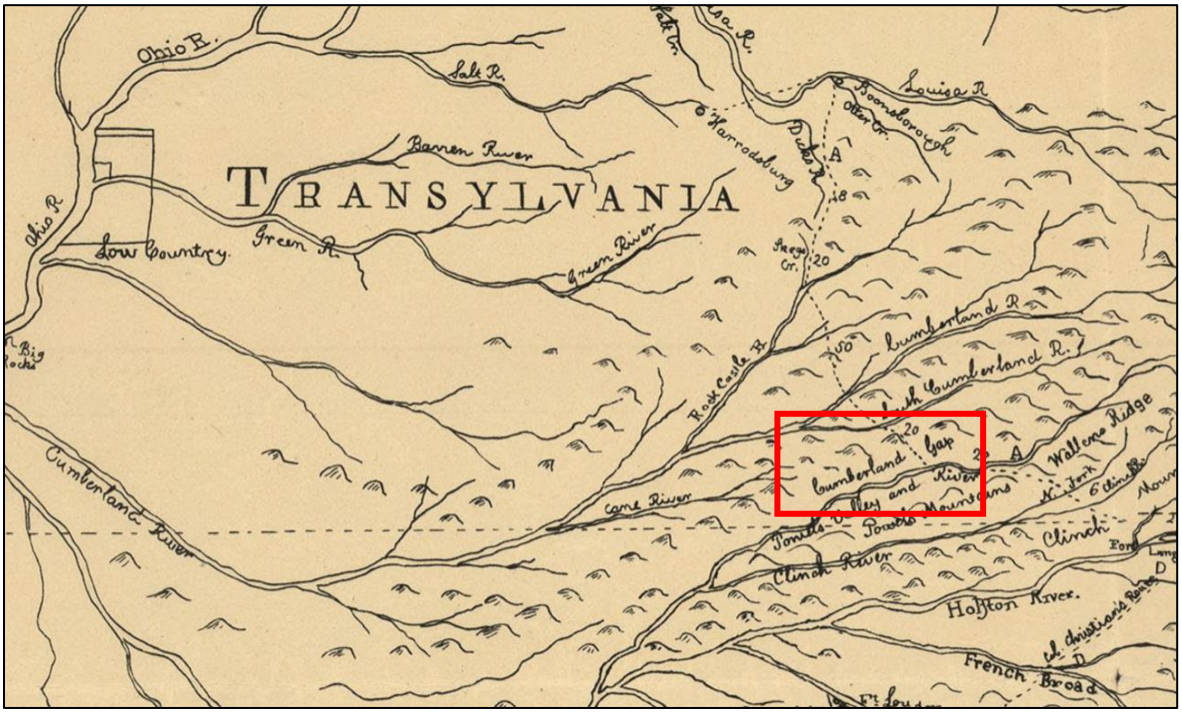


Figure 9. General map of the new settlement of Transylvania, showing the location of Cumberland Gap and the trail through it, ca. 1776 (Image courtesy of the Tennessee State Library & Archives, Nashville, Tennessee).

Ahead of the Grand Council meeting, Henderson hired Boone to mark the trail from southwestern Virginia into central Kentucky to encourage European Americans to move into the region. Boone, accompanied by a group of expert foresters, followed the existing trail from Long Island on the Holston River in Tennessee into the Powell Valley then proceeded to cut a new path across the Blue Ridge, Clinch, and Powell rivers to Cumberland Gap. From the Gap, the men followed the Warrior's Path for more than 50 miles before crossing the Cumberland River near Pineville. At this point, the axmen left the path and hacked their way through the wilderness to Boone's Gap (near present-day Berea, Kentucky). In September 1775, they finally reached the mouth of Otter Creek on the Kentucky River where they established the first settlement and headquarters of the Transylvania Company, which they called Boonesborough (near present-day Richmond, Kentucky) (Bruce 1910). The 200-mile-long route from Cumberland Gap to Boonesborough came to be known as Boone's Trace and, later, the Wilderness Road. The road followed segments of the existing Warrior's Path as it approached the Gap (Figure 10). Although the Transylvania Colony was declared void by the Virginia Assembly in December 1778, the

opening of the Wilderness Road proved to be a lasting achievement, facilitating the first great wave of American western migration.

Figure 10. John Filson's Map of Kentucky, showing the location of the Warrior's Path, denoted by the red arrow, and the alignment of the Wilderness Road, denoted by the blue arrow (Figure courtesy of the Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.).

Unfortunately, this new influx of European Americans spurred what came to be known as the Cherokee American Wars, or the Chickamauga Wars, which consisted of several periods of violence between 1776 and 1794. The fighting included the Cherokee, Muscogee, and the Shawnee against American colonists who continued to violate the terms of treaties protecting tribal lands and settlements. War parties of various sizes raided forts throughout the southeast, including those in present-day North Carolina and South Carolina, as well as small villages and isolated farmsteads in the Clinch River Valley of Virginia. Cherokee warriors conducted raids on settlements along the Holston, Nolichucky, Cumberland, and Tennessee rivers in present-day Tennessee, and along trails, including the Cisca, St. Augustine, and the Cumberland.

Several major campaign battles also occurred throughout the period, with fighting throughout Virginia, the Carolinas, Georgia, Kentucky, and Ohio (Brown 1938). After several peace overtures, on November 7, 1794, the Treaty of Tellico Blockhouse, named for the outpost that would develop into the town of Vonore in present-day Tennessee (roughly 75 miles southwest of Cumberland Gap National Park), was signed and initiated a period of relative peace between the Cherokee and American colonists.

Early Colonization and Community Development

Boone's establishment of the Wilderness Road served as a major impetus for colonization in the region surrounding Cumberland Gap. Following the road's construction, one of the first frontier settlements established in the region was Martin's Station, near present-day Rose Hill, Virginia (Figure 11). Situated in the Powell Valley, Martin's Station was constructed on the ruins of an earlier settlement of the same name that had been visited by Daniel Boone on his first trip to the Kentucky country in 1769. The original station was attacked by Native Americans in the fall of 1769 and abandoned soon after. In January 1775, Joseph Martin, the founder of Martin's Station, returned to the Powell Valley to re-establish the settlement. Martin was accompanied by a group of between 16 and 18 men, who quickly set about constructing "several strong cabins and stockad[ing] them" (Pusey 1936). At its peak, the Martin's Station settlement consisted of "five or six cabins [that] were built some 30 feet apart with strong stockades between them…[covering] about 1/2 of a mile, in the shape of a parallelogram" (Pusey 1936). The Martin's Station settlement was located along the Wilderness Road and served as the last fortified station for travelers before they entered Cumberland Gap.

Figure 11. View of the present-day reconstructed Martin's Station, now within Wilderness Road State Park, in Ewing, Virginia (Image courtesy of Virginia State Parks).

On the Kentucky side of the Gap, the first settlement was likely Cumberland Ford (now Pineville). Cumberland Ford was initially established by Abraham Buford, a veteran of the Continental Army, who purchased a Virginia Treasury Warrant and constructed a log house in the area in 1781 (Fuson 1947). In 1795, Kentucky's newly established state legislature hired James Knox and Joseph Crockett to undertake a series of improvements to the Wilderness Road from Crab Orchard, Kentucky through the Cumberland Gap to Virginia (Hammon 1970). To

fund the construction and maintenance of the new road, a toll gate was established at Cumberland Ford in 1797 (Krakow 1987). Crockett constructed the turnpike and tollgate, with Robert Craig appointed as the first gatekeeper (Cornett 2009). Two years later, in 1799, Kentucky's first governor, Isaac Shelby, constructed a brick house at Cumberland Ford, which he rented to James Renfro for use as a tavern. Renfro raised livestock on the property and later assumed operation of the tollgate after Robert Craig's term as keeper had expired (Cornett 2009). The improvements to the Wilderness Road and the operation of the tollgate attracted additional colonization and several houses, inns, and taverns were soon established in the vicinity of the Shelby/Renfro House at Cumberland Ford (Figure 12) (Cornett 2009).

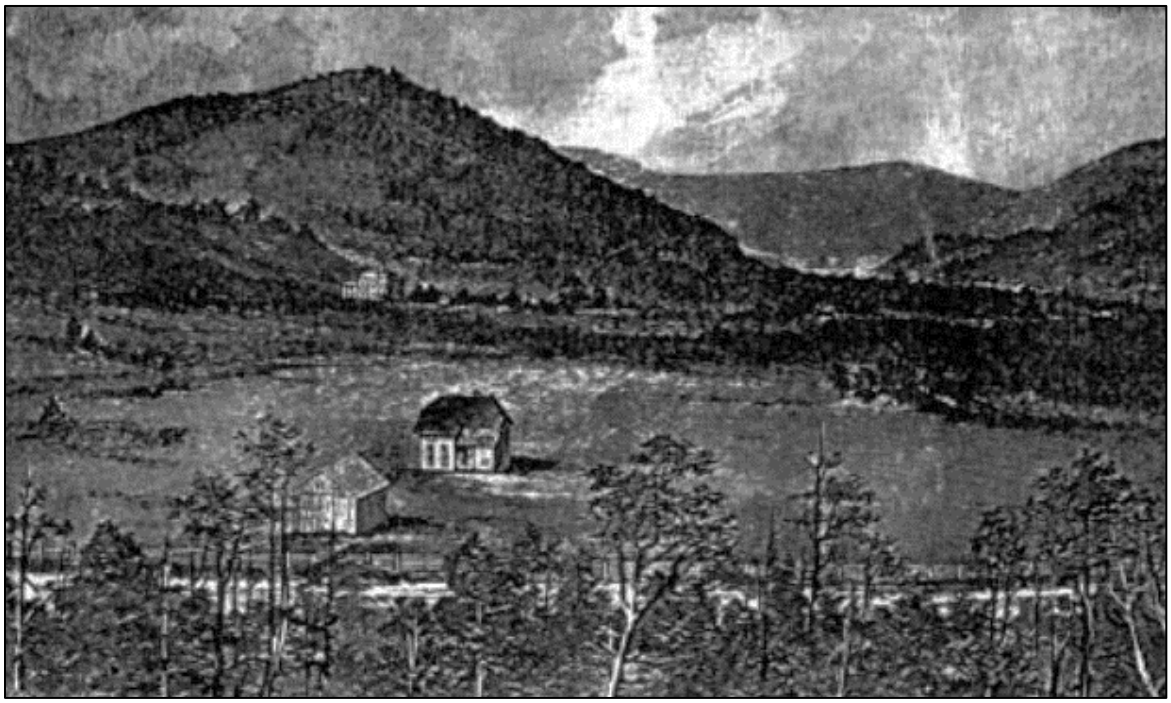


Figure 12. Rendering of the Cumberland Ford settlement with the Shelby/Renfro House in the foreground, ca. 1800s (Image courtesy of Cornett 2009).

Other early European American settlements on the Kentucky side of the Cumberland Gap were situated in the Yellow Creek Valley. In 1775, shortly after the completion of the Wilderness Road, Judge Richard Henderson offered Bryce Martin 500 acres of land lying along Yellow Creek near the Cumberland Gap. Martin was the brother of Joseph Martin, founder of the Martin's Station settlement in the nearby Powell Valley. While the dense vegetation and marshy lands surrounding Yellow Creek deterred some early settlers, other claimants were not discouraged by the valley's difficult terrain. Homesteaders like John Turner and Joseph Marsee filed claims on higher, dry land located in the region between 1775 and 1790 (Cornett 2009). On the Tennessee side of the Gap, the first settlements were made in the Powell and Clinch valleys and included Sycamore Creek and Fort Butler, the latter of which was located approximately three miles west of present-day Tazewell, Tennessee (Goodspeed 1887).

Cumberland Gap

The town of Cumberland Gap is located on the south side of the Gap in Claiborne County, Tennessee. The establishment of the town was first made possible in 1795 when the Kentucky legislature authorized the construction of a "good waggon [sic] road" to Virginia through the Cumberland Gap (Hammon 1970). The road's construction involved improvements to the existing Wilderness Road and made the settlement of the Gap possible. By 1796, ten houses and two stores had been established below the Cumberland Gap to cater to travelers along the Wilderness Road (Vial 1991). A spring—first documented by Dr. Thomas Walker on his journey through the Gap in 1750—provided a reliable water source for the growing community. The first industry to be established in Cumberland Gap was Robinson's Mill, a grist mill that depended on the free-flowing waters of the spring (Figure 13) (Vial 1991). As the community's location at the base of Cumberland Mountain made farming difficult, families in Cumberland Gap generally relied on agricultural products imported from the fertile bottomlands of the nearby Powell Valley. By 1803, the population of the town was large enough to warrant the establishment of a post office (MTSU 1989). Early settlers in Cumberland Gap primarily worked in timber cutting, storekeeping, or at the iron furnace established by Martin Beaty on the Virginia side of the Virginia-Tennessee border (MTSU 1989). Throughout the early nineteenth century, the town continued to expand economically, politically, and socially as the Wilderness Road provided a steady stream of travelers, craftspeople, and "marriageable 'outsiders'" into the region (Vial 1991).

Figure 13. Photograph of the grist mill in Cumberland Gap, ca. 1885–1890 (Sweet 2014).

In 1841, Virginia merchant John G. Newlee moved to Cumberland Gap and assumed ownership of Beaty's iron furnace. Newlee was accompanied by most of his Virginia militia company, as well as several enslaved Blacks who were employed in the operation of the furnace (Vial 1991).

Newlee's, arrival at Cumberland Gap coincided with the establishment of a weekly stagecoach that carried freight, mail, and passengers between Cumberland Gap and the county seat in Tazewell. Although the town of Cumberland Gap continued to serve as an important waystation for travelers along the Wilderness Road, the town's fortunes deteriorated during the Civil War as both the Confederate and Federal armies attempted to secure control of the Gap (Figure 14). During the war, both the mill and furnace were disabled and encampments for soldiers were erected throughout the town and on the surrounding hillsides (Vial 1991).

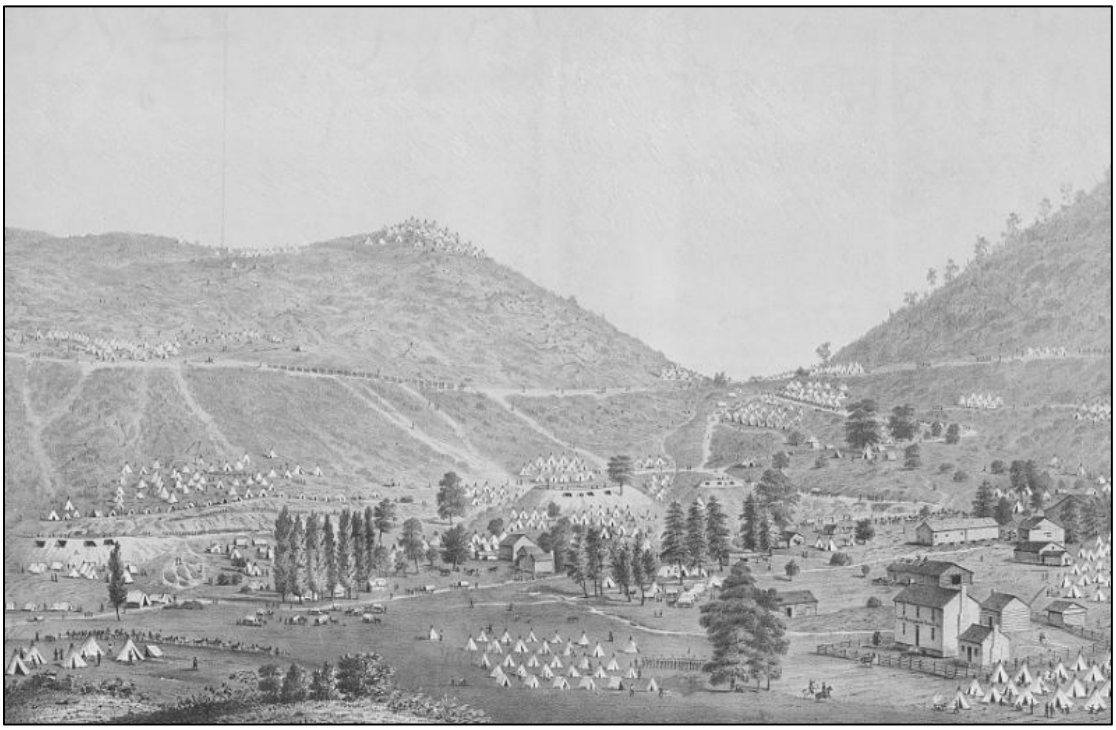


Figure 14. View of the Town of Cumberland Gap under occupation by U.S. forces, ca. 1863 (Image courtesy of Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.)

Although the town of Cumberland Gap had been devastated by the war, the community recovered quickly in the postbellum period. By 1870, the U.S. Census counted more than 100 inhabitants in Cumberland Gap, including two doctors, a schoolteacher, and three ministers (Vial 1991). The end of the war also brought about a renewed interest in the economic future of the region. Prominent local citizens, including John Newlee, Dr. J. H. S. Morison, Daniel Huff, and Huff's son-in-law Dr. James Monroe Harbison were eager to expand their business interests in Cumberland Gap in the wake of the Civil War; however, without reliable rail access, new opportunities for commercial development in the region were extremely limited. In 1886, Scottish-born entrepreneur Alexander Arthur, acting as an agent of the Richmond and Danville (R&D) Railroad, visited Cumberland Gap, and met with local leaders. During the meeting, Dr. Morison successfully convinced Arthur of the feasibility of constructing a railroad tunnel through the mountains to access the vast timber reserves and coal deposits of the Yellow Creek Valley.

With financial backing provided by a group of British investors, Arthur formed the American Association Ltd. (American Association) in 1887. The association soon owned or optioned more

than 100,000 acres in the Tri-State area of Kentucky, Virginia, and Tennessee (Cornett 2009). Although the association planned to develop a new city—known as Middlesboro—to serve as their primary headquarters, they selected Cumberland Gap to function as a feeder community for their "larger industrial concerns" in Middlesboro. To this end, the American Association constructed a two-story brick office building in Cumberland Gap and devised a new town plan. A new street layout was implemented, consisting of two primary streets, known as Colwyn Street and Pennlyn Avenue. Pennlyn Avenue was primarily a residential street, while Colwyn Street served as the major commercial district for the community (MTSU 1989).

By 1888, work was progressing on the tunnel for the Knoxville, Cumberland Gap, and Louisville Railroad and a construction boom in Cumberland Gap was already underway. The new railroad would stretch from Knoxville, Tennessee north to the Cumberland Gap where it would join with the southbound branch of the Louisville and Nashville (L&N) Railroad originating at Pineville (Wiley 2014). In addition to new stores and residences, several boarding houses and three hotels were constructed a few blocks from the new railroad depot in the town of Cumberland Gap (Vial 1991). That fall, John Newlee's son-in-law, Dr. John Washington Divine, established the community's first bank (Vial 1991). Unfortunately, however, the success of the new townsite was short lived, as in 1890, just after the completion of the railroad, the primary investor in the American Association, Barings Bank of London, suffered a catastrophic financial collapse.

The downfall of Barings Bank brought an end to the nineteenth century development of Cumberland Gap. The bank's failure coincided with a decline in regional iron ore production, as well as the start of the financial panic of 1893. The development of Cumberland Gap remained relatively stagnant until the 1920s when the local coal industry and establishment of the Dixie Highway (now U.S. Highway 25E) generated renewed prosperity for the community (Figure 15).

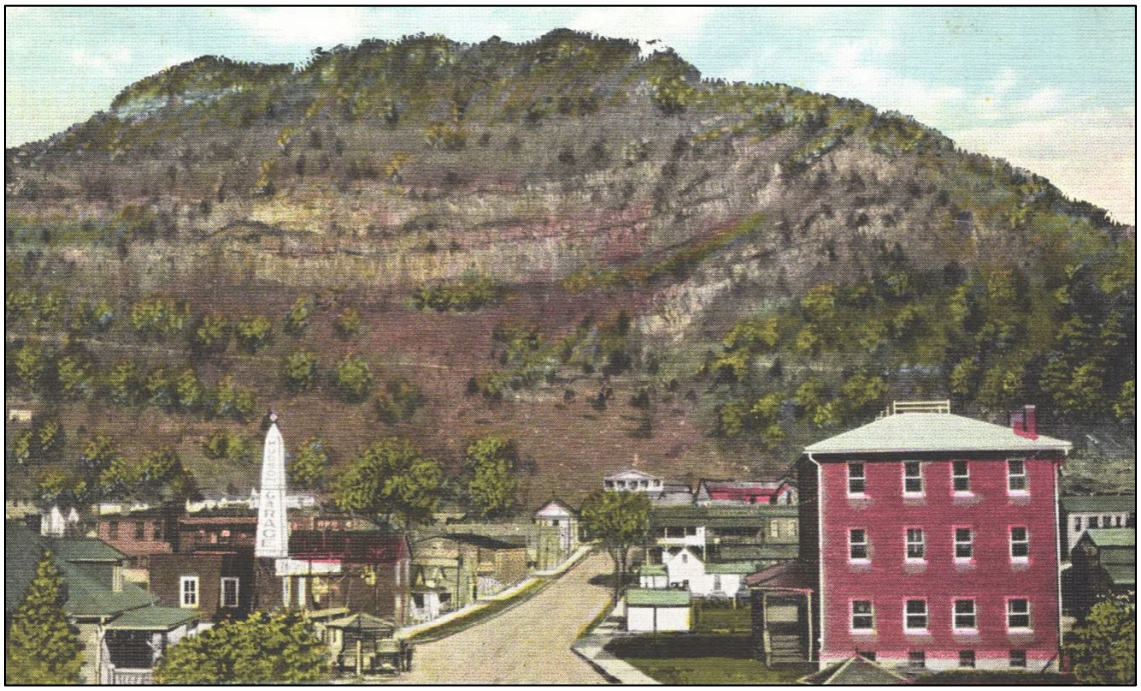


Figure 15. Overview of Town of Cumberland Gap, ca. 1920s (Image courtesy of the Tennessee Postcard Collection, Tennessee State Library and Archives, Nashville, Tennessee).

Middlesboro

Originally called Yellow Creek, the City of Middlesboro was first settled by Kentucky pioneer John Turner in 1810. Turner's party included his wife and two brothers as well as several members of the Marsee and Rains (Raines) families. The settlers initially constructed a blockhouse near the current location of Fern Lake, before eventually establishing several small farms on dry land throughout the Yellow Creek Valley. The Turner party was soon joined by other frontier families including the Bledsoes, Morrisons, Tacketts, and Colsons (Matheny 2003). By the mid-nineteenth century, the western portion of the valley had grown to include a log schoolhouse and a church—known as the Old Yellow Creek Baptist Church. The land for the church was donated by John Turner in 1842, with Thomas Marsee serving as its first minister (Matheny 2003).

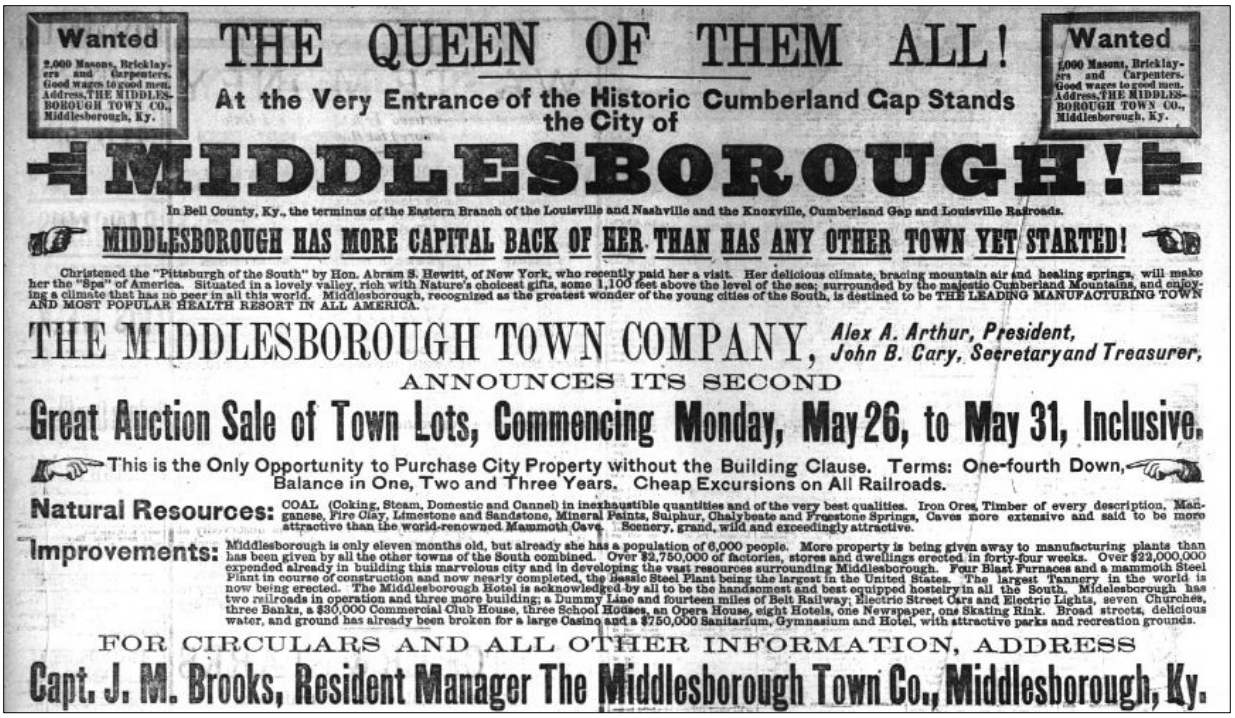
Of all the notable early settlers in the Yellow Creek Valley, it was the Colson family that would play the most pivotal role in the region's future. The family's patriarch, Reverend (Rev.) John Calvin Colson Sr., was born on Cannon Creek in October 1822. In 1843, John married Mary Catherine Smith of Lee County, Virginia and the couple moved to a two-story brick home on a small hill in the Yellow Creek Valley (Matheny 2003). The house—commonly referred to as the Colson House—was constructed around 1800 by Clark Hunter. Colson operated a store, mill, and stagecoach stop at the property, which was situated directly beside the Wilderness Road. He also preached regularly at the Bethlehem Methodist Church (near present-day Ford's Woods Park) and functioned as a doctor and lawyer for the community despite not having any formal training in either profession. Rev. Colson and his wife had eleven children who also became prominent citizens in the region (Matheny 2003).

Four years after Rev. Colson's death, in 1886, Alexander Arthur, a Scottish-Canadian capitalist, met with local leaders in the town of Cumberland Gap and became enamored by the industrial potential of the region (Figure 16). Arthur was most impressed by the abundant natural resources, including large stands of virgin timber and rich deposits of coal and iron ore, located in the vicinity of the Yellow Creek Valley. He envisioned the establishment of a new city, which he called "Middlesborough," that would serve as the center of a new industrial empire in the Appalachian Mountains. As the largest landholders in the area, the Colson family were an important part of Arthur's vision for the region. Rev. Colson's third son, John Calvin Colson Jr., negotiated the sale of thousands of acres of the family's holdings to the American Association Ltd, a British-backed development company managed by Arthur (Matheny 2003).

As a subsidiary to the American Association, Arthur formed the Middlesborough Town and Land Company to buy and sell acreage in the new city (Cornett 2009). The new townsite was staked and surveyed by Colonel (Col.). George E. Waring in July 1888. In an effort to reclaim the valley's marshy bottomlands for settlement, town planners proposed the construction of an extensive canal system that would control flooding and also serve as the city's first sanitation system (Brent 2002). The canal system centered on the Yellow Creek Canal, a 100-foot-wide ditch that followed Cumberland Avenue to the east edge of town. At the same time, railroad construction brought a flurry of building and business activity to the growing community.

Figure 16. Photograph of Alexander Arthur, ca. 1880s (Image courtesy of Cumberland Gap Broadcasting Company [https://www.angelfire.com/ky2/cumberlandgapbc/mhpage/arthur12.jpg]).

As the L&N Railroad progressed steadily southward from Pineville, the population of Middlesborough (Middlesboro) increased exponentially. The number of residents in the community exploded from just 50 people in May 1889 to more than 10,000 by the end of the year (Banks 1980). By the time it was officially incorporated in 1890, Middlesborough boasted several significant local industries including two blast furnaces operated by the Watts Steel and Iron Company, a steel mill, brick factory, a tannery, a brewery, an icehouse, and numerous mining and timbering concerns (Kuehn et al. 2003). Several schools had also been established, including a private school—known as Middlesborough Academy—which was located on Cumberland Avenue, and a public school located in the city hall (Cornett 2009). Contemporary newspaper advertisements published during the height of the city's development boom boasted that "Middlesborough…is destined to be the leading manufacturing town and most popular health resort in all America" (*Courier-Journal* 1890) (Figure 17).



Wanted
2,000 Masons, Bricklayers and Carpenters. Good wages to good men. Address, THE MIDDLESBOROUGH TOWN CO., Middlesborough, Ky.

THE QUEEN OF THEM ALL!

At the Very Entrance of the Historic Cumberland Gap Stands the City of

MIDDLESBOROUGH!

Wanted
2,000 Masons, Bricklayers and Carpenters. Good wages to good men. Address, THE MIDDLESBOROUGH TOWN CO., Middlesborough, Ky.

In Bell County, Ky., the terminus of the Eastern Branch of the Louisville and Nashville and the Knoxville, Cumberland Gap and Louisville Railroads.

MIDDLESBOROUGH HAS MORE CAPITAL BACK OF HER THAN HAS ANY OTHER TOWN YET STARTED!

Christened the "Pittsburgh of the South" by Hon. Abram S. Hewitt, of New York, who recently paid her a visit. Her delicious climate, bracing mountain air and healing springs, will make her the "Spa" of America. Situated in a lovely valley, rich with Nature's choicest gifts, some 1,100 feet above the level of the sea; surrounded by the majestic Cumberland Mountains, and enjoying a climate that has no peer in all this world. Middlesborough, recognized as the greatest wonder of the young cities of the South, is destined to be THE LEADING MANUFACTURING TOWN AND MOST POPULAR HEALTH RESORT IN ALL AMERICA.

THE MIDDLESBOROUGH TOWN COMPANY, *Alex A. Arthur, President, John B. Cary, Secretary and Treasurer,*

ANNOUNCES ITS SECOND

Great Auction Sale of Town Lots, Commencing Monday, May 26, to May 31, Inclusive.

This is the Only Opportunity to Purchase City Property without the Building Clause. Terms: One-fourth Down, Balance in One, Two and Three Years. Cheap Excursions on All Railroads.

Natural Resources: COAL (Coking, Steam, Domestic and Cannel) in inexhaustible quantities and of the very best qualities. Iron Ores, Timber of every description, Manganese, Fire Clay, Limestone and Sandstone, Mineral Paints, Sulphur, Chalybeate and Freestone Springs, Caves more extensive and said to be more attractive than the world-renowned Mammoth Cave. Scenery, grand, wild and exceedingly attractive.

Improvements: Middlesborough is only eleven months old, but already she has a population of 6,000 people. More property is being given away to manufacturing plants than has been given by all the other towns of the South combined. Over $2,750,000 of factories, stores and dwellings erected in forty-four weeks. Over $22,000,000 expended already in building this marvelous city and in developing the vast resources surrounding Middlesborough. Four Blast Furnaces and a mammoth Steel Plant in course of construction and now nearly completed, the Bessie Steel Plant being the largest in the United States. The largest Tannery in the world is now being erected. The Middlesborough Hotel is acknowledged by all to be the handsomest and best equipped hostelry in all the South. Middlesborough has two railroads in operation and three more building; a Dummy Line and fourteen miles of Belt Railway; Electric Street Cars and Electric Lights, seven Churches, three Banks, a $30,000 Commercial Club House, three School Houses, an Opera House, eight Hotels, one Newspaper, one Skating Rink. Broad streets, delicious water, and ground has already been broken for a large Casino and a $750,000 Sanitarium, Gymnasium and Hotel, with attractive parks and recreation grounds.

FOR CIRCULARS AND ALL OTHER INFORMATION, ADDRESS

Capt. J. M. Brooks, Resident Manager The Middlesborough Town Co., Middlesborough, Ky.

Figure 17. 1890 newspaper advertisement for Middlesborough (Image reprinted from the *Courier-Journal,* May 4, 1890).

Despite the optimism expressed by Middlesborough's early boosters, the development of the city got off to an inauspicious start in the summer of 1890, when a series of devastating fires swept through the central business district. Although the community mostly recovered from the blazes, financial disaster was looming on the horizon. Later that year, the Baring Brothers Bank of England, the principal backer of the American Association, was forced to declare bankruptcy following a series of poor investments in the U.S. and abroad. While local investors in Middlesborough initially viewed the bank's failure as a temporary setback, they were further disheartened when reports from the local iron industry revealed the inferior quality of the region's deposits (Cornett 2009). Without high grade iron ore, the steel mill struggled to stay solvent. The city's financial difficulties were compounded by the nationwide economic collapse that occurred during the Panic of 1893, which caused all four of Middlesborough's banks to fail, leading to the dissolution of the American Association.

Although Alexander Arthur's vision for Middlesborough would never be fully realized, the perseverance of local coal operators managed to save the city from total financial ruin. Several local coal companies, including Mingo Mountain Coal and Coke, the Ralston Coal Company, and Yellow Creek Coal and Lumber, employed hundreds of miners during the boom cycle of the 1890s. By 1894, the spelling of the town's name had been changed to Middlesboro. In 1903, Middlesboro was home to 13 coal companies with mining camps scattered in hollows all around the city. Between 1902 and 1903, more than 700 houses were constructed near the mines in Mingo Hollow alone (Matheny 2003). Coal mining remained the dominant industry in the area until the late 1920s when the market for bituminous coal entered a period of sharp decline due to overproduction, falling demand, and increased competition from other fuel sources (Lasson 1972).

Activity in the coalfields ensured Middlesboro's commercial success into the early twentieth century. Older businesses, such as the New South Brewery and Ice Company, were joined by new commercial enterprises such as the Middlesboro Distilling Company and the Excelsior Bottling Works. New stores were opened along Cumberland Avenue and more conservative banks returned to the community. In 1911, a steam laundry opened on 19th Street and the Middlesboro Flour Mill was erected on Fitzpatrick Avenue (Cornett 2009). Throughout this period, the coal mines guaranteed a steady stream of customers for local stores, restaurants, and saloons (Figure 18). On paydays, miners and their families poured into Middlesboro to purchase supplies and enjoy the city's nightlife.

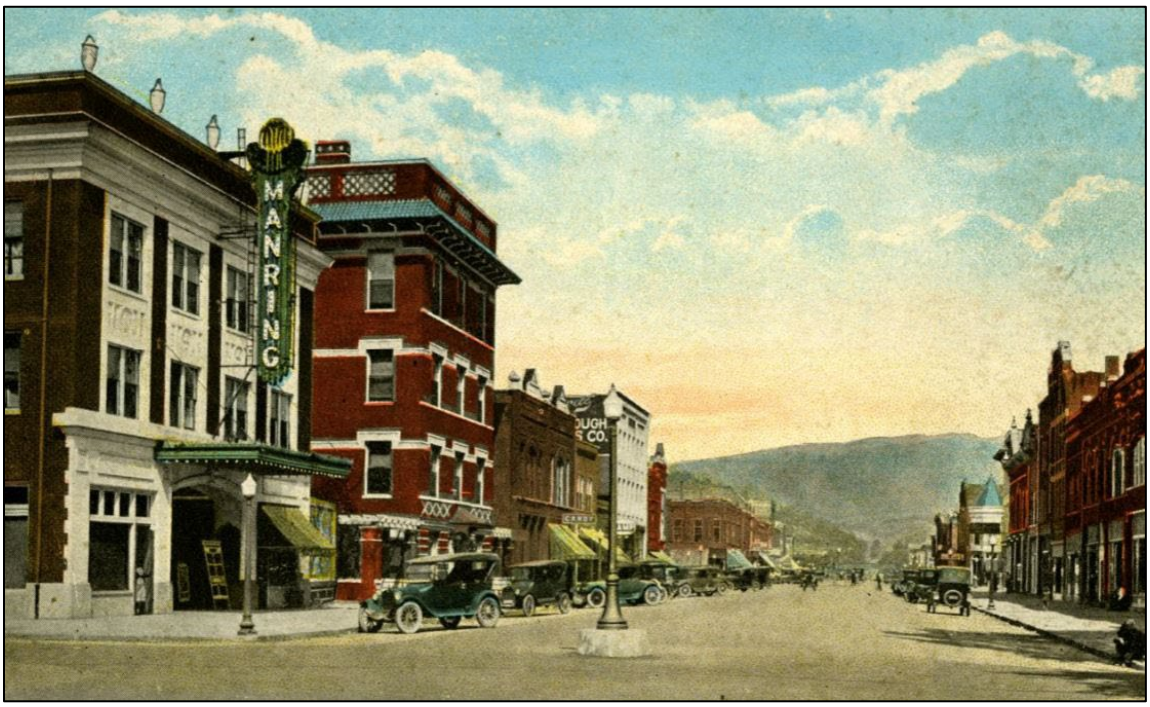


Figure 18. View along Cumberland Avenue in Middlesboro, ca. 1920s (Image courtesy of the Ronald Morgan Postcard Collection, Kentucky Historical Society, Frankfort, Kentucky).

The financial depression of the 1930s was a trying time for the people of Middlesboro. The Great Depression saw a renewed effort to unionize the coal mining industry in Bell County, and wildcat strikes were a common occurrence in the region. Some measure of financial relief for the city came in 1933, when President Franklin Roosevelt enacted legislation organizing the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) and authorizing funds for use in public works projects including forest, water, and soil conservation. In Bell County, the CCC established a camp at Asher Mill Road and constructed fire trails throughout the mountains to assist in fire prevention and reforestation. Another New Deal agency, the Works Progress Administration (WPA) was also active in Bell County, helping to construct several public buildings and schools, including a school at Brownie's Creek and the Pineville Municipal Building. In Middlesboro, the WPA constructed an airfield—known as the Middlesboro-Bell County Airport—in 1936 (Kennedy and Johnson 2005). During World War II (WWII), the local coal mining industry was temporarily revived with many mines placed back into operation to support the war effort. After the war was

over, many veterans returned to the coal industry; however, younger townspeople increasingly chose to pursue careers outside of the local community. While coal mining continued to dominate the local economy of Middlesboro during the postwar era, by the 1960s the nature of the industry began to change as large mining companies adopted more invasive strip-mining techniques that employed fewer local residents (Cornett 2009).

Hensley Settlement

Hensley Settlement is a well-preserved mountain community located atop Brush Mountain, within the boundaries of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. Although it was constructed in the early twentieth century, the appearance of the settlement is representative of the isolated family homesteads that once dotted the region surrounding Cumberland Gap in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. The 500-acre tract was initially granted to C. and R. M. Bales by Governor (Gov.) William Owsley in 1845. The Bales family leased the land to John Nichols of Union County, Tennessee prior to its purchase by Burton Hensley Sr. in May 1903. Burton Hensley, also known as "Gabby Burt," subdivided the property into 16 separate parcels which were deeded to his principal heirs (Cox 2005).

In December 1903, Hensley's daughter Eunice "Nicey" Ann and son-in-law Sherman Hensley became the first members of the family to move to the settlement (Figure 19). Sherman Hensley's father, James Madison Hensley, was Gabby Burt's younger brother, which made Sherman and Nicey Hensley first cousins (U.S Bureau of the Census 1850). The couple moved to the area with their oldest son, Oscar, and welcomed a second son, named Wallace, shortly after their arrival (Cox 2005). By early 1904, other relatives had moved to the settlement, including Albert Hensley, Andrew Jackson (Jack) Hensley, Jack's son Bert Hensley, Willie Gibbons, and Fielding Hensley. The Hensley Settlement was continuously occupied by extended members of the Hensley and Gibbons' families until 1951. The community peaked in the 1930s, when it was occupied by approximately 120 people and included more than 40 structures (Figure 20) (Morgan 1980). The population of the settlement dwindled after WWII, when many of its younger residents married or found jobs off the mountain. Sherman Hensley was the last member of the family to leave the Hensley Settlement in 1951.

The families that occupied Hensley Settlement lived a primitive existence that was reminiscent of the earliest settlers in the Cumberland Gap region. They engaged in subsistence farming, with primary crops consisting of cucumbers, cabbage, corn, sorghum cane, oats, and hay. Farming was performed using mule drawn ploughs and hand tools. Willie Gibbons' operated a blacksmith shop where he produced most the community's metal tools. Livestock was kept at the top of Brush Mountain, and included cattle, oxen, hogs, horses, and sheep. In the fall and winter, Wallace Hensley butchered hogs and preserved their meat in a smokehouse on his property (Cox 2005). Women at the Hensley Settlement performed most of the domestic labor, including preserving food, making quilts, and serving as midwives during childbirth. Both the Hensley and Gibbons' families resided in simple log cabins, constructed of chestnut logs chinked with clay mud. Children from the settlement and surrounding communities were educated in a log schoolhouse, which was constructed in 1908 (Cox 2005). Although the people who resided at Hensley Settlement rarely traveled off the mountain, men and boys from the community would visit nearby Rose Hill, Virginia once a week for trade days.

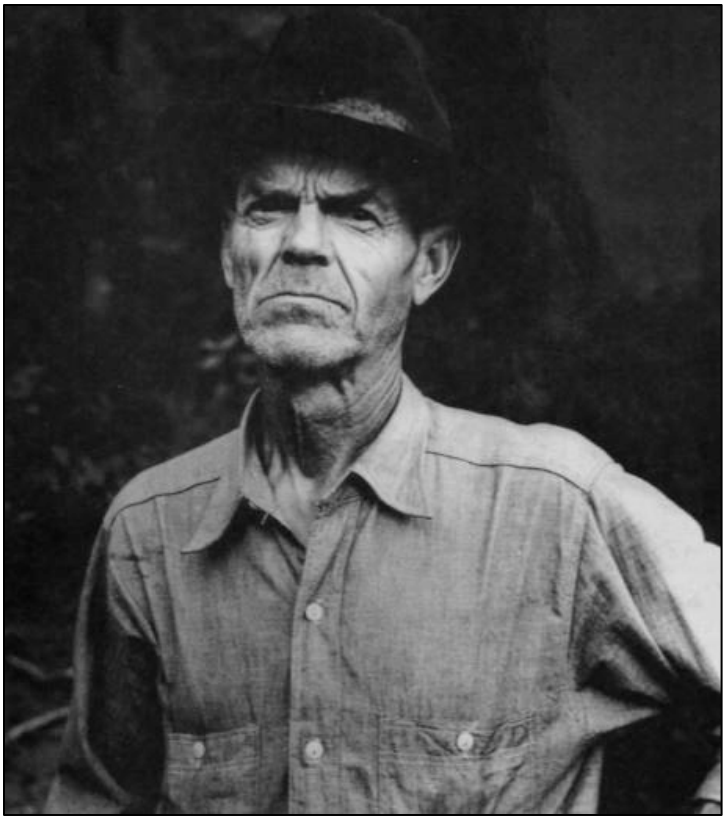


Figure 19. Photograph of Sherman Hensley, ca. 1950s (Image courtesy of Cox 2005).

Figure 20. Aerial view of the Hensley Settlement after restoration, ca. 1970s (Image courtesy of the University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky).

When Cumberland Gap National Historical Park was dedicated in 1959, the Hensley Settlement had been abandoned for just under a decade. The settlement's restoration was considered of utmost importance for early park planners. Beginning in 1967, enrollees with the Job Corps Program assisted in the rebuilding of Hensley Settlement, reconstructing approximately half of the original structures based on information provided by original inhabitant Jesse Gibbons (Morgan 1980). The park currently provides seasonal tours of the settlement.

European American Lifeways in Southern Appalachia

For the most part, early settlements in the Cumberland Gap region were typical of frontier communities in the Southern Appalachian Mountains in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. While the region was only thinly populated, its landscape was dotted with a patchwork of small agricultural settlements that were connected to national markets by a system of toll roads that generally followed the old trail network (Yarnell 1998). The local economy was dominated by family operated subsistence farms and open range livestock, with inhabitants supplementing their income through trade in deerskins, furs, chestnuts, and ginseng (Yarnell 1998).

The majority of the people that settled in the Cumberland Gap region were of German or Scots-Irish descent, with lifeways that echoed those of their countries of origin (May 2021). Yeoman farmers established small homesteads with household production almost entirely dependent on family labor (Figure 21). Early settlements were largely patriarchal in nature and gender roles within the family were strictly defined (Porter 2002). Within each family, husbands and older sons were usually tasked with heavy labor, such as clearing and ploughing fields (Prudup 1990). Women were responsible for a variety of domestic tasks, including cooking, cleaning, caring for gardens or animals, canning, and childcare (Porter 2002). During critical periods in the agricultural cycle, such as during spring planting or the autumn harvest season, members of the community came together to augment a family's labor (Prudup 1990).

Although the region's steep terrain made row crop cultivation difficult, many farmers planted grains and corn on cleared hillsides and supplemented their families' food supply with fruits and vegetables grown in home gardens or small orchards. Livestock raising proliferated in the region, with pigs, cows, and sheep roaming the forested slopes in the vicinity of Cumberland Gap through the mid-nineteenth century (Prudup 1990). After the Civil War, southern states enacted policies of enclosure, which required domestic animals to be fenced to prevent grazing in the open woods (May 2021). Although these laws were principally enacted to coerce freed people into tenant farming—thereby perpetuating the structure of slavery—they also disadvantaged poor white farmers in Southern Appalachia who depended on the fodder from local forests to feed their livestock (May 2021). As a result of the enclosure laws passed in the late nineteenth century, many small farmers turned to other means of economic survival, including coal mining and the production of moonshine (Peine and Schafft 2012).

Although largely isolated from outside cultural influences, rural people that lived in the mountains surrounding Cumberland Gap enjoyed an active social life within the local community. Young people in the region attended a wide variety of social events, including dances and parties centered around activities such as "apple peeling," bean stringing," and "carpet tacking" (Haney 1906). These events often featured music, which was typically provided

by a banjo or fiddle. Sunday church services also provided many opportunities for socialization, with churchgoers often traveling long distances and arriving early to meet with friends and converse about local business or gossip before services commenced (Haney 1906).

Figure 21. M. H. Gass' photograph showing a typical Appalachian family in East Tennessee (exact location unknown), ca. 1910 (Image courtesy of Library of Congress, Washington D.C.).

Black American Community Development in the Tri-State Area

Although Black Americans made up a much smaller percentage of the population in the Tri-State area, they made significant contributions to community development in the region. During the Antebellum period, the circumstances for enslaved people in the Cumberland Gap were decidedly different than those residing in the lower South. The small, self-sufficient farms located in the vicinity of the Gap were not heavily dependent on enslaved labor and, as a result, most small farmers in the region enslaved fewer than five people. Enslaved Blacks typically worked alongside their enslavers as farmers, crafts persons, cattle herders, and merchants (Lucas 2003).

Although rare, a few large enslavers were present in the Cumberland Gap region. Large landowners, like Robert Crockett, Daniel Huff, and James Patterson, each had between 20 and 30 enslaved people at work on their plantations near the Cumberland Gap before the Civil War (Vial 1991). The 1850 U.S. Census listed a total of 33 enslavers in or near the Gap, with most reporting between one and four enslaved people (Vial 1991). A small number of free Blacks were also located in the region, although they were often restricted to living in "drafty shacks on the most hilly and marginal land" (Figure 22) (Vial 1991).

Figure 22. A Black family in front of their cabin in Claiborne County, Tennessee, ca. 1880–1900 (Image courtesy of Lincoln Memorial University, Harrogate, Tennessee).

At the end of the Civil War, freed people in the area of Cumberland Gap followed Gap Creek south to the Tiprell area—former home of Confederate Maj. G. B. Cockrell. They temporarily established a small community in the area but were ultimately forced to vacate the land upon Maj. Cockrell's return. Many of the region's freed people returned to Cumberland Gap where they joined a growing Black American community that was developing around the old grist mill (Vial 1991). By 1870, the U.S. Census counted 45 Black residents in Cumberland Gap. A Sanborn Fire Insurance Map, produced for the community in 1891, indicates that the mill was still in use as a "negro tenement" at that time (Figure 23).

While the Black American population of Cumberland Gap remained small throughout the 1890s, the rapid industrialization of the nearby Yellow Creek Valley brought a flood of Black migrants to the newly planned city of Middlesboro. When the city received its initial charter in 1890, it already boasted a population of 447 Black residents (Matheny 2003). As the city grew, more Black families arrived to take part in the region's burgeoning prosperity. By 1891, there were more than 200 Black families living in the city. Black male laborers were hired by the railroads and in local coal mines, where they enjoyed a certain degree of parity with their white colleagues (Matheny 2003). Churches, fraternal lodges, and schools were established to serve the city's Black residents. In 1891, Berea college graduate Professor George W. Bell established the first school for Black American children in Middlesboro. The school was initially known as the Middlesboro Colored Public School and was later renamed Lincoln High School. Bell, who was also Black, taught at the school with his wife, Elgetha (Figure 24) (Matheny 2003). By 1899, the school had an enrollment of more than 150 students and provided an education for students from the primary grades through high school.

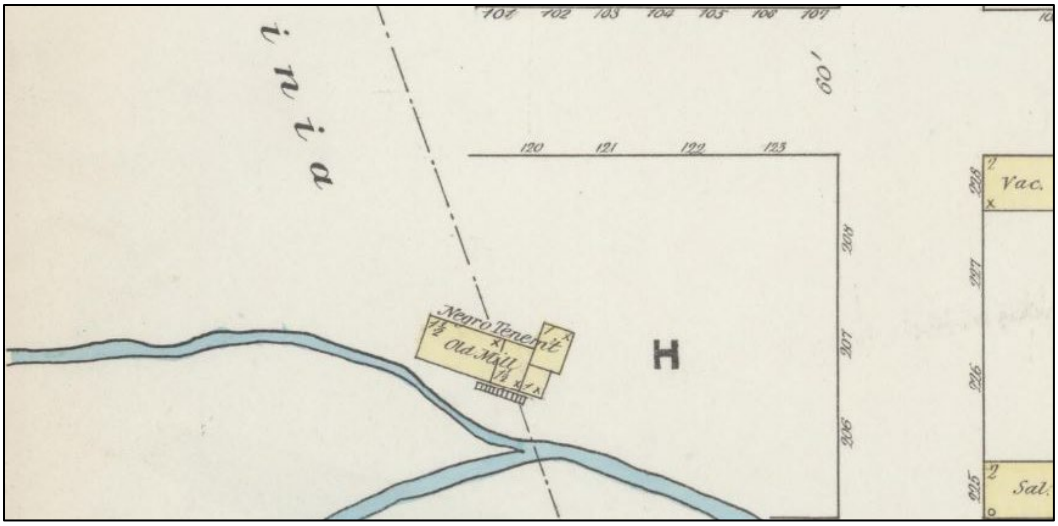


Figure 23. Excerpt from the 1891 Sanborn map showing the old grist mill (Image courtesy of the Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.).

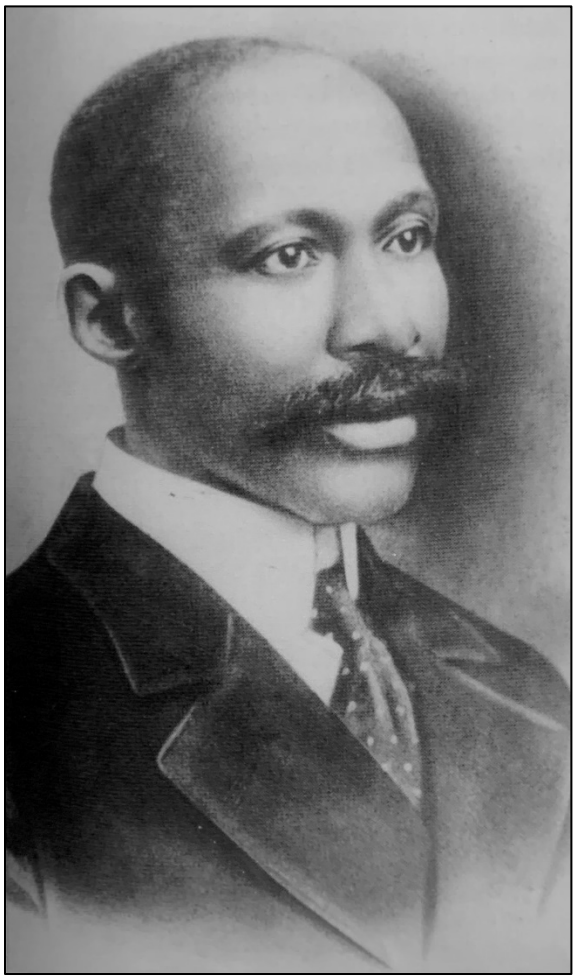


Figure 24. Photograph of George W. Bell, date unknown (Image courtesy of the Southeast Kentucky Community and Technical College, Cumberland, Kentucky).

In addition to the Black enclaves that formed in urban and semi-rural areas, like Middlesboro and Cumberland Gap, some small communities also formed in the local countryside. Communities like Hoop Creek, in Claiborne County, were founded by freed people shortly after the Civil War. Located approximately 8 miles south of Ewing, Virginia, Hoop Creek was an independent and prosperous farming community, comprised mainly of freed people from four local enslavers. Black Americans in the Hoop Creek community constructed churches and a local school to "cement their communal ties" (Arneson 2004).

In the early twentieth century, the Black community in the Cumberland Gap region began to decline as industrial jobs moved away from the area. Coal mining, which employed many Black miners, declined sharply in the 1920s. The exodus of Black families from the Appalachian coalfields was part of a larger demographic trend in which "one generation moved out of the Deep South to central Appalachia, and their children or grandchildren completed the trek north" (Lewis 1987). African Americans who left central Appalachia typically relocated to nearby industrial centers, such as Pittsburgh, Cleveland, and Akron, "where manpower was in short supply and all willing laborers found ready employment" (Lewis 1987). Although they remained small in number, Black Americans in Appalachia have had a profound impact on the region's culture that is still felt today.

Road Construction: A Catalyst for Settlement

Throughout the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, increased traffic from settlers and livestock crossing over the Cumberland Gap required continuous maintenance and repairs to the Wilderness Road. To fund these improvements, the legislatures of both Kentucky and Virginia authorized the collection of tolls along the Wilderness Road to ensure that the route remained passable for settlers and drovers traveling through the Gap (Krakow 1987). Toll roads, also known as turnpikes, were operated by private interests under a state issued charter, with labor for road maintenance supplied by local citizens (Kennedy and Macintire 2004). By the 1830s, heavy use of the Wilderness Road made it difficult for private capital to keep up with road maintenance without supplementary funding from the states. As a result, both Kentucky and Virginia passed a series of bills that provided internal funding for survey and improvements to the Wilderness Road throughout the mid-to late nineteenth century (*The Olive Branch and Danville Advertiser* 1830). In the 1880s, progressive political reforms caused private toll roads to fall out of favor with the American public (DeStefanis 1996). Local governments gradually acquired toll roads from private entities, as both state and federal authorities became more involved in financing, building, and maintaining the nation's new system of public roads (Krakow 1987).

Object Lesson Road

With the collapse of the turnpike system, the Wilderness Road again fell into a state of disrepair in the early twentieth century. A description of the road from 1903 declared that its condition remained "true… to every gloomy description and vile epithet that was ever written or spoken of it" (Hulbert 1903). Efforts to modernize the Wilderness Road in the early twentieth century owed their origins to the rural reform politics of the Progressive era. Federal involvement in road building was initiated by the establishment of the U.S. Office of Road Inquiry (ORI) in 1893. Civil engineer Gen. Roy Stone—a pioneer in the Progressive era Good Roads Movement—was selected to head the agency shortly after its establishment. In 1896, Stone developed the concept of "Object Lesson Roads," which involved "building short stretches of improved roadway" to

educate both road builders and the public about the benefits of good roads and stimulate local interest in their construction (Wells 2006). The program specifically targeted rural areas, convincing local farmers of the need to improve country roads and embrace new road building technologies (Wells 2006).

In 1905, the ORI achieved permanent status as the Office of Public Roads (OPR), a division of the Department of Agriculture. When the agency began to select road sections throughout the country for upgrades, residents of the Tri-State region requested that the neglected portion of the Wilderness Road through Cumberland Gap be considered (Figure 25) (Wiley 2014). In 1905, the mayor of Cumberland Gap, J. Frank White spearheaded the local campaign to have an "Object Lesson Road" constructed through the Gap (Vial 1991). White, who also operated a furniture store in Middlesboro, felt that a connection between the two communities would be vital for the region's development (Vial 1991). Once funding for the project was secured, in 1907, OPR project supervisor and "road expert" Fay McClure traveled to the Tri-State region with the goal of assessing the feasibility of constructing a federal road between Middlesboro, Kentucky and Cumberland Gap, Tennessee (*The Courier-Journal* 1907). McClure reported his observations to the Acting Chief Engineer of the Office of Public Roads in a letter dated February 17 of that year, which he described as being a "difficult piece of construction" due to its location along "a shelf on the side of the mountain…" (Krakow 1987). Under the direction of OPR, the U.S. Geological Survey Corps stationed at Cumberland Gap began to design the roadway and proposed the route, known locally as the "Tri-State Road," to measure 24 feet wide and stretch approximately five miles across the states of Kentucky, Virginia, and Tennessee (*Knoxville Sentinel* 1907; Vial 1991). The roadbed was to be surfaced with macadam, a substance that consisted of crushed, compacted, and rolled limestone, with 6-foot-wide drains along its shoulders (*Knoxville Sentinel* 1907). Construction of the route was initially expected to cost over $30,000 (*Knoxville Sentinel* 1907a).

Figure 25. View of the Wilderness Road as it appeared at the turn of the twentieth century, ca. 1900 (Image courtesy of Pusey 1921).

Construction commenced in Claiborne County, Tennessee on July 29, 1907, and was completed 15 months later in Lee County, Virginia on October 9, 1908. G. B. Cockrell, owner of King Solomon's Cave and president of the Eastern Kentucky Land Company, donated "the land and materials for the Cumberland Gap section of the macadamized road" (Vial 1991). The alignment was shorter than originally intended, measuring only two and a half miles in length, and the roadbed was only 14 feet wide, or nearly half as wide as originally proposed (Krakow 1987; Tinney 1965). Construction on the road was performed by local laborers who often camped on the roadside due to lack of hospitable rooms (Vial 1991). Final costs totaled $7,220.22 per mile, which was paid by the three counties in which the road was located (e.g., Bell County, Kentucky; Claiborne County, Tennessee; and Lee County, Virginia) (*Knoxville Sentinel* 1908). Supplemental funds were also provided by local residents and corporations (*Knoxville Sentinel* 1908).

After more than a year of arduous labor, an approximately 12,500-foot-long segment of the roadway was completed (Figure 26). The roadbed was 20 feet wide shoulder to shoulder and had a macadam surface measuring 14 feet wide and 7 inches deep (*Manufacturers' Record* 1909). In 1909, Dr. H. C. Chance was the first person to drive his vehicle, a 1909 International, over the Gap (Tinney 1965; Vial 1991). The 1909 International was a so-called "auto buggy," a motorized vehicle that was designed to look as much like a wagon as possible (Rosenberg 2019). Completion of the Object Lesson Road was considered an immense success, proving that construction of highways suitable for commercial conditions was possible in mountainous regions. An article in *The Middlesborough News* celebrated the road's completion, remarking that "where a year or two ago a carriage or buggy was a rare sight, now they are almost as common as pine trees along the road" (*The Middlesborough News* 1908).

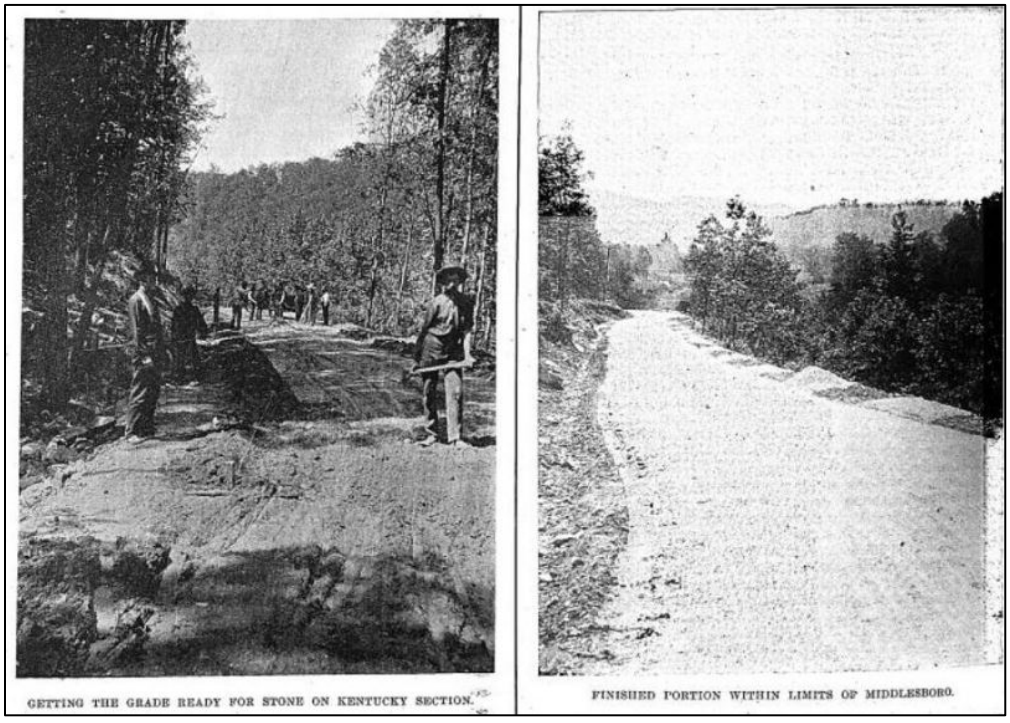


Figure 26. Photographs showing the Object Lesson Road under construction and after completion, ca. 1908–1909 (Image courtesy of *Manufacturers' Record*, October 28, 1909).

VERNACULAR ARCHITECTURE OF THE CUMBERLAND GAP

Historically, the built environment of the Cumberland Gap has largely consisted of folk architecture, which was constructed "for local people, by local builders, using local building materials" (Montell and Morse 1976). Horizontal log construction was the dominant construction method in this region for much of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Log construction techniques were first brought to the U.S. by Finnish and Swedish settlers who established colonies on the upper shores of Delaware Bay in the seventeenth century. Log construction was later spread by German and Swiss immigrants and disseminated along the ever-expanding western frontier (Morgan 1990).

Many of the architectural forms that are now synonymous with log construction in the Southern Appalachian Mountains can be traced to northern and central Europe. For example, dogtrot houses, single-pen cabins, and single and double crib barns all originated in Finland and Sweden. German contributions to log architecture include the shingle roof, central chimney, and board gables. German immigrants also modified the Scandinavian V-notch and reinforced the use of the dovetail notch, chinking, and the double crib plan (Morgan 1990). Although English and Scots-Irish builders who settled in the Cumberland Gap region did not possess a log building tradition of their own, they adapted the form of the stone houses from their native countries to log construction and helped to popularize the style throughout the Southern Appalachian Mountains (Montell and Morse 1976). British influence on log architecture in the Tri-State region included variants of the single-pen cabin, two types of double pen dwellings, and the centrally placed gable end chimney (Figure 27) (Morgan 1990). Influences from these various ethnic groups created a syncretic log architecture that was unique to the American frontier.

Figure 27. Photograph of a family in front of a crude single-pen cabin near Harrogate, Tennessee, ca. 1906 (Image courtesy of the George Grantham Bain Collection, Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.).

Log Cabins and Other Residential Architecture

Both necessity and tradition compelled early settlers in the Cumberland Gap region to construct simple log dwellings to shelter themselves and their families (Montell and Morse 1976). Upon arriving at their future homesite, settlers would first construct temporary shelters, such as lean-tos or stacked log huts, which they may have covered with bark or animal skins. These temporary shelters would provide protection from the elements, while the family could begin clearing the land and gathering materials to construct a more substantial cabin (Macintire 1998).

Most of the permanent shelters constructed by residents in the Cumberland Gap region appear to have been comprised of rudimentary single-pen log cabins (Figure 28). These simple buildings consisted of one structural unit with four log walls joined together by corner notches and an exterior gable-end chimney (Morgan 1990). Single-pen dwellings typically had square dimensions, measuring 14 feet by 14 feet or 16 feet by 16 feet in size (Montell and Morse 1976). Sometimes single-pen cabins had a rectangular plan, with slightly larger dimensions. A non-weightbearing partition wall could also be added inside the structure to create two equal or unequal living units. Often the structure was enlarged by adding a second log pen beside the first unit to form a double pen structure (Morgan 1990). These cabins were usually between one and one-and-a-half stories in height. Houses were built on stone piers or had continuous stone foundations that were raised one to two feet above the ground surface to prevent entry from snakes or rodents. Front and rear doors were usually placed in or near the center of the walls and most houses had two or more windows. Roofs were clad in wood shingles, which were hand riven with a froe—a tool used for cleaving wood along the grain (Montell and Morse 1976).

Figure 28. Photograph of the single-pen Cupp Cabin (CUGA00120.000) before its restoration by the Job Corps, ca. 1964. Note the wood shingles and stone chimney on the gable end of the structure (Photograph on file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky [Classification No. 930, Negative No. 1995]).

Exterior walls were constructed of rough-hewn logs, typically between ten inches to 20 inches in diameter (Morgan 1990). The production of hewn logs was a labor-intensive process that required the use of a broadaxe to shave down rounded edges to make planks (Cox 2005). At Hensley Settlement, most builders preferred chestnut logs for the construction of dwellings when they were available. White oak was used for the construction of the main sill over each home's foundation (Cox 2005). The spaces between the boards were chinked with small pieces of wood and daubed with clay mud or mortar (Cox 2005). Puncheons consisting of thick, hand-split, unfinished boards were frequently used for interior flooring (Macintire 1998). Chimneys were primarily located on the gable end of the building and ranged from primitive "stick and mud" structures to more substantial stone or brick arrangements.

While corner notching was the most distinctive feature of log cabin design in Southern Appalachia, a variety of notch types were used depending on the builder's ability and/or the type of structure being built. The most common types of notches used in the Cumberland Gap region, included the V, saddle, and full dovetailed notches. The V-notch, in particular, was the most common type of notch used in the region. Both the V-notch and full dovetail notch were used for the construction of dwellings and substantial outbuildings, such as barns. Lower quality outbuildings were typically built using the saddle notch (Figure 29) (Morgan 1990). The Lige Gibbons' House, located at Hensley Settlement, illustrates the V-notching technique, common for dwellings throughout Southern Appalachia (Photograph 1).

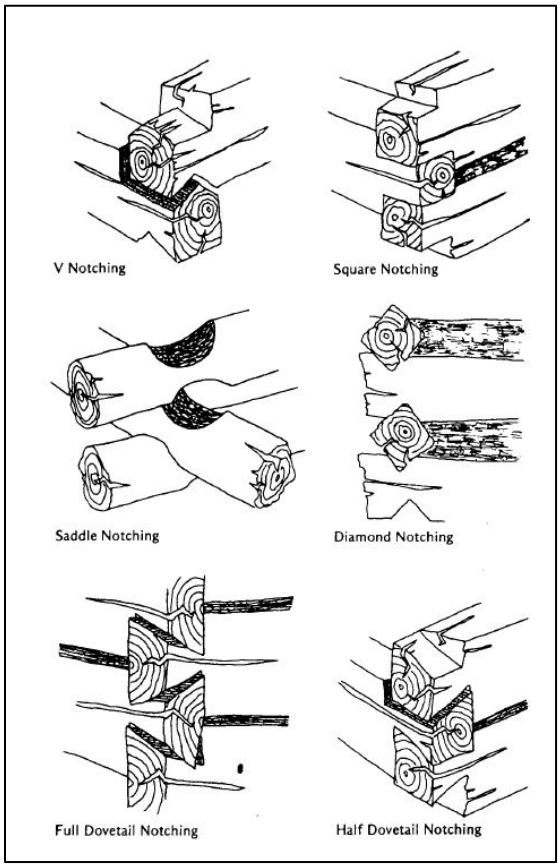


Figure 29. Illustration showing the diverse types of corner notches used in log cabin construction (Image courtesy of Montell and Morse 1976).

Photograph 1. Lige Gibbons' log cabin, located in the Hensley Settlement, is an example of a double pen-style home with V-notching (North Wind 2022).

Barns and Outbuildings

Log barns and other small outbuildings in the Cumberland Gap region follow a similar evolutionary process as dwelling structures. Built with a modular component of 'cribs,' or units of usable space, these buildings typically began as dirt floor structures of various proportions. There are several distinct crib subtypes located throughout Southern Appalachia which were common in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. The most common subtypes found in the Tri-State region include plain, or single, cribs; single-cribs with a lean-to shed; double cribs; four-cribs; and transverse cribs (Rehder 2012).

Plain, rectangular cribs are the most common type of outbuildings located within Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. Characterized by the absence of shed additions, plain cribs vary in size and typically have a forward projecting roof to cover the front entry from weather (Montell and Morse 1976). These types of structures usually have a rectangular plan with a front gable roof. Plain cribs can be used for a variety of functions, including as smokehouses, granaries, pig pens, or hen houses. Several good examples of the plain crib subtype are located within the current park boundaries. Notable examples of this type include the Willie Gibbons Granary (CUGA00035.007) and the Bert Hensley Hen House (CUGA00043.002), which both consist of front-gabled log structures situated on stacked stone piers (Photograph 2 and Photograph 3).

Another significant example of the plain, or single, crib is the Willie Gibbons Barn—the largest structure remaining at Hensley Settlement. A historic photograph of the barn, prior to its reconstruction by the Job Corps program in the 1960s, shows a front gabled building with a single crib located in its center. The crib is flanked by two parallel driving aisles that follow the roof ridge. A large, enclosed loft is positioned in the upper portion of the building (Figure 30).

Photograph 2. Willie Gibbons Granary (CUGA00035.007), located in the Hensley Settlement, facing west. Note the projecting roof which shelters the entrance (North Wind 2023).

Photograph 3. Bert Hensley Hen House (CUGA00043.002), facing southeast (North Wind 2023).

Figure 30. Willie Gibbons Barn (CUGA00035.006) as it appeared before its reconstruction by the Job Corps (Image courtesy of Job Corps 1969).

Schoolhouses

Schoolhouses throughout Southern Appalachia often served as multipurpose structures for local communities. Depending upon available teachers, students of various ages would share a single-unit building. The earliest forms of schoolhouses were standard rectangular log structures that were modified as needs and opportunities presented themselves. These structures were typically constructed by local builders and, as a result, shared many of the architectural characteristics that were popular within the local community.

The Brush Mountain Schoolhouse (CUGA00044.000), located at Hensley Settlement, is typical of the small rural schools constructed in the vicinity of Cumberland Gap during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. A schoolhouse was originally constructed within Hensley Settlement in 1912 and was later rebuilt and moved several times throughout the settlement's history. The current Brush Mountain Schoolhouse was most recently reconstructed by park employees in 1972 (Figure 31). The one-story building currently has a front-gabled, wood shake roof, horizontal riven board cladding, a timber floor with stacked stone foundation, wood double-hung windows, and a brick chimney. A shed-style roof was added at an unknown date, creating a narrow front porch over the building's main entrance and along its east façade.

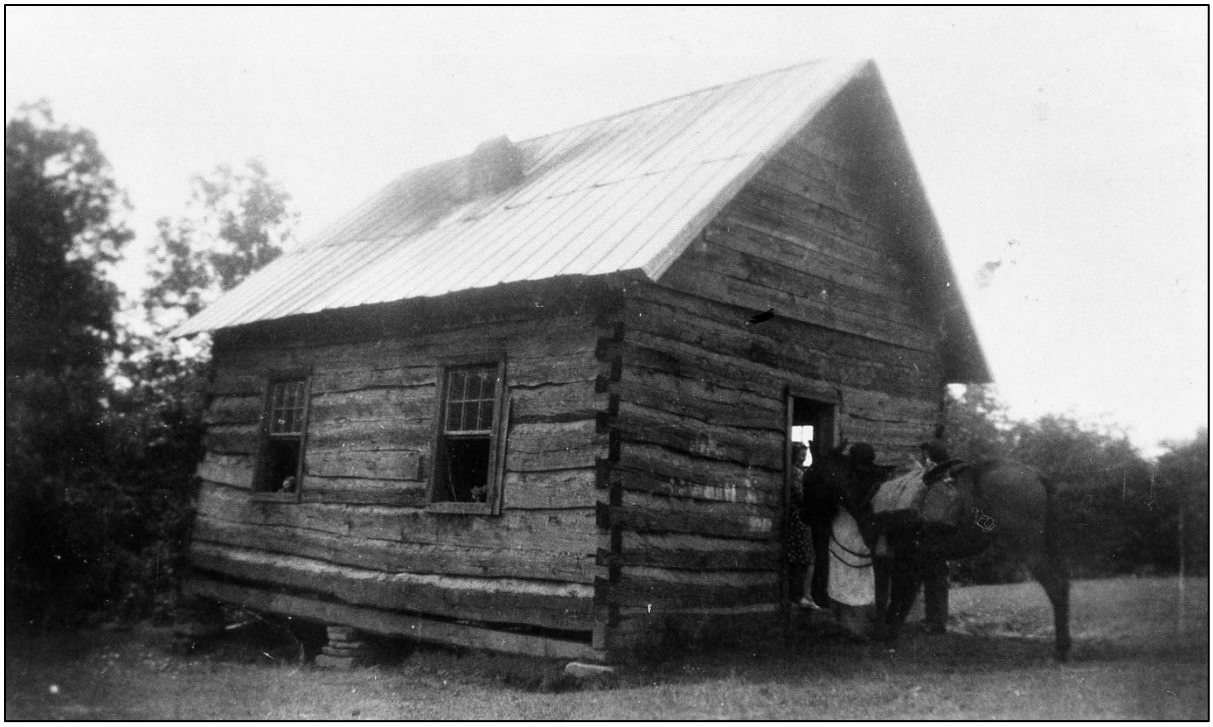


Figure 31. Brush Mountain Schoolhouse (CUGA00044.001) at Hensley Settlement, ca. 1947 (Image courtesy of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park.

Cemeteries

As with most built environments in the Southern Appalachian Mountains, cemeteries and graveyards have evolved to reflect the communities they serve. Organized by communities, church congregations, and individual families, Appalachian cemeteries were established not only to entomb the dead, but as places for contemplation and visitation (Thacker 2007). Several small family cemeteries are located within the current boundaries of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. Early grave markers within these cemeteries consist of upright fieldstones, which may indicate either headstones or footstones (Photograph 4). These stones have simplistic designs and are often unmarked. They are generally less than a foot long and weigh between five and ten pounds (Thacker 2007). Later grave markers are more stylized and represent improved manufacturing techniques developed during the twentieth century. These newer stones typically consist of smooth, marble or granite tombstones, with deeply carved, highly legible lettering (Photograph 5).

Photograph 4. Hensley Cemetery (CUGA00038.000) showing multiple upright fieldstone markers, facing southwest (North Wind 2023).

Photograph 5. Denny Cemetery (CUGA00177.000) showing modern marble tombstone, facing south (North Wind 2023).

KNOWN RESOURCE TYPES

Homesteads/Settlements

Dozens of homesteading sites are located within the current boundaries of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. These resources are typically situated in isolated locations scattered throughout the park. They range in size from small plots operated by members of a single household to vast multi-acre settlements that were occupied by several interrelated families. The largest homesteading related resource within the park is Hensley Settlement, a restored pioneer community that consists of more than 40 extant log buildings and structures (Photograph 6). In 1979, Hensley Settlement was listed in the NRHP as a historic district under Criterion A for its association with the agricultural and social development of the region and under Criterion C for architecture. In addition to Hensley Settlement, another 25 archaeological sites associated with early settlement activities have been documented within the park boundaries (Table 3). None of these sites have been previously evaluated for NRHP listing.

Photograph 6. Overview of Hensley Settlement, showing the Lige Gibbons' homestead (CUGA00048.000), facing south (North Wind 2022).

Table 3. Homestead Sites Located within Cumberland Gap National Historical Park	
Primary Name	**Resource ID**
Susan Baker/C.C. Powell House	CUGA00057.000
Russell Colson Site	CUGA00058.000
Station Creek Site	CUGA00059.000
Crock Site/Crockett Minton House	CUGA00095.000
Colson Lane and Chimney Fall Site	CUGA00092.000
Gap Creek House	CUGA00103.000
Periwinkle House	CUGA00129.000
Switchback House	CUGA00139.000
Intersection Site	CUGA00114.000
1920s Homestead (Photograph 7)	CUGA00078.000
Braden House Site	CUGA00085.000
Andrew Jackson Hensley Farmstead	CUGA00079.000
Pawpaw Homestead	CUGA00127.000
Dimple House	CUGA00111.000
Ramps Homestead	CUGA00164.000
Old Hemlock Site	CUGA00166.000
Singing Birds Homestead	CUGA00167.000
Howard Gulley House	CUGA00008.000
Rubble Homestead	CUGA00135.000
Briar Patch	CUGA00087.000
Station Creek Junction	CUGA00186.000
Upper Station Creek Homestead	CUGA00185.000
Lewis Hollow Homestead 2	CUGA00178.000
Thick	CUGA00141.000
Gerber	CUGA00158.000

Cemeteries

Cemeteries within the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park provide a tangible record of individuals and families that settled the area and denote the historical customs and traditions that surrounded death and burial in Southern Appalachia. Of the two known resources of this type that have been identified within the current park boundaries, only the Hensley Settlement Cemetery has been previously listed in the NRHP as part of the Hensley Settlement Historic District (80000367) (see Photograph 4). The other cemetery that has been identified in the park consists of the Denny Cemetery (CUGA00177.000), a small family graveyard dating from the early nineteenth century (Photograph 8). The Denny Cemetery has not been previously evaluated for NRHP eligibility.

Photograph 7. View of cellar at the 1920s Homestead (CUGA00078.000), facing east (North Wind 2022).

Photograph 8. Overview of Denny Cemetery (CUGA00177.000), facing southwest (North Wind 2023).

Roads

For isolated regions, such as the Cumberland Gap, road construction served as an important stimulus for early settlement. Notable early roads associated with the settlement of the Tri-State region included the Wilderness Road—the original path constructed through the Cumberland Gap by Daniel Boone in the late eighteenth century, and the Object Lesson Road (101674), a demonstration road constructed by the Federal government in 1909 (Photograph 9). While the Wilderness Road was listed in the NRHP in 1980 as part of the Cumberland Gap Historic District—Virginia/Kentucky/Tennessee, the Object Lesson Road has not been previously evaluated for NRHP listing.

Photograph 9. Overview of the Object Lesson Road (101674), now utilized as a hiking trail, facing northeast (North Wind 2023).

NRHP Eligibility for Settlement Related Resources at Cumberland Gap

Other than Hensley Settlement, the history of homesteading and early community development efforts within Cumberland Gap National Historical Park have not been thoroughly documented and it is highly likely that future research will uncover additional resources associated with these themes. As nearly all the properties associated with the early settlement of the Cumberland Gap other than the Hensley Settlement represent individually distinguishable entities located at spatially discrete locations throughout the park, they should be evaluated individually for NRHP eligibility (Figure 32). Additionally, the majority of the previously unevaluated homesteading sites are currently in a deteriorated and/or ruined condition, and should, therefore, be evaluated according to the guidance provided by *National Register Bulletin 36: Guidelines for Evaluating and Registering Archaeological Properties* (Little et al. 2000). Similarly, cemeteries should be evaluated for NRHP eligibility according to the guidance provided by *National Register Bulletin*

41: Guidelines for Evaluating and Registering Cemeteries and Burial Places, which provides direction for how to evaluate resources for NRHP listing under Criteria Consideration D. As the Object Lesson Road has been reconstructed to its early twentieth century appearance, this resource should be evaluated for NRHP eligibility under Criteria Consideration E, which offers guidance for evaluating reconstructed properties for listing in the NRHP.

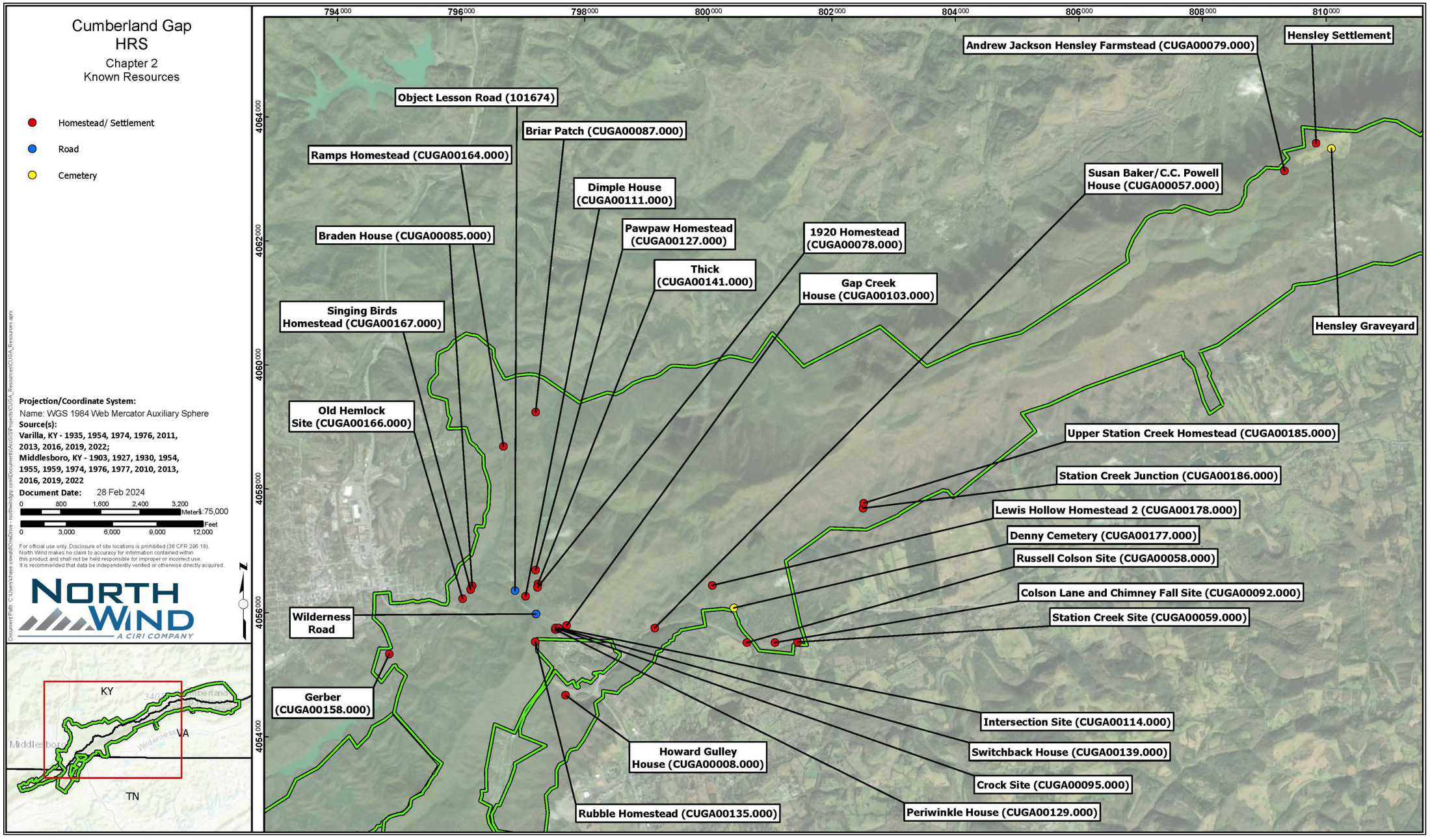


Figure 32. Chapter 2 Known Resources.

CHAPTER THREE: CUMBERLAND GAP DURING THE CIVIL WAR

U.S. Army and Confederate Occupation of the Cumberland Gap

At the outbreak of the American Civil War, the area surrounding Cumberland Gap occupied a tenuous position between U.S. Army forces (also referred to as "Federals") in the border state of Kentucky and Confederates located in the lower South. Although Tennessee voted to join the Confederacy in June 1861, the eastern part of the state remained staunchly opposed to secession. Pro-Federalist sentiment in eastern Tennessee was largely driven by the region's soil and climate, which was not well-suited for the vast cotton production that increased demand for enslaved labor. Instead, the ridges, valleys, and mountains of eastern Tennessee encouraged the development of small farmsteads operated primarily by white families. Scots-Irish families that occupied the mountains and valleys of East Tennessee were also closely allied, through blood or other affinity, with Northern sympathizers in neighboring Kentucky.

While regional opposition to the Confederate cause was noteworthy, Cumberland Gap also held an important strategic position for both the Federal government and the Confederate States of America. Located along the eastern escarpment of the Cumberland Plateau, the gap formed a low point along the ridge that made it the most easily navigable route for troops seeking passage over Cumberland Mountain. Additionally, both armies considered the existing Wilderness Road to be the most practicable pathway for transporting troops and supplies over the region's mountainous terrain. In July 1861, just one month after Tennessee declared its allegiance to the Confederacy, rumors began to spread that more than 10,000 Federal sympathizers were conducting drilling exercises in the counties north of Cumberland Gap (Lowe 2011). At the same time, newspapers from as far away as New York City began to call for Federal troops to "proceed to the relief of the Union men of East Tennessee" (*New York Times* 1861). Confederate forces responded to these threats by moving quickly to secure the Cumberland Gap region.

Within weeks, the government in Tennessee had posted a regiment at Cumberland Gap "through which a fine road enters the state from Kentucky," and over which it was feared reinforcements would be transported to support the U.S. Army (*Weekly Pioneer and Democrat* 1861). The initial regiment, under the command of Confederate Brigadier (Brig.) General (Gen.) William R. Caswell, infiltrated the Gap and "entrenched themselves on the mountain sides, covering the northern approaches of the road" (*Weekly Pioneer and Democrat* 1861). By August, Confederate Brig. Gen. Felix Zollicoffer, a former two-term U.S. Senator associated with the nativist Know-Nothing party, had taken charge of the troops in East Tennessee (Figure 33). The following month, Confederate forces invaded Kentucky, violating the state's neutrality. At that time, Zollicoffer reportedly had three regiments stationed at Cumberland Gap with immediate orders to march into Kentucky and seize the Cumberland Ford at Pineville—one of the most practicable Cumberland River crossings. As tensions in the region continued to escalate into the fall of 1861, Gen. Zollicoffer pleaded with his superiors to send "an engineer officer and ten 12-pounder cannon" for the establishment of fixed batteries at Cumberland Gap and Cumberland Ford (Lowe 2011).

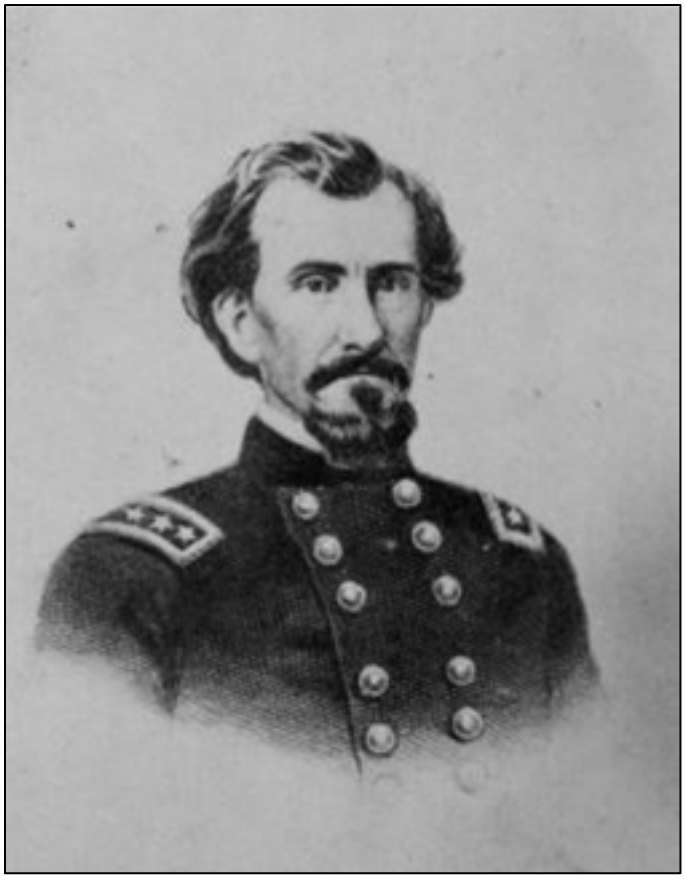


Figure 33. Portrait of Brig. Gen. Felix Zollicoffer, ca. 1860s (Image courtesy of the Mississippi Department of Archives and History, Jackson, Mississippi).

On September 12, 1861, Major (Maj.) Albert Miller Lea was breveted as a major of artillery and ordered to assist Gen. Zollicoffer at Cumberland Gap (U.S. War Department 1882). Lea was a graduate of the U.S. Military Academy at West Point and had also served as the chief engineer for the City of Knoxville (Lowe 2011). The basic locations of forts on the Kentucky side of Cumberland Gap were laid out by Maj. Lea, with the assistance of First Lieutenant (Lt.) Wilbur Fisk Foster of the Confederate Engineer Corps between September and December 1861 (Creighton 1972; Lowe 2011). Forts constructed during this period included Fort Hunter (later Fort Foote); Fort Pitts (later Fort Lyon); Fort Rains (later Fort McCook); Fort Churchwell (later Fort Farragut); Fort Green (later Fort Edgar); and Fort Mallory (later Fort McRae) (Figure 34) (Morgan 1980).

Just as the construction of fortifications at Cumberland Gap got underway, Gen. Zollicoffer, with a force of approximately 4,500 men, began moving northwest into Kentucky toward a Federal recruitment point known as Camp Dick Robinson. In Zollicoffer's absence, Colonel (Col.) William M. Churchwell, along with a contingent of approximately 2,000 men, remained entrenched at Cumberland Gap to complete the fortifications (Lowe 2011). On October 21, 1861, Zollicoffer's expedition into Kentucky was repulsed by Federal forces, led by Federal Gen. George Thomas, at Wildcat Mountain. Following the defeat, Zollicoffer and his men retreated south through Cumberland Gap to Jacksboro, Tennessee (Astor 2015).

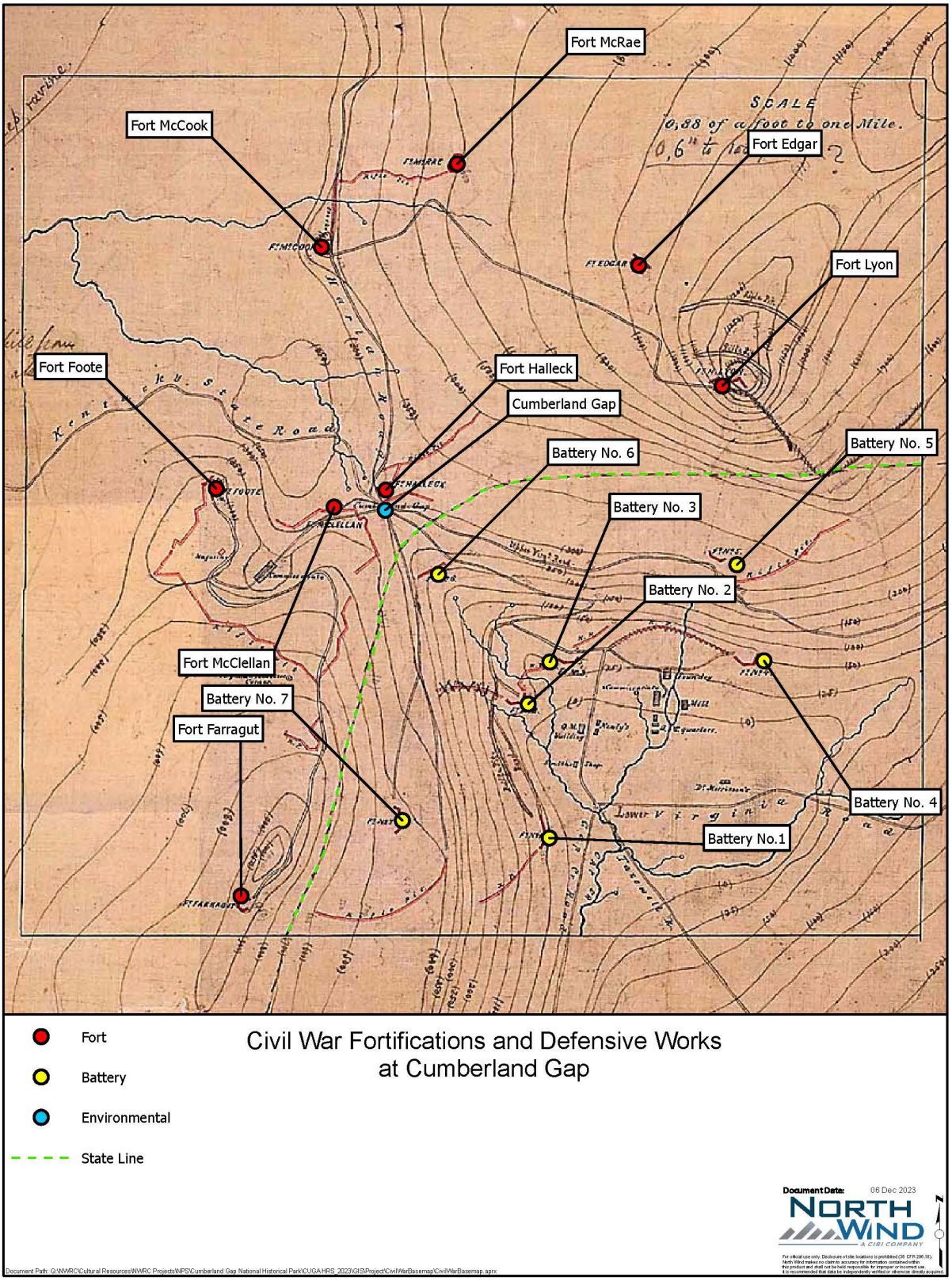


Figure 34. Map of Cumberland Gap showing the location of Civil War earthworks, ca. December 1862 (Base image courtesy of the National Archives and Records Administration, College Park, Maryland).

Upon his removal to Jacksboro, Gen. Zollicoffer left Col. James E. Rains in command of the post at Cumberland Gap. Col. Rains' regiment was reinforced by Col. Churchwell and a battalion of the Sixteenth Alabama Regiment, along with seven calvary companies tasked with guarding the roads to the Kentucky communities of Barboursville, Manchester, and Harlan Courthouse (U.S. War Department 1882). Progress on the fortifications in the Gap progressed slowly through the winter of 1861–1862. Following a series of Confederate defeats in February 1862, Col. Rains abandoned an advance outpost at Cumberland Ford and pleaded with Confederate officials to send reinforcements to Cumberland Gap. Rains feared that the Kentucky side of the Gap was weaker than had been previously reported, but reiterated the strategic importance of the Gap, asserting that the "position should never be abandoned" (U.S. War Department 1882a). In response to Rains' pleas for reinforcements, a half company of military engineers that had been organized by Maj. Lea were dispatched to Cumberland Gap in early February 1862 (U.S. War Department 1882a).

Major Lea was transferred to Florida in March 1862. That same month, U.S. Army forces under the command of Brig. Gen. Samuel P. Carter reconnoitered the Confederate defense surrounding Cumberland Gap. Carter's troops engaged in a skirmish with Confederate forces in the Gap, reporting that the Confederate soldiers returned fire from seven discrete locations, including from works located "on the top of the Cumberland Mountains to the left of the Gap, which reared flat above [them]; one on the side of the mountain, also on the left; one in the Gap; and four on the right or west side of the Gap" (U.S. War Department 1884). Although the Gap was strongly fortified from the north, Carter recommended that a simultaneous attack from the south or an investment to cut off supplies would be effective for dispelling the Confederate troops from Cumberland Gap (U.S. War Department 1884).

Beginning in May 1862, U.S. Army Maj. Gen. George W. Morgan assumed command of all Federal forces located at Cumberland Ford. Morgan's consolidated forces—collectively known as the Seventh Division, Army of the Cumberland—consisted of 8,000 men including four infantry brigades led by Samuel P. Carter, James Spears, Absalom Baird, and John DeCourcy, as well as four artillery batteries, and a calvary battalion. That June, while advancing on Cumberland Gap from the north, Morgan was met with a "strong work protected by rifle pits" that had been constructed by Maj. Lea on the right side of Fort Pitts (later Fort Lyon) (see Figure 34). (U.S. War Department 1884). The strength of the Confederate fortifications caused Morgan to abandon a frontal assault of the Gap, and instead attempt to exercise a flank movement that would force the Confederate soldiers to abandon their position (U.S. War Department 1884). On June 6, 1862, Morgan began maneuvering his troops across Pine Mountain through Rogers' Gap, approximately 20 miles west of Cumberland Gap. "Heavy fatigue parties" used block and tackle and drag ropes to haul wagons and artillery over the treacherous mountain roads, which were immediately blockaded by Captain (Cap.) S. S. Lyon after the rear guard had passed (Official Record 10, p 59). Morgan reported that as the troops approached Cumberland Gap, "old men, women, and children flocked to the roadside, and everywhere we were welcomed with smiles and tears and joy" (U.S. War Department 1884). On June 19, at around 10'clock in the morning, Col. Rains and the rest of the Confederate garrison abandoned Cumberland Gap rather than be surrounded and captured by Federal forces (Lowe 2011). As Federal troops assumed control of the Gap, Gen. Morgan remarked that "…the Gap is ours, and without the loss of a single life" (U.S. War Department 1884).

Federal forces under Maj. Gen. George Morgan occupied Cumberland Gap through the spring and summer of 1862. While in control of the region, Morgan's forces began construction on new fortifications to protect the Gap's southern approaches (see Figure 34) (Lowe 2011). That June, Secretary of War Edwin Stanton ordered Regular Army Engineer Lt. William Pierce Craighill to oversee the construction of Federal fortifications at Cumberland Gap (U.S. War Department 1886). Craighill was a native of Charles Town, Virginia (now West Virginia) and a graduate of West Point, where he also served as Assistant Professor of Engineering prior to the outbreak of the Civil War (Society of American Military Engineers 1912).

In a letter to Brig. Gen. Joseph Totten, written in July 1862, Craighill detailed his plans for the fortification of Cumberland Gap. Craighill's defenses relied on a three-tiered system that would start on "the lowest ground, upon which the lower roads meet before reaching the Gap itself" (U.S. War Department 1886). This area would include a series of lower batteries—Battery Nos. 1, 2, 3, and 4—where "guns of not very heavy caliber [could be] placed *en barbette*…as the position may justify or require" (U.S. War Department 1886). The low batteries would be used to defend the southern approaches with crossing fields of fire (Lowe 2011).

The middle tier of fortifications—known as Battery Nos. 5, 6, and 7— would be situated in the saddle of the Gap and would be used to sweep the roads and low-lying areas in front of the lower batteries. The highest defenses consisted of ridgetop fortifications that could be armed with "guns and mortars of the heaviest caliber" to keep the enemy at bay (U.S. War Department 1886). Upper-level fortifications included improvements to existing Confederate forts, as well as the redesign of a former Confederate battery to create a new fortification—known as Fort McClellan (Haney 2004). Troop labor was used to harvest timber from the southern slopes of Cumberland Mountain to facilitate the construction of the new fortifications. Craighill also oversaw the construction of an ordnance and quartermaster warehouse in the village of Cumberland Gap and a commissary and magazine in the Gap itself (Lowe 2011).

In August 1862, Confederate forces under Maj. Gen. E. Kirby Smith renewed their offensive operations into Kentucky. Smith's forces traveled north from LaFollette to Barboursville and Cumberland Ford, cutting Federal supply lines to Cumberland Gap (Lowe 2011). On August 16, it was reported that Smith's troops were advancing into Kentucky with a force of between 12,000 and 15,000 men (U.S. War Department 1886). Meanwhile, additional Confederate forces, including those of Brig. Gen. Carter Stevenson, attempted to overrun the Gap from the south. On August 25, Morgan reported to Maj. Gen. Lew Wallace that he was surrounded on the south front by 8,000 troops under the command of Gen. Stevenson and on the north by two brigades of infantry, a calvary battalion, and two batteries under the command of General Churchill (Churchwell) (U.S. War Department 1886). Although Morgan's troops were significantly outnumbered, the Confederate soldiers were discouraged by the seeming impenetrability of Craighill's defenses and opted to blockade the Gap rather than launch a frontal assault on the Federal position (Lowe 2011). Despite the precarious nature of his situation, Morgan initially remained optimistic, reporting that although his men had been on half rations for ten days, they had "sufficient beans and rice for at least two months," and could acquire cattle "despite the enemy" (U.S. War Department 1886).

The Confederate siege lasted until September 17, 1862, when, in spite of his initial confidence, Gen. Morgan's forces made an impromptu retreat from Cumberland Gap. As Morgan's men prepared to evacuate north along the Harlan Road, they set about destroying the commissary and powder magazine constructed by Craighill just three months earlier (Figure 35) (Lowe 2011). Following Morgan's retreat, Confederate forces immediately reoccupied Cumberland Gap.

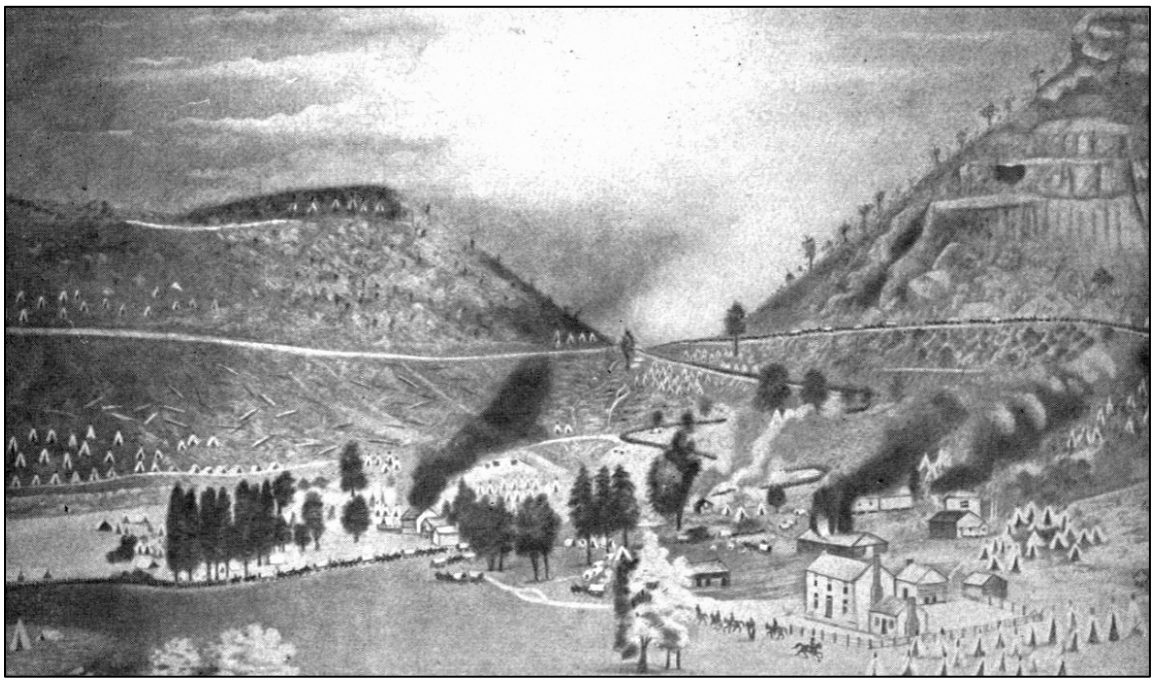


Figure 35. Army of Brig. Gen. George Morgan evacuating the Cumberland Gap, September 17, 1862 (Image courtesy of the Ronald Kentucky Postcard Collection, Kentucky Historical Society, Frankfort, Kentucky).

Following their defeat at the Battle of Perryville in early October 1862, Confederate Gen. Braxton Bragg and Brig. Gen. Kirby Smith retreated through Cumberland Gap back into Tennessee. After the field armies had passed through the Gap, Brig. Gen. John W. Frazer was left behind to reestablish the Confederate garrison. Frazer was assisted in re-fortifying Cumberland Gap by engineering officers Capt. Rush Van Leer and Lt. Hamilton Wilkins (Lowe 2011). Lt. Wilkins later described the fortifications at Cumberland Gap as consisting of "detached rifle pits and some imperfectly constructed earthworks for guns" (U.S. War Department 1890). He added that although the Gap was generally viewed as impenetrable, its weaknesses as a defensive position included dense nighttime fog which impeded visibility and interfered with troop movements and shallow bedrock which prevented excavating trenches to a sufficient depth (U.S. War Department 1890). Additionally, although Frazer's forces were quite small, the entire garrison was forced to rely on a meagre water supply that centered on "two very weak springs" located on the south foot of the mountain with little protection from enemy fire (U.S. War Department 1890). Despite the significant inadequacies that Wilkins noted at Cumberland Gap, the Confederates continued to occupy the stronghold until the early fall of 1863.

On September 2, 1863, Federal forces led by Maj. Gen. Ambrose Burnside occupied the City of Knoxville. As part of Burnside's operations in East Tennessee, beginning on September 5, Col. John DeCourcy's Federal brigade approached Cumberland Gap from the north, while a second Federal brigade led by Brig. Gen. James Shackelford closed in on Frazer's command on the south. At the time Confederate defenses consisted of "lines of rifle pits and five batteries, consisting of two rifled guns…one 12-pounder smooth bore gun, five six-pounder smooth bore guns, two 12-pounder howitzers, and two 12 pounder mountain howitzers" with only limited ammunition available for all of the weapons (U.S. War Department 1890). In addition, Frazer's forces were estimated at approximately 1,500 men, facing an enemy force that was at least "eight or nine times as large" (U.S. War Department 1890).

In an attempt to stave off a siege, Frazer posted a body of 125 men on the mountain's south slope to protect a mill that the troops used on a daily basis from enemy attack. At midnight on September 8, a 100-man Federal contingent attacked and burned the mill, scattering the Confederate forces, with many of them "breaking and running up the mountain through the gap…[and] some [firing] off their guns—most probably in the air" (U.S. War Department 1890). With his forces in disarray, Brig. Gen. Frazer agreed to an unconditional surrender of Cumberland Gap on September 9, 1863. According to the terms of the surrender, the Confederates forfeited 2,000 prisoners, 12 pieces of artillery, 2,000 "stand small arms", 15,000 pounds of flour, 2,000 bushels of wheat, between 10,000 and 18,000 pounds of bacon, 150 head of beef cattle, 200 horses and mules, and 50 wagons to Federal forces (U.S. War Department 1890). Following Frazer's surrender, the Cumberland Gap was re-garrisoned by small Federal regiments for the remainder of the war. While the Wilderness Road remained in use as an important military supply route, the proven viability of other gaps, such as Roger's Gap, had significantly reduced the strategic importance of Cumberland Gap and diminished its reputation as an impregnable military stronghold.

KNOWN RESOURCE TYPES

The following major resource types associated with the Civil War era have been identified at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park: earthworks, batteries, rifle pits/trenches, camps, and roads.

Earthworks

Earthen forts, also referred to as earthworks, are the principal type of field fortifications located within Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. Most of the earthworks at Cumberland Gap were initially constructed by Confederate forces and later underwent improvements during the U.S. Army occupation of the Gap. Earthen forts were constructed for both offensive and defensive purposes, and were built to safeguard troops, maintain communication, and supply lines, and protect key transportation routes (Chuber 1996). The construction of Civil War-era earthen forts was influenced by the teachings of Dennis Hart Mahan, a professor of civil and military engineering at the U.S. Military Academy at West Point. Earthworks were constructed using dirt—a readily available and inexpensive material that also absorbed the impact from projectiles better than brick or stone masonry. The shape and design of each fort was based on a variety of factors including terrain, intended function, accessibility of materials, number of men, and time available for construction (Haney 2004). Contemporary engineering schematics

indicate that, for the most part, the forts constructed at Cumberland Gap consisted of earthen walls held in place by revetments or retaining walls which were constructed of logs; wattling or woven brush; gabions (woven baskets filled with brush); or fascines (bundles of brush pegged onto the walls) (Figure 36) (Haney 2004).

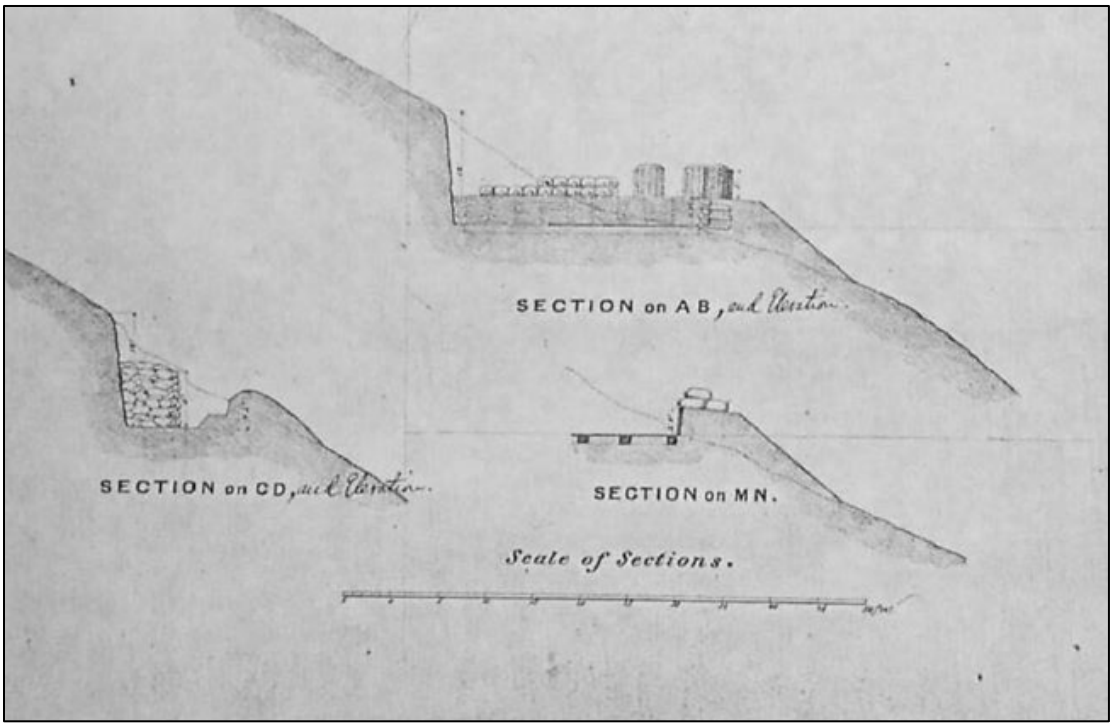


Figure 36. Section drawing of the Fort McClellan earthwork, showing revetments reinforced with gabions, ca. 1860s (Image courtesy of the Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.).

There are seven earthen forts located within the boundaries of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. Six of these resources were listed in the NRHP in 1980 as part of the Cumberland Gap Historic District—Virginia/Kentucky/Tennessee. These six forts include Foot Foote (formerly Fort Hunter), which is located on the northwest slope of the Tri-State Peak; Fort Lyon (formerly Fort Pitts), located on the ridge of Cumberland Mountain near the Pinnacle; Fort McCook (formerly Fort Raines), located on the west slope of the Pinnacle; Fort Farragut (formerly Fort Churchwell), located on Cumberland Mountain, south of the Tri-State marker; Fort Edgar (formerly Fort Green), which is situated on the north slope of Cumberland Mountain near the Pinnacle; and Fort McRae (formerly Fort Mallory), which is located on the west slope of the Pinnacle. Another earthwork fortification, known as Fort Halleck, was originally located in the saddle of Cumberland Gap but had been obliterated by the construction of U.S. Highway 25E prior to the completion of the 1980 nomination.

Not included in the 1980 NRHP nomination was Fort McClellan, a former Confederate battery located opposite Fort Halleck, which was redesigned and renamed by the U.S. Army during Gen. Morgan's occupation of Cumberland Gap in 1862 (Photograph 10).

Photograph 10. Overview of Fort McClellan (CUGA00021.000) as it appears today, facing south (North Wind 2023).

Batteries

Batteries were constructed by both Confederate and Federal troops occupying Cumberland Gap. Contemporary engineering schematics indicate that the batteries at Cumberland Gap primarily consisted of simple linear or V-shaped fortifications called redans with earthen parapet walls (Haney 2004). Batteries typically included embrasure revetments constructed from logs or barrels through which mounted artillery could be fired (Haney 2004). For the most part, the batteries on the south side of the Gap—including Battery Nos. 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7—were built by Federal forces under the direction of Lt. William Pierce Craighill. Fort McClellan originally consisted of a Confederate battery in the shape of a redan that was redesigned by Federal troops to include a third face (or pan coupe) for greater range of fire (Haney 2004).

Battery Nos. 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7 are listed in the NRHP as contributing properties of the Cumberland Gap Historic District. Other batteries, such as the Far Ridge Battery (CUGA00168.000) and Westside Battery (CUGA00010.000) have been previously recorded but not evaluated for NRHP eligibility.

Camps

Federal and Confederate forces occupying Cumberland Gap established temporary encampments to shelter their troops during periods of inactivity. Camps were typically inhabited only for short—usually seasonal—durations and may have been occupied by a succession of military units throughout the war (Jensen 2000). A variety of shelter types were constructed at Civil War campsites, ranging from standard issue military tents to rudimentary log huts that could be assembled quickly using local materials. These types of shelters were especially common at winter camps as they provided increased warmth and added protection from the elements

(Jensen 2000). Although Federal regulations prescribing campground design were developed by the Army at the start of the war, the layout of encampments often deviated from the military standard and were typically dictated by ground conditions and local topography (Figure 37).

Figure 37. Confederate camp showing characteristic camp layout and shelter types, ca. 1870 (Image courtesy of the Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.).

Civil War era encampments identified within Cumberland Gap National Historical Park include the Dead Pine Camp (CUGA00100.000), Redan Camp (CUGA00131.000), Whichway Camp (CUGA00145.000), Tri-State Camp (CUGA00195.000), Battery No. 7 Camp (CUGA00196.000), Battery No. 1 Camp (CUGA00199.000), and West Peak Encampment (CUGA00208.001). None of these camps have been previously evaluated for NRHP eligibility.

Rifle Pits/Trenches

Rifle pits and trenches were constructed as defensive field fortifications by both the Federal and Confederate armies in Cumberland Gap. Shallow firing trenches were often dug behind the parapet of an earthwork fortification, with soil from the trench used to reinforce the parapet and provide additional protection for troops dug in below the ground surface (Chuber 1996). In front of the parapet, rifle pits, measuring approximately three feet deep, were constructed for pickets and sharpshooters (Figure 38) (Chuber 1996). Soil from the pit was sometimes thrown forward and reinforced with sandbags with added firing slots from which soldiers could take aim at advancing enemy soldiers. Rifle pits were an integral part of the field fortifications in Cumberland Gap, serving as both an early warning for the troops and breaking up opposition forces as they approached the fieldworks (Chuber 1996). While numerous rifle pits and trenches have been documented at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, no resources of this type have been previously evaluated for listing in the NRHP (Photograph 11).

Figure 38. Photograph showing typical construction of Civil War era rifle pits on a picket line (not within the boundaries of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park), ca. 1860s (Image courtesy of the Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.).

Photograph 11. Overview of the Fort Lyon Rifle Trench No. 1 (CUGA00203.000), facing east.

Roads

During the Civil War, not only did troops utilize the existing Wilderness Road, but they also constructed several new unpaved wagon roads as part of the defensive buildup of the Cumberland Gap. New military roads were built to connect the various field fortifications and included the Harlan Road (CUGA00070.000), Fort McCook-Fort Lyon Road (CUGA00069.000), Foote-Farragut Road (CUGA00074.000), and Battery No. 7 Road (CUGA00005.000). Construction methods were primitive, with each road measuring approximately 10 feet wide. All the military roads are listed in the NRHP for the Cumberland Gap Historic District as contributing resources.

NRHP Eligibility for Civil War Era Fortifications and Defensive Works

The Civil War era occupation of Cumberland Gap has been thoroughly documented and there is a low probability that new resources associated with this conflict will be identified within the park (Figure 39). In the unlikely event that previously unknown earthworks, batteries, encampments, rifle pits, or wagon roads are discovered in the park, it is doubtful that these resources would convey the standalone significance required for individual listing in the NRHP. Instead, newly identified Civil War era resources should be evaluated as possible contributors to the existing Cumberland Gap Historic District—Virginia/Kentucky/Tennessee.

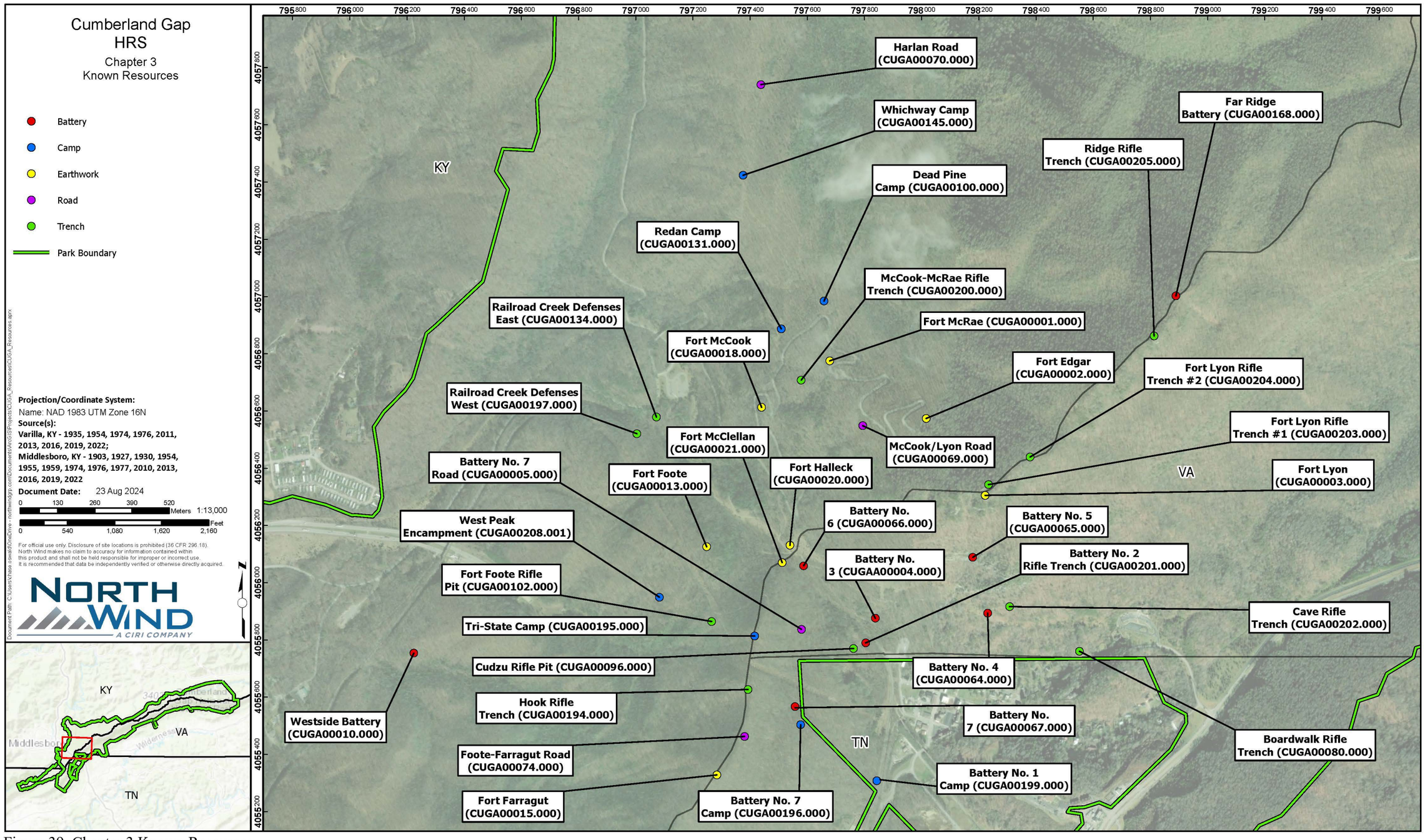


Figure 39. Chapter 3 Known Resources.

CHAPTER FOUR: INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT OF CUMBERLAND GAP

INTRODUCTION

For most its history, the Cumberland Gap region has had a predominantly agricultural economy consisting of a patchwork of small, self-reliant farming communities. Throughout the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, subsistence farming was the dominant mode of agricultural production, and there was little need for wage labor (Banks 1980). Paper currency was scarce and common domestic products—including clothing, food, soap, tools, and spirits—were typically manufactured within the household, with surplus goods exchanged between neighboring families as part of a local trade network. (Banks 1980).

Although the Wilderness Road provided an important commercial link to markets in Virginia and the Carolinas, the route was often impassable during periods of rain or snow and its primitive condition made the transport of large quantities of commercial goods impractical (Figure 40) (Matheny 2003). The region's abundant rivers and streams provided waterpower for grist mills, with notable local examples located at Robinson's Mill in the town of Cumberland Gap; Gibson's Mill, west of present-day Ewing, Virginia; and Haynes' Mill, on Little Clear Creek, south of present-day Pineville, Kentucky. Rivers and streams also served as alternate trade links for the region; however, this method of transportation was also frequently hampered by seasonal flooding that reduced navigability (Hamilton 1973). Together, the region's steep terrain, economic self-sufficiency, and lack of a reliable transportation network served as temporary barriers to the large-scale industrial development of the Tri-State region throughout the antebellum period.

Figure 40. Photograph of the Wilderness Road showing the road's primitive condition, ca. 1850s–1880s (Image courtesy of Bell County Historical Society, Middlesboro, Kentucky).

After the Civil War, the Cumberland Gap underwent a period of enormous economic change as boosters of the New South began to promote the region's natural resources to outside investors (Yarnell 1998). Throughout the 1870s and 1880s, private land speculators made exploratory trips to the Cumberland Mountains hoping to capitalize on the region's ample reserves of iron, timber, and coal. Capitalists, like Alexander Arthur, assisted in the development of the tourism industry and constructed vast railroad networks that connected the Tri-State region to larger, national markets. Industry continued to play a significant role in the development of the Cumberland Gap region through the Great Depression and into the mid-twentieth century. Overseas coal importation and mine mechanization led to the closure of many of the region's most lucrative mining operations in the 1940s and 1950s; however, the many roads, railways, and towns scattered throughout the region continue to serve as a reminder of its rich industrial past.

Environmental Conditions Contributing to Regional Extractive Industries and Manufacturing

For centuries, the abundant natural resources of the Cumberland Gap region have provided an ideal environment for the development of extractive and manufacturing industries, including timbering, iron, and coal production. Historically, local industry in the region was centered on geologic resources, such as coal and iron ore. Beginning in the early nineteenth century, sedimentary hematite beds within the Rockwood formation yielded a steady supply of iron that powered the initial development of mining operations near Cumberland Gap, but which was not sufficient to maintain long-term iron production (Thornberry-Ehrlich 2011).

Most of the coal mined in the area was from the Pennsylvanian Breathitt Group, which included both the Cumberland Gap and Tunnel coal beds. The Mason and Hance formations, which was also part of the Breathitt Group, were extensively prospected and mined within the boundaries of the park as well (Thornberry-Ehrlich 2011).

In addition to its vast reserves of coal and iron ore, the Cumberland Gap possesses a karst landscape featuring large limestone caves, such as Gap Cave, which were mined for potassium nitrate throughout the nineteenth century (Thornberry-Ehrlich 2011). Potassium nitrate, or saltpeter, is found in the sediments of small caves and shelters and was used to produce black gunpowder for use by soldiers and settlers alike.

While the geology of the Cumberland Gap supported industrial growth, the region's topography largely barred major commercial development from entering the region until the early twentieth century. For many decades, the high mountain ridges surrounding Cumberland Gap ensured that industry remained highly localized and prevented the widespread exploitation of local resources. In the early twentieth century, outside investors constructed a transportation system that helped the region to reach its full industrial potential, while also drawing residents away from traditional subsistence farming.

Logging in the Tri-State Region

Initially, pioneer farmers viewed the large stands of virgin timber they encountered throughout the Tri-State area as a nuisance to be cleared away before the land could be brought under cultivation (Collins 1975). Without access to wider markets for timber products, log rollings—in

which large numbers of trees were cut, dried, and burned—became frequent occurrences in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries (Fuson 1947). Additionally, during the winter months, local farmers often intentionally set forest fires to improve pasture for open range livestock. Besides clearing forests for agricultural purposes, frontier families also engaged in woodcutting to supply building materials for homes and barns and to make products such as bowls, chairs, and tables for domestic use (Schulman 1973).

By the early nineteenth century, markets for fine timber had begun to develop and small-scale timber producers participated in logging to supplement farm incomes (Yarnell 1998). During this period, logging was performed on a mostly seasonal basis. During the summer months, farmers along the frontier would cut logs and allow them to dry out along the riverbanks. The following spring, when snowmelt and heavy rains caused water levels to rise, they would construct makeshift rafts from the logs and float them downstream to the nearest sawmill (Figure 41). By the 1840s, timber was also harvested to support other local industries, such as iron production, as a typical iron furnace required up to 150 cords of wood per week while it was in operation (Banks 1980). Furnace owners often employed local wood cutters to clear large tracts of hardwood, which would eventually be fired to create charcoal (Scott 2012).

Figure 41. Photograph of a log raft on the Clinch River in Claiborne County, ca. 1920s (Image courtesy of Looking Back at Tennessee Photograph Collection, 1890–1981, Tennessee State Library and Archives, Nashville, Tennessee).

With the outbreak of the Civil War, commercialized logging came to an abrupt halt as the war disrupted nearly all economic activities in the Tri-State area (Shulman 1973). Almost all the trees near the saddle of the Gap were cut down as both the Confederate and Federal forces attempted

to prevent enemy movements by reducing the region's tree cover (Giles 1925). By the time the Civil War ended in 1865, most of the timbered areas in New England and the Great Lakes region had been exhausted by years of deforestation and there was a significant demand for lumber to rebuild cities throughout the American South (Williams 2005). During the 1870s and 1880s, English syndicates and northern-based logging companies moved into the Southern Appalachian Mountains, purchasing millions of acres of forested land from farmers and mountaineers for a fraction of their value (Schulman 1973). Entrepreneurs like Alexander Arthur—the founder of Middlesboro—first came to the region during the timber boom of the 1880s (Mastran and Lowerre 1983).

Despite the massive influx of outside logging interests during the postbellum period, the development of the timber industry in the Cumberland Gap area was atypical for the region. Throughout the entire peak of logging activity, which lasted from the 1870s through the 1930s, timber production in Cumberland Gap remained a "folk industry characterized by small-scale operations and part-time loggers, rather than the vast, full-time logging camps found in other areas" (Shulman 1973). For the most part, rafting remained the primary mode of transporting lumber to market, with the principal purchasers of timber in the region located at sawmills in Clinton, Tennessee, near the forks of the Powell and Clinch rivers; Kingston, Tennessee, near the intersection of the Clinch and Holston rivers; and Chattanooga on the Tennessee River (Giles 1925). While a few large logging operations were established by T. J. Asher and Sons and the Jones Lumber Company south of Pineville, Kentucky in the 1880s and 1890s, for the most part lumber continued to be cut, hauled, and rafted out of the Cumberland Gap region, "not by professional lumberjacks, but by local farmers who worked in the woods after harvest time" (Schulman 1973).

Iron Production at Cumberland Gap

In addition to timbering, iron production was among the earliest industries established by settlers in the Cumberland Gap region. Beginning in the early nineteenth century, several early residents in the area surrounding the Gap erected small forges capable of manufacturing crude iron products (Scott 2012). The first forges established in the area were bloomery forges, which were principally situated near the iron ore deposits located along Poor Valley Ridge. Bloomery forges were rudimentary structures consisting of an open-hearth fire fanned by bellows (Figure 42). When the iron ore reached a certain temperature, it would be moved to an anvil where it could be pounded by hand or by a large tilt hammer powered by a water wheel (Scott 2012). This type of small-scale operation could be used to make nails, hinges, hoes, and rakes for the many small farms scattered throughout the region. Notable bloomery forges in the vicinity of Cumberland Gap included the Bales' Forge (also known as the Bowling Green Forge) which was situated on Martin's Creek, near present-day Ewing, Virginia (Figure 43) (Scott 2012). The Bales' forge went into operation around 1828.

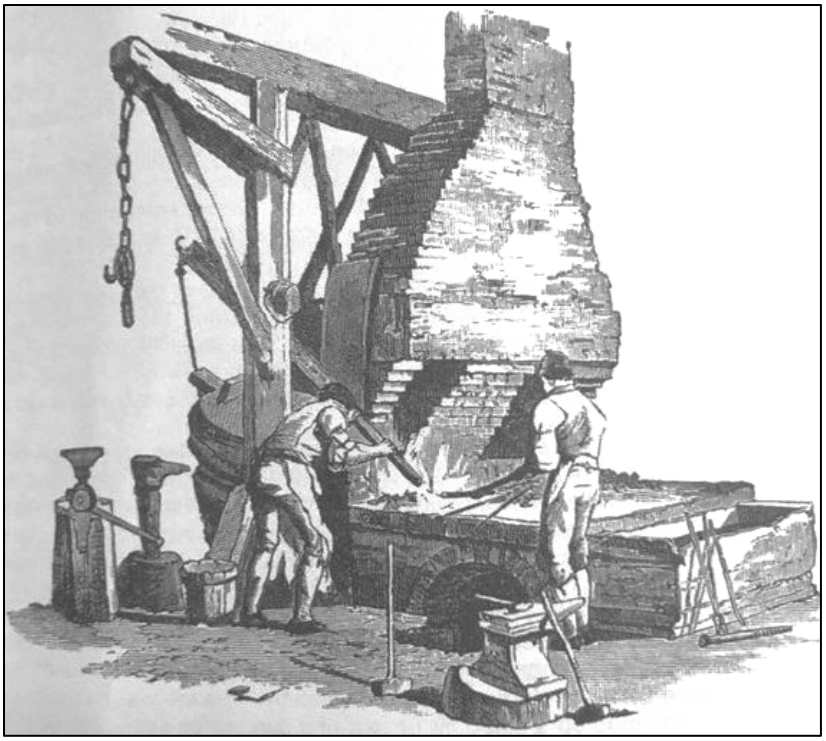


Figure 42. Sketch of a typical bloomery forge operated by a bellows (Figure courtesy of Scott 2012).

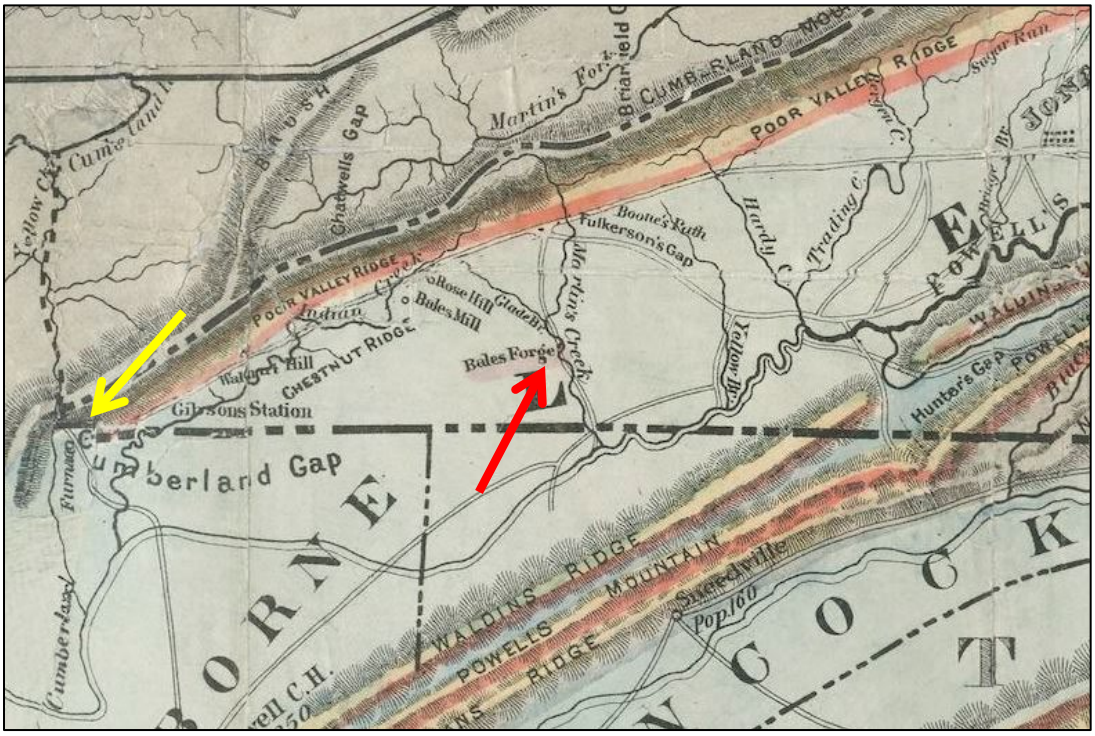


Figure 43. Excerpt from the Southwest Virginia and Contiguous Territory Map, showing the location of the Bales Forge, denoted by the red arrow and the Newlee's Iron Furnace, denoted by the yellow arrow, ca. 1886. Note the location of the Cumberland Gap in the left-central portion of the image (Figure courtesy of the Document Bank, Library of Virginia, Richmond).

At around the same time, in 1819, a young Virginian named Martin Beatty constructed a charcoal cold-blast furnace at the base of Cumberland Mountain (see Figure 43) (Morgan 1980). A blast furnace could produce several hundred tons of cast iron per year, far exceeding the output of a simple bloomery forge. This type of furnace relied on a more sophisticated design that involved blasting cold air through the furnace's bottom to create a hotter fire that could transform iron ore into its liquid state. Early blast furnaces, such as the one constructed at Cumberland Gap, were built of locally quarried limestone blocks that were fitted together tightly. A reliable water source was required to power a water wheel, which, in turn, operated a leather bellows that fanned the fire to extreme temperatures. Like other furnaces of this type, the Cumberland Gap furnace consumed a large quantity of raw materials including iron ore, wood, and limestone—which was added to remove impurities from the iron itself (Scott 2012).

In 1841, the Cumberland Gap furnace was purchased by John G. Newlee, a merchant and miller from Virginia (Vial 1991). To operate the furnace, Newlee utilized the labor of at least four enslaved Black men (Vial 1991). In 1859, Newlee's furnace was described in *The Iron Manufacture's Guide to the Furnaces, Forges, and Rolling Mills of the United States* as a cold blast furnace owned by Newlee and managed by Hiram Holler. The furnace reportedly produced 150 tons of cast iron per year before the Civil War (Scott 2012). During the war, Newlee's furnace was damaged by the forces of Gen. George Morgan, while the Gap was under Federal occupation. In 1873, Newlee leased the furnace to "Messrs. Peyton and Swap" of Cincinnati, Ohio who rebuilt the furnace and resumed its operation (*Daily Press and Herald* 1873). The two men produced cast iron for use in the manufacture of "car wheels and other articles requiring tenacity and toughness" (*The Morristown Gazette* 1874). By 1874, the furnace was smelting an average of three tons per day (Figure 44). Tom Mosier was employed as the foundryman. An article published that year in the Morristown Gazette described the furnace's operations, declaring that "It is a brilliant sight to see a run made at midnight, the sparkling flashing metal gliding here and there lighting up with a weird halo the faces and forms of the spectators" (*The Morristown Gazette* 1874). Peyton and Swap operated the furnace until at least 1876 (*The Morristown Gazette* 1876). The Newlee Furnace remained in operation until the early 1880s (Figure 45).

Although iron ore had long been mined to support local production of iron products, railroad construction brought renewed interest in iron extraction to the Cumberland Gap region in the late nineteenth century. Most of the iron mined in the vicinity of Cumberland Gap consisted of red hematite ore, which was primarily concentrated along Poor Valley Ridge (Figure 46 and Figure 47). In 1881, a report on *The Iron and Coal of Tennessee* noted that the iron seam in this area averaged over three feet thick and could be mined at a small cost (Killebrew 1881). According to the report, the furnace at Cumberland Gap had formerly "made excellent iron" from this seam; however, the only means of transporting iron products to market was via flat boats down the Powell River (Killebrew 1881). It was suggested that with the completion of a railroad, "this fine property might again become active" (Killebrew 1881).

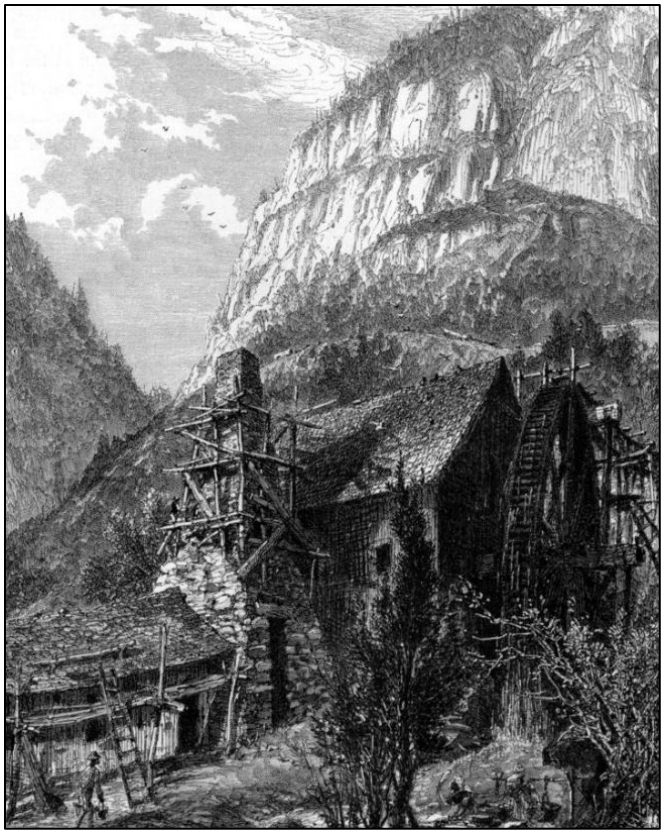


Figure 44. Engraving of the Cumberland Gap (Newlee's) Furnace by Harry Fenn, ca. 1872 (Image courtesy of the Cumberland Gap Broadcasting Company [https://www.angelfire.com/ky2/cumberlandgapbc/mhpage/cgapmill20.jpg]).

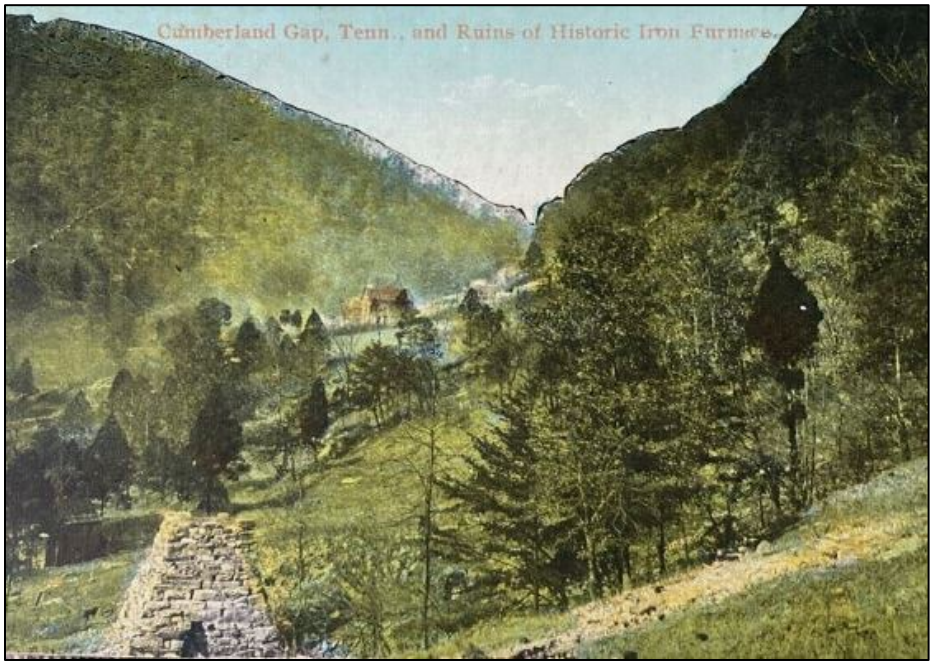


Figure 45. Postcard showing the Cumberland Gap (Newlee's) Furnace after it was abandoned, ca. 1910s (Image courtesy of Kramer Art Company, Cincinnati, Ohio).

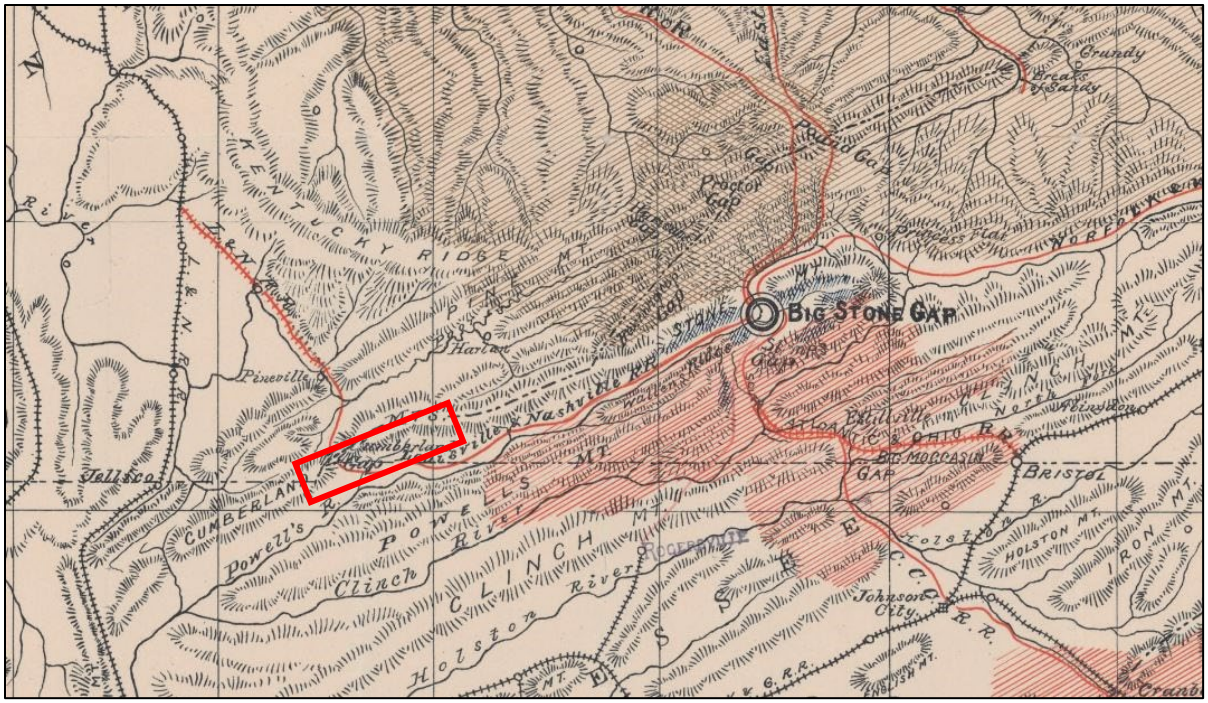


Figure 46. Map of Southwestern Virginia and Environs, showing the location of iron deposits (red) and coal beds (brown) in proximity to Cumberland Gap (red box), ca. 1892 (Image courtesy of Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.).

Figure 47. Photograph of men working at iron ore mines near Cumberland Gap, ca. 1890 (Image courtesy of *Souvenir of Middlesboro*, October 1890 [https://www.angelfire.com/ky2/cumberlandgapbc/mhpage/1890sov42.jpg]).

In 1889, construction of the Knoxville, Cumberland Gap, and Louisville (KCG&L) Railroad (later the Louisville and Nashville [L&N] Railroad) reinvigorated the area's struggling iron industry. Several significant iron mines were established in the vicinity of Cumberland Gap, including the Boon's Path, Ben Hur, and Pennington mines in Lee County, Virginia (Scott 2012). The closest iron mine to Cumberland Gap was the Ewing Mine, located on the north slope of Poor Valley Ridge, approximately 2.5 miles south of the current park boundary (Watson 1907). The mine was operated by the Union Iron and Steel Company, which also operated a tipple, located approximately one mile east of Ewing (Scott 2012).

The abundance of local iron deposits attracted outside investors to the Southern Appalachian Mountains throughout the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Early advertisements for the City of Middlesboro touted the region's bountiful supply of raw iron ore, enticing iron and steel manufacturers—like the Watts Syndicate and the South Boston Iron Works—to establish operations in the city (Kuehn 2003). Unfortunately for these investors the iron ore in the Cumberland Gap region proved to be of a much lower quality than initially anticipated (Cornett 2009). Without high-grade iron ore, Middlesboro was not able to compete with the large steel manufacturing centers located in northern industrial cities, such as Pittsburgh (Dickerson 2011). In 1893, *The Middlesborough News* reported that "This town was built under the hypothesis that it would become an industrial city and particularly an iron manufacturing center. Yet one year ago to-day…the prospects for making iron were reduced to a minimum" (*The Middlesborough News* 1893). The local iron industry fell into a deep depression, leading to the closure of the South Boston Iron Works, which was sold at public auction in 1895 (*The Middlesborough News* 1895). Other southern iron manufacturers, including the Watts brothers' syndicate, switched to making more brittle pig iron which could be converted into basic open-hearth steel (Figure 48) (Dickerson 2011). The Watts Steel and Iron Syndicate remained in operation until the turn of the twentieth century when it was acquired by the Virginia, Iron, Coal, and Coke Company (Dickerson 2011).

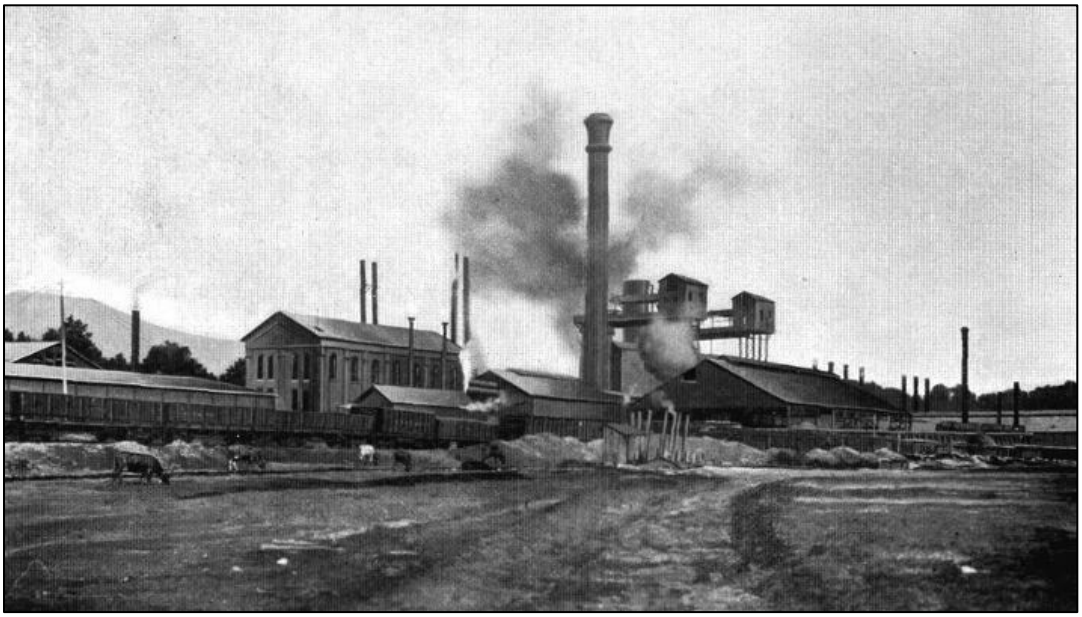


Figure 48. View of the Watt's Iron Furnace, ca. 1906 (Image courtesy of Ashley and Glenn 1906).

History of Coal Mining in the Appalachian Mountains near Cumberland Gap

Copious quantities of "loose surficial coal" were first observed by Dr. Thomas Walker during his exploration of the Cumberland Gap in September 1750 (Jillson 1922). Later, pioneer settlers in the Yellow Creek Valley often operated "doghole mines," consisting of small diggings that yielded enough coal for domestic use (Matheny 2003). In neighboring Virginia, early settlers also prospected for coal which was used primarily for fuel and blacksmithing (Baker 1925).

While the region's rich coal deposits were well known to the early residents of the Tri-State region, without a dependable means of transport, it would take nearly 140 years for coal mining to emerge as the dominant commercial industry in the Cumberland Gap (Jillson 1922). The American Association played a pivotal role in the industry's establishment, leasing thousands of acres of its best coal-bearing lands to entrepreneurial operators throughout the region (Tipton 1906). Shortly after the completion of the KCG&L (later L&N) Railroad, in December 1889, John Ralston established one of the first commercial coal mines in the Cumberland Gap coalfield at Mingo Mountain, southwest of Middlesboro (*The Journal and Tribune* 1889). Ralston was a native of Pennsylvania and a pioneer operator in the Tri-State area (Figure 49). His company, known as the Mingo Mountain Coal and Coke Company, leased several hundred acres from the American Association, eventually boasting mines and coke ovens in Claiborne County, Tennessee and Bell County, Kentucky (Figure 50) (Tipton 1906). Ralston made significant contributions to the development of the Cumberland Gap coalfield, overcoming obstacles that "would have put a less determined man out of the race" (Tipton 1906).

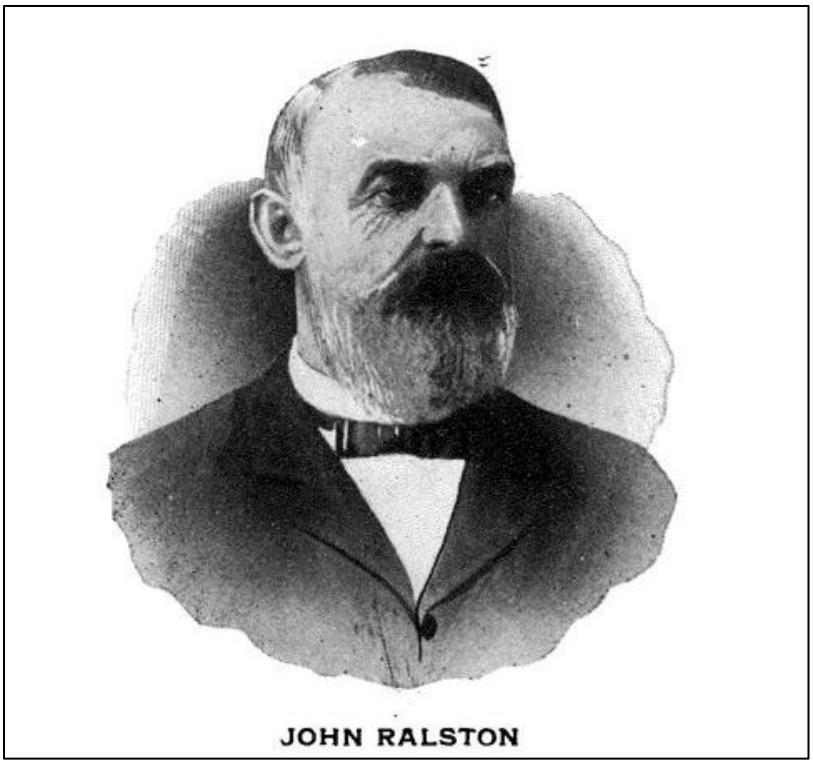


Figure 49. Engraving of John Ralston, one of the earliest operators in the Cumberland Gap coalfield, ca. 1906 (Image courtesy of Tipton 1906).

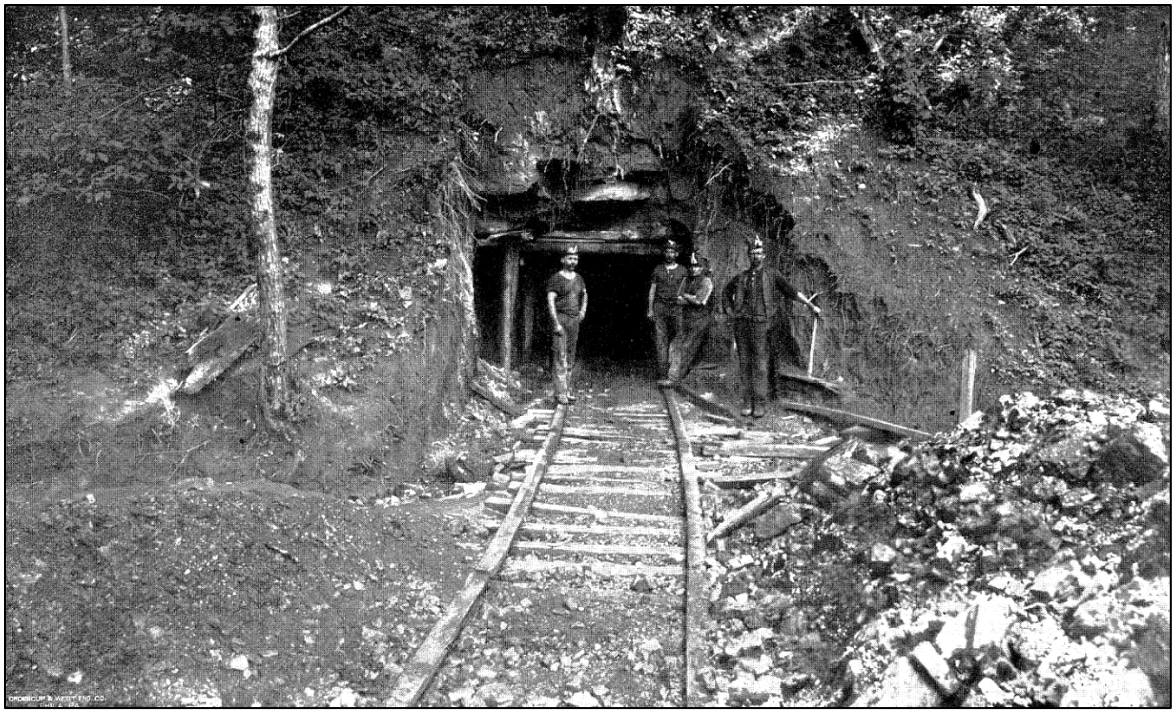


Figure 50. Miners at Ralston's coal mine on Mingo Mountain, ca. 1890 (Image courtesy of *Souvenir of Middlesboro*, October 1890 [https://www.angelfire.com/ky2/cumberlandgapbc/mhpage/1890sov45.jpg]).

Throughout the 1890s, coal production on the western side of Cumberland Gap entered into a boom cycle, with demand for coal increasing steadily throughout the decade (Matheny 2003). Ralston was soon joined by other early operators in the Yellow Creek Valley, including the Reliance Coal and Coke Company, which was incorporated in March 1891 in Hantranft, Tennessee (Tipton 1906). The Reliance mines were also located on Mingo Mountain, "about a mile beyond the Ralston openings" (*The Daily News* 1890). Other notable nineteenth century operators included the Bryson Mountain Coal and Coke Company, which was organized in 1890, and the Fork Ridge Coal Company, which began operations in 1895 (Tipton 1906). For the most part, the earliest commercial coal mines in the Cumberland Gap field were located along Bennett Fork, one of the primary tributaries of Yellow Creek. The Bennett Fork District was situated on the south side of the Kentucky-Tennessee state line and centered on Mingo Mountain, Bryson Mountain, and Fork Ridge (Ashley and Glenn 1906).

Unlike older coalfields located in the Mid-Atlantic states, the development of coal mining in the Tri-State region occurred during a unique period in the history of the American labor movement. The United Mine Workers of America (UMWA) was organized in January 1890, just one month after John Ralston established the region's first commercial coal mine at Mingo Mountain. Among the first districts established by the UMWA—District 19—covered all of eastern Tennessee and southeastern Kentucky, including all of the Yellow Creek Valley (Matheny 2003). Unionization in the region was initially bolstered by the financial panic of 1893, with tense clashes occurring between local miners and operators in the area surrounding Cumberland Gap. In 1894, during the UMWA's first nationwide strike, miners at the Mingo Mountain Coal and Coke Company attempted to burn the tipple and fired shots at superintendent Robert Ralston

(Matheny 2003). Over the next several decades, powerful local operators, including the Ralston family and other members of the "Yellow Creek Crowd," worked to impede the progress of unionization in the region (Matheny 2003).

By the turn of the twentieth century, coal mining on the western side of Cumberland Gap had expanded north along Stony Fork—one of the largest tributaries in the upper Yellow Creek basin (Ashley and Glenn 1906). Again, John Ralston served as one of the primary early operators in the Stony Fork District, founding the Stony Fork Coal Company in 1902 (Tipton 1906). A sketch of the region, produced by Middlesboro-based engineer C. F. Otey, shows more than a dozen coal mines scattered throughout the Bennett and Stony Fork districts by 1908 (Figure 51). In addition to the mines, the sketch depicts two spur lines of the L&N railroad—known as the Stony Fork and Bennett Fork railroads— extending west from Middlesboro to access the coal deposits located within each district.

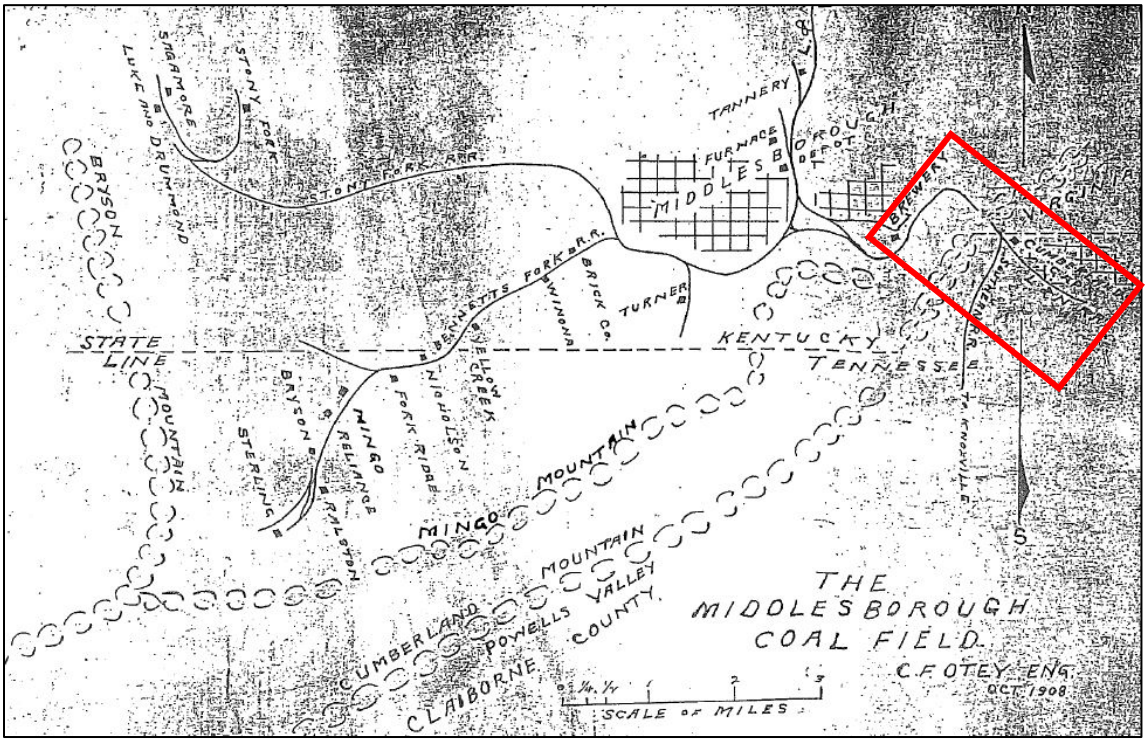


Figure 51. Map showing the location of major coal mines in the vicinity of Cumberland Gap (red box), ca. 1908 (Image courtesy of the Native Heritage Project [https://nativeheritageproject.com/2013/10/24/mingo-holler-claiborne-county-tn-and-bell-county-ky/].

Although coal mining in the Yellow Creek Valley developed rapidly during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, the industry struggled to get underway on the Virginia side of Cumberland Gap. In Southwest Virginia, the development of the coal industry was inhibited by the region's remote location, insufficient transportation network, and limited quantity of coal bearing deposits. The land area in Lee County, in particular, contains only 17 percent coal, with the majority of the coal deposits concentrated in an approximately 78 square mile area in the north-central portion of the county (Hibbard 1990). Railroad construction brought coal mining to

central Lee County in 1905, with notable mines established in the vicinity of St. Charles and Keokee (Giles 1925). The extreme southwestern portion of Lee County remained far removed from the development that was occurring in the rest of the field, however, with no significant commercial coal mining activity recorded on the Virginia side of the Gap well into the twentieth century.

During World War I (WWI), coal operators in the Tri-State region saw their profits slump as a result of federal price controls that fixed the price of certain commodities needed to supply the war effort. At the same time, with the demand for coal at an all-time high, local miners renewed their call for higher wages and better working conditions in the region's mines. By 1919, tensions between the two groups culminated in a strike to compel recognition of the UMWA (Matheny 2003). That December, S. A. Keller, the president of the UMWA's District 19, reported on the progress of unionization. Keller noted that 31 of the 225 companies then operating in District 19 had agreed to sign contracts with the UMWA (*Knoxville Sentinel* 1919). Unfortunately, union successes were short-lived as demand for coal declined rapidly after the war. A downturn in the coal industry occurred during 1921, and another general strike left between 12,000 and 15,000 miners out of work (Figure 52) (Matheny 2003).

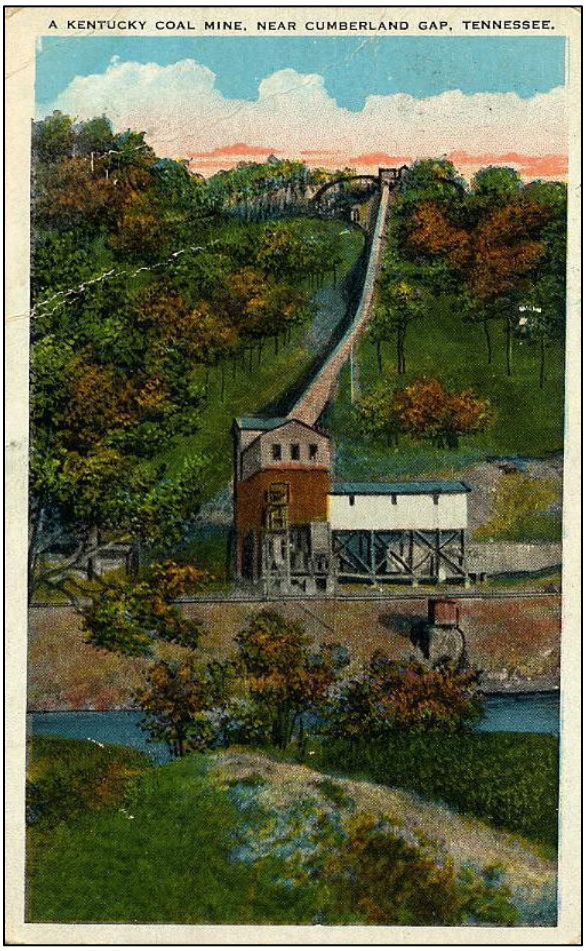


Figure 52. Postcard showing a typical coal mine in the Cumberland Gap region, ca. 1920s (Image courtesy of Kentucky Coal Education [http://www.coaleducation.org/coalhistory/postcards/postcards.htm]).

As coal production fell nationwide and labor unrest roiled the Yellow Creek Valley, it appears that at least some local investors began to turn their attention to the less extensive coal deposits located in the extreme southwestern portion of Virginia. In 1920, the Chadwell Gap Coal Company was organized by R. N. Price of Harrogate, W. R. Pool of Middlesboro, and J. G. Rose of Ewing (Manufacturers Record 1921). The company established its mining operations on land that was rented from members of the Rose family, located near Chadwell Gap (Steinback 2022). The Chadwell Gap Coal Company operated intermittently from 1922 through 1943 when it was closed due to unprofitability (Steinback 2022). Mining activities that occurred at Chadwell Gap reflected the size and quality of the coal deposits located in southwestern Lee County, with just two mine shafts and no more than 15 miners ever employed at the property (Steinback 2022). Additionally, coal and coke produced at the Chadwell Gap Mine does not appear to have been distributed to outside markets, instead being sold locally to mine employees, nearby residents, and small businesses in the area.

The coal strike in the Yellow Creek Valley was settled in 1924, with miners in District 19 agreeing to accept a wage decrease (Matheny 2003). Although coal mining underwent a brief resurgence in the mid-1920s, a deep recession struck the industry in 1927 that was exacerbated by the effects of the Great Depression. The Depression proved to be a challenging time for local coal miners as industrial demand for coal products fell and mine mechanization reduced labor requirements throughout Appalachia. Job loss contributed to rising violence in the region, as evidenced by a notable confrontation between union and non-union miners that occurred in Mingo Hollow in 1941. The so-called “Mingo Massacre” took the lives of 4 men, including two officials with the Fork Ridge Coal and Coke Company. Following the incident in Mingo Hollow, local operators adopted a more conciliatory tone with the UMWA, with some even embracing unionization (Matheny 2003). In District 19, union membership peaked at 20,000 members in 1947. Competition from overseas coal imports drastically reduced coal mining operations in the Tri-State area through the mid-twentieth century, with union membership eventually falling to just 4,500 members by 1964 (Matheny 2003).

Since the days of the American Association, local coal operators were committed to promoting the region’s economic potential and attracting outside interests to the Cumberland Gap. When coal production started to decline in the late 1920s, operators, like J. L. Manring, used their influence to promote the development of the local tourism industry. Manring had come to the Cumberland Gap in 1895 and had operated the Manring Coal Exchange—one of the largest coal shippers within the district (Tipton 1906). In 1928, he shifted his focus to tourism, forming the Sky Land Company to improve local infrastructure and construct amenities for future visitors to the Cumberland Gap (Sirna 2015).

Other Industries at Cumberland Gap

In addition to the major extractive industries located throughout the Tri-State area, the region also boasted a robust manufacturing sector in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Most of the factories in the area were established after the American Association’s collapse, during a period when new entrepreneurs were working to rebuild and stabilize the local economy. Among the noteworthy manufacturing interests established in the region was the New South Brewery and Ice Company, which was erected on the outskirts of Middlesboro in 1893

(Figure 53; see Figure 51). The plant was located in close proximity to the KCG&L railroad, as well as a "freestone mountain spring" which provided a reliable water source for the manufacture of ice and beer (*The Middlesborough News* 1893a).

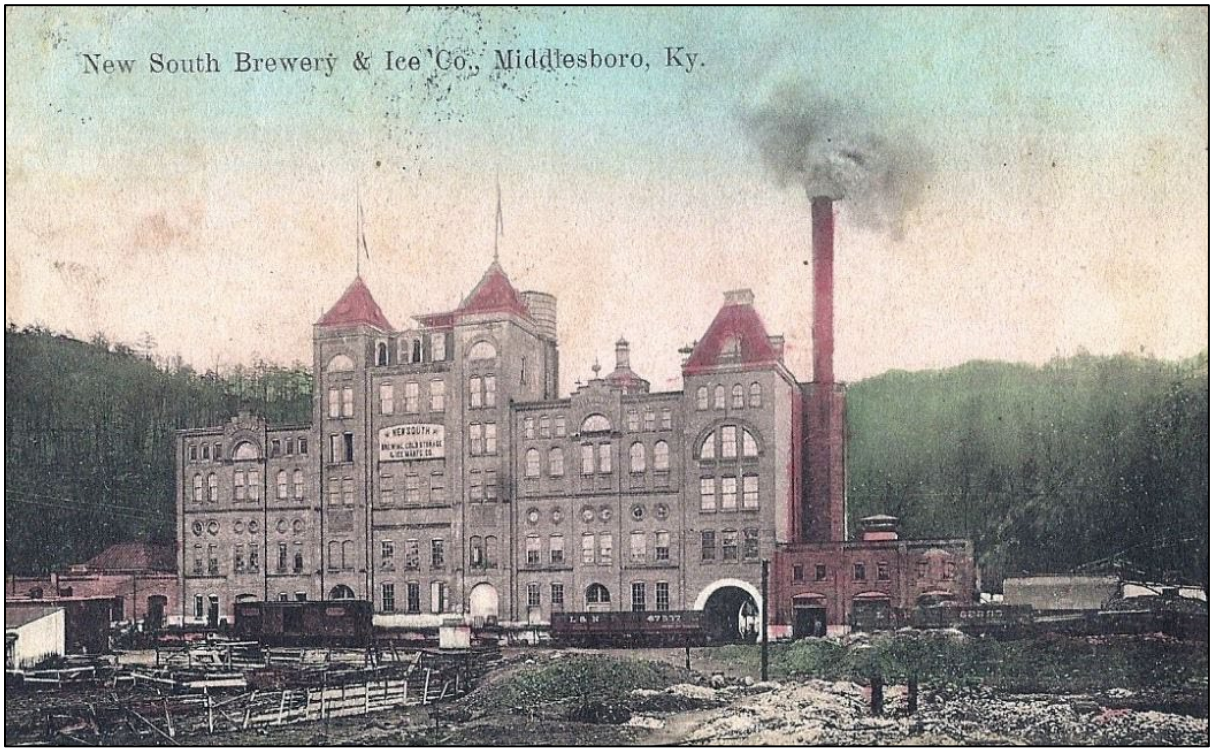


Figure 53. Postcard for the New South Brewery and Ice Company, ca. 1900 (Image courtesy of the Cumberland Gap Broadcasting Company [2012newssouthcolor.jpg (1084×668) (angelfire.com)]).

Operated by German immigrant William Wallbrecht, the large turreted brewery had a capacity of 15,000 pints per day, with a distribution radius that extended from Kentucky to North Carolina (Tipton 1906). Its most popular products were Pinnacle Beer and Crystal Pale Beer. Advertisers promoted the beer's ability to improve health and vitality, even asserting that it could be considered "a food as well as a drink" (Tipton 1906). The New South Brewery and Ice Company conducted a lucrative trade in the Tri-State region until passage of the 18th Amendment forced it to end its operations in the early twentieth century. The business's closure was accelerated by the death of its head brew master, Joseph Kumli, in 1916 (*The Courier-Journal* 1916).

Other early manufacturers in the Tri-State region included the Middlesborough Pressed Brick Company, which was incorporated in 1894 by several "fathers and sons" of the Harkness family, including J. F., Will, and Alex Harkness (*The Middlesborough News* 1904). In 1904, the company established a large brick yard near the Winona Coal and Coke Company's mines, where they set about extracting clay from a hill behind the plant (Tipton 1906). The brick yard was situated approximately two miles southwest of downtown Middlesboro, along Bennett Fork. In January 1901, Col. David G. Colson, H. P. Ball, and M. S. Overton established another significant local manufacturer—the Middlesboro Distilling Company. The company produced a prize-winning corn whiskey at its plant located at the "foot of Fern Lake" just outside of town

(Tipton 1906). The Middlesboro Distilling Company remained in operation until 1908, when the plant was seized by federal revenue agents in order to satisfy a tax debt (*The Middlesborough News* 1908a).

Although Middlesboro attracted the majority of the region's large factories, several smaller manufacturing concerns were also situated in other local communities. In the village of Cumberland Gap, mill owner A. B. Kesterson erected a woolen mill in 1900, that at one time employed as many as 30 people (*Knoxville Sentinel* 1899). Kesterson's mill was outfitted with more than $10,000 worth of machinery and was dedicated to the manufacturing of yarn, flannels, "linseys, jeans, and bed comforts" (*The Middlesborough News* 1900). The mill remained in operation for several decades before it was eventually destroyed by fire in 1936 (*Knoxville News-Sentinel* 1936). In addition to Kesterson's woolen mill, Cumberland Gap supported several other businesses including the Pinnacle Wagon Works, which employed 15 people by 1910 (*Knoxville Sentinel* 1911).

In 1927, local butcher J. F. Schneider purchased the Old New South Brewery property for use as a meat packing plant. Schneider remodeled the old brewery building, demolishing most of the original structure. He retained three floors of the remaining portion of the old building for use as an ice plant, slaughter room, and storage area for the packing house (*Middlesboro Daily News* 1927). Schneider's sons assumed control of the plant's operations following his death in 1936 (*Middlesboro Daily News* 1936). By 1941, the company had also begun serving as a major local distributor for Budweiser beer, Kraft products, and Sugar Creek creamery butter (*Middlesboro Daily News* 1941). Several additional buildings for refrigeration and storage were constructed at the plant property to support its expanded operations.

In 1944, as work was beginning to get underway on the recently established Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, the location of the Schneider packing plant began to cause controversy. National Park Service officials, who wanted to include the Schneider property within the boundaries of the park, were met with fierce resistance from the Schneider family and members of the local community. In 1946, 1,500 local residents signed a petition on behalf of the company's president George Schneider requesting that the Schneider plant be excluded from the boundaries of the park (*The Advocate-Messenger* 1946). In response, that September, the Department of the Interior, in conjunction with the Kentucky National Park Commission, filed a federal lawsuit seeking to condemn the Schneider property. The lawsuit was dismissed in May 1948 because the park commission lacked the funds to pay the compensation awarded in the suit (Sirna 2015). As a result, the Schneider plant remained an inholding within the boundaries of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park for many years. The park finally acquired the Schneider property in the early 1970s (*Middlesboro Daily News* 1971). According to historic aerial photos, the plant buildings were demolished sometime between 1984 and 1988 (Figure 54 and Figure 55).

Figure 54. Buildings associated with the Schneider Meat Packing Plant as they appeared after the property's condemnation, date unknown (Image courtesy of the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park Archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky).

Figure 55. Schneider Meat Packing Plant building and vehicles as viewed by park visitors from the Park Maintenance Road following its condemnation, date unknown (Image courtesy of the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park Archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky).

Railroad Construction at Cumberland Gap

Beginning in the late nineteenth century, improved railroad access transformed the Cumberland Gap region from a rural backwater into one of Appalachia's most formidable industrial centers. Major landowners in the area surrounding Cumberland Gap had long advocated for the construction of a railroad that would enable the region to realize its full industrial potential. Businesspeople like John G. Newlee and Dr. James Monroe Harbison had previously contributed to several railroad ventures both before and after the Civil War; however, it was not until the 1880s, when infusions of outside capital finally made railroad construction a reality for the region's residents (Vial 1991).

In 1885, the L&N Railroad finally succumbed to local pressure to open the territory surrounding Cumberland Gap to industrialization. The company announced plans to construct a branch line through the Cumberland Valley, which would extend southeast from Pineville, Kentucky to the rich coal deposits located near Big Stone Gap, Virginia. To this end, L&N officials ordered a survey of the route between Corbin, Kentucky, and Cumberland Gap, including an estimate of construction costs and the potential for coal, iron, and timber resources located along the proposed route (Klein 1972). After the preliminary surveys returned favorable results, the railroad's board agreed to authorize the construction of a 31-mile-long extension of the L&N Railroad from Corbin to Pineville, with additional surveys planned to determine the best route between Pineville and Cumberland Gap.

In 1887, while the L&N's Cumberland Valley Branch was still in the developmental phases, a controversial report produced by two Philadelphia mineralogists cast doubt on the efficacy of the Cumberland Gap route. The authors of the report offered an alternative route to the Virginia coalfields, which would bypass the Gap, traveling northeast from Pineville along the Cumberland River. Fortunately, a second survey, conducted by Civil Engineer R. E. O'Brien, disputed the first report's findings, strongly recommending the southern route, which would provide greater access to the rich iron deposits along Poor Valley Ridge and industrial centers in Atlanta and Knoxville. Construction of the southern route was affirmed by the L&N's Annual Report for June 1887, which noted copious quantities of coking coals extending from Bell and Harlan counties in Kentucky to the Cumberland Mountains and mentioned an abundance of iron ore located in the Poor and Powell valleys (Herr 1964).

The establishment of Middlesboro, located south of Pineville in the Yellow Creek Valley, offered an additional incentive for L&N officials to select the southern route for its Cumberland Valley Branch. Although founded only one year before, Middlesboro already appeared poised to become a massive center of industry and commercial activity in the Tri-State region. Alexander Arthur—agent and manager of the American Association—was the driving force behind the community's development. Railroad construction, in particular, was a critical component in Arthur's plan to develop the industrial resources of the new city. In June 1887, the same month that the L&N's annual report noted the benefits of the Poor Valley route, the American Association announced its acquisition of the Powell's Valley Railroad, which was planning to construct a second branch line extending north from Knoxville to the Cumberland Gap. Arthur's project included a contract to meet the L&N line at the Gap, "from which the new road will have connections with the north and west" (*The Journal and Tribune* 1887).

Construction of the railroad through the Cumberland Gap was a dangerous and ambitious undertaking. To avoid the treacherous ascent over the mountains, the Powell's Valley Railroad opted to construct a tunnel beneath the Gap itself (known today as "Little Tunnel"). The L&N's contract with the Powell's Valley Railroad allowed for joint use of the tunnel upon its completion (Klein 1972). The L&N branch line reached Pineville in September 1888. Three months later, on July 3, a contract was let for the construction of the final 15-mile stretch through Middlesboro to the Cumberland Gap (Herr 1964). In January 1889, the Powell's Valley Railroad, which had recently changed its name to the Knoxville, Cumberland Gap, and Louisville (KCG&L) Railroad, was also rapidly progressing towards the Gap from the south (*Knoxville Daily Tribune* 1889).

That June, local newspapers reported that "the work on the Louisville and Nashville, on the tunnel, and on the Knoxville, Cumberland Gap, and Louisville Railroad is fast nearing completion" (*Knoxville Daily Tribune* 1889a). The railroad through the Cumberland Gap was officially completed in August 1889 (Figure 56, Figure 57, and Figure 58). The railroad's completion was considered a cause for local celebration with *The Evening Sentinel* newspaper reporting that, with the tunnel now in operation, "Tennessee and Kentucky will Shake Hands Underground" (*The Evening Sentinel* 1889).

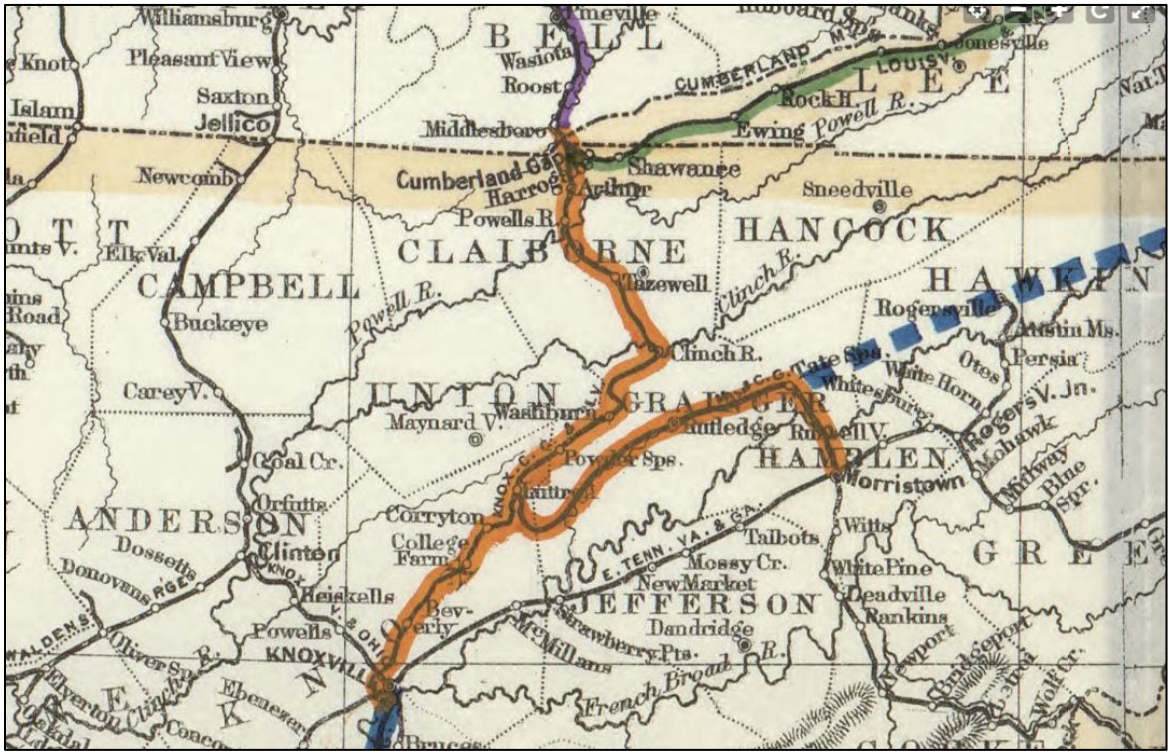


Figure 56. Excerpt from Map Showing the Proposed Tennessee, Alabama, and Georgia Railroad, depicting the alignment of the Knoxville, Cumberland Gap, and Louisville Railroad (orange line) and the Louisville and Nashville Railroad (purple and green lines) through the Cumberland Gap, ca. 1892 (Figure courtesy of the Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.).

Figure 57. Louisville & Nashville Railroad, looking towards the south portal through Cumberland Gap, date unknown (Image courtesy of Lincoln Memorial University, Harrogate, Tennessee).

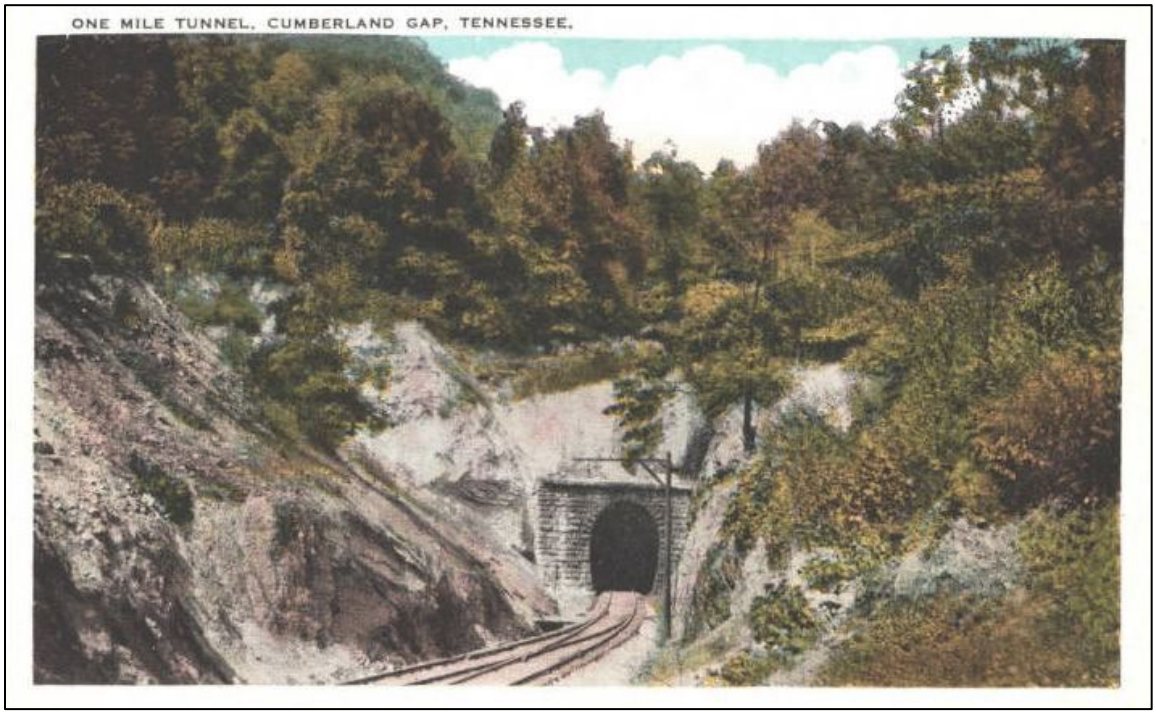


Figure 58. Cumberland Gap Tunnel, ca. 1900 (Image courtesy of Tennessee Post Card Collection, Tennessee State Library and Archives, Nashville, Tennessee).

Despite the sense of optimism surrounding the railroad's completion, its initial operations were marred by tragedy. On August 22, the first passenger train along the KCG&L Railroad derailed 22 miles from Knoxville, killing three people and injuring dozens more (Figure 59). Following the accident, difficulties continued to plague the KCG&L line. Shortly after construction was completed, the company built its own set of tracks from Cumberland Gap to Middlesboro, following a title dispute with the L&N over several hundred feet of trackage located on the east and west ends of the Cumberland Gap Tunnel (Klein 1972). While the dispute was settled amicably in June 1890, the KCG&L began to struggle financially and went into receivership in 1892 (Klein 1972). The construction of the Cumberland Gap Tunnel also proved to be deeply flawed, with collapses occurring in July 1894, and again in 1896. After several years of complex negotiations, the L&N was able to take over ownership of the KCG&L and the Cumberland Gap Tunnel, which required more than $125,000 in improvements. In 1930, the L&N constructed a new tunnel near Hagan, Virginia, finally abandoning the Cumberland Gap Tunnel for good.

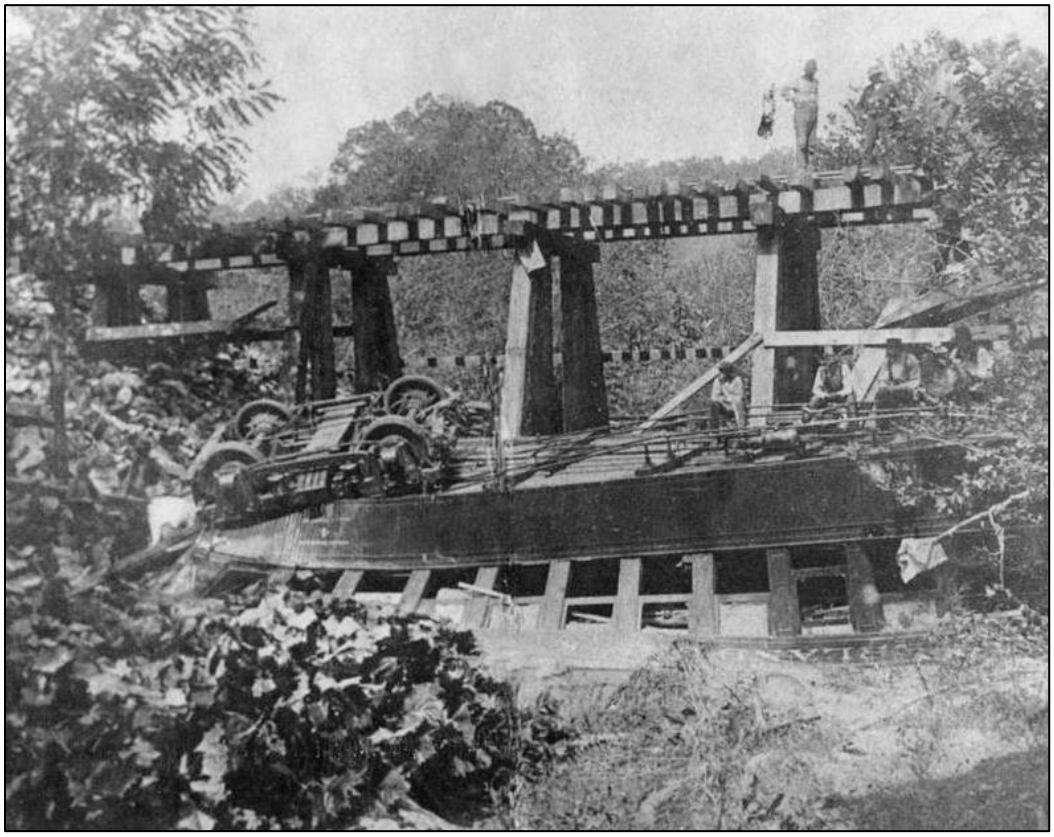


Figure 59. Photograph of the of the train wreck along the KCG&L Railroad, ca. 1889 (Image courtesy of Lincoln Memorial University, Harrogate, Tennessee).

Contributions of Black Americans in the Industrial Development of the Tri-State Region

An analysis of industrial growth in the Tri-State area would not be complete without a discussion of the significant role that Black Americans have played in the economic development of the region. Before the Civil War, enslaved Blacks helped to establish many of the first industries in the Tri-State area, including the Newlee's iron furnace located at Cumberland Gap (Vial 1991).

After the war, the small Black American population that remained in Cumberland Gap worked in a variety of professions, including as blacksmiths, foundry and sawmill operators, cabinet makers, and carding machine workers (Vial 1991). The Black population surrounding Cumberland Gap remained small until the 1880s, when railroad development brought an influx of industrial laborers into the region. There were no Black residents in the Yellow Creek Valley before the arrival of the American Association in 1886; however, in the years after the Association's arrival additional Black workers were recruited to the area from the lower South. Many of these newcomers were brought to work on a specific project, such as railroad construction (Matheny 2003). By 1890, there were 447 Black Americans in Middlesboro, a majority of whom were male contract laborers (Matheny 2003). Many of these men were probably employed by the Powell's Valley (later KCG&L) Railroad, which employed Black laborers on the construction of the Cumberland Gap Tunnel in 1888 and 1889. As local hotels would not rent to Black Americans, workers who were not local to the region established camps on any land "not being surveyed and divided into expensive town lots" (Vial 1991).

In the 1890s, railroad construction, along with the promise of new economic opportunities, attracted Black laborers to the newly established coalfields located throughout central Appalachia (Lewis 1989). Although the majority of the region's Black miners chose to settle in states like West Virginia where the industrial transformation was more advanced and demand for labor was strongest, a small number chose to migrate to the Cumberland Gap coalfield (Lewis 1989). While little demographic information is available on the movement of Black migrants into southeastern Kentucky and Tennessee, it appears that most of the major coal companies located in the Cumberland Gap field employed at least some Black miners (Jones 1926). Black Americans were attracted to the mountain coalfields surrounding the Cumberland Gap by the prospect of equal wages and opportunities to move up in the occupational hierarchy that they would not have had access to in other parts of the South (Lewis 1987). As early as December 1890, a newspaper from central Kentucky bemoaned the loss of Black workers who were being "enticed by the capital that is supposed to be lying around in big chunks in the 'Magic City'" (*The Courier-Journal* 1890a). During the early twentieth century, Black miners were employed by the Mingo Mountain Coal and Coke Company, Sterling Coal and Coke Company, and Nicholson Coal and Coke Company. The percentage of Black miners in Kentucky and Tennessee peaked in 1900 at 23 percent and 28 percent, respectively (Lewis 1987).

As the demand for coal products fell in the aftermath of WWI, the population of Black miners in the southern Appalachian states entered a period of steep decline. By 1920, the population of Black miners had fallen to just 16 percent in Kentucky and 7 percent in Tennessee (Lewis 1987). By the 1930s, the ongoing decline of the regional coal industry had displaced both White and Black miners. Small towns in central Appalachia offered few alternatives for employment, leading to massive population loss in the region. Black miners had come to central Appalachia as outsiders and felt no strong attachment to the local coal towns. Additionally, as Blacks were more likely to be employed in unskilled positions, they were among the first workers whose jobs were eliminated by mechanization (Lewis 1987). Through the mid-twentieth century, hundreds of Black coal miners abandoned the Appalachian coalfields to seek out new opportunities in the northern states (Lewis 1987).

KNOWN RESOURCE TYPES

Coal Mines

The remains of historic coal mining properties are among the most common industrial resource types identified within the boundaries of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. Coal mines in the region were typically modest operations, situated in remote mountain locations. For the most part, coal mines within the park are comprised of underground operations that were likely worked using hand labor, with minimal production by electric-powered mining machines (Crowell 1995). Features at these properties range from exploratory prospect pits and test trenches to more extensive underground workings, such as adits and shafts. Other features associated with the coal mines at Cumberland Gap include access roads, slag heaps, a water tank, coke ovens, concrete foundations, and rock walls. The quantity and types of features present at each property appear to reflect the duration and scale of their respective operations.

Coal mining properties identified within Cumberland Gap National Historical Park include the Chadwell Gap Coal Company (CUGA00089.000), the Gap Coal Mine (CUGA00077.000), and the Neal, Snyder, and Mullins Coal Mine (CUGA00011.000) (Photograph 12). In 2012, the Chadwell Gap Coal Company was determined eligible for listing in the NRHP at the local level under Criteria A, C, and D in the areas of industry and historical archaeology (Slaton et al. 2012). Neither the Gap Coal Mine or the Neal, Snyder, and Mullins Coal Mine have been previously evaluated for NRHP eligibility.

Photograph 12. Iron water tank at the Neal, Snyder, and Mullins Coal Mine (CUGA00011.000), facing northwest (North Wind 2023).

Iron Foundries

Although iron extraction and production were among the most important local industries in the Cumberland Gap region in the nineteenth century, only one resource associated with this industry has been identified within the current park boundaries. The John G. Newlee Iron Foundry (CUGA00016.000)—also known as the Iron Furnace (Photograph 13)—was listed in the NRHP in 1980 as a contributing property to the Cumberland Gap Historic District Virginia/Kentucky/Tennessee. Although often referred to a "foundry," the Iron Furnace is actually the remaining stack of a charcoal cold-blast furnace. Historically, the furnace complex would have been located at the center of a network of haul roads, charcoal kilns, and mines, and been powered by the rushing waters of Gap Creek. The stack itself would have originally been surrounded by other infrastructure, such a casting shed and bellows (Scott 2012).

Photograph 13. Architectural remains of the John G. Newlee Iron Foundry (CUGA00016.000), facing northeast (North Wind 2023).

Railroad Infrastructure

Railroad construction played a significant role in the establishment of the Cumberland Gap, opening the region to wider commercial markets and linking it firmly to the regional transportation network. Within the park boundaries, railroad-related infrastructure that demonstrates a direct link with the region's industrial development includes the Little Railroad Tunnel (CUGA00075.000), which was constructed by the KCG&L Railroad between 1888 and 1889 (Photograph 14). In September 2022, the Little Railroad Tunnel was determined not eligible for NHRP listing (Reid 2022).

Photograph 14. Little Railroad Tunnel (CUGA00075.000), facing southeast (North Wind 2023).

Other Industries

After the collapse of the American Association and setbacks in the local iron industry in the 1890s, entrepreneurs in the Cumberland Gap region redirected their energy to the development of the region's manufacturing sector. Within the boundaries of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, the New South Brewery/Schneider Meat Packing Plant (CUGA00031.000) includes the remains of one of the largest manufacturing concerns located in the Tri-State region during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries (Photograph 15). The site has not been previously evaluated for listing in the NRHP.

NRHP Eligibility for Industrial Resources

The industrial development of the Cumberland Gap has not been thoroughly documented and additional research could reveal new resource types associated with this theme. As all the industrial-related properties located within the park represent individually distinguishable entities located at spatially discrete locations, they should be evaluated individually for NRHP eligibility (Figure 60). Additionally, properties that are now in a deteriorated and/or ruined condition, such as the New South Brewery/Schneider Meat Packing Plant, the Gap Coal Mine, and the Neal, Snyder, and Mullins Coal Mine, should be evaluated according to the guidance provided by *National Register Bulletin 36: Guidelines for Evaluating and Registering Archaeological Properties* (Little et al. 2000). Extractive properties, such as the two coal mining sites, should also be evaluated based on the guidance provided by *National Register Bulletin 42: Guidelines for Identifying, Evaluating, and Registering Historic Mining Properties* (Noble and Spude 1997).

Photograph 15. Architectural remains of the New South Brewery/Schneider Meat Packing Plant (CUGA00031.000), facing east (North Wind 2023).

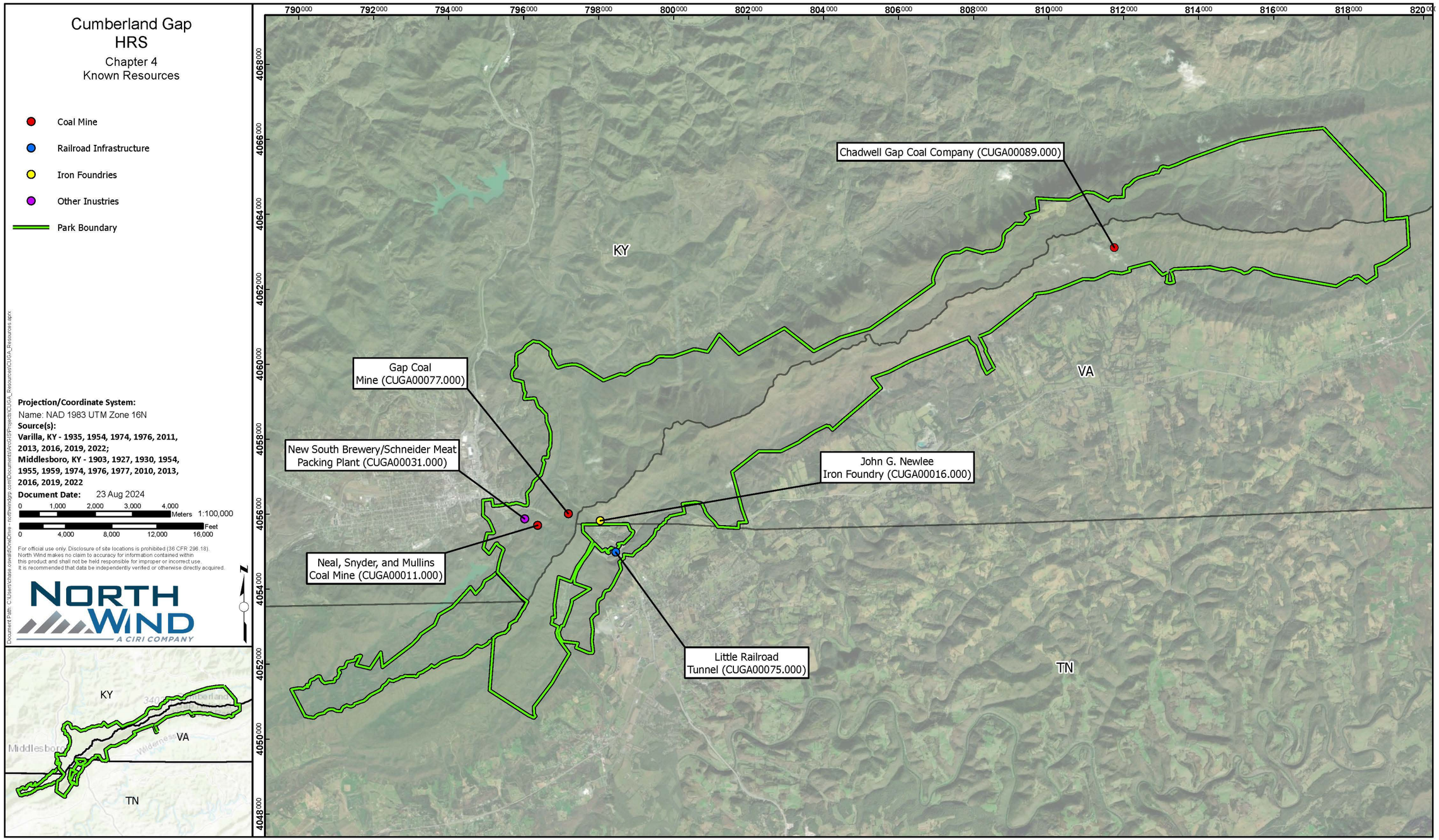


Figure 60. Chapter 4 Known Resources.

CHAPTER FIVE:
EARLY EFFORTS AT PARK ESTABLISHMENT

INTRODUCTION

Although Cumberland Gap had receded from national consciousness at the end of the Civil War, interest in the tourism potential of the region was revived by American popular literature of the late nineteenth century (Moore 1991). During the 1870s and 1880s, the untamed appearance and romantic history of the Cumberland Gap was idealized in "so-called 'local color' literature" published in national magazines such as the *Atlantic Monthly*, *Scribner's*, *Harper's Magazine*, and *Lippincott's*. Articles in these magazines were geared toward an urban middle-class readership and featured a descriptive style that typically assumed the form of travelogues set in remote areas of great scenic beauty (Moore 1991). Articles published about Cumberland Gap helped to publicize the beautiful scenery and lives of the area's mountain residents to a wider, national audience. One of the first 'local color' articles that helped to promote the picturesque beauty of the Gap was published in *Appleton's Journal of Literature, Science, and Art* in 1872 (Figure 61). The article, simply titled "Cumberland Gap," described the rugged allure of the Gap's landscape, which was "not merely rich to the geologist, capitalist, and artisan, but rich to the lover of all that is wild, beautiful, and picturesque in nature" (*Appleton's Journal of Literature, Science, and Art* 1872).

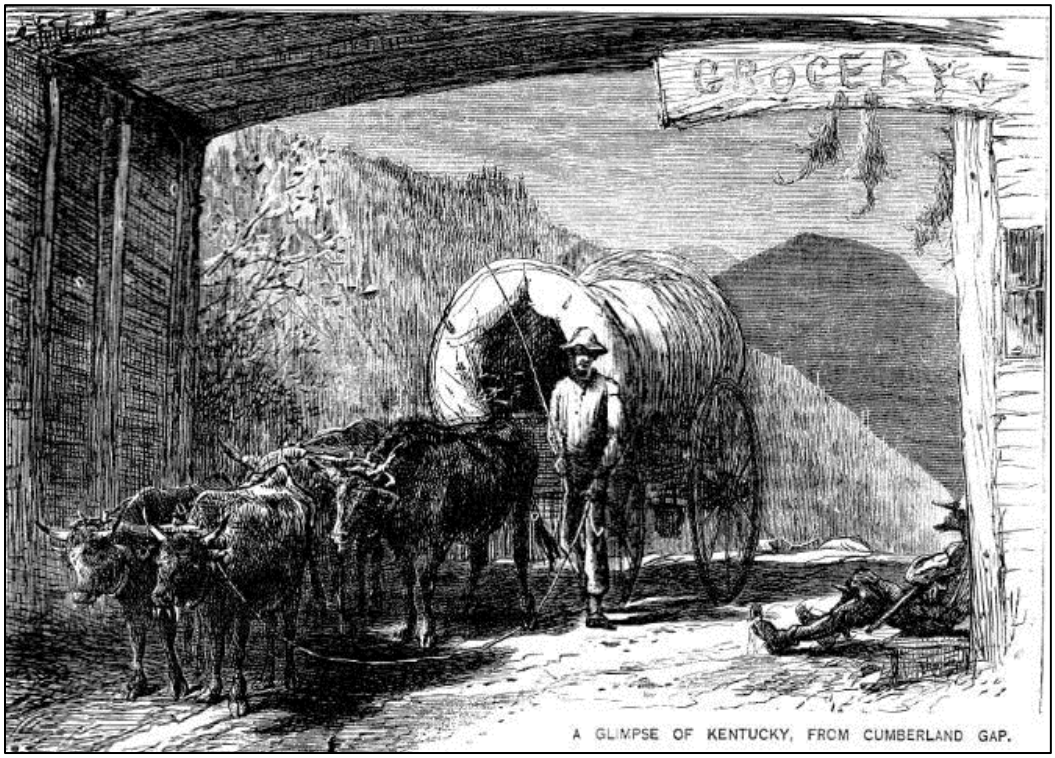


Figure 61. Illustration by Harry Fenn of a teamster driving oxen through the Cumberland Gap, ca. 1872 (Image courtesy of the *Appleton's Journal of Literature, Science, and Art*, March 16, 1872).

The description of the Cumberland Gap in *Appleton's Journal of Literature, Science, and Art* was followed by a series of comparable articles that promoted the beauty and serenity of the Cumberland Gap region. Beginning in 1886, American novelist James Lane Allen published several articles for *Harper's Magazine* that described the "Kentucky mountaineer life" (*Alton Evening Telegraph* 1886). Allen's first article, published in June 1886, was entitled "Through Cumberland Gap on Horseback" and provided a thorough description of his own journey through the Cumberland Gap, including an analysis of the area's people, traditions, and landscape (Allen 1892). A second notable article of this type, written by American essayist Charles Dudley Warner, was published by *Harper's Magazine* in January 1889. The article—called "Comments on Kentucky"—gave a detailed description of the many attractions at Cumberland Gap, including the Wilderness Road, as well as the trees, gullies, and springs located in the area. Warner's article was also among the first to explicitly reference the tourism potential of the Gap, concluding that "This whole region, when accessible by rail, will be attractive to tourists" (*Knoxville Daily Tribune* 1889b).

In the late 1880s, industrialists like Alexander Arthur seized upon the Gap's literary identity as a rugged, untamed wilderness to promote the budding tourism industry and attract outside investors to the region. In 1889, the American Association Ltd., a land development company operated by Arthur, published a pamphlet advertising the Gap's many scenic destinations, including the many caves, mountain streams, and viewpoints located in the area (American Association 1889). Notably, the pamphlet also contained a quote from James Lane Allen's article "Through Cumberland Gap on Horseback," which promoted the Gap's long history as a gateway for both people and capital traveling to the American West (American Association 1889). Due largely to the promotional efforts of the American Association and the 'local color' journalism of the late nineteenth century, both newcomers and longtime residents of Cumberland Gap began to appreciate the financial benefits that the region's natural wonders could provide to the local economy.

Initial Tourism Efforts at Cumberland Gap

Hotels and Resorts

The popular literary portrayal of the Cumberland Gap as a vast, rugged territory captured the imagination of middle- and upper-class Americans in the late nineteenth century. At the same time, the pervasive industrialization of the Gilded Age made Americans long for a romanticized pastoral lifestyle and encouraged a new appreciation for the restorative qualities of the great outdoors (Martin 2007). Since the early nineteenth century, the beautiful scenery and salutary atmosphere of the Southern Appalachian Mountains had attracted thousands of health seekers and tourists to the region; however, it was not until the late 1880s that railroad construction finally opened the area surrounding the Cumberland Gap to tourism development (Martin 2007).

Like other entrepreneurs in the Mountain South, Alexander Arthur wanted to establish a resort destination in the Tri-State region that would allow affluent tourists to demonstrate their wealth, while also engaging in healthful recreation. To this end, in 1889, Arthur established the Cumberland Gap Park Company, a development organization aimed at constructing a resort for ailing health seekers and wealthy vacationers on the Tennessee side of the Cumberland Gap (*Knoxville Daily Tribune* 1889). The following year, Arthur also participated in the organization

of the Harrogate Land Company, which sought to develop "a high-class residential estate on the eastern side of the Poor Valley Ridge, not far from the Cumberland Gap Park Company's property" (Figure 62) (*The Daily News* 1890a). The two properties were intended to complement each other, with Harrogate serving as the "home of the capitalist, the manufacturer, the banker, and the merchant," while the adjoining property owned by the Cumberland Gap Park Company operated as a "resting place of tourists and pleasure seekers, who [would] be provided with the daintiest of everything" (Harrogate Land Company 1891)

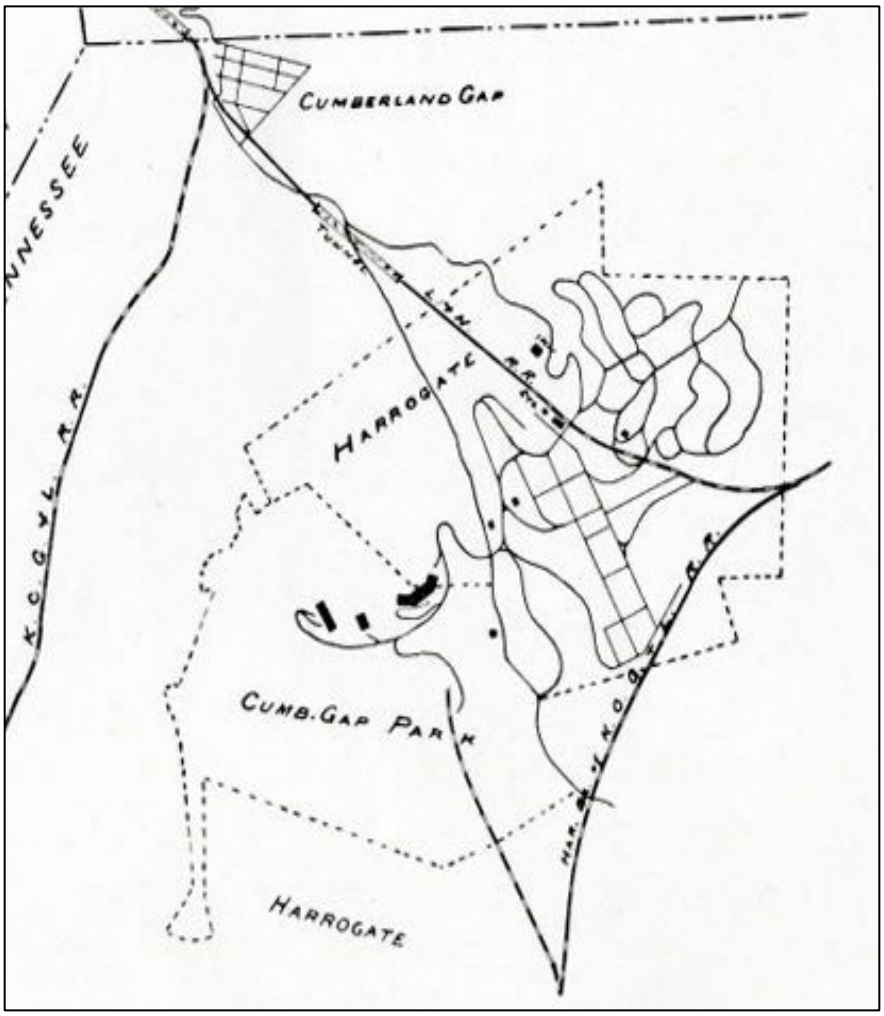


Figure 62. Excerpt from a sketch map showing the adjoining lands of the Harrogate Land Company and the Cumberland Gap Park Company, ca. 1891 (Image courtesy of Harrogate Land Company 1891).

The centerpiece of the ambitious Cumberland Gap Park development was the Four Seasons Resort, a magnificent retreat designed to evoke the atmosphere of a European spa situated in the beautiful valley of the Cumberland Mountains (Cumberland Gap Park Company 1892). The resort's grounds were designed by Col. George E. Waring, a renowned American sanitary engineer and civic reformer who had previously served as the drainage engineer for the development of New York City's Central Park (Cumberland Gap Park Company 1892). The Four Seasons property included three buildings—a hotel, sanitarium, and casino—all of which

were designed in the Beaux-Arts style by Architect William B. Bigelow of the New York-based firm, McKim, Mead, & Bigelow (Cumberland Gap Park Company 1892).

At the time of its construction, the Four Seasons Hotel was considered one of the largest and most splendid of its kind in the country (Figure 63). The lavish four-story hotel was constructed of limestone and wood and could accommodate up to 500 guests, with a stable large enough for 50 horses (Hess 2011). Public spaces inside the hotel consisted of reception rooms, reading rooms, newsstands, and a telegraph office. Additionally, a public dining room was provided, which opened onto an enclosed "winter porch" where meals were served overlooking the hotel's gardens (Cumberland Gap Park Company 1892). Upstairs guest rooms ranged in size from modest "bachelor's rooms" to impressive suites that were "larger than an average house" (Cumberland Gap Park Company 1892).

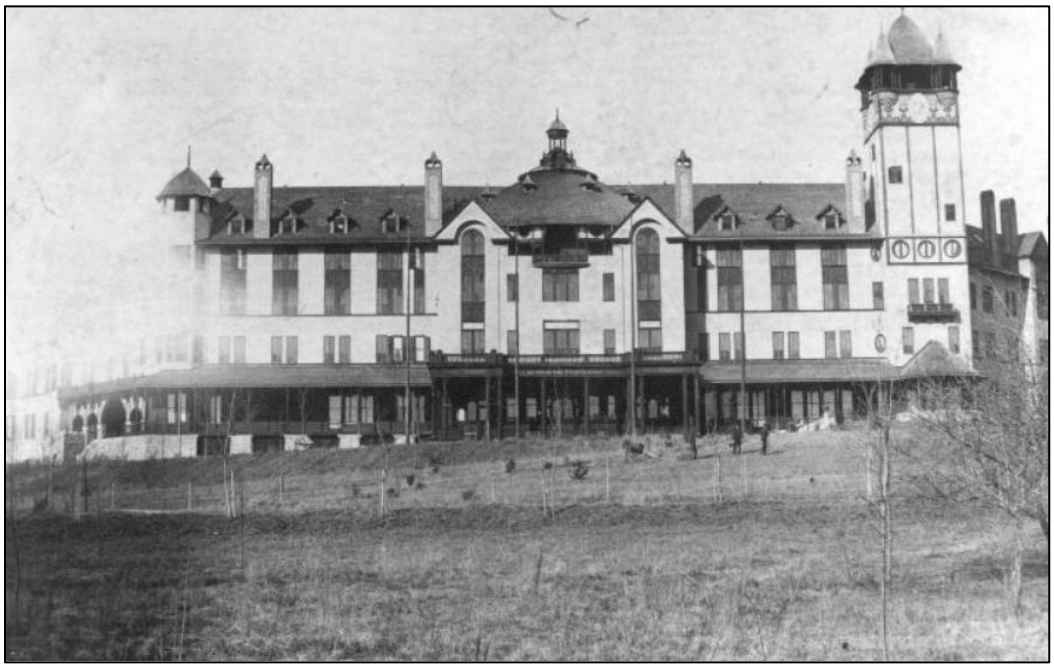


Figure 63. Photograph of the Four Seasons Hotel, ca. 1890s (Image courtesy of the Cumberland Gap Broadcasting Company [https://www.angelfire.com/ky2/cumberlandgapbc/mhpage/fourseasons1.jpg]).

Guests who were ill stayed in the sanitarium, which could accommodate 100 patients under the specialized care of two physicians (Cumberland Gap Park Company 1892). Medical treatments available at the resort included massage, gymnastics, swimming pools, "atomizing chambers," and a system of hot vapor baths scented with "medicated pine needle," sassafras, mercury, and sulfur (Cumberland Gap Park Company 1892). The casino building provided amusements for guests, including a theatre and ballroom where regular dances were held.

Additional accommodations for guests were provided at the nearby Harrogate Inn, located on the property of the Harrogate Land Company (Figure 64). The inn was constructed by a group of northern investors, led by F. Randolph Curtis in 1891 (Hess 2011). Although slightly less opulent than the Four Seasons Hotel, the Harrogate Inn provided double and single rooms, as well as suites or apartments with baths (*The Courier-Journal* 1891). Guests at the Harrogate Inn

were assured that they would still be able to partake in the same private drives, walks, and concerts that were available to the guests of the Four Seasons (*The Courier-Journal* 1891).

Figure 64. Rendering of the Harrogate Inn, ca. 1891 (Image courtesy of *Souvenir of Middlesboro*, October 1890 [https://www.angelfire.com/ky2/cumberlandgapbc/mhpage/1890sov54.jpg]).

Although the Four Seasons Hotel opened to great fanfare in the spring of 1892, the celebration surrounding its establishment was short-lived (*The Knoxville Sentinel* 1892). The wealthy guests that the hotel had hoped to attract failed to materialize and the resort was forced into receivership in 1895 (*The Journal and Tribune* 1895). That March, residents of Cumberland Gap watched in horror as the hotel, which cost more than $1 million to construct, was sold to a Chicago wrecking company for just $28,000 (Vial 1991). Less than seven months after its purchase, the "Harrogate white elephant" was dismantled by its new owners and its contents were shipped away on a special train (*Kentucky Advocate* 1895). The wood frame sanitarium apparently held little financial value and was left untouched by the wrecking company. As the demolition of the hotel got underway, local newspapers lamented its demise, remarking that "The palace that arose in the woods like a chapter from the Arabian Nights will soon be a thing of the past" (*The Journal and Tribune* 1895).

A year after the main hotel building was razed, the Rev. Arthur and Ellen Myers purchased the Four Seasons property, with the assistance of Union Army Gen. Oliver O. Howard. The couple had previously served as missionaries and were committed to providing an education to impoverished children in Appalachia. In 1888, they founded the Harrow School in Cumberland Gap and in 1896, appealed to Howard to establish a college to educate the region's youth. Howard, recalling that President Abraham Lincoln had also expressed a desire to help the mountain people of East Tennessee after the Civil War, agreed to help the Myers' finance the new institution. For the next several years, Howard raised money to buy the old Four Seasons

sanitarium and adjoining 600-acre property. Finally, in February 1897, the new university—called Lincoln Memorial University (LMU)—received its charter from the state of Tennessee (*The Courier-Journal* 1896). From the start, the school was a vital part of the local community, with newspapers reporting that it "was destined to be a great school and a living monument to Lincoln" (*Lexington-Herald Leader* 1900). The wood frame sanitarium building was renamed Grant-Lee Hall and served as the focal point of the new campus (Figure 65). In 1899, the Myers also purchased the Harrogate Inn, which they deeded to Isaac H. Lansing and Franklin Nettleton of Scranton, Pennsylvania (Hess 2011). By October 1900, the inn had been converted into an industrial school for orphan girls, named for Franklin Nettleton's daughter, Grace.

Figure 65. Photograph of the Four Seasons sanitarium building after its purchase by LMU, ca. 1890s (Image courtesy of the Cumberland Gap Broadcasting Company [https://www.angelfire.com/ky2/cumberlandgapbc/mhpage/lmugrantlee10.jpg]).

Scenic Attractions

Along with its luxurious resorts, the Cumberland Gap also offered many scenic attractions that allowed tourists to engage with nature and explore the local culture of the region. The Pinnacle, or "Pinnacle Rock," was perhaps the most impressive attraction in the area during the late nineteenth century. The Pinnacle consisted of a scenic overlook formed by a rock on the northeast side of the Cumberland Gap that provided panoramic views of the Tri-State region. To reach the Pinnacle, visitors were required to hike from the old Wilderness Road about four miles up Cumberland Mountain (*Lexington Herald-Leader* 1890). Both the hike up and back down the mountain were considered quite treacherous, requiring hikers to slide, walk, and jump to reach their destination (Figure 66) (*The Frankfort Roundabout* 1890). At the top of the mountain, visitors to the Pinnacle were met with a "handsome pavilion," which furnished "every convenience to the tourist" (*Lexington Herald-Leader* 1890). The two-story wood frame pavilion

was destroyed by fire in 1901 (*The Courier-Journal* 1901). The view from the Pinnacle was the main draw for tourists making the trek up the mountain in the late nineteenth century. Early tourists to the Pinnacle described the majestic landform as standing like a "sentinel on the outposts of God's creation" (*The Ohio County News* 1890). In 1890, it was reported that thousands of tourists every year were delighted to walk or ride on horseback to the summit of the Pinnacle in order to "contemplate the magnificent panorama below" (*The Journal and Tribune* 1890).

Figure 66. Postcard showing young men climbing to the top of the Pinnacle, ca. 1909 (Image courtesy of the Kraemer Art Company, Cincinnati, Ohio).

Public interest in the Pinnacle, along with the excitement surrounding the development of the Four Seasons Resort, attracted other promoters to the Cumberland Gap region in the late nineteenth century. In 1890, the East Kentucky Land Company, a development firm operated by Maj. G. B. Cockrell, secured the rights to a multi-level karst cave located just beneath the Pinnacle (*Morristown Gazette* 1890). Cockrell was a native of Mt. Sterling, Kentucky, and a veteran of the Confederate Army (Figure 67). He acquired the cave with the intention of

operating it as a show cave that would cater to tourists and health seekers vacationing at local resorts in the area (Powell 2018).

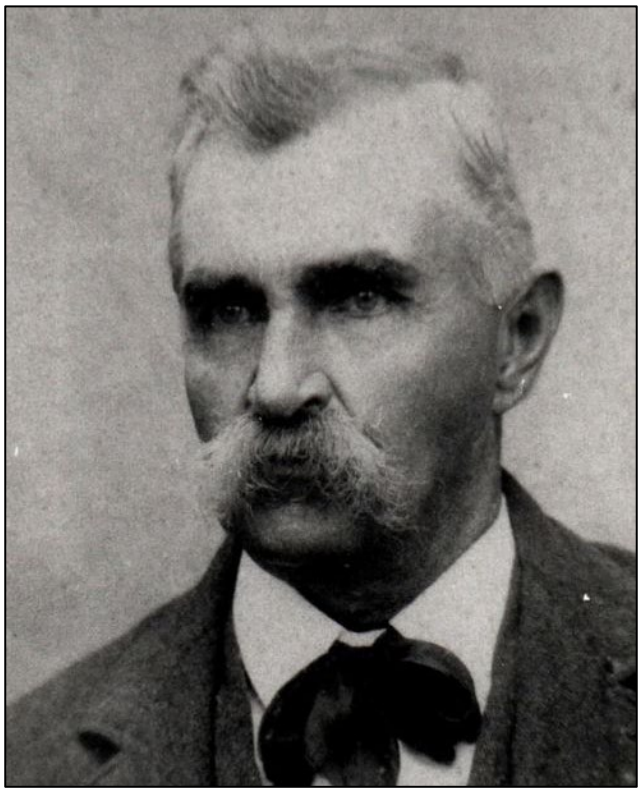


Figure 67. Photograph of G. B. Cockrell, ca. 1900 (Image courtesy of Carolyn LeVesque [https://www.flickr.com/photos/levesque-allen-gambill/3757830831]).

Following his acquisition of the property, Cockrell dubbed his new attraction "King Solomon's Cave" in reference *King Solomon's Mines*, a popular novel of the period (Powell 2018). In 1891, the cave was open to visitors who, for the cost of one dollar, were invited to take a tour with the assistance of a lighted lantern and guide (*The Daily News* 1891). Once inside, visitors descended a narrow stairway to a depth of approximately 40 feet before boarding a small boat (*The Daily News* 1891). Passengers were then rowed several hundred feet across a large subterranean lake before disembarking into a cave system comprised of "large rooms and grottos, with stalagmites in myrid [sic] forms and exquisite shapes and colors" (*The Daily News* 1891). Inside the cave, tourists could explore a series of colorfully named passageways, including the Fat Man's Misery, the Ballroom, and the Queen's Chamber (*The Daily News* 1891). In 1894, Cockrell upgraded the cave's interior, replacing the lanterns with "glowing electric lights" (*The Journal and Tribune* 1894).

King Solomon's Cave proved to be a popular attraction in the Cumberland Gap region in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Part of the reason for the cave's success was its location along the old Wilderness Road, which made it a highly visible and accessible destination for tourists (*The Middlesborough News* 1900a). Although situated along the roadway, the cave's entrance was actually located high on the cliff face and was only accessible via a set of wooden stairs (*Lexington Herald-Leader* 1890). In 1908, the construction of the Government Road

(Object Lesson Road) over the Cumberland Gap further increased visitation to the attraction. Maj. Cockrell provided seasonal tours of King Solomon's Cave until his death in 1917 (*The Lexington Herald* 1917).

Three years later, in 1920, the cave system was purchased by officials from LMU who hoped to secure its water supply for the university (Powell 2018). The cave was subsequently renamed "Cudjo's Cave," and was reopened to tourists with students from the university serving as guides (*The Lexington Leader* 1925). Promoters from LMU renamed the cave after a character in J. T. Trowbridge's 1864 novel about an escaped enslaved Black American named Cudjo, who took refuge in a cave in the Cumberland Gap. In the 1930s, the university made improvements to the tourism-related infrastructure at the cave, including opening a new entrance, constructing a gift shop and small parking area opposite the cave, and blasting a short tunnel in its interior (Figure 68) (NPS 1990).

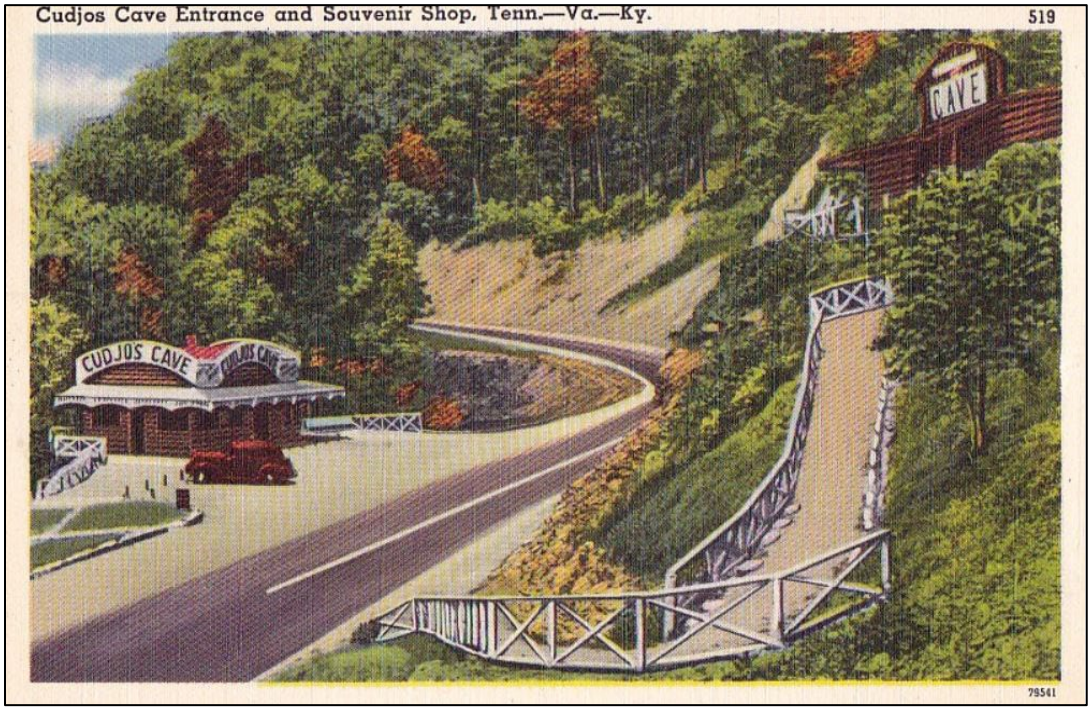


Figure 68. Postcard for Cudjo's Cave, showing the gift shop and the original cave entrance high up on the cliff face, ca. 1930 (Image courtesy of the Cumberland Gap Broadcasting Company [https://www.angelfire.com/ky2/cumberlandgapbc/mhpage/cudjospostcard.jpg)]).

Recreational Sites

On top of the many sightseeing opportunities afforded by the Gap, tourists to the region also encountered a variety of outdoor recreational activities in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. One of the earliest outdoor recreation areas in the vicinity of the Cumberland Gap was Fern Lake, a 100-acre reservoir created by the Middlesborough Town and Land Company in 1890. The lake was formed by impounding Yellow Creek and more than a dozen other mountain streams (*The Courier-Journal* 1911). The lake itself measured approximately three miles long and had a capacity of 900 million gallons (Wiley 2014). In addition to serving as the principal domestic water supply for the City of Middlesboro, Fern Lake was also a popular recreational

destination for picnicking, boating, and fishing (Fuson 1947). The lake was privately managed by the Fern Lake Fishing Club, a social club that charged visitors a small fee for fishing or boating (Wiley 2014). The club erected a 70-foot-long by 40-foot-wide pavilion at the head of the lake that also served as a dance hall and headquarters (Figure 69) (*The Chattanooga News* 1902).

Figure 69. Postcard showing Fern Lake in the winter, ca. 1900. Note the pavilion at right-center (Image courtesy of the Office Equipment Co., Louisville, Kentucky).

Commemorative Sites

In addition to the natural attractions in the Cumberland Gap region in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, there were also several commemorative sites that visitors could enjoy in the area. One such site was the Tri-State Marker, a stone marker that denoted the boundary between the states of Tennessee, Kentucky, and Virginia. An upright stone marker was first erected along the Wilderness Road, near the saddle of the Cumberland Gap, in 1859 (Figure 70) (*The Tennessean* 1890). The stone did not indicate the boundary between the three states but, instead, served as a "pointer" to the actual boundary, which was located "some distance up on the side" of Cumberland Mountain (*The Frankfort Roundabout* 1890). An inscription on the stone indicated that the actual corner of the three states was located "at a tree 1,200 feet west of that point" (*The Tennessean* 1890).

Although the stone marker was considered to be in poor condition by 1890, early visitors to the Pinnacle often reported resting there on the way up the mountain (*The Frankfort Roundabout* 1890). The "much abused" old monument was removed sometime in the first decade of the twentieth century and replaced with a new upright stone monument erected on the actual Tri-State boundary at Tri-State Peak (*The Tennessean* 1890). The new monument was inscribed with the letters "K," "T," and "V" to indicate the location of each state (Figure 71).

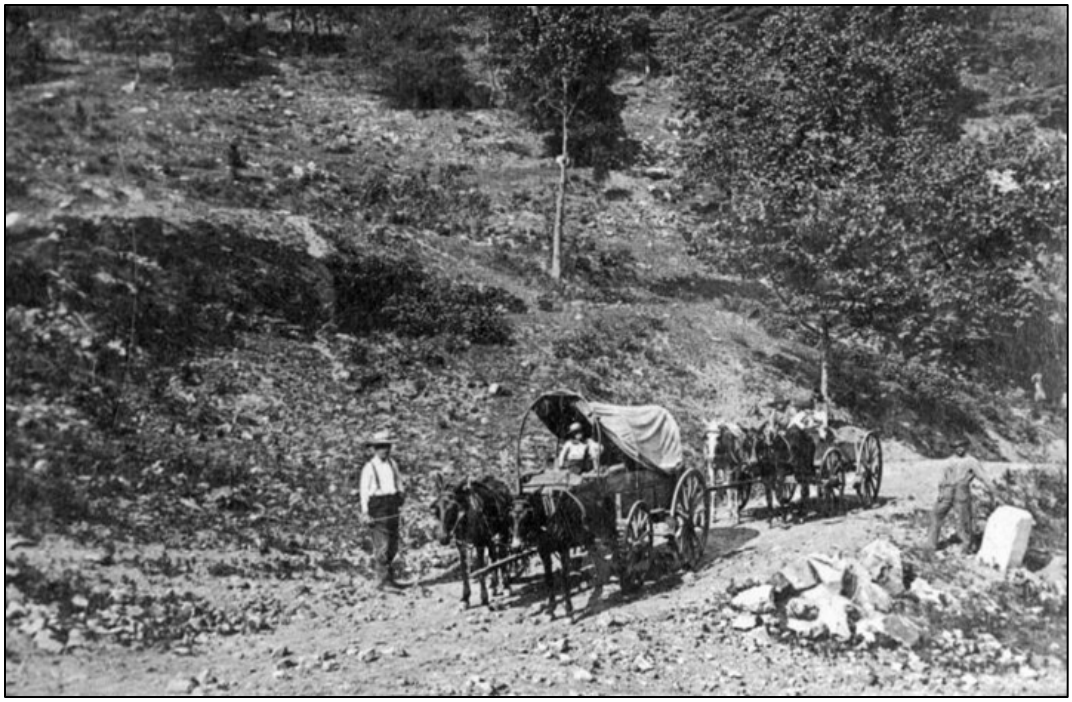


Figure 70. Photograph showing two horse drawn wagons near the old "Tri-State Marker" located near the saddle of the Cumberland Gap, ca. 1870–1900. Note the man (at right) standing beside a stone that denotes the Tri-State junction (Image courtesy of Stereographic Views of Louisville and Beyond, University of Louisville, Photographic Archives, Louisville).

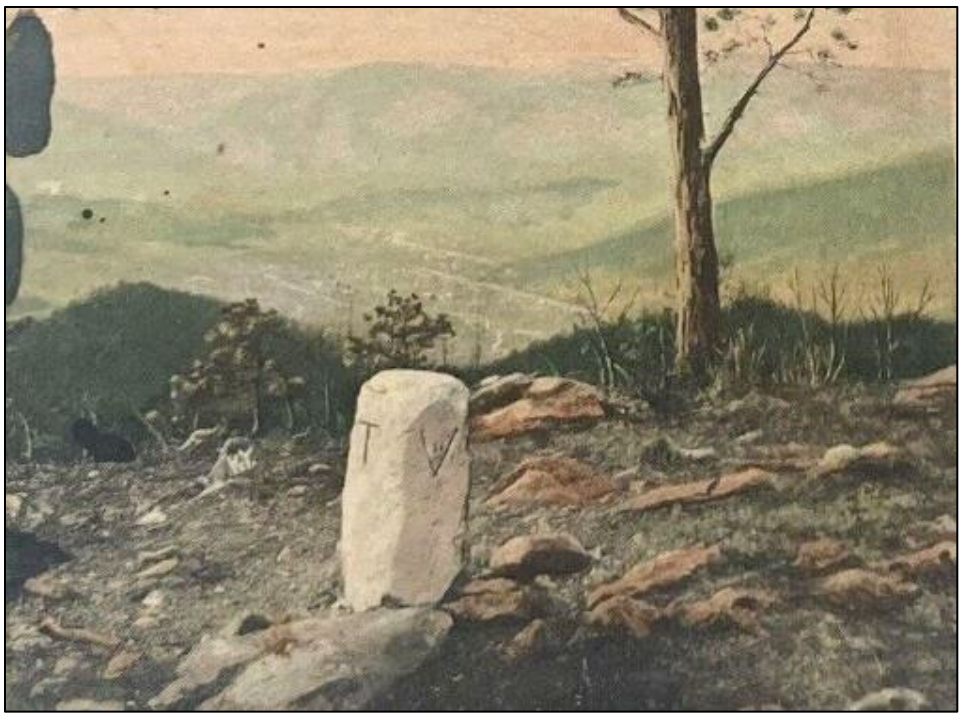


Figure 71. Tri-State Marker as it appeared following its move to the Tri-State Peak, ca. 1920s (Photograph from Souvenir Folder of Middlesboro, KY, and Cumberland Gap. Tenn., author's personal collection).

In the early twentieth century, the widely publicized construction of the Government Road (Object Lesson Road) generated renewed interest in the old Wilderness Road and the exploits of frontiersman Daniel Boone. As preparations got underway for the construction of the new roadway, residents of the Tri-State region began soliciting donations to pay for the construction of a monument to Boone located at the Cumberland Gap. The proposed monument would be situated near the saddle of the Gap, where Boone had "entered the State for the first time" (*The Courier-Journal* 1907). While the project was popular with local citizens, funding restrictions ultimately delayed the monument's construction for several years (*The Courier-Journal* 1909).

Beginning in 1912, four chapters of the Daughters of the American Revolution (D.A.R.), from the states of Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Kentucky, undertook an ambitious project to mark the 400 mile long "Boone Trail" from Boone's home in the Yadkin Valley of North Carolina through the Cumberland Gap (*The Advocate-Messenger* 1915). The project was led by Mrs. Lindsay Patterson, chairperson of the organization's Interstate Boone Committee. The Boone Monument at Cumberland Gap was ultimately completed by the D.A.R. in 1915, as part of the larger "Boone Trail" project (Figure 72) (*The Journal and Tribune* 1915). It was made of Tennessee marble and had bronze tablets on each of its four faces bearing various inscriptions (*The Journal and Tribune* 1915). The ceremony for the monument's dedication was held on June 30, 1915, and was attended by a large crowd of more than 7,000 people (*The Advocate-Messenger* 1915a). That same year, the St. Asaph Chapter of the D.A.R. also placed a bronze plaque on Indian Rock—a large rock that was reportedly used as place of defense by pioneers along the Wilderness Road (*Lexington Herald-Leader* 1915). By 1920, the Boone Monument and the nearby "tri-state mark" had both become popular attractions for automobile tourists along the recently established Dixie Highway (*The Journal and Tribune* 1920).

Figure 72. Photograph showing the location of the Daniel Boone Monument along the Dixie Highway, ca. 1920s (Image courtesy of Wiley 2014).

AUTOMOBILE TOURISM COMES TO THE GAP

The Dixie Highway (U.S. Highway 25 East)

In the early twentieth century, revolutionary production techniques pioneered by American automobile manufacturer Henry Ford drastically reduced the cost of automobiles, making them a practical and affordable means of transportation for all classes of drivers (Hugill 1982). As automobile ownership increased, demand for better roads intensified, especially in rural areas of the American South. Building on the Progressive-era reforms initiated by the earlier Good Roads Movement, Indianapolis-based real estate developer Carl G. Fisher introduced a proposal to construct the first modern automobile highway linking the North and South in November 1914 (Ingram 2014). The construction of the so-called Dixie Highway would use signage to link nearly 6,000 miles of existing local roads into one of the first dedicated long-distance highways in the nation (Ingram 2014). Construction of the highway was initially overseen by the Dixie Highway Association (DHA) and funded by private businesses, local governments, and individual states. Many sections of the highway were constructed using convict or workhouse labor (Ingram 2014).

As the Dixie Highway was expected to provide significant economic benefits, numerous localities petitioned the DHA to have the road routed through their community. For this reason, DHA officials ultimately selected two routes—known as the Eastern and Western Divisions—which would run parallel to each other. The formation of two separate routes would allow more cities to be included in the project and would maintain the momentum needed for the highway's completion (Ciomek 2010).

In 1915, the DHA elected to route the Eastern Division alignment of the Dixie Highway from Knoxville, Tennessee to Richmond, Kentucky by way of the old Object Lesson Road over the Cumberland Gap (Figure 73) (*Knoxville Sentinel* 1915). In addition to the existing portion of the Object Lesson Road, located in the saddle of the Gap, the east loop of the Dixie Highway would also utilize an 85-mile-long segment of roadbed extending from the north side of the Cumberland Gap to Mt. Vernon, Kentucky. Construction of this portion of the road—known as Boone Way—had been started in 1913 as part of a grassroots effort led by Col. James Maret and the Commercial Club of Mt. Vernon (*Interior Journal* 1915).

By September 1915, work was underway to connect the existing road segments through the Cumberland Gap. That month, the *Lexington Herald* reported that "hundreds of men are busy converting old mountain trails, which are little better than when Daniel Boone left them, into modern automobile roads with smooth surface, ample width, and easy grades" (*The Lexington Herald* 1915). The portion of the Dixie Highway through the Cumberland Gap was projected to be completed in the fall of 1917 (*The Courier-Journal* 1916a). The completion of the road was expected to bring tens of thousands of tourists annually to the Cumberland Gap, who would "motor over our white ribboned highways, through our beautiful valleys and hills and mountains and leave hundreds of millions of dollars, which will be used for the pleasure, and happiness and usefulness of our people" (*The Courier Journal* 1916).

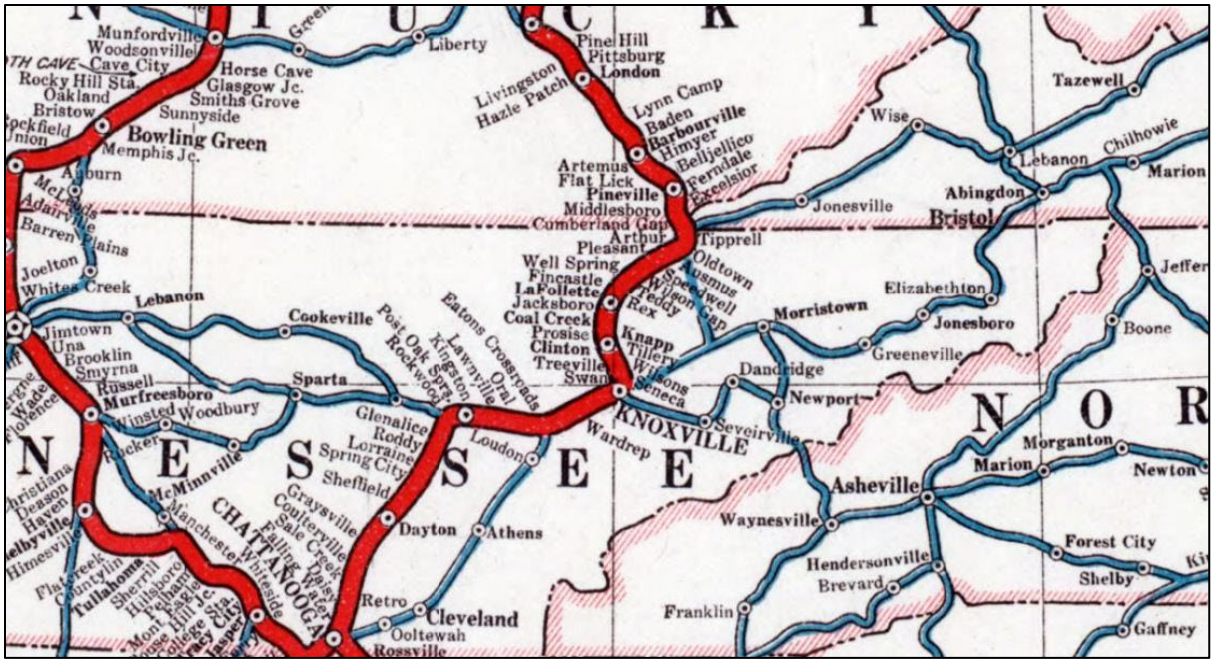


Figure 73. Excerpt from the Map of the Dixie Highway, showing the proposed alignment from Knoxville through the Cumberland Gap, ca. 1915 (Image courtesy of the Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.).

By February 1918, the Dixie Highway was officially opened over the Cumberland Gap (Figure 74). The completion of the road was expected to provide a boon for the region's tourism industry with local newspapers reporting that the "Cumberland Gap always appeals to the tourist" (*The Courier-Journal* 1918). At that time, it was noted that three highways converged at the Gap, even sharing the same roadbed for about a quarter of a mile (*The Courier-Journal* 1918). The three highways were the Dixie Highway, the Boone Way, and the Buffalo Trail. The Buffalo Trail—which was constructed at the same time as the other two highways— originated in Asheville, North Carolina and traveled through Newport and Morristown, Tennessee before eventually merging with the Dixie Highway near Tazewell, Tennessee and continuing to the Cumberland Gap (*Morristown Republican* 1916).

Shortly after the road was opened over the Gap, in May 1918, the DHA revoked the Dixie Highway designation for the segment of the roadway through Cumberland Gap in favor of a more direct route between Knoxville and Corbin, Kentucky by way of Jellico, Tennessee (Figure 75) (*Nashville Banner* 1918). The decision to remove the Dixie Highway designation from the Gap was attributed to the inability of officials from Knox County, Kentucky to fulfill their obligation to construct their portion of the highway in a timely manner. Thereafter, the stretch of highway extending from Asheville through the Cumberland Gap, and passing through Middlesboro and Mt. Vernon to Louisville, Kentucky, was collectively referred to as "Boone Way" or the "Eastern Dixie Highway" (*Lexington Herald-Leader* 1919).

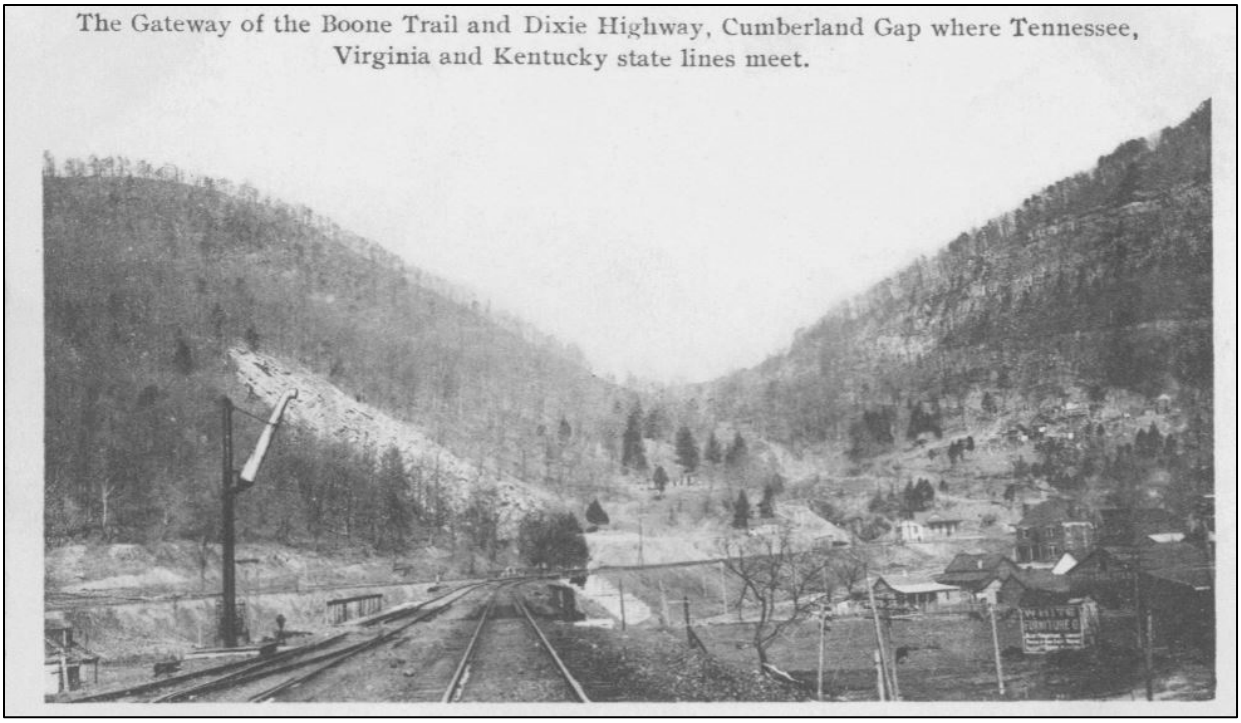


Figure 74. Postcard showing the entrance to the Dixie Highway through the Cumberland Gap, ca. 1917 (Image courtesy of the Postcard Collection, University of Kentucky, Lexington).

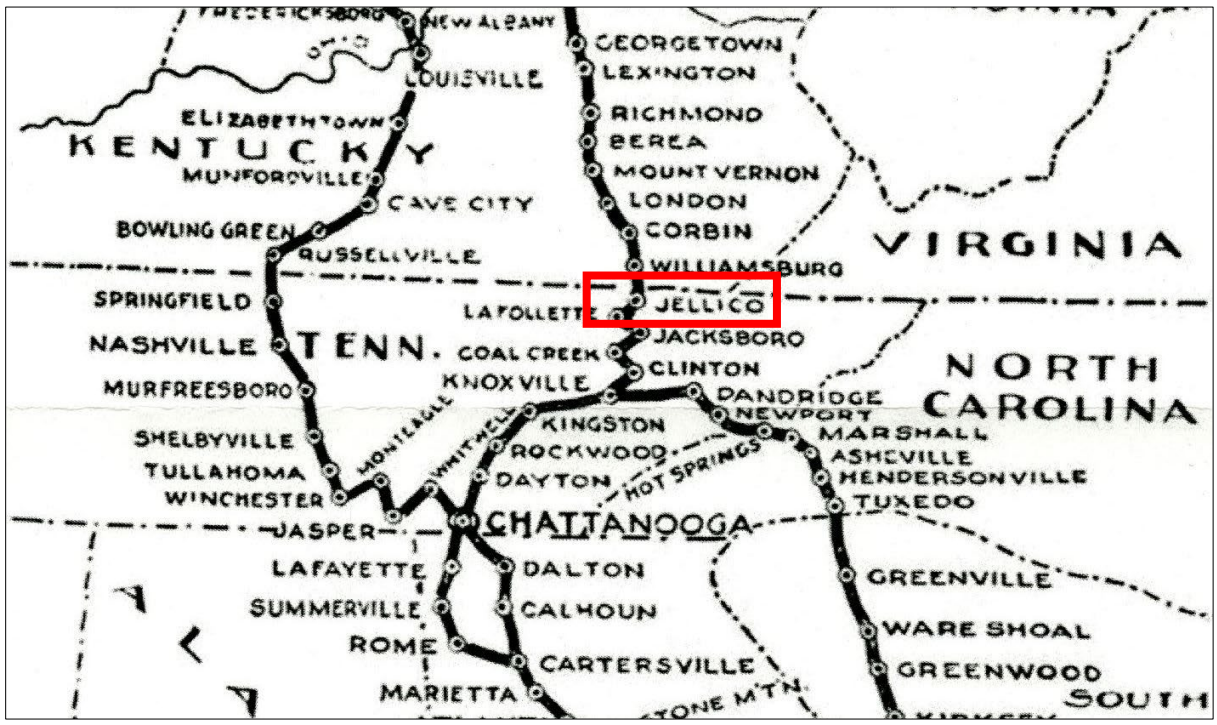


Figure 75. Excerpt from the Outline of the Dixie Highway Map, showing the new alignment of the highway through Jellico (as denoted by the red box), ca. 1919 (Image courtesy of the Florida Ephemera Collection, State Library of Florida, Tallahassee, Florida).

In 1925, passage of the Federal Aid Highway Act implemented a uniform numbering system for American interstate highways that was intended to simplify travel by allowing drivers to follow standardized routes throughout the nation (Karnes 2009). The new system would be administered by the states and would eliminate private road names, such as the Lincoln Highway, Dixie Highway, and Boone Way (Karnes 2009). In 1926, it was announced that the section of the Dixie Highway that passed through Jellico would be designated as U.S. Highway 25 West and the section of the Boone Way extending from "Barbourville and Middlesboro to Cumberland Gap" would be designated as U.S. Highway 25E (*Lexington Herald-Leader* 1926). The new road system would also utilize a standardized marking system that consisted of "black letters on a white ground, the whole in the form of a shield" (*Lexington Herald-Leader* 1926). By 1927, improvements along U.S. Highway 25E through the Cumberland Gap were bringing large numbers of tourists to the Tri-State region annually (*The Lexington Herald* 1927). The alignment of U.S. Highway 25E was described as "smooth, dustless, and [passing] through some of the most scenic sections of Kentucky" (Figure 76) (*The Lexington Herald* 1927).

Figure 76. Photograph showing U.S. Highway 25E as it passed through the Gap, ca. 1928. Note the wooden staircase at the center of the photograph, which led to the Pinnacle prior to construction of Skyland Road (Image courtesy of Caufield and Shook Collection, University of Louisville, Photographic Archives, Louisville).

Tourism-related Infrastructure on the Dixie Highway (U.S. Highway 25E)

Beginning in the mid-1920s, several new tourist attractions were established for automobile travelers along U.S. Highway 25E. One of the first new attractions in the vicinity of the Cumberland Gap was Bartlett Park, a Progressive-era municipal park that was established just

southeast of Middlesboro in 1925 (*Middlesboro Daily News* 1925). The park was named after J. H. Bartlett, President of the American Association, who donated the land for its establishment (*Middlesboro Daily News* 1925). Bartlett Park initially offered picnic grounds, a public swimming pool, and a playground (*Middlesboro Daily News* 1926). In the 1930s, the park was significantly enlarged by workers with the Works Progress Administration (WPA). Improvements at the park included enlarging the pool, adding new roads, and constructing a bath house and "commodious shelter house with removable windows so that it [could] be used in wintertime" (Figure 77) (*Middlesboro Daily News* 1936a). In total, the WPA spent about $35,000 to improve Bartlett Park (Sirna 2015).

Figure 77. Bathhouse at Bartlett Park constructed by the WPA, ca. 1936. Note the pavilion in the background (Image courtesy of the Goodman-Paxton Photographic Collection, University of Kentucky, Lexington).

During this period, several new hospitality-related businesses were also constructed along U.S. Highway 25E, including the Little Tunnel Inn, which was built by Sam and Essie Rose in the mid-1930s (*The Knoxville News-Sentinel* 1995). The Little Tunnel Inn was located along the highway, just south of the Town of Cumberland Gap. The business operated primarily as a restaurant, serving chicken dinners, with "country fixings" and pecan pie (Sweet 2014). As originally constructed the Little Tunnel Inn had a distinctive "log cabin" appearance, which was later replaced by a stone exterior (Figure 78) (Sweet 2014).

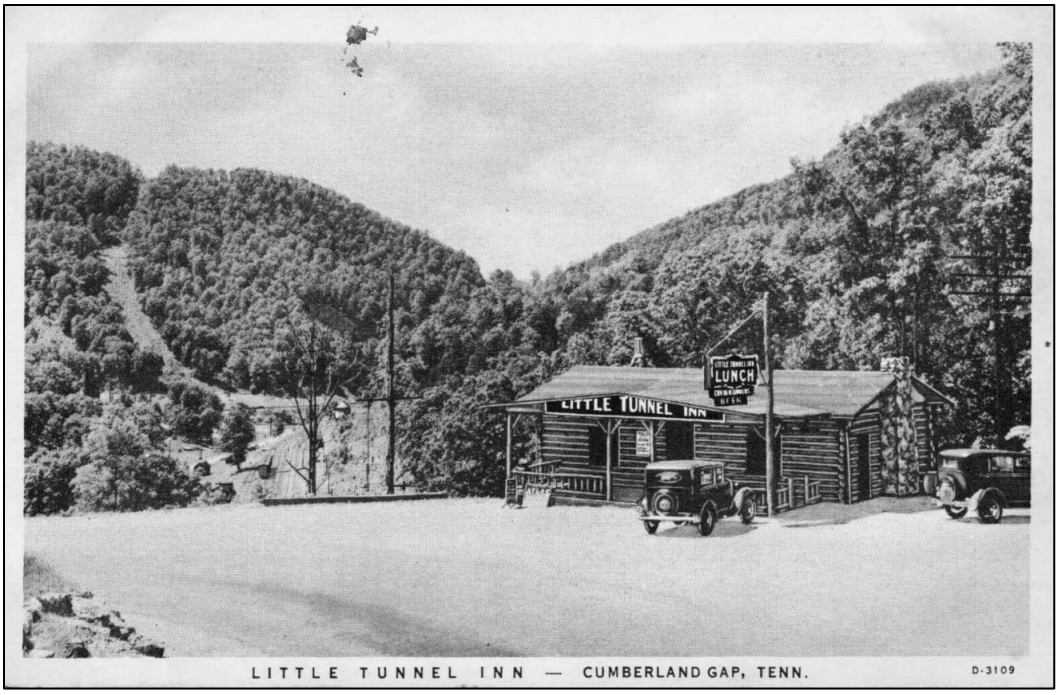


Figure 78. Postcard showing the Little Tunnel Inn on U.S. Highway 25E, with the Cumberland Gap in the background, ca. 1935. Note the "log cabin" appearance of the building (Image courtesy of Curt Teich and Co., Inc., Chicago, Illinois).

Other notable early restaurants located along U.S. Highway 25E included the Indian Rock Inn and Café, which was constructed by Jimmy Ginsburg in 1939. The café served fried chicken and steak dinners and featured dancing and orchestra music every night (*Knoxville Journal* 1939). The restaurant was located along U.S. Highway 25E, near the saddle of the Cumberland Gap. Its name was derived from its location near Indian Rock, which was situated just to the right of the restaurant's parking lot (Figure 79). The Indian Rock Inn and Café was popular with local tourists from Knoxville and was easily accessible from "a well paved highway that leads through a scenic section of Upper East Tennessee" (*Knoxville Journal* 1939a).

Several overnight lodging options were also available for early tourists traveling to the Cumberland Gap over U.S. Highway 25E. Notable accommodations in the area included the Cumberland Mountain Hotel and Cottages, which was established in 1941 by Middlesboro businessman, Fred Seale (Figure 80). The property was located on the north side of U.S. Highway 25E, near the current location of the Thomas Walker Parking Area. Seale leased the land on which the hotel was situated from the American Association Ltd. for the cost of $1,000 per year (*Knoxville Journal* 1946). The hotel was operated by Miss Jess Buchanan and featured a lodge with a large dining room that could seat up to 106 people (*Middlesboro Daily News* 1941). In addition to the restaurant, the Cumberland Mountain Hotel and Cottages also featured several stone tourist cabins and a filling station. The restaurant at the Cumberland Mountain Hotel and Cottages was a popular destination for Sunday lunches, offering meals that included roast turkey, "sage dressing, giblet gravy, and fluffy whipped potatoes," for 75 cents (*Middlesboro Daily News* 1941a). The tourist cabins featured tile baths, innerspring mattresses, and steam heat. Contemporary advertisements for the property boasted that guests could "Eat and Sleep in the Shadow of the Pinnacle" (*Middlesboro Daily News* 1947).

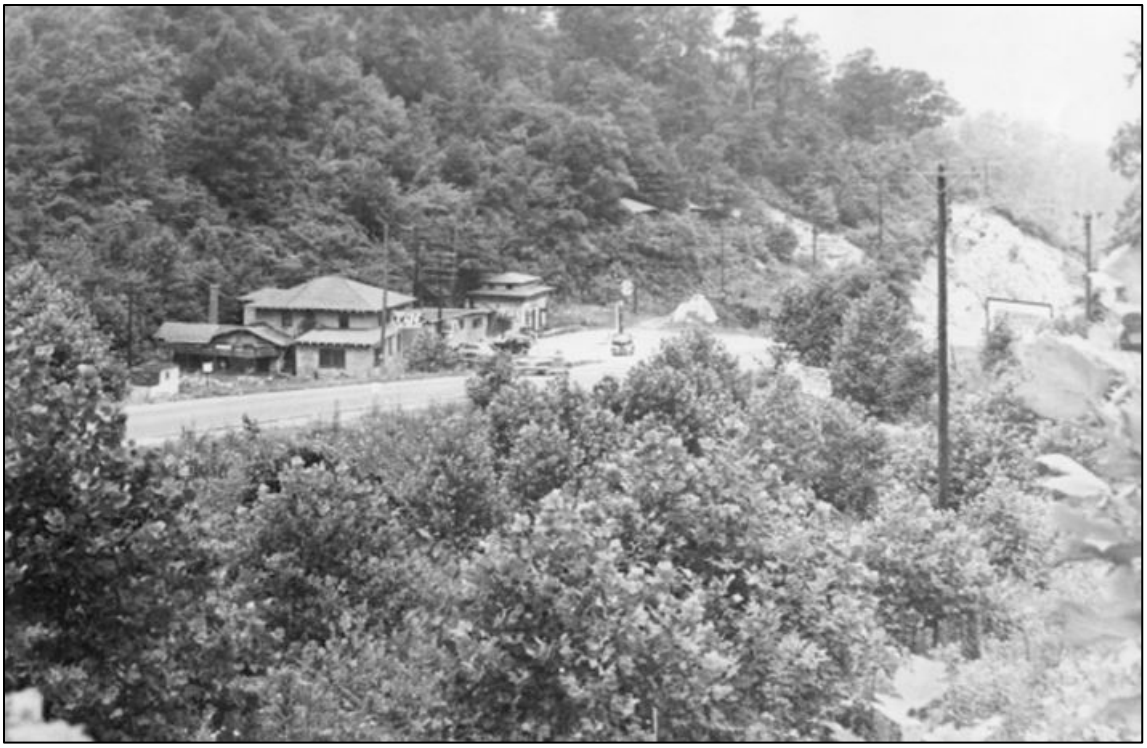


Figure 79. Photograph of the Indian Rock Inn and Café, ca. 1940s (Image courtesy of Wiley 2014).

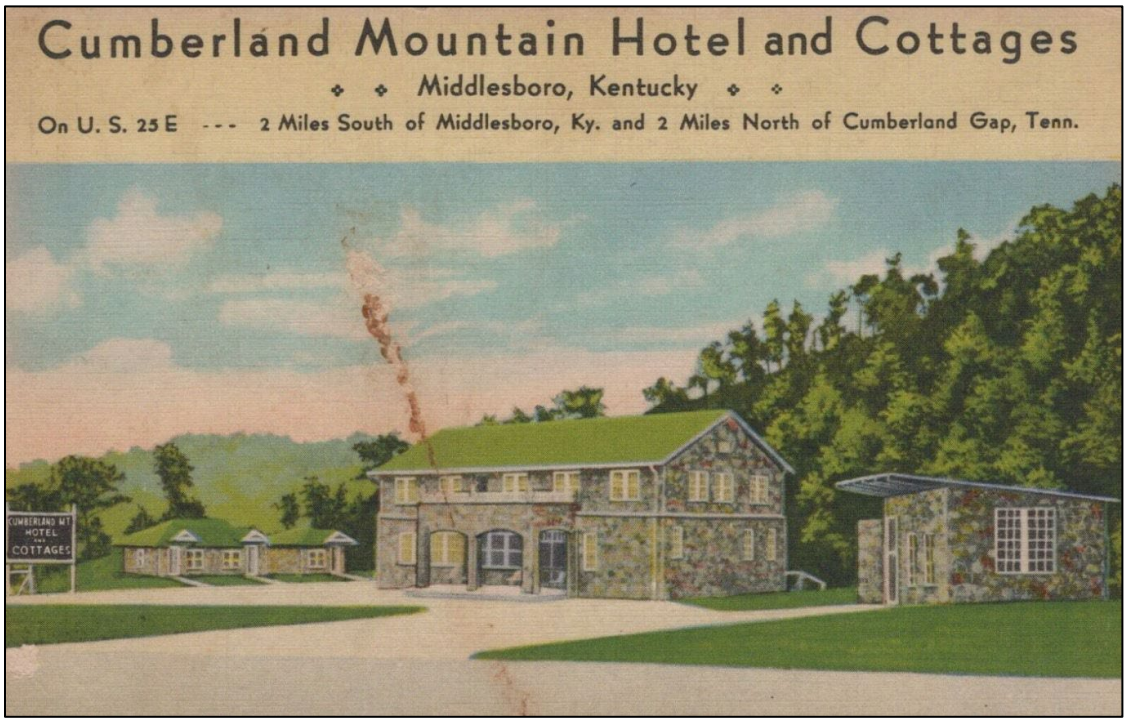


Figure 80. Postcard for the Cumberland Mountain Hotels and Cottages, ca. 1940s (Image courtesy of Mackhardt Travel Service, New Orleans, Louisiana).

Additional accommodations for tourists along U.S. Highway 25E were provided at the Harris Tourist Courts, which was established just east of downtown Middlesboro in 1941(Figure 81). The tourist court was operated by K. N. (Karl) Harris and featured a forced circulation hot water heating system and modern plumbing facilities in each cottage (*Middlesboro Daily News* 1941b). By 1946, Harris employed ten people to operate the tourist court. The Harris Tourist Courts reportedly occupied the same location as the Davis Tavern—an eighteenth-century tavern that was among the first businesses to provide "accommodations for weary travelers coming through Cumberland Gap" (*The Courier-Journal* 1946). Little is known about the history of the Davis Tavern. The building remained standing at the foot of Cumberland Mountain until at least 1821 when the last member of the Davis family sold the property (Torres-Reyes 1969).

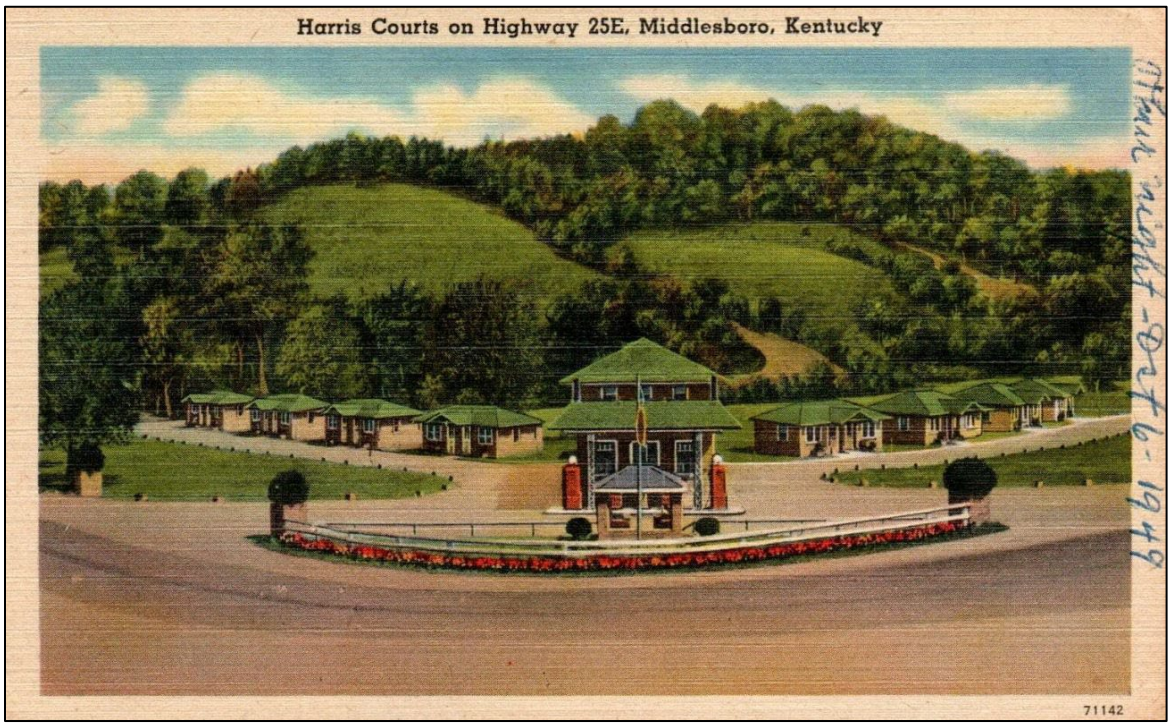


Figure 81. Postcard for the Harris Tourist Courts, ca. 1940s (Image courtesy of the Cline Company, Chattanooga, Tennessee).

Skyland Road

In addition to U.S. Highway 25E, the construction of the Skyland Road also served as a major catalyst for the development of the tourism industry at Cumberland Gap. Skyland Road was initially developed in the late 1920s by a consortium of local entrepreneurs led by coal operator J. L. Manring of Middlesboro. In February 1928, Manring purchased Pinnacle Mountain from the American Association. and joined with other local business leaders in the formation of the Skyland Company (Tinney 1965). The company was formed with the express purpose of constructing "a road to the top of the Pinnacle Mountain, and other projects for the entertainment of the tourists whom they expect to come" (*Middlesboro Daily News* 1928). Construction on the road was conducted by the Rivinac Construction Company of Knoxville, Tennessee (Tinney 1965). In September 1928, the company began clearing and blasting along the right of way in preparation for the arrival of a steam shovel which would be used to excavate the roadbed

(*Knoxville Journal* 1928). Road widening activities related to the construction of the Skyland Road required the Daniel Boone Marker, situated in the saddle of the Gap, to be moved approximately 100 feet to the south (Wiley 2014).

As initially constructed, Skyland Road consisted of a roughly two-mile-long private toll road that extended from the saddle of Cumberland Gap to the Pinnacle (Figure 82). The road reportedly cost more than $100,000 to construct and was considered a marvel of modern engineering following its completion in June 1929. The road was macadamized and built on a grade that varied from seven to ten percent. For safety purposes, "all curves [were] banked and precipices [were] well-guarded" (*St. Louis Dispatch* 1929). Following a formal dedication ceremony held that summer, local newspapers reported that the road consisted of a wide and safe highway that "outloops all other loops" (Figure 82) (*Kentucky Post* 1929). Skyland Road proved to be a popular tourist attraction in the Tri-State region, with more than 16,000 motorists traveling along the highway in its first three months of operation alone (*Knoxville News-Sentinel* 1929). A toll house was also constructed along the route, where a 50-cent toll was collected from each automobile passenger (*Knoxville News-Sentinel* 1929).

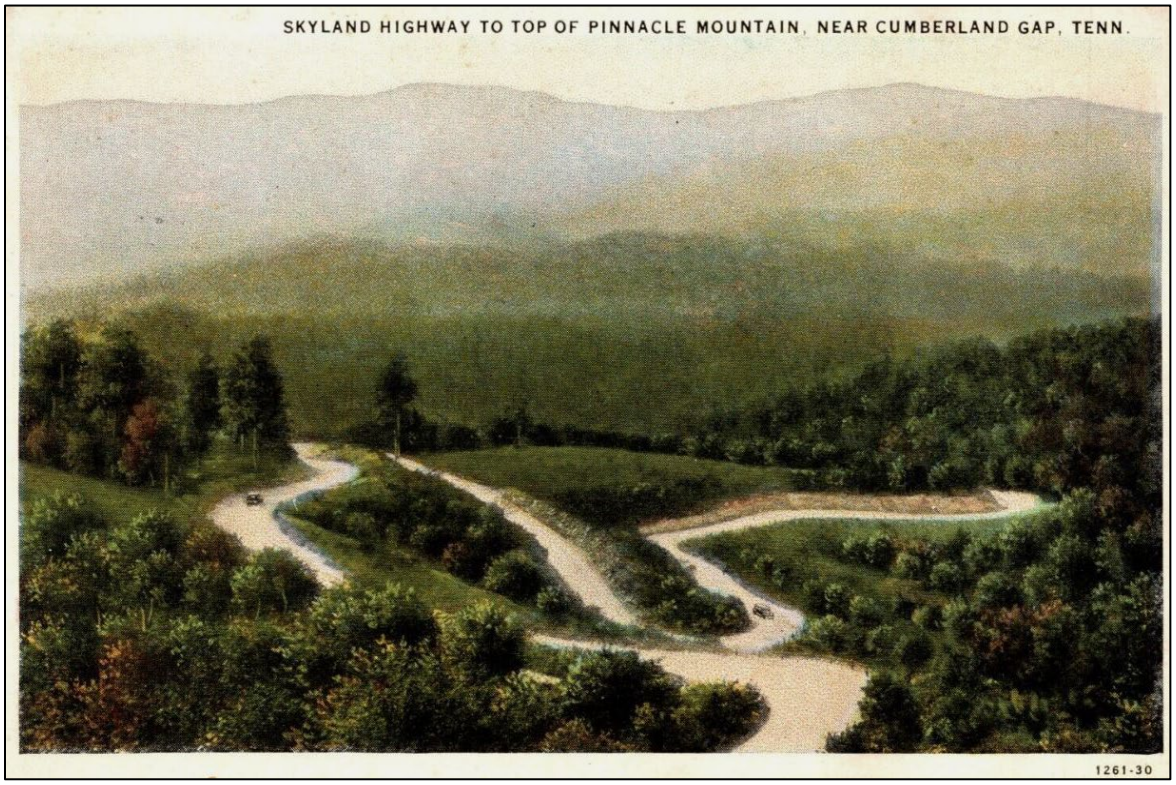


Figure 82. Postcard showing Skyland Road, ca. 1930s (Image courtesy of Comer's Drug Store, Cumberland Gap, Tennessee).

Tourism-related Infrastructure on the Skyland Road

Following the completion of the Skyland Road, an ambitious building program was planned to construct additional infrastructure for motorists visiting the Pinnacle. Benches, tables, and ovens were to be constructed for picnickers at the top of the mountain, and a filling station, "tearoom and dance pavilion" were proposed for construction in the saddle of the Gap, at the foot of the

new highway (*The Harlan Daily Enterprise* 1929). At the Pinnacle, a "rustic three-story hotel" was planned, as well as an aerial tramway, which would carry tourists from the Pinnacle to the Tri-State Peak (*The Harlan Daily Enterprise* 1929). Despite the enthusiasm of the early promoters of the Skyland Road, the actual infrastructure constructed along the roadway was much more modest than initially planned. Near the saddle of the Gap, the Skyland Company constructed a filling station and replica blockhouse on the south side of U.S. Highway 25E, across from a small souvenir shop and archway leading to the top of the Pinnacle (Figure 83 and Figure 84) (Wiley 2014).

Primitive facilities for tourists were also constructed at the top of the Pinnacle, which initially consisted of an unpaved parking area, electric lights, and water (Figure 85) (*The Courier-Journal* 1929). A small wooden lookout platform and spotlight, which was reportedly visible for at least 50 miles, were also constructed at the Pinnacle during the 1930s (*The Courier-Journal* 1929). Although visitors to the Pinnacle no longer had to endure the steep hike from the highway, they still had to climb over numerous rocks and boulders to reach the wooden viewing platform (Figure 86) (Wiley 2014). In 1936, the Skyland Company installed high powered telescopes at the Pinnacle to "add to the intriguing views" (*Middlesboro Daily News* 1936b).

From the beginning, the Skyland Road to the Pinnacle proved to be a wildly popular attraction within the Tri-State region. Over Labor Day weekend in 1929, there were 1,186 visitors to the Pinnacle and more than 3,600 vehicles passed over the saddle of the Gap (*Harlan Daily Enterprise* 1929). Together, the Skyland Road and the Pinnacle remained one of the most highly visited and widely publicized attractions within the Cumberland Gap region throughout the 1930s and 1940s.

Figure 83. Photograph showing the filling station and blockhouse with a sign pointing across the road to the Pinnacle, ca. 1930s (Image courtesy of Wiley 2014).

Figure 84. Photograph showing the entrance to Skyland Road with souvenir shop and archway, ca. 1930s (Image courtesy of the Cumberland Gap Broadcasting Company [https://www.angelfire.com/ky2/cumberlandgapbc/mhpage/pinnacleentrance10.jpg]).

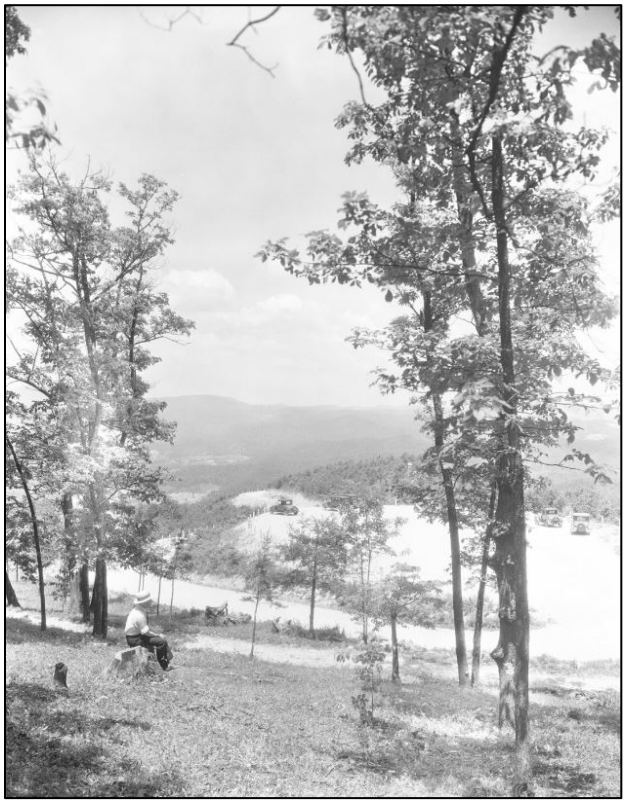


Figure 85. Photograph showing a man sitting on a stump overlooking the Pinnacle Parking area, ca. 1930 (Image courtesy of Caufield and Shook Collection, University of Louisville, Photographic Archives, Louisville).

Figure 86. Photograph showing the wooden overlook platform at the Pinnacle, ca. 1940s (Image courtesy of Tennessee Department of Conservation Photograph Collection, 1937–1976, Tennessee State Library and Archives, Nashville, Tennessee).

Politics of Park Establishment

Beginning in the 1920s, local boosters in Middlesboro, Kentucky joined a regional movement dedicated to the creation of a national park in the Southern Appalachian Mountains. The movement to establish a park at the Cumberland Gap was largely driven by business leaders from Middlesboro, who were eager to diversify the local economy and reduce the region's dependence on coal production (Sirna 2015). Officials from LMU were also strong proponents of the park's establishment, which they hoped would "nationalize" the university, enabling it to become "a mecca for Lincoln lovers the world over" (*Middlesboro Daily News* 1923).

Facing pressure from his constituents in Middlesboro, Rep. John Robison (R-KY) submitted a series of bills for the establishment of a national park at Cumberland Gap beginning in February 1923 (*Middlesboro Daily News* 1923a). As initially envisioned, the park would serve as a memorial to President Abraham Lincoln and would include 17,000 acres of virgin forest centered on the Cumberland Gap and Pinnacle Mountain (*Middlesboro Daily News* 1923b). Trustees from LMU offered to donate 2,700 acres for the park's establishment, with park boosters from Middlesboro and Cumberland Gap pledging to secure title to the remaining acreage (*The Chattanooga News* 1923). Although the establishment of the park was widely supported in the local community, the region's rich mineral deposits complicated early planning efforts and the bills were not enacted (Tinney 1965).

Still, Robison's support for the project caught the attention of federal officials, including U.S. Secretary of the Interior Dr. Hubert Work. In May 1923, Dr. Work visited the Cumberland Gap

for the first time, where he took a scenic drive over the Skyland Road and viewed the many impressive sights in the region. Following his tour, Work expressed that he "would do anything in his power to see that the dreams of those behind the [park] movement are realized" (*The Journal and Tribune* 1923).

The following year, in 1924, Work formed the Southern Appalachian Park Commission to determine the feasibility of a national park in the Southern Appalachian Mountains. In November 1924, Maj. William Welch, a member of the Appalachian Park Commission, visited Cumberland Gap to evaluate the region's suitability as a national park. Welch had a less favorable impression of the area, reporting that the considerable number of mineral resources in the region would make federal land acquisition impractical (Sirna 2015). As a result of the Commission's assessment, officials with the National Park Service threw their support behind the establishment of other national parks located in Appalachia, including Shenandoah, Great Smoky Mountains, and Mammoth Cave, all of which were authorized in 1926.

Park boosters in Kentucky were discouraged by the Commission's findings; however, they quickly shifted their focus to the growing state park movement that was beginning to gain traction across the country. In October 1926, the state established Pine Mountain State Park, located in Pineville, as its first official state park (Sirna 2015). The park included 2,000 acres to the east of Pine Mountain, approximately 10 miles northwest of Cumberland Gap. Although local leaders continued to push for the establishment of a national park in the Tri-state area for the next decade, it was not until the late 1930s that President Franklin Roosevelt's New Deal program made the development of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park a reality (Sirna 2015).

Following the passage of the Historic Sites Act of 1935, the National Park Service again sent a team of inspectors to survey Cumberland Gap and evaluate its suitability as a potential park site (Sirna 2015). In 1937, the National Park Service's regional office in Richmond, Virginia recommended that the area surrounding the Cumberland Gap be set aside "as a historical park, monument, or historic site" depending on the amount of land available (*The Harlan Daily Enterprise* 1938). If only the Gap and a portion of the old Wilderness Road leading to Cumberland Ford were acquired by the agency, then the area would be designated as a national monument; however, if more land could be acquired, it would be given national park or national historical park status (Sirna 2015).

In August 1938, Conrad Wirth of the National Park Service Branch of Land and Planning, held a public meeting at LMU with local business leaders and politicians to discuss the establishment of a national park at Cumberland Gap. As outlined by Wirth, preliminary plans for the park called for the acquisition of 50,000 acres located in the Tri-State area of Virginia, Kentucky, and Tennessee. Attendees at the meeting formed a committee—called the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park Association (CGHPA)—to promote the park's establishment within the local community. Robert L. Kincaid, Executive Vice-President of LMU, was selected to serve as the organization's president (Figure 87). Other notable members in the organization included, Howard J. Douglass, Secretary of the Middlesboro Chamber of Commerce, and local politician and business owner, Thomas B. Fugate (*The Lexington Herald* 1938). The CGHPA passed a resolution to expand the proposed park boundaries to include 80,000 to 100,000 acres and to

create an adjacent National Recreational Area (NRA), that would be located west of the Wilderness Road between Pine Mountain and Cumberland Mountain (Sirna 2015).

Figure 87. Photograph of Robert L. Kincaid and family, ca. 1940s (Image courtesy of Ancestry.com).

The proposed NRA would incorporate lands from Pine Mountain State Park and the Kentucky Ridge Development—a former Resettlement Administration (RA) project that adjoined the state park on the south (Figure 88) (Sirna 2015). The Kentucky Ridge Development was part of a rural relief initiative conducted by the RA as part of President Roosevelt's New Deal program. As part of the initiative, the federal government purchased farmland that was determined to be submarginal and provided assistance for families to resettle on better lands nearby (Blakey 1986). After the lands were retired from production, they were reforested and restored to their "original beauty and fertility" (*Middlesboro Daily News* 1936c). Although the acquisition of so much land threatened to prolong the park's establishment, local boosters felt that it was needed to compete with the other national parks that had already been established in the Southern Appalachian region (*Kentucky Advocate* 1938).

Officials with the National Park Service felt that the lands included as part of the NRA were too heavily mineralized and would pose significant challenges for land acquisition; however, they elected to include the NRA lands in the original park bill to appease local boosters (Sirna 2015). In February 1939, bills proposing the establishment of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park were introduced to Congress by Rep. John Robison and Sen. Marvel M. Logan (D-KY). As initially proposed, the park would include 120,000 acres located in Whitley, Bell, and Harlan counties in Kentucky, Lee County, Virginia, and Claiborne County, Tennessee (*Lexington Herald-Leader* 1939). Unfortunately, both bills died in committee. That September, Rep. John W. Flannagan (D-VA) introduced another bill for the park's establishment, which was subsequently rejected by the Office of Budget.

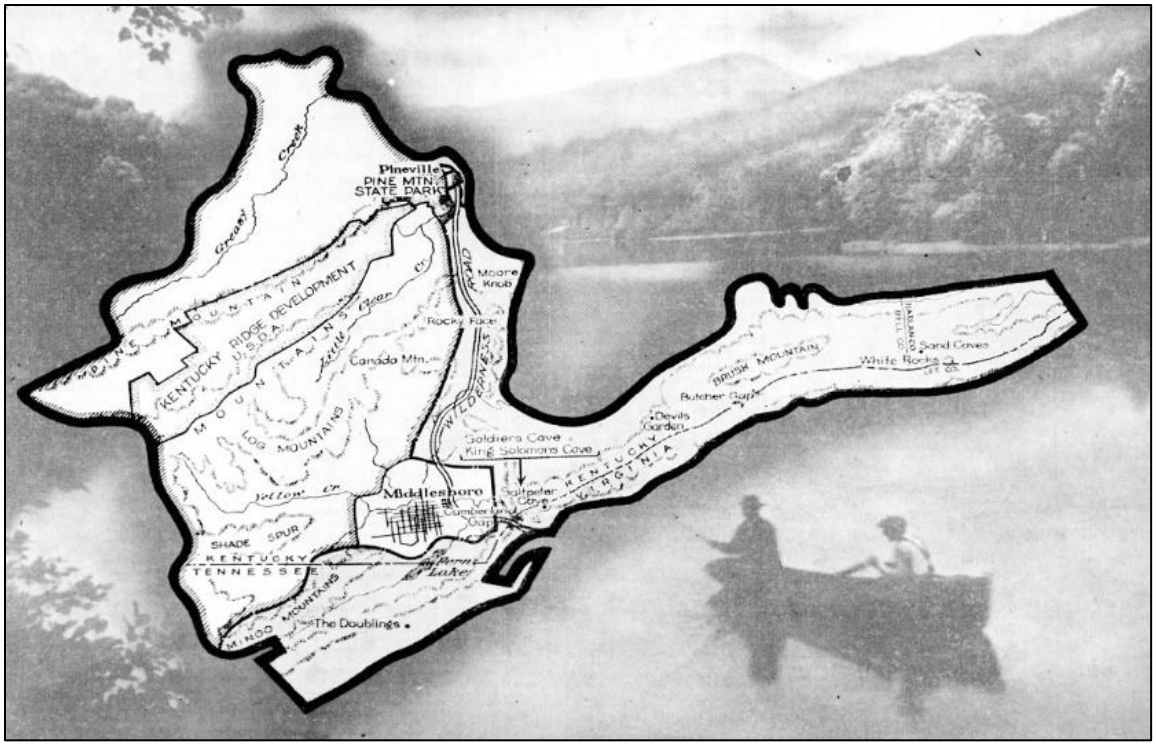


Figure 88. Original boundaries proposed for Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, showing the location of Pine Mountain State Park and the Kentucky Ridge Development (Image courtesy of *The Courier-Journal*, October 22, 1938).

The following year, Flannagan submitted a revised bill—H.R. 9394—which omitted the controversial acreage included as part of the NRA (Sirna 2015). The new bill passed the Senate in May 1940 and Cumberland Gap National Historical Park was officially authorized by President Roosevelt the following month. The bill stipulated that in order for the park to be established no more than 50,000 acres in Virginia, Kentucky, and Tennessee would be donated at no expense to the federal government (*The Kentucky Post and Times-Star* 1940).

KNOWN RESOURCE TYPES

Roadside Attractions

Throughout the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, several notable roadside attractions were established at the Cumberland Gap to appeal to tourists and sightseers visiting the region. Early attractions consisted of both natural features that were improved by local entrepreneurs, as well as manufactured sites that were erected to commemorate important historic events that occurred in the region. There are three roadside attractions located within the current boundaries that pre-date the development of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. These attractions include Cudjo's Cave (now known as Gap Cave) (CUGA00062.000), the Daniel Boone D.A.R. Marker (91404) (Photograph 16), and the Indian Rock D.A.R. Marker (91403). All three of these resources are included within the NRHP-listed Cumberland Gap Historic District Virginia/Kentucky/Tennessee. Both the Daniel Boone D.A.R. Marker (91404) and the Indian Rock D.A.R. Marker (91403) were listed as contributing properties to the district, while Cudjo's Cave (Gap Cave) (CUGA00062.000) was listed as a non-contributing property.

Photograph 16. Daniel Boone D.A.R. Marker (91404), facing west (North Wind 2023).

Roads

Although road construction served as the primary catalyst for the development of the tourism industry at the Cumberland Gap, only one road associated with early tourism efforts in the region has been identified within the current park boundaries. As initially constructed in 1929, the Skyland Road consisted of an approximately two-mile-long toll road that stretched from the saddle of the Cumberland Gap to the top of the Pinnacle (Photograph 17). Under the Mission 66 program, a new 1.5-mile-long road segment was added from the western terminus of Skyland Road to the new visitor center.

In 2023, the historic portion of the roadway was evaluated for NRHP eligibility based on its association with the Mission 66 program and was recommended as a contributing resource to the Pinnacle Road Circulation Corridor Historic District (Fulwood and Rayle 2023). However, the road has not been evaluated for NRHP eligibility under the context of pre-park tourism developments at the Cumberland Gap.

Tourist Hotels/Cabins

Accommodations for tourists at the Cumberland Gap were typically located along U.S. Highway 25E, which served as the primary transportation route for automobile tourists traveling through the Tri-State region. Within the current park boundaries, the Cumberland Mountain Hotel (CUGA00055.000) represents the remains of one of the most substantial hotel complexes constructed in the region in the early twentieth century (Photograph 18). The site has not been evaluated for listing in the NRHP.

Photograph 17. Current view of a segment of Pinnacle Road (formerly Skyland Road) that follows its original alignment, facing southeast (North Wind 2023).

Photograph 18. Architectural remains of the Cumberland Mountain Hotel (CUGA00055.000), facing west (North Wind 2023).

Miscellaneous Tourism-Related Infrastructure

In addition to the resource types already mentioned, there are also several miscellaneous resources that are likely associated with early tourism efforts at the Cumberland Gap. These resources include Sky Walls (CUGA00138.000), the Skyland Outbuilding (CUGA00217.000), and the Pinnacle Privy (CUGA00206.000) (see Photograph 19, Photograph 20, and Photograph 21). All these resources are archaeological sites that are located in close proximity to the Pinnacle or the historic alignment of Skyland Road. None of these three sites have been evaluated for inclusion in the NRHP.

NRHP Eligibility for Pre-Park Tourism-Related Infrastructure

Pre-park tourism developments at the Cumberland Gap have not been thoroughly studied and future research will likely reveal new resource types associated with this era of the park's development. As these properties represent individually distinguishable entities located at disparate locations throughout the park, they should be evaluated individually for NRHP eligibility (Figure 89). As most of the properties, including the Cumberland Mountain Hotel (CUGA00055.000), Sky Walls (CUGA00138.000), Skyland Outbuilding (CUGA00217.000), and the Pinnacle Privy (CUGA00206.000), are currently in a deteriorated and/or ruined condition, they should be evaluated according to the guidance provided by *National Register Bulletin 36: Guidelines for Evaluating and Registering Archaeological Properties* (Little et al. 2000). Additionally, commemorative properties, such as the Daniel Boone D.A.R. Marker (91404) and the Indian Rock D.A.R. Marker (91403), should be evaluated for NRHP eligibility under Criteria Consideration F.

Photograph 19. Sky Walls (CUGA00138.000), facing southeast (North Wind 2023).

Photograph 20. Skyland Outbuilding (CUGA00217.000), facing southeast (North Wind 2023).

Photograph 21. Pinnacle Privy (CUGA00206.000), facing northeast (North Wind 2023).

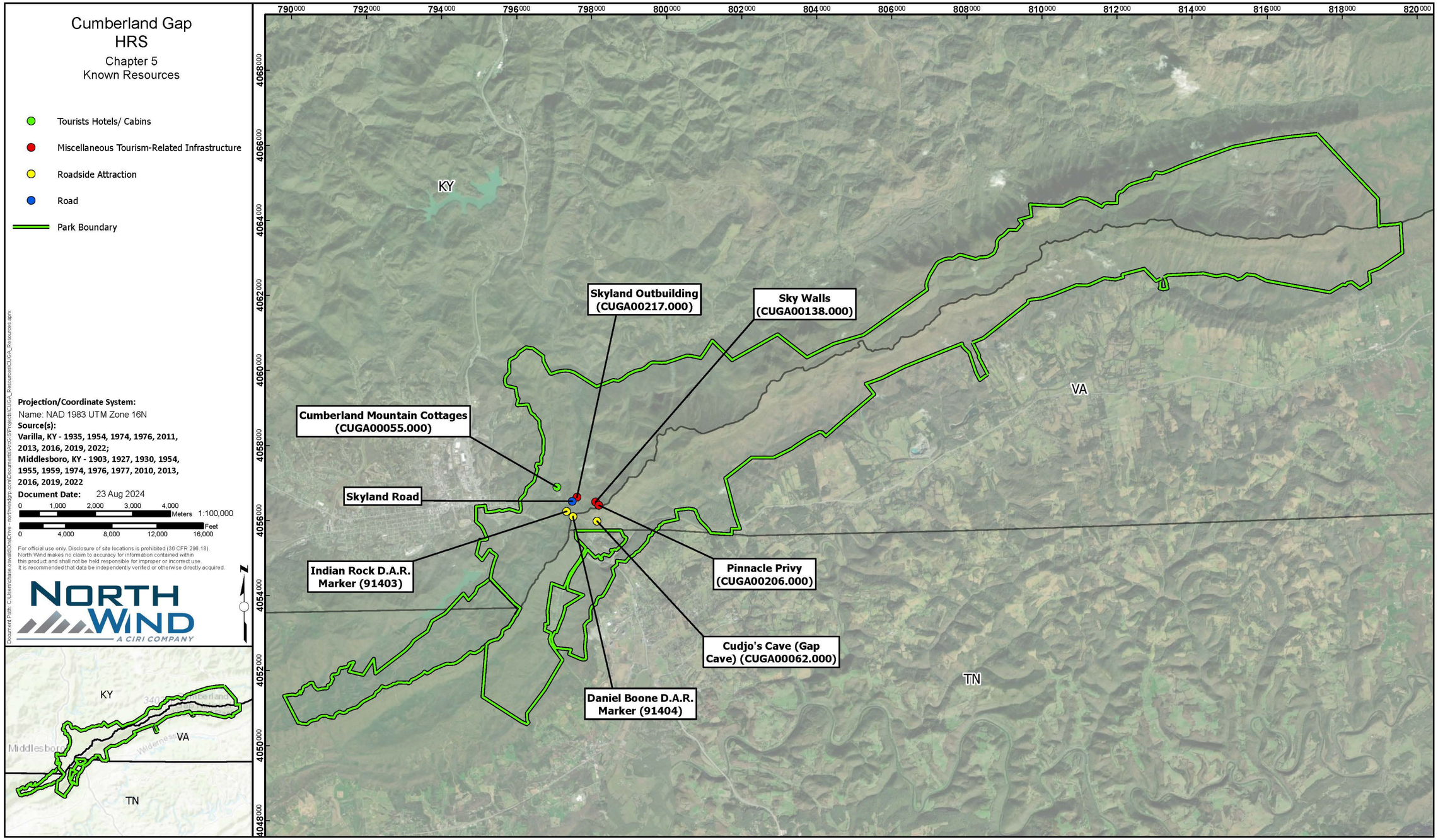


Figure 89. Chapter 5 Known Resources.

CHAPTER SIX: ESTABLISHMENT OF CUMBERLAND GAP NATIONAL HISTORICAL PARK AND THE MISSION 66 PROGRAM

LAND ACQUISITION AND PARK ESTABLISHMENT

As initially passed, the bill authorizing the establishment of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park called for a maximum park boundary of 50,000 acres (*The State Journal* 1940). The land area that each state was required to donate varied considerably, with Virginia and Tennessee expected to contribute just 10,000 acres each, while Kentucky was obligated to provide the remaining 30,000 acres (*Bristol Herald Courier* 1941). Located within this large area were several notable natural and historical features, including the Cumberland Gap, the Pinnacle, Cudjo's Cave (Gap Cave), Devil's Garden, Sand Cave, the Doublings, White Rocks, Mingo Mountain, Fern Lake, and a 20-mile-long stretch of the Wilderness Road that extended all the way from the Gap to Pineville, Kentucky (*The Knoxville Journal* 1941).

At first, each of the three states were reluctant to purchase property for the park until the other states had also committed to doing so (Sirna 2015). For example, although the Tennessee legislature appropriated $75,000 for land acquisition and survey in July 1941, the appropriation was "contingent on similar action by the other two states" (*Bristol Herald Courier* 1941). That October, Virginia also approved a conditional appropriation of $75,000 to cover the cost of land acquisition, surveys, and title examinations but withheld additional funding until "proper cooperation is received from…Kentucky and Tennessee" (*Kingsport Times* 1941). In May 1942, Kentucky made a two-year appropriation of $150,000; however, the legality of the appropriation was challenged by the state's own attorney general on the grounds that there was "no suggestion or intimation as to the amount of land to be purchased…or the price to be paid" (*Park City Daily News* 1942).

The following month, in June 1942, the Kentucky National Park Commission urged the establishment of a "Tri-State Pact," that would compel all three states to purchase the acreage required for the park's establishment (*The Courier-Journal* 1942). The members of the commission also adopted a resolution requesting that the National Park Service submit a map showing the minimum amount of territory that could be accepted in order for the area to become a national park. In May 1943, President Roosevelt signed a new bill, known as H.R. 1896, which reduced the required acreage necessary for the park's establishment to 6,000 acres and excluded several geographic features that had either been destroyed by highway construction or were found to contain expensive timber or mineral deposits needed to support the war effort (*The Knoxville News-Sentinel* 1943). Noteworthy features removed from the proposed park boundaries included Mingo Mountain, the Doublings, and the 4,500-acre Fern Lake watershed. That August, the governors of Kentucky, Tennessee, and Virginia met at the top of the Tri-State Peak to sign an interstate compact, in which they agreed to purchase the lands required for the park's establishment (Figure 90). Under the new agreement, each state was required to contribute approximately 2,000 acres.

3 Governors Where 3 States Meet

Gov. Colgate Darden of Virginia, bareheaded, is standing in Virginia. At his right, Gov. Keen Johnson of Kentucky is standing in ol' Kentucky, and there's Gov. Prentice Cooper of Tennessee standing in Tennessee. Their get-together was to push plans to make Cumberland Gap a national park.

Figure 90. Photograph of the Governors of Kentucky, Tennessee, and Virginia meeting at the Tri-State Peak, ca. 1943. Note the concrete Tri-State Marker located at their feet. This geodetic marker replaced the old cornerstone marker in 1934 (Image courtesy of *The Courier-Journal*, September 5, 1943).

By September 1943, efforts at park establishment were already well underway in the Tri-State region, with each state adopting a slightly different approach to the land acquisition process. In Tennessee, land acquisition was overseen by the Tennessee Department of Conservation with the assistance of Dr. Robert Kincaid (Sirna 2015). Efforts to acquire park lands in Tennessee were simplified by the lack of development in the area and the small number of landowners involved in the transactions. Only two major property owners—LMU and the American Association—owned the vast majority of the Tennessee lands, and both were eager to sell (Sirna 2015). Eighty five percent of the required acreage in Tennessee was purchased from the American Association in July 1945 (*Bristol Herald Courier* 1945). The purchase included a large tract of undeveloped woodland, encompassing 1,800 acres on the Tennessee side of Cumberland Gap. The purchase price for the tract was just $12,000—or less than one-sixth of the $75,000 appropriated by the state legislature for the purpose of land acquisition. At the time, the state only needed 200 more acres to meet their 2,000-acre requirement. The remaining land area included 100 acres owned by LMU and 100 more owned by "individual residents of the Cumberland Gap section" (*The Knoxville Journal* 1945). While LMU readily sold its remaining acreage, it retained ownership of Cudjo's Cave, a tourist attraction that the university continued to operate near the saddle of the Gap (Figure 91) (Sirna 2015). The National Park Service agreed to a special deed reservation that allowed LMU to retain control of the cave, as well as its water rights, openings, and trail system (Sirna 2015).

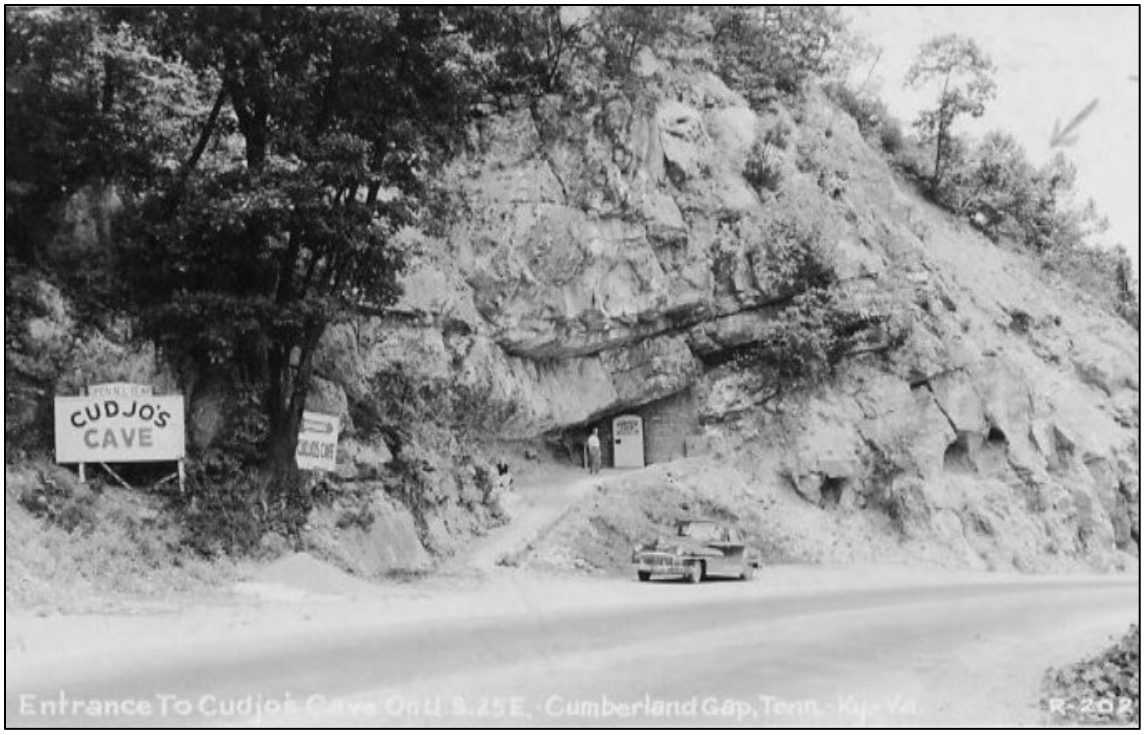


Figure 91. Cudjo's Cave as it appeared at the time of the park's establishment, ca. 1940s (Image courtesy of the Cumberland Gap Broadcasting Company [https://www.angelfire.com/ky2/cumberlandgapbc/mhpage/cudjoes1.jpg]).

Unlike Tennessee, the land acquisition process in Kentucky and Virginia proved to be a much more complex and protracted undertaking. In Kentucky, land acquisition was overseen by the Kentucky National Park Commission—a state organization that had been established in 1928 to manage the land acquisition process for Mammoth Cave National Park. The Commission appointed Howard J. Douglass of Middlesboro to function as its lead purchasing agent for property on the Kentucky side of Cumberland Gap. Douglass, a member of the CGHPA, was also the former manager of the Hotel Cumberland and acting Secretary of the Middlesboro Chamber of Commerce (Figure 92). With the Commission's support, Douglass met with property owners, arranged appraisals, and negotiated prices for each parcel located within the proposed park boundaries (Sirna 2015). Following a precedent set by the Kentucky National Park Commission during the Mammoth Cave project, if a fair price could not be reached, Douglass did not hesitate to initiate condemnation proceedings in order to acquire the necessary lands for the park (Sirna 2015).

Throughout the 1940s, Douglass worked tirelessly to secure title to all of the Kentucky lands situated within the proposed park boundaries. He initially focused on the acquisition of the most important tracts, such as the Skyland Highway and Pinnacle. In December 1943, Douglass was able to purchase both properties from the Skyland Company for a cost of just $51,500 (*The Lexington Herald* 1943). Douglass also filed numerous condemnation suits against several local businesses who were reluctant to sell, including the Schneider Meat Packing Plant, the Cumberland Mountain Hotel and Cottages, and the Harris Tourist Courts.

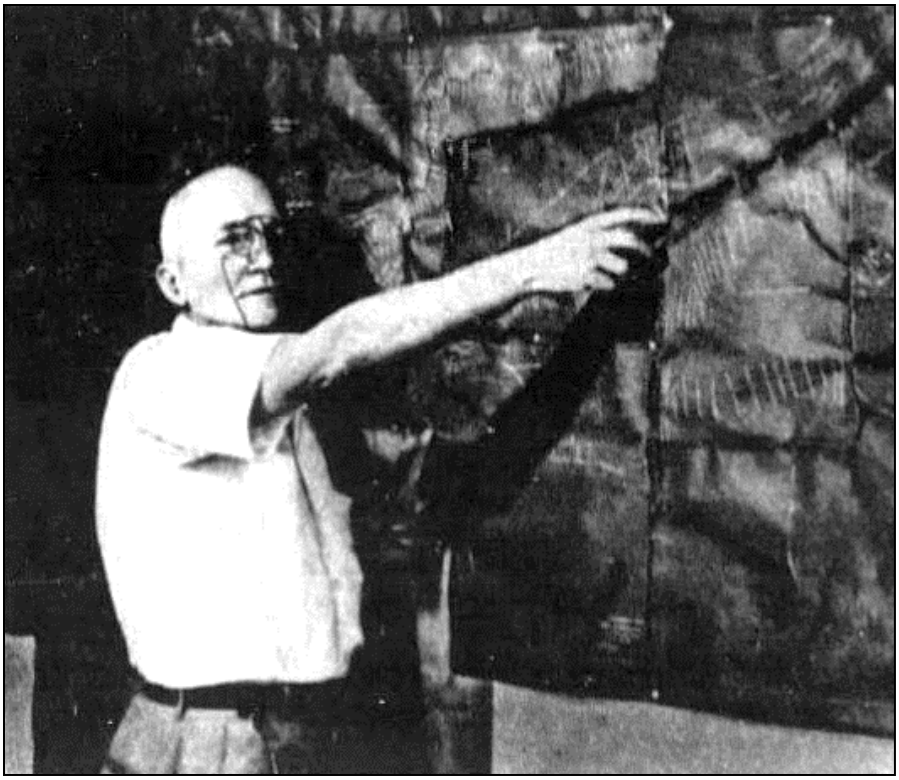


Figure 92. Photograph of the Howard J. Douglass with survey blueprints for Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, ca. 1950 (Image courtesy of *The Courier-Journal*, September 3, 1950).

In November 1946, as part of the condemnation proceedings against the Cumberland Mountain Hotel, the Kentucky National Park Commission asserted that a reasonable value for the 4.23-acre hotel property was $69,523. An exception brief was filed in response to the Commission's assessment, in which the federal government suggested that the correct price for the property was just $21,150. Both amounts were considerably lower than the $118,000 asking price of the American Association, prompting the company to request a trial by jury to settle the issue (*Lexington Herald-Leader* 1946). Although the court initially awarded the American Association, and the property's lessee Fred Seale, $140,000 for the Cumberland Mountain Hotel property, the Park Commission was able to negotiate the price down to just $100,000 by offering to extend Seale's lease on the property until January 1957 (Sirna 2015). The Commission employed a similar strategy for the purchase of the Harris Tourist Courts, offering $60,000 for the property and allowing the owners to continue leasing the motel for a period of ten years (Sirna 2015).

The Kentucky National Park Commission also developed innovative strategies to augment state funding for land acquisition. For example, the Commission often allowed property owners to rent their properties until the land could be officially transferred to the National Park Service, using the income from rentals to bolster the land acquisition fund. Funding for land acquisition was also supplemented by the collection of tolls from motorists along the Skyland Road. Using these aggressive tactics, Douglass reported that 43 percent of the required tracts located in Kentucky had been purchased by 1945 (*Middlesboro Daily News* 1945).

On the other hand, land acquisition in Virginia got off to a sluggish start in the 1940s. Acquisition of park lands in Virginia was overseen by the Virginia Department of Conservation and Development, headed by William A. Wright. The Governor of Virginia also appointed local Congressman Thomas B. Fugate (D-VA) to assist in purchasing the necessary lands for the park. Fugate was a native of Tazewell, Tennessee, and member of the CGHPA. In 1948, Fugate was selected to replace Rep. John W. Flannagan (D-VA) as the representative of Virginia's Ninth Congressional District. A lifelong resident of the Tri-State region, he had a personal stake in the park's establishment. Unfortunately, Fugate encountered difficulties obtaining clear titles to the lands on the Virginia side of the Cumberland Gap and his personal relationships with landowners in Lee County made him reluctant to pursue condemnation proceedings in the region (*Middlesboro Daily News* 1949). In 1949, with land acquisition in Virginia still lagging far behind the other two states, Fugate reached out to Howard Douglass for assistance with the state's land acquisition efforts (Sirna 2015).

Douglass had proven incredibly successful in his pursuit of park lands in Kentucky, acquiring clear title to more than 150 separate parcels by 1950 (*Courier-Journal* 1950). When he took over as purchasing agent for the State of Virginia, land acquisition in Tennessee had already been concluded and Kentucky was awaiting judgements on three tracts that involved less than 100 acres (Sirna 2015). In Virginia, there were 32 tracts to be purchased, totaling more 1,000 acres (*Courier-Journal* 1950). Similar to his experience in Kentucky, many of the landowners that Douglass encountered in Virginia were reluctant to sell, either because of a personal affinity for the land or a belief that there was commercial value in the property. In response, Douglass utilized many of the same tactics that he had employed in his home state, including filing condemnation suits against local landowners. Of the 118 tracts on the Virginia side of Cumberland Gap that were ultimately incorporated into the park boundaries, 54 were acquired through condemnation (Sirna 2015). Among the tracts in Virginia that were particularly difficult to acquire was the property of B. L. O'Dell, who owned a residence and filling station along U.S. Highway 25E, on the Virginia side of the Cumberland Gap (Sirna 2015).

In March 1951, Douglass acquired the title to the last tract in Virginia. Deeds for the park were transferred to the National Park Service in May 1952 and approved in 1954 (Sirna 2015). On the Kentucky side of the Gap, settlement of the three remaining condemnation suits was not finalized until January 1955 (*The Post* 1955). The lengthy land acquisition process was finally completed that September when the park was officially accepted by the federal government (Sirna 2018). Of the 20,100 acres included in the boundaries of the new park, Kentucky had contributed approximately 10,700 acres, Virginia had contributed approximately 7,400 acres, and Tennessee had donated 2,000 acres. The total cost of the project was $1.25 million, with Kentucky bearing the greatest cost for the park's establishment—at $750,000. The Interior Department established Cumberland Gap National Historical Park on September 14, 1955. Fortunately, the park's transfer to the National Park Service coincided with the beginning of the Mission 66 program—a period of accelerated park development that followed WWII.

Planning a Park at Cumberland Gap

As land acquisition finally came to a close at Cumberland Gap in the mid-1950s, National Park Service planners utilized funding from the Mission 66 initiative to expand the park's existing

infrastructure. The Mission 66 program was a 10-year parks improvement program that was devised by National Park Service Director Conrad Wirth in 1955. The program was intended to dramatically expand park infrastructure and visitor facilities in order to accommodate the massive growth in tourism that had been overwhelming America's national parks for more than a decade. As proposed, the Mission 66 program would allow the National Park Service to repair and build roads, hire additional employees, and construct new park facilities for visitor use (Allaback 2000). In addition to new construction, the program also included a sweeping overhaul to the planning, interpretative, and educational goals of the agency.

National Park Service planners at Cumberland Gap utilized Mission 66 funding to develop a new master plan for the park. Planners incorporated many ideas from earlier New Deal era plans that had been postponed during land acquisition, including the construction of modern visitor facilities and trails, restoration of portions of the Wilderness Road, and the removal of almost all evidence of modern human habitation to recreate an idealized eighteenth-century landscape at the park (Sirna 2015). While Cumberland Gap may have been new to the national park system, the area had already experienced a significant amount of modern development prior to the National Park Service's acquisition of the site. An existing conditions map prepared in 1955 for the Cumberland Gap area shows the buildings and other infrastructure that were present at the park prior to its Mission 66-era development (Figure 93).

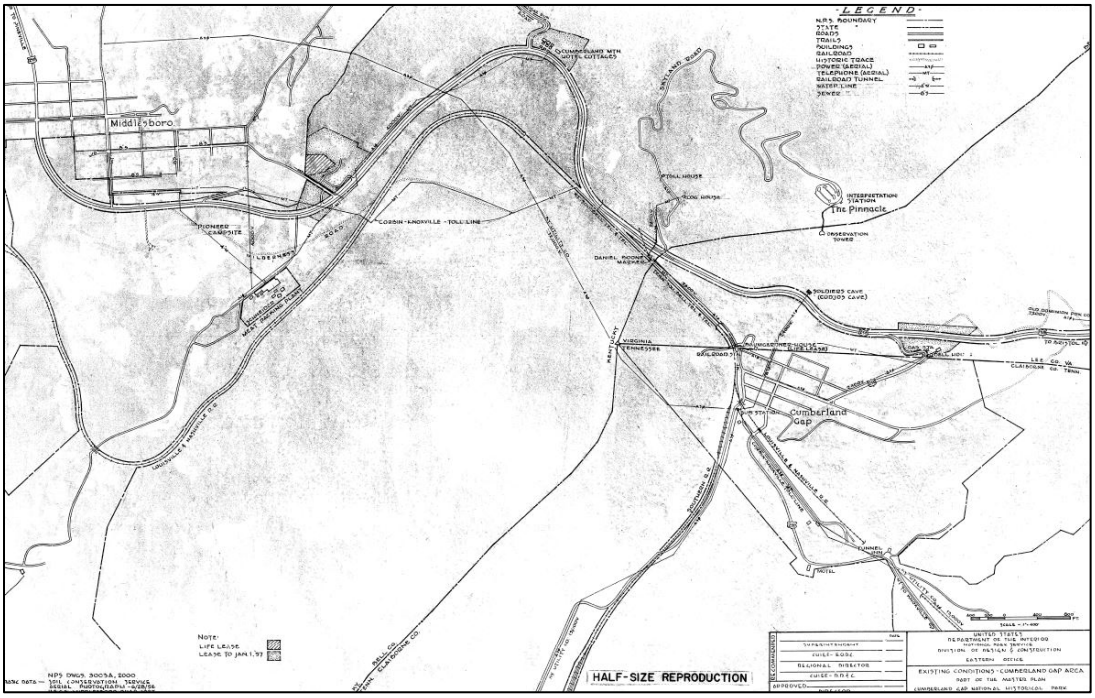


Figure 93. Excerpt from the 1955 Existing Conditions Map for Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, showing its layout shortly after it was transferred to the National Park Service and before its Mission 66-era development (Image on file at eTIC [no. 547310-CUGA_380_3008B]).

Modern highways, including U.S. Highway 25E, had already been constructed through the Gap, and numerous motels, gas stations, restaurants, and tourist shops were scattered throughout the area (Sirna 2018). Notable attractions depicted on the 1955 map, included the Pinnacle, which

boasted an observation tower and parking lot, Cudjo's Cave, the Daniel Boone D.A.R. Marker, and a "pioneer campsite" situated in the approximate location of the future Visitor Center. Skyland Road was shown extending from the saddle of the Gap to the Pinnacle, with a toll house and "log house" depicted on the east side of the roadway. Additionally, the map indicated that the Cumberland Mountain Hotel and Cottages, Harris Tourist Courts, and O'Dell House remained under lease until January 1957.

Mission 66 development plans sought to utilize and expand on the park's existing infrastructure. In February 1956, an article published in the *Hancock County News* summarized the improvements that were expected as part of the park's Mission 66-era development. According to the article, the Skyland Road would be improved and parking at the Pinnacle would be increased from 20 to 90 vehicles. An information shelter would be constructed at the Pinnacle and the existing observation tower would be replaced with a more substantial stone structure. It was initially expected that a "fee of probably 50c will be charged per car for trips to the Pinnacle" (*Hancock County News* 1956). A general clean-up was also planned for the area of the Cumberland Mountain Hotel, which was initially proposed for use as a "temporary park headquarters" (Figure 94) (*Hancock County News* 1956).

Figure 94. Photograph of the Cumberland Mountain Hotel property after its condemnation, ca. 1957 (Image courtesy of Sirna 2015).

A development plan prepared by the National Park Service in August 1956 illustrates the scope of the improvements that were officially proposed under the Mission 66 program (Figure 95). According to the plan, proposed improvements included the construction of Pinnacle View Road, which would extend south from U.S. Highway 25E in Middlesboro to the site of a new Visitor Center before turning northeast to eventually merge with the existing alignment of Skyland Road. Interpretative stations and parking overlooks were also planned along the new route. Additional improvements included the construction of a "lunching area" and overlook near the

Pinnacle, as well as a trail, known as the Ridge Trail, which would stretch from the Pinnacle to Salt Petre Cave. While plans to relocate and tunnel U.S. Highway 25E through the Gap had long been endorsed by early park promoters, Mission 66-era planners reiterated the importance of tunnel construction which they felt would restore the region's natural appearance and offer better traffic control through the saddle of the Gap (Sirna 2015). While the 1956 development plan does not depict a tunnel, it does show a proposed alternative route of U.S. Highway 25E which turns southwest to bypass the town of Cumberland Gap. This bypass was ultimately constructed ten years later, in 1966. The Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area are also notably absent from the 1956 development plan.

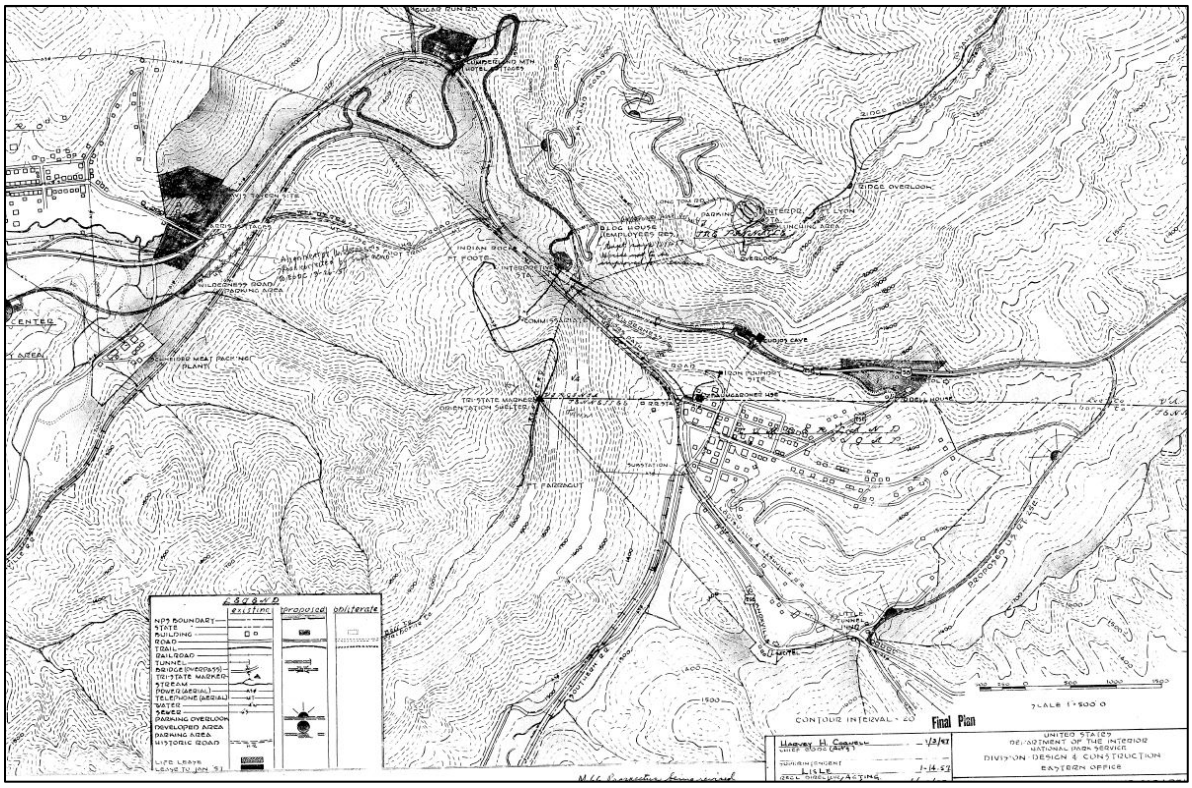


Figure 95. Excerpt from the 1956 Development Plan for Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, showing the proposed Mission 66 redevelopment (Image on file at eTIC [no. 41187-CUGA_380_3003D]).

In 1956, the first year of the Mission 66 initiative, appropriations for Cumberland Gap amounted to just $193,990, which were used to hire a permanent staff, finalize boundary issues, engage in community outreach, and remove remaining buildings and lessees from the park (Sirna 2015). Millard Dean Guy was selected to serve as the park's first superintendent, with a temporary headquarters established in a hotel room at the Hotel Cumberland in Middlesboro (Wiley 2014) (Figure 96). Guy was joined by a small staff that included a secretary, a maintenance worker, an engineer, historian, and clerk stenographer (Sirna 2015). Although planners had initially intended to use the Cumberland Mountain Hotel as a temporary headquarters for the park, this idea was ultimately abandoned due to the hotel's dangerous location on U.S. Highway 25E. Instead, in 1957, administrative staff were relocated to the O'Dell House, which was situated on a much safer section of the highway (Figure 97).

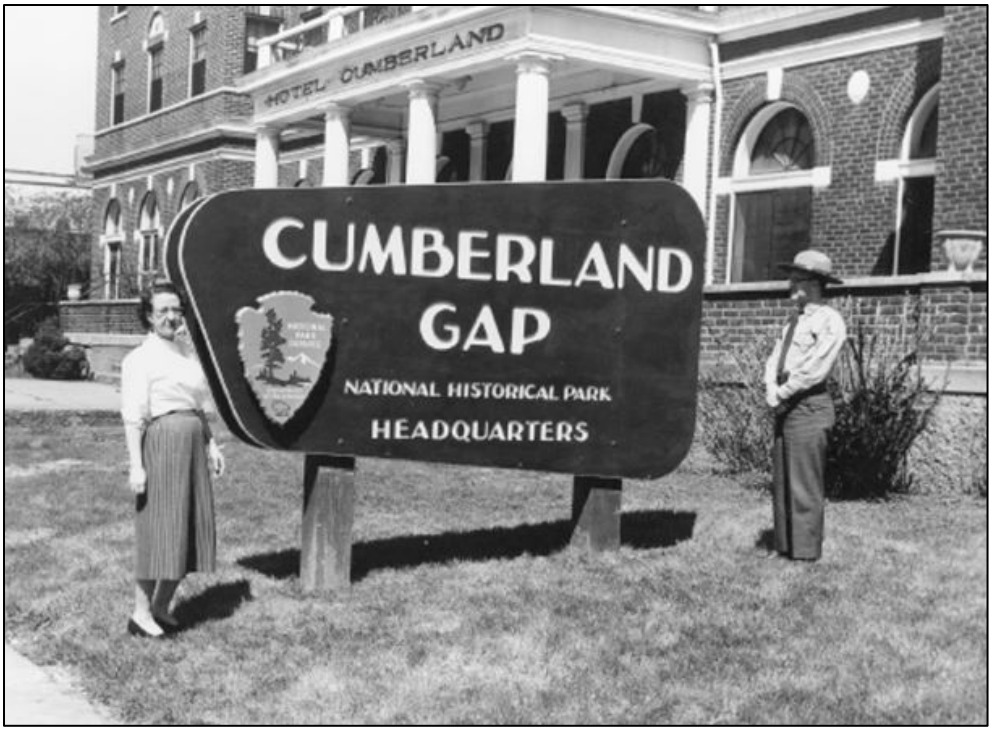


Figure 96. Photograph of the Superintendent's secretary, Virginia Huff, and park historian, Hobart "Hobie" Cawood, in front of the temporary park headquarters at the Hotel Cumberland, date unknown (Image courtesy of Wiley 2014).

Figure 97. Photograph of the O'Dell House, ca. 1957. This location served as the temporary park headquarters from 1957 until 1959 (Image courtesy of Tennessee Department of Conservation Photograph Collection, 1937–1976, Tennessee State Library and Archives, Nashville, Tennessee).

While the park remained closed to the public during this time, planners also began working on a prospectus for its interpretation. The Mission 66 prospectus, finalized in 1959, attempted to offer visitors a more comprehensive explanation of the park's history, including information about Civil War activities and industrial development in the Gap. Regarding improvements, the prospectus emphasized the park's development as a day-use only area, and provided only limited information about proposed road, trail, and parking areas (CUGA 1959a). According to the prospectus, Mission 66 was expected to "…bring about the transformation of the park from a status of largely inaccessible and almost unenjoyable assets to an area easily visited and providing an inspiring experience" (CUGA 1959a).

Building the Park: Initial Improvements at Cumberland Gap Under Mission 66

Pinnacle Overlook

Under the Mission 66 program, the redevelopment of the Pinnacle was considered of primary importance for park officials. In February 1956, working drawings for the construction of a parking area and overlook were developed by the Eastern Office of Design and Construction (EODC) of the National Park Service (National Park Service 1956). The following month, a contract in the amount of $77,728 was awarded to the Southern Landscape Company of Maryville, Tennessee for the project's construction (*Johnson City Press* 1956). Work commenced in September 1956 in accordance with Contract Drawings NHP-CG 3011 (National Park Service 1956). Early construction was completed by July 1956 and included basic sub-grading of the existing parking area, as well as the construction of drainage structures, retaining walls, and a masonry overlook (Figure 98).

Figure 98. Pinnacle Parking Area under construction, ca. 1956 (Image reprinted from National Park Service 1956).

That October, the *Knoxville Journal* reported that the first construction project at Cumberland Gap had recently been completed (*Knoxville Journal* 1956). The project included the enlargement of the former Pinnacle Parking Area to accommodate 85 automobiles, construction of a hard-surface trail from the parking area to the Pinnacle Overlook, and the replacement of the former wooden overlook platform with "a terrace of native stone" (Figure 99) (*Knoxville Journal* 1956). The following month, an open house was held at the Pinnacle so that "the public could come and see what has been done in the park's development" since its establishment (*The Courier-Journal* 1956). During the event, more than 2,600 people visited the area—traveling in more than 841 separate vehicles (National Park Service 1956; *The Courier-Journal* 1956a).

Figure 99. Construction of the Pinnacle Overlook Terrace, taken in September 1956 (Photograph on file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky [Classification No. 978, Negative No. 2461]).

Despite the high attendance at the open house, visitors to the Pinnacle in November 1956 were able to glimpse only a small fraction of the improvements that were ultimately planned for the area. Construction continued throughout the fall, with park officials undertaking a series of improvements to modernize existing facilities and improve the visitor experience within the park. In September 1956, the National Park Service contracted with the Pineville Plumbing and Heating Company of Pineville, Kentucky to construct a new public water and sewage system for the area (National Park Service 1957). Construction on the new system involved the installation of a 2-inch water line, 10,000-gallon steel water storage tank, and 2,500-gallon septic tank. A new pump house was also constructed at the south end of Skyland Road to shelter a jet pump and other pumping equipment. The pump house was built using day labor at a cost of approximately $1,200 (National Park Service 1957a). Following the installation of the new water system,

Collingsworth and Tamer, Inc. of Middlesboro, Kentucky constructed a stone masonry drinking fountain at the Pinnacle for park visitors.

Beginning in September 1956, Collingsworth and Tamer, Inc. were also responsible for the construction of one of the most significant improvements to the Pinnacle Overlook area—the Pinnacle Interpretive Shelter and Comfort Station (National Park Service 1957b). Construction of the shelter was reportedly necessary to "provide…adequate interpretive and sanitary facilities at the Pinnacle which [was] an area of high visitor concentration" (National Park Service 1957b). The plans for the building were drafted by the EODC in June 1956, and approved by Edward Zimmer, Chief of the EODC, as well as park Superintendent Millard Guy, later that summer. The total cost of the shelter's construction was approximately $20,000 (National Park Service 1957b). According to the Mission 66 Master Plan for Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, the Pinnacle Interpretive Shelter was considered the "hub and heart of interpretive service", and its effectiveness was "largely dependent on operating…as a 'junior' visitor center" (Cumberland Gap National Historical Park 1963). Construction of the shelter was completed in February 1957 (Figure 100).

Figure 100. Postcard showing the Interpretive Shelter and Comfort Station as it appeared shortly after its construction, ca. 1960s. Note the trailside exhibits installed on the interior (Image courtesy of Walter and Co. Inc., Williamsburg, Virginia).

Skyland Road

As construction at the Pinnacle progressed, work also got underway on several other construction projects proposed under the Mission 66 program. Shortly after the open house event was held in November 1956, Skyland Road was closed to permit paving of the existing road to the Pinnacle (*Knoxville-Journal* 1956). The initial phase of improvements to the Skyland Road included

widening and surfacing the existing road, improving drainage, installing guardrails, and constructing an overlook along the roadway (National Park Service 1957c). The overlook—called the Midway Parking Overlook—was constructed on the east side of the historic Skyland Road alignment, approximately 0.75 mile west of the entrance for the Pinnacle Parking Area. Work on the first phase of road improvements was started in September 1957 and completed that August (National Park Service 1957c). The contractor for the project was the Kentucky-Virginia Stone Company of Middlesboro, with landscaping by J. A. Weddington and Son of Knoxville. The road was surfaced with bituminous concrete, with an asphalt binder and aggregate applied along the shoulder and ditches to facilitate drainage and spaced stone guardrails built along turnouts (Figure 101) (National Park Service 1957c). In September 1957, a ribbon cutting ceremony was held on the newly paved Skyland Road to formally open Cumberland Gap National Historical Park to the public (*Knoxville Journal* 1957).

Figure 101. Worker applying asphalt binder along shoulder of original segment of Pinnacle View Road (formerly Skyland Road), ca. 1957 (Image reprinted from National Park Service 1957).

As depicted in the Mission 66 development plan for the park, additional improvements proposed for Skyland Road under the Mission 66 program included the construction of a new road segment, which would extend from the end of Skyland Road to the new visitor center. For this reason, in July 1958, a second contract in the amount of $293,053, was awarded to the Kentucky-Virginia Stone Company for the grading, drainage, and surfacing of the new 1.5-mile-long extension of Skyland Road. At the same time, an additional contract for $83,644 was awarded to the R. R. Dawson Bridge Company of Bloomfield, Kentucky for the construction of a 224-foot-long reinforced concrete overpass, which would carry the new portion of the roadway over the existing alignment of U.S. Highway 25E (*The Knoxville News-Sentinel* 1958). Construction of the overpass began shortly after the contract was awarded in July 1958 (National Park Service 1958). The bridge consisted of a reinforced concrete deck girder bridge of four simple spans. The

following month, in August 1958, work was also started on the construction of the new road segment to the proposed location of the Visitor Center. While work on the bridge was completed by December 1958, the road segment would not be finished until June 1959 (National Park Service 1959).

Visitor Center

Cumberland Gap National Historical Park received its largest appropriation under the Mission 66 program in 1959, just ahead of its formal dedication that July. The $765,236 appropriation was primarily used to construct a new visitor center that would serve as the primary visitor interface for the park (Sirna 2015). The visitor center was constructed on U.S. Highway 25E, about a half of a mile from Middlesboro and was intended to be the starting point for most park visitors (Sirna 2015). The two-story, International-style building was designed by architect William Cramp Sheetz Jr. of Philadelphia. As initially constructed, the building was approximately 115,000 square feet in size and was situated partially underground to conform with its sloping site (National Park Service 1959a). The building was constructed using "reinforced concrete, concrete block lightweight steel framing, open-web joists, face stonework, face brick, porcelain enameled steel panels, large glass areas, and built-up roofing" (Figure 102 and Figure 103) (National Park Service 1959a). The interior finishes included "composition and quarry tile floors, wood and plaster walls, and acoustical and plaster ceilings" (National Park Service 1959a). The building contained a spacious lobby with an information desk and restrooms on the first floor, and a second lobby, museum with 23 exhibits, 150-seat assembly room, and an observation deck, from which visitors could observe the Gap, on the second floor (National Park Service 1959a). A separate wing of the visitor center held the administration offices that also served as the park's headquarters (National Park Service 1959a).

Figure 102. Cumberland Gap National Historical Park Visitor Center shortly after its construction, ca. 1963 (Image courtesy of Luckett 1964).

Figure 103. Postcard showing the Visitor Center shortly after its construction, ca. 1960 (Image courtesy of Walter H. Miller & Co., Inc., Williamsburg, Virginia).

The first alterations to the park's visitor center occurred shortly after construction on the building was completed. In a narrative for the visitor center prepared by the National Park Service in 1959 it was stated that the building materials "were of good quality and met the intent of the specifications;" however, workmanship was "not of the best quality." A substantial portion of the concrete work had to be removed due to the reinforcing steel having a poor layout and being under-specifications resulting in an uneven surface. Some of the brick panels in the administration office also had to be removed and re-laid, and structural steel columns and channel beams were warped and out of plumb and had to be removed and reset. In 1959 and 1960, the roof and aluminum-frame lobby windows also required repairs after they were discovered to be leaking (Guy 1960).

The improved visitor use facilities at the Pinnacle, as well as the construction of the visitor center and the new segment of Skyland Road, were completed just in time for the formal dedication of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park in July 1959. The dedication ceremony for the park was held at the visitor center on July 4, and was attended by National Park Service Director Conrad Wirth, as well as Fred A. Seaton, Secretary of the Interior under President Dwight Eisenhower (Figure 104) (Cumberland Gap National Historical Park 1959a). During the two-day celebration, the Pinnacle was visited by Vice President Richard Nixon who had traveled to Middlesboro to take part in the dedication festivities (Figure 105) (*The Park City Daily News* 1959). After being escorted to the overlook by Harry Hoe, general chairperson of the dedication ceremony, Nixon signed the register at the interpretive shelter and in the "comment" field wrote, "A magnificent view" (*The Park City Daily News* 1959).

Figure 104. Dedication ceremony for Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, July 4, 1959 (Photograph on file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky).

Figure 105. Photograph of Vice President Nixon in front of the Interpretive Shelter and Comfort Station, ca. 1959 (Image courtesy of Jack E. Boucher, National Park Service [Negative Number: C59-JB-226]).

The Mission 66 Master Plan and Later Improvements at Cumberland Gap

Following the park's dedication, National Park Service planners began work on the Mission 66 Master Plan for Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, which was laid out in a series of volumes devised between 1960 and 1963. The plan offered a more comprehensive outline of the park's interpretation objectives, organization, and future facilities and staffing needs. Notably, the plan advocated for the expansion of the park's recreational facilities, especially as they pertained to camping and hiking. Although the Mission 66 prospectus prepared by the National Park Service in 1959 had omitted the construction of overnight camping or picnic facilities at the park, by the time the Mission 66 Master Plan was formally devised in the early 1960s, attitudes toward camping and picnic areas among park personnel appear to have shifted (Cumberland Gap National Historical Park 1959). According to the Mission 66 plan, the objective under the program should be "to encourage the study of the park's remote natural history and historical resources through increasing use of the recreational facilities of overnight camping, picnicking, and wilderness hiking trails…" (Cumberland Gap National Historical Park 1963). Construction of a campground was further endorsed in Chapter 1 of the Mission 66 Master Plan, prepared in October 1960, in which Park Superintendent Millard Guy recommended that a camping and picnicking area be provided "at a site near the camp site where Daniel Boone might have camped, with a self-guiding trail to the historic spot" (Cumberland Gap National Historical Park 1963).

Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area

In keeping with Guy's recommendations, several designs were initially prepared for the Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area as part of the park's Mission 66 Master Plan. While all of the designs exhibited significant differences in the layout and design of the proposed development, they were all situated in the same location—near Station Creek on the north side of U.S. Highway 58, just west of the Ball Cemetery. The plan that was ultimately selected was initially prepared by Peetz and Stewart (first names unknown) of the EODC on January 18, 1959 (Figure 106). The plan included a five-loop campground, with three comfort stations located in the northernmost, central, and southern loops. A picnic area was proposed to be situated north of the campground along a one-way loop road. The picnic area would have three parking areas as well as a comfort station in the north-central portion of the loop. The plan was subsequently recommended by numerous National Park Service officials in September 1960 and was ultimately approved by National Park Service Director Conrad Wirth on October 7, 1960. In January 1961, park officials requested an appropriation of $122,600 for the construction of the Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area (*The Jackson Sun* 1961).

Working drawings for the Wilderness Road Campground and entrance road were drafted again by the EODC in February 1961; however, it was not until June 1962 that the status of the plans was officially changed to "as-built drawings." The drawings indicate that the final iteration of the Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area was even larger than initially planned, with a total of six campground loops and five parking areas located along the proposed Picnic Road (Figure 107).

Figure 106. Excerpt from the January 19, 1959, Preliminary Plan drawing, showing the proposed campground and picnic area (Image reprinted on file at eTIC [no. 694220-CUGA_380_3046B]).

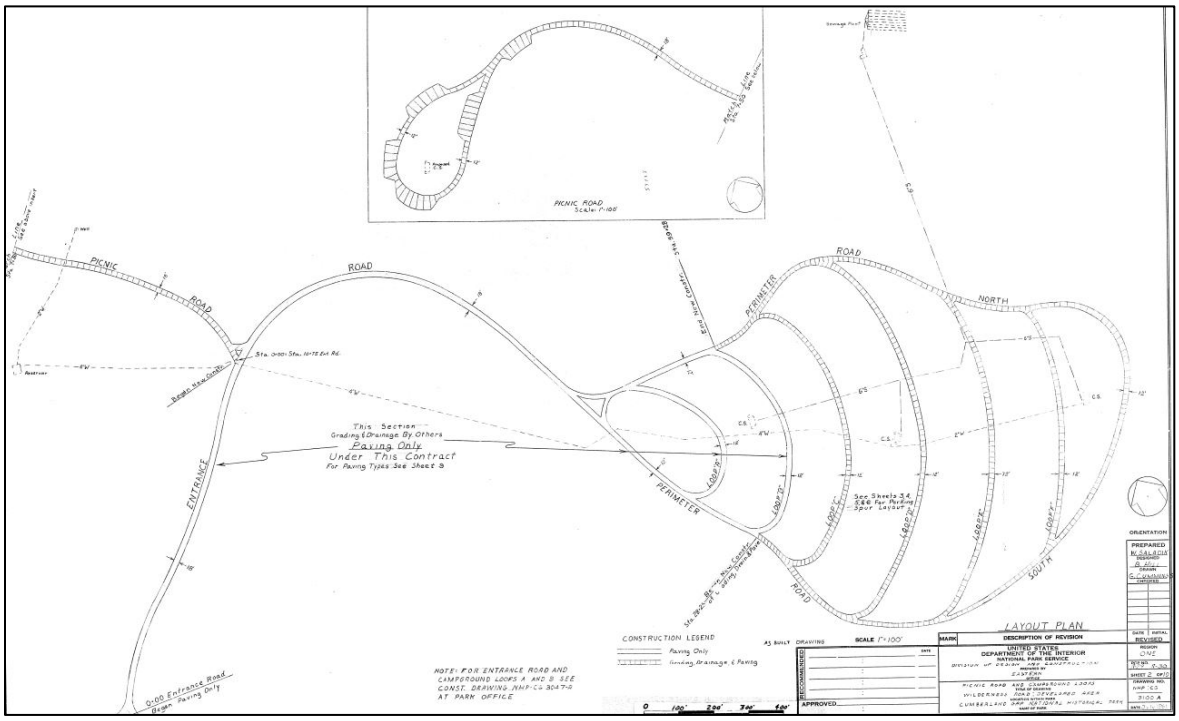


Figure 107. Excerpt from the July 1961 as-built drawing, showing the expanded campground and picnic area (Image reprinted on file at eTIC [no. 56221-CUGA_380_3100A]).

According to the drawings, the Entrance Road, a portion of the Perimeter Road, and two of the campground loop roads (Loop A and B) were among the first projects completed at the Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area. Constructed over a 180-day period between September 25 and November 1, 1961, the initial road development was completed under Contract No. 14-10-0131-741 for the cost of $68,391.20. According to the Construction Completion Report for the contract, the construction was performed by the Kentucky-Virginia Stone Company of Middlesboro, Kentucky and included the grading, drainage, and surfacing of the Entrance Road, Perimeter Road, and campground loops A and B, as well as the construction of 44 campsite spurs (National Park Service 1961). The project's supervisor, John T. Westerfield, was assisted by Student Assistant Engineer Sten Palmer and Peter Meredith, Construction Inspector from the EODC.

The construction of the three comfort stations and an underground water and sewage system occurred alongside initial road development at the Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area. Construction of these facilities was awarded under Contract No. 14-10-0131-760 to Pennington and Mackebee of LaFollette, Tennessee in May 1961. Construction got underway that June and was completed by November 1961 (Figure 108). Upon completion, each comfort station boasted a men's and women's restroom, storage rooms, and was "equipped with all necessary fixtures" (National Park Service 1961b).

Figure 108. Photograph of Comfort Station under construction, ca. 1961 (Image reprinted from National Park Service 1961a).

As construction at the Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area ramped up in the summer of 1961, bids were also opened for the second phase of major site development. That August, bids were requested for construction of the Picnic Road, Picnic Area and parking lots, Perimeter

Road, remaining campground loop roads (Loops C–F) and 122 additional campsite spurs at the Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area (Figure 109). The contract for this phase of development was also awarded to the Kentucky-Virginia Stone Company under a separate contract—Contract No. 14-10-0131-806 (National Park Service 1962). As this project included most of the remaining campground and picnic area infrastructure, its cost was substantially higher than previous projects at $129,453. An article published in the *Middlesboro Daily News* in October 1961 described the condition of the campground and picnic area while under construction. Although the area was described as "a maze of unfinished loop roads and parking spurs, piles of cut wood and forest, interrupted by three scattered comfort stations," the development was expected to be a major tourist draw for the park (*Middlesboro Daily News* 1961). According to Project Supervisor John Westerfield, following its completion, "[the Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area] will be the nicest thing in this part of the country" (*Middlesboro Daily News* 1961).

Figure 109. Photograph showing the completed campground loop and parking spurs, ca. 1962 (Image reprinted from National Park Service 1962).

As the second phase of major construction was nearing completion in mid-1962, a ribbon cutting ceremony was held to officially open the first 44 campsites to park visitors. The ceremony, held on July 30, 1962, was attended by former Congressman Tom Fugate (D-VA) and other local dignitaries, as well as 400 residents from the surrounding community. As constructed, each of the 44 campsites was comprised of a 50-foot-deep parking spur, picnic table, and fireplace. The remaining 122 campsites and the 50-car picnic area were planned to be opened later that fall. An announcement for the campground's opening noted that the Wilderness Road Campground was the first of its kind "in any of the National Park Service's historical parks" (*The Knoxville News-Sentinel* 1962). According to the article, other projects planned for future development at the Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area included the construction of a camp tender's residence, amphitheater, and campfire circle.

The completed campground was finally opened to the public on May 1, 1963. At that time, the campground encompassed 29 acres and offered 166 sites, each with parking, a picnic table, and a fireplace (*Chicago Tribune* 1963). Similar to the rest of the park, no fee was required for use of the campsites, and wood was provided to campers free of charge (*Chicago Tribune* 1963). A ranger was also stationed at the campground full-time to ensure visitor safety. The nearby picnic area was described as consisting of five acres, with sites surrounded by "pines, white-flowing dogwoods, and sassafras, oak, and hickory trees" (*Chicago Tribune* 1963).

Although the Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area was accepting visitors by the summer of 1963, construction on many projects remained incomplete. That June, the Arthur Mays Construction Company of Williamsburg, Kentucky commenced construction on the one-story camp tender's residence and a comfort station at the picnic area (Luckett 1963). Both projects were completed under Contract No. 14-10-0131-1076. As constructed, the camp tender's residence included two-bedrooms, one bathroom, a living room, kitchen, and dining room (Figure 110). The last major project at the Wilderness Road Campground during the Mission 66 era was the construction of the 250-seat campground amphitheater and projection building, which was completed between 1964 and 1965 (Figure 111). Initial construction of a stone foundation, stage, and fire ring was completed by the Kentucky-Virginia Stone Company under Contract No. 14-10-0131-1123 in September 1964 (National Park Service 1965). That June, an invitation for bids was issued for the construction of the amphitheater projection building. Construction of the project was ultimately awarded to Chot Collingsworth of Middlesboro, Kentucky under Contract No. 14-10-0103-1327 (National Park Service 1965). The cost to construct the projection building was estimated at $12,522, with construction commencing in August 1964 (National Park Service 1965). The structure was built of wood with a galvanized steel roll-up door and was completed in May 1965.

Figure 110. Photograph of the Camp Tender's Residence following completion, ca. 1963–1964 (Image on file at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky).

Figure 111. Photograph of campground amphitheater under construction, ca. 1965 (Image on file at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky).

Tri-State Peak

As construction on the Wilderness Road Campground came to a close in the mid-1960s, officials turned their attention to other areas of the park that needed improvement. The Tri-State Peak had already undergone minor alterations in 1934, when surveyors with the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey (U.S.C.&G. S.) replaced the original cornerstone marker with a new geodetic marker. The new marker consisted of a bronze disk set into a concrete base (Figure 112). A gravel foot trail was also constructed at that time, which extended from the marker to U.S. Highway 25E. The Tri-State Peak was briefly mentioned in the 1959 prospectus for the Mission 66 program; however, no concrete plans for the area's development were devised.

Fortunately, by the time the park's Mission 66 Master Plan was officially developed in the early 1960s, ownership issues surrounding the Tri-State Peak had been settled and more formal plans for the area had been developed. Chapter 2 of the Mission 66 Master Plan, prepared in November 1963, describes an existing gravel foot path which led from the saddle of the Cumberland Gap up the south face of the Tri-State Peak. This foot path generally followed the Civil War-era Fort Farragut Road. Under the Mission 66 plan, the existing foot path would lead to a new Tri-State Marker Orientation Shelter, before continuing to the ruins of Fort Farragut. Additionally, an existing spur trail, located on the northeast side of the foot path (currently known as Tri-State Trail), would provide access to the Fort Foote earthworks (CUGA 1963). Development of the area also included the construction of a 20-car parking lot located along the southern shoulder of U.S. Highway 25E, near the saddle of the Gap (Figure 113). Landscaping in the vicinity of the shelter was proposed to include three stone walls which would extend from the shelter along the boundary of each state (see Figure 113).

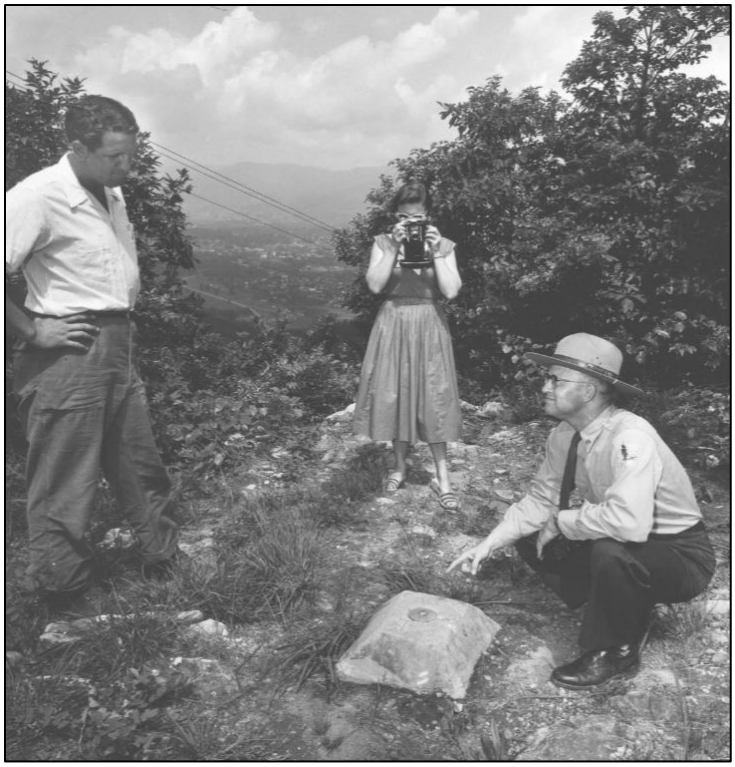


Figure 112. Park historian F. B. Sarles points to the Tri-State Marker as it appeared ca. 1957 (Image courtesy of the Dept. of Conservation Photograph Collection, 1937–1976, Tennessee State Library and Archives, Nashville, Tennessee).

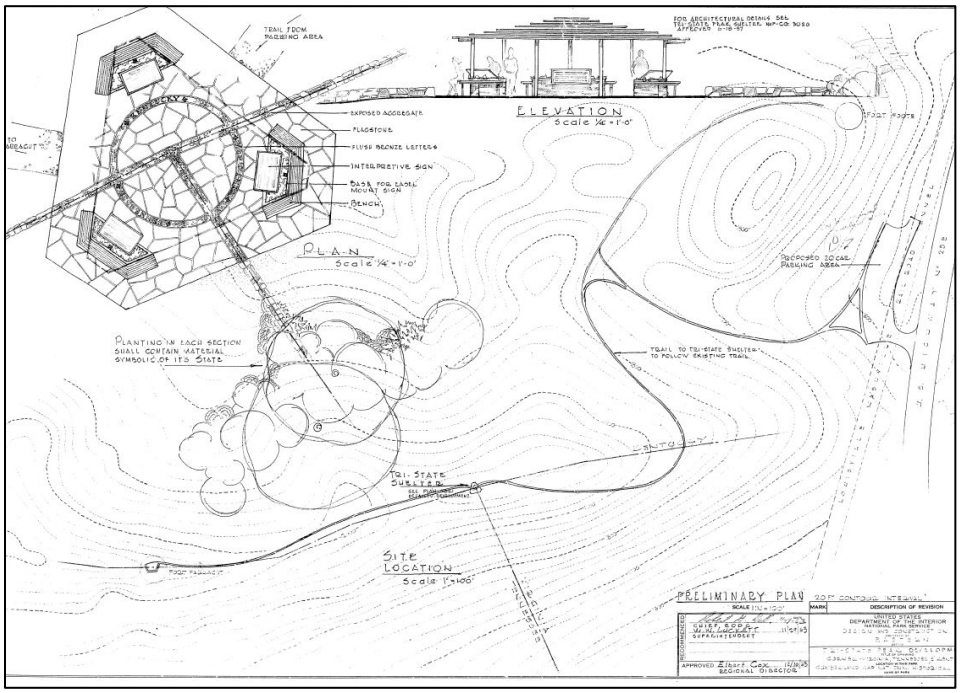


Figure 113. 1963 Tri-State Peak Development Plan for Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, showing the layout of the trail system and Orientation Shelter, as proposed under the Mission 66 program (Image on file at eTIC [no. 549747-CUGA_380_3108_0001_of_0001]).

In August 1964, the contract for the construction of the Tri-State Peak Shelter was awarded to Chot Collingsworth of Middlesboro (Figure 114). Construction of the shelter was based on working drawings that were developed by the EODC in June 1964. According to the Construction Completion Report for the project, the construction of the shelter got underway on August 24, 1964, and was completed in May 1965. Although construction was expected to be completed in December 1964, completion was delayed several times due to freezing conditions in the area (National Park Service 1967).

Figure 114. Tri-State Peak Shelter under construction, ca. 1964 (Image reprinted from National Park Service 1967).

All materials for the construction of the shelter were hauled by jeep over the existing gravel trail, which was then restored to its original use as a foot trail following the project's completion. As built, the shelter consisted of "a triangular stepped wood roof supported by steel beams" (National Park Service 1967). The floor of the shelter included the existing geodetic marker surrounded by a "Crab Orchard stone floor" with the three state boundaries outlined in bronze strips and lettered state names. As part of the shelter's development, the existing geodetic marker was "lowered in its exact original position" to be flush with the new flagstone floor of the shelter (NGS n.d.). Three stone masonry walls extended the boundary lines beyond the shelter, while "three masonry short walls support[ed] the…individual state markers" (National Park Service 1967). Each short wall also featured an attached redwood "seatwall," or bench**,** which encouraged visitors to extend their stay at the shelter before continuing their hike.

The three orientation markers were added under a separate contract arranged by the EODC. The markers were constructed by Lake Shore Marker, Inc. of Erie, Pennsylvania at a cost of $1,922.70 (National Park Service 1967). Each marker featured a single face, measuring 40 inches by 29 inches in size. Designs for the markers included flowers, birds, and seals specific to

each state, with the names of each state applied "in genuine gold leaf" (National Park Service 1967). The markers were received from the fabricator in January 1967 and installed on February 1 (Figure 115).

Figure 115. View of the Tri-State Peak Shelter, shortly after completion, in 1967 (Image reprinted from National Park Service 1967).

THE JOB CORPS AT CUMBERLAND GAP

While construction on the Wilderness Road Campground and Tri-State Peak Shelter were still underway in the early 1960s, Cumberland Gap National Historical Park entered a new phase of development that overlapped, and eventually supplanted, the Mission 66 program. This new phase of development began in August 1963 when the park received additional funding through a new Accelerated Public Works (APW) program—an initiative that was introduced by the Kennedy administration to combat rural poverty (Sirna 2015). Under the program, Cumberland Gap received a $20,000 appropriation for trail improvements on the Virginia side of the park (*Bristol Herald Courier* 1963). Approximately 100 locals from the Tri-State area were hired to perform the improvements (*Middlesboro Daily News* 1963; Sirna 2015).

Eventually, persistent unemployment in the Appalachian region led to the creation of a larger, more expansive poverty work program, known as the Job Corps, in the 1960s (Sirna 2015). The Job Corps program was created in 1964 as part of President Lyndon B. Johnson's War on Poverty and Great Society initiatives. The program was to be overseen by the Office of Economic Opportunity (OEO), under the supervision of R. Sargent Shriver (Kantor 1964). Per the Economic Opportunity Act (EOA), the mission of the Job Corps program was to prepare the nation's youth, aged 16 to 21, for the "responsibilities of citizens," while also increasing their

employability. To accomplish this, program administrators trained enrollees holistically, with parks serving as outdoor classrooms for building job and life skills (Sirna 2015). While employed by the program, enrollees would receive $30 per month, with opportunities for "extra pay for good work" (Hunter 1964).

On September 3, 1964, Rep. Eugene Siler (R-KY) announced that Cumberland Gap National Historical Park had been selected as the site of a new Job Corps Conservation Center (JCCC) (*The Park City Daily News* 1964). The Cumberland Gap JCCC was one of nine centers that were operated by the National Park Service between 1965 and 1969, six of which were located in parks in the Appalachian region (Sirna 2015). The site selected for the center was part of the former Bartlett Park, a four-acre, Progressive-era municipal park that the City of Middlesboro had deeded to the federal government in 1943 to be incorporated into the national park's boundaries (*The State Journal* 1943). A workforce of up to 200 single men was planned for the center, with enrollees residing in the states of Kentucky and Tennessee, as well as the midwestern states of Ohio, Michigan, Illinois, and Wisconsin (*Middlesboro Daily News* 1964; *The Lexington Herald 1964*). Enrollment was voluntary, with enrollees paid between $50 to $75 and "mustering-out allowances" each month for their service (*The Lexington Herald* 1964). Half of the enrollees' time was to be spent working on conservation projects, such as trail and bridge construction and forest-fire protection, while the rest of the week was to be devoted to instruction in reading, writing, arithmetic, and speech (*The Lexington Herald 1964*). James F. Batman, Jr., a Luray, Virginia native and former acting superintendent of Effigy Mounds National Monument, was appointed director of the Cumberland Gap JCCC, with E. Field Benton serving as the director of work programs (Easterly 1965; *Postville Herald* 1964).

Although the Cumberland Gap JCCC was originally planned to open on November 1, 1964, construction on the site did not begin until January 26, 1965, at which time work was started on an entrance road to bypass the Schneider's Meat Packing Plant (Job Corps 1965). On January 27, the Y. & S. Construction Company of Williamsburg, Kentucky began work on the water and sewer lines, which were extended from the Visitor Center and meat packing plant, respectively (Job Corps 1966). During March and September, ten men from the Tri-State area worked to grade the site and clear it of vegetation in preparation for the center's construction (Job Corps 1966).

The center's first facilities, consisting of three dormitories, an administration/office building, an education building, a dining hall, a supply building, a recreation hall, and a dispensary, arrived on site in September of 1965 (Figure 116). Magnolia Homes of South Hill, Virginia was hired to furnish and set up the buildings, a task which they completed on June 4 (Job Corps 1966). The buildings, all of which were described as "trailers," were clustered along the main entrance road, to the south of an oval parking ellipse, and were connected by a series of sidewalks that were installed as part of broader landscape improvements at the site (Job Corps 1966). The first wave of construction on the center was completed on June 2. An open house was held for the public on June 12–13, with over 900 local residents attending. The first enrollees arrived on June 22, and within 24 hours, a total of 41 young men had been received at the center (Job Corps 1966).

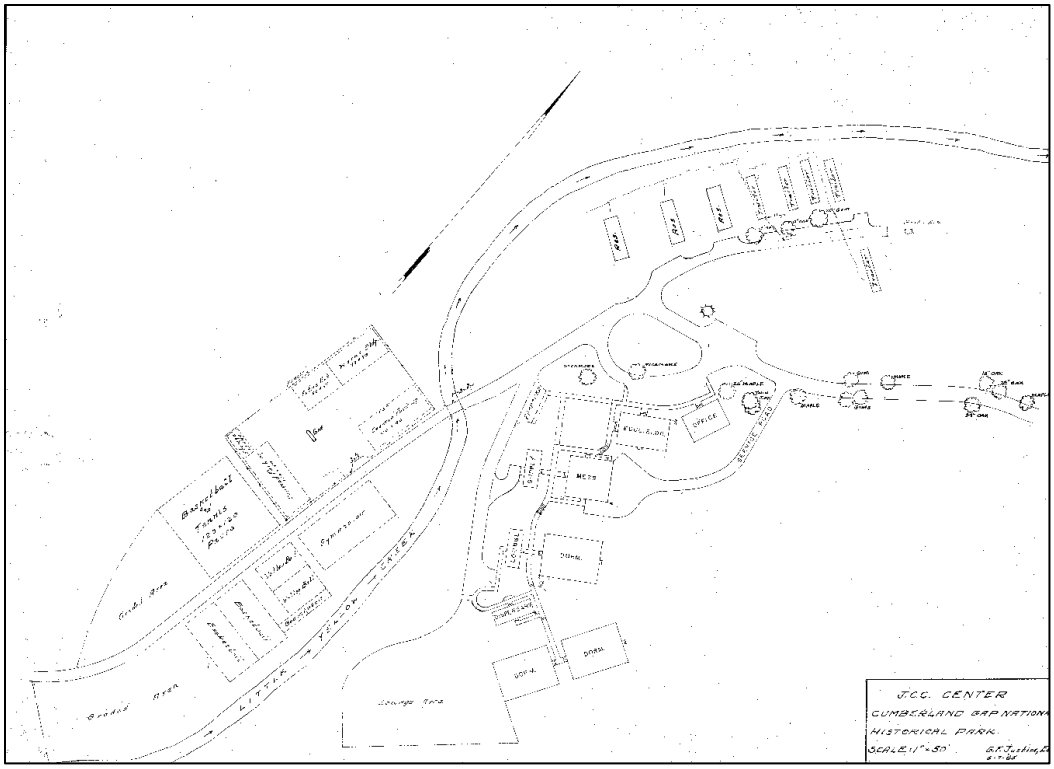


Figure 116. Plan map showing the JCCC at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, prepared by G. F. Justice on June 7, 1965 (Image courtesy of Job Corps 1966).

Between July and August, nine additional buildings, including eight residences and a utility, or "Works" building, were added to the JCCC. The residences, which consisted of three "residence trailers" and five "single unit trailers," were sited to the north of the parking ellipse, near the east bank of Little Yellow Creek (Job Corps 1966). All of the trailers were furnished by Frontier Homes, Inc. of Omaha, Nebraska (Job Corps 1966). The "Works" building was located across the main entrance road and to the west of the dormitories. The 120-foot-long by 40-foot-wide building was constructed by the George W. Reagan Company of Knoxville, Tennessee, and at the time of its completion, was the JCCC's only permanent, rigid frame metal building (Job Corps 1966). The residences and the "Works" building were accessed by the main entrance road, which branched to the north and south at the west end of the parking ellipse (Figure 117). Surfacing of the main entrance road was also completed during this time, with all road work completed by the Kentucky-Virginia Stone Company on August 13, 1965 (Job Corps 1966).

That October, the center submitted a report requesting that the workforce be increased by 50 enrollees; however, only 36 workers were approved. The report also recommended that eight additional buildings be constructed. In response, the George W. Reagan Company of Knoxville was hired in 1966 to construct two open front storage buildings, a vocational building, and a gymnasium. The storage buildings were built in the JCCC Maintenance Area, to the west of Bartlett Park Road, and the vocational building and gymnasium were constructed on the east side of the road, approximately 225 feet southwest of the dormitories (Figure 118). Contract laborers also built a small, concrete block gas station and flammable storage building during this time, with construction materials furnished by the Job Corps (Job Corps 1966).

Figure 117. Aerial view showing the layout of the Cumberland Gap JCCC, taken on October 21, 1968 (Image courtesy of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park [Image no. BUG-5JJ-147]).

Figure 118. Overview of the Cumberland Gap JCCC, ca. 1968. The view is to the northeast, with the gymnasium (at right) and combination basketball/volleyball court (at left) in the foreground (Image reprinted from Job Corps 1968).

Later that summer, Sharp Brothers of Pineville was also awarded a contract to construct a permanent dormitory at the JCCC facility (Job Corps 1966). The new dormitory building replaced the existing lounge building, which was located in a trailer, just north of the dispensary. Job Corps members supplied the majority of the labor for the facility's construction, often under the supervision of a supervisor supplied by the construction company (Job Corps 1966).

In addition to the construction of the center itself, enrollees were also put to work on other construction projects within the local area. Job Corps members participated in the construction of wood signs and trails throughout the park, as well as landscaping along Skyland Road. In June 1966, work began on the National Park Service Maintenance Area, located approximately 300 feet northeast of the JCCC on the south side of Bartlett Park Road. Construction of a "Butler Type" open front storage building was started in the area that summer. Materials for the building were provided by the George W. Reagan Company, and construction was conducted by enrollees under the guidance of a Work Supervisor (Job Corps 1966). In January 1967, a working drawing for "Miscellaneous Projects" was developed by the National Park Service, which showed the proposed layout of the National Park Service Maintenance Area. According to the drawing, the area was proposed to include an office, a storage building, and a 12-car parking lot. (Figure 119) The following month, in February 1967, another Butler type building was added to the National Park Service Maintenance Area for use as a "temporary maintenance building" (Job Corps 1967).

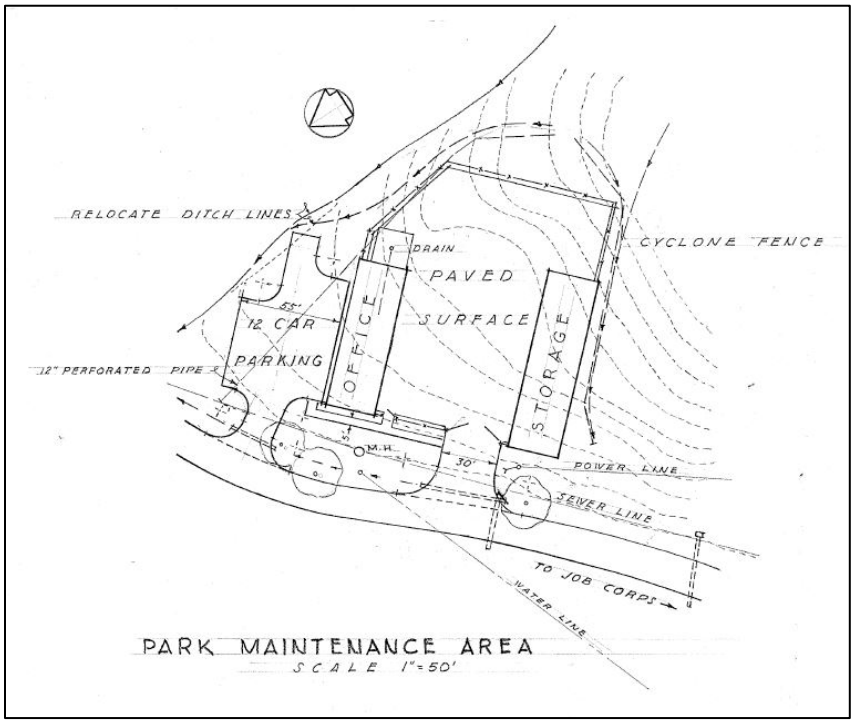


Figure 119. Working drawing for the Park Maintenance Area, showing its original layout, ca. 1967 (Image on file at eTIC [no. 689341-CUGA_380_2056_0001_of_0001]).

In September 1967, Job Corps enrollees participated in the construction of a carport at the O'Dell House which, at that time, was in use as the park Superintendent's residence (Job Corps 1967). Following the introduction of a new campground fee policy, Job Corps members began work on

a registration station for the Wilderness Road Campground in May 1967 (Job Corps 1967). The station was located on the west side of the campground entrance road, approximately 200 feet south of the camp tender's residence. The project was fully complete by June 1968, just in time for the summer travel season. All of these projects were constructed entirely by Job Corps members under the supervision of an Enrollee Work Supervisor (Job Corps 1968).

Other important projects completed by Job Corps enrollees at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park included the construction of the Sugar Run Picnic Area and improvements at Fort McCook. The first surveys for the Sugar Run Picnic Area were made in 1967 (Job Corps 1967). A working drawing produced that February, shows an entrance road for the picnic area extending southeast from KY- 988 (Sugar Run Overlook Road). According to the drawing, circulation through the picnic area was originally intended to consist of a one-way looped road, with eight small parking areas located along the loop (Figure 120). The parking areas would be able to accommodate between six and 19 vehicles. A comfort station was planned for construction in the center of the looped road, with a footbridge extending across Sugar Run Creek between the comfort station and the roadway. A "pavilion" was also planned for construction in the center of the looped road, approximately 100 feet northeast of the comfort station. A second foot bridge across Sugar Run Creek, as well as a pump house and 20,000-gallon reservoir, was proposed for construction in the southwest portion of the picnic area, near the "picnic sites."

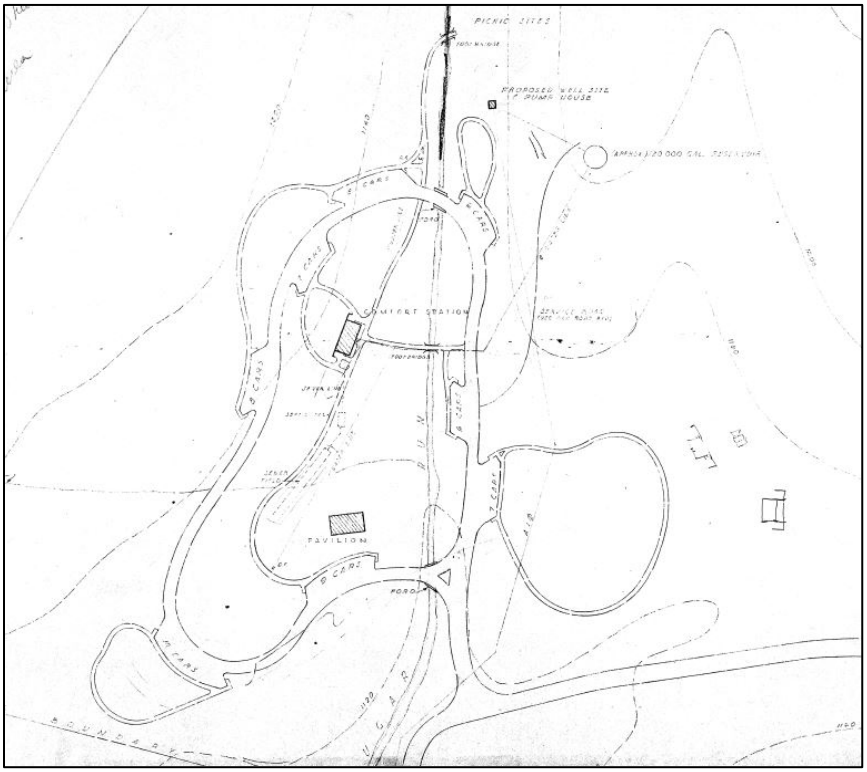


Figure 120. Excerpt from a Working drawing for the Sugar Run Picnic Area, showing its original layout, ca. 1967 (Image on file at eTIC [no. 546868-CUGA_380_2052_0001_of_0001]).

Job Corps enrollees started work on the comfort station, pump house, and septic tank at Sugar Run in March 1968, with all three structures completed that summer (Figure 121) (Job Corps 1968). As constructed, the Sugar Run Picnic Area differed significantly from the 1967

working drawing developed by the National Park Service. A smaller, curved parking lot replaced the proposed one-way loop road, and the pavilion was not built as part of the first phase of the picnic area's development. Construction at Sugar Run continued through the early spring of 1969, with the construction of a drainage structure and two bridges across Sugar Run Creek (Job Corps 1969). These bridges were likely the two "foot bridges" shown on the 1967 working drawing. Final improvements at Sugar Run included the installation of picnic tables, which were constructed by the center's welding crew (Job Corps 1969). A group picnic shelter was eventually added to the development in 1973.

Figure 121. Comfort station at the Sugar Run Picnic Area as initially constructed by Job Corps, ca. 1969 (Image courtesy of Job Corps 1969).

During this same period, other crews from the Cumberland Gap JCCC completed a series of improvements at Fort McCook, which included surfacing and landscaping a new 10-car parking area and the construction of stone steps leading to the top of the earthwork (Figure 122). In 1967, enrollees also assisted in the installation of a Civil War-era cannon at Fort McCook. The carriage for the cannon was built by Job Corps members under the guidance of an Enrollee Work Supervisor (Job Corps 1968).

In 1969, additional improvements were performed at the National Park Service Maintenance Area, including the construction of a permanent Artifacts Storage Building, which was completed that January (Job Corps 1969). The following month, work was started on a Paint Storage Building in the maintenance area, which was completed by September 1969. At the same time, the open storage building that had been added to the National Park Service Maintenance Area in 1966, was partially "walled in with concrete block" to be used for storage and workshop areas (Job Corps 1969).

Figure 122. JCCC enrollees constructing stone steps to the top of the Fort McCook earthwork, ca. 1969 (Image courtesy of Job Corps 1969).

The positive impacts that the Job Corps program had on the development of the Cumberland Gap region were cut short by the election of President Richard Nixon in 1968. Nixon scaled back many of Johnson's War on Poverty initiatives, and in May 1969, the administration announced that most of the JCCCs would be closing (Welch et al. 2020). That spring it was announced that the Cumberland Gap JCCC would be one of the facilities phased out by the Nixon administration, with the program set to close on June 30, 1969 (Figure 123) (*The Knoxville News-Sentinel* 1969). Following closure of the facility, 50 Job Corps members were transferred to other centers, while 84 left the program entirely (*Middlesboro Daily News* 1969).

In September of 1970, it was announced that the abandoned JCCC facility would be repurposed for use as an Environmental Education Center (EEC) by Union College—a small Methodist university based in Barbourville, Kentucky (National Park Service 1970; *The Courier-Journal* 1970). Reuse of the facility was part of a nationwide effort by the Office of Economic Security to negotiate arrangements with parties interested in utilizing closed JCCCs for "socially useful purposes" (Harper 1969; National Park Service 1969). Although park officials received numerous proposals from interested parties, a special use permit was ultimately issued to Union College for operation of its EEC on July 1, 1970 (National Park Service 1970). A National Park Service news release announcing the opening of the center stated that the program to be provided was part of a national effort by the agency "to offer outdoor laboratories to schools, and to work jointly with local educational institutions in bringing environmental education to school children" (National Park Service 1970). The program was initially offered to fifth and sixth grade classes in the greater Tri-state area, with plans to offer weekly on-site workshops to undergraduate and graduate students and public-school teachers in the future (National Park Service 1970). The Union College EEC remained in operation until 1977 when the site was closed "due to an earthen dam problem" (*The Knoxville News-Sentinel* 1979).

Figure 123. Sign announcing the closure of the Cumberland Gap JCCC, ca. 1969 (Image courtesy of *The Middlesboro Daily News*, June 21, 1969).

Restoration of Hensley Settlement

Perhaps the most significant project completed by the Cumberland Gap JCCC was the restoration of the Hensley Settlement, located atop Brush Mountain. Although the settlement was located in an isolated area of the park, its potential as an interpretative site was widely recognized by early park planners (National Park Service 1966). In preparation for the settlement's eventual restoration, Park Historian Hobart Cawood began conducting a series of interviews with former residents of Hensley Settlement in 1960. Using a questionnaire form as a guide, Cawood gleaned information that would be helpful in reconstructing and interpreting the settlement as a "mountain life museum" (*The Courier-Journal* 1963). The importance of the settlement's restoration was also discussed in Chapter 2 of the Mission 66 Master Plan, prepared in November 1963, which recommended that the buildings at Hensley Settlement be marked and restored so that the "visitor may truly get a feeling of a past pioneer age" (National Park Service 1966).

To guide the reconstruction, Chief Park Historian Lloyd Abelson and Glenn Justice, the Job Corps engineer, developed a historical base map of the site using information collected from interviews with former residents (Sirna 2018). In the program's first year, it was planned that enrollees would commence "clearing land and restoring the farm atmosphere and stabilizing structures from further deterioration" (Easterly 1965). The remaining four years were to be spent restoring the settlement's 16 remaining buildings to their "hand-made pioneer conditions"

(Easterly 1965). The project was expected to cost $70,000, less than half of what it would cost if National Park Service staff were to complete the work themselves (Job Corps 1966).

The first task undertaken at the site was the construction of a firebreak around the settlement, which was completed in September 1965 (Job Corps 1966). After the firebreak's completion, the Job Corps members began construction on a temporary work road from Cubage along Shillalah Creek to facilitate access to the settlement (Easterly 1965). The proposal for road work along Shillalah Creek had raised concern amongst various hiking and environmental groups, however, Jackson Price, director of the Southeastern Region of the National Park Service, assured the public that the road would be restored as wilderness after the work on Hensley Settlement was complete (Yarbrough 1967). Even after the roadwork had been completed, it still took an hour and a half of driving to reach the settlement site from the JCCC. Due to the site's remote location, a spike camp was constructed where a rotating crew of 20 enrollees lived while working on the settlement's restoration. The crew spent one week at the camp before being rotated out (Kulesza 1966). They were assisted by former resident Jesse Gibbons, who was familiar with the construction techniques utilized in the original construction of the settlement (Figure 124) (Welch et al. 2020).

Figure 124. Members of the Job Corps pose at the Bert Hensley cabin with former Hensley resident Jesse Gibbons, ca. 1966 (Image courtesy of National Park Service [https://www.nps.gov/cuga/learn/historyculture/bert-hensley-house.htm]).

During the course of the settlement's restoration, approximately half of the structures on the three major farmsteads were totally rebuilt with new materials, while the other structures were partially reconstructed using varying amounts of the original fabric. Job Corps members used newly acquired skills such as carpentry, equipment operation, surveying, and landscaping to develop and restore the various homesites (Job Corps 1966). By October 1965, the extensive

work of clearing trails had been completed and the site was prepared for occupancy. Apple trees were planted and approximately ten acres of overgrown brush at the Lige and Willie Gibbons and Bert Hensley farms were cleared (Sirna 2018). Trailers were moved to the spike camp in November and December 1965 (Job Corps 1966). The camp consisted of five 28-foot trailers, which were hauled up the mountain using a bulldozer (Kulesza 1966). A water system was installed for the camp in March 1966 and the first enrollees moved in that June (Job Corps 1966).

The first property that was stabilized and restored by the Job Corps was the Willie Gibbons' homestead (Welch et al. 2020). Enrollees completed work on several outbuildings located on the Willie Gibbons' property, including a hen house, granary, spring house, and privy (Job Corps 1966). During 1967, emergency stabilization work was completed on the buildings at the Lige Gibbons, Willie Gibbons, and Bert Hensley farms (Job Corps 1967). A dip tank was installed to treat the restoration materials used on the buildings at the recommendation of the U.S. Forest Service's Southeastern Area, which provided expertise in addressing preservation of the wood structures (Job Corps 1967). The spike camp was improved during this period as well, with the installation of electric service, a septic tank, and drain field. Further improvements at the camp included the installation of radio facilities, a vehicle storage unit, and an additional trailer unit.

In June 1967, the National Park Service announced plans to improve "an ancient logging road" located along Shillalah Creek in order to provide better access to the Hensley Settlement (*The Harland Daily Enterprise* 1967). Facing backlash from local conservation groups, Jackson Price, director of the National Park Service's Southeastern Region, assured the public that no gravel or blacktop would be applied to the road's surface and that once restoration of the settlement was completed, the area would be restored to wilderness (*The Knoxville News-Sentinel* 1967). Work on the Shillalah Creek Road (Shillalah Creek Trail) was started by the Kentucky Highway Department that summer and was 90 percent complete by July 1967 (Job Corps 1967). By that December, all structures at the Hensley Settlement had been stabilized and restoration work had also been completed on the Cupp Cabin at Martin's Fork (Welch et al. 2020). The Cupp Cabin was not part of Hensley Settlement but was located nearby at Chadwell Gap. Restoration of the cabin had also been proposed as part of the park's Mission 66 Master Plan, which recommended that it could be used as an overnight shelter for hikers in the area (NPS 1966).

Restoration of the Bert Hensley House, which would be used as a caretaker's residence, was started in September 1968 (Job Corps 1968). Work on the caretaker's residence continued through the summer and was completed that November. That same year, work began on gathering materials for the restoration of the Brush Mountain School House. Unfortunately, the five-year restoration plan for the Hensley Settlement was interrupted by the closure of the Cumberland Gap JCCC in 1969. The job of completing the restoration of Hensley Settlement fell to National Park Service staff who oversaw the maintenance of the buildings and continued installation of infrastructure, including utilities to enhance the visitor experience. Although the JCCC had closed, Jesse Gibbons continued to assist with the site's restoration and interpretation, serving as the settlement's first official caretaker until 1974 (*Bristol Herald Courier* 1970).

KNOWN RESOURCE TYPES

Mission 66 Resources

Resource types identified in this section are based on the associated property types outlined in the *NPS Mission 66 Era Resources Multiple Property Documentation Form* (MPDF), which was prepared by Ethan Carr, Elaine Jackson-Retondo, Len Warner, Rodd Wheaton, John Feinberg, and Carly Piccarello in 2015 to provide guidance for evaluating resources constructed for America's national parks as part of the Mission 66 program. Property types associated with the Mission 66 program at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park include visitor center areas, comfort stations, public use areas (campgrounds and picnic areas), park roads, and interpretive shelters and stations. Other than those resources situated in the visitor center area, most of the Mission 66-era resources at the park were previously documented by North Wind in 2022 as part of a larger effort by the Southeastern Regional Office to record Mission 66-era properties and cultural landscapes located within the 88 National Park Service units currently under its management and evaluate them for listing in the NRHP.

Comfort Stations

A goal of the Mission 66 program was to modernize existing restroom facilities and construct new comfort stations to the standards of the mid-twentieth century. These improved facilities typically had separate restrooms with entrances at opposite ends of the building, as well as a designated space for mechanical equipment and janitorial storage. The buildings were usually built as a component of the visitor center area for the convenience of park visitors and staff, or in conjunction with interpretive facilities, amphitheaters, campgrounds, and day-use areas (Carr et al. 2015). They were often constructed on concrete or asphalt aprons and accessible via pedestrian pathways that connected to an adjacent parking area.

The Pinnacle Overlook Developed Area interpretive shelter and comfort station is the only structure of this type constructed within the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park during the Mission 66 period (Photograph 22). This structure was constructed in 1957 and functions both as a comfort station with men's and women's bathrooms, and as a place for visitor orientation with a covered exterior gathering area for park ranger presentations and a set of park maps and display panels mounted on the walls.

The Pinnacle Overlook Developed Area interpretive shelter and comfort station was previously documented by North Wind in 2022 and was recommended as a contributing resource to the Pinnacle Overlook Developed Area Historic District (Fulwood et al. 2023). The resource was also recommended individually eligible for NRHP listing under Criterion A for its association with the development of interpretive programming under the Mission 66 program.

Photograph 22. Interpretive Shelter and Comfort Station located within the Pinnacle Road Developed Area, facing east (North Wind 2022).

Public Use Areas (Campgrounds and Picnic Areas)

The Public Use Areas property type a range of Mission 66 facilities within a defined area of the park such as lodges, concessioner services, campgrounds, ranger stations, comfort stations, shower buildings, roads and trails, and amphitheaters and attendant audio-visual equipment structures (Carr et al. 2015); as such, these areas are often evaluated for NRHP eligibility as districts.

The Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area is the only Mission 66-era public use area at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. The area is located west of Station Creek on the north side of U.S. Highway 58 (Photograph 23). Completed in 1963, the campground initially encompassed 29 acres and offered 166 sites, each with parking, a picnic table, and a fireplace. A perimeter road and an interior road network provided access to each of the individual campsites, as well as three restroom buildings. A five-acre picnic area and associated access road (currently known as Picnic Road) was located just north of the campground. Additional Mission 66-era improvements at the Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area included the construction of a camp tender's residence (currently known as the fire use module building), an amphitheater, a picnic area comfort station, three comfort stations within the campground, a native stone bridge and culverts over Station Creek, gravel walkways, and a campground entrance road (currently known as National Park Road).

Photograph 23. Overview of a typical campsite in the Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area, facing north (North Wind 2022).

The Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area was previously evaluated for NRHP listing by North Wind in 2022 (Fulwood et al. 2023a). At that time, North Wind concluded that the area no longer retained sufficient integrity to convey its significance as a Mission 66-era development and recommended it not eligible for listing in the NRHP as a historic district. Additionally, none of the 19 Mission 66-era resources identified within the district were recommended individually eligible for inclusion in the NRHP.

Interpretive Shelters and Entrance Stations

Interpretive shelters served several purposes within a park, including providing sun screening for visitors along hikes and in other natural areas, and protecting certain cultural resources such as artifacts and/or archaeological sites designated for interpretation.

The Tri-State Peak Shelter is the only stand-alone, Mission 66-era interpretive shelter within the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park (Photograph 24). The shelter was constructed in 1964 and significantly modified between 2002 and 2007. The structure was evaluated in 2022 by North Wind and recommended not individually eligible for listing in the NRHP due to significant loss of integrity (Fulwood et al. 2023b).

Photograph 24. Overview of the Tri-State Peak Shelter and its associated markers, facing north (North Wind 2022).

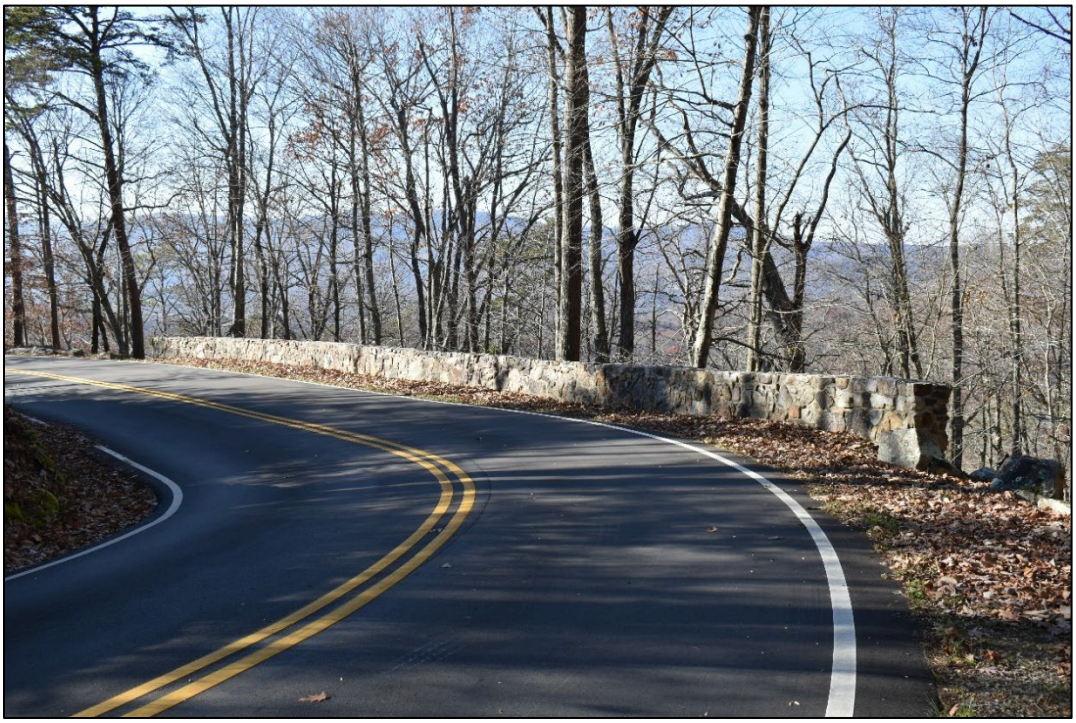
Park Roads

The Park Roads resource type covers newly constructed or rebuilt automobile roads that reflect the influence of Mission 66 road design and construction policies. It includes major park roads that provide entry to the park or access to its scenic features or recreation areas. It encompasses the roadbed and shoulders, as well as all associated features such as bridges; culverts and drains; tunnels; guardrail and barriers; and pull-offs, including curbing, retaining walls, and sidewalks (Carr et al. 2015).

The Cumberland Gap National Historical Park has four roads, three parking areas, one culvert, and one bridge constructed or improved as part of the Mission 66 program. These include the Pinnacle Parking Area (1956), associated with the Pinnacle Overlook Developed Area; Perimeter Road (National Park Road) and Picnic Road (both constructed in 1961), associated with the Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area; Pinnacle Road (formerly Skyland Road) that connects the visitor center to the Pinnacle Overlook (1929; modified 1957–1958) (Photograph 25); Visitor Center Parking Lot (1961; modified 2003); the Midway Parking Overlook (1958); Fort McCook Parking Area (ca. 1959; modified 1967); Little Yellow Creek Culvert #1 (1961); and the Sugar Run Road Bridge (1958).

Of these resources, all but the Visitor Center Parking Area were previously evaluated by North Wind in 2022 for listing in the NRHP as part of larger historic districts. The Pinnacle Parking Area was recommended as contributing properties to the Pinnacle Overlook Developed Area Historic District (Fulwood et al. 2023). The Perimeter and Picnic Roads were evaluated as part of the Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic area and were both recommended as

contributing resources to that district (Fulwood et al. 2023a). The Pinnacle Road (formerly Skyland Road), Midway Parking Overlook, Fort McCook Parking Area, Sugar Run Road Bridge, and Little Yellow Creek Culvert were all recommended as contributing properties to the Pinnacle Road Circulation Corridor Historic District (Fulwood et al. 2023c). It was determined that none of the previously evaluated resources had the standalone significance required to warrant individual listing in the NRHP.



Photograph 25. View along the original segment of Pinnacle Road (formerly Skyland Road) near the Fort McCook Parking Area, showing stone guardrail, facing northwest (North Wind 2022).

Cumberland Gap National Historical Park Visitor Center

Visitor Centers were constructed under the Mission 66 program to provide essential administrative and interpretive functions. Buildings of this type constructed under the Mission 66 program adopted the Park Service Modern style as the premier design idiom. This style incorporated elements of modernism and utilized contemporary building materials such as concrete, steel, and glass. Visitor centers constructed during Mission 66 were designed to blend in with the park's natural setting and require minimal maintenance (Carr et al. 2015).

The Cumberland Gap National Historical Park contains only one visitor center, which was constructed between 1958 and 1959 as part of the Mission 66 program (Photograph 26). The International Style building was designed by the architectural firm of William Cramp Scheetz Jr. and featured steel frame and masonry walls and a multiple-level, asymmetrical plan. Other character-defining features included a glass curtain wall on its front façade, an attached, four-bay pergola over the main entrance, and a "floating" windowless exhibit wing resting on white pillars (Etheridge 2019). Between 1993 and 2002, several modifications and additions were made to the building which significantly changed its visual character. As a result of these unsympathetic

alterations, the visitor center was determined not eligible for listing by the Kentucky SHPO in June 2019 (Potts 2019).

Photograph 26. Visitor Center, facing southeast (North Wind 2023).

Job Corps Resources

During its four years of operation (1965–1969), the Job Corps program played an integral role in the development of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. Although the program was only active for a brief time, Job Corps enrollees were responsible for several significant improvement projects at Cumberland Gap, including the construction of the Cumberland Gap JCCC Center (now the Park Headquarters); a National Park Service Maintenance Area, located at Bartlett Park; the Sugar Run Picnic Area; Fort McCook Access Trail; and the restoration of the Hensley Settlement.

Park Headquarters Area

The current Park Headquarters Area was originally constructed by Job Corps enrollees for use as the Cumberland Gap JCCC. Construction of the center occurred in several phases, with the majority of the facilities at the JCCC constructed between 1965 and 1966. The former JCCC was repurposed for use as the Park Headquarters around 2000 (Photograph 27). Although the headquarters complex currently includes a total of 18 buildings and structures related to the administration of the park, only nine of these buildings were originally constructed by Job Corps during the initial development of the area (Table 4). Of the nine buildings constructed by the Job Corps within the current Park Headquarters Area, only one—the Maintenance Equipment Storage Building #1—has been previously recommended eligible for NRHP listing as a contributing property to a potential historic district (Potts 2019).

Photograph 27. View of Park Headquarters Building, facing south (North Wind 2023).

Table 4. Buildings and Structures within the Park Headquarters Area that were originally part of the Cumberland Gap JCCC.

Resources Primary Name	FMSS Location/ Asset No.	Build Date	Previous NRHP Eligibility Recommendation
Administrative Buildings			
Headquarters Building (Photograph 27)	25263	1966	N/A
Resource Management Office	25264	1966	N/A
Maintenance Buildings			
Maintenance Equipment Storage #1	25915	1966	Not individually eligible/ Contributing
Maintenance Equipment Storage #2	25916	1966	N/A
Maintenance Shop	25265	1966	N/A
Roads and Trails Building	25268	1966	N/A
Welding and Paint Shop	25267	1966	N/A
Storage Buildings			
Gym Storage Building	25909	1965	N/A
Maintenance Fuel Storage Building	93434	1968	N/A

National Park Service Maintenance Area

The National Park Service Maintenance Area is located on Bartlett Park Road, just northeast of the Park Headquarters (Photograph 28). The maintenance area was developed by Job Corps enrollees for use by National Park Service personnel. Construction on the maintenance area began in 1965 and concluded in 1967. After the Job Corp program ended in 1969, the maintenance division of the National Park Service was moved to the former location of the JCCC Maintenance Yard, and the National Park Service Maintenance Area assumed its current use as a law enforcement compound. Today, the area includes five buildings and structures, all of which were built by the Job Corps between 1965 and 1967 (Table 4). Only one building in this area—the Resource Management Water Lab and Artifacts Storage Building—has been previously determined not eligible for NRHP listing due to major unsympathetic alterations.

Table 5. Buildings and Structures Located within the National Park Service Maintenance Area.

Resources Primary Name	FMSS Location/ Asset No.	Build Date	Previous NRHP Eligibility Recommendation
Administrative Buildings			
Ranger Station (Photograph 28)	25262	1966	N/A
Storage Buildings			
Law Enforcement Fire Cache	114101	1967	N/A
Law Enforcement Fuel Storage	109854	1965	N/A
Operational Buildings			
Research Management Pesticide Room/LE Storage/Interp	25269	1966	N/A
Resource Management Water Lab & Artifacts Storage	25269	1966	Not individually eligible/ Non-Contributing

Sugar Run Picnic Area

The Sugar Run Picnic Area was one of the major improvement projects completed at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park by the Cumberland Gap JCCC enrollees during its brief period of operation (Photograph 29). The picnic area is located on Dark Ridge, near KY-988 (Sugar Run Overlook Road). The area consists of three structures that support the recreational and operational uses of the picnic area—a comfort station, group shelter, and pumphouse. Of these buildings, only the pumphouse was constructed by Job Corps during the initial development of the area. None of the buildings have been previously evaluated for NRHP eligibility.

Photograph 28. View of the Ranger Station, facing northeast (North Wind 2023).

Photograph 29. Overview of the Sugar Run Picnic Area, facing northeast (North Wind 2023).

NRHP Eligibility for Job Corps Resources

Although the activities of the Job Corps were extensively documented during the program's brief period of operation, its influence on the development of the park has not been intensively studied and future research will likely uncover new resource types that expand our understanding of this period in the park's history. New resources of this type that are identified within the current park boundaries should be evaluated for NRHP eligibility under Criterion A for their association with Job Corps and poverty relief initiatives implemented as part of President Johnson's War on Poverty program. The Fort McCook Access Trail is spatially isolated from other known Job Corps resources and should, therefore, be evaluated individually for NRHP eligibility. The other known resources that were constructed by the Job Corps consist of small concentrations of buildings and structures that serve a singular function, such as administration, maintenance, and recreation (Figure 125). As these resources typically consist of small groupings that are "united historically or aesthetically by plan or physical development," they should be evaluated for NRHP listing as potential historic districts (National Park Service 1997).

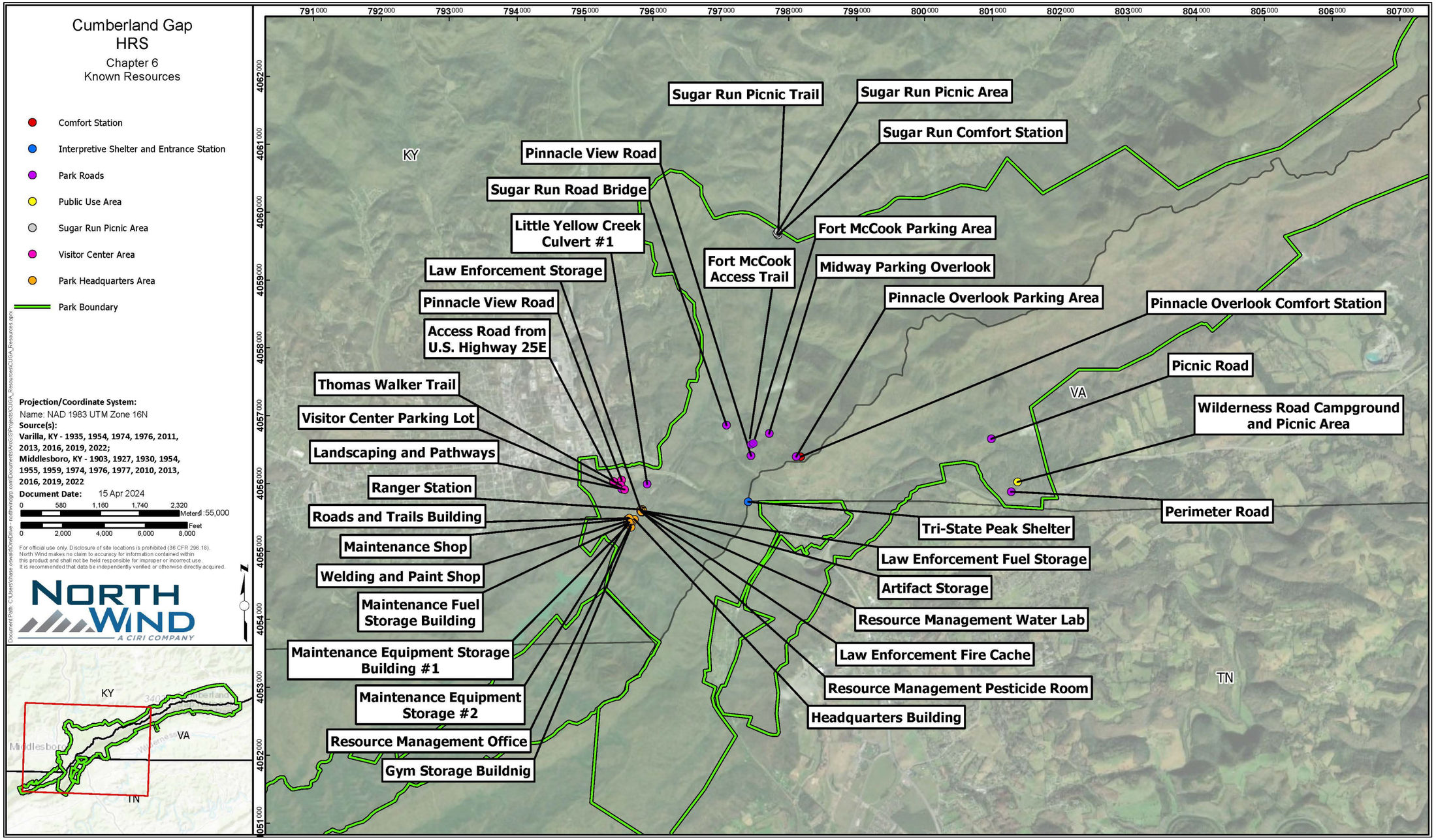


Figure 125. Chapter 6 Known Resources.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CUMBERLAND GAP NATIONAL HISTORICAL PARK IN THE MODERN AGE

PRELUDE TO THE RESTORATION OF CUMBERLAND GAP

The restoration of the Cumberland Gap was part of a larger federal vision to rebuild the Appalachian region following the Great Depression of the 1930s. Plans to restore the historic appearance of the Gap were rooted in land utilization and recreational planning philosophies that had been developed by National Park Service officials during the New Deal. Even before Cumberland Gap National Historical Park was officially established, a plan to restore the Gap based on these principles was endorsed by National Park Service officials. Feasibility studies conducted in 1937 and sanctioned the following year by Ronald Lee, the acting assistant director of the National Park Service, recommended that the Gap "should [be] return[ed] to the primitive condition experienced by Daniel Boone" (Sirna 2015). Although establishment of the park was authorized by Congress in 1940, restoration plans for Cumberland Gap were postponed by land acquisition efforts in the Tri-State area until the mid-1950s.

As development plans for Cumberland Gap National Historical Park languished, issues with the existing alignment of U.S. Highway 25E through the Gap became more urgent. Heavy traffic flow and steep grades over Cumberland Mountain resulted in numerous traffic accidents along the highway during the 1940s and 1950s (Figure 126). As death tolls mounted, state and local highway officials made several attempts to improve safety along the highway corridor. Improvements to the roadway included the realignment of a dangerous curve—known as "Dead Man's Curve"—near the Harris Courts roadside motel in 1948 and widening the existing highway with a new truck climbing lane on the Kentucky side of the Gap in 1953 (National Park Service 1966; *The Courier-Journal* 1953).

Despite these improvements, the stretch of U.S. Highway 25E through the Cumberland Gap continued to pose a risk to motorists and threatened the future of the region's tourism industry. In 1955, as the long-awaited land acquisition process finally ended, officials from the Tri-State area began to develop additional plans to improve the existing alignment and grades along the highway. That May, the states submitted a plan to the National Park Service that called for widening the existing alignment of U.S. Highway 25E to four lanes to accommodate increased traffic flows (National Park Service 1966).

In response, the National Park Service initiated a series of studies to determine the impact of highway improvements on the Cumberland Gap and to ensure that historic and scenic values were retained. In keeping with the National Park Service's ultimate goal of restoring the historic vista of the Cumberland Gap, park planners suggested an alternative approach that included removing the roadway from the Gap entirely and adding a tunnel to improve both visitor safety and experience within the park. In July 1956, the National Park Service requested that the Bureau of Public Roads (Bureau) conduct a survey to determine the costs and feasibility of such a project. At the conclusion of the study, the Bureau estimated that it would cost more than $3.2 million to construct a 1,400-foot-long tunnel through the Gap. Virginia and Kentucky, the two

states directly involved in the proposed project, approved of the plan but declined to share any part of the cost (National Park Service 1966). Although construction was once again deferred, the National Park Service remained committed to restoring the historic appearance of the Gap. In fact, the park's Mission 66 Master Plan reaffirmed the park's commitment to restoring "the Gap to its natural appearance at the time of the arrival of the first pioneers" (Cumberland Gap National Historical Park 1963).

Figure 126. Photograph of a traffic accident along U.S. Highway 25E near the Cumberland Gap, ca. 1950s. Note the road sign in the background, which reads "Welcome to Kentucky" (Image courtesy of Wiley 2014).

In the mid-1960s, plans to restore the Cumberland Gap were revived as part of President Johnson's War on Poverty initiative. In 1965, Johnson secured passage of the Appalachian Regional Development Act, creating the Appalachian Regional Commission (ARC). In addition to overseeing the implementation of economic development programs throughout Appalachia, the commission was also tasked with the construction of the Appalachian Development Highway System (Gauthier 1973). In 1966, the section of U.S. Highway 25E through Cumberland Gap was designated as part of the new highway system and funds were allocated to reduce the existing grade and widen the highway to four lanes (*The State Journal* 1966).

Kentucky Highway Commissioner Henry Ward was opposed to the new highway improvements, which he felt would negatively impact the scenic beauty of the Cumberland Gap (Figure 127). That July, Ward called for a conference with federal authorities to propose alternative solutions to reduce construction impacts within the park. He reiterated the benefits of the earlier plan developed by the National Park Service to construct a tunnel for highway traffic, asserting that "Certainly no project has yet been discussed that warrants more consideration than the protection of the Cumberland Gap" (*The State Journal* 1966). Although Ward's proposal to tunnel the

highway would be much more expensive, it proved popular with members of the public who felt that cost "should be weighed against the worth of history and the sentiment of the people" (*Johnson City Press* 1966).

Figure 127. Woman stands along the side of U.S. Highway 25E as it passes through Cumberland Gap, ca. 1940s (Image courtesy of University of North Texas Libraries, Denton, Texas).

In response to rising pressure from state and local officials, in late July 1966, a five-man task force, consisting of state highway officials from Kentucky and Virginia, as well as representatives from the ARC, the Bureau of Public Roads, and the National Park Service, was organized to evaluate four alternative schemes for highway construction through Cumberland Gap. First, members of the task force explored the ARC's initial recommendation to construct an open cut through the Gap to accommodate a four-lane highway. Although this option was expected to cost only $500,000, it was generally agreed that it would "seriously impair the natural beauty of the Gap" (*The Courier-Journal* 1966). Additional alternatives evaluated by the task force included widening the existing road and putting an "earthen" cover over it at a cost of $2.5 million and boring a 1,900-foot-long tunnel at a cost of $7.5 million, both of which were ultimately rejected (*The Courier-Journal* 1966).

In October 1966, the task force produced their final report, endorsing the construction of a 750-foot-long "rigid frame" tunnel beneath the Gap (Figure 128) (National Park Service 1966). Building the tunnel would include making a "cut in the mountain, constructing the tunnel in what would be a large ditch, and filling in earth on top of it" (*The Courier-Journal* 1971). Although the tunnel alone was expected to cost $2.6 million to build, Commissioner Henry Ward of

Kentucky was confident that the project could be jointly financed by Kentucky and Virginia using federal funding allotted for highway improvements (*The Lexington Herald* 1966).

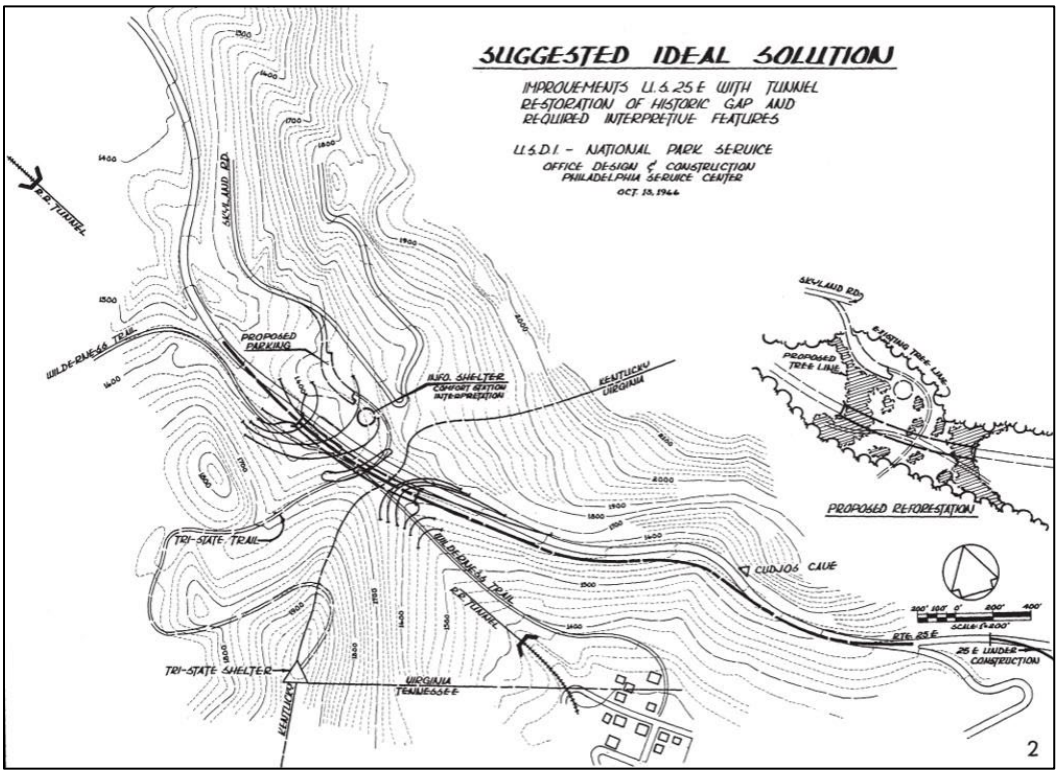


Figure 128. Schematic drawing showing the location of the proposed 750-foot-long tunnel through the Cumberland Gap and proposed restoration activities, October 1966 (Image courtesy of National Park Service 1966).

Unfortunately, funding difficulties proved to be a much bigger problem than highway officials had anticipated. In 1968, the new Kentucky Highway Commissioner, William Hazelrigg, noted that while he remained "wed to the idea of a tunnel through scenic Cumberland Gap," funding for the project was still uncertain (*The Courier-Journal* 1968). While plans for tunnel construction stalled, other highway improvements proceeded in the Tri-State area. In 1966, a four-lane, 1.1-mile-long bypass was built around the town of Cumberland Gap from the terminus of U.S. Highway 58 to alleviate the pressure of commercial truck traffic near the park (*The Knoxville News-Sentinel* 1966).

As funding issues continued to delay construction, new questions arose about the length of the proposed tunnel to be built beneath the Gap. In 1971, National Park Service officials expressed doubts that such a short tunnel would be able to effectively dampen noise and vibration in the restored saddle of the Gap, which would be located just overhead (*The Courier-Journal* 1971). In response, officials with the ARC proposed the construction of a longer tunnel, measuring between 1,100 and 1,400 feet, which would be bored through the mountain at a cost of between $8 million and 10 million.

That December, the ARC hired Clarke and Rapauno, a Louisville-based engineering firm, to evaluate the feasibility of constructing a longer tunnel (*The Corbin Times-Tribune* 1971). The

following year, the firm submitted a Phase I report in which they proposed that the stretch of U.S. Highway 25E to the south of Middlesboro be rerouted through a 3,800-foot-long dual bore tunnel located approximately one mile south of the Gap (*The Courier-Journal* 1972). The project was expected to cost approximately $33 million, which would be paid for with funds from the Federal Highway Trust Fund (*The Courier-Journal* 1972). The ranking member on the Senate Public Works Committee, and primary sponsor of the bill, was Sen. John Sherman Cooper (R-KY).

In June 1973, ARC officials proposed yet another alternative for the tunnel's construction, calling "for a two-portal divided highway tunnel to begin near the Southern Railway's Tiprell Rd. spur and extend[ing] about eight-tenths of a mile through the mountain, coming out near the park headquarters, just outside Middlesboro" (Figure 129) (*The Knoxville News-Sentinel* 1973). Despite the ARC's recommendation, the following month, construction on the tunnel was again delayed when House members rejected the Senate's proposal to use "trust funds" to aid in highway construction (*The Corbin Times-Tribune* 1973). Finally, in September 1973, Congress passed the Federal Aid Highway Act—also known as Public Law 93-87—which authorized the construction of a tunnel "to permit the restoration of the Gap…and provide adequate traffic capacity" (Brown 1993).

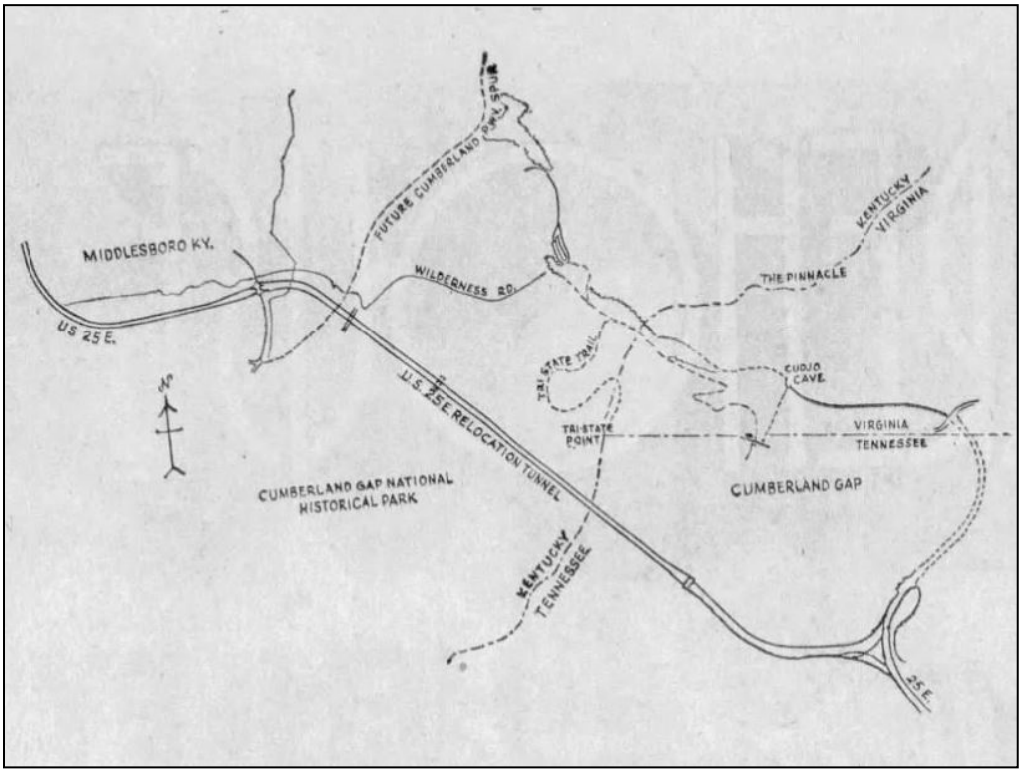


Figure 129. Sketch showing the route of the proposed Cumberland Gap Tunnel as recommended by the ARC in 1973 (Image courtesy of *The Knoxville News-Sentinel*, June 10, 1973).

Construction of the Cumberland Gap Tunnel

Two years after the passage of Public Law 93-87, in July 1975, disagreements arose between the Department of the Interior and the Department of Transportation over which agency would

ultimately be responsible for project costs. At the time, an article in *The Courier-Journal* noted that the original estimate of $35 million predicted in 1973 could increase to as much as $50 million by the time construction actually got underway in 1979 or 1980 (*The Courier-Journal* 1975). The article further stated that Congress was responsible for much of the confusion, as "it authorized the work two years ago without saying whether the expense would be a budget item for Interior or Transportation," neither of which wanted "so much money taken out of its budget for one project" (*The Courier-Journal* 1975).

For the next three years, construction remained idle "because no agency would take responsibility for seeking the appropriations" (*The Messenger* 1978). Finally, in June 1978, the National Park Service submitted a request to Congress, asking to allocate $1.1 million of the agency's yearly budget for fiscal year 1979 to conduct test drillings and preliminary design work for the tunnel. The funding request was the result of ongoing negotiations between the National Park Service and the Department of Transportation brokered by Sen. Walter "Dee" Huddleston (D-KY) (Figure 130). Under the agreement obtained by Huddleston, the National Park Service agreed to pay for the engineering and design of the tunnel, which would then be reimbursed by the Department of Transportation using funding from the Highway Trust Fund (*The Winchester Sun* 1978). It was estimated that following the preliminary testing, the first funds for construction would be sought in the 1980 federal budget (*The Courier-Journal* 1978).

Figure 130. Photograph of Sen. Walter "Dee" Huddleston, ca. 1980 (Image courtesy of the Portrait Print Collection, University of Kentucky, Lexington).

The initial $1.1 million appropriation for the tunnel project provided funding for geologic testing at the tunnel site. During the testing phase of the project, geologists examined rock on the ground surface and identified rock types and structures in the location of the proposed tunnel. Following

completion of the examination, a small-diameter, horizontal 2,000-foot-long bore hole was drilled at the site to provide greater geologic detail. The resulting rock core provided site-specific information about the rock type and quality over nearly half of the tunnel's proposed length. Strength and classification tests were performed on the sample cores to determine how the rock would react to drilling and blasting for excavation and to estimate the necessary support needed for the construction of the tunnels (Federal Highway Administration 2001).

Following conclusion of the geologic testing, Congress made its first $15.5 million appropriation towards tunnel construction in 1980. The following year, a second appropriation for its construction, in the amount of $21.5 million, was allocated by Congress (*The Knoxville News-Sentinel* 1980). Unfortunately, before construction could officially get underway, the project encountered yet another financial setback when President Ronald Reagan announced an economic recovery program that included federal budget cuts in excess of $40 billion (*The Courier-Journal* 1981). The budget cuts, which were set to begin in fiscal year 1982, proposed to eliminate the ARC and reduce Kentucky's share of federal highway funding by more than $72.5 million. According to Sen. Huddleston, "Reagan's proposals would also eliminate money for work on the Cumberland Gap highway tunnel" (*The Courier-Journal* 1981). Although funding for highway construction was restricted by the Reagan administration, Huddleston continued to pursue alternative financing options for the project, including securing a $14 million appropriation as part of the Department of the Interior's 1983–1984 funding bill (*The Courier-Journal* 1983).

In November 1984, with the future of the Cumberland Gap Tunnel still uncertain, Sen. Huddleston lost his senate seat by a narrow margin to his Republican challenger, Mitch McConnell (R-KY). Shortly after Huddleston's defeat, on November 20, a contract for preliminary construction of the tunnel was issued to Crosstown Contractors Inc. (*Lexington Herald-Leader* 1984). The company started work on the tunnel site on December 6; however, a week later, the project came to an abrupt halt when the Reagan administration implemented an all-out funding freeze in an effort to reduce the federal budget deficit, prompting Harold Wieland, district engineer of the FHWA, to issue a stop work (*Lexington Herald-Leader* 1984). A bi-partisan effort pushed back on what was deemed a back-door attempt to scuttle the project by the Reagan administration, after earlier attempts to defer appropriation in January had been blocked by Congress (*Lexington Herald-Leader* 1984). Allegations of political retaliation by Reagan against the tunnel project angered Kentucky residents, many of whom "saw a direct connection between the halt in construction and the defeat of Huddleston, the project's leading advocate in Congress" (*The Lexington Herald-Leader* 1984).

U.S. Representative Harold "Hal" B. Rogers (R-KY), who was "usually a strong Reagan supporter," led the efforts to restore funding for the tunnel project following the funding freeze (*The Courier-Journal* 1985). Rogers' appeals to Congress highlighted the safety hazards of the current U.S. Highway 25E alignment through the Gap while also emphasizing the economic benefits of restoration. In September 1984, the House Appropriation Committee succumbed to political pressure, voting to lift the freeze and to override any deferrals petitioned by the Reagan administration later that May (*The Lexington Herald-Leader* 1985). On May 16, 1985, Interior Secretary Donald Hodel officially lifted the funding freeze, allowing construction on the Cumberland Gap Tunnel to resume (*Messenger-Inquirer* 1985).

In December 1985, engineers with the FHWA used a 10-foot square pilot bore to begin construction on the 4,100-foot-long test tunnel (Figure 131) (Federal Highway Administration 2001; *Messenger-Inquirer* 1986). Construction on the pilot tunnel took two years to complete and revealed many of the geologic and hydrologic challenges facing the project. Among the many difficulties encountered during construction of the pilot tunnel were springs, voids with thick clay infills, tall caverns, and an underground lake measuring roughly 30 feet deep (National Park Service 2011a). By September 1986, work on the test tunnel was approximately two-thirds complete (*The Courier-Journal* 1986). In addition to boring, workers on the project were also responsible for drilling holes in the rock face, which were then detonated with explosives—a process which was described by local newspapers as "not unlike mining coal" (*The Courier-Journal* 1986). The test tunnel was finally completed through the mountain in December 1986 (*Messenger-Inquirer* 1986a).

Figure 131. Photograph of the pilot tunnel showing tracks for transporting materials to the construction site, ca. 1985 (Image courtesy of Wiley 2014).

While samples collected from the construction of the pilot tunnel were being analyzed by the FHWA, other contracts were issued for projects related to the tunnel's construction. Among these projects was the completion of a new railroad bridge and mountain cut leading to the tunnel's portal—both on the Kentucky side, as well as the construction of a new U.S. Highway 25E/U.S. Highway 58 interchange near the Tennessee end of the tunnel (*The State Journal* 1987). Once again, Rep. Hal Rogers served as the driving force behind federal funding for the project, securing several significant appropriations in the late 1980s (*The State Journal* 1989). By 1989, $145 million had been appropriated for the project, nearly all of which Rogers argued had been secured "over the objections of the Reagan administration" (*The Courier-Journal* 1989). In 1990, President George H. W. Bush's budget included $20 million for construction of

the Cumberland Gap Tunnel, up from $12 million the previous year, easing some of the previous political tensions surrounding the project's construction (*The Courier-Journal* 1990).

In June 1991, construction on the long-awaited project finally got underway with the blasting of the northbound dual bore tunnel (Figure 132). During construction of the tunnels, holes were drilled in the bedrock and explosives were loaded and detonated in a carefully designed sequence to achieve the proper balance between sufficient breakage of excavated material and minimal damage to the surrounding rock (Federal Highway Administration 2001). Following the blast, the tunnel was ventilated to clear the explosive gases, and air quality measurements were taken to ensure safe return to the tunnel. The blasted material was removed from the tunnel and stockpiled for future use. Discarded fill material was later used to obliterate the re-routed portion of U.S. Highway 25E, construct the four-lane highway approaches, improve a nearby park road, construct roadway embankments and parking areas, and aid in the reconstruction of the old Wilderness Road (Federal Highway Administration 2001). The exposed top part of the tunnel and face were then removed using drill equipment or hand tools, and the crown was reinforced to prevent collapse. As part of the relocation project of U.S. Highway 25E, a post-tension box girder bridge with reinforced concrete was completed over Skyland Road—one of seven new bridges constructed in the park as part of the highway project.

Figure 132. View of the northbound portal under construction, ca. 1991 (Image courtesy of Cumberland Gap Tunnel Authority [https://cgtunnel.com/about.html]).

Given its location within the park, efforts were made to integrate the exterior features of the tunnel with the surrounding landscape. Sandstone masonry, deep brown weathering steel, and earth-tone concrete were used, and the area surrounding the tunnel was landscaped with native trees and shrubs (Federal Highway Administration 2001). The tunnel also utilized soil-nailed walls, which was considered a modern technology for the time, consisting of steel rods that were placed in the earth to stabilize and reinforce the near-vertical slope face. A colored concrete

grout was then applied to the facing so that it blended in with the natural surroundings (Figure 133) (Federal Highway Administration 2001).

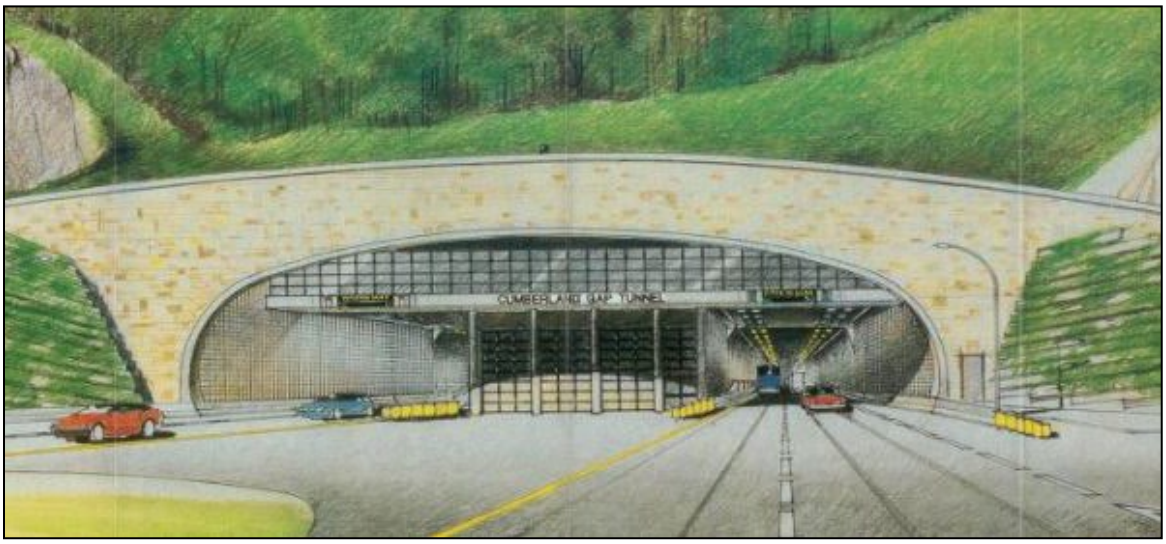


Figure 133. Rendering of the exterior of the Cumberland Gap Tunnel, ca. 2001 (Image courtesy of Federal Highway Administration 2001).

To ensure the safe operation of the tunnel, on-call fire, rescue, and towing crews were dedicated to tunnel emergencies, with water storage tanks installed in close proximity to the structure for firefighting purposes (Federal Highway Administration 2001). On the interior of the tunnel, 16 jet turbine fans were hung from the ceiling every 600 feet, with air quality continually monitored by electric sensors, and low-pressure sodium and fluorescent lights installed to provide illumination. Pedestrian crossovers for emergency access between tunnels were also available every 300 feet. Outside the tunnel, message signs were installed, vehicular crossovers were provided to allow two-way traffic in the event that temporary closure of one of the tunnels was required and pull-off lanes were placed at each approach. Portal buildings were constructed at the entrances which, in addition to housing state-of-the art ventilation, lighting, and communications systems, had closed-circuit cameras and magnetic loop detectors for traffic control (Federal Highway Administration 2001).

The Cumberland Gap Tunnel ultimately cost $280 million and took 1,947 days to complete (Cumberland Gap Tunnel Authority n.d.). A dedication ceremony for the Cumberland Gap Tunnel was held on October 18, 1996. Despite “driving rain, gale-force winds, and near-freezing temperatures,” several hundred local citizens attended the dedication, which was officiated by the governors of Kentucky, Virginia, and Tennessee, as well as members of the young honor guard (Figure 134) (*Potomac News* 1996). At the ceremony, it was reported that the tunnel project had resulted in significant economic development to the region, with Bell County reporting 50 new businesses and more than 500 new jobs added to the community as a result of the tunnel’s completion. Most of the new jobs were in the tourism sector, including golf courses and hotels (*The Bristol Herald Courier* 1996). At the time of the dedication, 39 employees had been hired to oversee the tunnel’s operations (*Bristol Herald Courier* 1996). With the opening of the tunnels to traffic, the dangerous section of U.S. Highway 25E was permanently eliminated from the Cumberland Gap (National Park Service 2011a).

Figure 134. Spectators at the dedication ceremony for the Cumberland Gap Tunnel, ca. October 1996 (Image courtesy of *Bristol Herald Courier*, October 19, 1996).

Restoration of the Historic Wilderness Road

With the tunnel complete, the National Park Service shifted its focus to additional tasks planned as part of the restoration project, which included restoring the functional footpath that had led early travelers through the Gap. On October 1, 1999, the National Park Service began a $10 million project to restore the Cumberland Gap to its idealized eighteenth-century appearance (*Bristol Herald Courier* 1999). To accomplish this task, park officials spent over two years researching the route of the Wilderness Road through the Gap (*Bristol Herald Courier* 1996). Additionally, during March and September of 2000, a crew of five archaeologists spent two weeks examining the trails and related areas in the park for archaeological resources that might be impacted by the trail construction (Halchin 2000, 2000a).

The methodology for the restoration relied on historic sketches and photographs depicting the saddle of Cumberland Gap, as well as FHWA topographic contour maps, historic aerials, National Park Service files, and previous studies and supporting historical documentation that described the alignment of the old Wilderness Road (Unrau 2002). The work to identify the old road alignment fell to Michael F. Hart of the National Park Service's Denver Service Center (DSC) (Unrau 2002). Hart relied on firsthand accounts from historic documents to establish the original viewshed and to identify locations visible on the ground in which to orientate the conceptual design for the road's restoration.

As historic segments of the Wilderness Road were identified, park staff surveyed and staked their alignment in the field. During this process, it was discovered that parts of the historic road did not follow the current route of U.S. Highway 25E (Unrau 2002). By 2001, all segments of the historic Wilderness Road had been delineated, and in August of that year, contracted with Estes Brothers Construction of Jonesville, Virginia to remove the old pavement from the abandoned alignment of the highway (*The Knoxville News-Sentinel* 2001). By February 2002, the asphalt had been removed and 30 feet of fill dirt had been added to restore the Wilderness Road to its historic grade (*The Park City Daily News* 2002). The most intensive restoration efforts focused on the saddle of the Gap, where the side slopes along a 1,500-foot-long section of the roadway was contoured to "re-create a narrow opening in the mountains" (Figure 135) (*The Park City Daily News* 2002). In the spring of 2002, National Park Service personnel and volunteers from LMU assisted in the reforestation of the old alignment of U.S. Highway 25E, planting over 22,000 seedlings to recreate the heavily wooded landscape of the 1700s (Figure 136) (*The Advocate-Messenger* 2002). In all, restoration of the Wilderness Road cost $4 million.

Figure 135. Restoration activities in the saddle of the Gap, ca. 2002–2003 (Image courtesy of Cumberland Gap Tunnel Authority [https://cgtunnel.com/about.html]).

Figure 136. LMU students planting trees on the old U.S. Highway 25E roadbed, ca. 2002 (Image courtesy of Robert Droz [https://losthistory.net/us-highways/cgap2002a.htm]).

New Infrastructure Associated with the Restoration

In addition to highway improvements and restoration of the Gap itself, the construction of the Cumberland Gap Tunnel also brought changes to existing infrastructure at the park. In 1992, shortly after construction on the tunnel was officially underway, the National Park Service completed its purchase of Cudjo's Cave (now Gap Cave), a tourist attraction operated by LMU along the shoulder of U.S. Highway 25E. The purchase cost for the cave was $650,000 (*The Kingsport Times-News* 1992). The cave was subsequently closed to the public for a period of eight years during which its electric lights were removed, and the exterior of the cave was "restored to its natural condition" along the newly reestablished Wilderness Road Trail (*The Bristol Herald Courier* 1994). Additionally, a portion of the trail leading to the cave entrance was also paved with concrete and the existing wood bridges and rusted iron handrails located throughout its interior were replaced with stainless steel safety structures (Figure 137) (*The Knoxville News-Sentinel* 1999). Local caving clubs were also invited to help remove trash and graffiti from its 1,200-foot passage. Prior to its reopening in 2000, the cave was renamed "Gap Cave" after the original name that was given to it by Thomas Walker (*The Bristol Herald Courier* 1994).

As part of the general highway improvements related to the tunnel's construction, four new parking areas were also built within the park. In 1988, the original parking area for the park's Visitor Center, which was constructed during the Mission 66 era, was demolished and replaced with a larger lot (Figure 138). Ten years later, in 1998, a segment of U.S. Highway 58 near the entrance to the Wilderness Road Campground was relocated to the south. When the highway was rerouted, the decommissioned segment of the roadway was incorporated into the existing campground entrance road and a small parking area—known as the Colson Lane Parking Area—was built to the east (Figure 139).

Figure 137. Restored entrance to Gap Cave, ca. 2000 (Image courtesy of Cumberland Gap Tunnel Authority [https://cgtunnel.com/about.html]).

Figure 138. Overview of the Visitor Center Parking Area before reconstruction, taken in September 1964 (Photograph on file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky [Classification No. 910, Negative No. 1551]).

Figure 139. Aerial imagery showing current location of U.S. Highway 58 with the Colson Trail Parking Area, denoted by the red arrow, ca. 2003 (Image courtesy of Google Earth).

Another new parking area and information center for visitors in the vicinity of the restored Wilderness Road was also constructed as part of the larger Cumberland Gap Tunnel Project. Although initial plans for the overall rehabilitation project focused on the rehabilitation of the O'Dell House as a potential visitor contact facility, a Value Analysis Study for the proposed project, conducted in 1995, ultimately recommended the construction of all new facilities. A design team from the National Park Service's Office of Value Engineering and Technical Assistance concluded that the best design for the area would consist of a parking area for 50–70 cars, a small interpretative/ranger kiosk, restrooms, utilities, interpretative exhibits, and trails connecting the "Wilderness Road," and other ancillary features (Figure 140) (LeBorgne 1995). The new visitor information center and parking area was constructed in a disturbed area between the O'Dell House and the restored Wilderness Road Trail between 2002 and 2004 (LeBorgne 1995).

The center, which would later be known as the Daniel Boone Visitor Information Center (VIC), was designed by the Colorado-based firm of Chamberlin Architects, with Wenk Associates of Denver serving as the primary landscape architects for the project (Ledbetter 2002). As constructed, the VIC featured a parking area, concrete plaza, covered benches, a ranger office, interpretative shelter, and comfort station (Figure 140) (Ledbetter 2002). Vincent Ciulla Design of New York developed all the interpretative elements at the center, including wayside exhibits and life size metal sculptures, representing the variety of people and animals that once traveled over the Cumberland Gap (Figure 141).

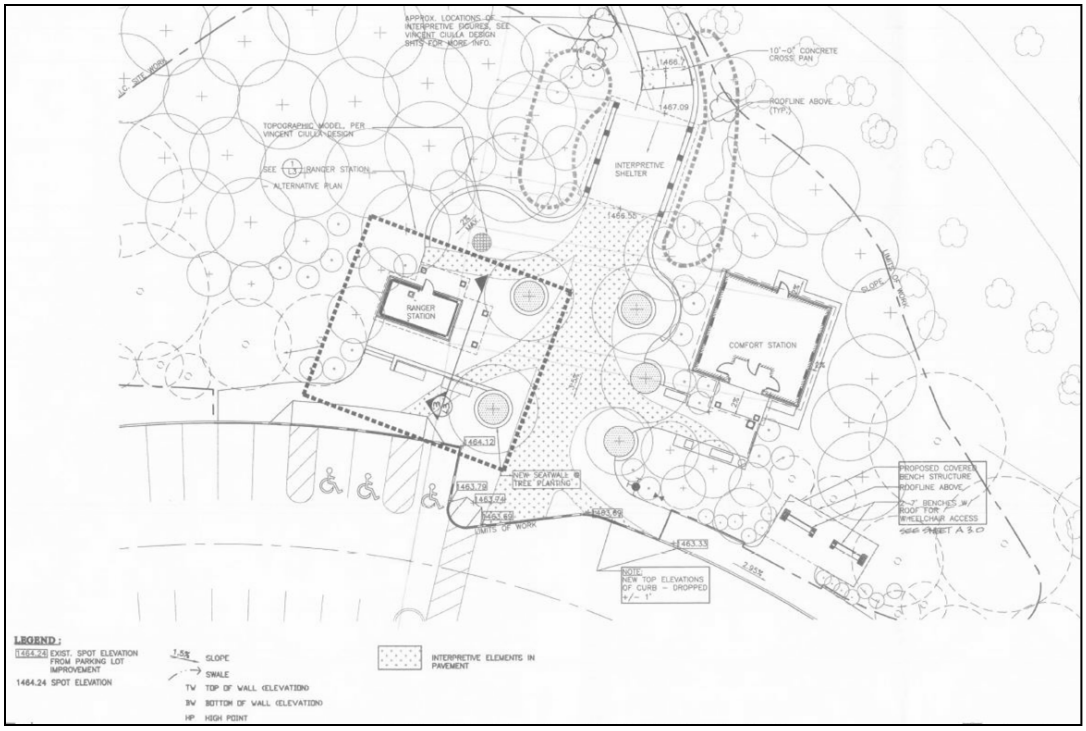


Figure 140. Plan for the Daniel Boone VIC, ca. 2002 (Image courtesy of Ledbetter 2002).

Figure 141. Photograph of interpretative sculptures at the Daniel Boone VIC designed by Vincent Ciulla Design, ca. 2006 (Image courtesy of Cumberland Gap Tunnel Authority [https://cgtunnel.com/about.html]).

While the Daniel Boone VIC would serve visitors on the Virginia side of the park, another new parking area was also developed for visitors on the Kentucky side of the Gap (*The Advocate-Messenger* 2002). Constructed between 2002 and 2003, the Thomas Walker Parking Area was developed to serve as "the terminus for the Object Lesson Road, a turn of the century macadam road that will provide handicapped access to the Wilderness Road through Cumberland Gap" (*The Advocate-Messenger* 2002). The location of the new parking area was supposed to enable visitors to hike throughout the park's trail system with relative ease (Figure 142). During the construction of the Thomas Walker Parking Area, a modern parking lot was also added south of the Iron Furnace, which also serves as a trailhead for the Tennessee Road Trail.

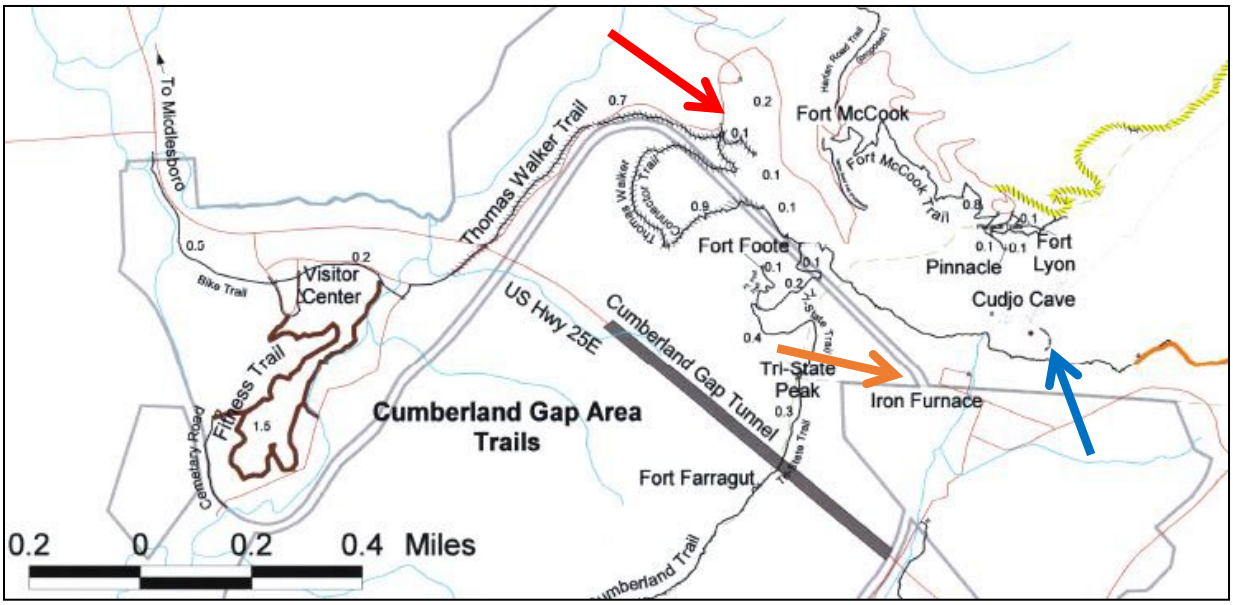


Figure 142. Trail map of the Cumberland Gap Area, showing the location of the Thomas Walker Parking Area, denoted by the red arrow, the Iron Furnace Parking Area, denoted by the orange arrow, and the Daniel Boone VIC, denoted by the blue arrow, ca. 2001 (Image reprinted on file at eTIC [no. 692992-CUGA_380_60040_A_0001_of_0001]).

Another important project completed as part of the restoration of Cumberland Gap was the repair and reuse of the abandoned L&N railroad tunnel, originally constructed in 1889 (Figure 143). In June 2001, a contract for the tunnel's restoration was awarded to East Bank Contractors, LLC of Nashville, Tennessee in the amount of $1,435,028 (Woods 2001).

Proposed work included the stabilization of a collapsed section of the tunnel, measuring 350 feet long and the installation of a new multi-plate metal tunnel liner (Woods 2001). Additionally, two new concrete headwalls were proposed for construction, as well as a new gravel tread surface. The tunnel was planned to be repurposed to house utilities and for use as a pedestrian/bicycle trail connecting Harrogate, Tennessee, and the Town of Cumberland Gap.

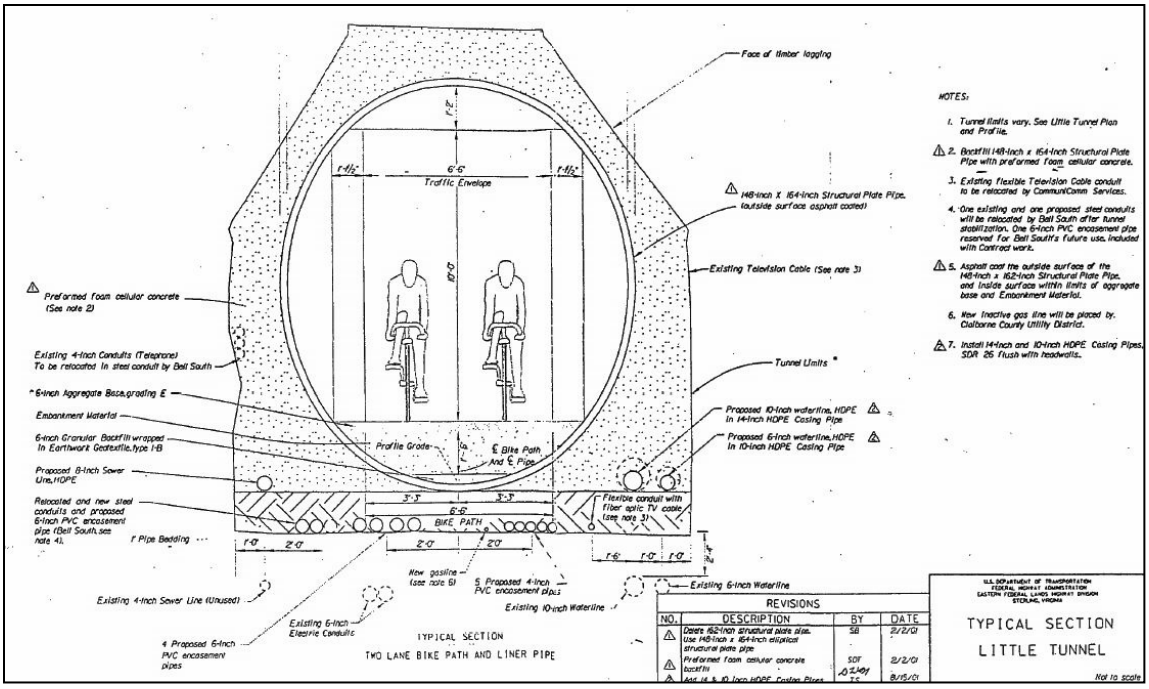


Figure 143. Section drawing showing restorations to the L&N Railroad Tunnel (Little Tunnel), ca. 2001 (Image courtesy of National Park Service 2001).

Modern Improvements to Existing Resources

In the decades since its establishment, Cumberland Gap National Historical Park has continued to update and expand its existing infrastructure to better accommodate modern park visitors. Most of the improvements that have occurred at the park in the last several decades were funded as part of a parkwide redevelopment project that accompanied the construction of the Cumberland Gap Tunnel. Since the 1980s, numerous park areas have experienced alterations that have ranged from relatively minor infrastructure upgrades to major renovations.

The 1980s proved to be a pivotal construction period for the park with numerous areas undergoing alterations throughout the decade. In 1980, a new maintenance yard was constructed at the eastern end of Hensley Settlement that included the Hensley Bunkhouse and Maintenance Shop (FMSS-ID 25174), a Gas House (FMSS-ID 25912), and corn crib (FMSS-ID 242913). That same year, the former JCCC property was repurposed for use as the Park Headquarters. The area underwent significant changes, including the demolition of several of the remaining trailers that had housed the center's dispensary, lounge, and supply branches. According to historic aerial photographs of the area, the mess hall and education building were also demolished in the mid-1980s. In 1984, one of the remaining dormitories and the vocational building were renovated for use as a headquarters building and resource management office, respectively. New buildings were also added to the headquarters complex during this time, including a new horse barn, duplex residence, and carport for park employees, which were all constructed in 1986.

At the Pinnacle, the area's water system was upgraded in 1981 and the original roof on the Pinnacle Interpretive Shelter and Comfort Station was replaced by Montgomery Brothers Roofing Inc. of Nicholasville, Kentucky in 1984. The following year, the trails at the Pinnacle

were resurfaced by the Kentucky-Virginia Stone Company of Middlesboro. That same year, the roof on the park's visitor center was also replaced. In 1986, a new restroom wing was constructed on the visitor center and a new entry vestibule was added to the building in 1987. At the Wilderness Road Campground two group picnic shelters were also constructed at the picnic area and campground during the 1980s (*Kingsport Times-News* 1986).

Changes at the park continued into the 1990s, with minor improvements made at the Pinnacle, including the construction of a short spur trail on the south side of the Pinnacle Parking Area. The trail was constructed to provide a wheelchair accessible route to the overlook and was likely added sometime after the passage of the Americans with Disabilities Act in 1990. Although changes at the Pinnacle were minor, more significant improvements during this decade were performed at the park's visitor center. In 1993, the open patio below the exhibit space was enclosed, and in 1994, a large metal awning was constructed over the front pergola.

In 2004, passage of the Fern Lake Conservation and Recreation Act allowed the park to realize one of its most long-standing goals—the acquisition of the 4,500-acre Fern Lake watershed. Between 2008 and 2009, the acquisition of the land surrounding Fern Lake increased the park's acreage by 20 percent. In 2002, the visitor center underwent another large-scale renovation when an elevator addition, connected to the upper and lower observation patios, was built on to the east end of the building. At the same time, the original restrooms were converted into a single storage space. Additional changes included the addition of a door, window, and fire escape on the east exhibit wing, the expansion of the lower flagstone patio, the rehabilitation of the auditorium, the relocation of the exhibit space from the upper level to the newly enclosed lower level of the east wing, the addition of a crafts store into the vacated exhibit space, and replacement of the original ceiling and various lighting fixtures (Kentucky State Historic Preservation Office 2019).

Other improvements completed at the park during this period included the replacement of the original comfort stations and amphitheater projection building located at the Wilderness Road Campground and the installation of a new comfort station and picnic shelter at the Park Headquarters. These projects were completed between 2005 and 2007. At the Sugar Run Picnic Area, the original comfort station was replaced with a modern structure between 2006 and 2008. By 2011, the Tri-State Peak Shelter had also undergone significant modifications that included the removal of the shelter's distinctive stepped roof and its replacement with the current hexagonal roof. The replacement of the roof also involved the removal of three structural steel columns that extended the original roof over the state interpretive markers. The replacement of the larger roof with the much smaller hexagonal canopy significantly altered the structure's original roofline.

KNOWN RESOURCE TYPES

Cumberland Gap Tunnel

The Cumberland Gap Tunnel was completed in 1996 and consists of a dual-bore four lane vehicular tunnel that measures approximately 4,600-feet in length (Photograph 30). Although the tunnel has not been previously evaluated for NRHP eligibility, it represents a one-of-a-kind resource within the national park system.

Photograph 30. Overview of the Cumberland Gap Tunnel, showing the Tennessee portal, facing northwest.

Parking Areas

Five new parking areas were constructed as part of the multi-year improvement project related to the restoration of the Cumberland Gap. These parking areas are situated near the park's primary visitor contact facilities and major public access points for the parkwide trail system. They include the main visitor center parking lot (Photograph 31), the Iron Furnace Parking area (Photograph 32), the Colson Trail Parking Area (Photograph 33), the Daniel Boone VIC Parking Area (Photograph 34), and the Thomas Walker parking area (Photograph 35). All five parking lots feature asphalt paving and granite curbing. They were all constructed between 1988 and 2003. None of these resources have been previously evaluated for NRHP listing.

Bridges

Seven bridges were also constructed at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park as part of the larger restoration project. The bridges were constructed between 1988 and 1995 and carry both vehicular and railroad traffic. Five of the seven bridges were located in Kentucky, and two were in Tennessee. Bridges located in Kentucky included the Little Yellow Creek Bridge #2, the Seaboard Railroad Bridge, the Skyland Road Bridge #1, Skyland Road Bridge #2, and the U.S. Highway 25E Bridge #2. The two bridges in Tennessee were the Tiprell Road Bridge #1 and #2. For the most part, all of the bridges consist of cast in place concrete box girder bridges (Photograph 36). None of the seven bridges located in the park have been previously evaluated for NRHP eligibility.

Photograph 31. Overview of the main Visitor Center parking lot, facing southeast (North Wind 2023).

Photograph 32. Overview of the Iron Furnace Parking Area, facing north (North Wind 2023).

Photograph 33. Overview of the Colson Trail Parking Area, facing north (North Wind 2023).

Photograph 34. Overview of the Daniel Boone VIC Parking Area, facing northwest (North Wind 2023).

Photograph 35. Overview of the Thomas Walker Parking Area, facing northwest (North Wind 2023).

Photograph 36. Overview of the Skyland Road Bridge #1 and #2, facing east (North Wind 2023).

Trails

As part of the restoration of the historic Cumberland Gap, the park's existing trail system was improved, and several new trails were constructed to tie newly built parking areas and points of interest into the existing trail network. Some of the notable trails built during this period include the Wilderness Road Trail, which follows the old Wilderness Road alignment through the park (Photograph 37); the Gap Cave Trail, which was constructed to allow visitor access to Gap Cave; and the Thomas Walker Trail, which has its main trailhead at the southern end of the Thomas Walker Parking Area. Like other trails located within the park, trails constructed during this period are typically about 4 feet wide and have a gravel or dirt tread. The exception to this is the Gap Cave Trail, which is partially paved. None of the trails that were constructed during the restoration of the Cumberland Gap have been previously evaluated for listing in the NRHP.

Photograph 37. Overview of Wilderness Road Trail, facing south (North Wind 2023).

NRHP Eligibility for Resources Related to the Restoration of Cumberland Gap

The restoration of the Cumberland Gap was an important event for the Tri-State area and there are abundant records detailing the events that transpired at the park during this period. As all the properties related to the restoration represent individually distinguishable entities located at spatially discrete locations within the park, they should be evaluated individually for NRHP eligibility (Figure 144). Additionally, as none of the restoration-related resources have reached the 50-year threshold for NRHP listing, they should be evaluated for NRHP eligibility according to the guidance provided by *National Register Bulletin 22: Guidelines for Evaluating and Nominating Properties that Have Achieved Significance Within the Past Fifty Years*, which provides direction for how to evaluate resources using Criteria Consideration G (Sherfy and Luce 1998).

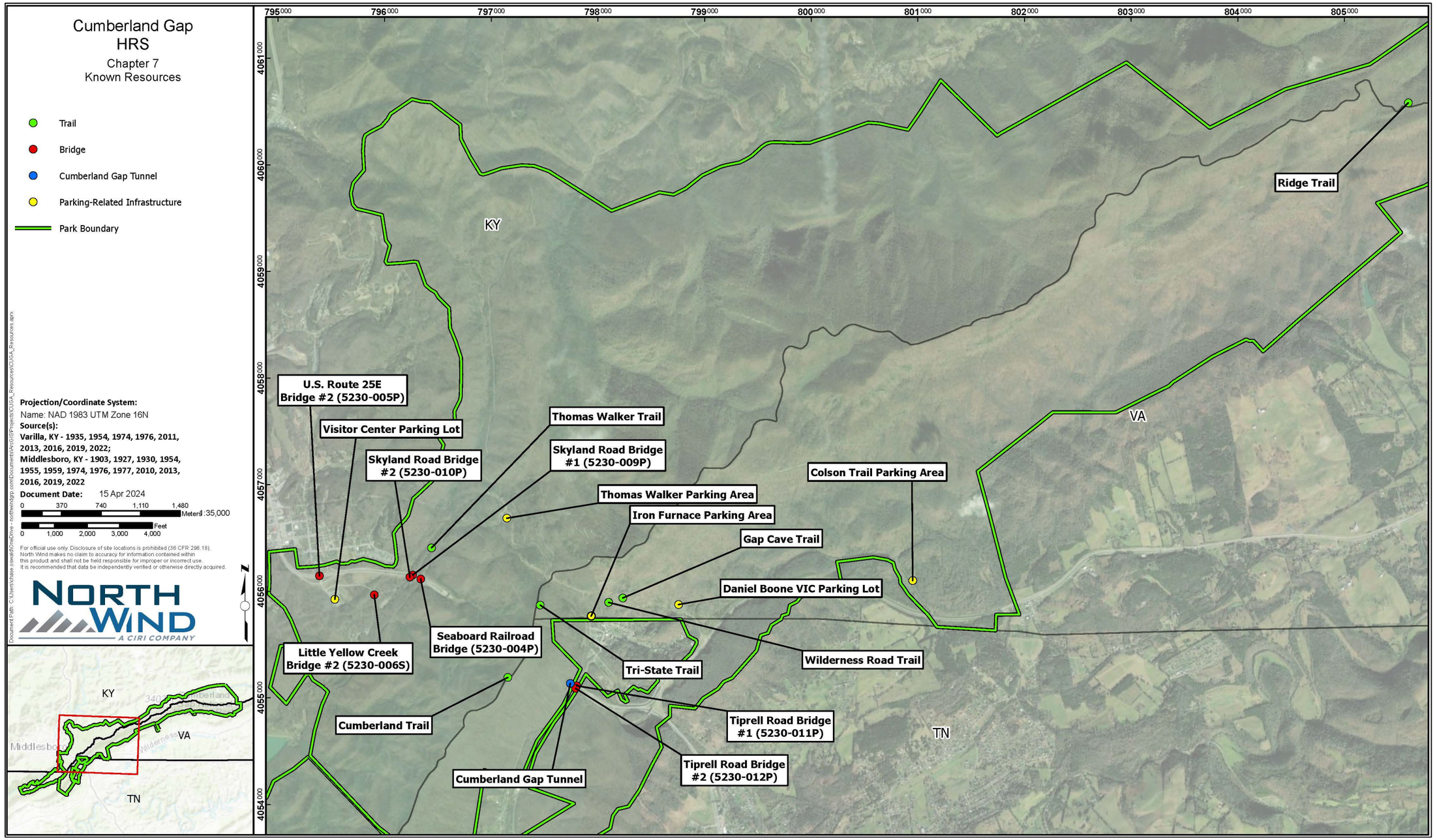


Figure 144. Chapter 7 Known Resources.

CHAPTER EIGHT:
NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES EVALUATIONS

This chapter offers NRHP eligibility evaluations for historic-age resources located within the current boundaries of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park and provides the status of resources currently listed in or determined eligible for inclusion in the NRHP. Recommendations for changes in NRHP status are also provided, as appropriate. Evaluations of eligibility are related to the thematic contexts presented in Chapters Two through Seven of this report.

Eligible resources may be nominated or listed in the NRHP either individually or as contributing resources to a broader historic district, depending upon park priorities. The NRHP eligibility recommendations in this chapter are arranged into two groups: proposed historic districts and individual nominations.

Resources are organized according to their NRHP status as follows: 1) resources currently listed in the NRHP; 2) resources determined or recommended eligible for listing in the NRHP; 3) resources determined or recommended not eligible for listing in the NRHP; 4) resources requiring further study; and 5) resources that are recommended not eligible for NRHP listing due to age.

Within each section of this chapter, the resources are organized geographically by state and county. Copies of National Register documentation and DOEs are provided in Appendix A. Appendices B and C describe resources that are either currently listed in the NRHP, have been determined eligible for listing, or are recommended eligible for listing in the NRHP. Appendix D provides descriptions for those resources that have been determined and/or recommended not eligible for inclusion in the NRHP, while Appendix E provides descriptions of resources that have been left unevaluated pending further research. A resource summary table, which includes pertinent information for all cultural resources located within the park, is included in Appendix F.

RESOURCES LISTED IN THE NATIONAL REGISTER

Historic Districts

Multiple States

Cumberland Gap – Virginia/Kentucky/Tennessee Historic District (Lee County, VA; Bell and Harlan Counties, KY; and Claiborne County, TN). National Register documentation for the Cumberland Gap – Virginia/Kentucky/Tennessee Historic District (NRIS #80000366) was accepted on May 28, 1980 (Morgan 1978) (Table 6). The district was listed under Criterion A in the areas of Commerce, Industry, Military, Transportation, Ethnic Heritage, and Exploration/Settlement. A total of 20 contributing resources and eight non-contributing resources dating between 1700 and 1899 were located within the district boundary, which encompassed 470 acres.

In 1993, the nomination was amended to identify specific segments of the Wilderness Road that were not previously included in the 1980 nomination (Krakow 1993) (see Table 6). The amended

nomination also removed U.S. Highway 25E from the district, reducing the number of non-contributing properties to seven. No changes to the boundary were proposed. Additionally, the amended nomination updated the significance discussion for Criterion A and noted that the segments of Wilderness Road located within the district boundaries were also eligible under Criterion B for their association with notable figures who traveled the route such as Daniel Boone, Henry Clay, and Moses Austin.

Table 6. Summary of Resources within the Cumberland Gap Historic District – Virginia/Kentucky/Tennessee (NRIS #80000336), by listing.

Listing	Contributing Resources	Non-Contributing Resources
1980 National Register Nomination	Wilderness Road Fort Foote Fort Nathaniel Lyon Morgan's Commissary Union Powder Magazine Battery #7 Road Battery #2 Battery #4 Battery #6 Fort Robert L. McCook Fort Farragut Fort McRae Harlan Road Fort Farragut Road Iron Furnace Battery #3 Battery #5 Battery #7	Highway U.S. 25E Pinnacle Road & Overlook Information Shelter Baumgardner Residence Storage Building Railroad Right-of-Way (ROW) Power Line ROW Cudjo's Cave
1994 Amendment	Wilderness Road removed Upper Virginia Road, Lower Virginia Road north of Virginia Route 58, Lower Virginia Road at Gap Creek, Kentucky State Road north of Route 25E, & Kentucky State Road southwest of Route 25E added	Highway U.S. 25E removed
1997 Amendment	Daniel Boone's Trail Daughter of the American Revolution (DAR) Marker & Indian Rock DAR Marker added. Fort McRae & Batteries #2, #3, #4, #5, & #6 removed due to demolition	No change
Total No. of Resources Currently Listed	**18**	**7**

In 1997, the nomination was amended a third time to incorporate the Indian Rock D.A.R. Marker and Daniel Boone's Trail D.A.R. Marker, both of which were installed by the D.A.R. in Cumberland Gap in 1915 to commemorate the role of the Wilderness Road in the westward expansion of the U.S. (Brown 1997). These structures were located within the 1980 district

boundary but were not included as contributing or non-contributing resources. The amendment identified the two D.A.R. markers as contributing resources and noted that were locally significant under Criterion A for their association with the efforts of the D.A.R. during the early twentieth century to commemorate historic trails and roads important to the westward development of the United States. Additionally, the amendment removed six listed Civil War earthworks (Fort McRae and Batteries 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6) from the district due to their destruction by road and/or building construction. No changes to the district boundary were proposed.

Of the 25 resources currently listed in the Cumberland Gap – Virginia/Kentucky/Tennessee Historic District, 18 are considered contributing and seven are considered to be non-contributing. The 18 contributing resources are recommended individually eligible for listing in the NRHP. Many of these resources are eligible for their association with Civil War activities at Cumberland Gap, and include all four remaining Civil War earthwork fortifications, Morgan's Commissary, the Union Powder Magazine, Battery No. 7, Fort Farragut Road, Harlan Road, and the Battery No. 7 Road.

Additionally, one contributing site—the John G. Newlee Iron Foundry (also known as the Iron Furnace)—is recommended individually eligible for its association with Industry. The site (CUGA00016.000) consists of the remains of the iron foundry, which had numerous operators between 1819 and 1881, including the merchant and farmer John G. Newlee who ran it for the longest period and for whom it is named. The site currently consists of three distinct loci—a furnace area (CUGA00016.001) and an upper (CUGA00016.002) and lower terrace (CUGA00016.003). Interpretative signage is provided at the site for visitors. The furnace area includes the remains of the original 26-foot-high charcoal furnace, which was constructed using sandstone blocks and fire brick. The interior of the furnace is currently accessible via an asphalt footpath and wooden staircase. Features associated with the upper and lower terraces consist predominantly of numerous segments of low, dry-stacked rock walls. As one of the last remaining examples of a cold-blast charcoal furnace in the Cumberland Gap Region, the John G. Newlee Iron Foundry is recommended eligible for listing in the NRHP under Criterion A, in the area of Industry, for its association with the industrial development of Cumberland Gap. It retains its integrity of association, location, feeling, setting, and materials; however, it no longer retains its integrity of design and workmanship.

The remaining two contributing resources consist of the Daniel Boone D.A.R. Marker and the Indian Rock D.A.R. Marker. These two resources were constructed by the D.A.R. in the early twentieth century as part of a larger effort to commemorate Daniel Boone and his construction of Wilderness Road. Both resources should be considered as unevaluated until further research can be conducted that provides contextual information about the activities of the D.A.R., and the larger "Boone Trail Project."

Of the seven non-contributing resources, two—the Pinnacle Road and Overlook and the Information Shelter—were recently evaluated as part of two separate historic districts related to the Mission 66 program (Fulwood et al. 2023 and Fulwood et al. 2023c). Additional information about these resources can be found later in this chapter in the discussions for the Pinnacle Overlook Developed Area and Pinnacle Road Circulation Corridor Historic Districts.

Additionally, one non-contributing resource—the Gap Cave (also known as Cudjo's Cave; CUGA00062.000)—is recommended individually eligible for NRHP listing for its association with Entertainment/Recreation. The limestone cave was mined for saltpeter in the 1800s and likely used for ammunition storage during the Civil War. By the 1890s, the site was advertised as a roadside tourist attraction. Electric lighting was installed, and a tunnel was dug to connect it with an adjacent cave. In the 1920s, the cave was purchased by LMU and opened for guided public tours. Under the university's ownership, a new, nearly road-level entrance was blasted into the limestone face. The cave was subsequently conveyed to the commonwealth of Virginia in 1947. Decades later, in 1992, the National Park Service purchased the cave from LMU. The site retains all seven aspects of integrity and is able to convey its significance under Criterion A for its association with early entertainment and recreation in the Cumberland Gap area. The remaining four resources do not possess historical significance and are, therefore, recommended not individually eligible for listing in the NRHP.

The following amendments to the Cumberland Gap – Virginia/Kentucky/Tennessee Historic District are recommended:

- The current documentation for the Cumberland Gap – Virginia/Kentucky/Tennessee Historic District should be updated using the current NRHP Registration Form 10-900 with an expanded Civil War context.
- The district should be amended to include only Civil War-era resources. All resources currently included in the list of contributing and non-contributing buildings and structures that are not associated with the Civil War should be removed.
- It is further recommended that Civil War-era sites and structures not currently listed as resources within the district be included and evaluated for contributing and/or non-contributing status.
- Archeology – Historic Non-Aboriginal should be added as an Area of Significance to account for some of resources within the district (e.g., trenches, rifle pits, and camps) which meet the definition of a site, per *National Register Bulletin 15: How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation* (National Park Service 1997).
- The location of the Morgan's Commissary site is currently unknown. According to Lowe (2010), the commissary site is likely "higher up on the side of the ridge astride the existing military road, rather than where it is currently interpreted." Archaeological and/or geophysical survey should be conducted to determine the exact location of the site. Once its location has been determined, the description of the resource and map accompanying the NRHP Registration Form should be updated.
- Lowe (2010) also states that the location of the Union Powder Magazine (also known as the Main Magazine), as currently marked with interpretive signage, is not correct. He proposes that the most likely location for the site is at the base of Fort Foote, beyond an existing borrow pit where a "complex feature" of the "correct size, shape, and age" is located. This area should also be subject to archaeological and/or geophysical survey, and the description and current map of the district updated once the location of the site is confirmed.

- The current boundary for the district should be expanded to include the Far Ridge Battery, an artillery redoubt with embrasures and an exterior ditch, which Lowe (2010) describes as the park's "most stunning example" of an earthwork. The structure can be accessed by hiking northeast on the Ridge Trail from the Pinnacle Overlook parking area.
- The descriptions of the district's five contributing forts and batteries should be updated to reflect their current condition. These resources have been the subject of several studies (e.g., Haney 2004, Lowe 2010) since the district's original listing in 1978.
- Newly recorded properties related to the Civil War, which were documented and verified by Lowe (2010), should be added as either contributing or non-contributing resources based on their integrity. These include Far Ridge Battery and Blockhouse Site (Lowe 2010:47).

Kentucky

Hensley Settlement Historic District (Bell County, KY). The Hensley Settlement Historic District (NRIS #80000367) is located atop Brush Mountain in the northeast portion of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. The district consists of numerous buildings and structures associated with the development of Hensley Settlement, an isolated mountain community that was populated between 1903 and 1951. The settlement is named for Sherman Hensley, one of the earliest settlers in the community and the last resident to move away. The district was listed in the NRHP on January 8, 1980, under Criterion A for its association with agriculture and social history and under Criterion C for its unique architectural characteristics (Morgan 1979). The district was comprised of 48 resources, of which 42 were considered contributing and six were as non-contributing (Table 7). All six of the non-contributing resources were constructed by members of the Job Corps program during their restoration of Hensley Settlement in the late 1960s. Two of the non-contributing resources—the Finley Hensley Barn and the Park Hensley House—were reconstructed by the National Park Service after the Job Corps was disbanded in 1970 and 1975, respectively.

Table 7. Summary of Resources within the Hensley Settlement Historic District (NRIS #80000367), by listing.

Listing	Contributing Resources	Non-Contributing Resources
1979 National Register Nomination	Willie Gibbons House	Maintenance Building
	Willie Gibbons Barn	Storage Building
	Willie Gibbons Granary	Flammable Liquids Storage
	Willie Gibbons Smokehouse	Pump House
	Willie Gibbons Hen House	Wash House
	Willie Gibbons Outhouse	Cook Shed
	Willie Gibbons Springhouse	
	Brush Mountain School	
	Liege Hensley House	
	Liege Gibbons House	
	Liege Gibbons Barn	
	Liege Gibbons Hen House	
	Liege Gibbons Corn Crib	

Table 7. Summary of Resources within the Hensley Settlement Historic District (NRIS #80000367), by listing.		
Listing	**Contributing Resources**	**Non-Contributing Resources**
	Liege Gibbons Outhouse Sherman Hensley House Sherman Hensley Corn Crib Sherman Hensley Hen House Wallace Hensley House Finley Hensley Barn Finley Hensley Spring House Willie Gibbons Apple Hole Willie Gibbons Hog House Liege Gibbons Hog Pen Willie Gibbons Woodshed Willie Gibbons Blacksmith Shop Park Hensley House Finley Hensley House Finley Hensley Granary Bert Hensley Smokehouse Bert Hensley Chicken House Bert Hensley Barn Site Willie Gibbons Sheep Barn Brush Mountain School Outhouse (2) Hensley Graveyard Gillis Lee House Oscar Hensley House Sherman Hensley Stock Pen Sherman Hensley Smokehouse Wallace Hensley Barn Grant Hensley Cabin	
1997 Amendment	Bert Hensley House, Park Hensley House, Finley Hensley Barn, & Finley Hensley Granary removed	Bert Hensley House, Park Hensley House, & Finley Hensley Barn added
Total No. of Resources Currently Listed	**40**	**9**

In 1997, the National Register nomination for the Hensley Settlement Historic District was amended to reclassify three buildings previously identified as contributing to non-contributing (Brown 1997a). These buildings included the Park Hensley and Bert Hensley houses, which were considered inaccurate reconstructions that lacked sufficient integrity, and the Finley Hensley Barn, most of which had been rebuilt by the National Park Service using non-original materials. Additionally, the Finley Hensley Granary was removed from the nomination as it was razed in 1995 and its materials salvaged for use to repair other buildings and structures within the settlement (Brown 1997a).

The following amendments to the National Register nomination for the Hensley Settlement Historic District are recommended:

- The current boundaries should be expanded to the west to include the Andrew Jackson Hensley Farmstead site (CUGA00079.000) as a contributing resource.
- The nomination should be updated to reflect the current condition of the Finley Hensley Springhouse and Willie Gibbons House and Smokehouse.
- Several buildings that were constructed by the Job Corps program, including a maintenance building, storage building, flammable liquids storage, pump house, wash house, and cook shed, are currently included in the National Register nomination as non-contributing resources. All these resources have been demolished since the nomination was completed in 1979. Therefore, all six of these properties should be removed from the nomination.

Of the 40 extant resources currently within the district, none possess the standalone significance required for individual listing in the NRHP. Additionally, the three extant non-contributing resources do not retain sufficient integrity for NRHP listing.

Resources Determined or Recommended Eligible for Listing in the National Register

Historic Districts

Multiple States

Pinnacle Overlook Developed Area Historic District (Bell County, Kentucky and Lee County, Virginia). The Pinnacle Overlook Developed Area Historic District is a public-use area located in a wooded setting at the terminus of Pinnacle Road (formerly known as Skyland Road). The area is centered around the Pinnacle, a tall rock cliff that overlooks the saddle of Cumberland Gap and offers panoramic views of the surrounding countryside. Although the commercial appeal of the Pinnacle was first realized by local entrepreneurs in the late 1920s, significant development of the area did not occur until after the park's establishment in 1955. Funding for new visitor use facilities at the Pinnacle was provided by the Mission 66 program, with construction occurring over a two-year period between 1956 and 1958 (Fulwood et al. 2023). The area continues to be one of the park's most popular tourist attractions and currently offers an array of amenities for visitors, including an interpretative shelter and comfort station, a parking area, an information terrace, a loop trail, a stone overlook platform, and a drinking fountain. All six of these resources, as well as key elements of the area's Mission 66-era cultural landscape, date to the Mission 66 period (1942–1972) and retain sufficient integrity to be considered contributing to the district.

The property was recommended eligible for listing in the NRHP in 2023 at the local level of significance under Criterion A for its association with recreational development occurring within the park during the Mission 66 era (Fulwood et al. 2023). It is also considered significant under Criterion C as a good representative of the design concepts and construction techniques established by the National Park Service for public-use areas built as part of the Mission 66 program. The period of significance for the district is defined as beginning in 1956, the year that

the first plan for the area was drafted, and ending in 1958, when all improvements in the area that were planned as part of the Mission 66 program were completed.

Of all the resources located within the historic district, only one—the Interpretive Shelter and Comfort Station—is recommended individually eligible for listing in the NRHP under Criterion A for its association with the development of interpretive programming at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park as part of its Mission 66 initiative. The building was constructed in 1957 and functions as both a place for visitor orientation, with a covered exterior gathering area for ranger presentations and a set of park maps and display panels mounted on the walls, and as a comfort station with adjoining restrooms. Although it has experienced minor exterior alterations, the building retains its integrity of location, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association (Fulwood et al. 2023).

The remaining resources located within the Pinnacle Overlook Developed Area Historic District are not able to individually convey their association with the Mission 66 program and, therefore, do not possess the standalone significance required to be individually eligible for listing in the NRHP. At the time of this document's publication, a formal National Register nomination for the Pinnacle Overlook Developed Area Historic District had not yet been prepared; however, the National Park Service concurred with the eligibility recommendation on September 11, 2023.

Kentucky

Pinnacle Road Circulation Corridor Historic District (Bell County, Kentucky). As its name implies, this NHRP-eligible historic district centers along Pinnacle Road, an approximately four-mile-long paved roadway that gradually ascends from the visitor center in the south-central portion of the park to the Pinnacle Overlook Developed Area at the top of Cumberland Mountain. The current alignment of the road developed in several phases over a period of more than half a century. The eastern portion of the route—historically, known as Skyland Road—was initially developed in the late 1920s by a private development corporation, known as the Skyland Company. This section of the road, which originally stretched roughly two miles, was operated as a private toll road until September 1955 when Cumberland Gap National Historical Park was established. Between 1956 and 1967, numerous improvements were made to the road as part of the park's Mission 66 program. Among the most significant of these modifications was the construction of a new 1.5-mile-long segment that extended southwest from Skyland Road and terminated at the park's newly constructed visitor center. Except for minor realignment of a short, 0.25-mile-long segment to the north of the visitor center in 1988–1989, Pinnacle Road continues to follow its route as established by the National Park Service during the Mission 66 period. In addition to the Pinnacle Road alignment itself, the 29.63-acre district is comprised of four contributing structures and one contributing site. The structures consist of one bridge (Sugar Run Road Bridge), one culvert (Little Yellow Creek Culvert #1), one overlook (Midway Parking Area), and one parking area (Fort McCook Parking Area). The site consists of the district's historic designed landscape.

The Pinnacle Road Circulation Corridor Historic District was determined eligible for inclusion in the NRHP in 2023 at the local level under Criterion A for its association with the development of tourism and transportation improvements conducted within the park under the Mission 66 program (Fulwood et. al 2023c). The period of significance for the district is defined as

beginning in 1956, the year that the first phase of improvements was undertaken to the existing portion of Skyland Road, and ending in 1969, when the final improvements planned during the Mission 66 period were completed.

Of the six resources located within the district, only one—the alignment of Pinnacle Road (formerly Skyland Road)—has been determined individually eligible for listing in the NRHP under Criterion A for its association with transportation and tourism as part of the park's Mission 66 program. Despite changes to its original route, the road retains the majority of its integrity and is able to convey its association with the Mission 66-era transportation improvements (Fulwood et al. 2023c).

None of the other resources located within the Pinnacle Road Circulation Corridor Historic District are able to individually convey their association with the Mission 66 program and, therefore, do not possess the standalone significance required for individual listing in the NRHP. A National Register nomination for the Pinnacle Overlook Developed Area Historic District has not yet been prepared.

Virginia

Chadwell Gap Coal Company Historic District (Lee County, Virginia). The Chadwell Gap Coal Company Historic District is a defunct, early- to mid-twentieth century, family-owned coal mining operation located south of Chadwell Gap on the southern slopes of Cumberland Mountain. The property is accessed by the Chadwell Gap Trail, which follows the route of a historic footpath developed primarily by residents of the Hensley Settlement and Caylor, Virginia to cross Chadwell Gap's rugged terrain (Pan American Consultants, Inc. 2022). It consists of three discontinuous sites—the mine and upper tipple site, the lower tipple and coke battery site, and a commissary area—which collectively encompass 269.2 acres and are connected by road corridors and the ruins of an aerial tram. A total of 20 resources, all of which are considered to be contributing, are located within the district. Resources include three rock walls, two adits, two slag heaps, two spur roads, one trail, one holding basin, one spring box, and one coke oven battery, as well as the ruins of four structures, one platform, one tipple, and an aerial tram.

The property was determined eligible for listing in the NRHP in 2012 at the local level under Criteria A, C, and D in the areas of Industry and Historical Archaeology for its contributions to the industrial history of the region (Slaton et al. 2012); however, a formal National Register nomination for the property has not yet been prepared. The district is considered to be a "rare surviving example of a small coal-extraction and processing operation in private ownership during a period of regional economic hardship, when most local enterprises were undergoing consolidation into large operations that housed workers in company towns and camps" (Pan American Consultants, Inc. 2022). Its period of significance begins in 1922, the year in which the Chadwell Gap Coal Company initiated extraction operations at the site, and ends in 1943, when oral interviews with former employees indicate that work at the mine ceased.

Individual Properties

Multiple States

Structures

Cumberland Gap Tunnel (Bell County, Kentucky and Claiborne County, Tennessee). The Cumberland Gap Tunnel was completed in 1996 during the park's restoration period to improve safety along the stretch of U.S. Highway 25E through the Cumberland Gap and encourage tourism. The $265 million tunnel is a unique resource to the National Park Service and was considered an engineering marvel due to the geological challenges faced during its construction.

The Cumberland Gap Tunnel is recommended individually eligible for listing in the NRHP under Criterion A for its association with transportation infrastructure improvements made to the park during the restoration period, and under Criterion C as an intact example of a dual-bore tunnel. The tunnel is considered significant under the themes of Engineering and Transportation and retains all seven aspects of integrity. The tunnel was also evaluated for significance under Criteria Consideration G for Properties that have Achieved Significance Within the Last Fifty Years and is recommended eligible as a unique structure within the National Park Service system.

Kentucky

Buildings and Structures

Object Lesson Trail (Bell County, Kentucky). The Object Lesson Trail follows an early twentieth-century roadbed that was constructed to serve as a demonstration road to teach rural communities about the importance of modern road building techniques. The road was constructed by the federal government between 1908 and 1909. It originally had a macadamized surface that measured approximately 14 feet wide. The current trail consists of a restored section of the historic roadbed that was reconstructed during the restoration of the Wilderness Road in 2002–2003. It currently serves as an out-and-back hiking trail that is accessible via the Thomas Walker Parking Area and provides connections to many other trails between the parking lot and Town of Cumberland Gap. The gravel foot path averages 8 feet to 10 feet wide, has grassy shoulders, and is abutted by dense vegetation and foliage on either side.

The Object Lesson Trail is recommended individually eligible for listing in the NRHP under Criterion A for its association with national transportation improvements of the early twentieth century. The road is considered significant under the theme of Transportation and retains all seven aspects of its integrity. As a reconstructed property, the Object Lesson Trail was also evaluated for NRHP eligibility under Criteria Consideration E, which provides guidance for evaluating historic properties that have been reconstructed. The reconstruction of the Object Lesson Trail was based on sound archaeological, architectural, and historic data concerning the historic construction and appearance of the Object Lesson Road. Additionally, the restoration of the Object Lesson Trail was performed as part of the park's larger restoration plan for the Wilderness Road and the trail itself likely represents the last surviving structure associated with the Object Lesson Road program as implemented in the Cumberland Gap region. Lastly, interpretive signage present along the trail ensures that it is not misrepresented as an authentic

historic property. For these reasons, the Object Lesson Trail is recommended eligible for individual listing in the NRHP.

Archaeological Sites

Four sites located in Kentucky within Cumberland Gap National Historical Park are presumed to be associated with tourism based on their names and proximity to Skyland Road and/or Pinnacle Overlook. These sites include the Cumberland Mountain Hotel (CUGA00055.000), Pinnacle Privy (CUGA00206.000), Skyland Outbuilding (CUGA00217.000), and Sky Walls (CUGA00138.000). The largest and most substantial of these sites is the Cumberland Mountain Hotel (CUGA00055.000), a former hotel complex that was built between the late 1930s and early 1940s on the north side of U.S. Highway 25E. The complex was originally comprised of at least ten buildings and structures including a main hotel building with a restaurant, three duplex cottages, three single cottages, a gift shop, a pump house, and a masonry flower bed. The hotel was acquired by the National Park Service in 1955 and officially closed for business in 1957. The following year, all the buildings and structures were demolished, with only a stacked stone retaining wall on the north side of the property and a large stone foundation to the west of the cottages remaining. A surface reconnaissance survey and subsurface shovel tests were conducted at the property in the fall of 1989 prior to the proposed construction of the Cumberland Gap Tunnel (Bryne 1990). A total of 30 shovel tests were systematically excavated in the area, with historic artifacts including bottle glass, ceramics, and construction materials recovered from 22 of the test pits. No subsurface features were observed. A formal eligibility recommendation for the former hotel property was not made following the testing; however, it was argued that the site was "likely not eligible" for listing in the NRHP, and further work was not recommended (Bryne 1990).

Today, the Cumberland Mountain Hotel site (CUGA00055.000) consists of the remains of a former hotel complex that was constructed between the late 1930s and early 1940s. The site retains its integrity of location, setting, feeling, and association, and is able to convey its significance and association with tourism efforts in the Cumberland Gap region before the establishment of the park. As such, the site is recommended individually eligible for listing in the NRHP under Criterion A. Additionally, the subsurface shovel tests pits excavated in 1989 revealed soil stratigraphy of upwards of 25 centimeters, suggesting there is potential for additional subsurface cultural deposits that could potentially provide additional information on tourism activities within the region during the early to mid-twentieth century. For this reason, the site (CUGA00055.000) is also recommended individually eligible for listing in the NRHP under Criterion D.

The Pinnacle Privy (CUGA00206.000), Skyland Outbuilding (CUGA00217.000), and the Sky Walls (CUGA00138.000) are also recommended individually eligible for listing in the NRHP under Criterion A for their association with tourism in the park. Furthermore, all three sites possess soil deposition and subsurface cultural deposits that may provide further information pertaining to tourism within the park. For that reason, these three sites are also recommended individually eligible for listing under Criterion D. All three sites retain their integrity of location, association, setting, and feeling. The sites no longer retain their integrity of design, materials, and workmanship as the buildings and/or structures presumed to have been associated with these features are no longer intact.

Two cultural resources sites are associated with the theme of Industry. These sites—the Gap Coal Mine (CUGA00077.000) and the New South Brewery/Schneider Meat Packing Plant (CUGA00031.000)—are recommended individually eligible for inclusion in the NRHP under Criterion A for their association with industry within the Tri-State region. Additionally, they are recommended individually eligible for listing under Criterion D as they possess soil deposition and have the potential for subsurface cultural deposits that may inform on the theme of industry. Both sites retain their integrity of location, association, setting, and feeling; however, they no longer retain their integrity of design, materials, and workmanship as the buildings and/or structures once present on the property are no longer intact.

Nine cultural resources sites are associated with the themes of agriculture, exploration, and settlement. These sites include the 1920s Homestead (CUGA00078.000), Andrew Jackson Hensley Farmstead (CUGA00079.000), Braden House (CUGA00085.000), Dimple House (CUGA00111.000), Gerber site (CUGA00158.000), PawPaw Homestead (CUGA00127.000), Thick site (CUGA00141.000), Tiny Chimney Camp (CUGA00142.000), and the Singing Birds Home (CUGA00167.000). All nine of the sites are recommended individually eligible for listing in the NRHP under Criterion A for their association with early agricultural development and settlement within the Cumberland Gap region. Additionally, the sites are recommended individually eligible for inclusion in the NRHP under Criterion D as they exhibit soil deposition and have the potential for subsurface cultural deposits. The nine sites retain their integrity of location, association, setting, and feeling; however, none retain their integrity of design, materials, and workmanship as the buildings and structures once associated with these sites are no longer extant. The Andrew Jackson Hensley Farmstead (CUGA00079.000) should also be considered a contributing resource to an expanded Hensley Settlement Historic District.

Eighteen cultural resources sites are associated with the Civil War and are recommended individually eligible under Criterion A for this association (Table 8). Additionally, those sites with the potential for buried cultural deposits should also be considered eligible for inclusion in the NRHP under Criterion D. It is also recommended that all 18 of these sites be considered contributing properties to an amended Cumberland Gap – Virginia/Kentucky/Tennessee Historic District. All the sites retain their integrity of location, association, setting, and feeling.

Table 8. Civil War-Era Sites Recommended Individually Eligible for Listing in the NRHP.

Name	Resource ID	Applicable Criterion/ Criteria
Westside Battery	CUGA00010.000	Criteria A & D
Fort Halleck	CUGA00020.000	Criterion A & D
Dead Pine Camp	CUGA00100.000	Criterion A & D
Fort Foote Rifle Pit	CUGA00102.000	Criterion A
Fort Halleck Defenses	CUGA00121.000	Criterion A & D
Redan Camp	CUGA00131.000	Criterion A & D
Railroad Creek Defenses East	CUGA00134.000	Criterion A

continued

Table 8. Civil War-Era Sites Recommended Individually Eligible for Listing in the NRHP.

Name	Resource ID	Applicable Criterion/ Criteria
Hook Rifle Trench	CUGA00194.000	Criterion A
Tri-State Camp	CUGA00195.000	Criterion A & D
Railroad Creek Defenses West	CUGA00197.000	Criterion A
McCook-McRae Rifle Trench	CUGA00200.000	Criterion A
Fort Lyon Rifle Trench #1	CUGA00203.000	Criterion A
Fort Lyon Rifle Trench #2	CUGA00204.000	Criterion A
Ridge Rifle Trench	CUGA00205.000	Criterion A
West Peak	CUGA00208.000	Criterion A & D
West Peak Encampment	CUGA00208.001	Criterion A & D
Gulley Scatter	CUGA00209.000	Criterion A & D
Gulley Ammo	CUGA00209.001	Criterion A & D

Virginia

Archaeological Sites

Five previously designated cultural resources sites in Virginia are associated with the Civil War and are recommended individually eligible for listing in the NRHP under Criterion A for their association with the event. These sites include the Tri-State Rifle Pit (CUGA00143.000), Boardwalk Rifle Trench (CUGA00080.000), Battery No. 2 Rifle Trench (CUGA00201.000), Cave Rifle Trench (CUGA00202.000), and Far Ridge Battery (CUGA00168.000). All five of these sites should also be considered contributing resources to an amended Cumberland Gap – Virginia/Kentucky/Tennessee Historic District for their association with the Civil War. The sites retain their integrity of location, association, setting, and feeling. The Boardwalk Rifle Trench (CUGA00080.000) and Far Ridge Battery (CUGA00168.000) sites do not retain their integrity of design, materials, and workmanship due to the deterioration of their above-ground parapet wall features.

Seven cultural resources sites are associated with the themes of agriculture, exploration, and settlement. These sites consist of the Crock/Crockett Minton House (CUGA00095.000), Gap Creek House (CUGA00103.000), Intersection (CUGA00114.000), Periwinkle (CUGA00129.000), Switchback House (CUGA00139.000), Lewis Hollow Homestead 2 (CUGA00178.000), and the Denny Cemetery (CUGA00177.000). The sites are all recommended individually eligible for listing in the NRHP under Criterion A for their association with early agricultural activity and settlement within the Cumberland Gap region. Additionally, they are recommended eligible for inclusion in the NRHP under Criterion D as they exhibit soil deposition and the potential for subsurface cultural deposits that may be recovered during further archaeological testing. Furthermore, per the *Guidelines for Evaluating and Registering Cemeteries and Burial Places* as outlined in the National Register Bulletin 41, the rural Denny Cemetery (CUGA00177.000) is recommended unevaluated for its eligibility under Criteria Consideration D until further research can be conducted regarding the Denny family and their

impact on the community and region in which they lived. All nine sites retain their integrity of location, association, setting, and feeling. However, they do not retain their integrity of design, materials, and workmanship due to the deterioration of their above-ground stacked-stone and concrete foundations, associated brick features (i.e., brick chimney stacks), and deterioration of the marble headstones.

Tennessee

Archaeological Sites

One cultural resources site—the Rubble Homestead (CUGA00135.000)—located in Tennessee and is associated with the themes of agriculture, and exploration and settlement. It is recommended individually eligible for listing in the National Register under Criterion A for its association with early agricultural development and settlement within the Cumberland Gap region. In addition, it is recommended individually eligible for listing under Criterion D as the site exhibits soil deposition and the potential for subsurface cultural deposits that may be recovered during further archaeological testing. The Rubble Homestead (CUGA00135.000) retains its integrity of location, association, setting, and feeling. However, it does not retain its integrity of design, materials, and workmanship due to the deterioration of its above-ground features.

Resources Determined or Recommended Not Eligible for Listing in the National Register

Resources Evaluated as Potential Historical Districts

Virginia

Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area (Lee County, Virginia). The Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area were documented by North Wind in 2022 as part of a separate contract with National Park Service to record and evaluate Mission 66-era landscapes located within the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park (Fulwood et. al 2023b). The period of significance was defined as beginning in 1959, the year that the first plan for the property was created, and ending in 1965, when all the improvements in the area that were planned as part of the Mission 66 program were completed. Although the property was considered to have historical significance under Criterion A for its association with recreational development of the park under the Mission 66-era program, and under Criterion C as a good representative example of the design principles and construction techniques established by National Park Service for Mission 66 campgrounds, it no longer retains sufficient integrity to convey its significance as a Mission 66-era development. Specifically, the property no longer retains its integrity of design, materials, workmanship, or feeling due to the loss of the original campsite furniture and comfort amenities; replacement of the original amphitheater and signage; modifications to the original Entrance Road; and presence of modern buildings and structures that were added to the property after the Mission 66 era. As a result, the Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area was recommended not eligible for listing in the NRHP as a historic district (Fulwood et. al 2023b). Additionally, none of the resources located within the Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area can individually convey their association with the Mission 66 program and, therefore, do not possess the standalone significance required for individual listing in the NRHP. The National Park service concurred with this recommendation on June 26, 2023.

Kentucky

Sugar Run Picnic Area (Bell County, Kentucky). The Sugar Run Picnic Area is located to the southeast of Kentucky State Highway 988 on the banks of Sugar Run Creek. The period of significance is defined as beginning in 1956 and ending in 1968, when all the improvements in the Sugar Run Picnic Area that were planned as part of the Mission 66 program were completed by Job Corps enrollees. When constructed, the area included a comfort station, septic tank and pump house, drainage structure, and two-foot bridges across Sugar Run Creek. Later improvements included the installation of picnic tables and a group shelter in 1973. The Sugar Run Trail was added in 1975 and connected the Sugar Run Picnic Area to the Pinnacle Overlook Trail to the south. The out-and-back trailheads enter the picnic area behind the shelter. The pump house was included in the list of resources provided by the National Park Service for the project; however, North Wind was not able to locate the building during the field investigation.

Although the Sugar Run Picnic Area is considered to have historical significance under Criterion A for its association with the Job Corps—a federal initiative that was funded through the AWP program and introduced by the Kennedy administration to combat rural poverty, the site no longer retains sufficient integrity to convey this significance. Specifically, the picnic area no longer retains integrity of design, materials, workmanship, or feeling due to multiple alterations, including the addition of the picnic tables, group shelter, and trailhead, and removal of the pump house, drainage structure, and foot bridges. Additionally, the parking area was not constructed as a one-way loop as depicted in the early plans. Therefore, the Sugar Run Picnic Area is recommended not eligible for listing in the NRHP as a historic district. Additionally, none of the resources located within the Sugar Run Picnic Area are able to individually convey their association with the Job Corps program and, therefore, do not possess the standalone significance required for individual listing in the NRHP.

Cumberland Gap Job Corps Conservation Center (Bell County, Kentucky). The Cumberland Gap Job Corps Conservation Center (JCCC) is comprised of 20 buildings and structures located to the east and west of Bartlett Park Road. Only one of the center's buildings—the Maintenance Equipment Storage Building #1—has been previously recommended eligible for listing in the NRHP as a contributing resource to a potential JCCC historic district.

The Cumberland Gap JCCC was one of nine centers that were operated by the National Park Service between 1965 and 1969, with initial construction beginning in 1965 and ending in 1966. The property is considered to have historical significance under Criterion A for its association with the Job Corps—a federal initiative that was funded through the AWP program and introduced by the Kennedy administration to combat rural poverty; however, it no longer retains sufficient integrity to convey its significance as a Job Corps development. Specifically, the buildings, structures, and objects no longer retain their integrity of design, materials, workmanship, or feeling due to the alterations to the roofing and exterior façades. Therefore, the Cumberland Gap JCCC is recommended as not eligible for listing in the NRHP as a historic district. Additionally, none of the resources located within the Cumberland Gap JCCC are able to individually convey their association with the Job Corps program and, therefore, do not possess the standalone significance required for individual listing in the NRHP.

The additional post-1974 buildings and structures were also evaluated under Criteria Consideration G for Properties that have Achieved Significance Within the Last Fifty Years and are recommended not eligible under this criteria consideration as, similar to the earlier buildings, none retains sufficient integrity to convey their significance as a building or structure constructed by the Job Corps enrollees.

National Park Service Maintenance Area (Bell County, Kentucky). The National Park Service Maintenance Area located in the Bartlett-Rhodes Park area, to the northeast of the Cumberland Gap JCCC. It consists of a cluster of four former maintenance buildings, including a ranger station, storage buildings for museum collections and a water laboratory, and a separate building for a fire cache. All four of the buildings were constructed by Job Corps enrollees between in 1965 and 1967 and were utilized by park staff for maintenance purposes prior to the end of the Job Corps program. After the Job Corps program concluded, the maintenance division of the National Park Service was moved to the former location of the JCCC Maintenance Yard, and the National Park Service Maintenance Area assumed its current use as a law enforcement compound.

The buildings within the Maintenance Area are considered to have historical significance under Criterion A for their association with the federal Job Corps program, funded through the Accelerated Public Works program—an initiative that was introduced by the Kennedy administration to combat rural poverty. However, the Maintenance Area no longer retains the integrity of design, materials, workmanship, or feeling due to alterations to the buildings and structures, including roofing and exterior façades. Due to the lack of integrity, the Maintenance Area District can no longer convey its significance as a Job Corps project constructed toward the end of the Mission 66 era and is recommended not eligible for listing in the NRHP as a historic district.

Additionally, the Museum Storage/Water Lab Building has been determined not individually eligible for listing in the NRHP due to extensive modifications, including replacement of its original metal exterior walls with decorative concrete block and stucco in 2013 (Potts 2021; Sellars 2020). North Wind recommends that the remaining three buildings within the compound are also not eligible for individual listing in the NRHP as they are unable to individually convey their association with the Job Corps program and, therefore, do not possess the standalone significance required for individual listing in the NRHP.

Individual Properties

Multiple States

Buildings and Structures

Tri-State Peak Shelter and Tri-State Marker (Bell County, Kentucky; Claiborne County, Tennessee; and Lee County, Virginia). The Tri-State Peak Shelter is in the south-central portion of the park, on the summit of Tri-State Peak, where the borders of Kentucky, Tennessee, and Virginia converge. It is currently accessed by following the Tri-State Trail generally 0.6 mile south from the Thomas Walker Parking Area. The structure currently consists of a single-story, hexagonal, open-sided wayside exhibit shelter with three associated markers, or one for each state. The shelter has a mortared flagstone floor that is encircled by a ring of pebble aggregate

concrete paving with bronze edge strips. The names of the three states are set in flush bronze letters inside the ring on the side of the shelter that faces toward each state. The Tri-State markers are arranged in a triangular formation surrounding the shelter. Each consists of a triangular concrete footing with stone veneer and a hexagonal bronze plaque containing information the state name, seal, flower, bird, nickname, song, size, capital, and number of counties. Construction of the current shelter began in 1964 under the Park's Mission 66 program and was completed a year later, in May 1965 (Fulwood et al. 2023b). Installation of the three state markers was completed under a separate contract in February 1967 (Fulwood et al. 2023b).

Sometime between 2007 and 2010, the shelter's original triangular roof was replaced with its current hexagonal form. This modification resulted in the removal of three steel columns that were originally embedded into each of the state markers to support the roof, as well as the removal of attached redwood benches which extended around the back and sides of each marker. As a result of these changes, the Tri-State Peak Shelter was determined not eligible for listing in the NRHP by the National Park Service on September 27, 2023 (Fulwood et al. 2023b).

Kentucky

Buildings and Structures

Cumberland Gap National Historical Park Visitor Center (Bell County, Kentucky). The Visitor Center at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park was designed and constructed by William Cramp Scheetz, Jr., a successful Philadelphia architect, between 1958 and 1959 as part of the National Park Service Mission 66 program. The building, which consists of steel-frame, masonry-walled international style building with a multiple level, asymmetrical plan, was determined not eligible for inclusion in the NRHP by the Kentucky SHPO in June 2019 due to unsympathetic alterations and additions occurring between 1974 and 2002 (Potts 2019).

Martin's Fork Cabin (Bell County, Kentucky). The Martin's Fork Cabin consists of a log cabin (also known as the Cupp Cabin) that was the residence of Thomas "Tom" Cupp, a local resident of the Cumberland Gap region. It is accessed via Martins Fork Trail, roughly 0.75 mile to the southeast of the Hensley Settlement. The cabin was remodeled in the mid-1960s by the Job Corps program. The building has a stacked fieldstone and mortar foundation. It has a side-gabled roof with wide overhangs that create open porches on the north (front) and south (rear) façades. The roof is clad in standing seam sheet metal. The cabin has a stacked-stone chimney located on the gable end of the east elevation. Inside are three plywood bunk beds for permitted backcountry hikers and campers.

The Martin's Fork Cabin underwent significant modifications by the Job Corps program, which included the addition of the two porches on its front and back facades, application of new horizontal wood cladding to the building's exterior, replacement of the original wood shingle roof, and the installation of new windows and doors. Although the cabin is considered to have historical significance under Criterion A for its association with early settlement in the Cumberland Gap, the building no longer retains sufficient integrity to convey its significance under this theme. For this reason, the Martin's Fork Cabin is recommended not individually eligible for listing in the NRHP under any Criteria.

Pinnacle Pump House (Bell County, Kentucky). The Pinnacle Pump House consists of a concrete block building with a square plan. The building was constructed on a concrete slab foundation and has a set of concrete steps leading to a metal entry door located on its west façade. The original flat roof was replaced at an unknown date with its current front-gabled roof. The roof is sheathed in standing seam metal. Vertical wood siding covers the east and west gable ends of the building. The Pinnacle Pump House was initially constructed in 1957 as part of the Mission 66-era improvements of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. The pump house originally sheltered pumping equipment that provided water to visitors at the Pinnacle. Although the Pinnacle Pump House was initially constructed as part of the park's Mission-era improvement program, extensive alterations to the building have diminished its integrity and it is no longer able to convey its association with the Mission 66 initiative. For this reason, the Pinnacle Pump House is recommended not individually eligible for NRHP listing under any Criteria.

Visitor Center Parking Area (Bell County, Kentucky). The Visitor Center Parking Area consists of an asphalt paved parking lot located to the south of Pinnacle View Road in the southwest portion of the park. The main Visitor Center for Cumberland Gap National Historical Park is situated on the southeast side of the parking area. The parking lot measures approximately 295 feet at its widest point and is approximately 500 feet in length. The Thomas Walker Trail runs through the northern portion of the parking area and the trailhead for the Fitness Trail is located on the lot's south side. Several landscape medians are present between the parking rows.

The Visitor Center Parking Area was originally constructed in 1959 as part of the park's Mission 66-era improvement program. During construction of the Cumberland Gap Tunnel project, the Visitor Center Parking Area was demolished and replaced with the current lot in 1989. The new lot was much larger than the original lot and offered additional parking for buses and RVs. While the Visitor Center Parking Area was originally constructed as part of the Mission 66 program, the extensive alterations to this resource have diminished its ability to convey its association with this theme. As a result, the Visitor Center Parking Area is recommended not individually eligible for listing in the NRHP under any Criteria.

Fort McCook Access Trail (Bell County, Kentucky). The Fort McCook Access Trail consists of a 220-foot-long trail that leaves the Foot McCook Parking Area and ends at the fort's earthworks and cannon. It begins as an asphalt trail and includes a 46-step fieldstone staircase, with a metal hand railing, which leads to the features.

The trail was originally constructed in 1967 by enrollees of the Job Corps program. Since its initial construction, the Fort McCook Access Trail has experienced several modifications including the application of asphalt paving on the eastern portion of the trail, installation of a modern trash can and low-profile wayside exhibit at the trailhead, and the construction of a composite boardwalk and viewing platform at the top of the Fort McCook earthworks. These alterations have compromised the trail's ability to convey its association with the Job Corps program, and it is, therefore, recommended not individually eligible for listing in the NRHP under any Criteria.

Objects

Entrance Sign (Bell County, Kentucky). The entrance sign is situated within a landscaped median located at the intersection of Pinnacle View Road and the Visitor Center Parking Area. It sits on a rough stone base measuring approximately 27 feet in length. Text on the signboard denotes the name of the park, with an additional shield representing the National Park Service affixed to the stone base. The sign was first installed during the Mission-66 program and was later modified in 1989 during the renovation of the Visitor Center Parking Area. As part of the renovation, the original entrance sign was moved to accommodate the realignment of Pinnacle View Road and an enlarged parking area. The original signboard, which was constructed of wood with routed lettering and the National Park Service logo, was also replaced at an unknown date. Due to these alterations, the entrance sign can no longer convey its association with the Mission 66 program at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park and is therefore recommended not individually eligible for NRHP listing.

Archaeological Sites

Neal, Snyder, Mullins Coal Mine (Bell County, Kentucky). The Neal, Snyder, & Mullins Coal Mine (CUGA00011.000) is historic period coal mine located outside the current Cumberland Gap – Virginia/Kentucky/Tennessee Historic District boundary, on the south side of U.S. Highway 25E. A mining symbol and building are depicted to the north of the site's general location and east of the Louisville and Nashville Railroad and Schneider Meat Packing Plant on the USGS map for Middlesboro, KY in 1927 and 1930, respectively. Although the site is associated with the coal mining industry within the Tri-State area during the early twentieth century, it appears its operations were relatively minor, and it was not considered to be a leading producer in the region.

Based on the limited workings and lack of archival information about the Neal, Snyder, & Mullins Coal Mine (CUGA00011.000), the site does not appear to have been significant to the development of the coal mining industry in the Cumberland Gap region, and is therefore, recommended not eligible for inclusion in the NRHP under Criterion A. As the mining property is not associated with any person significant in local or regional history, it is not recommended eligible for NRHP listing under Criterion B. The site does not embody distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction, or possess high artistic value. As such, it is recommended not eligible for listing in the NRHP under Criterion C. Although the site possesses soil deposition, the lack of artifacts documented during past site assessments and recent recordation suggests there is minimal potential for subsurface cultural deposits that may inform on the theme of mining. Therefore, the Neal, Snyder, & Mullins Coal Mine is recommended not eligible for listing in the NRHP under Criterion D.

Tennessee

Buildings and Structures

Anne B. White House (Claiborne County, Tennessee). The Anne B. White House is a one-story building with built-out basement located 200 feet north of Brooklyn Street within the town of Cumberland Gap. The building has a hipped roof with a front-gabled porch on its main (northeast) facade and two parallel front gable wings on its rear (southwest) façade. The walls are red brick, and the roof is covered in asphalt shingles. There is a complex fenestration of vinyl

12-over-12 and eight-over-eight casement windows. Brick steps and an accessibility ramp provide access to the front double-leaf entrance door. The east facade has a brick landing and a single-leaf, nine-lite door. The rear facade has a similar entry off a metal landing and stairway. The entrance to the basement consists of a single-leaf metal door. In 1992, the National Park Service prepared a letter to be submitted to the Tennessee SHPO in which the Anne B. White House was recommended not eligible for listing in the NRHP. The Tennessee SHPO concurred with the National Park Service's findings in September of that year (Harper 1992).

Archaeological Sites

Little Railroad Tunnel (Claiborne County, Tennessee). The Little Railroad Tunnel was originally built by the Powell's Valley Railroad (later known as the Knoxville, Cumberland Gap, and Louisville Railroad Company) between 1887 and 1889 to connect the town of Harrogate with the company's main line at Cumberland Gap. It is currently 1,200 feet in length with concrete headwalls at its northwest and southeast ends. Only the central, 265-foot-long section of the tunnel that is currently lined with brick dates to the historic period. The tunnel was extended, with corrugated structural plate lining installed along the walls and roof, in the early 1990s and 2000. Additionally, the ground surface throughout the tunnel was raised sometime in the 2000s to accommodate utility conduits and easements in support of its current use as a walking/bike path. The Little Railroad Tunnel was determined not eligible for listing in the NRHP by the Tennessee SHPO in September 2022 during their review of documentation completed by the National Park Service in support of a proposed conduit repair and maintenance project (Reid 2022).

Virginia

Buildings and Structures

O'Dell House (Lee County, Virginia). The O'Dell House property consists of a single-family residence and detached garage located along the northern shoulder of N. Cumberland Road, approximately 455 feet west of the entrance to the Daniel Boone Parking Area. The house, which consists of a one-and-one-half-story, American Four-Square style red brick dwelling, was constructed by B. L. O'Dell, an accountant for the Louisville & Nashville Railroad, in 1925. A contemporaneous pumphouse, measuring 10 feet long by 10 feet wide, is located to the north of the dwelling. Both the residence and pumphouse have been used for administrative purposes and storage since the lot's acquisition by the State of Virginia, and subsequently the National Park Service, in 1955. The property was determined not individually eligible for inclusion in the NRHP by the National Park Service, with Virginia SHPO concurrence, in March 1992 due to modifications to the building's east (rear) façade (Mitchell 1992). These include enclosure of the original rear porch, the construction of an attached open carport, and the addition of a basement entrance covered by a shed roof.

The detached garage consists of a 770-square-foot brick structure that was constructed by Job Corps enrollees in the 1960s. The property is located immediately to the rear (northeast) of the O'Dell House, which was in use as the Park Superintendent's residence at the time of the garage's construction. The building has undergone significant exterior modifications since its initial construction, including upgrades to the garage door and the installation of vinyl siding on the gable ends of the building.

The original determination of eligibility prepared in 1992 did not include the garage. Per NRHP guidance, outbuildings, such as garages, are to be evaluated under the primary building or structure (National Park Service 1997). As the O'Dell House is determined to be not individually eligible for listing in the NRHP, the garage is also recommended as not eligible.

Archaeological Sites

There are five previously designated cultural resource sites within the Virginia portion of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. All five of these sites are associated with the theme of exploration and settlement of the Cumberland Gap region. Three of the sites, including Station Creek (CUGA00059.000), the Susan Baker/C.C. Powell site (CUGA00057.000), and the Russell/Colson site (CUGA00058.000), were originally identified in 1991 and subsequently underwent Phase I and Phase II archaeological testing in 1992 prior to the relocation of U.S. Highway 58 (Cornelison, Jr. and Horvath 1994).

Testing at the Station Creek (CUGA00059.000) and Russell/Colson (CUGA00058.000) sites produced both prehistoric and historic cultural materials. Based on the results of the testing, the Station Creek site was designated a multi-component site with a prehistoric temporal affiliation from the Late Archaic to the Early Woodland periods (1000 BCE to CE 500) and a historic component dating between 1900 and 1950. The Russell/Colson (CUGA00058.000) site was also designated a multi-component site with both prehistoric (Middle Archaic [5000 to 4000 BCE]) and historic (ca. 1790s to 1960s) affiliations. Neither site was recommended eligible for listing in the NRHP due to a "lack of stratigraphic integrity." The recorders also argued that further work at the sites was not required as any impacts that might result from proposed project activities had been mitigated by their archaeological testing. For these reasons, the Station Creek (CUGA00059.000) and Russell/Colson (CUGA00058.000) sites are recommended not eligible for listing in the NRHP under any Criteria as their information potential has been exhausted by the previous studies.

The Susan Baker/C.C. Powell site was solely investigated by surface reconnaissance survey in 1991 and 1992, respectively, as it was determined by the recorders that subsurface cultural deposits were unlikely due to the site's steep terrain (Cornelison, Jr. and Horvath 1994). The survey resulted in the identification and documentation of two depressions and a low-density historic artifact scatter, including glass medicine bottles, a milk bottle, a mason jar, and other miscellaneous glass fragments. The site was believed to date to the early to mid-twentieth century due the types of artifacts present and their diagnostic characteristics. It was not recommended eligible for inclusion in the NRHP due to the lack of integrity and the results of the archival research, which suggested that none of its occupants were of local or regional importance (Cornelison, Jr. and Horvath 1994). Based on these conclusions, the Susan Baker/C.C. Powell site (CUGA00057.00) is recommended not eligible for listing in the NRHP under any Criteria as its information potential has been exhausted by previous studies.

The two other sites located on the Virginia side of the park include Station Creek Junction (CUGA00186.000) and the Upper Station Creek Homestead (CUGA00186.000). Both sites were previously recorded by Southeastern Archaeological Center (SEAC) archeologist Robert Hellmann in March 2011. Archival research revealed little information about the development of

these two sites. The Station Creek Junction site (CUGA00186.00) is not depicted on any historic topographical maps for the region; however, the Upper Station Creek Homestead (CUGA00185.00) first appears on the 1927 USGS 7.5' topographical map for Middlesboro, Kentucky as a small building located along an unnamed trail that extended north from U.S. Highway 58.

Neither of these sites is recommended eligible for NRHP listing under Criterion A, as archival research does not indicate that these properties are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to history within the Tri-State area, nor are they recommended eligible for inclusion under Criterion B, as no association with a person significant in local, regional, or national history could be found. Neither site exhibits any distinctive artistic or engineering characteristics, and therefore, they are also recommended not eligible for NRHP listing under Criterion C. Lastly, the sites are recommended not eligible for listing in the NRHP under Criterion D, as their information potential has been exhausted by the current study, and they do not appear to have the potential to yield additional significant information within the context of homesteading and settlement within the Tri-State region.

UNEVALUATED RESOURCES

Individual Properties

Virginia

Buildings and Structures

There are four structures located in Lee County, Virginia that could not be evaluated as part of the current project. These structures include the Colson Trail, Ewing Trail, Lewis Hollow Trail, and Skylight Cave Trail. All four of these properties consist of unpaved hiking trails that were constructed between 1955 and 1958. As these trails have not been fully documented and little information regarding their original construction and/or changes in alignment is available, they are recommended as unevaluated for listing in the NRHP at this time.

Archaeological Sites

One previously designated cultural resource site within Virginia and the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park that is associated with the themes of agriculture and exploration and settlement remains unevaluated. It is unclear when this site—the Colson Lane & Chimney Fall site (CUGA00092.000)—was originally documented, or if it has been formally recorded. As little information is available, it is recommended as unevaluated for listing in the NRHP.

Kentucky

Buildings and Structures

In Bell County, Kentucky there are six structures and one building that could not be evaluated for listing in the NRHP pending further research. All six of the structures are hiking trails, and include the Brownies Creek Trail, Brush Mountain Trail, Fort Lyon Trail, Fort McCook Trail, Ridge Trail, and Sand Cave Trail Three of these trails—the Ridge Trail, Sand Cave Trail, and Brush Mountain Trail—were built in the mid-twentieth century. The remaining three trails, which include the Brownies Creek Trail, Fort Lyon Trail, and Fort McCook Trail, were

constructed between the 1860s and the 1920s and pre-date the establishment of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. None of the six trails located in Kentucky have been fully documented and additional archival research is needed before an eligibility recommendation can be made. For this reason, they are currently recommended unevaluated for NRHP listing.

The building consists of the Old Millennium Cabin, a single room log cabin that was relocated to the east lawn of the park's Visitor Center by the National Park Service in 2000. Per Criteria Consideration B, for a relocated property to be considered eligible for listing in the NRHP it must be "the surviving structure most importantly associated with a particular historic event or an important aspect of a historic person's life," or be significant primarily for its architectural value (National Park Service 1997). As the exact age of the building is not known, and its origin is unclear, the building is recommended to be unevaluated.

Archaeological Sites

Seven previously designated cultural resources sites within Kentucky and the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park are recommended to remain unevaluated for NRHP listing at this time. Of these, one—the Sand Quarry (CUGA00137.000)—is likely associated with industry, one—the Ramps Homestead (CUGA00164.000)—is presumed to be associated with settlement, and three—Cudzu Rifle Pit (CUGA00096.000), Fern Curve Defenses (CUGA00101.000), Walter Rifle Pit (CUGA00144.000)—have associations with the Civil War. It should be noted that two additional sites—the Little Dam Valley (CUGA00117.000) and Whichway Camp (CUGA00145.000)—have ambiguous associations. Although all these sites have been assigned numbers, written descriptions of their features and/or condition could not be found. Additionally, the sites were not revisited during preparation of this HRS. For these reasons, all seven of the sites are recommended to be unevaluated until further research and field documentation is conducted.

Tennessee

Buildings and Structures

Only one structure located in Claiborne County, Tennessee—the LMU Trail—could not be evaluated for NRHP eligibility. This structure consists of a 0.8-mile-long (4,224-feet-long) unpaved trail segment that was constructed in 1955. As this trail has not been documented in its entirety and minimal information on its development could be found as part of the current study, the LMU Trail is recommended as unevaluated for listing in the NRHP.

Archaeological Sites

Five archaeological sites within Tennessee and the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park are recommended to remain unevaluated for NRHP listing at this time. The sites include one that is associated with settlement, which includes the Howard Gulley House (CUGA00008.000), as well as four, which are associated with the Civil War, such as the Battery 7 Outerworks (CUGA00193.000), Battery 7 Camp (CUGA00196.000), Tiprell Dugouts (CUGA00198.000), and Battery 1 Camp (CUGA000199.000). Although all these sites have been assigned numbers, only brief descriptions of their features and/or condition could be found. Additionally, the sites

were not revisited during preparation of this HRS. For these reasons, all seven of the sites are recommended to be unevaluated until further research and field documentation is conducted.

Resources Recommended Not Eligible for Listing in the NRHP Due to Age

In addition to the resources described above, there are 24 resources located within the current park boundaries that do not meet the 50-year age requirement for NRHP listing and do not demonstrate "exceptional importance" under Criteria Consideration G, as defined in *National Register Bulletin 22: Guidelines for Evaluating and Nominating Properties that Have Achieved Significance within the Past Fifty Years* (National Park Service 1998). These resources include six trails, constructed between 1975 and 2010; eight bridges, built between 1987 and 1995; two culverts, which were both constructed in 1980; seven buildings, constructed between 1980 and 2005; and an American Society of Engineers Marker, built ca. 1985. As none of these resources meet the criteria listed in Criteria Consideration G, none are recommended individually eligible for listing in the NRHP.

For a complete list of resources that are less than 50 years in age, please see Appendix D.

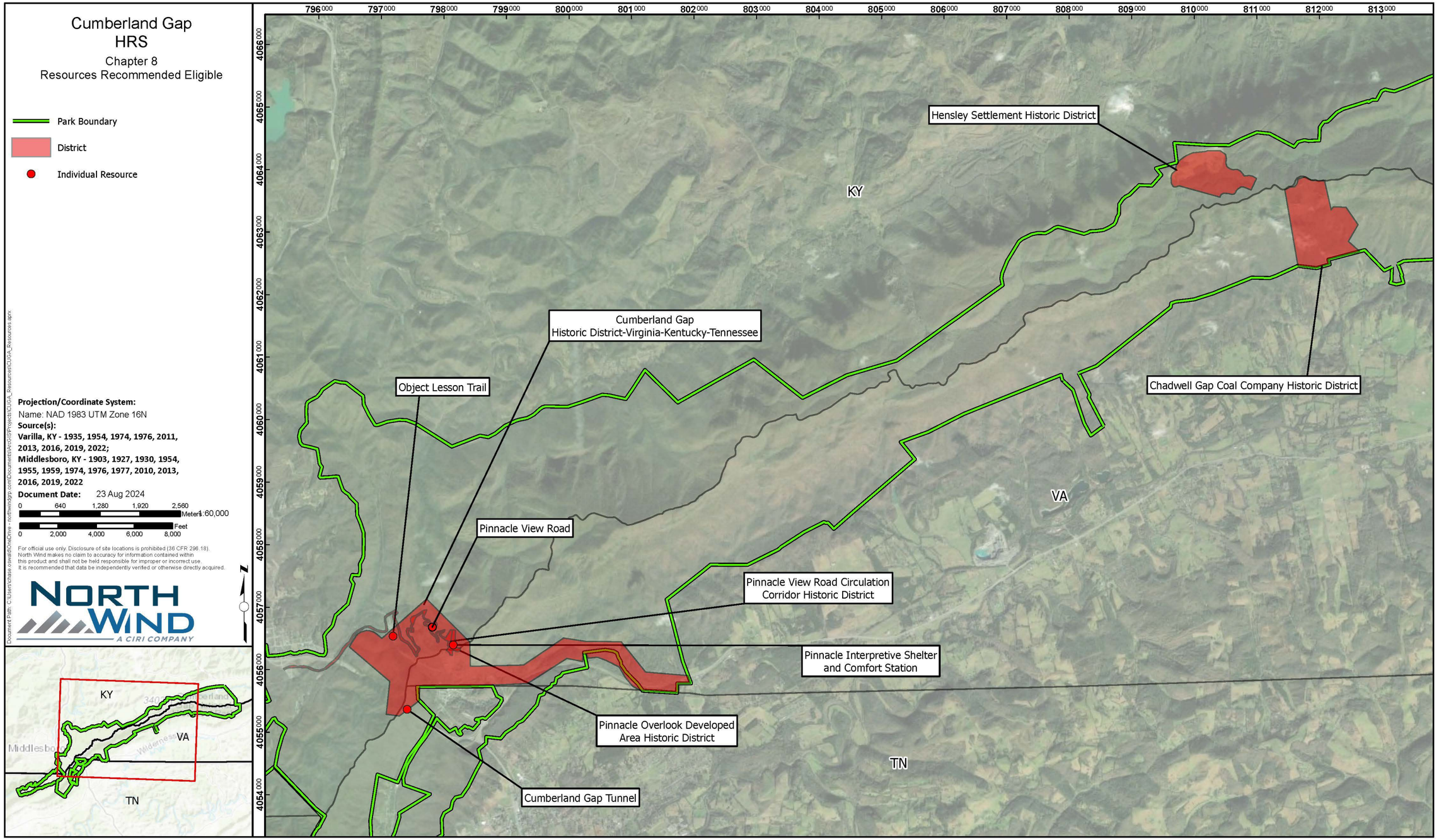


Figure 145. Resources Determined or Recommended Eligible for Listing in the NRHP.

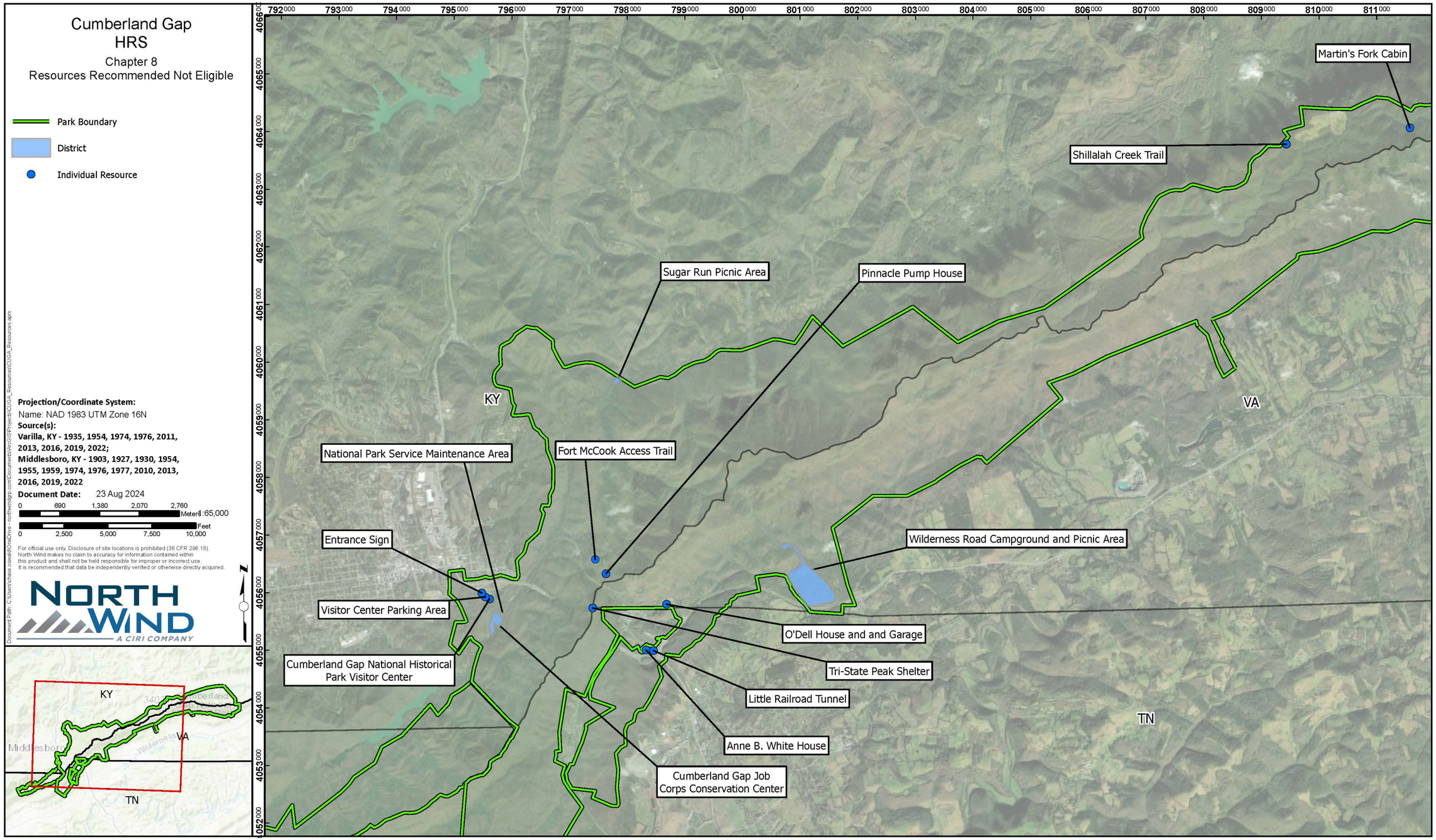


Figure 146. Resources Determined or Recommended Not Eligible for Listing in the NRHP.

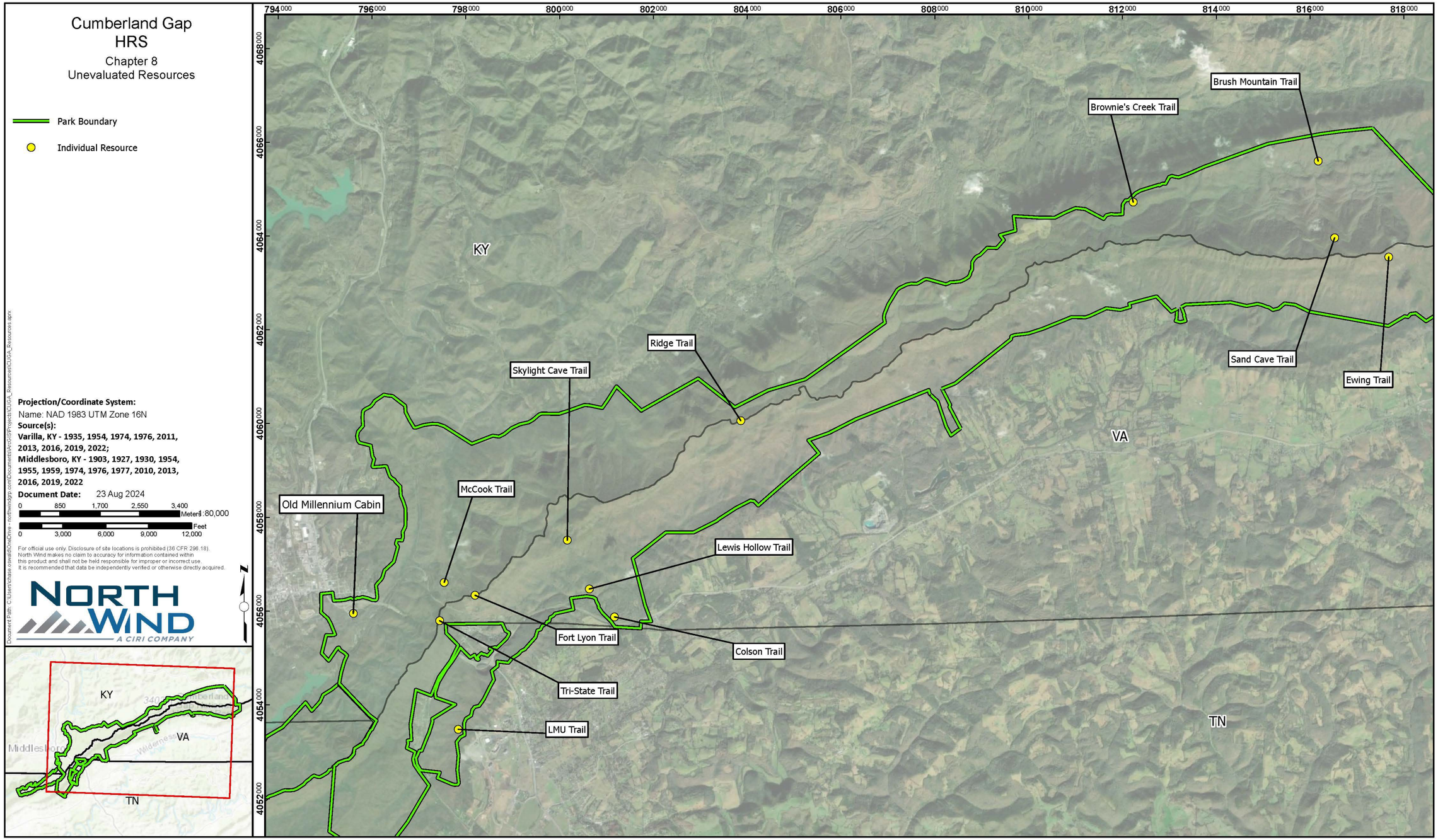


Figure 147. Unevaluated Resources.

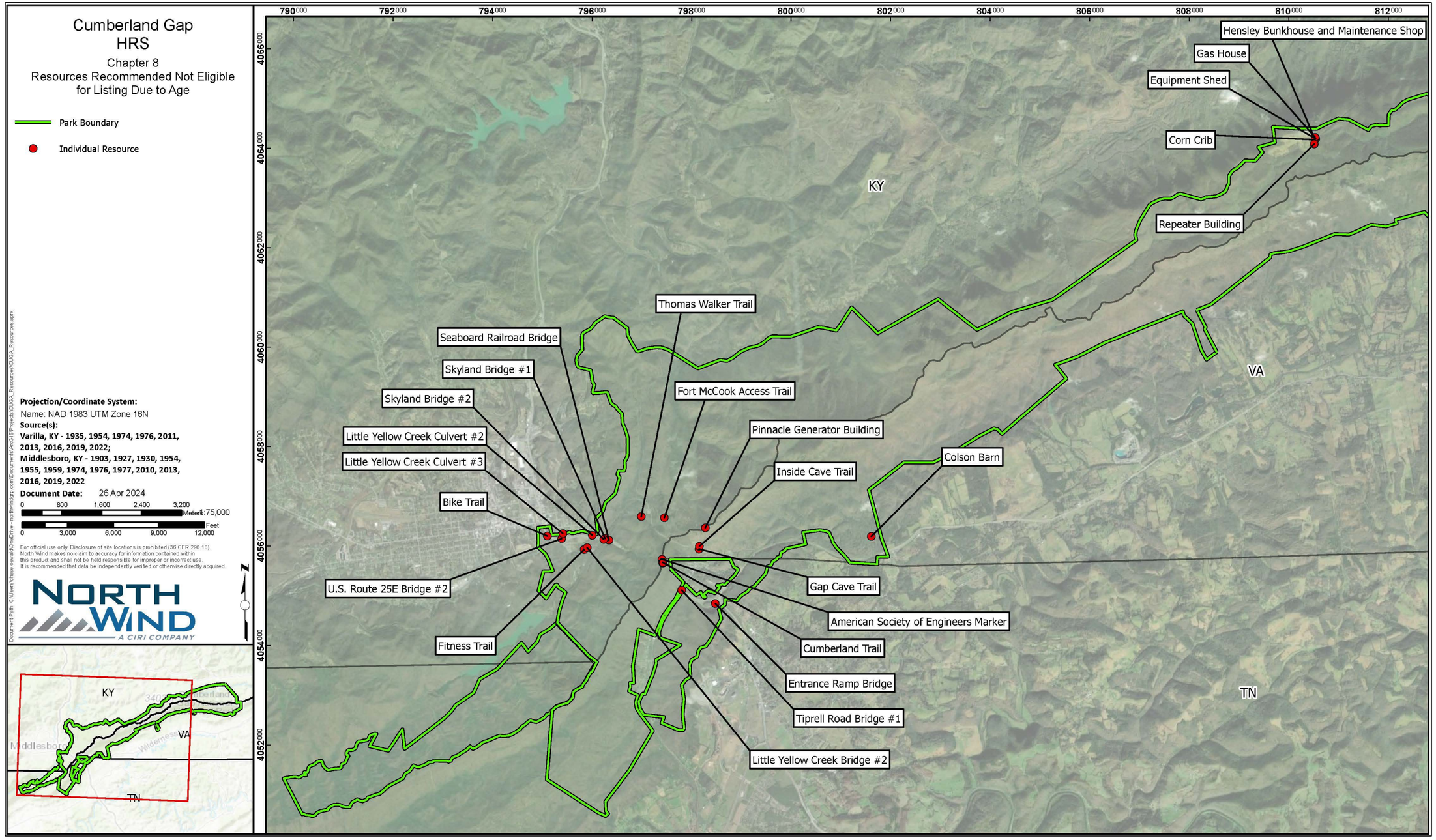


Figure 148. Resources Recommended Not Eligible for Listing in the NRHP Due to Age.

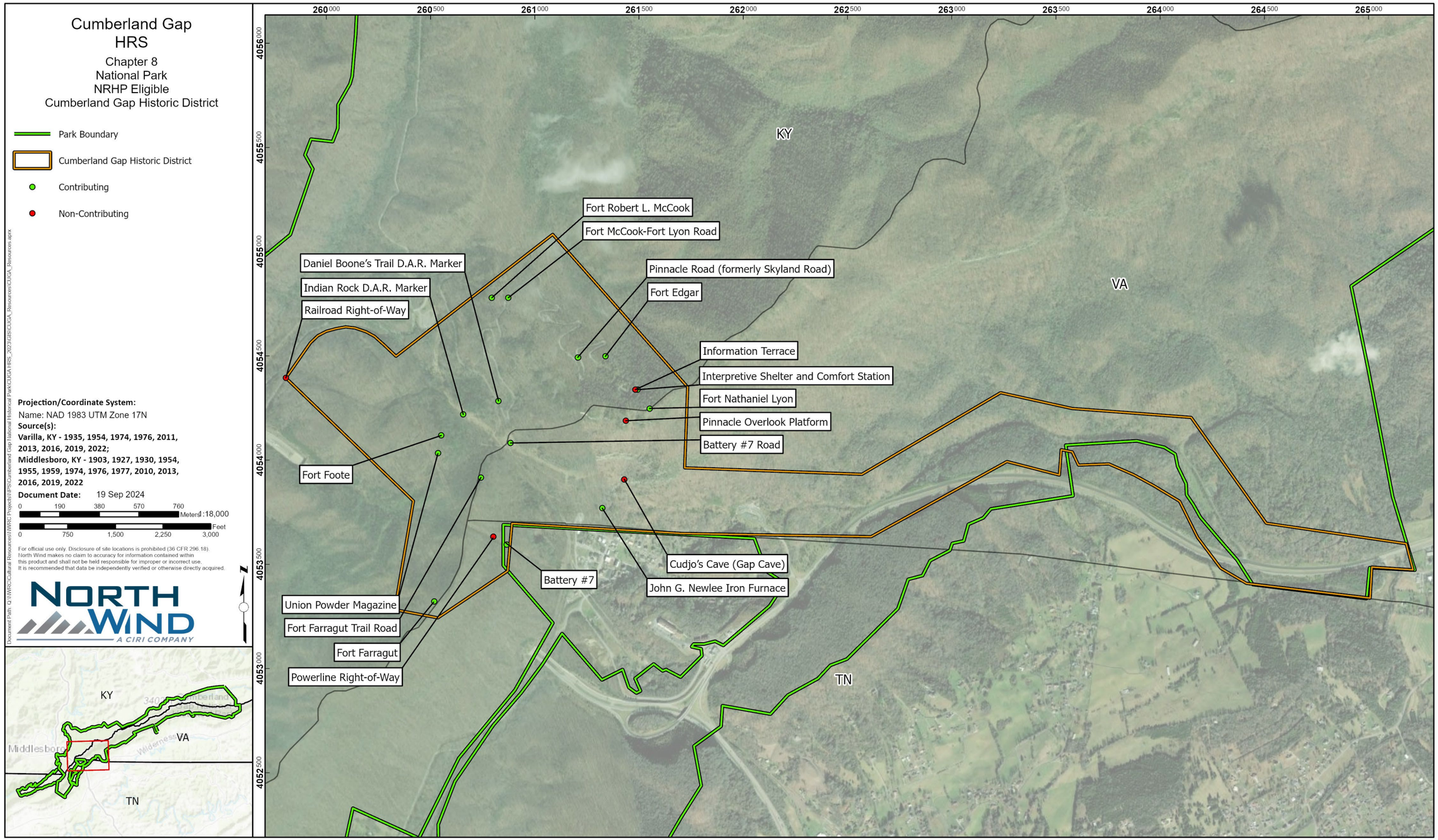


Figure 149. Map of the NRHP-listed Cumberland Gap – Virginia/Kentucky/Tennessee Historic District.

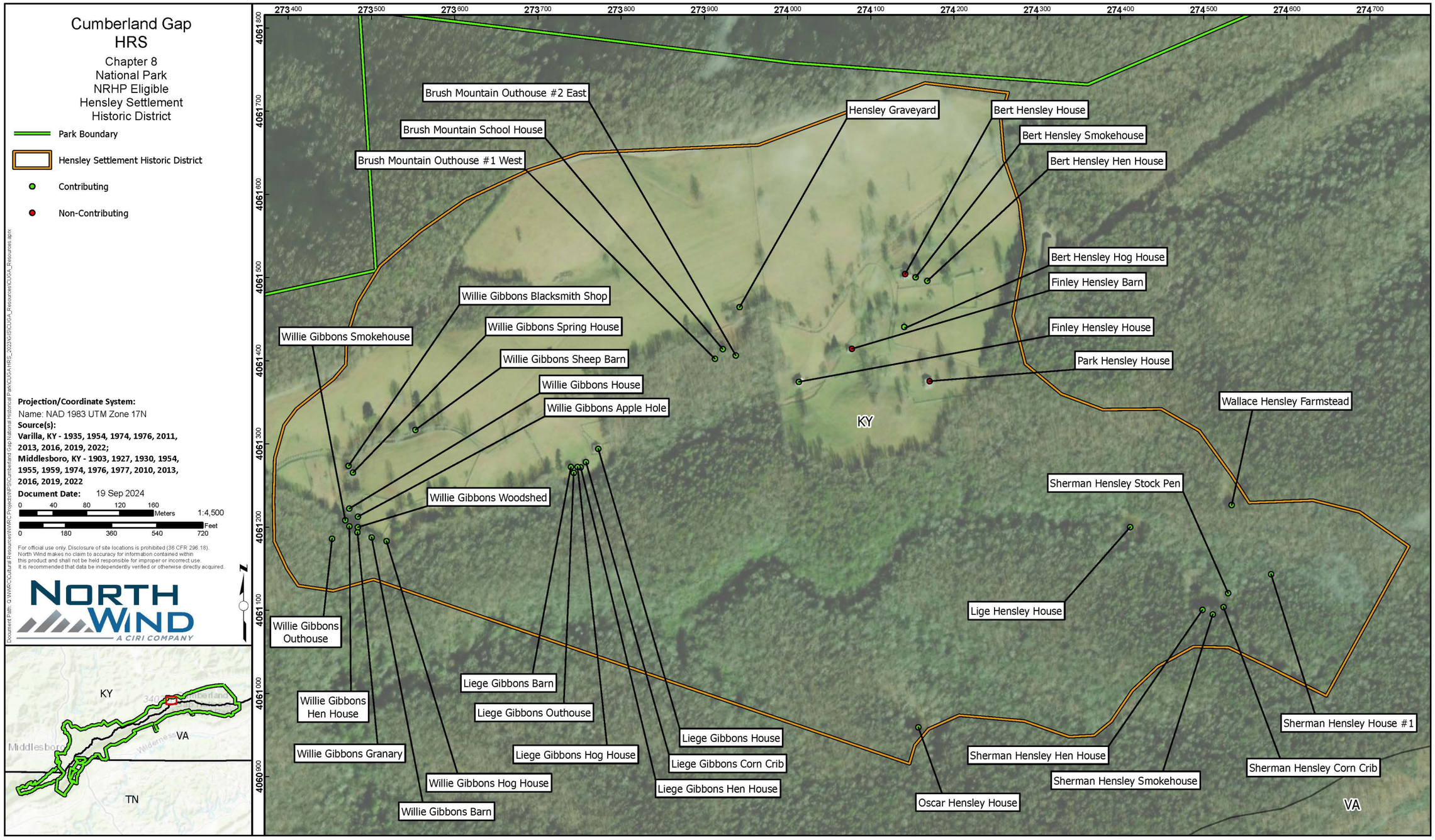


Figure 150. Map of the NRHP-listed Hensley Settlement Historic District.

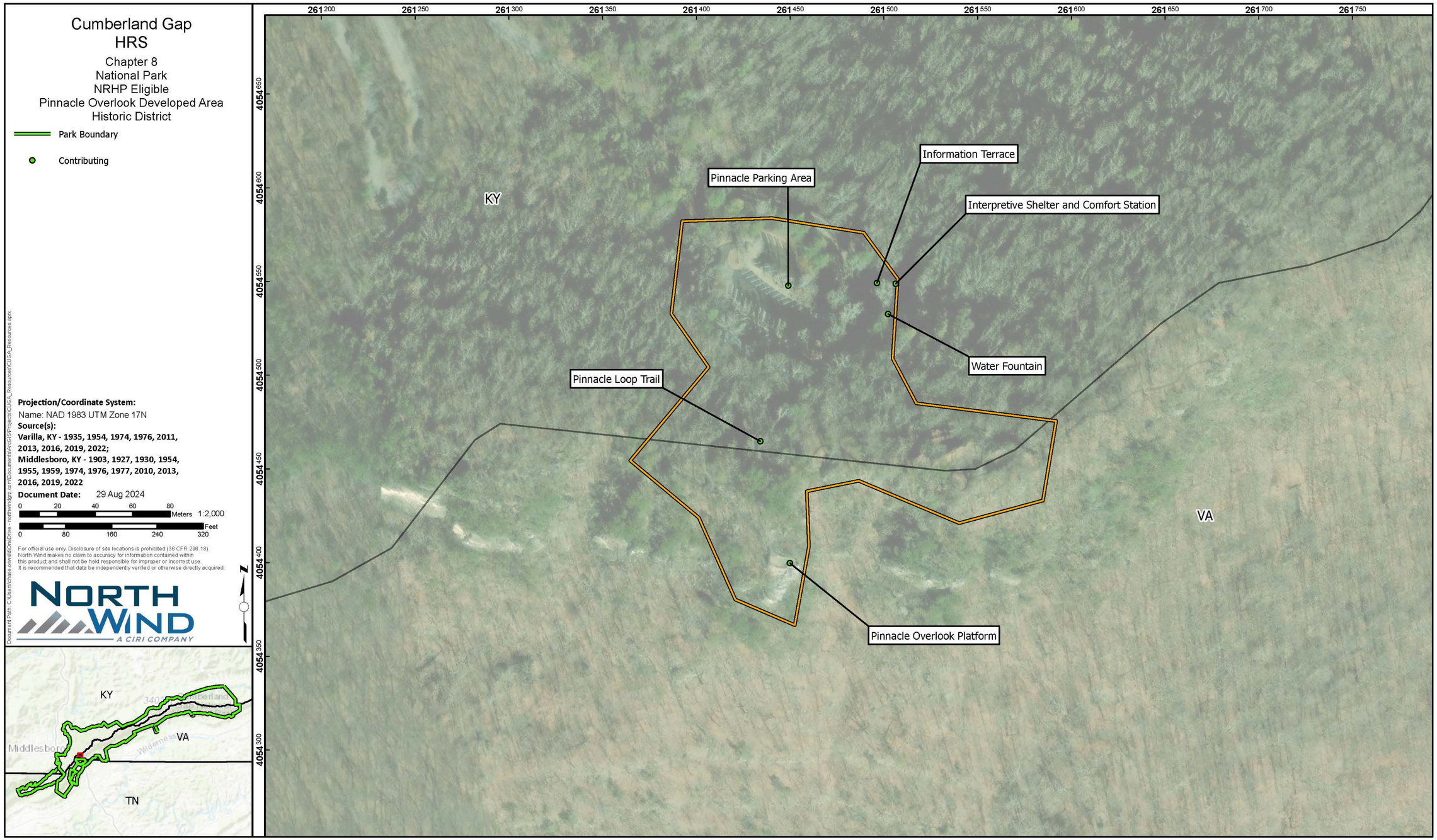


Figure 151. Map of the NRHP-eligible Pinnacle Overlook Developed Area Historic District.

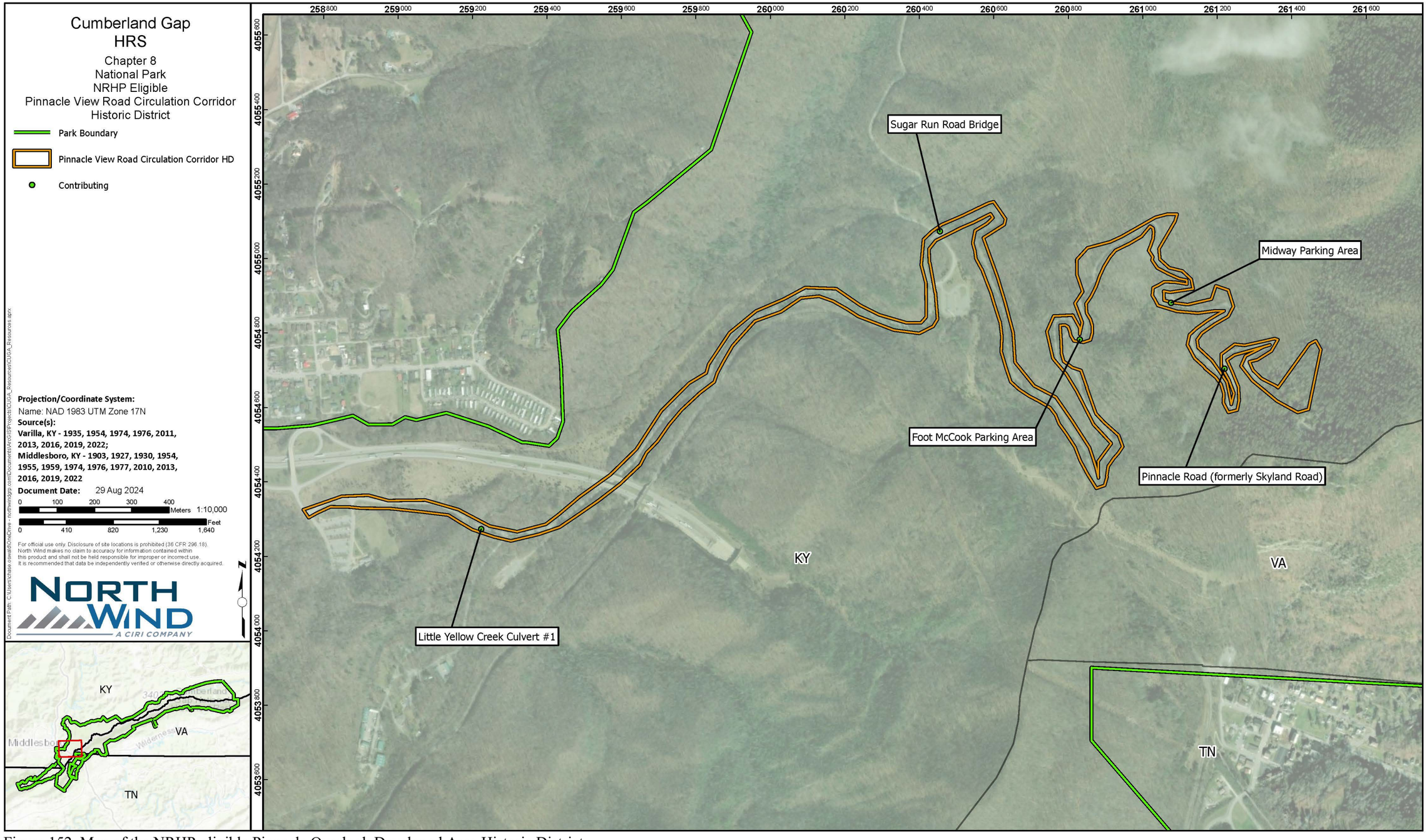


Figure 152. Map of the NRHP-eligible Pinnacle Overlook Developed Area Historic District.

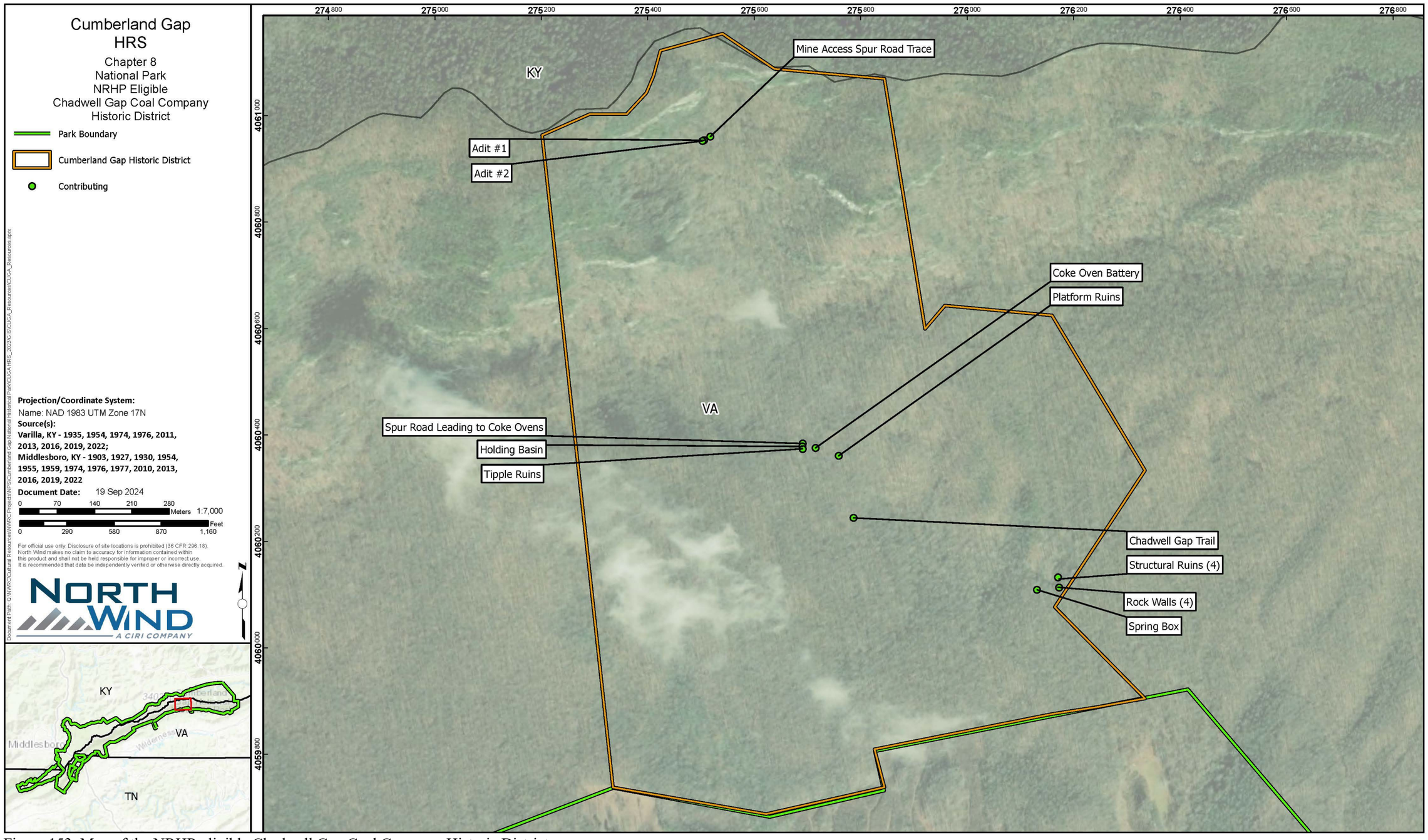


Figure 153. Map of the NRHP-eligible Chadwell Gap Coal Company Historic District.

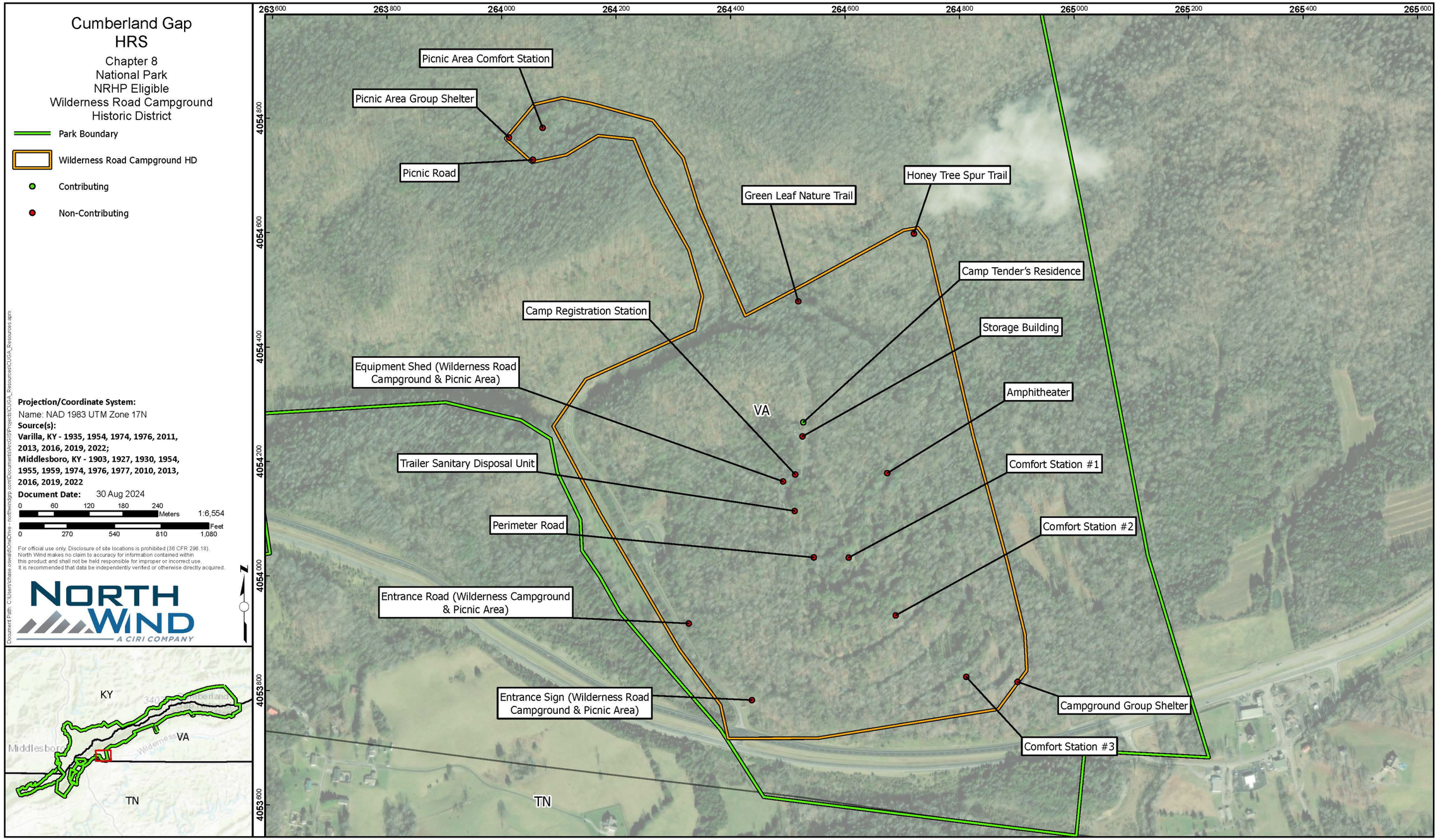


Figure 154. Map of the Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area, a district that has been determined not eligible for listing in the NRHP.

Figure 155. Map of the Cumberland Gap Job Corps Conservation Center, a district which is recommended not eligible for listing in the NRHP.

Figure 156. Map of the National Park Maintenance Area, a district which been recommended not eligible for listing in the NRHP.

Figure 157. Map of the Sugar Run Picnic Area, a district which is recommended not eligible for listing in the NRHP.

CHAPTER NINE:
MANAGEMENT RECOMMENDATIONS

Management of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park requires prioritizing available resources to focus on the most pressing issues. The management recommendations outlined in this chapter are offered as suggestions to maintain and improve the physical resources of the park, while also expanding interpretative programs as funding allows. Cumberland Gap National Historical Park is comprised of prehistoric sites; historic homesteads and settlements; historic bridges, roads, trails, and culverts; Civil War earthworks, and remnants of early industrial activities. These resources offer the potential of expanded programing and interpretive opportunities. The management recommendations are categorized as follows: resource inventory and evaluation, National Register nominations and amendments, interpretation, and archives. The resource inventory and evaluation and National Register nominations and amendments sections are further organized by state. The recommendations are provided as guidance for possible short- and long-term initiatives to enhance the visitors' experience at that park while also maintaining its significant cultural resources.

RESOURCE INVENTORY AND EVALUATION

Historic resource surveys and inventories are fundamental planning tools for park staff. These surveys provide baseline documentation of significant resources, as well as expanded historic contexts for the entire park. Historic resource surveys should always incorporate Graphic Information Systems (GIS) mapping to facilitate the use of geospatial data in planning efforts. The following resources are recommended for inventory and evaluation:

- The Denny Family Cemetery is one of two cemeteries located within the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. No recommendations of eligibility for the cemetery have been made. The cemetery dates from the early-nineteenth century and contains several unmarked burials, deteriorating fence boundaries, and unstable headstones. A Class III Cultural Resource Survey, including ground-penetrating radar (GPR), would be useful in discovering additional gravesites, headstones, and other markers and artifacts, and archival and genealogical research may uncover historic burial records and information about individuals and families interred within the cemetery. These findings will assist the park in a recommendation of NRHP eligibility.
- Cultural Landscape Inventories (CLI) should be completed for all historic districts recommended as eligible for listing in the NRHP. A list of recommended eligible districts is included within this chapter.
- A survey using Global Positioning System (GPS) mapping software should be completed for all trails within the park. The survey will provide a comprehensive inventory of trails, as well as updated alignments, lengths, elevations, and conditions. Additionally, a survey may reveal informal routes created by visitors that lead to or through potentially dangerous areas or sensitive environmental and historic resources.
- A Class III intensive and systematic cultural resource inventory is recommended to identify, document, and compile a comprehensive record of all cultural resources within the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park that might qualify for the NRHP or

appropriate State Register of Historic Places. This would ensure their site number designations, boundaries, features, and associated artifact types and counts are all up to date.

- After an updated Class III cultural resource inventory, it is recommended that archaeological testing be conducted at sites that warrant further research. This would be beneficial in order to gain a better understanding of the prehistoric land use within the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park.

National Register Nominations and Amendments

The following properties are recommended for documentation on National Register registration forms. A complete evaluation of eligibility for listing in the National Register for each of these properties is included in Chapter Eight: National Register of Historic Places Evaluations.

Kentucky

- The Cumberland Gap Tunnel is recommended as individually eligible for listing in the National Register under Criterion A for its association with transportation infrastructure improvements made to the park during the restoration period, and under Criterion C as an intact example of a dual-bore tunnel. The tunnel is considered significant under the themes of Engineering and Transportation and retains all seven aspects of integrity. The tunnel was also evaluated for significance, and is recommended as eligible under, Criteria Consideration G for Properties that have Achieved Significance Within the Last Fifty Years as a unique structure within the National Park Service system.
- Pinnacle Overlook Developed Area Historic District was determined eligible for listing in the NRHP in 2023 at the local level of significance under Criterion A for its association with recreational development occurring within the park during the Mission 66 era. It is also considered significant under Criterion C as a good representative of the design concepts and construction techniques established by the National Park Service for public-use areas built as part of the Mission 66 program.
- The Pinnacle Road Circulation Corridor Historic District was determined eligible for inclusion in the NRHP in 2023 at the local level under Criterion A for its association with the development of tourism and transportation improvements conducted within the park under the Mission 66 program.

Virginia

- The Chadwell Gap Coal Company Historic District was determined eligible for listing in the NRHP in 2012 at the local level under Criteria A, C, and D in the areas of industry and historical archaeology for its contributions to the industrial history of the region.

Interpretation

The following themes are recommended as subjects for additional and/or new interpretive and educational resources:

- Early settlement and homesteading, including the arrival of Euro Americans and early exploration, the establishment of the Cumberland Gap, Middlesboro, and Hensley settlements, the contribution of Black Americans to community development, infrastructure improvements to facilitate settlement, is recommended for areas related to these contexts. Additionally, a discussion of the built environment, including the layout of settlements and their relation to natural resources, as well as the types, styles, and building methods and materials of early housing and support buildings is needed.
- The early exploitation of mineral and natural resources, such as clearing forests for agriculture, mining, and construction, and production of iron that resulted in the use of large quantities of raw materials including wood, iron ore, and limestone; the impact of infrastructure development on natural resources; and the impact of smaller industries requiring natural resources, should be discussed in areas throughout the park near trails and other accessible areas with visible connections to this context.
- Interpretation of tourism to the Cumberland Gap area is important to highlight the increasingly popular trend of Americans escaping the rapid industrialization of their cities to find refuge in nature. Topics of discussion can include the development of day-use facilities such as picnic areas, comfort stations, rest stops, and roadside attractions, lodging and restaurants, and recreational and commemorative sites. The development of transportation infrastructure can include narratives regarding the location of roads, highways, and rail, and the overall impact to the economy; however, a discussion regarding the impacts of infrastructure construction to natural resources should be included in a separate narrative focusing on the exploitation of these resources.
- The very early stages of planning and development, prior to the actual creation of the park and the Misson 66 program, of the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park with a focus on planning efforts, major partners including the Tri-State coordination, state and federal supporting legislation and funding, factors influencing early park boundaries, land acquisition, and displacement of land holders within the park, including legal actions, should be interpreted. As planning involves little physical development, it is recommended that this topic be discussed using a multi-media exhibition within the visitor center. The exception is for areas near displaced communities and/or landholders which would warrant interpretive markers or similar.
- The Mission 66 program allowed for substantial new development within the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, including infrastructure, trails, buildings, structures, and educational resources, greatly expanding visitor facilities and recreational opportunities. Interpretation of this significant period in park planning and development is recommended at each Mission 66-era resource, including the park visitor center and Pinnacle Overlook to include Skyland Road.
- Additional interpretation of the Job Corps program's impact at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park is recommended. The Job Corps program supplanted the Mission 66 program and funded the planning and construction of the Job Corps Conservation Center (JCCC) at Bartlett Park, the Park Maintenance Area, Sugar Run Picnic area, signage, and trails throughout the Park, improvements at Fort McCook, and landscaping along Skyland Road. Interpretive markers discussing the Job Corps is recommended for Bartlett Park.

ARCHIVES

- An organized digital library of records and reports from CRM firms and associated agencies, such as SEAC, pertaining to previous cultural resource surveys, archaeological testing, and/or excavation, and completion of site forms/site cards for previously documented cultural resources within the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park would greatly assist background research efforts.

CHAPTER TEN:
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The National Park Service, in collaboration with North Wind and their Southeast Region CRM team, has completed a HRS of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. The HRS represents the results of a comprehensive survey and NRHP eligibility assessment of all park assets including all buildings, structures, objects, and sites that are at least 25 years old and which are subject to regular maintenance by the park. The goal of the HRS is to survey and evaluate park assets; confirm the accuracy of existing data on file at the park and in the various SHPO databases; and assist National Park Service personnel in all future maintenance and preservation planning efforts.

The purpose of this HRS is to help identify all cultural resources within the park boundaries and to develop a set of comprehensive historical contexts under which these resources can be evaluated for NRHP eligibility. The park will be able to rely on the information contained in this HRS to easily assess the effects of any undertakings on historic properties under Section 106 and to satisfy the National Park Service's obligations under Section 110 of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended. In addition, the information provided in the HRS will ensure compliance with the procedures outlined by the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation (ACHP) in 36 CFR 800 and fulfill the park's requirements under the 2008 Programmatic Agreement (PA) between the National Park Service, the ACHP, and the National Conference of State Historic Preservation Officers (NCSHPO). As a result, the HRS and its supporting materials will serve as documentation for consultation in support of the National Park Service determinations and findings listed below.

Routine maintenance of the park's many assets guarantees that Cumberland Gap National Historical Park remains safe and enjoyable for all visitors. Although the 2008 PA allows the park to streamline some routine tasks related to the maintenance and upkeep of its assets, confusion about NRHP status often prevents use of the Streamlined Review Process, and, in some instances can lead to deferred maintenance of assets for which there is uncertainty regarding NRHP status. Therefore, the results of this HRS will improve the park's ability to conduct routine maintenance under the terms of the 2008 PA and will enable efficient programming and planning for undertakings of all types.

North Wind developed the HRS in close consultation with the park cultural resource staff and in partnership with the interdisciplinary CRM team from the National Park Service Southeast Region. Before preparation of the HRS began, the park's cultural resource staff provided North Wind with a preliminary list of all previously recorded archaeological sites, as well as all historic and non-historic assets located within the boundaries of the park. During the on-site project kick-off meeting, North Wind staff met with William Hunter and Jessica McNeil of the National Park Service to discuss the preliminary list of resources and develop a strategy for fieldwork that would prioritize the resources most in need of preservation. Shapefiles for each of these resources were then provided to North Wind in order to guide the field documentation. North Wind personnel conducted a systematic survey of all buildings, structures, objects, and sites within Cumberland Gap National Historical Park that were determined to be 25 years old or older in an effort to confirm the status and condition of existing historic properties and to identify

any new properties that may be potentially eligible for NRHP listing. Historic properties were evaluated based on criteria for NRHP eligibility as outlined in the Department of Interior Regulations 36 CFR 60.

In consultation with the National Park Service, the following six themes were identified as a framework for the HRS evaluations:

- Early Exploration and Settlement of the Tri-State Area (10,000 BCE–1925).
- Cumberland Gap during the Civil War (1861–1865).
- Industrial Development of Cumberland Gap (1810–1971).
- Early Efforts at Park Establishment (1870–1950).
- Establishment of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park and the Mission 66 Program (1945–1972); and,
- Cumberland Gap in the Modern Age (1973–Present).

With the exception of excluded resource types, the completed inventory represents a comprehensive listing of all known historic properties in the park. This HRS evaluates over 240 park resources, including nine districts, containing a total of 151 buildings, structures, objects, and sites; 37 individual buildings and/or structures; and 54 archaeological sites. Additionally, 13 buildings and structures and 13 archaeological sites remain unevaluated due to a lack of available information regarding their history and/or development. A summary of these findings is provided below.

Districts. There are two historic districts within the park boundaries that are already listed in the NRHP. These districts include the Hensley Settlement Historic District and the Cumberland Gap – Virginia/Kentucky/Tennessee Historic District. These two districts were listed in the NRHP in 1979 and 1980, respectively. Collectively, these two districts have a total of 60 contributing and 9 non-contributing resources.

In addition to the districts listed above, there are an additional three historic districts within the park that have been determined or recommended eligible for listing in the NRHP. These districts include the Pinnacle Overlook Developed Area Historic District, Pinnacle Road Circulation Corridor Historic District, and the Chadwell Gap Coal Company Historic District. Altogether, these three districts contain a total of 34 resources, all of which are considered contributing to their respective districts. Additionally, two of the contributing properties—the Pinnacle View Road (formerly Skyland Road) and the Pinnacle Interpretative Shelter and Comfort Station—have been determined to be individually eligible listing in the NRHP.

The remaining four historic districts, which include the Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area, the Sugar Run Picnic Area, the Cumberland Gap Job Corps Conservation Center, and the National Park Service Maintenance Area, are recommended not eligible for listing in the NRHP. Archival research suggests that the Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area has historical significance for its association with recreational development within the park under the Mission 66-era program, and that the Cumberland Gap Job Corps Conservation Center, Sugar

Run Picnic Area, and National Park Service Maintenance Area possess historical significance for their association with the Job Corps program. However, due to modern alterations, none of these districts retain sufficient integrity to be eligible for listing in the NRHP under any Criteria. It is further recommended that none of the individual resources located within these four districts possess the standalone significance necessary to be individually eligible for inclusion in the NRHP.

Individual Buildings, Structures, and Archaeological Sites. Of the 37 individual buildings and structures that were evaluated as part of the HRS, 24 do not meet the 50-year age requirement for NRHP listing and do not demonstrate the "exceptional importance" required for listing under Criteria Consideration G, as defined in *National Register Bulletin 22: Guidelines for Evaluating and Nominating Properties that Have Achieved Significance within the Past Fifty Years* (National Park Service 1998). Because of this, these sites, which include six trails, eight bridges, two culverts, seven buildings, and one object, are recommended not eligible for inclusion in the NRHP.

Of the remaining 13 buildings and structures, two have been determined or are recommended eligible for listing in the NRHP. These properties include the Cumberland Gap Tunnel and the Object Lesson Road. The eleven remaining properties, consisting of the Tri-State Peak Shelter, Tri-State Marker, Cumberland Gap National Historical Park Visitor Center, Martin's Fork Cabin, Pinnacle Pump House, Visitor Center Parking Area, Little Railroad Tunnel, Entrance Sign, Fort McCook Access Trail, Anne B. White House, and the O'Dell House and Garage, have experienced significant modifications that have substantially diminished their historic integrity. Therefore, these 11 properties are considered not eligible for inclusion in the NRHP.

Of the 54 archaeological sites that were evaluated as part of the HRS, 48 are recommended eligible for listing in the NRHP under one of six themes. Twenty-three of the sites (48 percent) are recommended eligible for listing in the NRHP due to their association with Civil War activities that occurred at Cumberland Gap. Seventeen sites (35 percent) are related to the early exploration and initial settlement of the Tri-State area. The remaining eight sites (17 percent) are related to industrial development of the Cumberland Gap region and early efforts at park establishment.

The remaining six sites, which include the Neal, Snyder, Mullins Coal Mine (CUGA00011.000), Station Creek (CUGA00059.000), Susan Baker/C.C. Powell (CUGA00057.000), Russell/Colson (CUGA00058.000), Station Creek Junction (CUGA00186.000), and Upper Station Creek Homestead (CUGA00186.000), are recommended not eligible for listing in the NRHP as they do not demonstrate significance under any of the four NRHP Criteria.

Unevaluated Properties. Lastly, one building, 13 archaeological sites, and 11 structures located within the park's boundaries could not be evaluated. The only building that could not be evaluated is the Old Millenium Cabin, a single room log cabin that was moved to the east lawn of the park's Visitor Center by the National Park Service in 2000. As the exact age of the building is not known, and its origin is unclear, the building is recommended to be unevaluated. The 13 archaeological sites include: Colson Lane & Chimney Fall (CUGA00092.000), Sand Quarry (CUGA00137.000), Ramps Homestead (CUGA00164.000), Cudzu Rifle Pit

(CUGA00096.000), Fern Curve Defenses (CUGA00101.000), Walter Rifle Pit (CUGA00144.000), Little Dam Valley (CUGA00117.000), Whichway Camp (CUGA00145.000), Howard Gulley House (CUGA00008.000), Battery 7 Outerworks (CUGA00193.000), Battery 7 Camp (CUGA00196.000), Tiprell Dugouts (CUGA00198.000), and Battery 1 Camp (CUGA000199.000). The NRHP eligibility of these sites could not be determined as part of the HRS as archival research no additional information on their age and/or associations, and they were not relocated during survey; thus, their current condition is not known.

The 11 unevaluated structures include the Colson Trail, Ewing Trail, Lewis Hollow Trail, Skylight Cave Trail, Brownies Creek Trail, Brush Mountain Trail, Fort Lyon Trail, Fort McCook Trail, Ridge Trail, Sand Cave Trail, and LMU Trail. These resources have not been fully documented and additional archival research is needed before an eligibility recommendation for them can be made. For this reason, they are currently recommended unevaluated for NRHP listing.

The park will continue to initiate Standard Consultation with the appropriate SHPO, Indian tribes, representatives of local governments, and other consulting parties on any projects that have the potential to have an adverse effect on historic properties (36 CFR 800.5); however, park staff will also be able to utilize the information provided in this HRS to better account for the effects of its routine maintenance actions on historic and non-historic properties in accordance with the terms of the PA and its Streamlined Activities.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books

Allaback, Sarah
2000 *Mission 66 Visitor Centers: The History of a Building Type*. U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Park Historic Structures and Cultural Landscapes Program, Washington, D.C.

Allen, James Lane
1892 *The Blue-Grass Region of Kentucky and Other Kentucky Articles*. Harper & Brothers, New York, New York.

Appleton's Journal of Literature, Science, and Art
1872 *Cumberland Gap.* D. Appleton and Company, New York, New York.

Astor, Aaron
2015 *The Civil War Along Tennessee's Cumberland Plateau*. The History Press, Charleston, South Carolina.

Baker, Harry Lee
1925 "The Forests of Lee County, Virginia," in *The Geology and Coal Resources of the Coal-Bearing Portion of Lee County, Virginia.* Virginia Geological Survey Bulletin No. XXVI. University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Virginia.

Brent, Maria Campbell
2002 *Taming Yellow Creek Alexander Arthur, the Yellow Creek Canal, and Middlesborough, Kentucky*. Bell County Historical Society, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

Brown, John P.
1938 *Old Frontiers: The Story of the Cherokee Indians from the Earliest Times to the Date of Their Removal to the West, 1838*. Southern Publishers, Inc., Charlotte, North Carolina.

Bruce, Henry Addington
1910 *Daniel Boone and the Wilderness Road*. The MacMillan Company, New York, New York.

Calloway, Colin Gordon
2007 *The Scratch of a Pen: 1763 and the Transformation of North America*. Oxford University Press, Oxford.

Cornett, Tim
2009 *Bell County, Kentucky: A Brief History*. The History Press, Charleston, South Carolina.

Cox, William E.
2005 *The Hensley Settlement: Cumberland Gap National Historical Park*. Eastern National, Fort Washington, Pennsylvania.

Fuson, Henry Harvey
1947 *History of Bell County, Kentucky, Volume 1*. Bell County Public Library District, Middlesboro, Tennessee.

Gallay, Alan
2008 *The Indian Slave Trade: The Rise of the English Empire in the American South, 1670–1717*. Yale University Press, New Haven, Connecticut.

Goodspeed, Weston Arthur
1887 *History of Tennessee, Containing Historical Sketches and Biographical Sketches of Thirty East Tennessee Counties*. The Goodspeed Publishing Company, Chicago, Illinois, and Nashville, Tennessee.

Haney, William H.
1906 *The Mountain People of Kentucky*. The Robert Clarke Company, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Herr, Kincaid A.
1964 *The Louisville and Nashville Railroad, 1850–1963*. The University Press of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky.

Hess, Earl J.
2011 *Lincoln Memorial University and the Shaping of Appalachia*. University of Tennessee Press, Knoxville, Tennessee.

Hudson, Charles
2018 *Knights of Spain, Warriors of the Sun: Hernando de Soto and South's Ancient Chiefdoms*. University of Georgia Press, Athens, Georgia.

Hulbert, Archer Butler
1903 *Historic Highways of America. Vol. 6. Boone's Wilderness Road*. The Arthur H. Clark Company, Cleveland, Ohio.

Hutslar, D. A.
1986 *The Architecture of Migration: Log Construction in the Ohio Country, 1750–1850*. Ohio University Press, Columbus, Ohio.

Ingram, Tammy
2014 *Dixie Highway: Road Building and the Making of the Modern South, 1900–1930*. University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill.

Jillson, Willard Rouse
1922 *The Coal Industry in Kentucky: An Historical Sketch*. The State Journal Company, Frankfort, Kentucky.

Karnes, Thomas L.
2009 *Asphalt and Politics: A History of the American Highway System*. McFarland and Company, Inc. Publishers, Jefferson, North Carolina.

Kleber, John E.
1992 *The Kentucky Encyclopedia*. The University Press of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky.

Killebrew, J. B.
1881 *Iron and Coal of Tennessee.* Tavel & Howell Printers to the State, Nashville, Tennessee.

King, Duane H.
2005 *The Cherokee Indian Nation: A Troubled History*. University of Tennessee Press, Knoxville, Tennessee.

Klein, Maury
1972 *History of the Louisville and Nashville Railroad*. The University Press of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky.

Lasson, Kenneth
1972 *A History of Appalachian Coal Mines: Legal Problems of Coal Mine Reclamation: A Study in Maryland, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia*. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

Lewis, Ronald L.
1987 *Black Coal Miners in America: Race, Class, and Community Conflict, 1780–1980*. University Press of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky.

Lucas, Marion B.
2003 *A History of Blacks in Kentucky: From Slavery to Segregation, 1760–1891*. The Kentucky Historical Society, Frankfort, Kentucky.

Macintire, William J.
1998 *The Pioneer Log House in Kentucky*. Kentucky Heritage Council. Electronic document at https://heritage.ky.gov/Documents/PioneerLogHouse.pdf, accessed February 26, 2024.

Martin, C. Brendan
2007 *Tourism in the Mountain South: A Double-Edged Sword*. University of Tennessee Press, Knoxville, Tennessee.

Matheny, Ann Dudley
2003 *The Magic City: Footnotes to the History of Middlesborough, Kentucky, and the Yellow Creek Valley*. Bell County Historical Society, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

Montell, William Lynwood and Michael L. Morse
1976 *Kentucky Folk Architecture*. The University of Kentucky Press, Lexington.

Morgan, John
1990 *The Log House in East Tennessee*. The University of Tennessee Press, Knoxville, Tennessee.

O'Donnell, James H.
2004 *Ohio's First Peoples*. Ohio University Press, Athens, Ohio.

O'Malley, Mimi
2011 *It Happened in Kentucky, Second Edition*. Morris Book Publishing, LLC, Kearney, Nebraska.

Powell, Douglas Reichert
2018 *Endless Caverns: An Underground Journey Into the Show Caves of Appalachia*. The University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, North Carolina.

Rehder, J. B.
2012 *Tennessee Log Buildings: A Folk Tradition (First Edition)*. University of Tennessee Press, Knoxville, Tennessee.

Rosenberg, Chaim M.
2019 *The International Harvester Company: A History of the Founding Families and Their Machines*. McFarland and Company, Inc., Jefferson, North Carolina.

Sweet, Natalie
2014 *Harrogate and Cumberland Gap*. Arcadia Publishing, Charleston, South Carolina.

Thacker, Larry D.
2007 *Mountain Mysteries: The Mystic Traditions of Appalachia*. The Overmountain Press, Johnson City, Tennessee.

Wiley, Martha Evans
2014 *Cumberland Gap National Historical Park.* Arcadia Publishing, Charleston, South Carolina.

Winkler, John F.
2014 *Point Pleasant 1774: Prelude to the American Revolution*. Bloomsbury Publishing, London.

Wright, James Leitch Jr.
1986 *Creeks & Seminoles: The Destruction and Regeneration of the Muscogulge People*. University of Nebraska Press, Lincoln, Nebraska.

Articles

Alton Evening Telegraph
1886 "Book Notices." *Alton Evening Telegraph*. May 21, pg. 3.

Blakey, George T.
1986 "The New Deal and Rural Kentucky, 1933–1941." *The Register of the Kentucky Historical Society*, Vol. 84, No. 2.

Bristol Herald Courier
1941 "Tennessee Acts to Acquire Park Land." *Bristol Herald Courier*. July 19, pg. 8.

1945 "Tennessee Pays on Proposed Park Land." *Bristol Herald Courier*. July 15, pg. 16.

1963 "Federal Funds Are Allocated to Area Park." *Bristol Herald Courier*. August 13, pg. 1.

1970 "Sand Cave, White Cliffs, Hensley Settlement: A Visit with Nature, Time." *Bristol Herald Courier*. August 9, pg. 20.

1999 "Rehabilitating Wilderness Trail." *Bristol Herald Courier*. May 16, pg. 29.

Chattanooga Republican
1892 "Four Seasons Hotel." *Chattanooga Republican*. February 27, pg. 1.

Chicago Tribune
1963 "New Campground in Cumberland Gap Park." *Chicago Tribune*. September 26, pg. 142.

Cobb, Charles R.
2003 Mississippian Chiefdoms: How Complex? In *Annual Review of Anthropology* (32): 63–84.

Creason, Joe
1950 "Cumberland Gap May Become Kentucky's Second National Park Area This Summer." *The Courier-Journal*. January 25, pg. 7.

Creighton, Wilbur F.
1972 "Wilbur Fisk Foster: Soldier and Engineer." *Tennessee Historical Quarterly* 31(3): 261-275

Daily Press and Herald
1873 "Iron Manufacturing." *Daily Press and Herald*. September 10, pg. 4.

Gauthier, Howard L.
1973 "The Appalachian Development Highway System: Development for Whom?" In *Economic Geography* 49(2): 103-108.

Easterly, Ellis
1965 "Park Restoration Project: Job Corps Works on Pioneer Center." *The Knoxville News-Sentinel*. September 26, pg. 24.

Faulkner, Charles H., Bill Deane, and Howard H. Earnest, Jr.
1984 A Mississippian Period Ritual Cave in Tennessee. In *American Antiquity* 49(2): 350–361.

Hamilton, Emory L.
1973 "Old Mills of Far Southwest Virginia." In *Historical Sketches of Southwest Virginia*, Publication No. 7. Electronic document at https://sites.rootsweb.com/~vahsswv/historicalsketches.html, accessed December 4, 2023.

Hammon, Neal Owen
1970 "Early Roads into Kentucky." *The Register of the Kentucky Historical Society* 68(2): 91-131.

Hugill, Peter
1982 "Good Roads and the Automobile in the United States, 1880–1929." *Geographical Review* 72(3): 327–349.

Hunter, Marjorie
1964 "Job Corps Top Bill Feature." *The Courier-Journal*. March 4, pg. 5.

Interior Journal
1915 "The Boone Way." *Interior Journal*. September 6, pg. 1.

Johnson City Press
1956 "Scenic Overlook Set in Historic Cumberland Gap." *Johnson City Press*. March 22, pg. 4.

1966 "Get the foot off." *Johnson City Press*. July 26, pg. 4.

Kantor, Seth
1964 "Johnson Urges Teen Job Corps." *The Knoxville News-Sentinel*. March 16, pg. 1.

Kentucky Advocate
1895 "Tri-Weekly Advocate." *Kentucky Advocate*. March 6, pg. 2.

1938 "The Old Wilderness Road Again." *Kentucky Advocate*. August 31, pg. 3.

Kentucky Post
1929 "Skyland Way's View Supreme." *Kentucky Post.* June 9, pg. 2.

Kentucky Gazette
1796 "Wilderness Road." *Kentucky Gazette*. October 15, pg. 5.

Kingsport Times
1941 "Survey on Gap to Begin." *Kingsport Times*. November 5, pg. 3.

1986 "Directory." *Kingsport Times*. March 27, pg. 53.

Knoxville Daily Tribune
1889 "Railroad Notes." *Knoxville Daily Tribune*. January 8, pg. 1.

1889a "Cumberland Gap Tunnel." *Knoxville Daily Tribune*. June 7, pg. 3.

1889b "Cumberland Gap Park Company." *Knoxville Daily Tribune*. May 26, pg. 4.

Knoxville Journal
1928 "Pinnacle Top Road Has Been Begun." *Knoxville Journal*. September 30, pg. 39.

1939 "Popular Spot Near Middlesboro." *Knoxville Journal*. September 2, pg. 12.

1939a "Indian Rock Inn Opened at Middlesboro." *Knoxville Journal*. August 5, pg. 3.

1946 "Firm Asks $118,000 for Cumberland Gap Land." *Knoxville Journal*. November 21, pg. 12.

1941 "South's Newest Playground." *Knoxville Journal*. January 12, pg. 34.

1945 "State Pays $12,000 for Park Land." *Knoxville Journal*. July 14, pg. 1.

1956 "Open House Scheduled at New Gap Park." *Knoxville Journal*. October 31, pg. 9.

1957 "Cumberland Park Sets Opening for Sept. 1." *Knoxville Journal*. August 23, pg. 4.

Knoxville News-Sentinel
1929 "Room on 'Skyland Trail' For Many More Knoxville Motorists." *Knoxville News-Sentinel*. September 8, pg. 35.

1936 "Mill at Gap Burns." *Knoxville News-Sentinel*. September 13, pg. 1.

Knoxville Sentinel
1899 "Kentucky." *Knoxville Sentinel*. December 18, pg. 6.

1911 "Wagon Works Is To Be Moved to Middlesboro." *Knoxville Sentinel*. November 23, pg. 1.

1919 "Reports More Miners Return." *Knoxville Sentinel*. December 4, pg. 16.

Kuehn, Kenneth W., ed.
2003 Geologic Impacts on the History and Development of Middlesboro, Kentucky. Kentucky Society of Professional Geologists. Annual Field Conference. Electronic document at https://kgs.uky.edu/kgsweb/olops/pub/kgs/KSPG%202003%20GB.pdf, accessed January 20, 2024.

Lewis, Ronald L.
1989 "From Peasant to Proletarian: The Migration of Southern Blacks to the Central Appalachian Coalfields." *The Journal of Southern History*, Vol. 55, No. 1.

Manufacturers' Record
1909 *Manufacturers' Record: A Weekly Southern, Industrial, Railroad, and Financial Newspaper.* Manufacturers' Record Publishing Company, Baltimore, Maryland. Electronic document at https://www.google.com/books/edition/Manufacturers_Record/wofuUziDzSAC?hl=en&gbpv=1&dq=fay+mcclure+object+lesson+road&pg=RA16-PA97&printsec=frontcover, accessed October 17, 2022.

Messenger-Inquirer
1985 "Cumberland Gap Tunnel Back on Track." *Messenger-Inquirer*. May 16, pg. 22

1986 "Project to Put a Hole in the Gap Gets Under Way." *Messenger-Inquirer*. February 9, pg. 32.

1986a "Gap Tunnel Completed." *Messenger-Inquirer*. December 14, pg. 27.

Middlesboro Daily News
1923 "The Proposed Lincoln National Park." *Middlesboro Daily News*. February 9, pg. 2.

1923a "Proposed Lincoln Park." *Middlesboro Daily News*. March 24, pg. 5.

1923b "Favor Park at Cumberland Gap." *Middlesboro Daily News*. February 28, pg. 2.

1925 "Bartlett a Benefactor to Middlesboro." *Middlesboro Daily News*. June 30, pg. 5.

1926 "Swim Swim Swim." *Middlesboro Daily News*. June 15, pg. 2.

1927 "Modern Packing Plant is now Boast of Middlesboro." *Middlesboro Daily News*. November 15, pg. 2.

1928 "Congratulations Sky Land Company!" *Middlesboro Daily News*. July 9, pg. 1.

1936 "J.F. Schneider Passes at Home." *Middlesboro Daily News*. June 27, pg. 3.

1936a "1936 Prospects Are Discussed." *Middlesboro Daily News*. January 9, pg. 3.

1936b "Common Chatter." *Middlesboro Daily News*. September 10, pg. 1.

1936c "Forest Tract is Preserved by Government." *Middlesboro Daily News*. March 30, pg. 14.

1941 "New Places to Dine." *Middlesboro Daily News*. June 3, pg. 1.

1941a "Sunday Dinner Special." *Middlesboro Daily News*. November 1, pg. 2.

1941b "Notice." *Middlesboro Daily News*. January 4, pg. 3.

1945 "Study Foreign Affairs." *Middlesboro Daily News*. September 21, pg. 3.

1947 "U.C.E.A. Come to Middlesboro in 1948." *Middlesboro Daily News*. October 9, pg. 8.

1949 "Douglass Is Guest Speaker at Lions Club, Middlesboro." *Middlesboro Daily News*. November 3, pg. 5.

1961 "Campground Shapes Up." *Middlesboro Daily News*. October 28, pg.11.

1963 "95 Pct. Of Park Works Funds Pumped Directly into Salaries." *Middlesboro Daily News*. September 14, pg. 1.

1969 "Closing." *Middlesboro Daily News*. June 21, pg. 1.

1971 "Schneider Packing Company Breaks Ground for New Plant." *Middlesboro Daily News.* October 7, pg. 1.

Moore, Tyrel G.
1991 "Eastern Kentucky as a Model of Appalachia: The Role of Literary Images." *Southeastern Geographer*, Vol. 31, No. 2. Electronic document at www.jstor.org/stable/44370886, accessed February 6, 2024.

Morristown Republican
1916 "Buffalo Trail Scenic Route." *Morristown Republican*. August 25, pg. 1.

Nashville Banner
1918 "Route of Dixie Highway Changed." *Nashville Banner*. May 17, pg. 3.

New York Times
1861 "Prospect of Fight in East Tennessee." *New York Times*. July 3, pg. 4.

Peine, Emilie K. and Kai A. Schafft
2012 "Moonshine, Mountaineers, and Modernity: Distilling Cultural History in the Southern Appalachian Mountains." *Journal of Appalachian Studies,* Vol. (18) 1/2: 93–112.

Postville Herald
1964 "Batman Assigned to Effigy Mounds." *Postville Herald*. October 7, pg. 12.

Potomac News
1996 "Tunnels provide new route through Cumberland Gap." *Potomac News*. October 19, pg. 6.

Prudup, Mary Beth
1990 "The Limits of Subsistence: Agriculture and Industry in Central Appalachia." *Agricultural History*, Vol. 64, No. 1. Electronic document at https://www.jstor.org/stable/3743183, accessed January 10, 2023.

Pusey, William Allen
1936 "General Joseph Martin, of Virginia an Unsung Hero of the Virginia Frontier." *Filson Club History Quarterly*, Vol. 10, No. 2.

St. Louis Post-Dispatch
1929 "Road Built to Mountain Top in South." *St. Louis Post-Dispatch*. June 2, pg. 51.

The Advocate-Messenger
1915 "Boone Trail Monument at Cumberland Gap." *The Advocate-Messenger.* June 22, pg. 6.

1915a "General News Notes." *The Advocate-Messenger.* July 6, pg. 7.

1946 "Middlesboro." *The Advocate Messenger*. June 13, pg. 4.

2002 "Historic Gap Trail to be Opened this Fall." *Advocate-Messenger*, February 21, pg. 2.

The Bristol Herald Courier
1994 "Cudjo's Cave, Now Closed, Awaits Opening of Cumberland Gap Tunnel." *The Bristol Herald Courier*. July 17, pg. 51.

1996 "A Tunnel to the Future." *The Bristol Herald Courier*. October 19, pg. 1.

The Chattanooga News
1902 "Middlesboro, KY." *The Chattanooga News*. May 3, pg. 18.

1923 "Would Honor Lincoln." *The Chattanooga News*. March 13, pg. 8.

The Corbin Times-Tribune

1971 "Cumberland Gap Study Starts—73 Days Late." *The Corbin Times-Tribune*. December 5, pg. 1.

1973 "Cumberland Gap Tunnel Delayed." *The Corbin Times-Tribune*. July 12, pg. 7.

The Courier-Journal

1890 "The Queen of Them All." *The Courier-Journal*. May 4, pg. 9.

1890a "In and About Kentucky." *The Courier-Journal*. December 15, pg. 4.

1891 "Harrogate Inn." *The Courier-Journal*. November 17, pg. 8.

1896 "Negotiating for the Four Seasons." *The Courier-Journal*. August 1, pg. 5.

1901 "Fire on the Knobs." *The Courier-Journal*. March 5, pg. 7.

1907 "Daniel Boone Shaft at Cumberland Gap." *The Courier-Journal*. November 11, pg. 1.

1909 "Boone Monument Bill." *The Courier-Journal*. January 16, pg. 4.

1911 "The Boom Days." *The Courier-Journal*. August 1, pg. 5.

1916 "Joseph Kumli." *The Courier-Journal*. September 29, pg. 3.

1916a "Big Amounts Voted." *The Courier-Journal*. September 7, pg. 2.

1918 "Cumberland Gap on Dixie Highway." *The Courier-Journal*, February 24, p. 30.

1929 "Skyland Road Dedication Set." *The Courier-Journal*, May 19, p. 7.

1942 "Tri-State Pack Urged to Insure Cumberland Gap Park's Creation." *The Courier-Journal*. June 11, pg. 16.

1946 "The Goat Fainted." *The Courier-Journal*, September 15, p. 86.

1953 "State Ready To Spend More Than $14,200,000 on Trunk Roads in 1953." *The Courier-Journal*. January 4, pg. 42.

1956 "Cumberland Gap Park to Have an Open House." *The Courier-Journal*. October 31, pg. 3.

1956a "2,000 Visit Cumberland Gap Park to see Developments at Pinnacle." *The Courier-Journal*. November 6, pg. 5.

1963 "Mountaineer Restoration." *The Courier-Journal.* September 22, pg. 151.

1966 "Ward Gives Officials Cumberland Gap Plan." The Courier-Journal. October 15, pg. 19.

1968 "Historic Gap." *The Courier-Journal.* September 19, pg. 53.

1970 "Former Jobs Corps Center in New Use." *The Courier-Journal.* June 7, pg. 3.

1972 "Tunnel Plan for Gap Area is Advanced." *The Courier-Journal.* August 20, pg. 19.

1975 "Cumberland Gap Restoration Stymied by U.S. Squabble." *The Courier-Journal*. July 13, pg. 295.

1978 "Cumberland Gap's Tunnel may end Historic Road's Role." *The Courier-Journal.* June 6, pg. 2.

1981 "State Expects it will Lose $335 Million." *The Courier-Journal.* February 26, pg. 2.

1983 "Cumberland Gap Tunnel Project gets $14 Million." *The Courier-Journal.* September 30, pg. 5.

1985 "Local Officials around Kentucky Fear Proposed Cuts but Doubt Reagan's Entire Budget will Pass." *The Courier-Journal.* February 5, pg. 3.

1986 "Work on Tunnel under Cumberland Gap Moves Sweaty, Steady and Careful Pace." *The Courier-Journal*. September 1, pg. 1.

1989 "Money for Cumberland Gap Tunnel Urged." *The Courier-Journal.* September 26, pg. 7.

1990 "Budget would Extend Coal Tax Despite Objections." *The Courier-Journal.* January 30, pg. 6.

The Daily News

1890 "A New Coal Company." *The Daily News*. December 16, pg. 1.

1890a "In London." *The Daily News*. June 26, pg. 1.

1891 "Sunny South." *The Daily News*. January 4, pg. 4.

The Evening Sentinel

1889 "Gone to the Gap." *The Evening Sentinel.* August 22, pg. 3.

The Frankfort Roundabout

1890 "Middlesborough." *The Frankfort Roundabout.* September 20, pg. 4.

The Harlan Daily Enterprise

1929 "14,000 Tourists Visit Pinnacle." *The Harlan Daily Enterprise.* September 9, pg. 1.

1938 "Park Service is Calling Session." *The Harlan Daily Enterprise.* August 23, pg. 1.

The Jackson Sun

1961 "$100.6 Million Asked for Parks." *The Jackson Sun*. January 16, pg. 9.

The Journal and Tribune

1887 "The Powell's Valley Railroad." *The Journal and Tribune.* June 1, pg. 1.

1890 "Grant and Lee." *The Journal and Tribune*. June 8, pg. 9.

1894 "Broad Street People." *The Journal and Tribune*. July 13, pg. 4.

1895 "Will Be Torn Down." *The Journal and Tribune*. October 29, pg. 42.

1889 "A New Coal Company." *The Journal and Tribune.* December 11, pg. 8.

1915 "Where Three States Meet." *The Journal and Tribune.* June 29, pg. 9.

1920 "Visitors Are Delighted." *The Journal and Tribune.* September 23, pg. 30.

1923 "Dr. Work Spends Day Among the Hills of E. Tenn." *The Journal and Tribune.* May 7, pg. 1.

The Kentucky Post and Times-Star
1940 "Cumberland Gap Park Bill Passes." *The Kentucky Post and Times-Star*. June 1, pg. 3.

The Kingsport Times-News
1992 "National Park Service Purchases Cudjo's Cave." *The Kingsport Times-News*. July 5, pg. 14.

The Knoxville News-Sentinel
1936 "Mill at Gap Burns." *The Knoxville News-Sentinel*. September 13, pg. 1.

1943 "Cumberland Gap Park is Trimmed." *The Knoxville News-Sentinel*. May 27, pg. 16.

1958 "Cumberland Park Road Contract Let." *The Knoxville News-Sentinel*. July 24, pg. 35.

1962 "Gap Park Opens First Campsites." *The Knoxville News-Sentinel*. July 29, pg. 23.

1966 "25-E Jog to Change." *The Knoxville News-Sentinel*. June 5, pg. 9.

1969 "Nixon Budget Hikes Parks Funds." *The Knoxville News-Sentinel*. September 27, pg. 1.

1973 "Cumberland Gap Road Tunnel Favored." *The Knoxville News-Sentinel*. June 10, pg. 18.

1979 "School Board to Study Use of Montvale as Interim Center." *The Knoxville News-Sentinel*. August 2, pg. 20.

1980 "Cumberland Gap Tunnel Funds Included." *The Knoxville News-Sentinel*. January 28, pg. 3.

1995 "More from Little Tunnel." *The Knoxville News-Sentinel*. June 21, pg. 23.

1999 "Park Service Projects Restore Caves in the Gap to Natural State." *The Knoxville News-Sentinel*. October 25, pp. A1 and A3.

2001 "Cumberland Gap Getting Facelift." *The Knoxville News-Sentinel*. August 26, pg. 17.

The Knoxville Sentinel
1892 "Democrats Organize." *The Knoxville Sentinel*. September 6, pg. 1.

1915 "Three States Glad Dixie Highway will Come by Knoxville." *The Knoxville Sentinel*. May 24, pg. 7.

The Lexington Herald
1915 "Era of Good Roads Building Developing in East Kentucky." *The Lexington Herald*. September 12, pg. 7.

1917 "Clark County Pays Tribute to Draft Men." *The Lexington Herald*. September 21, pg. 9.

1927 "Highways into Kentucky Now Well Marked." *The Lexington Herald*. June 29, pg. 23.

1938 "National Park Society Formed." *The Lexington Herald*. October 27, pg. 1.

1964 "2 Youth Conservation Camps To Be Located in Kentucky." *The Lexington Herald*. September 3, pg. 1.

1966 "Ward Wants Tunnel Cut at Cumberland Gap." *The Lexington Herald*. October 15, pg. 1.

The Lexington Herald-Leader
1890 "The Magic City." *The Lexington Herald-Leader.* September 15, pg. 4.

1900 "Closing Exercises." *Lexington Herald-Leader.* May 20, pg. 4.

1915 "Monument Unveiled." *The Lexington Herald-Leader.* June 30, pg. 3.

1919 "Boone Highway." *The Lexington Herald-Leader.* February 2, pg. 3.

1926 "Markers to Show Federal Highways Designated in Kentucky." *The Lexington Herald-Leader.* July 11, pg. 36.

1939 "Bill Proposes Park." *The Lexington Herald-Leader.* February 9, pg. 11.

1984 "Cumberland Gap Tunnel Project Suspended." *The Lexington Herald-Leader*. December 15, pg. B1.

1985 "Rogers Voices Hope for Tunnel Fund Prospects." *The Lexington Herald-Leader.* September 19, pg. 13.

The Lexington Leader
1925 "Cave to be Reopened." *The Lexington Leader.* March 22, pg. 38.

The Messenger
1978 "Cumberland Gap Tunnel Funding OK." *The Messenger*. September 13, pg. 8.

The Middlesborough News
1893 "Substantial Improvement." *The Middlesborough News.* January 7, pg. 1.

1893a "New South Brewing and Ice Manufacturing Co." *The Middlesborough News.* December 7, pg. 4.

1895 "Local and Personal." *The Middlesborough News.* September 14, pg. 1.

1900 "Cumberland Gap." *The Middlesborough News.* September 21, pg. 7.

1900a "Middlesborough as a Summer Resort." *The Middlesborough News*. June 30, pg. 5.

1904 "Milwaukee Brick." *The Middlesborough News.* September 30, pg. 5.

1908 "Looking Backward." *The Middlesborough News*. May 16, pg. 22.

1908a "Well, Well, Hello, Bill!" *The Middlesborough News.* January 11, pg. 1.

The Morristown Gazette
1874 "Cumberland Gap." *The Morristown Gazette*. September 8, pg. 1.

1876 "The Subject Exhausted." *The Morristown Gazette*. September 5, pg. 1.

1890 "R. L. Cockrell." *The Morristown Gazette*. January 22, pg. 4.

The Olive Branch and Danville Advertiser
1830 "Third Week of the Session." *The Olive Branch and Danville Advertiser*. January 2, pg. 2.

The Park City Daily News
1942 "Legality of Funds Appropriated by General Assembly is Attacked." *The Park City Daily News*. May 27, pg. 8.

1959 "Nixon Impressed by Cumberland Gap View." *The Park City Daily News*. July 3, pg. 1.

1964 "At Least Two Youth Camps Set for State." *The Park City Daily News*. September 3, pg. 10.

2002 "Project restoring historic Cumberland Gap." *The Park City Daily News*. February 27, pg. 13.

The Post
1955 "Cumberland Park Finally Ready To Go." *The Post*. January 20, pg. 1.

The State Journal
1940 "Cumberland Gap Park." *The State Journal*. June 1, pg. 4.

1943 "Capitol Gossip." *The State Journal*. October 9, pg. 2.

1966 "Ward Calls for Conference with Federal Authorities to Protect Cumberland Gap." *The State Journal*. July 6, pg. 5.

1987 "Three More Cumberland Contracts Planned this Year." *The State Journal*. March 5, pg. 20.

1989 "Rogers asks $12 Million for Tunnel." *The State Journal*. September 26, pg. 5.

The Tennessean
1890 "Notes by the Way." *The Tennessean*. February 4, pg. 8.

The Winchester Sun
1978 "Funds Accepted to Design the Cumberland Gap Tunnel." *The Winchester Sun*. September 13, pg. 16.

Tunnell, Josie J.
2022 "Cherokee Architectural Traditions: A Southeastern Environmental Design Precedent." Chancellor's Honors Program Projects. Electronic document at https://trace.tennessee.edu/utk_chanhonoproj/2470, accessed December 8, 2023.

Schulman, Steven A.
1973 "The Lumber Industry of the Upper Cumberland River Valley." *Tennessee Historical Quarterly*, Vol. 32, No. 3. Electronic document at www.jstor.org/stable/42623392, accessed January 20, 2024.

Simek, Jan F., Sarah C. Sherwood, Nicholas P. Herrmann, Sierra Bow, Alan Cressler, and Stephen Carmody
2013 You Can't Take it (All) With You: Rock Art and Looting on the Cumberland Plateau of Tennessee. In. IFRAO 2013 Proceedings, American Indian Rock Art, Volume 40. American Rock Art Research Association, pp 765-780.

Sirna, Angela
2018 "Recreating Boone's Wilderness at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park." *Register of the Kentucky Historical Society*, Vol. 116, No. 3/4. Electronic document at www.jstor.org/stable/45013584, accessed January 19, 2023.

Snead, James E.
2011 "The 'Secret and Bloody War Path:' Movement, Place and Conflict in the Archaeological Landscape of North America." In *World Archaeology* (43)3: 478–492.

Society of American Engineers
1912 "William Price Craighill." *Professional Memoirs, Corps of Engineers, United States Army, and Engineer Department at Large*. Society of Military Engineers. Electronic document at www.jstor.org/stable/i40190402, accessed October 12, 2023.

Weekly Pioneer and Democrat
1861 "Union Men of East Tennessee." *Weekly Pioneer and Democrat*. August 30, pg. 5.

Wells, Christopher W.
2006 "The Changing Nature of Country Roads: Farmers, Reformers, and the Shifting Uses of Rural Space, 1880–1905." *Agricultural History*, Vol. 80, No. 2. Electronic document at https://www.jstor.org/stable/3744804, accessed February 23, 2024.

Yarbrough, Willard
1967 "Conservationists Opposed: Cumberland Gap Battle Begins." *The Knoxville News-Sentinel*. June 8, pg. 15.

Unpublished Theses and Dissertations

Brock, Daniel Whitaker Howard
2022 "An Archaeological Study of Pit Cellars and Ethnic Identity in Tennessee." University of Tennessee, Knoxville. Ph.D. dissertation.

Chuber, David C.
1996 "Field Fortifications During the American Civil War: A Tactical Problem" U.S. Army Command and General Staff College, Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. Master's thesis.

DeStefanis, Anthony Roland
1996 "Trains, Trucks, and Traffic Jams: The Rise of Automotive Transportation, 1880–1956." College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, Virginia. Master's thesis.

Dickerson, Patrick Dalton
2011 "The Virginia Iron, Coal, and Coke Company, and the Growth and Decline of Southern Appalachia's Iron Industry: 1880–1930." James Madison University, Harrisonburg, Virginia. Master's thesis.

Jensen, Todd L.
2000 "'Gimme Shelter': Union Shelters of the Civil War, A Preliminary Archaeological Typology." College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, Virginia. Master's thesis.

Porter, Adrianna Kalena
2002 "Gender, Coal Mining, and Appalachia" University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee. Master's thesis.

Schutz, Noel W. Jr.
1975 The Study of Shawnee Myth in an Ethnographic and Ethnohistorical Perspective. Department of Anthropology, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana. Ph.D. dissertation.

Sirna, Angela
2015 "Recreating Appalachia: Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, 1922–1972." Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro, Tennessee. Ph.D. dissertation.

Vial, Rebecca
1991 "Cumberland Gap, Tennessee: Building Community Identity Along the Wilderness Road." University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee. Master's thesis. Electronic document at https://trace.tennessee.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=7505&context=utk_gradthes, accessed October 31, 2023.

National Register Nominations and DOEs

Allaback, Sarah and Ethan Carr
2000 Rocky Mountain National Park Administration Building National Historic Landmark Nomination. National Park Service, Denver Service Center, Denver, Colorado.

Brown, Jennifer D.
1997 National Register Amendment: Cumberland Gap Historic District. Copy on file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

1997a National Register Amendment: Hensley Settlement Historic District. Copy on file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

Carr, Ethan, Elaine Jackson-Retondo, Len Warner, Rodd Wheaton, John Feinberg, and Carly Piccarello
2015 National Park Service Mission 66 Era Resources. Multiple Property Documentation Form. National Park Service Intermountain Regional Office, Santa Fe, New Mexico.

Fulwood, Kasey, Courtney Mooney, Greta Rayle, and Robert Vint
2023 Determination of Eligibility for the Pinnacle Overlook Developed Area, Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, Lee County, Virginia and Bell County, Kentucky. North Wind Cultural Resources Report No. 030573.001c. North Wind Resource Consulting, LLC, Tempe, Arizona.

2023a Determination of Eligibility for the Wilderness Road Campground and Picnic Area, Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, Lee County, Virginia. North Wind Cultural Resources Report No. 030573.001b. North Wind Resource Consulting, LLC, Tempe, Arizona.

2023c Determination of Eligibility for the Pinnacle Road Circulation Corridor Historic District, Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, Bell County, Kentucky. North Wind Cultural Resources Report No. 030573.001d. North Wind Resource Consulting, LLC, Tempe, Arizona.

Fulwood, Kasey, Greta Rayle, and Robert Vint
2023b National Register of Historic Places Determination of Eligibility for the Tri-State Peak Shelter, Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, Claiborne County, Tennessee, Lee County, Virginia, and Bell County, Kentucky. North Wind Cultural Resources Report No. 030573.001e. North Wind Resource Consulting, LLC, Tempe, Arizona.

Krakow, Jere L.
1993 Amendment to National Register of Historic Places at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park for Cumberland Gap Historic District – Virginia/Kentucky/Tennessee.

Middle Tennessee State University (MTSU)
1989 National Register of Historic Places Nomination: Cumberland Gap Historic District (Town). Cumberland Gap, Tennessee. NRIS ID: 90000321.

Morgan, Keithel C.
1979 National Register of Historic Places Nomination: Hensley Settlement. Cubage, Kentucky. NRIS ID: 80000367.

1980 National Register of Historic Places Nomination: Cumberland Gap Historic District-Virginia/Kentucky/Tennessee. Gibson Station/Middlesboro/Harrogate. NRIS ID: 80000366.

Slaton, Deborah, Liz Sargent, and Mike Ford
2012 *Chadwell Gap Coal Company Site Determination of Eligibility*. Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc., Northbrook, Illinois.

Reports, Manuscripts, and Pamphlets

Ahlman, Todd M., Gail L. Guymon, and Nicholas Hermann
2005 Archaeological Overview and Assessment of the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Virginia. Archaeological Research Laboratory, Department of Anthropology, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee.

American Association
1889 American Association and Middlesboro Town Co. On file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park Archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

Ashley, G. H., and L. C. Glenn
1906 *Geology and Mineral Resources of Part of the Cumberland Gap Coal Field, Kentucky.* United States Department of the Interior, United States Geological Survey. Document No. 491. Professional Paper No. 49. Electronic document at https://pubs.usgs.gov/pp/0049/report.pdf, accessed January 10, 2024.

Banks, Alan J.
1980 "Land and Capital in Eastern Kentucky, 1890–1915." *Appalachian Journal*, Vol. 8, No. 1. Electronic document at www.jstor.org/stable/40932355, accessed January 20, 2024.

Brown, Daniel
1993 "Cumberland Gap: A New Beginning," National Park Service. Appalachian Cultural Resources Workshop Papers. Electronic document at https://www.nps.gov/parkhistory/online_books/sero/appalachian/sec14.htm, accessed January 5, 2024

Bryne, Stephen C.
1990 Phase II Archaeological Investigations for the Cumberland Gap Tunnel Project (CUGA 25E4 & 25E9), Cumberland Gap National Historical Park; Bell County, Kentucky; and Claiborne County, Tennessee. National Park Service, Southeast Archaeological Center, Tallahassee, Florida.

Chapman, Jefferson
1985 Tellico Archaeology: 12,000 Years of Native American History. Report of Investigations No. 43. Department of Anthropology, The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee.

Ciomek, Summer
2010 Dixie Highway: Barnesville to Forsyth Section, Lamar and Monroe Counties, Georgia. Georgia Department of Transportation. New South Associates, Stone Mountain, Georgia. Electronic document at https://www.dca.ga.gov/sites/default/files/dixiehighway_narrative.pdf, accessed February 2, 2024.

Collins, Robert F.
1975 A History of the Daniel Boone National Forest 1770–1970. U.S.D.A. Forest Service, Southern Region. Electronic document at https://babel.hathitrust.org/cgi/pt?id=umn.31951d01325726f&seq=10, accessed October 30, 2023.

Cornelison, Jr., John E., and Elizabeth A. Horvath
1994 *A Report on Phase I and Phase II Archaeological Testing of the U.S. Highway 58 Relocation Project at Cumberland Gap National Historic Park, Virginia*. National Park Service, Southeast Archaeological Center, Tallahassee, Florida.

Creswell, Bradley A.
2012 *Archaeological Testing and Assessment of Severe Erosional Gullies and Surrounding Landforms in the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, Bell County, Kentucky*. Archaeological Research Laboratory, Department of Anthropology, University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

Cross, Ben
2023 Inside the Collections – HOCU 837. Electronic document at https://www.nps.gov/articles/000/inside-the-collections-hocu-837.htm, accessed February 20, 2024.

Crowell, Douglas L.
1995 *History of the Coal Mining Industry in Ohio.* Division of Geological Survey. Bulletin 72. Ohio Department of Natural Resources. Electronic document at https://ohiodnr.gov/static/documents/geology/B72_Crowell_1995.pdf, accessed January 17, 2024.

Cumberland Gap National Historical Park
1959 *Mission 66 Prospectus,* National Park Service. Subseries 6: Special Studies, Box 5, Folder 7.

1959a "Dedication Program Cumberland Gap National Historical Park." National Park Service. Subseries 4: Events, Box 1, Folder 5.

1963 Master Plan for the Preservation and Use of Cumberland Gap National Historic Site: Mission 66 Edition. Series 2: Park Planning Documents; Subseries 1: Early Planning Documents, Box 1, Folder 9, GPX-63-1.

Cumberland Gap Park Company
1892 Cumberland Gap Park. J. J. Little & Co., New York, New York.

Cumberland Gap Tunnel Authority
n.d. "Cumberland Gap Tunnel." Electronic document at https://cgtunnel.com/index.html, accessed February 2, 2024.

Delaware Department of Natural Resources and Environmental Control
2023 Division of Fish and Wildlife Species Conservation and Research Program Explanation of State, Physiographic Province, Global and Federal Status Ranks. Electronic document at www.wrc.udel.edu, accessed January 8, 2024.

Federal Highway Administration
2010 Bridge Inspection Report: Entrance Ramp Bridge, U.S. Route 58 Entrance Ramp Over U.S. Route 25E, Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. Structure No. 5230-013P. Bridge Inspection and Management Program, Federal Lands Bridge Office. Sterling, Virginia.

2010a Bridge Inspection Report: Tiprell Road Bridge #1, U.S. Route 25E N.B. Over Tiprell Rd, Southern RR, Gap Creek, Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. Structure No. 5230-011P. Bridge Inspection and Management Program, Federal Lands Bridge Office. Sterling, Virginia.

2010b Bridge Inspection Report: Tiprell Road Bridge #2, U.S. Route 25E S.B. Over Tiprell Rd, Southern RR, Gap Creek, Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. Structure No. 5230-012P. Bridge Inspection and Management Program, Federal Lands Bridge Office. Sterling, Virginia.

Giles, Albert William
1925 *The Geology and Coal Resources of the Coal-Bearing Portion of Lee County, Virginia.* Virginia Geological Survey Bulletin No. XXVI. University of Virginia, Charlottesville. Electronic document at https://www.google.com/books/edition/The_Geology_and_Coal_Resources_of_the_Co/2vZNAQAAMAAJ?hl=en&gbpv=1&printsec=frontcover, accessed January 10, 2024.

Halchin, Jill Y.
2000 *Research Design for Archeological Testing for Trails and Parking Lots, Rehabilitation of the Gap (CUGA 139-06), Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, Kentucky, Virginia, and Tennessee*. SEAC Acc. 1460. Manuscript on file at the Southeast Archeological Center, National Park Service, Tallahassee, Florida.

2000a Trip Report on Archaeological Investigation for Trails. Paper presented at the Southeast Archaeological Conference, May 15, 2000. On file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park Archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

Haney, Jennifer
2004 *Documentation and Survey for Archaeological Resources in the Cumberland Gap National Register Historic District*. Archaeological Research Laboratory, Department of Anthropology, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee.

Harrogate Land Company
1891 Harrogate, Tennessee: United States and Beyond Special Publications Collection. University of Memphis Digital Commons. Electronic document at https://digitalcommons.memphis.edu/speccoll-pub-us/52, accessed January 10, 2024.

Hellmann, Robert
2021 *Archeological Phase I Survey of Shillalah Creek Blufflines at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, Bell County, Kentucky*. National Park Service, Southeast Archaeological Center, Tallahassee, Florida.

Henderson, A. Gwynn
2006 The Prehistoric Farmers of Boone County, Kentucky. Kentucky Heritage Council, Education Series Number Eight, Lexington, Kentucky.

Hibbard, Walter R.
1990 *Virginia Coal: An Abridged History*. Virginia Center for Coal and Energy Research. Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. Blacksburg, Virginia. Electronic document at https://energy.vt.edu/content/dam/energy_vt_edu/vccer-publications/Virginia_Coal_an_Abbridged_History.pdf, accessed January 5, 2024.

Horvath, Elizabeth A.
1991 *Archaeological Research Design for the Relocation and Widening of U.S. Highway 58 and the Construction of a New Entrance Road for the Campground, Cumberland Gap National Historical Park*. National Park Service, Southeast Archaeological Center, Tallahassee, Florida.

Horvath, Elizabeth A., and David A. Frantz
1989 *Archaeological Investigations Conducted for the Cumberland Gap Tunnel Project - Phase I, Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, Bell County, Kentucky, Lee County, Virginia, and Claiborne County, Tennessee*. National Park Service, Southeast Archaeological Center, Tallahassee.

House Committee on Resources
2001 Fern Lake Conservation and Recreation Act of 2001. Electronic document at https://naturalresources.house.gov/uploadedfiles/rogers_11.13.01.pdf, accessed February 20, 2024.

Hulbert, Archer Butler
1903 *Historic Highways of America*. *Vol. 6. Boone's Wilderness Road*. The Arthur H. Clark Company, Cleveland, Ohio.

Job Corps
1966 Volume I: Conservation Center History Cumberland Gap Job Corps Conservation Center, Middlesboro, Kentucky. Subseries 1: Job Corps History, Box 1, Folder 3.

1967 Volume II: Conservation Center History Cumberland Gap Job Corps Conservation Center, Middlesboro, Kentucky. Subseries 1: Job Corps History, Box 1, Folder 3.

1968 Volume III: Conservation Center History Cumberland Gap Job Corps Conservation Center, Middlesboro, Kentucky. Subseries 1: Job Corps History, Box 1, Folder 4.

1969 Volume IV: Conservation Center History Cumberland Gap Job Corps Conservation Center, Middlesboro, Kentucky. Subseries 1: Job Corps History, Box 1, Folder 5.

Jones, W. H.
1926 Annual Report of the State Department of Mines of Kentucky for the Year Ending December 1926. Department of Mines and Minerals, Lexington, Kentucky. Electronic document at https://babel.hathitrust.org/cgi/pt?id=nyp.33433071595700&seq=9, accessed January 31, 2024.

Jordan, T., and M. Madden
2008 Digital Vegetation Maps for the NPS Cumberland-Piedmont I&M Network. Center for Remote Sensing and Mapping Science, Athens, Georgia.

Kennedy, Rachel, and Cynthia Johnson
2005 "The New Deal Builds! A Historic Context of the New Deal in East Kentucky, 1933 to 1943." Kentucky Heritage Council, Frankfort, Kentucky.

Kennedy, Rachel, and William J. Macintire
2004 "Roadside Architecture of Kentucky's Dixie Highways." Field Session for Restore America: Communities at a Crossroads. The 2004 National Trust for Historic Preservation Conference. Electronic document at chrome-extension://efaidnbmnnnibpcajpcglclefindmkaj/https://heritage.ky.gov/Documents/DixieHwyTour.pdf, accessed February 26, 2024,

Krakow, Jere L.
1987 Location of the Wilderness Road at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. Manuscript on file at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

Koerner, Shannon D., Henri D. Grissino-Mayer, Lynne Sullivan, and Georgina G. Deweese
2009 A Dendroarchaeological Approach to Mississippian Culture Occupational History in Eastern Tennessee, U.S.A. In *Tree-Ring Research*, Vol. 65 (1). Department of Anthropology, The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee.

Kuehn, Kenneth W., Keith A. Milam, and Margaret Luther Smith
2003 "Geologic Impacts on the History and Development of Middlesboro, Kentucky." Paper presented at the Kentucky Society of Professional Geologists Annual Field Conference, September 18-20, Middlesboro. Electronic document at https://www.academia.edu/36127799/Geologic_Impacts_on_the_History_and_Development_of_Middlesboro_Kentucky, accessed October 30, 2023.

Kulesza, Joseph
1966 *Annual Report, 1966 Fiscal Year.* On file at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

LeBorgne, Michael D.
1995 Value Analysis Study for Visitor Information Center: Wilderness Road/O'Dell House Area. Cumberland Gap National Historic Park. Value Analysis Study 109-95. Office of Value Engineering and Technical Assistance. Denver Service Center. National Park Service.

Ledbetter, Lane
2002 Revised Structures and Plaza Elements, Visitor Information Center (Virginia), Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. Prepared by Wenk Associates and Chamberlin Architects. Technical Information Center, Denver Service Area, National Park Service. Document on file at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

Little, Barbara, Ericka Martin Seibert, Jan Townsend, John H. Sprinkle, Jr., and John Knoerl
2000 National Register Bulletin 36: Guidelines for Evaluating and Registering Archeological Properties. U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Washington, D.C.

Lowe, David W.
2011 Civil War Defenses of Cumberland Gap. Cultural Resources GIS, National Park Service, Washington, D.C. Copy on file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

Luckett, William
1963 Superintendent's Monthly Narrative Report: July 1963. Series 3: Division of Administration. Subseries 1: "A" Central Files. Box 2, Folder 4A.

Mastran, Shelly Smith and Nan Lowerre
1983 Mountaineers and Rangers: A History of Federal Forest Management in the Southern Appalachians, 1900–1981. United States Department of Agriculture, Forest Service. FS-380. Electronic document at https://foresthistory.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/01/Mountaineers-and-Rangers-Chs.1-4.pdf, accessed January 20, 2024.

May, Morganne
2021 "A Study of the Social, Cultural, and Environmental Influences on Appalachian Agriculture." Senior theses. University of South Carolina, Columbia, South Carolina. Electronic document on file at https://scholarcommons.sc.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1444&context=senior_theses, accessed on January 10, 2023.

National Geodetic Survey (NGS)
n.d. GA3599 Datasheet. National Geodetic Survey Data Explorer. Electronic document on file at DATASHEETS (noaa.gov), accessed January 4, 2024.

National Park Service
1956 Completion Report, Account No 523.1, Contract No. 14-10-31-168: Pinnacle Parking Area, Overlook and Trails. On file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky (Subseries 3: Completion Reports, Box 2, Folder 1).

1957 Completion Report, Account No. 332.2: Water and Sewerage System, Pinnacle Pump Station. On file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

1957a Completion Report, Account No. 331.2: Pump House, Pinnacle Water Supply. On file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

1957b Completion Report, Account No. 331.1: Information Center and Comfort Station. On file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

1957c Completion Report, Work Order 523.3 and 523.4, Contract No. 14-10-131-255: Skyland Road, Widen and Surface Existing Road, Improve Drainage, Construct Two Overlooks, and Install Necessary Guard Rail; Overlook Parking Area, Sugar Run Road. On file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky (Subseries 3: Completion Reports, Box 1, Folder 5).

1958 Completion Report, Work Order 523.10, Contract No. 14-10-131-444: Construct Reinforced Deck Girder Bridge of Four Simple Spans Carrying Skyland Road over U.S. 25 E On file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky (Subseries 3: Completion Reports, Box 1, Folder 10).

1959 Completion Report, Work Order 523.9, Contract No. 14-10-131-442: Grade, Drainage and Surfacing Skyland Road (Portion). On file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky (Subseries 3: Completion Reports, Box 1, Folder 13).

1959a Completion Report, Account B-1 CUM, Contract No. 14-10-131-462: Visitor Center, Utilities, Subseries 3: Completion Reports, Box 1, Folder 8.

1961 Completion Report, Account No. R-1 CUM, Contract No. 14-10-0103-741: Construct Entrance Road and Campground Loop Roads, Wilderness Campground, Subseries 3: Completion Reports, Box 2, Folder 8.

1961a Completion Report, Account No. B-3 CUM, Contract No. 14-10-0103-760: Construction of Campground Sewer and Water Utilities and Comfort Stations, Subseries 3: Completion Reports, Box 1, Folder 20.

1962 Completion Report, Account Nos. R-29 and R-30 CUM, Contract No. 14-10-0131-806: Construct Picnic Road and Campground Loops, Subseries 3: Completion Reports, Box 2, Folder 19.

1965 Completion Report, Work Order B-9, Contract No. 14-10-0103-1327: Wilderness Road Campground Development; Amphitheater Projection Building.

1966 Special Report: Improvements to Highway 25E Through Historic Cumberland Gap. National Park Service, Denver Service Center.

1967 Completion Report, Work Order B-8, Contract No. 14-10-0131-132: Narrative to Accompany the Completion Report for Shelter, Tri-State Peak—Orientation Markers, Tri-State Corner. On file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

1969 Memorandum to National Park Service Regional Directors, Northeast, Southeast, and National Capital Regions from the National Park Service Deputy Assistant Director, Administration, May 27. Subject: Use of Closed Job Corps Center Facilities. On file at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

1970 News Release, September 21. On file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

1989 *Guidelines for Evaluating and Documenting Rural Historic Landscapes*. National Register Bulletin No. 30. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

1990 Restoration of Cumberland Gap and the Wilderness Road: Development and Concept Plan, Environmental Assessment, Interpretive Prospectus. Electronic document at https://www.google.com/books/edition/Restoration_of_Cumberland_Gap_and_the_Wi/qsHp5cEC7FUC?hl=en&gbpv=1&dq=1930+king+solomon+cave+gift+shop+cumberland+gap&pg=PA25&printsec=frontcover, accessed January 20, 2024.

1992 *Guidelines for Evaluating and Registering Cemeteries and Burial Places*. National Register Bulletin No. 41. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

1992a *Guidelines for Identifying, Evaluating, and Registering Historic Mining Properties*. National Register Bulletin No. 42. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

1997 *How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation*. National Register Bulletin No. 15. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

1997a *Guidelines for Identifying, Evaluating, and Registering Historic Mining Properties*. National Register Bulletin No. 42. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

1998 NPS-28: Cultural Resource Management Guideline. National Park Service, Washington, D.C.

1999 *Guidelines for Identifying, Evaluating, and Registering America's Historic Battlefields*. National Register Bulletin No. 40. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

2000 *Guidelines for Evaluating and Registering Archaeological Properties*. National Register Bulletin No. 36. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

2011 Geologic Resources Inventory Report, Natural Resource Report Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Virginia. National Park Service, Washington, D.C.

2011a Cumberland Gap Highway Tunnel Celebrates 15th Anniversary. Electronic document at https://www.nps.gov/cuga/learn/news/cumberland-gap-highway-tunnel-celebrates-15th-anniversary.htm., accessed October 17, 2023.

2013 Natural Resource Condition Assessment for Cumberland Gap National Historical Park Natural Resource Report, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Virginia. National Park Service, Washington, D.C.

2013a National Register Photo Policy Factsheet. Electronic document at https://www.nps.gov/subjects/nationalregister/upload/Photo_Policy_update_2013_05_15_508.pdf, accessed August 18, 2023.

2015 Rivers and Streams. Electronic document at https://www.nps.gov/cuga/learn/nature/rivers.htm, accessed February 20, 2024.

2015a Fern Lake Land Acquisition. Electronic document at https://www.nps.gov/cuga/learn/management/fern-lake-land-acquisition.htm, accessed February 19, 2024.

2016 Foundation Document: Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Virginia. National Park Service, Washington, D.C.

2020 *The National Park Service Campground Development Guidelines*. U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. Electronic document at http://npshistory.com/publications/management/campground-dev-guidelines-draft-2020.pdf, accessed January 19, 2023.

2021 Overview of Sections 106 & 110 of the National Historic Preservation Act. Electronic document at https://www.nps.gov/dscw/cr-nhpa.htm, accessed February 20, 2024.

2024 Summary of Visitor Use by Month and Year: Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. Electronic document at https://irma.nps.gov/Stats/SSRSReports/Park%20Specific%20Reports/Summary%20of%20Visitor%20Use%20By%20Month%20and%20Year%20(1979%20-%20Last%20Calendar%20Year)?Park=CUGA, accessed February 20, 2024.

2024a Weather: Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. Electronic document at Weather - Cumberland Gap National Historical Park (U.S. National Park Service) (nps.gov), accessed September 8, 2024.

Noble, Bruce J., Jr., and Robert Spude
1997 National Register Bulletin 42: Guidelines for Identifying, Evaluating, and Registering Historic Mining Properties. U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Washington, D.C.

Reid, Kelley
2022 RE: NPS/National Park Service, Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, Little Railroad Tunnel, Conduit Repair and Maintenance, Claiborne County, Tennessee. Tennessee Historical Commission. On file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

Rogers, Anne Frazier
1991 "Fish Weirs as Part of the Cultural Landscape." Appalachian Cultural Resources Workshop Papers. National Park Service, Southeast Regional Office, Atlanta, Georgia.

Scott, Norman H.
2012 *Iron and the Gap*. Create Space Independent Publishing Platform.

Sherfy, Marcella and W. Ray Luce
1998 National Register Bulletin 22: Guidelines for Evaluating and Nominating Properties that Have Achieved Significance Within the Past Fifty Years. U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Washington, D.C.

Steinback, Mark
2022 Chadwell Gap Coal Company Cultural Landscape Report. National Park Service. U.S. Department of the Interior. Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. Cultural Resources, Partnerships, and Science Division, Interior Region 2—South Atlantic Gulf. Panamerican Consultants, Inc. Buffalo, New York.

Sundin, Gary, Luke Worsham, Nathan P. Nibbelink, Michael T. Mengak, and Gary Grossman
2013 Natural Resource Condition Assessment for Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. Natural Resource Report NPS/CUGA/NRR--2013/620. U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Fort Collins, Colorado.

Thornberry-Ehrlich, Trista
2011 Cumberland Gap National Historical Park Geologic Resources Inventory Report. Natural Resource Report NPS/NRSS/GRD/NRR-2011/458. National Park Service, Fort Collins, Colorado. Electronic document at http://npshistory.com/publications/cuga/nrr-2011-458.pdf, accessed January 20, 2024.

Tinney, Edward E.
1965 "History of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park." Document on file at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

Tipton, J. C.
1906 *The Cumberland Coal Field and Its Creators.* Pinnacle Printery Inc. Middlesboro. University of Kentucky, Lexington. Electronic document at https://exploreuk.uky.edu/catalog/xt7b2r3nw90r?q=cumberland+gap&offset=60&per_page=20#page/3/mode/1up/search/cumberland+gap, accessed January 10, 2024.

Torres-Reyes, Ricardo
1969 Davis Tavern Site Location Study, Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, Kentucky-Tennessee-Virginia. Division of History, U.S. Department of the Interior. Electronic document at http://npshistory.com/publications/cuga/ls-davis-tavern.pdf, accessed February 19, 2024.

U.S. Bureau of the Census
1850 Seventh Census of the United States, 1850. Record Group 29. National Archives and Records Administration, Washington, D. C. Electronic document at https://www.ancestry.com/discoveryui-content/view/17187975:8054/, accessed September 8. 2024.

U.S. Federal Highway Administration
2001 The Cumberland Gap Tunnel: pioneering a new route to the past. U.S. Federal Highway Administration, Eastern Federal Lands Highway Division, Sterling, Virginia. Electronic document at www.loc.gov/item/2007627987/, accessed October 17, 2023.

United States Geographic System
2023 National Map Viewer, Cumberland Gap. Electronic document at https://apps.nationalmap.gov/viewer/, accessed January 8, 2024.

U.S. War Department
1882 The War of the Rebellion: A Compilation of the Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies. Series I. Volume IV. Government Printing Office, Washington. Electronic document on file at https://babel.hathitrust.org/cgi/pt?id=coo.31924079601088&view=1up&seq=4, accessed October 12, 2023.

1882a The War of the Rebellion: A Compilation of the Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies. Series I. Volume VII. Government Printing Office, Washington. Electronic document on file at https://babel.hathitrust.org/cgi/pt?id=coo.31924079609545&view=1up&seq=3, accessed October 12, 2023.

1884 The War of the Rebellion: A Compilation of the Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies. Series I. Volume X. Government Printing Office, Washington. Electronic document on file at https://babel.hathitrust.org/cgi/pt?id=coo.31924077730160&view=1up&seq=3, accessed October 12, 2023.

1886 The War of the Rebellion: A Compilation of the Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies. Series I. Volume XVI. Government Printing Office, Washington. Electronic document on file at https://babel.hathitrust.org/cgi/pt?id=coo.31924079609594&view=1up&seq=3, accessed October 12, 2023.

1890 The War of the Rebellion: A Compilation of the Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies. Series I. Volume XXX. Government Printing Office, Washington. Electronic document on file at https://babel.hathitrust.org/cgi/pt?id=coo.31924077699878&view=1up&seq=3, accessed October 12, 2023.

Unrau, Harlan D.
2002 Restoration of Historic Features Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. National Park Service. U.S. Department of the Interior. Denver Service Center. Electronic document at https://www.nps.gov/parkhistory/online_books/cuga/restoration.pdf, accessed January 26, 2024.

Walker, G. L., and D. Ballinger
2007 Physical Variables and Community Structure of the White Rocks Cliff System, Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Cumberland Gap National Historical Park.

Walker, John W.
1975 *Assessment of Archaeological Resources in the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park*. National Park Service, Southeast Archaeological Center, Tallahassee, Florida.

Watson, Thomas Leonard
1907 *Mineral Resources of Virginia.* The Virginia Jamestown Exposition Commission. J. P. Bell Company, Lynchburg, Virginia. Electronic document at https://www.google.com/books/edition/Mineral_Resources_of_Virginia/GmcoAAAAYAAJ?hl=en&gbpv=1&dq=mineral+resources+of+virginia+1907&printsec=frontcover, accessed January 10, 2024.

Webb, William S., and W. D. Funkhouser
1932 Archaeological Survey of Kentucky. University of Kentucky Reports in Archaeology and Anthropology, Vol. 2. Lexington, Kentucky.

Welch, John, Ashley Braquet, Brian Goad, and Herpreet Singh
2020 Cumberland Gap National Historical Park: Hensley Settlement Cultural Landscape Report. PMIS 229031. Suzanne Turner Associates, LLC. Interior Region 2, National Park Service.

White, R.
2006 Vascular Plant Inventory and Ecological Community Classification for Cumberland Gap National Historic Park. NatureServe, Durham, North Carolina.

Williams, Gerald W.
2005 The USDA Forest Service—The First Century. FS-650. U.S.D.A. Forest Service, Office of Communication, Washington, D.C. Electronic document at https://www.fs.usda.gov/sites/default/files/media/2015/06/The_USDA_Forest_Service_TheFirstCentury.pdf, accessed January 20, 2024.

Williams, Maurice
1982 Archaeological Data Section for the Preliminary Cultural Resource Management Plan of Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. National Park Service, Southeast Archaeological Center, Tallahassee, Florida.

Woods, Mark
2001 Superintendent's Annual Narrative Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. Document on file at Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

Yarnell, Susan L.
1998 "The Southern Appalachians: A History of the Landscape." U.S.D.A. Forest Service General Technical Report SRS-18. Southern Research Station. Electronic document at https://www.srs.fs.usda.gov/pubs/gtr/gtr_srs018.pdf, accessed October 30, 2023.

Correspondence

Etheridge, Allen
2019 Letter to Craig Potts (Executive Director/Kentucky State Historic Preservation Officer), May 24. On file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

Guy, Millard G.
1959 Letter to Regional Director, Region One, November 6. Subject: Leaks in Roof of Visitor Center. On file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

1960 Letter to the Davis Building Company, January 4. On file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

Harper, Herbert L.
1992 Letter to Paul B. Hartwig (Deputy Associate Regional District, NPS Southeast Regional Office), September 15. Re: NPS, Anne B. White House, Claiborne County. On file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

Harper, Ken
1969 Letter to Dr. Benjamin L. Hunton (Interior Job Corps Program Officer), June 26. Re: Cumberland Gap Job Corps Center. On file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

Mitchell, H. Bryan
1992 Letter to Paul B. Hartwig (Deputy Associate Regional District, NPS Southeast Regional Office), March 5. Re: O'Dell House, Cumberland Gap National Historic Park, Lee County, Virginia, DHR file #91-1043-F). On file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

Potts, Craig A.
2019 Letter to Allen Etheridge (Acting Superintendent, Cumberland Gap National Historical Park), June 17. Re: Visitor Center Determination of Eligibility – Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. On file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

2019a Letter to Allen Etheridge (Acting Superintendent, Cumberland Gap National Historical Park), July 1. Re: Proposed Shillalah Creek Road Repair – Cumberland Gap National Historical Park. On file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

2021 Letter to Charles Sellars (Superintendent, Cumberland Gap National Historical Park), January 11. Re: Cumberland Gap – Museum Storage/Water Lab HVAC Project. On file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

Reid, Kelly J.
2022 Letter to Mr. Charles Sellars (Cumberland Gap National Historical Park), September 27. Re: NPS/National Park Service, Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, Little Railroad Tunnel, Conduit Repair and Maintenance, Claiborne County, Tennessee. On file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

Sellars, Charles D.
2020 Letter to Mr. Craig Potts (Executive Director and Kentucky State Historic Preservation Officer), December 14. Re: Compliance with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act Installation of New Waterline and Replace HVAC at Museum Storage/Water Lab Building, Cumberland Gap National Historical Park, Bell County, Kentucky. On file at the Cumberland Gap National Historical Park archives, Middlesboro, Kentucky.

APPENDICES:
CONFIDENTIAL INFORMATION

APPENDIX A.
SITE PLAN MAPS

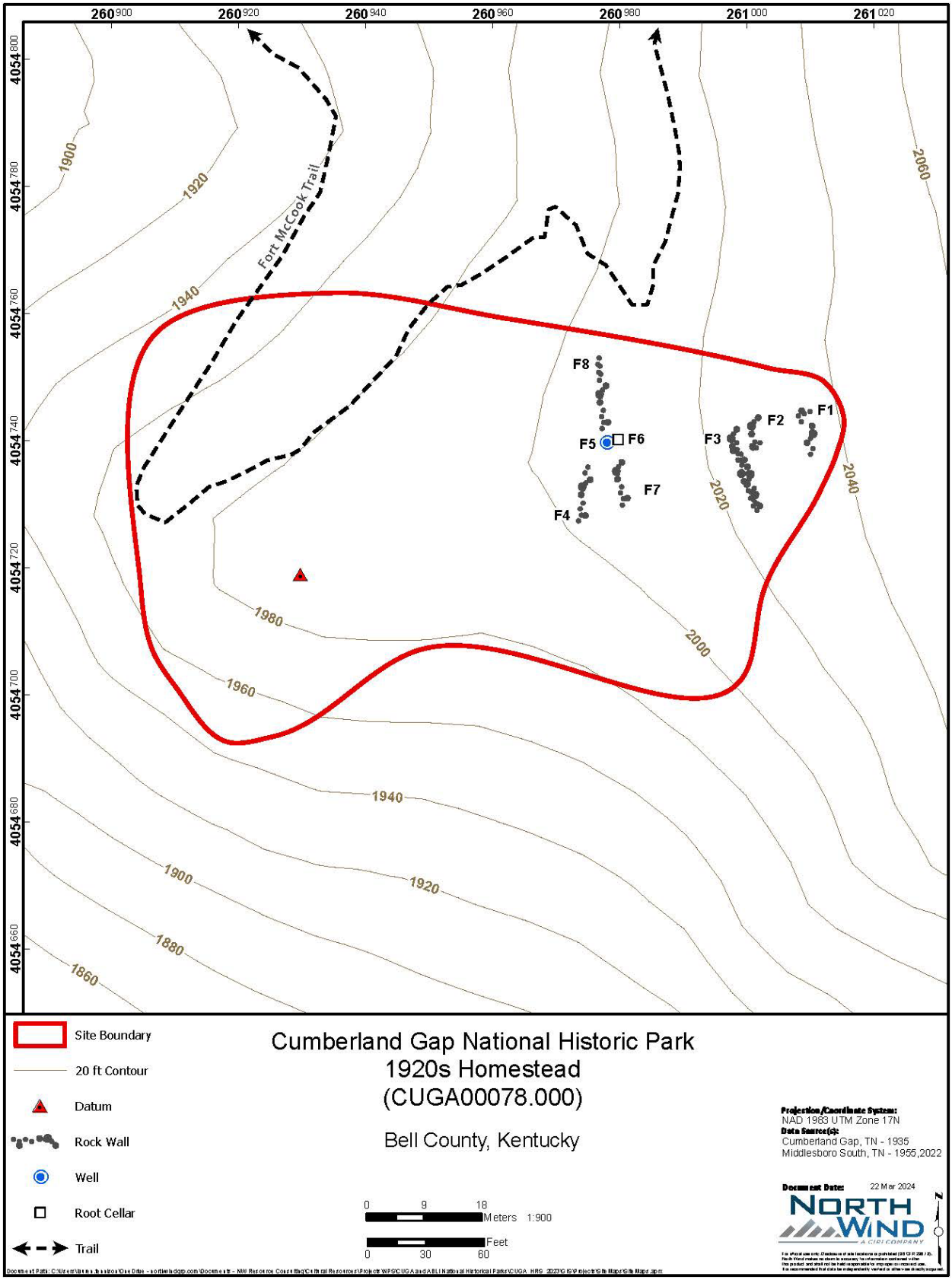


Figure 158. Plan map of 1920s Homestead Site (CUGA00078.000), Bell County, Kentucky.

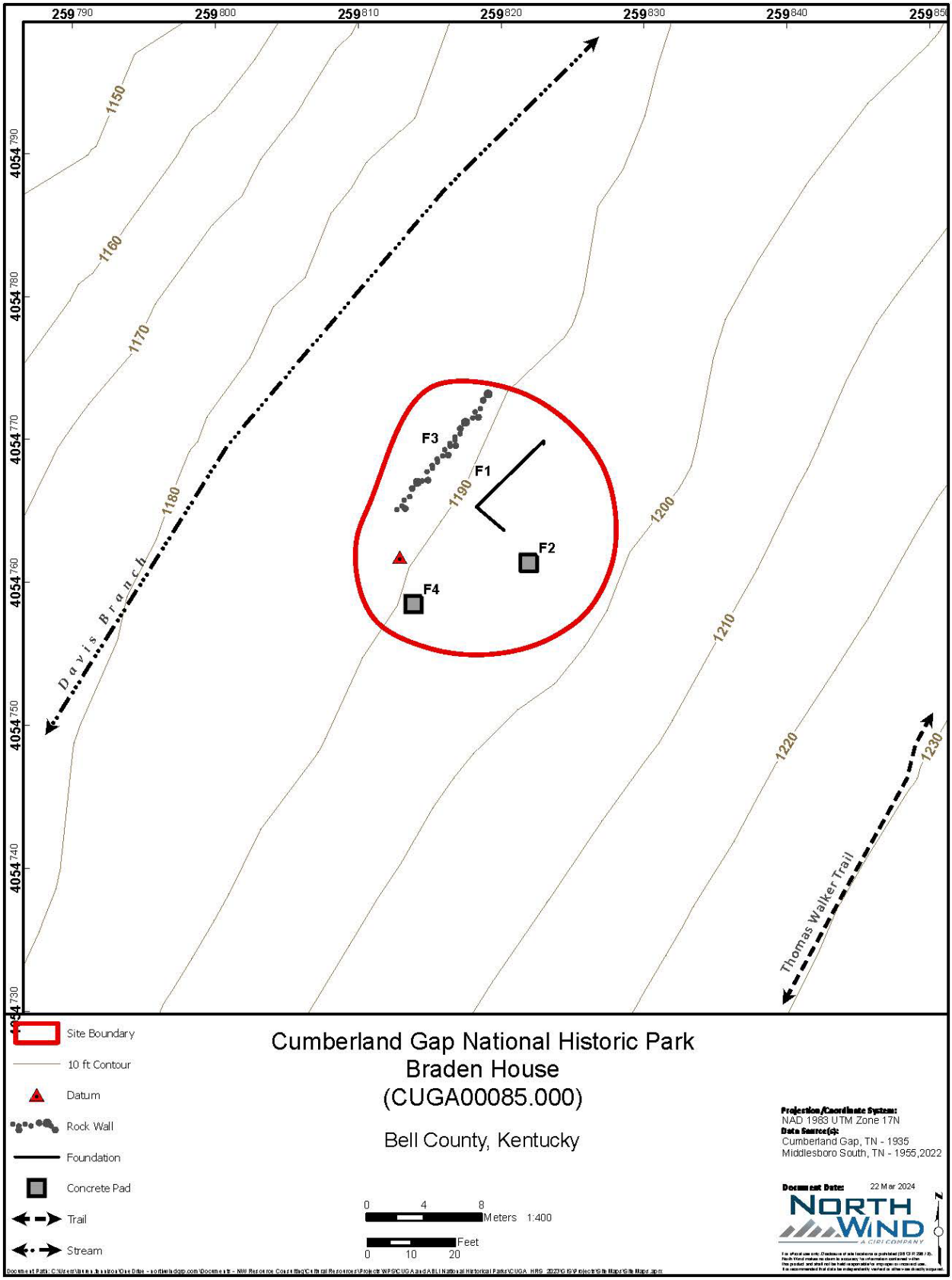


Figure 159. Plan map of Braden House Site (CUGA00085.000), Bell County, Kentucky.

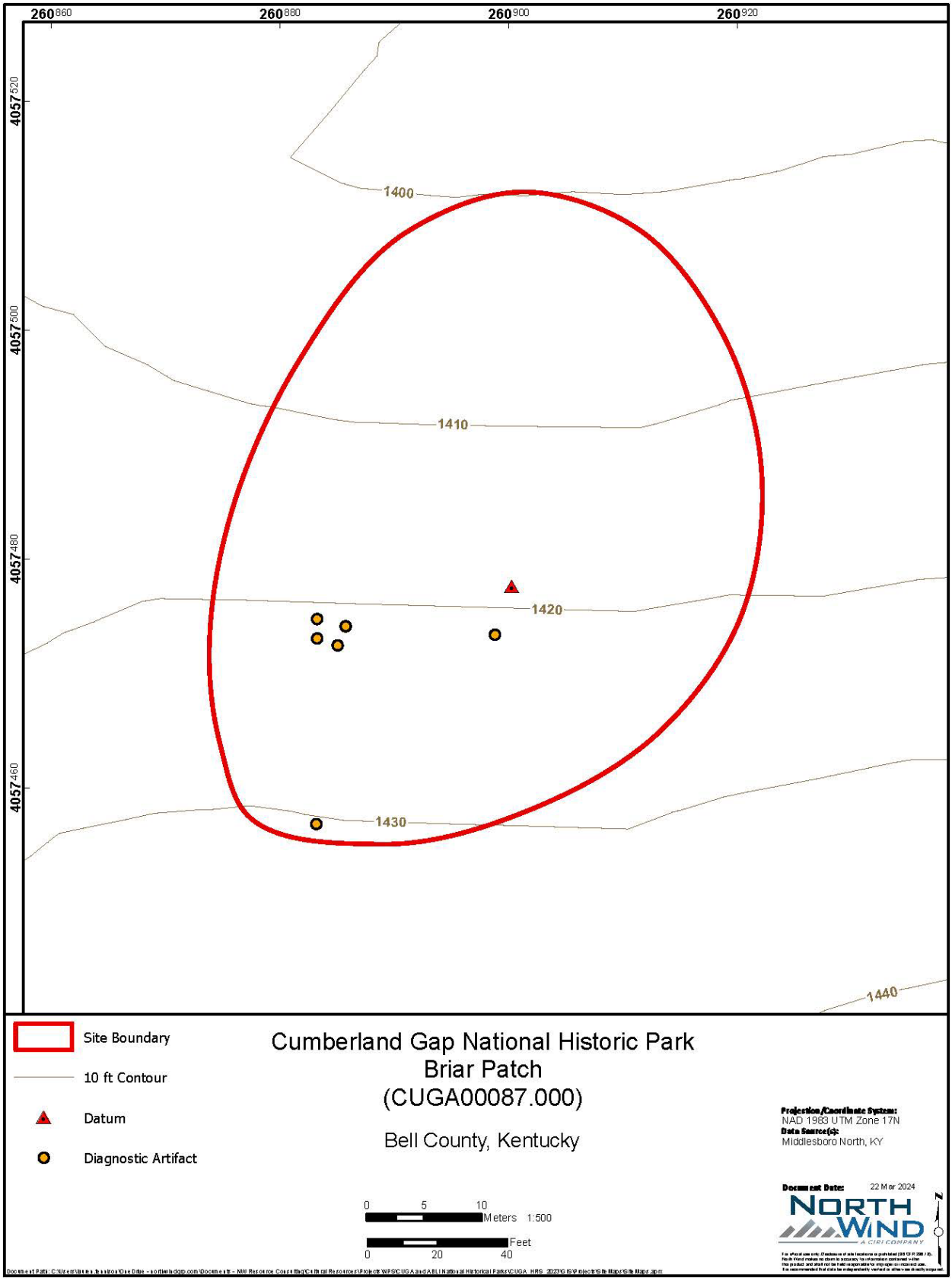


Figure 160. Plan map of Briar Patch Site (CUGA00087.000), Bell County, Kentucky.

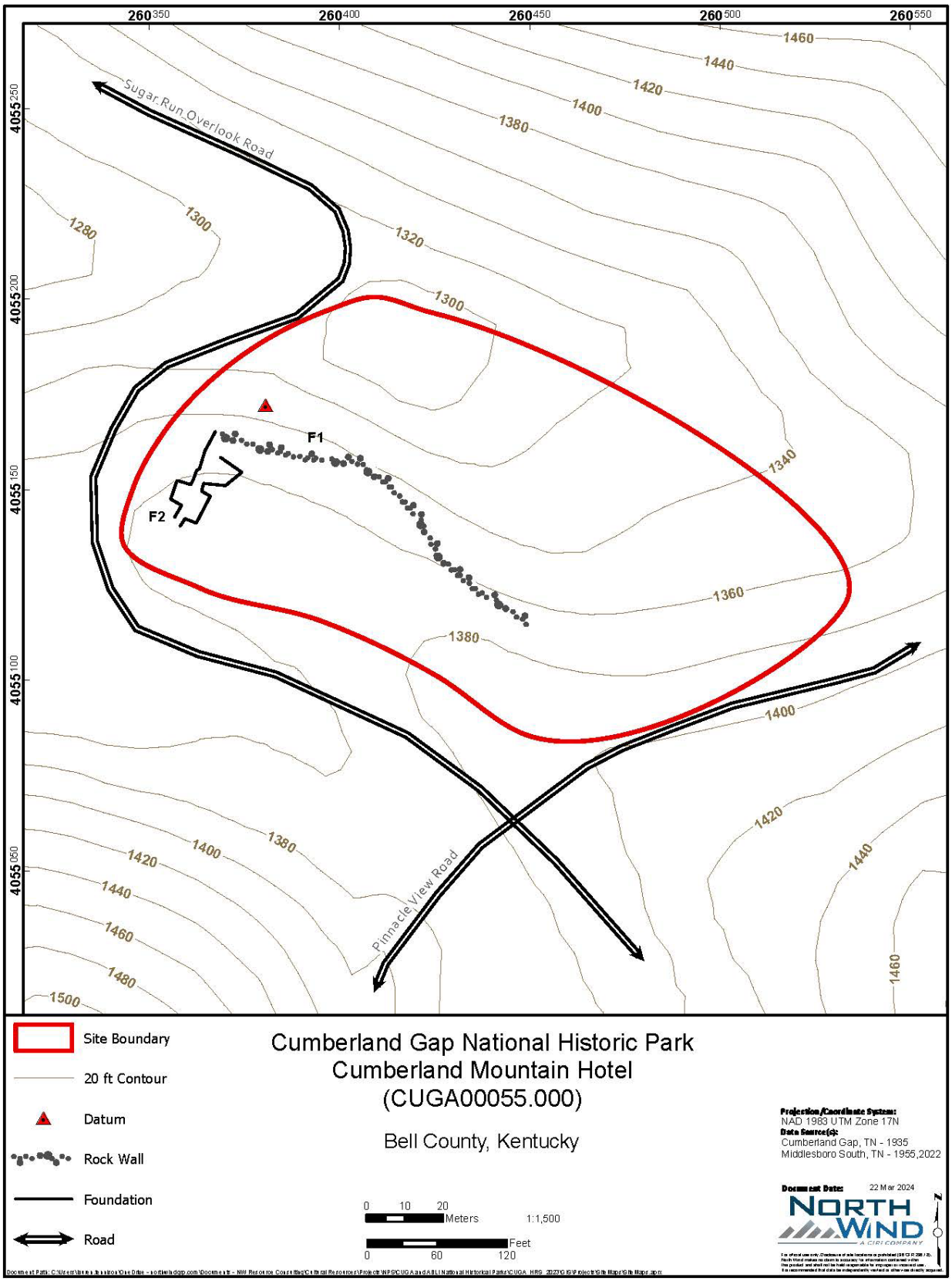


Figure 161. Plan map of Cumberland Gap Mountain Hotel Site (CUGA00055.000), Bell County, Kentucky.

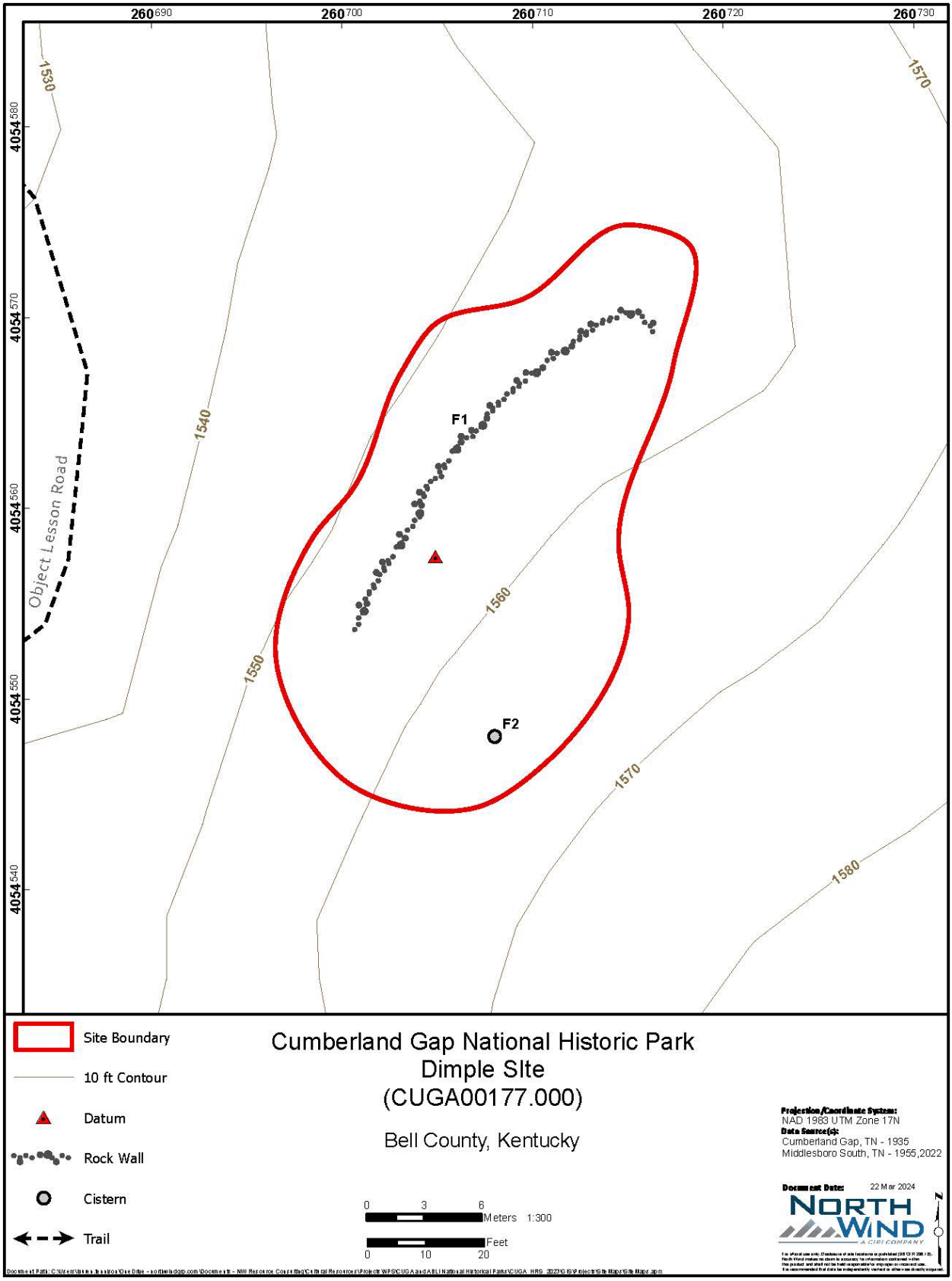


Figure 162. Plan map of Dimple Site (CUGA00177.000), Bell County, Kentucky.

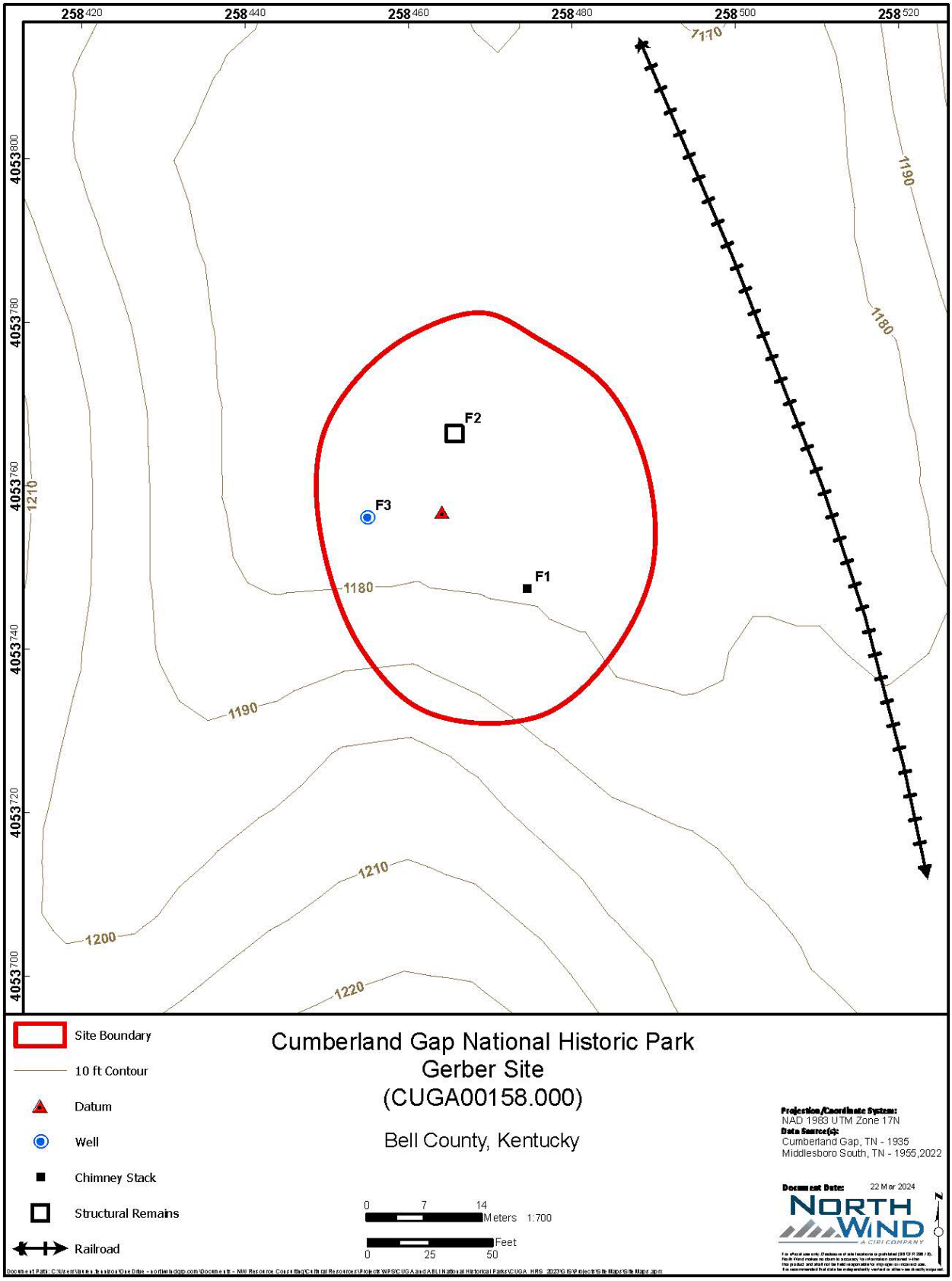


Figure 163. Gerber Site (CUGA00158.000), Bell County, Kentucky.

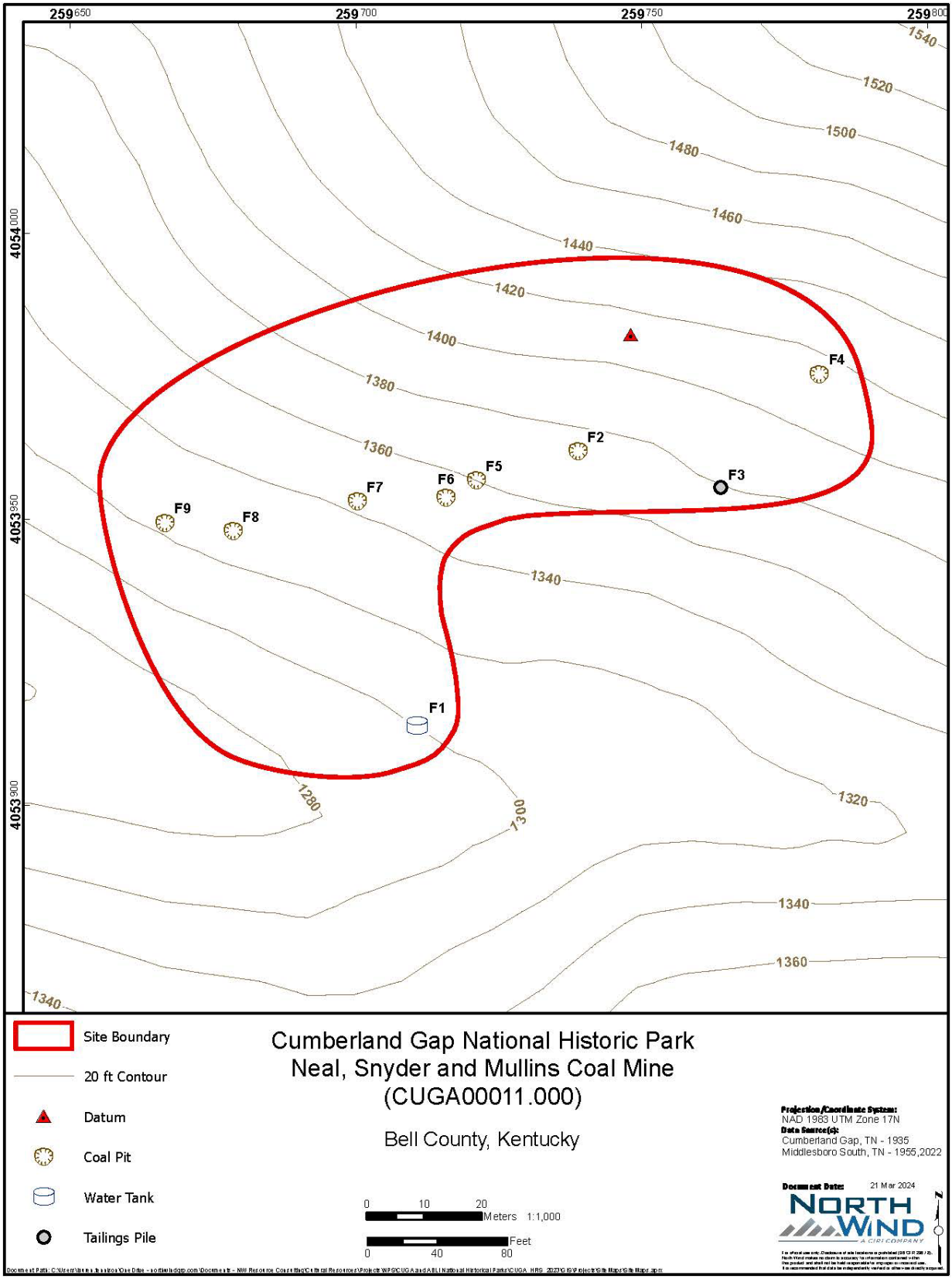


Figure 164. Plan map of Neal, Snyder & Mullins Coal Mine (CUGA00011.000), Bell County, Kentucky.

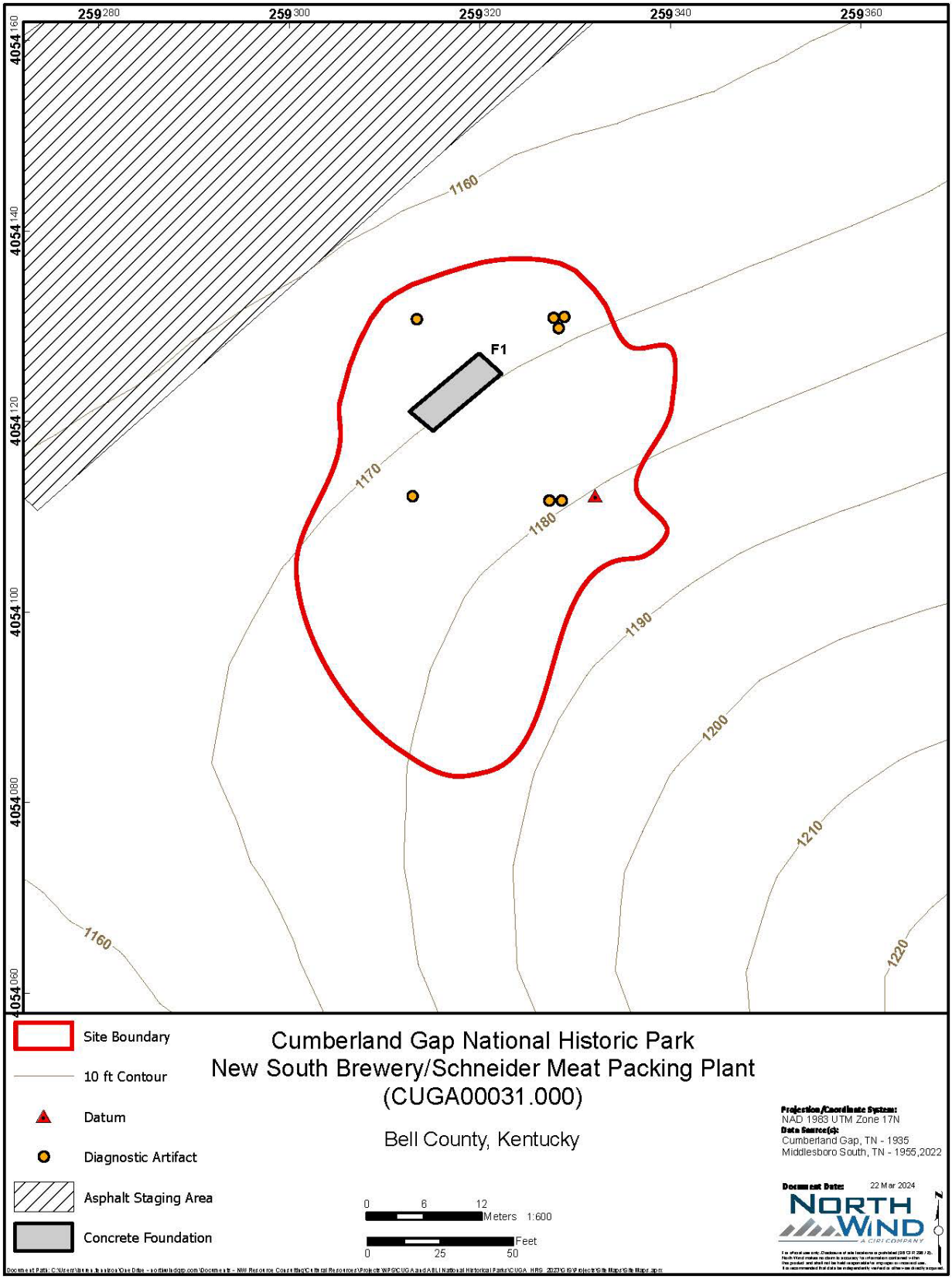


Figure 165. New South Brewery/Schneider Meat Packing Plant (CUGA00031.000), Bell County, Kentucky.

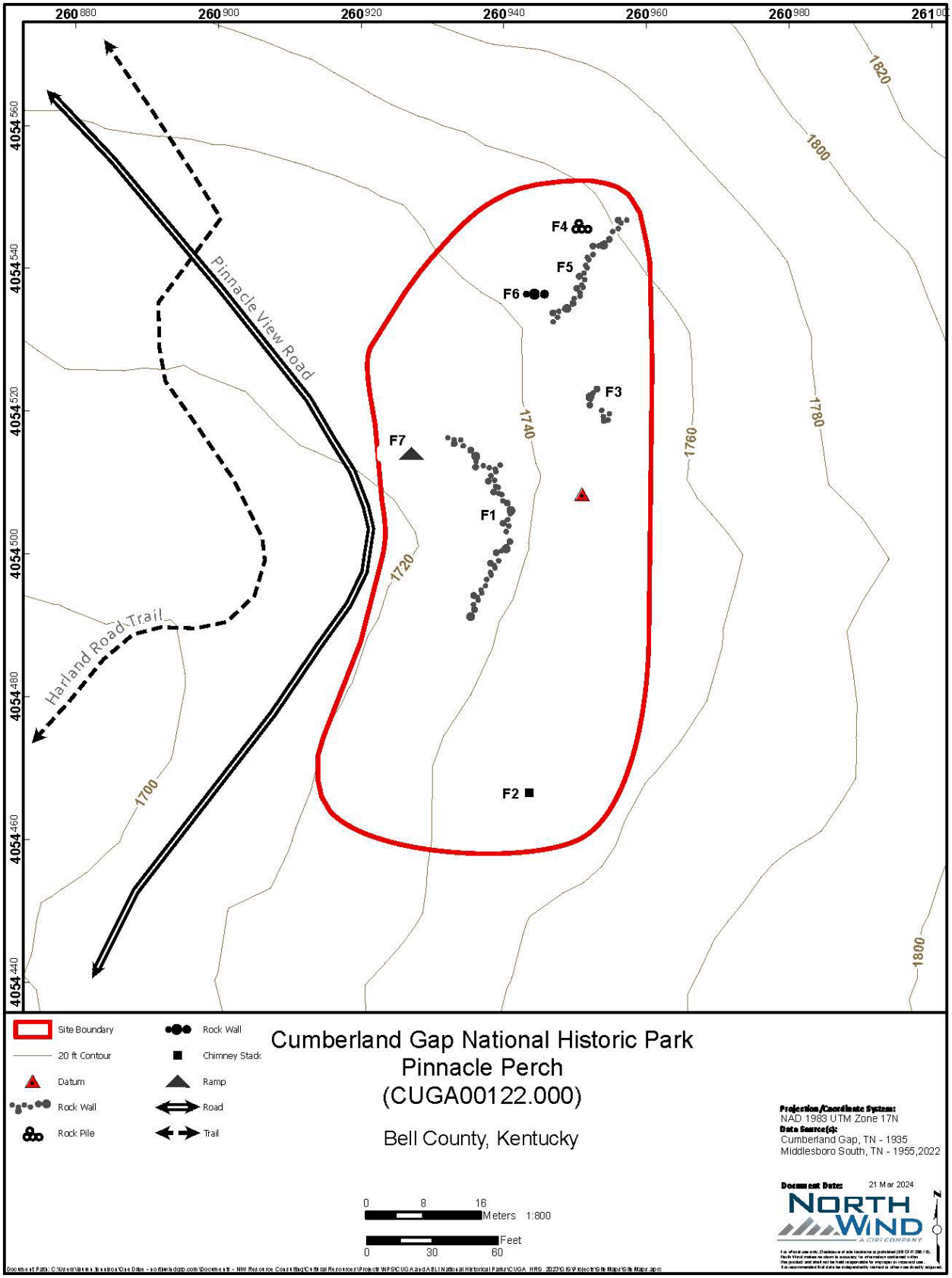


Figure 166. Plan map of Pinnacle Perch Site (CUGA00122.000), Bell County, Kentucky.

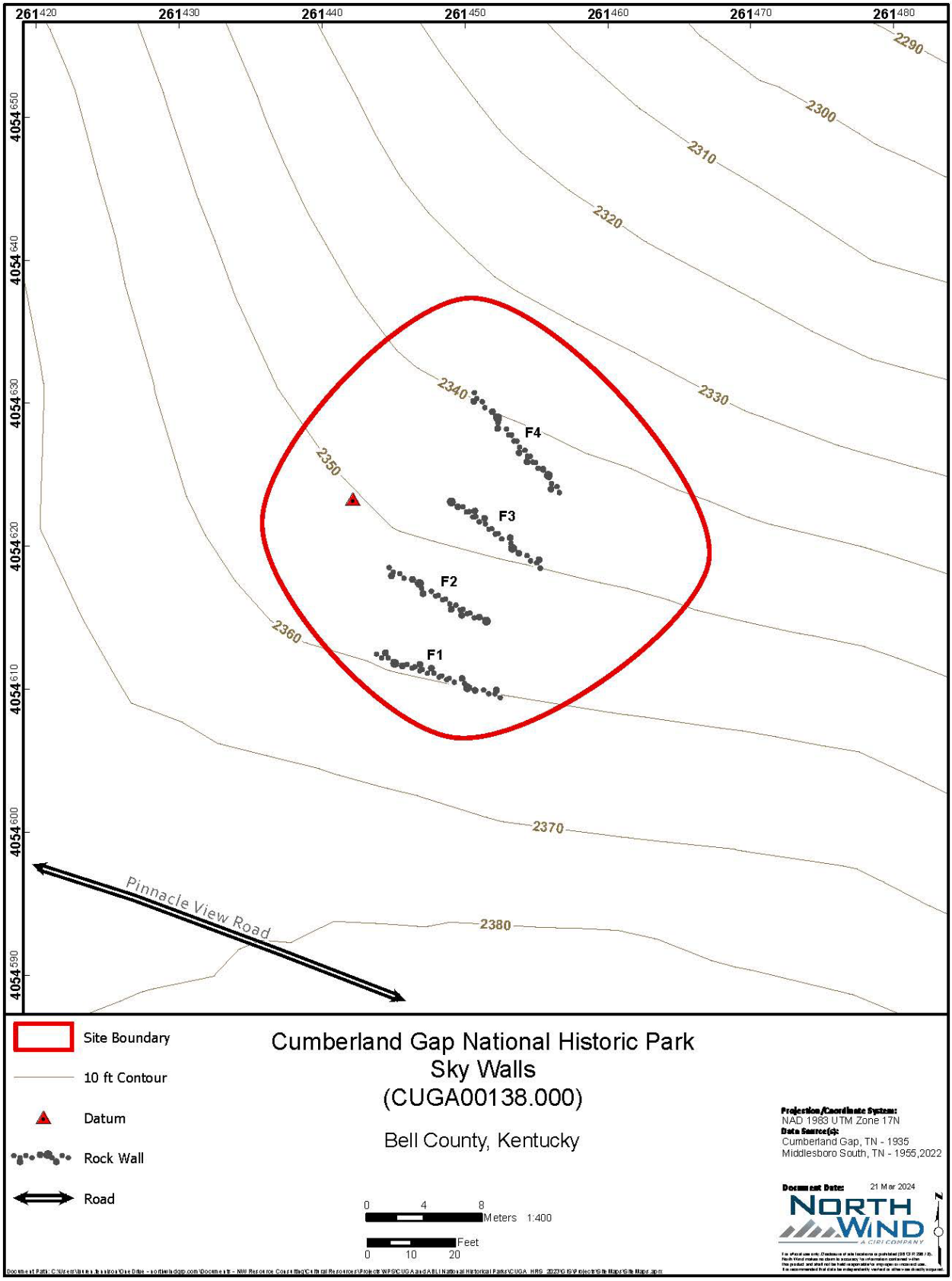


Figure 167. Plan map of Sky Walls Site (CUGA00138.000), Bell County, Kentucky.

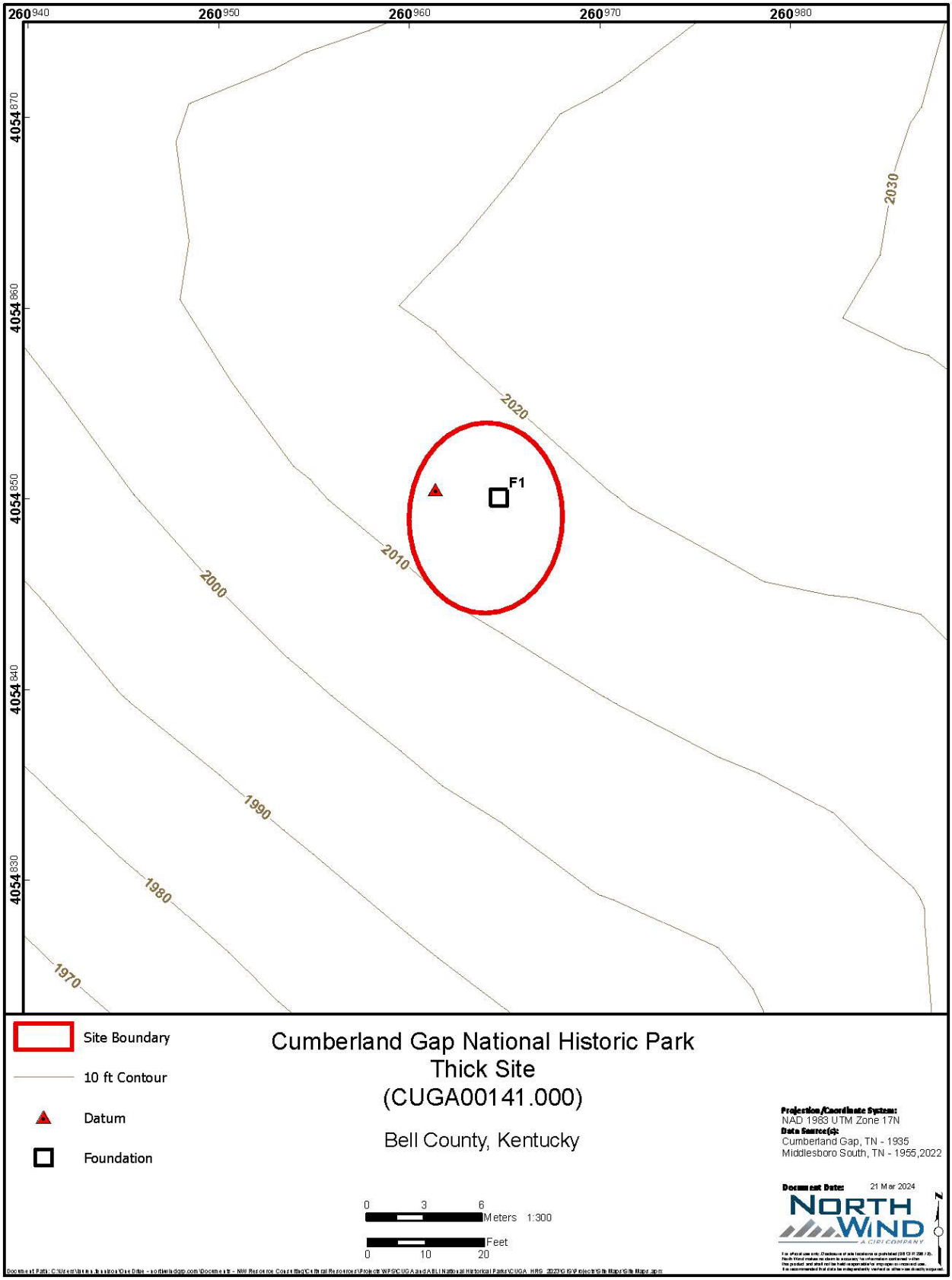


Figure 168. Plan map of Thick Site (CUGA00141.000), Bell County, Kentucky.

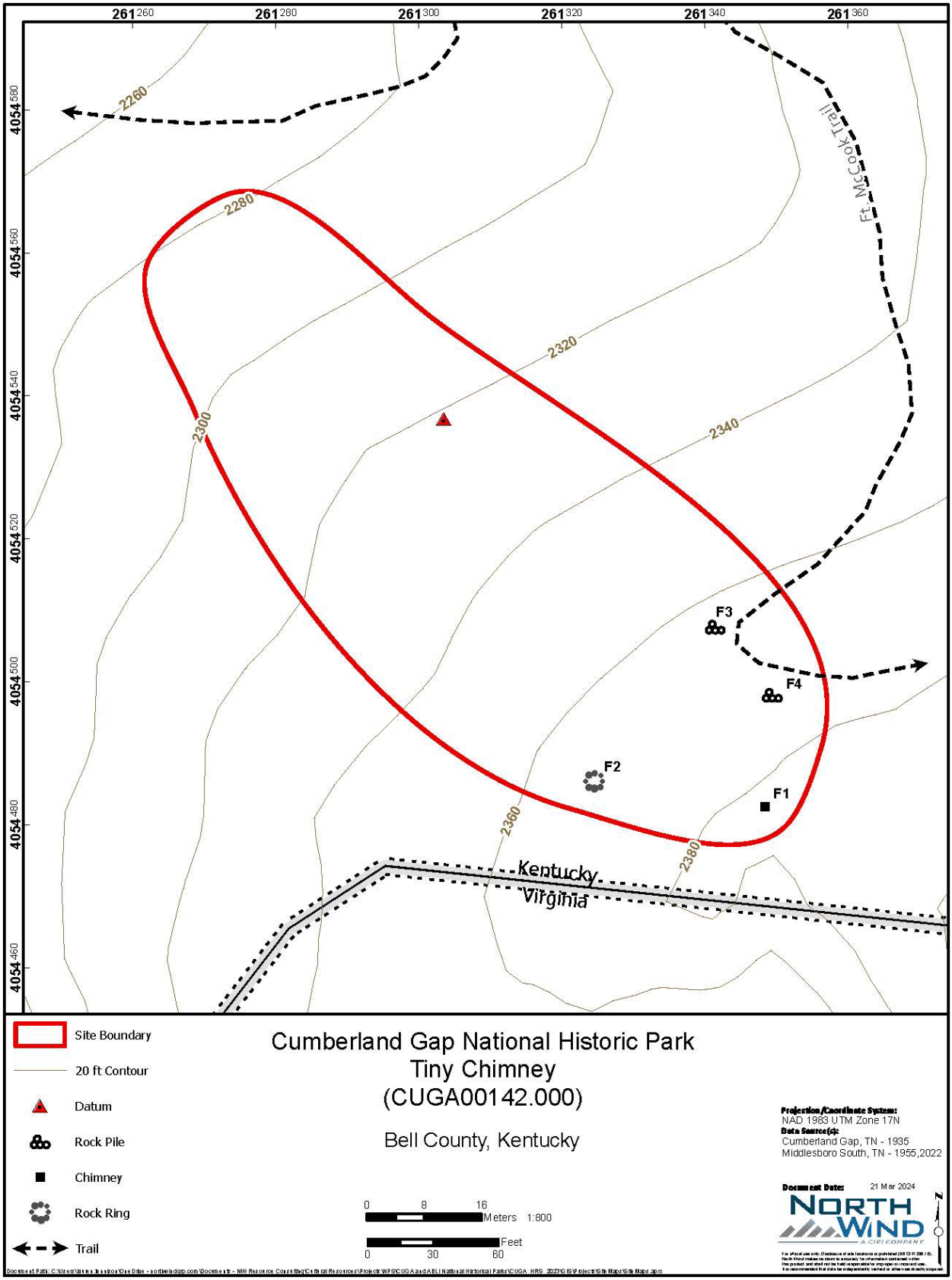


Figure 169. Plan map of Tiny Chimney Site (CUGA00142.000), Bell County, Kentucky.

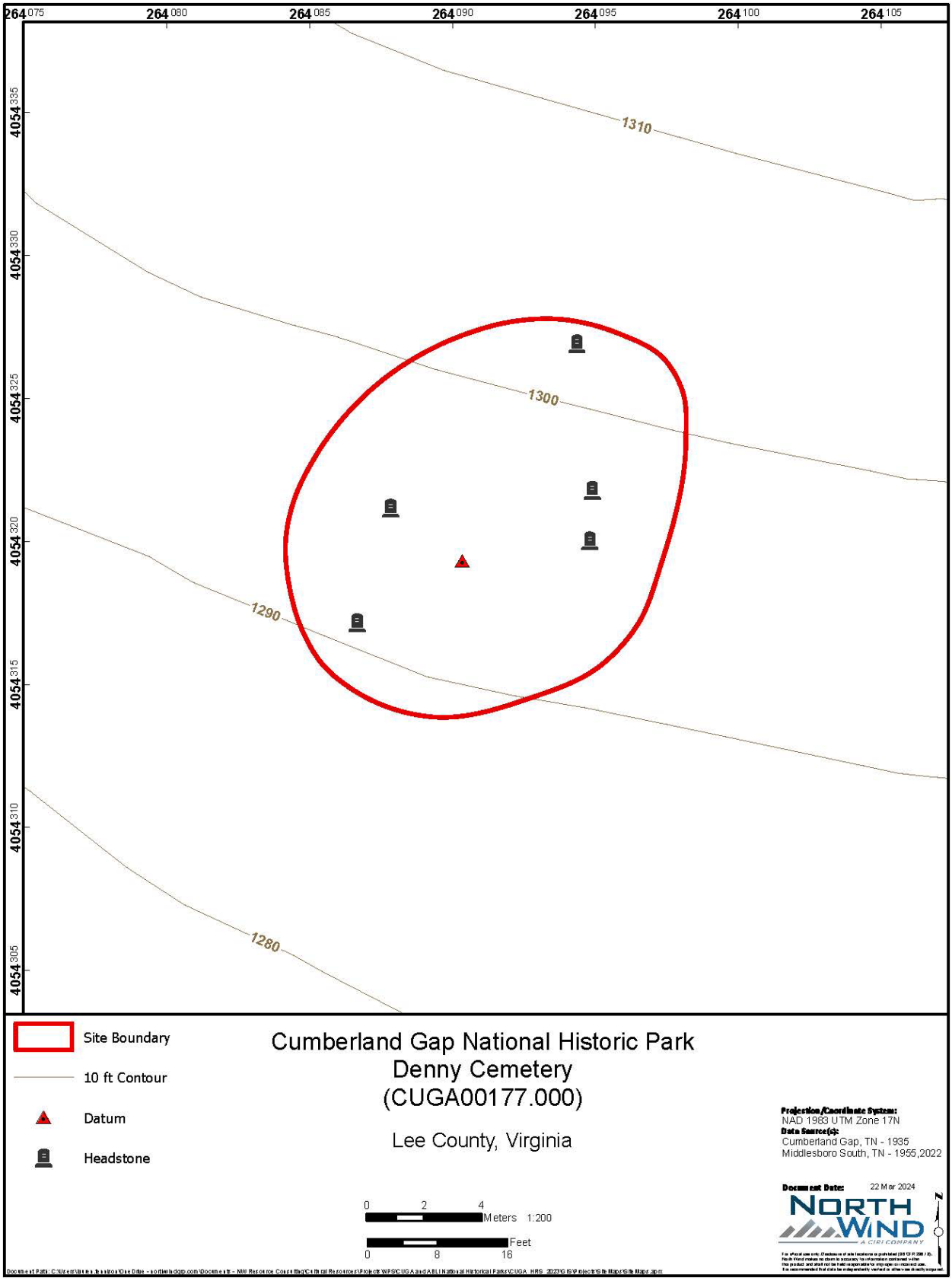


Figure 170. Plan map of Denny Cemetery Site (CUGA00177.000), Lee County, Virginia.

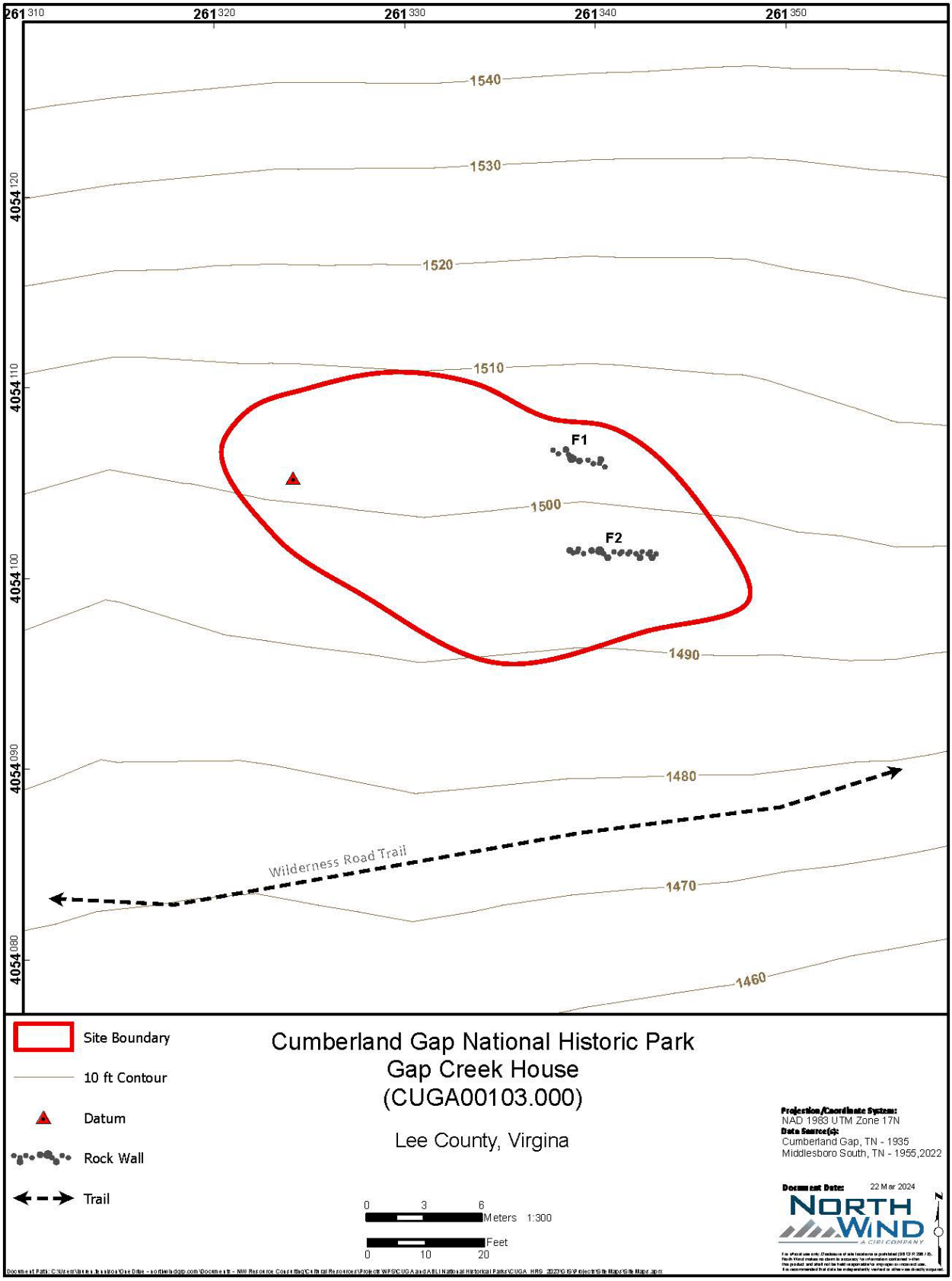


Figure 171. Plan map of Gap Creek House Site (CUGA00103.000), Lee County, Virginia.

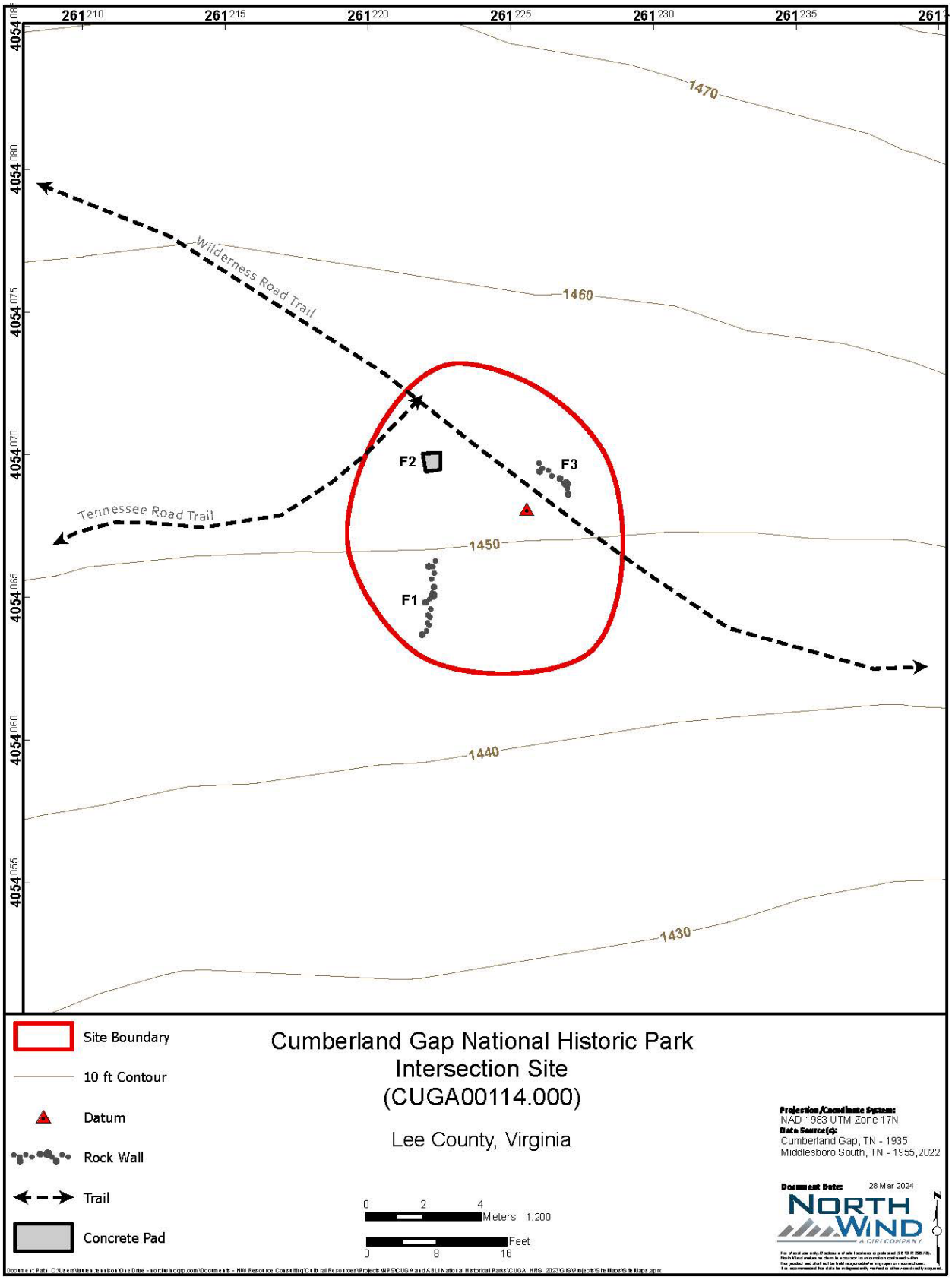


Figure 172. Plan map of Intersection Site (CUGA00114.000), Lee County, Virginia.

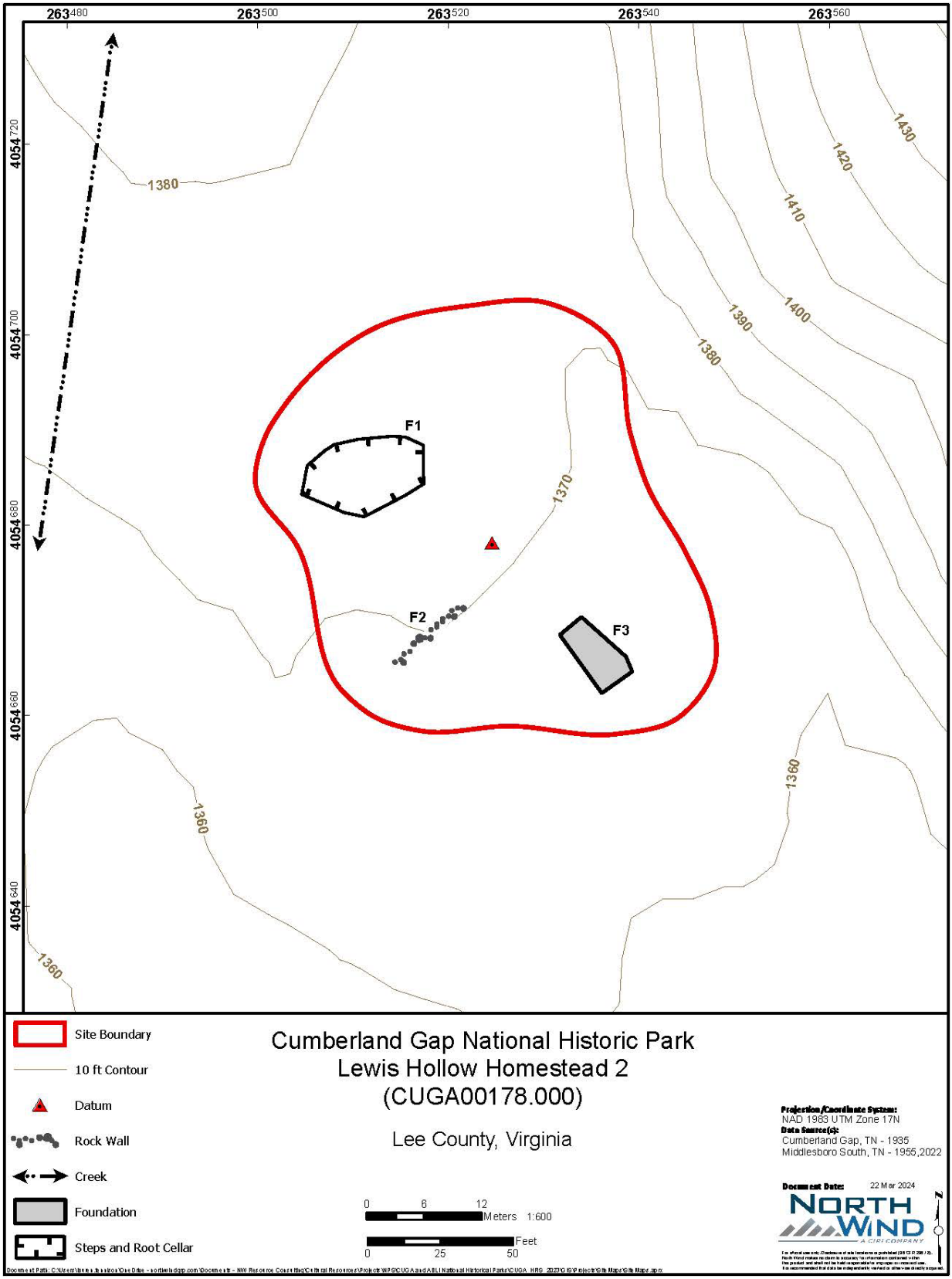


Figure 173. Plan map of Lewis Hollow Homestead 2 Site (CUGA00178.000), Lee County, Virginia.

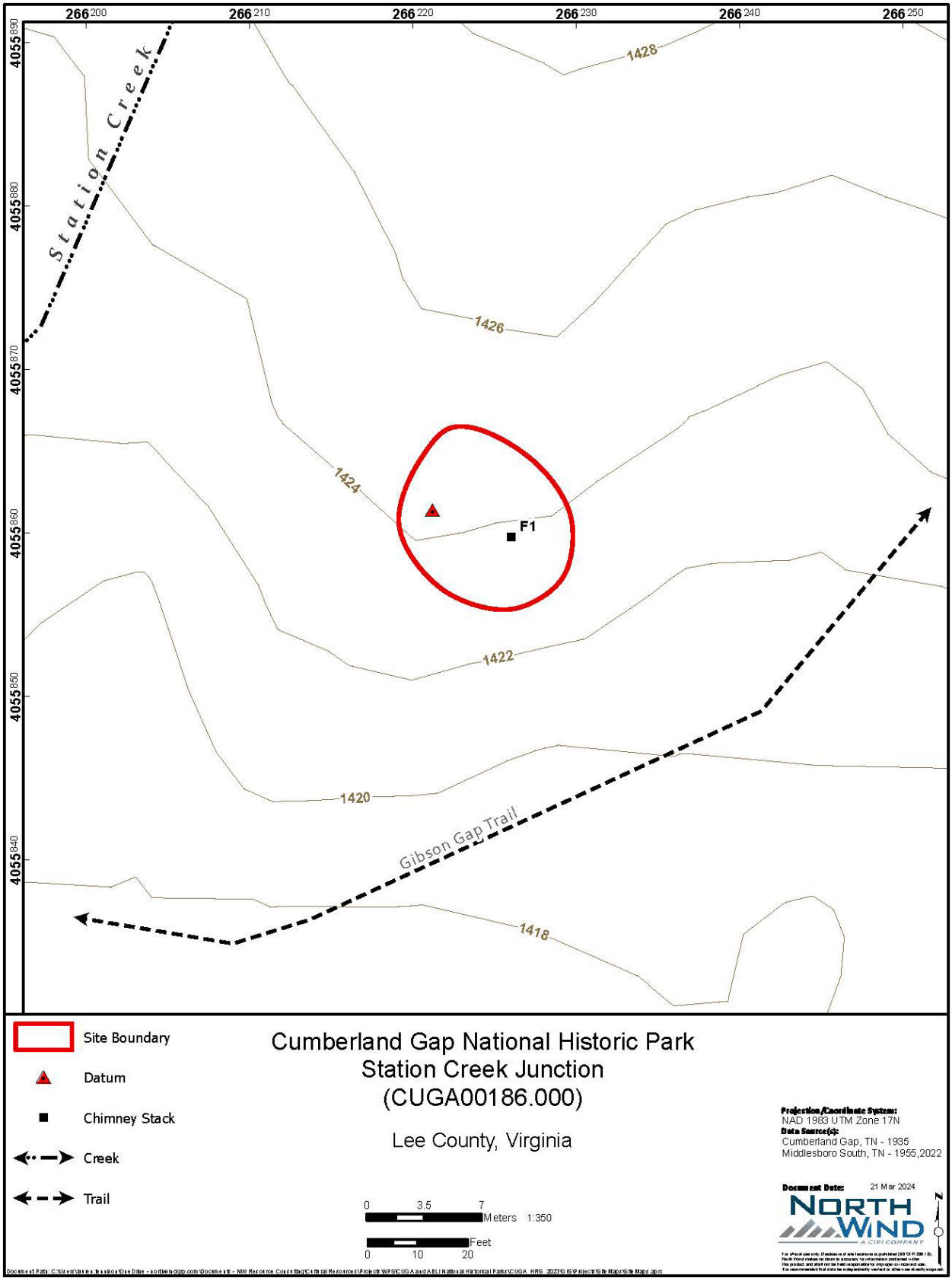


Figure 174. Plan map of Station Creek Junction Site (CUGA00186.000), Lee County, Virginia.

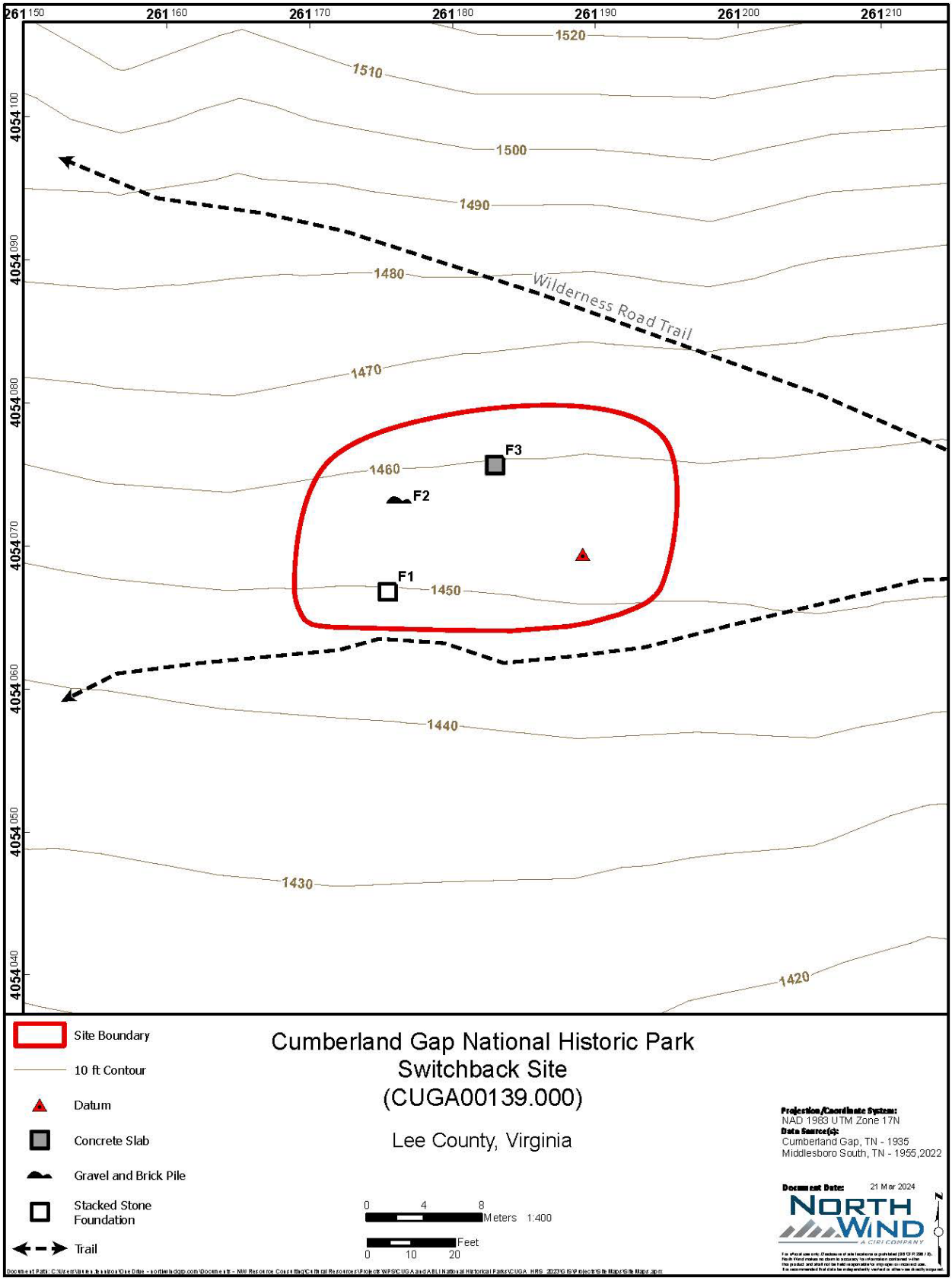


Figure 175. Plan map of Switchback Site (CUGA00139.000), Lee County, Virginia.

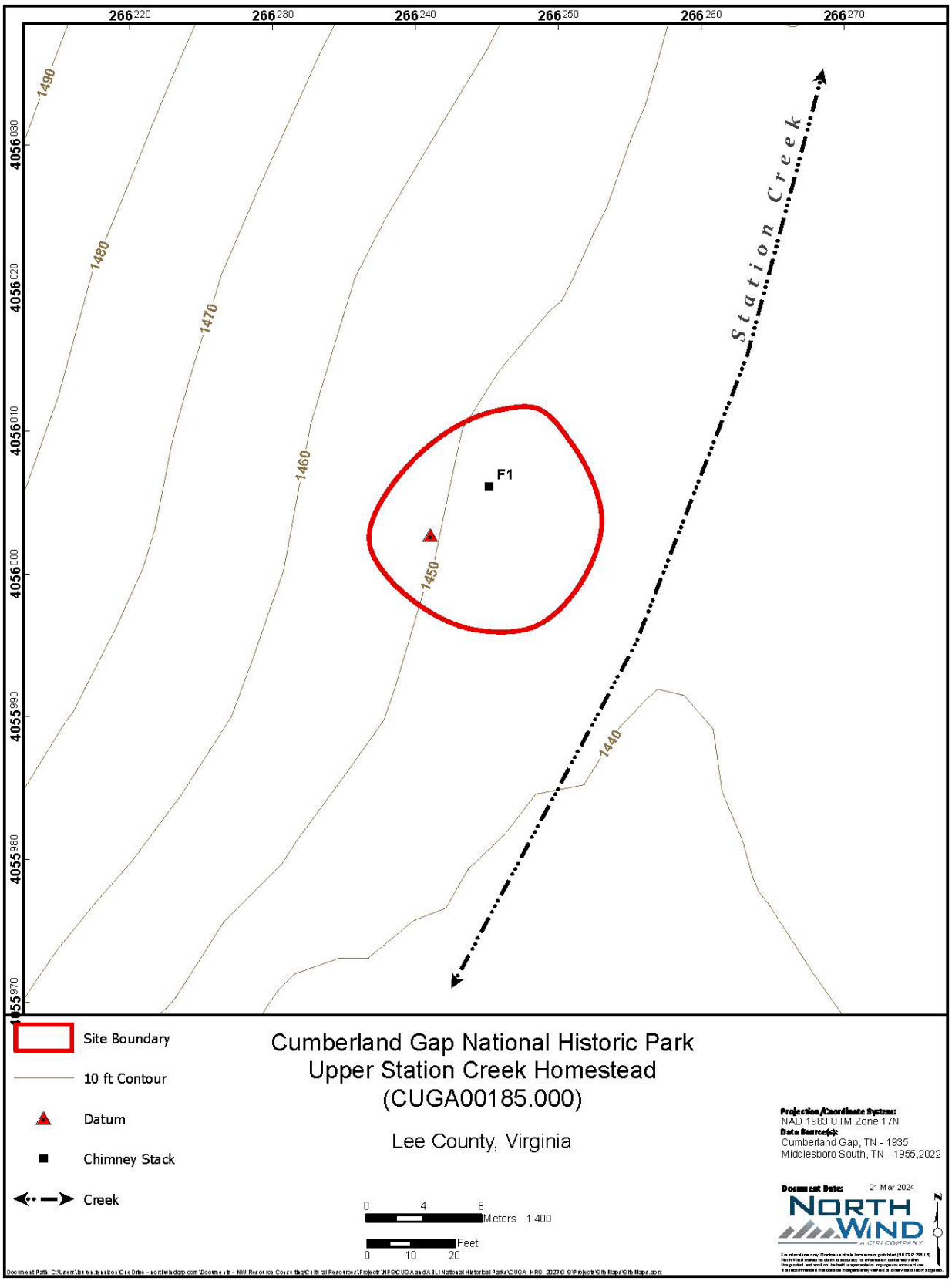


Figure 176. Plan map of Upper Station Creek Homestead Site (CUGA00185.000), Lee County, Virginia.