

**ATLANTIC COAST PIPELINE, LLC
ATLANTIC COAST PIPELINE**

and

**DOMINION TRANSMISSION, INC.
SUPPLY HEADER PROJECT**

**Supplemental Filing
March 24, 2017**

APPENDIX G

Aboveground Cultural Resources Survey Reports

Dominion Resources Services, Inc.
5000 Dominion Boulevard,
Glen Allen, VA 23060



March 24, 2017

Ms. Susan M. Pierce
Deputy State Historic Preservation Officer
West Virginia Division of Culture and History
1900 Kanawha Boulevard, East
Charleston, West Virginia 25305-0300

**Subject: Section 106 Review – Phase I Historic Architectural Survey Report Addendum 5
Atlantic Coast Pipeline, LLC, Atlantic Coast Pipeline Project
FR#: 14-928-Multi**

Dear Ms. Pierce:

Atlantic Coast Pipeline, LLC (Atlantic) is requesting review and comment on the enclosed addendum architectural survey report on investigations conducted for the proposed Atlantic Coast Pipeline (ACP). The Federal Energy Regulatory Commission (FERC) is the lead Federal agency for this Project. Atlantic's consultant, ERM, conducted the survey and prepared the enclosed report pursuant to the requirements of Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended.

Atlantic would appreciate your comments on the attached addendum architectural survey report, and we look forward to continuing to work with you on this Project. If you have any questions regarding the enclosed report, please contact Richard B. Gangle at (804) 273-2814 or Richard.B.Gangle@dom.com, or by letter at:

Richard B. Gangle
Dominion Resources Services, Inc.
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Respectfully submitted,

A handwritten signature in blue ink that reads "Robert M. Bisha".

Robert M. Bisha
Technical Advisor, Atlantic Coast Pipeline

cc: Richard Gangle (Dominion)
Enclosure: **Phase I Historic Architectural Survey Report Addendum 5**



**PHASE I HISTORIC ARCHITECTURAL SURVEY OF THE
ATLANTIC COAST PIPELINE PROJECT**

West Virginia Addendum 5

15-171-MULTI-9



Prepared by



March 2017

**PHASE I HISTORIC ARCHITECTURAL SURVEY OF THE
ATLANTIC COAST PIPELINE PROJECT**

West Virginia Addendum 5

15-171-MULTI-9

Draft

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March 2017

ABSTRACT

This report presents the results that were achieved during Phase I historic architectural surveys conducted in association with the Atlantic Coast Pipeline, LLC (Atlantic) Atlantic Coast Pipeline (ACP) project (Project). Dominion Transmission, Inc. (DTI) will build and operate approximately 603.8 600 miles of natural gas transmission pipeline and associated laterals on behalf of Atlantic, which is a joint company consisting of subsidiaries of Dominion Resources, Duke Energy, Piedmont Natural Gas, and Southern Company Gas. The pipeline system extends from West Virginia to southern North Carolina, and the Project will include access roads, meter stations, compressor stations, and other above-ground facilities. This document presents findings for the segment of the pipeline corridor in West Virginia, which is 97.3 miles long, and passes through Harrison, Lewis, Upshur, Randolph, and Pocahontas counties. The Area of Potential Effects (APE) includes the 300-foot-wide survey corridor that will encompass the construction zone and the permanent pipeline right-of-way for the proposed pipeline, the footprints for access roads and other facilities associated with the Project, and areas of potential indirect (visual) effects that lie within line of sight of proposed aboveground facilities and landscape changes due to clearing of vegetation or other impacts associated with construction. The Federal Energy Regulatory Commission (FERC) is the lead federal agency, and work was conducted pursuant to the requirements of Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended.

The current document contains survey results associated with segments of the Project where access previously had been denied, and in conjunction with previously unsurveyed proposed access roads and facilities. ERM performed public road surveys for resources where access was not granted, recording historic structures that were visible from public vantage points.

Dovetail Cultural Resource Group (Dovetail) conducted initial portions of the historic architectural surveys for this Project. ERM conducted further architectural surveys for this Project.

A total of nine historic resources were examined during the field survey work documented in this report. ERM recommends that four of the resources (PH-0037-64, PH-0037-65, PH-0461, and UP-0113/46-UP-348) are eligible for the National Register of Historic Places.

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INTRODUCTION

This report presents the results that were achieved during Phase I historic architectural surveys conducted in association with the Atlantic Coast Pipeline, LLC (Atlantic) Atlantic Coast Pipeline (ACP) project (Project). Dominion Transmission, Inc. (DTI) will build and operate approximately 600 miles of natural gas transmission pipeline and associated laterals on behalf of Atlantic, which is a joint company consisting of subsidiaries of Dominion Resources, Duke Energy, Piedmont Natural Gas, and Southern Company Gas. The pipeline system extends from West Virginia to southern North Carolina (Figure 1), and the Project will include access roads, meter stations, compressor stations, and other above-ground facilities. This document presents findings for the segment of the pipeline corridor in West Virginia, which is 97.3 miles long, and passes through Harrison, Lewis, Upshur, Randolph, and Pocahontas counties. The Area of Potential Effects (APE) includes the 300-foot-wide survey corridor that will encompass the construction zone and the permanent pipeline right-of-way for the proposed pipeline, the footprints for access roads and other facilities associated with the Project, and areas of potential indirect (visual) effects that lie within line of sight of proposed aboveground facilities and landscape changes due to clearing of vegetation or other impacts associated with construction.

The Federal Energy Regulatory Commission (FERC) is the lead federal agency, and work was conducted pursuant to the requirements of Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended (16 U.S.C. § 470). Section 106 requires federal agencies to take into account the effects of their undertakings (including the issuance of Certificates) on properties listed in or eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP). DTI, as a non-federal party, is assisting the FERC in meeting its obligations under Section 106 by preparing the necessary information, analyses, and recommendations as authorized by 36 C.F.R. § 800.2(a)(3). ERM is conducting Phase I cultural resource investigations to gather information on historic properties that could be affected by the Project in support of the Section 106 consultation process.

The current document contains survey results associated with segments of the Project where access previously had been denied, and for previously unsurveyed proposed access roads and facilities. ERM performed public road surveys for resources where access was not granted, recording historic structures that were visible from public vantage points. Dovetail Cultural Resource Group (Dovetail) conducted initial portions of the historic architectural surveys for this Project (Lesiuk and Sylvester 2016a, 2016b; Sandbeck et al. 2016). ERM conducted further architectural surveys for this Project (Tucker-Laird et al. 2016; Voisin George et al. 2016). ERM will prepare a supplemental report that summarizes findings from previous survey work and provides assessment of effects discussions for all resources in the APE for the final Project alignment that are eligible for the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP).

MANAGEMENT RECOMMENDATIONS

For the work covered by this report, ERM surveyed and assessed nine resources. These include five residential properties, one commercial store, one agricultural outbuilding, one church and cemetery, and a Civil War study area. ERM discusses all nine of these resources in this report, and offers NRHP eligibility recommendations for each resource. The locations of identified historic resources in the APE are depicted on the Project map in Appendix A. Of the nine resources discussed in this report, ERM recommends that four (PH-0037-64, PH-0037-65, PH-0461, and UP-0113/46-UP-348) are eligible for the NRHP, while the remaining five resources are recommended ineligible for the NRHP.

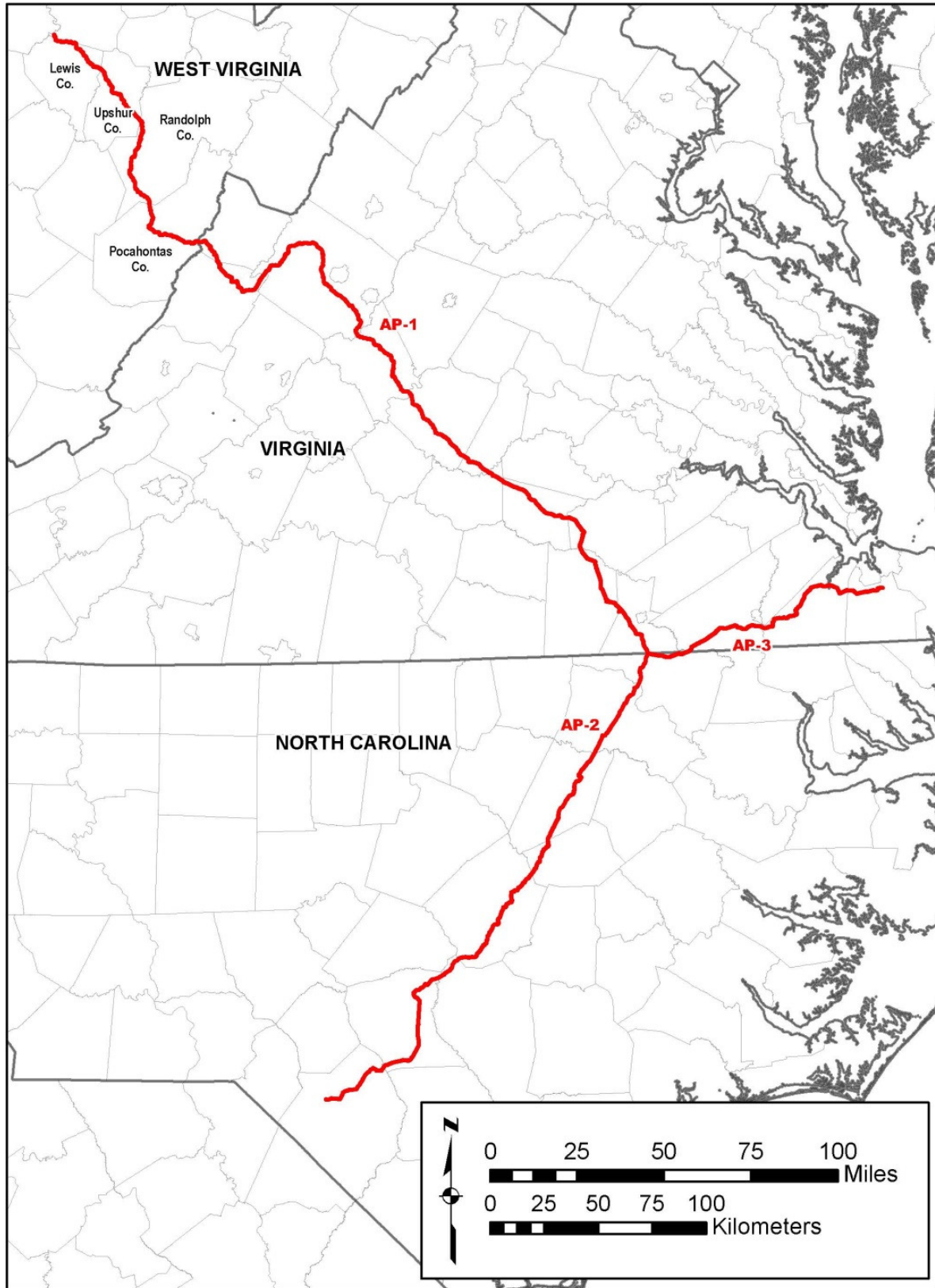


Figure 1. General overview of the Project corridor.

METHODS

Background Research

Before field investigations for historic resources were initiated, a file search was conducted for previously-identified historic resources on file with the West Virginia State Historic Preservation Office (WVSHPO), including properties listed in or nominated for the NRHP, within a 0.5-mile buffer of the proposed Project corridor. ERM collected information on resources maintained in the WVSHPO Interactive Map Viewer. The purpose of the search was to identify resources that might be located within the APE, and to anticipate the types of resources likely to be encountered in the region.

Field Survey Methods

An APE is defined as “the geographic area or areas within which an undertaking may directly or indirectly cause changes in the character or use of historic properties, if any such properties exist” (36 CFR Part 800.16[d]). The APE for the current Project includes possible areas of direct construction effects within a 300-foot corridor encompassing the centerline of the proposed pipeline and possible workspaces, as well as within the footprint of the associated pipeline facilities. It also includes areas of potential visual effects on identified historic structures from changes to the setting from construction of new facilities, clearing of vegetation, and/or modifications to the landscape. Thus, the APE extends into areas surrounding the Project containing historic resources within line-of-sight of changes that will derive from the proposed undertaking. The APE is depicted on USGS topographic quadrangle maps in Appendix A.

The current field effort covered the APE for the relevant segments of the proposed pipeline corridor, access roads, and facilities not previously surveyed. Due to public sentiment and the sensitive nature of the Project, ERM architectural historians surveyed those properties for which the owners had been contacted by right-of-way agents. Properties in the APE for which permission was not received were documented only from the nearest public right-of-way.

Within the parameters limiting survey access as discussed above, ERM architectural historians surveyed properties determined to be 50 years or older along the relevant Project segments. Each resource was photographed and marked on the applicable USGS quadrangle map. Digital photographs were taken to record the structures’ overall appearance and details. Sketch maps were drawn depicting the relationship of dwellings to outbuildings and associated landscape features. Additional information on the structures’ appearance and integrity were recorded to assist in making recommendations of NRHP eligibility. If property access was not granted, observations were limited to what could be obtained from the nearest public road. Sufficient information was gathered on the resources to determine eligibility for listing on the NRHP, and what effect the proposed undertaking might have on any resource determined to be eligible.

Resources were generally defined to encompass the entire extent of the current parcel boundary. For those resources considered ineligible for the NRHP, Project effects do not need to be assessed, and so for simplicity, those resources are indicated in the Appendix A map as the locations of the actual structures. Some of those structures lie outside the defined visual APE, but the parcels on which they are located extend into the APE. The Appendix A map also depicts the entire parcel boundary that is the proposed NRHP boundary for resources recommended eligible for the NRHP. Assessment of Project effects for NRHP-eligible resources took into account effects to each element of the resource that contributes to its

eligibility, including elements of the landscape within the entire parcel boundary when these contribute to qualities that constitute the resource’s significance.

West Virginia Historic Property Inventory forms were prepared for the resources identified in the APE (see Appendix C).

NRHP EVALUATION

Sufficient information was collected to make recommendations for each identified historic resource regarding eligibility for listing on the NRHP. According to 36 CFR 60.4 (Andrus and Shrimpton 2002), cultural resources eligible for listing on the NRHP are defined as buildings, structures, objects, sites, and districts that have “integrity” and that meet one or more of the criteria outlined below. Criterion D is typically relevant to archaeological sites.

Criterion A (Event). Association with one or more events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of national, state, or local history.

Criterion B (Person). Association with the lives of persons significant in the past.

Criterion C (Design/Construction). Embodiment of distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction; or representation of the work of a master; or possession of high artistic values; or representation of a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction.

Criterion D (Information Potential). Properties that yield, or are likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history. Criterion D is most often (but not exclusively) associated with archaeological resources. To be considered eligible under Criterion D, sites must be associated with specific or general patterns in the development of the region. Therefore, sites become significant when they are seen within the larger framework of local or regional development.

“Integrity” is perhaps the paramount qualification of NRHP eligibility, and can be related to any or all of the following (Andrus and Shrimpton 2002):

Location: the place where the historic property (or properties) was/were constructed or where the historic event(s) occurred;

Design: the combination of elements that create the form, plan, space, structure, and style of a property (or properties);

Setting: the physical environment of the historic property (or properties);

Materials: the physical elements that were combined to create the property (or properties) during the associated period of significance;

Workmanship: the physical evidence of the crafts of a particular culture or people during any given period in history or prehistory;

Feeling: the property’s (or properties’) expression of the aesthetic or historic sense of the period of significance; and

Association: the direct link between the important historic event(s) or person(s) and the historic property (or properties).

Ordinarily cemeteries, birthplaces, or graves of historical figures, properties owned by religious institutions or used for religious purposes, structures that have been moved from their original locations, reconstructed historic buildings, properties primarily commemorative in nature, and properties that have achieved significance within the past 50 years shall not be considered eligible for the NRHP (Andrus and Shrimpton 2002). However, such properties will qualify if they are integral parts of districts that do meet the criteria or if they fall within the following categories:

- Consideration A: A religious property deriving primary significance from architectural or artistic distinction or historical importance; or
- Consideration B: A building or structure removed from its original location, but which is significant primarily for architectural value, or which is the surviving structure most importantly associated with a historic person or event; or
- Consideration C: A birthplace or grave of a historical figure of outstanding importance if there is no appropriate site or building directly associated with his or her productive life; or
- Consideration D: A cemetery which derives its primary significance from graves of persons of transcendent importance, from age, from distinctive design features, or from association with historic events; or
- Consideration E: A reconstructed building when accurately executed in a suitable environment and presented in a dignified manner as part of a restoration master plan, and when no other building or structure with the same association has survived; or
- Consideration F: A property primarily commemorative in intent if design, age, tradition, or symbolic value has invested it with its own exceptional significance; or
- Consideration G: A property achieving significance within the past 50 years if it is of exceptional importance.

Each identified resource was evaluated in relation to these criteria and considerations.

HISTORIC CONTEXT

The Project crosses eastern and central West Virginia. The topography is primarily steep and mountainous, but a variety of land uses were observed along the route, including farming, cattle grazing, and timbering. The rugged character of the land affected the nature of settlement and land use through the historic period, from the earliest arrival of Europeans.

The Colonial Period

Following the establishment of the Virginia Company of London's colony at Jamestown in 1607, and William Penn's colony at Philadelphia in 1682, English settlement gradually proceeded westward through the seventeenth century. After 1650 explorers and traders moved inland from the Virginia Tidewater settlements to areas beyond the Fall Line, the front range of the Appalachian Piedmont rising above the Atlantic coastal plain that creates elevation changes, waterfalls and rapids, impeding river navigation (Briceland 2013). In Virginia, the colony's growth repeatedly resulted in conflict with Native Americans including the Algonquin Powhatan and Pamunkey confederacy; Siouan Monacan, Mannahoac, Saponi, Tutelo, and Occaneechi tribes; and Iroquoian Tuscarora, Nottaway, and Meherrin tribes (Josephy 1968:82; Utley and Washburn 2002:15–29). Penn and his agents in Pennsylvania were able to negotiate more peacefully with the Delaware (Leni Lenape) and Susquehannock tribes to purchase the land for the Philadelphia settlement (Forrest 1998).

The demand for beaver furs in Europe in the late sixteenth century led French traders in Canada and the Mississippi valley to establish firms that dealt exclusively in furs. In the seventeenth century, English traders entered the fur trade, establishing posts in New York. In 1670, the Hudson's Bay Company began operating from posts along the southern coast of Hudson Bay, creating competition between the French and English traders and their Native American suppliers (Carlos and Lewis 2008).

The Fur Trade or Beaver Wars (ca. 1630–1680) dramatically altered the distribution of Native American populations in the upper Ohio region (Johnson 2001). In 1654, the Iroquois defeated the Eries, who inhabited the extreme northwestern corner of Pennsylvania along the south shore of Lake Erie, opening the upper Ohio Valley to Iroquois war parties (Hunter 1954:338, 1979:588). The Iroquois sought rich hunting lands that still contained substantial beaver populations—highly desired in the fur trade and over-hunted in the east—and wanted to prevent those groups from trading directly with the French (Hunter 1979:590; Wallace 1986:100–102). Attacks against the Shawnee lasted from 1653 to 1656 and were unusually bloody. The Iroquois victory over the Shawnee owes in part to the fact that they possessed firearms. Subsequent attacks by the Iroquois effectively depopulated the region (Hunter 1954:338, 1979:588; Swanton 1984[1952]:33, 56, 231).

The Iroquois realized that the French wanted a monopoly in the fur trade, while the English wanted Native American lands. Because the Iroquois knew they were not strong enough to defeat either European power on their own, they adopted a strategy of playing the rivals against each other to maintain their own position (Wallace 1986:105). Despite being attacked by the French in 1687, the Seneca maintained their hold on western New York and Pennsylvania. Through a treaty with the British in 1701, the Iroquois established their policy toward Europeans for the rest of the eighteenth century: neutrality with the French and protection from the English so the Iroquois could serve as middlemen in the fur trade (Tooker 1979:432). The English colonies at the time viewed the Iroquois presence as an asset, for they were feared and

respected by neighboring Native American groups who might otherwise attack English settlements (Wallace 1986:106).

For a period of 70 years after the Iroquois' conquest of the Shawnee, the Ohio Valley (including present-day West Virginia, Indiana, lower Michigan, Ohio, Kentucky, and western Pennsylvania) was almost uninhabited. The historic tribes most closely associated with West Virginia are the Shawnee, Delaware, and Cherokee, as well as Iroquoian-speaking groups including the Seneca, Tuscarawas, Susquehannock, and Mingo. Non-resident Native Americans were present on a frequent but intermittent basis during the early historic period, using the region for hunting and travel and fiercely resisting its settlement by whites. At various times it was within the spheres of influence of the powerful Iroquois Confederation to the north, the Shawnees to the west, and the Cherokees to the south (Maslowski 2010). Freed from the pressure of its former human population, the Ohio country from the late seventeenth and into the eighteenth century became a prime hunting territory. Although the Iroquois prevented permanent settlements, small groups of Shawnee returned frequently to the Ohio Valley to hunt. Some of the scattered bands driven out of the upper Ohio Valley (including Shawnees) drifted back and established settlements in the eighteenth century (Abler and Tooker 1979:505; Hunter 1954:339). A network of trails criss-crossed the region, often following watersheds and highlands rather than the streams. Paths that were oriented east-west were generally used for trade, while north-south paths were used for war and raiding parties (Doherty 1984:36–37).

The discovery and mapping of these routes were a concern to Virginia's Lieutenant Governor Alexander Spotswood. A lieutenant colonel in the British Army, Spotswood received reports of French outposts being established in the American interior between French holdings in the Great Lakes and the Gulf of Mexico. He feared the possibility of hostile French or Native American attacks through recently-discovered passes in the Blue Ridge Mountains, which had been assumed to be a natural defensive barrier (Hofstra 2004:21). In 1716, Spotswood led an expedition of 63 "Knights of the Golden Horseshoe" from Williamsburg through the Rappahannock River valley, and crossed the Blue Ridge Mountains into the Shenandoah Valley (Strickler 1952:33). In 1721, Spotswood held talks with the Iroquois to bring an end to the Native American raids on Euroamerican settlements on Virginia's frontier. These talks resulted in the 1722 Treaty of Albany in which the Five Nations of the Iroquois recognized the Blue Ridge Mountains as the border between their lands and those of the Virginia Colony.

By the 1720s, a Native American path on the west side of the Blue Ridge, the "Warrior's Path," became the Great Wagon Road used by colonists in search of land to settle. The road stretched from Philadelphia, the leading immigration port of the North American colonies in the eighteenth century, to Roanoke through the Shenandoah Valley. The road crossed the Potomac at Williamsport, Maryland, into what is now the eastern panhandle of West Virginia. Among the early immigrants were Scottish families that had been resettled in Catholic Northern Ireland, who set up farms in Pennsylvania and Maryland. As land claims stretched westward, later immigrants set out for the backcountry frontier of Pennsylvania and Virginia (Mobley 2003). Together with Swiss, Welsh, and Dutch settlers, French Huguenots, and other religious dissenters, the Scots-Irish settlers followed frontiersmen and land speculators in search of affordable land, crossing Pennsylvania to the Great Valley of the Appalachians and southward into the drainages of the upper Potomac River at the beginning of the Shenandoah Valley (Hofstra 2011; Martin 2012). While some became tenants of Virginia's landed gentry, others exercised tomahawk rights (referring to slashes thus made on trees at boundary points), corn rights (planting and cultivating a crop of corn on the land), or settlement rights (clearing land, building a dwelling or "seat," and living on the improved land) to stake claims on attractive tracts

of vacant land (Doherty 1984:54; Williams 2001:10). Initially locating near the Great Wagon Road, some “scattered for the Benefit of the best Lands,” forming open-country neighborhoods along waterways. With farmsteads enclosing about 300 acres of small fields with access to springs and water courses, they raised small grains, including wheat and rye, as well as cattle, pigs, and horses, directly contrasting with the tobacco-centered plantations of Virginia’s Tidewater and Piedmont regions (Hofstra 2004:38, 2011).

In Virginia, support for the British occupation of the backcountry began with a series of land orders totaling close to 400,000 acres west of the Blue Ridge, issued by Lieutenant Governor William Gooch between 1730 and 1732. These grants mandated that one settler family be recruited for every 1,000 acres within two years as a condition of receiving the land patents. By 1735, there were as many as 160 families in the region, and within ten years nearly 10,000 Europeans lived in the Shenandoah Valley (Hofstra 2011). Many of the new settlers were Scots-Irish immigrants. This part of the Shenandoah Valley became known as “The Irish Tract” when Augusta County was created in 1738, with the county’s boundaries extending to the “utmost limits of Virginia” and including West Virginia, Kentucky, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and part of present-day Pennsylvania (Augusta County, Virginia 2007; Hofstra 2004:40–41). Later Scots-Irish and German settlers moved westward along water courses into the Allegheny Mountains (Morten 1911:62). Native American trails through the Alleghenies followed the Little Kanawha, Elk, Gauley, and Williams rivers to the Ohio Country. Euroamerican immigrants continued to use Native American trails, and many evolved into key routes in the modern highway system (Sharp 1981:14).

The colony of Virginia utilized similar settlement policies for land west of the Alleghenies as had been used for the Shenandoah Valley (Rice and Brown 2014). Grants were made to land speculation companies such as the Greenbrier Company, which was granted 100,000 acres in 1745 in the Greenbrier Valley of present-day Pocahontas and Greenbrier counties. Robert, John, and William Lewis, sons of early Augusta County settler John Lewis, were among the members of the Greenbrier Company (Bailey 2013). When their brother, Andrew Lewis, prepared a survey of the Greenbrier Company grant in present-day Pocahontas County in 1751, he found Jacob Marlin and Stephen Sewell, who had come from Maryland in 1749, already living at the current site of Marlinton, which became the first British-American settlement west of the Alleghenies (Pocahontas County Historical Society 1981:73; Pocahontas County, West Virginia 2013). Euro-Americans had also settled by 1754 in the Tygart River Valley, near Beverly in present-day Randolph County, but the Files and Tygart families were attacked by Native Americans during the French and Indian War.

The arrival of British settlers west of the mountains precipitated serious conflicts over territorial claims between Britain, France, and Native Americans (Doherty 1984:47; Rice and Brown 2014). During King George’s War in the 1740s, Native Americans fought with the French against the British colonies, primarily in New York and Massachusetts. As a result of the British Navy’s wartime operations, French traders had few trade goods to exchange with or to gift to the Native Americans (Ross 1938:419). The greater quantity of trade goods offered by English traders at this time persuaded some tribes to ally themselves with Britain instead of France (Providence Plantation Foundation 2014a).

The boundary between Virginia and Pennsylvania was not definitively established until 1779. The disputed region in the upper Ohio Valley and the area known as the Forks of the Ohio (currently the location of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania), which also was inhabited by Native

Americans and claimed by the French, became the flashpoint for the French and Indian War (Fort Edwards Foundation 2000; Heinemann et al. 2007:92).

Virginia was making land grants in the upper Ohio Valley, including a 1749 grant for 200,000 acres to the Ohio Company of Virginia, with another 300,000 acres to be granted once they had built a fort and settled 100 families in the grant. The land was located in the Ohio Valley between the Kanawha and Monongahela Rivers (Heinemann et al. 2007:94; Hofstra 2004:240; Thayer 1921:250). The Ohio Company sent surveyor Christopher Gist to map the land grant, and over two winters, Gist traveled from the headwaters of the Ohio River (near present-day Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania) to the Falls of the Ohio (near present-day Louisville, Kentucky), and then through much of West Virginia (Ohio History Central 2015a).

In 1752, the governor general of New France acted to ensure the territorial integrity of the French empire in North America, to drive the British merchants out of the Ohio Valley, and to re-establish peace with the Native American tribes (Côté 2015). In 1753, he sent an expedition of 1,000 men to build a chain of forts between Lake Erie and the Forks of the Ohio during the summer. When Virginia's Lieutenant Governor Robert Dinwiddie learned of the forts' construction, he received direction from London to take whatever action was necessary to protect British possessions in North America while avoiding offensive actions that could provoke open warfare. When the French refused Dinwiddie's order to withdraw from the Ohio Country, the governor ordered a Virginia regiment under Colonel Joshua Fry, with George Washington as second in command, to garrison Fort Prince George on the Ohio River at the site modern-day Pittsburgh (Ferling 1998:198; National Park Service 2002 [1954]; Ockershausen 1996; Heinemann et al. 2007:94–95). The French meanwhile had constructed their own fort at Pittsburgh, which they named Fort Duquesne. The French met the Virginia regiment en route and defeated them, forcing them to return to Virginia. A second effort to oust the French in 1755 also ended in failure, and settlements on the Virginia frontier were subsequently subjected to sporadic attacks by Native American warriors of tribes allied with the French (Heinemann et al. 2007:95–96; National Park Service 2002 [1954]; Ockershausen 1996).

While some of the frontier settlers fled eastward, numerous forts, stockades, and blockhouses were built as protection (Cook 1940; Manarin 2010). After Washington had been commissioned as a colonel and given command of the provincial army, he located his headquarters at Winchester in Frederick County, where Fort Loudoun was built in 1756. Washington urged Virginia's Lieutenant Governor Dinwiddie to make alliances with Native American tribes to the south, and in 1756, Dinwiddie obtained the support of the Catawbas and Cherokees, with four hundred warriors camped near Winchester. The new forces enabled Virginia officers to lead their raiding parties against hostile tribes (Hofstra 2004:244–245). A 1758 treaty conference at Easton, Pennsylvania, sought to redress the natives' grievances and issued a proclamation prohibiting the movement of British settlers west of the mountains without special authorization (Utlely and Washburn 2002:86). Also in 1758, a British army under General John Forbes arrived in the colonies, and together with the provincial army units, crossed Pennsylvania to the Ohio Country (Ferling 1998:203–204). Forbes made peace with the Iroquois, Shawnee, and Delaware warriors, ending their support for the French (Potts and Thomas 2006:13). Besieged by the British and deserted by their Native American allies, and with the fort deteriorating, French forces abandoned and burned Fort Duquesne in November 1758 (McGrath 2015).

British engagements against the French in the Ohio Country were largely over by 1760. But by the time of the 1763 Treaty of Paris ending the French and Indian War, a new type of Native American conflict developed on Virginia's western frontier (Twohig 1998:17). At the conclusion

of their service supporting British General Forbes, Cherokee warriors felt slighted by their limited compensation. As the warriors returned southward, Euroamerican settlers did not distinguish between them and the Shawnees that had been attacking in Augusta County, and turned on the Cherokees. Also at this time, Euroamericans in South Carolina executed some Native American hostages, and a period of conflict known as the Cherokee War ensued, ranging from Virginia to Georgia until the 1761 Treaty of Long Island in Virginia and the 1762 Treaty of Charleston in South Carolina (Heinemann et al. 2007:99).

The smaller scale border warfare between settlers, colonial and state troops, and Native Americans continued intermittently in Virginia's frontier areas until the 1794 Battle of Fallen Timbers and the 1795 Treaty of Greenville (Cook 1940; Potts and Thomas 2006:14–15; Utley and Washburn 2002:115).

Recognizing that it lacked the resources to control the vast interior, England's Proclamation of 1763 established the ridge of the Appalachian Mountains as a boundary between its North American colonial domain and Native American territory, restricting settlement to areas in the east and imposing regulations to control abuse of trade with the Native Americans. However, Euroamerican settlers were already living west of the Proclamation Line, and in Virginia, individuals and gentry speculators had been anticipating land grants west of the Appalachians. Grievances among the settlers, and perceptions that government policies were favoring the Native Americans and restricting settlers' opportunities, encouraged acts of vigilantism (Providence Plantation Foundation 2014a). At the Treaty of Fort Stanwix in 1768, the Iroquois granted 2.5 million acres east and south of the Ohio River (known as the Indiana Grant) to Britain. However, the Native Americans living in the Ohio Country—which included Delaware, Seneca, and Shawnee tribes—were not parties to this agreement (Ohio History Central 2015a; Potts and Thomas 2006:16). Nevertheless, beginning in 1769, waves of settlers swept into the upper Ohio, Monongahela, Greenbrier, and Kanawha valleys. By the early 1770s, Euroamericans had crossed the Proclamation Line and were establishing settlements across present-day West Virginia and Kentucky (Rice and Brown 2014; Utley and Washburn 2002:102). By 1772, settlers had claimed much of the prime valley land, and the Euroamerican settlement of the project region had begun (Davis 2013; Rice 2013; Tenney 2013).

Colonial period conflicts in present-day West Virginia derived from rampant land speculation and overlapping, vaguely worded colonial charters for the territory surrounding the Monongahela Valley. In 1772, the new governor of Virginia, Scottish native John Murray awarded bounty land grants to men who performed military service in the French and Indian War, offering to patent 200,000 acres on behalf of the soldiers. Some of the bounty land overlapped that previously granted by former Governor Dinwiddie and surveyed by George Washington for the Virginia Regiment. Meanwhile, the Walpole Company had received approval from the Board of Trade to create a new western colony to be called Vandalia, embracing 20 million acres on the east side of the Ohio River in present-day West Virginia (Providence Plantation Foundation 2014b; Utley and Washburn 2002:102; Davis 2013).

In an effort to extend Virginia's influence to the forks of the Ohio, Governor Dunmore created the District of West Augusta in 1774 from the northwestern section of Augusta County, which included portions of present-day West Virginia, Ohio, and Pennsylvania. Dunmore moved the seat of Augusta County's government from Staunton to Fort Pitt. He incited war with the Shawnee in an effort to distract attention away from the growing discontent among western settlers regarding uncertain land titles and ineffective government. The ploy was partially successful, as his victory in "Lord Dunmore's War" secured the east side of the Ohio from the

Shawnee and won him praise among Virginia's elite. In 1776, the territory of West Augusta petitioned the Continental Congress seeking to become a new state called Westsylvania. However, Virginia's and Pennsylvania's representatives did not support this change, and the Continental Congress lacked the authority to create a new state. The District of West Augusta was thus divided into Ohio, Monongalia, and Yohogania counties (Providence Plantation Foundation 2014b; Forbes 2010).

Discontent with British rule was not confined to the western settlements, however. The taxes imposed on the colonies to pay for the French and Indian War chafed the Virginia House of Burgesses, which sent addresses to the King and Parliament stating that they, and not Parliament, had the right to tax and manage their internal affairs (Heinemann et al. 2007:105–106). The Crown only tightened its grip, however, and following a series of protests and skirmishes between colonial militia and British regulars, the Continental army was established at the Second Continental Congress in 1775.

West Virginia in the American Nation

At the onset of the Revolutionary War, a substantial percentage of Virginians remained loyal to Britain, including conservative members of the gentry and Scottish businessmen in Norfolk, whose position as middlemen depended on the English mercantile system. Others remained loyal from principle, believing that small losses of personal liberty were of less value than security of the British empire, fearing the chaos and mob rule that could result from Britain's absence (Heinemann et al. 2007:129). West of the Blue Ridge Mountains and along the frontier, the population was largely self-sufficient, with few economic ties to England, as the cost for transportation of crops over the mountains to the Tidewater was prohibitive. Nevertheless, some areas of the backcountry were loyal to the King. The western settlers also had reasons to rebel against the Tidewater gentry who had dominated the colony, levying taxes on their products and ordering the construction of roads, but not fully representing the concerns of the western portion of the state (Grymes 2014a).

No major Revolutionary War battles took place in West Virginia, but during the war both the British and the Continental armies made overtures to the Native Americans, particularly to the Six Nations of the Iroquois, resulting in the breakup of the Iroquois League. The Mohawks, Cayugas, Senecas, and Onondagas fought on the side of the British, while the Oneidas and Tuscaroras fought for the Continental army—sometimes fighting against other Iroquois tribes. Native Americans allied with the British made raids on settlers in the Monongahela and Ohio River valleys, as well as the Tygart Valley in Randolph County (Rice 1987:11). In 1778, George Rogers Clark was appointed a Lieutenant Colonel and authorized by the Virginia legislature to raise seven militia companies for a campaign against British forts on the western frontier and to conduct retaliatory raids against Native Americans in the Ohio and Indiana Country. Clark called a conference of Ho-chunk, Sauk, Mesquakie, Potawatomi, and Miami tribes near Kaskaskia along the Mississippi River in Illinois and won their allegiance from the British (Potts and Thomas 2006:27).

As part of the development of the former British colonies' Articles of Confederation, in 1781 Virginia ceded to the new United States all of its territory north of the Ohio River, while retaining its rights to the area including present-day Virginia, West Virginia, and Kentucky (Heinemann et al. 2007:133). Although some Native American tribes had fought with the Continental and militia forces during the Revolutionary War, the new United States government subsequently presumed the Native Americans were defeated and did not view their councils or nations as

equals to be treated with respect and fairness (Utley and Washburn 2002:112). Native American attacks on isolated Euroamerican settlements continued in western Virginia. Bush's Fort, built near Buckhannon for settlers in Upshur County, was destroyed by Native Americans in 1782 (Cook 1940; Tenney 2013). Noah Hadden and his brothers built a fort in 1785 near the mouth of the Elkwater River in Randolph County, after Native Americans killed their parents in 1781 (Brent and Lesser 2010; Ragland 2007:108). Fort Curran (also known as Fort Cassino) was built at Crickard (present-day Mill Creek) near Huttonsville in the 1770s (Rice 1987:5). In 1792, Shawnees killed members of John Waggoner's family at Jane Lew in Lewis County, and in 1795, Shawnees also killed members of the Bozarth family in present-day Upshur County (Beckley Post-Herald 1962; Marple 1923).

U.S. military expeditions in 1790 and 1791, led by inexperienced commanders, against Native American tribes in present-day Ohio and Indiana failed. In August 1794, U.S. soldiers led by Anthony Wayne defeated a coalition of Miami, Shawnee, Potawatomi, and Ojibwe tribes at the Battle of Fallen Timbers near present-day Toledo, Ohio. The 1795 Treaty of Greenville was signed by representatives of the Miami, Wyandot, Shawnee, Delaware, and other tribes, agreeing to remove from the northwestern part of the present-day Ohio. This effectively ended direct Native American-European conflict in what was to become West Virginia (Ohio History Central 2015b).

During the Revolutionary War, agricultural products from the Shenandoah Valley area were in high demand to help supply the army's needs, including wheat, beef, and hemp for cordage. At the same time, the market for tobacco collapsed, affecting growers in the eastern part of the state most severely. In the years that followed, the prices for commodities and hemp dropped, and tobacco crops grown across the state were largely used to pay taxes. The imposition of new state taxes was a hardship for backcountry merchants, who had to pay a levy on their merchandise stock, as well as import duties on goods brought from Philadelphia or Baltimore. Farmers in the western counties were also allowed to pay their taxes in flour, hemp, or deerskins (Heinemann et al. 2007:140). During this period, land available in the trans-Appalachian West led many with few resources to pursue this opportunity. Between 1783 and 1790, the population of Kentucky County expanded from 12,000 to more than 73,000. As settlers flooded into the area, Harrison County was divided from Monongalia County in 1784, with the community of Clarksburg as its county seat, and in 1787 Randolph County was created from Harrison County (Davis 1995; Rice 2013).

The ceding of all the tribes' eastern, central, and southern land in Ohio conveyed a sense of peace and security to settlers in the Kentucky County of Virginia, which became the fifteenth state in 1792. While the U.S. population grew by 35 percent in the 1790s, the number of people in Kentucky and Tennessee doubled during that time. Virginians were strongly represented among those eager to invest in western land, in a movement described as "Kentucky fever" (Hutchinson 2000). This outmigration from Virginia relieved some of the pressure on land development, easing conditions for those who remained (Hofstra 2004:284).

Until nearly the end of the nineteenth century, when large-scale industry became important, most West Virginians depended upon subsistence farming for their livelihood. Families continued to rely upon their fields and the forests for products commonly used in foods, shelter, and clothing. Early industries, including grain milling and textile manufacturing, were often farm-related (Rice and Brown 2014). Farms in the Shenandoah Valley produced rye, oats, barley, corn, flax, hemp, and tobacco, but the emphasis was on wheat, with four million pounds of flour being produced annually in 1790, and more than two and a half times that amount by 1800

(Hofstra 2004:288–289). The increasing settlement west of the Alleghany Mountains also increased the demand for road construction and maintenance between the western part of Virginia and markets at Tidewater ports (Pawlett 2003).

Some farmers west of the Appalachian Mountains looked to the Mississippi River and Spanish-controlled New Orleans at its mouth on the Gulf of Mexico as an alternative connection to world markets. France had ceded control of Louisiana to Spain in 1762 at the end of the Seven Years War. Spain quietly supported the American colonists during the Revolution, sending supplies upstream to Washington’s army from New Orleans via the Mississippi and Ohio rivers. After the war, Spain and the United States quarreled over a number of issues related to boundaries and navigation rights along the Mississippi River. To settle these issues, the U.S. negotiated the 1795 Treaty of San Lorenzo, obtaining from Spain (among other things) the right for its citizens to ship goods on the Mississippi River and store them in New Orleans (Cummins 2008:93). After the French Revolution, Napoleon negotiated to regain Louisiana from Spain in 1800. France then revoked American shipping rights through New Orleans (Richard 2003:21). The economic hardship posed by the lack of shipping access from the west, and the risk of losing the allegiance of the new western states and territories was sufficiently critical for President Thomas Jefferson to send commissioners to France to negotiate for the purchase of New Orleans. In response, the French minister conveyed Napoleon’s proposal that the U.S. purchase the entire Louisiana territory. The offer was quickly accepted and was ratified by the U.S. Congress in 1803 (Independence Hall Association 2014; Monticello 2015; Turner 1904).

The Virginia General Assembly passed a bill in 1782 for a general survey of roads between the Blue Ridge Mountains and various port towns, but without funding to accomplish it (Pawlett 2003). In 1806, a privately-owned turnpike was built over the Thornton’s Gap pass through the Blue Ridge Mountains between the Valley and Piedmont Virginia (Dickey et al 2003:40). After the federally-funded National Road was authorized in 1806 to connect eastern markets with the westward-flowing waters of the Ohio River, the Virginia Board of Public Works was created in 1816 to administer the funding of internal improvement projects and oversee the technical and financial aspects of their implementation (McKee 2003; Peyton 2013). Completed in 1821, the National Road’s route was similar to the military road built for General Braddock’s 1755 campaign, and reached from Cumberland, Maryland to Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, and continued to Wheeling on the Ohio River (National Park Service 2002 [1954]). Wheeling’s strategic position at the confluence of river and road led to its rapid growth as a major inland port for goods and passengers traveling between the Tidewater and eastern cities, and the western territory. In 1831, Wheeling was declared an inland port of entry, and a U.S. custom house was built in 1859 (Brennan 2013). A river ferry connected Wheeling with Zane’s Trace, an important post road opened in 1796 across southern Ohio to Limestone (present-day Maysville), Kentucky, establishing Wheeling as an early commercial center for western pioneers (Brennan 2013; Peyton 2013).

In counties that relied on self-sustaining agriculture, primitive roads had limited trade. In Harrison (and later Upshur) County, Jacob Lorentz brought the stock for the first store in the county on pack horses from Richmond and Baltimore (Marple 1923). The construction of turnpikes in western Virginia in the 1820s and 1830s improved business, development, and communication, including the Staunton and Parkersburg Turnpike between the Shenandoah Valley and the Ohio River (followed by present-day Route 250). Begun in 1838 in competition with the National Road, the Staunton and Parkersburg Turnpike’s construction was placed under the authority of a state board of directors, and delays resulted as the route came under the supervision of each county it crossed (Staunton-Parkersburg Turnpike Alliance 2014; Sturm

2010a). The turnpike reached Lorentz in present-day Upshur County by 1844 and Parkersburg in 1847, with the last bridges completed in 1850 (Marple 1923; Young 1975). Recent immigrants from Ireland were among the workers who came to central West Virginia during the turnpike's construction, and some settled along its route (Rice 1987:127). Other turnpikes built in present-day Upshur County included the Philippi and Buckhannon, the Clarksburg and Buckhannon, and the Buckhannon and Little Kanawha (Cutright 1977:322). Lewis County became an important commercial and political center, and the town of Jane Lew was established in the 1840s (Gilchrist-Stalnaker 2013). The Northwestern Virginia Turnpike between Winchester and Parkersburg, which rivaled the Staunton and Parkersburg road for access to the Ohio River, was completed in 1840 and connected with Baltimore. Its route was later followed by the lines of the Baltimore & Ohio and Northwestern Virginia railroads (Sturm 2010b).

Keelboats were operated on the Ohio River from the 1780s until about the beginning of the Civil War, and were used by immigrant families and to ship Ohio Valley products. In 1811, the first steamboat on the inland rivers, the *New Orleans*, was launched on the Ohio River at Pittsburgh. By the 1830s, there were 450 steam-driven sidewheel and sternwheel boats operating on the Ohio River and its tributaries. Extensive navigation improvements to the rivers began during this period, and steamboats were the major mode of river transportation within the Mississippi River basin until after the Civil War, and competed successfully with railroads until the 1920s (Sutphin 2010).

By the late 1820s, steam-powered locomotives were in use in the U.S., beginning in Pennsylvania (American Rails 2015). Chartered in 1827, The Baltimore and Ohio Railroad (B&O) changed the face of West Virginia forever. Conceived of as an alternate route to Ohio, the B&O was designed to compete with the westward expanding New York Erie Canal and Pennsylvania's canal system. The B&O began passenger and freight operation in 1830, making it the first common carrier railroad in the country. Proving to be an initial success, the line was completed from Baltimore to Harpers Ferry by 1834, to Cumberland by 1842, and finally to Wheeling in 1852. Though the line's revenue came from passenger service, the opening of coal mines in Cumberland during the middle of the nineteenth century allowed coal traffic to Baltimore to become the line's leading source of income. So coveted were the B&O's rail services in Western Virginia that in 1851, the Virginia legislature approved a charter for a railroad to run from the B&O main line near the mouth of Three Fork Creek in Taylor County to Parkersburg (Frey 2010). Operation of the Northwestern Virginia Railroad began in May of 1857, featuring a 104-mile track that ran from Grafton, through Clarksburg, and into Parkersburg. This new line was eventually absorbed by the B&O in 1865, and renamed "The Parkersburg Branch" (Grymes 2014b; Larson 2001:72).

The Louisa Railroad, which began in 1836, extended west to Staunton in 1854, and together with the turnpikes, enabled Staunton to develop as the largest town in the upper Shenandoah Valley as well as a transportation and industrial center. This line became the Virginia Central Railroad. In 1853, Virginia chartered the Covington & Ohio Railroad to connect the rail line of the Virginia Central at Staunton and the James River & Kanawha Canal at Covington with the Ohio River, but its construction was interrupted by the Civil War (Brown 1985; Grymes 2014b).

The production of coal needed to fuel expanding industry began in West Virginia at the end of the eighteenth century. Salt was an important commodity from the establishment of Britain's North American colonies through Independence (Stealey 2010a). Native Americans produced salt from salt springs along the Kanawha River, and Euroamerican production began in 1794 at

the Kanawha Salines (present-day Malden in Kanawha County) and later near Wheeling (Harlan 1971; Lewis 2012). Coal was mined to fire the salt evaporation furnaces. The Kanawha Valley salt industry over-expanded during the boom years surrounding the War of 1812. As a result, salt prices fell below manufacturing and distribution costs, causing salt companies to fail (Stealey 2010b). Although the salt industry began to decline after the middle of the nineteenth century, the demand for coal continued for other uses, including the production of coal oil for lighting (Lewis 2012). Coal for local use was also mined near the Staunton and Parkersburg Turnpike at Rich Mountain in Randolph County prior to the Civil War, using quicklime to fracture coal from the coal face (Rice 1987:97). Virginia led Pennsylvania in coal production until 1828. West Virginia's extensive coal deposits were noted in the 1835 *New and Comprehensive Gazetteer of Virginia*, with an early focus on coal banks, as the coal veins near the surface were described (Anderson 1995:67). By the 1840s, the coal mining output in the Allegheny region was greater than in the eastern part of the state (Heinemann et al. 2007:203–204). Drilling for crude oil and natural gas, sometimes as a by-product of wells for salt production, also developed from Pennsylvania to Kentucky in the first half of the nineteenth century (McElwee et al. 2015).

The development of improved transportation brought new settlers to western Virginia. As the population increased, Lewis County was created in 1816 from Harrison County. Pocahontas County was formed in 1821 from Bath County (as well as land from Randolph and Pendleton counties), with the trading center of Huntersville as its county seat (Harding 1978). A low percentage of enslaved persons remained in the western part of Virginia, many having been brought by plantation owners between 1768 and 1810 when the owners moved westward after tobacco cultivation depleted their lands in Tidewater and Piedmont Virginia. Slaveholders were predominantly in four Western Virginia valleys: Shenandoah, South Branch, Greenbrier, and in Kanawha County, where enslaved labor was used in the Kanawha Salines salt mines and tobacco plantations (Williams 2001:49). The spas at the mineral springs often relied on slave labor as well. Small farmers throughout the Trans-Allegheny region often worked beside their enslaved workers on farms, in craft occupations, service enterprises, or small manufacturing operations (Stealey 2010c).

The Civil War and Statehood

Slavery became a focus of increasingly contentious national debate in the first half of the nineteenth century. As western territories were organized toward statehood, tension arose over achieving a balance between the number of slave and free states represented in the U.S. Senate. In 1819, the admission of Missouri, a slave state, was opposed until Maine was admitted as a free state, restoring the balance. Additional legislative machinations and hard-fought compromises maintained the union and the peace for forty more years; but by the 1850s, hardliners on both sides of the issue increasingly pushed for a final solution.

In 1859, abolitionist firebrand John Brown, with two of his sons and a force of black and white men, attacked the federal armory at Harper's Ferry, at the easternmost point of present-day West Virginia. They intended to seize the arms and incite enslaved and free blacks to form an army that would force slaveholders to emancipate their slaves. Brown was captured in the unsuccessful raid and tried, convicted, and hanged for murder, conspiracy to incite a slave uprising, and treason against the Commonwealth of Virginia (Heinemann et al. 2007:215–216; Williams 2001:36). For northern abolitionists, the raid and John Brown's impassioned defense of his actions during his trial served as another push away from measured, rational debate over the issue and toward direct action to end slavery. For slave owners and their supporters,

Brown's acts heightened long-standing fears of widespread and coordinated slave insurrections and confirmed to them the growing militancy of those opposed to the institution (World History Group 2015).

Following the election of Abraham Lincoln and the secession of South Carolina from the Union, delegates from the other slave states, including Virginia, called state Secession Conventions in early 1861. The majority of the delegates at Virginia's convention favored remaining in the Union on the condition that Lincoln forswore any coercion of the seceded states. The bombardment of Fort Sumter on April 12, 1861, and Lincoln's subsequent call for troops to suppress the rebellion quickly led to a vote by convention delegates for Virginia to secede. A number of convention delegates from the western counties voted against secession. The Virginia militia soon seized the arsenal at Harper's Ferry, and the government of the Confederate States moved its capital to Richmond in late May of 1861 (Heinemann et al. 2007:223–224).

Western Virginia residents were divided in their allegiance to the Union and Confederate causes, with the majority supporting the Union. After the 1861 Virginia Convention in Richmond called for Virginia's secession, several delegates from its northwestern counties who supported remaining in the Union met in Clarksburg to denounce secession and to call for a division of the state. At a second convention called in Wheeling in June 1861, leaders formed a "Reorganized Government of Virginia," with its capital at Wheeling. This "rump legislature," loyal to the Union, re-established government functions at the state, county, and local level, while the previously-elected office-holders from opposing factions fought one another for control of county and local governmental units, causing anarchy in much of western Virginia. Francis H. Pierpont was elected governor of the Reorganized Government of Virginia on June 20, 1861. He called on President Abraham Lincoln for military aid. The newly elected general assembly immediately began the re-establishment of governmental functions, provided for the raising of military units for federal service, and elected new U.S. senators and representatives to represent Virginia in Washington. Pierpont was re-elected governor in 1862, and moved the Reorganized Government to Alexandria, Virginia, where it continued to govern those parts of Virginia under Union control (Bailey 2014; Williams 2001:75–76).

The establishment of the Reorganized Government of Virginia provided the legal context for the division (or dismemberment) of a portion of Virginia to create a new state. A constitutional convention was called to create a government for the proposed new state, and in April 1862 its constitution was ratified by voters in those counties where federal troops were in control. In 1863 the Willey Amendment to this constitution adopted a scheme for the gradual emancipation of the enslaved. Governor Pierpont then called on the legislature of the Reorganized Government to agree to the formation of West Virginia from the state of Virginia, which was finally approved by President Lincoln, with a new governor and legislature taking office on June 20, 1863. The original proposal for a new state—to be called Kanawha—included thirty-nine counties of northwestern Virginia. Its name was changed to West Virginia, and the constitutional convention added 11 more counties, including those of the Eastern Panhandle, in recognition of the importance of the B&O Railroad for communication and trade, (Bailey 2014; Williams 2001:76–78).

Most of the sizeable military engagements in present-day West Virginia during the Civil War took place within its eastern counties, in particular during the Shenandoah Valley campaigns of 1862 and 1864. The recently-completed turnpikes and rail lines across the western part of Virginia were of strategic importance to both the Union and Confederate armies. Control of the

B&O Railroad for the movement of troops and supplies made Grafton in Taylor County a strategic point during the early stages of the Civil War. In May 1861, Confederate forces burned the B&O Railroad bridges west of Grafton, cutting the main railroad line from the west to Washington D.C. In response, the Union sent Federal troops under General George B. McClellan to western Virginia to defend the line and other transportation routes from further Confederate attacks (Brent and Lesser 2010). Grafton's residents were divided in their allegiance to the Union and Confederate causes, with the majority supporting the Union. After Union victories at Rich Mountain (near present-day Beverly) in Randolph County and Corricks Ford in Tucker County, units of the opposing armies skirmished in the Town of Fetterman (now a part of Grafton). Confederate forces were pushed south of Grafton to Philippi, in Barbour County, where Union forces cut off the Confederates' retreat. McClellan established his headquarters at Huttonsville in Randolph County, which were taken over by General Joseph J. Reynolds in command of the First Brigade, Army of Occupation after McClellan's transfer to command the Army of the Potomac (Brent and Lesser 2010; Dilger 2015)

In July 1861, Union forces began construction of Cheat Summit Fort (also known as Fort Milroy) on Cheat Mountain south of Huttonsville, as well as Fort Marrow at Camp Elkwater on the Tygart River Valley floor, commanding the Huttonsville and Huntersville Turnpike (present-day Route 219, south of Huttonsville) leading to the Virginia Central Railroad line. The Cheat Summit Fort was located on the route of the Staunton-Parkersburg Turnpike, guarding the entrance to the Tygart River Valley to the west and barring attempts by the Confederates to cut the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad (Wearmouth and Elliott 2002). Confederate forces attacked the Cheat Summit Fort in September 1861, approaching through the wilderness from the west. Unable to capture the Cheat Summit Fort, however, the Confederates withdrew. Some of Lee's cavalry then skirmished with Union troops south of Fort Marrow, but were unable to assault Camp Elkwater and withdrew. After wintering at Fort Marrow, Union forces mostly abandoned it by April 1862 (Brent and Lesser 2010).

In October 1861, Union forces from Cheat Summit Fort and Camp Elkwater marched on Confederate Camp Bartow, about 12 miles east along the Staunton-Parkersburg Turnpike at present-day Bartow in Pocahontas County. The engagement, known as the Battle of Greenbrier River, was indecisive and the Federal troops withdrew. However, the Confederate commanders lost confidence in the ability of Camp Bartow to withstand a determined Federal assault and abandoned it, moving to winter quarters at Camp Allegheny, a Confederate stronghold about 9 miles further southeast on the Staunton-Parkersburg pike (in present-day Pocahontas County). Federal forces attacked Camp Allegheny in December 1861, but the Confederates retained control of the fort. The Union troops withdrew to winter quarters at the Cheat Summit Fort, remaining until April 1862 (National Park Service 2014; Wearmouth and Elliott 2002).

During July and August 1861, Union troops passed through Weston in Lewis County, which was occupied by Confederate cavalry during November and December (Borchart 1967:31). Skirmishes continued in the region throughout the war. During the Confederate Jenkins Raid in August and September 1862, approximately 550 Confederate troops under the command of General Albert G. Jenkins rode into the Tygart Valley, skirmishing briefly with Federal forces near Huttonsville, before moving on to the outskirts of Buckhannon in Upshur County, where they engaged about 200 Union troops near Water Tank Hill (Tenney 2013). Confederate troops routed Union forces, and Confederate raiders attacked and occupied Buckhannon, where they captured a quantity of small arms and a vast supply of ordnance, stores and clothing. The following day Jenkins's men continued on and occupied Weston (Dilger 2015; McKinney 2013). In April 1863, Confederate troops recaptured Buckhannon during the Jones-Imboden Raid, after

riding from Staunton and through Beverly toward Weston, where they burned oil wells, tanks, and oil boats (Dilger 2015; Swick 2014).

The Emergence of a Modern West Virginia

West Virginia was profoundly affected by the problems and tensions of Reconstruction. At the end of the Civil War, West Virginia Governor Arthur Boreman and Radical Republican leaders who dominated the legislature were determined to prevent former Confederates from regaining political power. Repressive legislation provided for the confiscation of property of persons regarded as enemies of the state. The Radical-dominated legislature also enacted the Voters' Test Oaths of 1865 and the Voters' Registration Law of 1866. These measures restricted the right to vote and required state and local officials, as well as attorneys and school teachers, to take oaths of allegiance to West Virginia and the United States. By the end of the 1860s, the anomaly of these stern proscriptions at a time when the federal government assiduously protected the voting rights of African-Americans led to calls for change. In 1871, moderate Republicans joined with Democrats to pass the Flick Amendment to the state constitution, which ended political restrictions on ex-Confederates in West Virginia (Rice and Brown 2014).

In 1863, Lewis County resumed construction on the State Hospital at Weston, which was completed in 1880. It provided employment and income for local workers and businesses, making Lewis one of the most prosperous counties in West Virginia, and until the beginning of World War I, the hospital was the largest single item in the state budget (Borchart 1967:34; Gilchrist-Stalnaker 2013).

In 1867 West Virginia University was founded at Morgantown. It was one of the federal land-grant institutions created under the 1862 Morrill Act, which provided funds from the sale of federal land to support colleges that focused on agriculture and the mechanical arts (engineering) in every state (Library of Congress 2015). Agriculture in West Virginia recovered quickly after the Civil War, with counties in the center of the state sustaining less damage than battlefield areas. Sheep ranching for wool was more profitable than cattle raising at the time, and a woolen mill was built in Weston (Borchart 1967:34). By 1900, West Virginia had 93,000 farms, but the state was on the threshold of major economic and demographic changes. Its rich resources and emerging extractive industries caught the attention of powerful business and financial interests outside the state, and many investors acquired large amounts of land for a small fraction of its real worth. In some cases, state businessmen and politicians became allies of powerful non-resident interests (Rice and Brown 2014).

In 1868 the Virginia Central and Covington & Ohio railroads were consolidated as the Chesapeake & Ohio Railroad (C&O), under railroad magnate Collis P. Huntington, who planned to make the C&O the eastern part of a transcontinental line. The line was completed to the Ohio River at the newly created town of Huntington in 1873 (Chesapeake and Ohio Historical Society n.d). In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, the C&O constructed spur lines to the major coal fields of southeastern West Virginia, providing the bulk of the railroad's freight (Chesapeake and Ohio Historical Society n.d). Branch lines were also constructed to access to timber stands in the remote areas of the Allegheny Mountains. One such branch line was the Greenbrier Division, which followed the Greenbrier River from the main line at Whitcomb in Greenbrier County through Pocahontas to its northern terminus at Winterburn Station in the northeast corner of the county. At Durbin it connected with a branch of the Western Maryland Railway from Elkins (WVRailroads.net 2012). The planned route of the line is shown on maps as early as 1877, and Clover Lick was in existence by that time (Gray 1877). However, the

Greenbrier Division of the C&O Railroad was not constructed until 1901. At that time, the line reached from White Sulphur Springs to Durbin (Rand McNally and Company 1901). The rail line contributed greatly to the development of the Greenbrier Valley, with numerous stations on the line becoming small villages. Sawmills supplying the West Virginia Pulp and Paper mill at Covington, Virginia were constructed along the line, including a large mill at Cass (Pocahontas County Historical Society 1981).

In Lewis County, the Clarksburg, Weston, and Glenville Transportation Company built a rail line in 1879, and in Upshur County, the Buckhannon and West Fork Railroad was built in 1883, both of which were consolidated with the B&O Railroad in the 1890s (Borchart 1967:38). A trunk line of the Coal & Coke Railroad ran through Upshur County as well. An extension of the West Virginia Central and Pittsburgh Railroad reached Elkins in Randolph County in 1889 (Rice 1987:81). However, the economic slowdown leading to the financial panic of 1893 inhibited railroad construction nationwide (Hennen 1991).

The ever growing network of railroads greatly altered the scale of resource extraction. Logging tram lines provided access to West Virginia's vast resources of hardwoods and softwoods, including Eastern white pine and red spruce (used at the turn of the twentieth century for making paper), initiating a timber boom in central West Virginia that lasted into the first two decades of the twentieth century (Carvell 2013; Dixon 2010; Hennen 1991; McNeel 2013). Lumbermen who had spent a generation in the Pennsylvania forests migrated to West Virginia, giving rise to new towns and expanding old ones. Pocahontas County's population almost doubled by 1900 (Hennen 1991). By reducing the cost of transporting bulky goods to market, railroads also spurred investment in the area's coal and quarried stone resources, stimulating the growth of communities such as Clarksburg, whose population expanded from 4,050 in 1900 to 27,869 in 1920. Many of those who came to work in West Virginia's coal mines were immigrants from Europe (Cutright 1977:330; Davis 1995:4).

The coal and lumber camps paid cash wages, representing the first major form of non-agricultural work in the mountains. West Virginia's mountain families began to shift from the traditional, personalized agricultural economy to one more dependent on the demands and fluctuations of the national marketplace (Hennen 1991). In contemporary periodicals and urban newspapers, their traditional mountain culture was depicted as primitive, barbaric, and violent. One example is the portrayal of the Hatfield-McCoy feud of the 1880s in southwestern West Virginia and Kentucky. Capital investment in manufacturing in West Virginia increased fourfold between 1870 and 1900 (Rice and Brown 2014). Timber production in West Virginia reached its peak in 1909, and by the 1920s, the majority of the virgin timber was gone and the timber boom was over, leaving large areas of clearcut wasteland, devastated by poor logging practices, flooding, and fires (Hennen 1991; Rice and Brown 2014).

The depletion of woodland both created a need for an alternative fuel source and left the land cleared for subsurface mining. In the early 1870s, investors became interested in large coal seams in the Roaring Creek District southwest of Elkins in Randolph County, and exhibited at the 1876 Centennial Exposition in Philadelphia the largest single piece of coal ever shipped by train. Due to this publicity, the Roaring Creek area developed rapidly in the following decade, with the construction of a line of the West Virginia Central and Pittsburgh Railroad to its coal field (Rice 1987:98). Coal mines were established in Harrison County by the 1880s, with eight mines operating by the end of the 1880s, and the West Fork Valley mines developed in the 1890s (Anderson 1995:67; Davis 1995:4). A coal field and also coke production was developed at Mount Clare in Harrison County, about 10 miles north of Jane Lew (Anderson 1995:67). Coal

was first mined commercially at Lorentz in Upshur County by the Pleasant Valley Coal Company in 1901. The community of Adrian nearby developed as a major mining center, with other communities following close behind (Tenney 2013).

Beginning in 1897, large quantities of oil and natural gas were discovered under Lewis County, creating an overnight boom (Gilchrist-Stalnaker 2013). Jane Lew became a shipping center for gas well supplies and pipes (Borchart 1967:36). Drilling for oil began in Harrison County in 1890, with wells opened in the Salem area (about 10 miles north of the village of Benson) at the turn of the twentieth century (Davis 1995:4). Some farmers who had received sufficient income from leases and royalties for oil rights, ceased farming leaving their land uncultivated and in some cases moving to towns. However, interest in agriculture and stock raising revived in the 1910s (Borchart 1967:35).

The development of West Virginia oil and gas industries led to the development of other industries in the counties of the project corridor as well. Numerous glass plants were established at Wheeling in the 1820s and 1830s, at the time that the less labor-intensive process for press-molding glass was being introduced (Doherty 1984:38). The state's natural resources included plentiful silica sand and limestone to produce glass, and by the end of the nineteenth century, technology enabled the use of its reserves of natural gas for fuel, and West Virginia became a leader in the production of window glass (Hardman 1995:66; West Virginia Humanities Council 2014). In 1899, a window glass plant was opened near Clarksburg in Harrison County, with others opening in the following decades, producing marbles, containers, and tableware, in addition to windows. A steel mill was built, as was a zinc smelting plant. Spur railroad lines made Clarksburg in Harrison County the distribution center for the central portion of the state (Davis 2013; Hardman 1995:66). Between 1890 and 1920, mechanical improvements—especially in the bottle-making process—changed glass production so that large-scale production became typical (Nash 2009:43). By 1920, the Clarksburg factory of the Hazel Atlas Glass Company had 15 acres of floor space, and employed 1,200 people (Six 2011). West Virginia produced 3 percent of the glass manufactured in the U.S. in 1890; by 1915 the state produced 12 percent (Nash 2009:44). In the 1920s, Prohibition reduced the demand for bottles and barware. By the time the industry rebounded in the late 1930s, 22 percent of the country's glass plants were located in West Virginia, with more than half of the nation's glass production located in the tri-state upper Ohio Valley region (Lewis 2010; Nash 2009:45).

Poor working conditions in West Virginia's mines and factories led to the rise of a strong labor movement, beginning the 1880s. Labor unions had existed in the United States since 1794. As technological change began to undermine the craft system of production at the end of the nineteenth century, some national unions moved toward an industrial structure, including the coal mining industry. In 1886, national trade unions formed the American Federation of Labor, with the Federation of Organized Trades and Labor Unions formed in 1881 as a lobbying organization (History.com 2009). In 1890, the United Mine Workers of America (UMWA) was created in Columbus, Ohio, with a district formed in Wheeling that focused its efforts on unionizing West Virginia's coal mines. Many West Virginia mine workers and their families lived in mine company housing, traded at company stores, worshiped in churches built by the company, and received part of their pay in company scrip. The coal operators insisted that because they relied on distant markets, they could not afford to pay union wages and continue in business, and they convinced political and judicial authorities and most of the state's daily press that their struggle against the union was a battle for the state's economic survival. The

coal operators also organized associations and hired labor spies and heavily armed mine guards, many of whom carried the force of public authority as deputy sheriffs (Thomas 2010).

In 1912, in the neighboring Paint Creek and Cabin Creek stream valleys of the eastern Kanawha coalfield, attempts to gain recognition of the UMWA and adoption of a union contract resulted in violent conflict and a workers' strike. These attempts to recognize the UMWA also introduced strike breakers protected by mine guards, and led to the eviction of striking workers from their company housing before the strike was settled in 1913 (Williams 2001:130–131). Some smaller-scale industrial disputes and instances of wrecked machinery occurred in the central West Virginia mines, such as those in Harrison County (Houchin 2015). During World War I, the boom in coal production and the labor shortage gave the union leverage in negotiations with mine owners, while supportive federal agencies inhibited anti-union activities (Williams 2001:143).

Labor unions were not confined to the mining industry during this period. West Virginia's glass workers organized into three strong craft unions, based on their specializations, by the 1880s. Many of the glass workers were French, Belgian, and German immigrants who passed the craft on to their sons, and their tight control of production provided strong incentive for glass companies to mechanize their plants in the early twentieth century. The unions fought bitter strikes but failed to prevent the introduction of technology by the 1920s. Legislation protecting the right to organize unions during the 1930s revived the glass workers' organizations and boosted union membership among West Virginia's 13,000 glass workers (Lewis 2010).

After the expansion of wartime production, the coal industry contracted, reflecting the decrease in U.S. coal consumption due to alternative energy sources and more efficiency energy use (Williams 2001:144). By the 1930s, the industry was sliding toward bankruptcy from the Great Depression's impact on the already depressed coal market (Williams 2001:148). A large proportion of the state's natural resources were exported to neighboring states and other regions, with little home market (Williams 2001:149–150). By the late 1930s, productivity, employment, and wages rose again, and during World War II, the industry boomed. Strip mining became common in Harrison County, and deep mine and strip mine operations contributed to Upshur's economy (Anderson 1995:68; Tenney 2013). But after the war, the coal industry faced growing competition from other fuels, with industry and union leaders promoting rapid modernization of the mines, which increased productivity and wages, but decreased the number of miners and shrank union rolls, and contributed to the impoverishment of Appalachia, as unemployment spread through the region (Thomas 2010).

Following the 1911 passage of the Weeks Act, which enabled the federal government to purchase over 19 million acres in 124 national forests to protect the headwaters of rivers and watersheds, the Monongahela National Forest was designated in 1920. One third of its 900,000 acres is located in Pocahontas County (Forest History Society 2015; Pocahontas County, West Virginia 2015). During the Great Depression, the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) built camps in central West Virginia, performing re-forestation, fire control and land reclamation, as well as state park and battlefield development (McNeel 2013; Rice 1987:140). In Pocahontas County, the CCC carried out the original development of Droop Mountain Battlefield and Watoga state parks, Seneca State Forest, and Edray Fish Hatchery (McNeel 2013). In Randolph County, Camp Hutton was established in 1935 near the intersection of U.S. 250 (the Staunton-Parkersburg Turnpike) and State Road 26, four miles southeast of Huttonsville near the base of Cheat Mountain. In addition to firefighting and tree planting, CCC workers at this

camp participated in surveying and telephone line extension (West Virginia State CCC Museum Association 2002).

In 1943, Elkins, in Randolph County, was selected as the headquarters of the Army's West Virginia Maneuver Area that spanned Randolph, Tucker, Preston, Grant, and Pendleton counties, with 16,000 soldiers participating in eight week training programs for field operations in terrain thought to resemble European topography, including artillery, assault climbing, and improvised bridge crossings (Rice 1987:124).

At the beginning of the twentieth century, migration from rural areas to cities—one of the dominant trends in the nation—was also in progress in West Virginia. But by the mid-twentieth century, mechanization, foreign competition, and emergence of a global economy contributed to fundamental changes in West Virginia industry. Many traditional industries experienced decline and the state was confronted with technological unemployment. As thousands of miners and other workers lost their jobs and left the state, West Virginia's population fell from 2,005,552 in 1950 to 1,860,421 in 1960. Scores of once-thriving mining towns lost so many families that they became ghost towns. Further population losses occurred in the 1960s and 1980s (Rice and Brown 2014).

Environmental concerns arising in the late 1960s and 1970s further pressured West Virginia's mining and manufacturing industries. Strip- or surface mining, as a means of removing coal, gained importance during the energy crisis of the 1970s. Environmental concerns about strip mining and continued complaints over the destructive practices of coal operators led to threats by the federal government in the early 1990s to take over regulation of surface mining in the state. However, West Virginia Governor Gaston Caperton and the legislature appropriated more funding for the employment of additional state inspectors, and averted federal intervention (Rice and Brown 2014). Most of the state has resources that could be extracted by stripping methods, including manganese and low-grade iron ore deposits in its eastern mountain ranges (Williams 2001:201). By the late 1990s, mountaintop removal mining had become common and led to sharp public debate (Rice and Brown 2014). In addition, the clear-cutting of forests and water and air pollution associated with mining have become contentious issues, in part because of their impact on the state's growing tourism industry (Williams 2001:201–202).

Although mining and manufacturing dominated West Virginia's economy during the late nineteenth and twentieth centuries, agriculture continued to thrive in the shadow of the coal and oil fields. Despite the mountainous terrain, the region's soils proved quite fertile. Corn, wheat, oats, hay, potatoes, apples, peaches, plums, cherries, grapes, tomatoes, and melons were among the chief agricultural exports, and remain so through the present day (U.S. Department of Agriculture 2009). Moreover, livestock value in the state in the mid twentieth century represented about a quarter of all farm revenues (Sperow 2012). By 1994, the amount of acreage devoted to farming in West Virginia was less than 35 percent of what it had been in 1900. Most operations were commercial rather than subsistence farms. Three fourths of agricultural income came from livestock, including cattle and calves, poultry, and dairy products. Apples, peaches, and tobacco remain important commercial crops (Rice and Brown 2014).

In recent years, West Virginia has become home to a number of technology-related facilities for federal agencies in the state, which are concentrated in West Virginia's high technology corridor along Interstate 79 from Morgantown to Weston. These include the FBI's Criminal Justice Information Systems (CJIS) in Clarksburg, the Department of Defense's Biometric Identity Management Agency, the National White Collar Crime Center, NASA's Independent Verification

and Validation facility, the National Oceanic & Atmospheric Administration, the National Energy Technology Laboratory, and the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health. The new facilities have boosted employment at universities, health care centers, and engineering firms in the area (Shelor 2014; Cook 2013).

RESULTS

This chapter presents the findings for surveys of nine historic resources in the APE, and notes the status of one previously recorded resource mapped in the APE that is no longer extant. Of the nine resources discussed in this report, ERM recommends that four (PH-0037-64, PH-0037-65, PH-0461, and UP-0113/46-UP-348) are eligible for the NRHP, while the remaining five resources are recommended ineligible for the NRHP.

PREVIOUSLY RECORDED RESOURCES IN THE VICINITY OF THE PROJECT

ERM collected information on known historic resources within 0.5 mile of the Project. Resources have been reported in the vicinity of the Project in all five counties traversed by the portion of the proposed pipeline corridor in West Virginia. Prior to the Project, a total of 104 historic resources in West Virginia were recorded within 0.5 mile of the Project (see Voisin-George et al. 2016). These include a mix of domestic, agricultural, commercial, transportation, recreational, artistic, military and institutional resources, including houses, farms, stores, churches, cemeteries, schools, bridges, a railroad line and a depot, trail systems, outdoor commemorative statues, a fraternal lodge, and the state-designated Buckhannon Civil War Area, covering approximately 6,500 acres in Upshur County. The WVSHPO determined that five of these resources are eligible for the NRHP: two 1920s roadway bridges in Lewis County, the trail system and an associated hiker's shelter in the Seneca State Forest in Pocahontas County, and the local freight line known as the Buckhannon Railroad, established in 1889 in Upshur County. Of the remaining 99 previously recorded resources within 0.5 miles of the Project, four have been demolished, 67 have been recommended as or determined NRHP-ineligible and 28 have not been assessed for NRHP eligibility. The current survey revisited 10 of these resources, including the Buckhannon Civil War Study Area.

NEW SURVEY FINDINGS

The current document contains descriptions of nine resources associated with segments of the Project that were not previously surveyed due to property access restrictions, route deviations, and at newly identified access roads and facilities associated with the Project. There is a resource, LE-0006, previously recorded in the APE that was not found during the current survey. Also recorded in the APE as part of an earlier reconnaissance survey for the current Project is UP-0818, which was inaccessible and was recorded principally based on its depiction on USGS quadrangles (Lesiuk and Sylvester 2016b). ERM obtained access to UP-0818 during the current survey and found that no historic structures were present on the property. The resources discussed in the sections that follow are summarized in Table 1 below.

Lewis County

One previously recorded resource location was revisited by ERM in Lewis County, the location of LE-0006, the ca. 1810 vernacular Cozat-Lawson House. No NRHP recommendation for the resource was provided on the 1976 HPI form. A site visit performed by ERM indicates that the structure is no longer extant. According to a review of maps and aerial photographs, the dwelling was replaced in ca. 1990.

TABLE 1			
Summary of Resources in the APE			
Name/HPI#	Map Location	Description	NRHP Recommendation
<i>Lewis County</i>			
LE-0006	Appendix A, Sheet 1	Cozat-Lawson House, ca. 1810	No longer extant
<i>Pocahontas County</i>			
PH-0037-64	Appendix A, Sheet 4	L.T. Coyner House, ca. 1903 prefabricated upright and wing house	Eligible
PH-0037-65	Appendix A, Sheet 4	Coyner Brothers Store, ca. 1904 front-gable commercial building	Eligible
PH-0461	Appendix A, Sheet 4	Folk Victorian gabled-ell, ca. 1890	Eligible
PH-0462	Appendix A, Sheet 4	Folk Victorian I-house, ca. 1900	Ineligible
PH-0470	Appendix A, Sheet 4	Greek Revival influenced I-house, ca. 1900	Ineligible
PH-0490	Appendix A, Sheet 4	Vernacular house, ca. 1940	Ineligible
PH-0954	Appendix A, Sheet 5	Vernacular barn, ca. 1940	Ineligible
<i>Upshur County</i>			
UP-0113/46-UP-348	Appendix A, Sheet 2	Lorentz Methodist Church and Cemetery, Gothic Revival church/vernacular cemetery, 1913/1837	Eligible
UP-0818	Appendix A, Sheet 2	Modern house and outbuildings	Not historic (Ineligible)
Buckhannon Civil War Study Area	Appendix A, Sheets 2 and 3	6,500-acre area around the town of Buckhannon associated with military activity during the Civil War	Ineligible

Pocahontas County

Six previously recorded resources were revisited by ERM in the current field effort. These include five residences and one store. One new resource, PH-0954, also was recorded as part of this effort. Of these resources, three are recommended eligible for listing on the NRHP.

PH-0037-64

Located on Back Mountain Road in Clover Lick, the L.T. Coyner House is approximately 1,000 feet southwest of the Project (Appendix A, Sheet 4). Located on a knoll in a manicured yard with many mature hardwood trees, PH-0037-64 is approximately 170 feet north of Clover Lick Creek. The area surrounding the resource is rural with smaller town lots quickly giving away to forested expanses and agricultural fields.

The L.T. Coyner House was constructed about 1903 by Annette Kimbrough Coyner. According to Coyner’s daughter, Evalyn, the house was pre-cut and shipped from Waynesboro, Virginia (Willis 1986a). Annette (Kimbrough) Ligon and Luther T. Coyner were married in 1899 and are recorded in the Pocahontas County census of 1900 with their daughter Lois, who was less than a year old. The Luthers moved to Pocahontas County from Augusta County, Virginia. Luther Coyner was 32 years old and Annette was 31. Coyner is listed as a farm laborer. By 1910, he had managed to purchase a farm and was farming “on his own account.” In addition to farming, Luther Coyner was part of Coyner Brothers’ store in Clover Lick that opened about 1904 and served as a commissary for loggers and farmers in the area during the timber boom of the early twentieth century. Luther’s brother, Samuel Godfrey Coyner, operated the store, which was

located on the main road in Clover Lick and is recorded as PH-0037-0065 (see description below). Besides Lois (b. 1900) and Evalyn (b. 1903), Luther and Annette had two other children: John, (b. 1906) and Edward (b. 1910). In 1920, Coyner is also listed as a farmer, and all of his children remained in the household. However, by 1930, at age 62, Coyner worked as an assessor for the county. His two adult daughters still lived in the household and both worked as school teachers. Edward, age 20, also lived in the house and was unemployed. In the 1940 census, the 72-year-old Coyner was listed as a farmer. His son, Edward, was employed as a farm attendant, likely on his father's farm. Luther died in 1940 (Ancestry.com n.d.; FindAGrave.com n.d.; Willis 1986a).

Originally surveyed in 1986 by the Pocahontas County Historical Landmark Commission, the T-plan house remains in good to fair condition. Changes since the 1986 survey include a standing seam metal roof replacing a previous compositional asphalt roof, and the removal of the decorative shutters. According to the HPI form, the ca. 1902–1903 house was constructed of pre-cut components shipped from Waynesboro, Virginia (Willis 1986a). The two-story wood frame house is covered with drop siding and rests on a rusticated stone foundation (Appendix B, Photos 1 and 2). An exterior stone chimney constructed of ashlar blocks is on the east gable end. Windows throughout are two-over-two double-hung wood with wood surrounds. The west elevation features two bay windows with hipped roofs; they feature a foundation of ashlar blocks matching those of the chimney but different than other parts of the foundation. The bay windows are consistent with those on the main block. Primary entrance is through a single-leaf wood panel door on the east side front-gable portion of the south façade within the screened porch. The full-width screened porch has a hipped roof and wraps around from the front-gable to the side-gable portion of the façade. Lattice work covers the porch foundation. A ca. 1930 gable addition has been added to the rear (north). The pitch of the roof is less steep than the original block, and the height of the addition is lower than that of the original block. Wall cladding and roof material is consistent with the main block. Although windows are two-over-two double hung wood, consistent with the main block, there also is a triplicate of smaller two-over-two double hung wood sash windows above a shed-roof porch attached to the east elevation of the addition. The remnants of a window frame or what might have been the original corner board separates the addition from the main block. This, along with the fact that the wall covering does not line up suggests that the addition, may have been built in two episodes, with the porch being a later addition. A one-story partial-width partially enclosed porch is on the east elevation of the addition. It features a shed roof composed of standing seam metal. The foundation of the enclosed portion is rusticated block, and paired windows on the enclosure are sliding. The remaining portion of the porch features screening and appears to be at grade. Entry is through a single-leaf wood panel door with eight lights.

In addition to the residence, there is a smokehouse/root cellar, garage, barn, and shed on the property. Built in ca. 1902, contemporary to the residence, the two-story wood frame front-gable smokehouse/root cellar rests on a rusticated stone block foundation that does not match that of the house. Walls are clad in drop siding, and the roof is standing seam metal. The one visible window is a recessed vertical two-paned window. At-grade entry is through a single leaf panel door in the south gable end. A secondary entry, on the east elevation, is through a single leaf wood panel door, although it is no longer accessible due to lack of steps (Appendix B, Photo 3). Built in ca. 1960, the one-story two-bay front-gable garage is to the west of the dwelling. The roof is composed of compositional asphalt shingles, and the walls are clad in composite board with battens. Entry is through roll-up garage doors (Appendix B, Photo 4). The shed on the property is a ca. 1960 wood frame side gable structure with a corrugated metal roof. Walls are clad in vertical board. The foundation was not visible at the time of survey (Appendix B, Photo 5). The ca. 1910 one-story wood frame barn is no longer being used and is falling into disrepair

due to neglect. This side-gable structure is clad in vertical wood siding, and the roof is composed of corrugated metal. The foundation was not visible at the time of survey. To the south of the barn is a concrete well or cistern (Appendix B, Photo 6).

NRHP Assessment: The L.T. Coyner House is a good example of an early twentieth century prefabricated home that is closely associated with the railroad and lumber boom of the period in Pocahontas County. The Coyners arrived in Clover Lick at the same time that the Greenbrier Branch of the C & O Railroad was completed, and they opened a store at the railroad stop to serve the influx of laborers to the area. The house also served as a farm residence, which is reflected in the associated barn and smokehouse/root cellar. ERM recommends that PH-0037-0064 is eligible for the NRHP under Criterion A for its association with the broad patterns of history that shaped the development of the Clover Lick community during the early twentieth century (Figure 2). ERM does not recommend PH-0037-0064 for inclusion on the NRHP under Criterion C due to the additions and changes to the dwelling (the screening of the front porch, the bay windows, and the large rear addition), which have compromised the resource's integrity of design and feeling. Research conducted by ERM failed to associate the structure with a significant person; therefore it is not recommend eligible under Criterion B.

PH-0037-65

Located on Back Mountain Road in Clover Lick, the Coyner Brothers' Store is approximately 1,400 feet north-northeast of the Project (Appendix A, Sheet 4). Located on a floodplain, approximately 360 feet west of the Greenbrier River, the area surrounding the resource is rural with smaller, closely spaced town lots quickly giving away to forested expanses and agricultural fields.

The Coyner Brothers' Store was constructed ca. 1904 by Dr. John Ligon and local carpenters (Willis 1986b). It was operated by Samuel Godfrey Coyner (1869–1946) who moved from Augusta County, Virginia to Pocahontas County with his brothers, Luther T. and Julius J. Coyner, about 1900. The store also served as a post office for the fledgling community. Samuel Coyner is listed in the 1910 census in Pocahontas County as a merchant operating a general store. He was 40 years old at the time, and he and his wife had a one-year-old boy. According to his obituary in the *Richmond Times Dispatch* in 1946, Samuel Coyner moved back to his farm in Augusta County in 1917, where he remained until his death. It is not clear if the other Coyner brothers stepped in to operate the store after 1917, but Luther and Julius are listed as farmers in the 1920 census. Julius died in 1924 and is buried in the Coyner Cemetery in Clover Lick. Luther died in 1940 and is also buried in the Coyner Cemetery (Ancestry.com n.d.; FindAGrave.com n.d.; Willis 1986b).

According to the original survey (Willis 1986b), the two-story front-gable structure has Greek Revival elements; however, ERM did not identify architectural features associated with the Greek Revival style. The structure retains most of the elements described during the original survey; however, a new standing seam metal roof has been added and concrete block piers have replaced the stone and mortar foundation throughout. The wood frame structure is clad in drop siding (Appendix B, Photos 7 and 8). Windows are six-over-six double-hung wood sash with wood surrounds on the original block and on the one-story side-gable addition attached to the north elevation of the original block. Nine-over-nine double-hung wood sash windows are found on the shed-roof additions on the north and south elevations of the original block. The lower sash of one of the oversized six-over-six windows on the rear (west) elevation

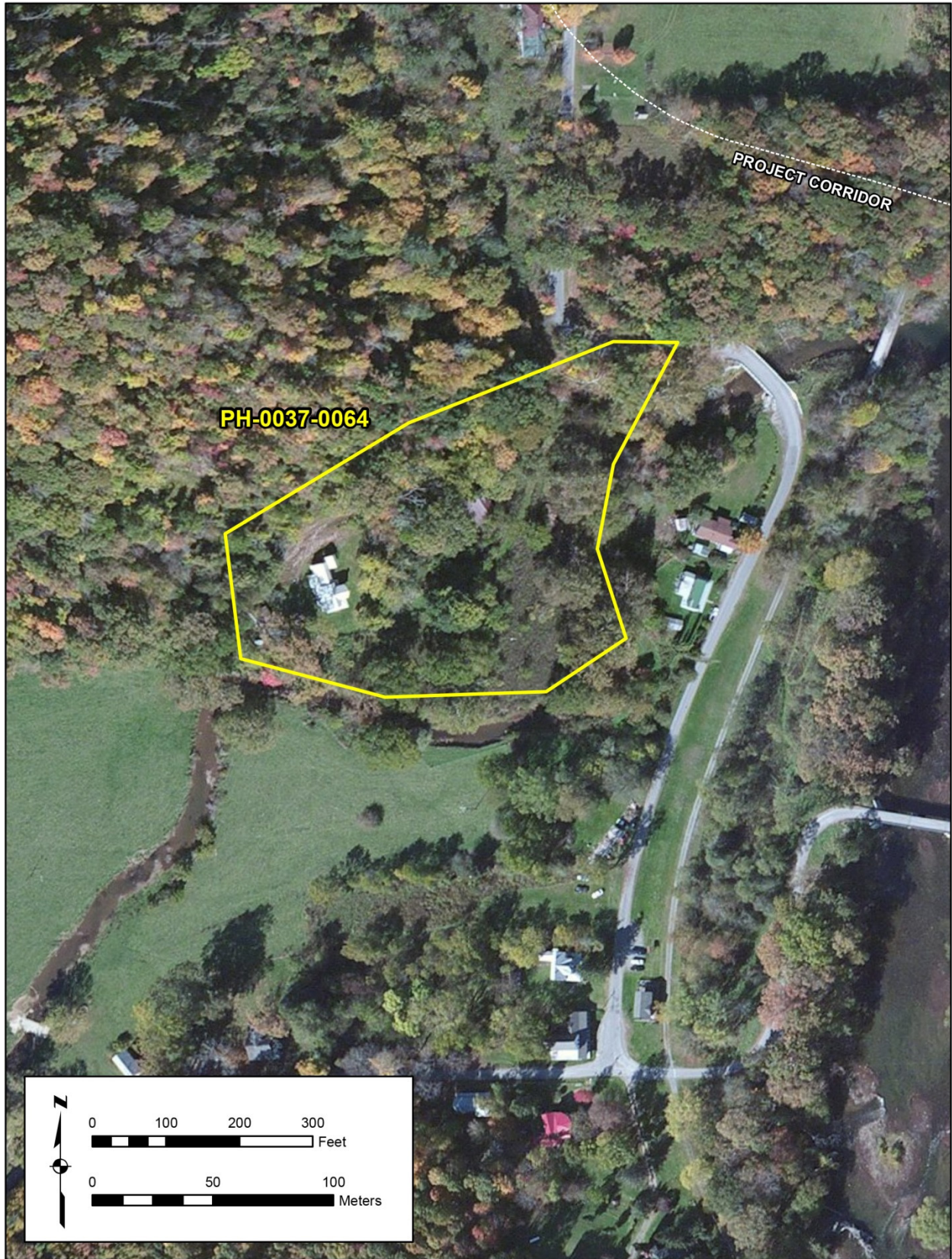


Figure 2. PH-0037-64, proposed NRHP boundary in relation to the Project corridor.

of the original block has been replaced by a smaller nine-light sash and wood infill. The east-facing façade features a rebuilt shed-roof porch that spans the entire length of the façade, including the additions on either side of the original block; the porch is supported by milled lumber and features wood decking and steps. There are three entries on the primary (east) façade. The main entry is through a single-leaf wood panel door on the original block with a four-light transom. A single-leaf wood panel door on the south side of the primary façade allows for entry into the one-story shed roof wing on the south elevation. Materials of the wing are consistent with the main block. Diagonal-boarded double doors on the north end of the primary façade allows for entry onto the one-story side-gable wing on the north elevation. A central single-leaf wood panel rear entry is on the west end of the original block; it features a two-light transom. Entry can also be gained through a single-leaf wood panel door on the west end of the northern shed-roofed addition. A second-story central single-leaf wood panel door also is centered on the west gable end of the original block, but there are no steps to access it. Decorative scroll work brackets are visible on the west where the shed-roof wings join the primary block.

NRHP Assessment: The Coyner Brothers Store is a good example of an early twentieth century rural general store that is closely associated with the railroad and lumber boom of the period in Pocahontas County. The Coyners arrived in Clover Lick at the same time that the Greenbrier Branch of the C & O Railroad was completed, and they opened a store at the railroad stop to serve the influx of laborers to the area. The store also served as the post office for the village of Clover Lick. ERM recommends that PH-0037-0065 is eligible for the NRHP under Criterion A for its association with the broad patterns of history that shaped the development of the Clover Lick community during the early twentieth century (Figure 3). ERM recommends PH-0037-0065 not eligible under Criterion C. Although the original block represents an uncommon example of a rural store from the turn of the twentieth century, and despite the fact that the original block retains much of its original fabric, including doors, most windows, and wall cladding, the series of additions to the north and south elevations and the rebuilt porch have dramatically changed the scale and proportions of the resource, affecting its integrity of design and feeling. Research conducted by ERM failed to associate the structure with significant person; therefore it is not recommend eligible under Criterion B.

PH-0461

Located on 26-acre parcel on North Back Mountain Road, near Edray Road at Gardener Road in Clover Lick, PH-0461 is a two-story dwelling with several outbuildings. The dwelling is vacant, but the land continues to function as a livestock farm. The dwelling was built ca. 1890. Several small outbuildings are visible on aerial images; however, the property was viewed from a distance as it was not accessible at time of survey. As a result, the associated outbuildings were not visible. Several attempts were made to find access, but a gated private driveway separates the dwelling from the public right of way. The dwelling is approximately 3,800 feet west of the proposed pipeline (Appendix A, Sheet 4). The rural residence is located in a small community located in the Monongahela National Forest, north of Edray Road and west of Gardener Road. The dwelling is sited on a knoll above open pastureland. Clover Creek flows to the southwest and Glade Run runs to the northeast. Historically, Clover Lick was accessible by rail; however, the railroad infrastructure was removed and converted to a hiking trail.

Originally surveyed in 2011 (Greenawalt and Stack 2011a), no apparent material or structural changes have occurred at PH-0461 since that time. The two-story gabled-ell features Folk Victorian elements, such as herringbone clapboard at the two-story porch's gable front, a



Figure 3. PH-0037-65, proposed NRHP boundary and relationship to Project.

jigsawn balustrade on the second floor of the porch, and turned wood post supports with fretwork brackets (Appendix B, Photos 9 and 10). The dwelling likely was constructed ca. 1890, during the post-Civil War railroad and logging boom along the Greenbrier River (Price 1901). It appears that the original block includes the entire cross-gable and hipped-roof section, which features consistent materials such as windows and doors and seamless design. The rear one-story gable was likely added later after a central heating system was added, as no visible chimneys or stove pipes are apparent. This observation is based on scale and materials differing between units. No available historic maps pre-dating 1940 are available at this time, and no information is available from the Pocahontas County tax assessor. The original block features internal brick chimneys within the hipped roof section and on the ridge line at the east end of the side-gable wing. The continuous stone foundation appears to be sandstone. The roof of the original block is covered with asphalt shingles, and the roof of the rear gabled addition is clad in standing seam metal. The partial-width two-story front gable porch is covered by the cross-gable portion of the dwelling; its design and materials appear to be original. Fenestration on the façade is symmetrical. The windows on the original block consist of two-over-two double-hung wood sash with simple cornices, and the rear gable addition features six-over-six wood windows. All windows appear original but are in need of repair. Primary entry on the south-facing façade is through a single-leaf wood panel door with a single-light transom; another centered door is above it to access the second floor of the porch. Entry also can be gained through one of two single-leaf wood panel doors (one with two lights), each with a single-light transom, on the west elevation. Another single-leaf wood panel door with two lights (a different style than that on the original block) is found on the west elevation of the rear addition. The entire dwelling is clad in weatherboard siding and it appears to be in fair condition. A small one-story gable building is shown on a map, but the building is not accessible to photograph from the available access point. Based on aerial images, the house was briefly occupied during the early 2000s, with no occupancy since 2005. James Christopher Hankins is listed as the property owner since 2000. A fence was put up during this period, but was demolished by cattle within several years. Cattle continue to graze the surrounding areas.

NRHP Assessment: PH-0461 is a gabled-ell dwelling that features Folk Victorian elements. No visible modern exterior modifications have been made to the original block with the exception of asphalt roofing. The dwelling appears to have at least one addition, but it does not obscure the scale and massing of the original block, which still conveys its historic feeling. The dwelling does demonstrate a particular type and interpretation of the Folk Victorian (Queen Anne) style. While the exterior condition of the building is fair, it retains sufficient integrity of materials, design, and feeling to be considered eligible for the NRHP under Criterion C. The resource also displays integrity of setting and is imbued with the sense of place associated with Clover Lick's period of development in the late nineteenth century. Therefore, it is also ERM's opinion that PH-0461 is eligible for the NRHP under Criterion A, as a visible reminder of the prosperity of the community during the late nineteenth and early twentieth century. The historic research carried out for this Project did identify significant personages associated with PH-0461; therefore, the resource is not recommended as eligible for the NRHP under Criterion B (Figure 4).

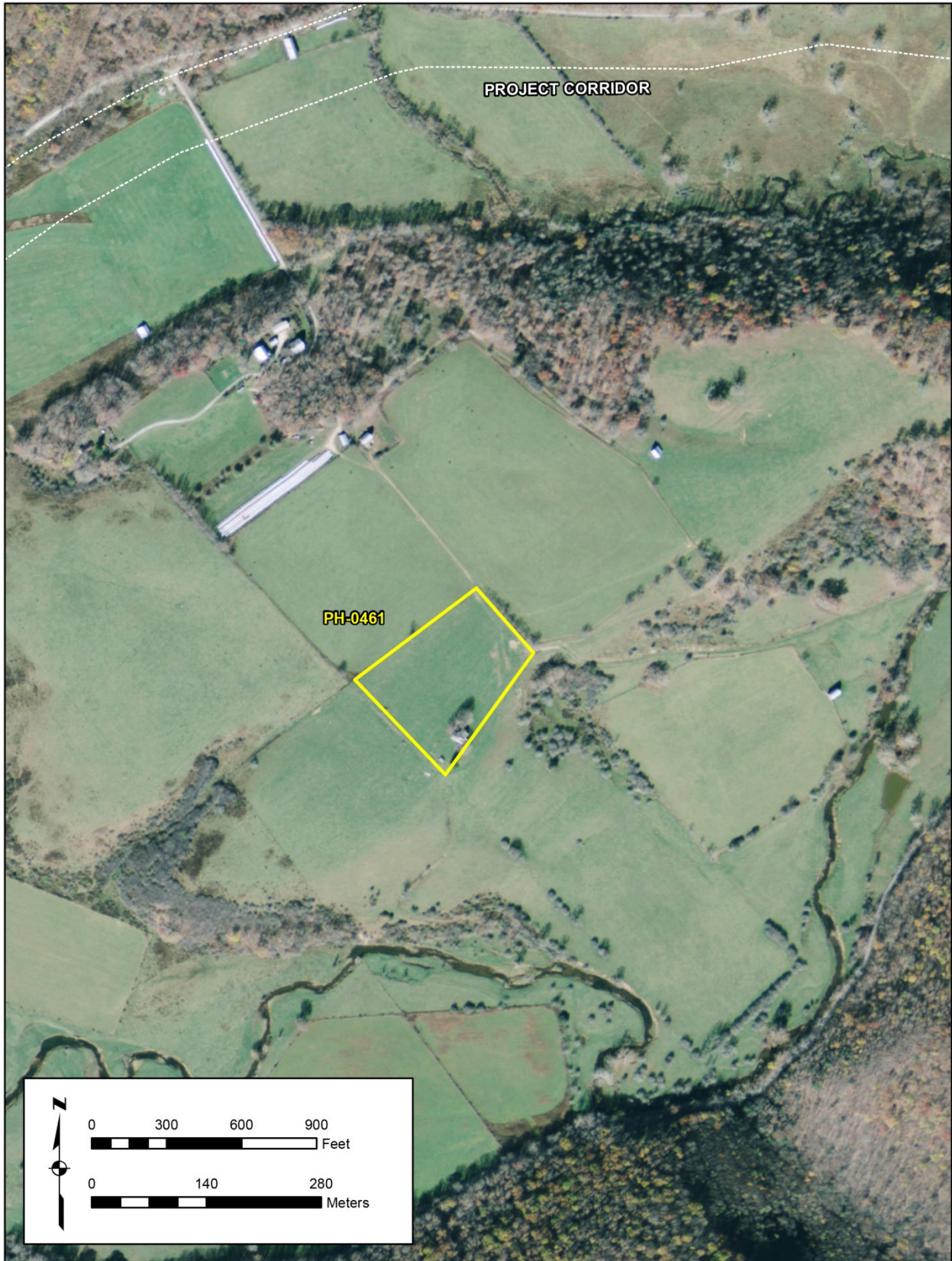


Figure 4. PH-0461, proposed NRHP boundary and relationship to Project.

PH-0462

Located on a one-acre parcel comprised of Lots 8–11 in Clover Lick, PH-0462 is a two-story dwelling with one outbuilding. The dwelling was built ca. 1900. It is located approximately 1,500 feet southwest of the proposed pipeline (Appendix A, Sheet 4). The rural residence is located in a small community located in the Monongahela National Forest, north of Edray Road and east of Gardener Road not far from the main intersection of Clover Lick. The dwelling is sited on the edge of pastureland near the foot of a forested hill. Clover Creek flows to the north and Greenbrier River runs to the northeast. Historically, Clover Lick was accessible by rail; however, the railroad infrastructure was removed and converted to a hiking trail.

The dwelling was previously surveyed in 2011, and no changes have occurred since that time (Greenawalt and Stacy 2011b). The two-story dwelling appears to have been originally constructed as a vernacular I-house with Folk Victorian stylistic influences seen in the pedimented gable ends and two-story bay window on the east elevation; however, later remodeling introduced Classical Revival elements in the two-story porch (Appendix B, Photo 11). The dwelling features a side-gable original block with a full-width front porch on the south façade. A shed roof extension covers the porch, supported by narrow, fluted Doric wood columns (Appendix B, Photo 12). The two-story veranda style porch includes decorative balustrade on both the first and second stories composed of square turned wood balusters and slim flared rails. The porch rests on concrete block piers and the foundation is covered by wood lattice sheathing. Primary entry is through an off-center single-leaf door covered with a modern storm door. Modern storm windows cover all the windows on the original block and rear additions. The second story of the façade also has two modern 15-light doors to access the second story of the porch; they are flanked by two-over-two replacement windows, which are found throughout the original block. A ca. 1930 rear addition features a hipped roof with three internal chimneys located within the roof structure (Appendix B, Photo 13). The chimneys are high fire brick with common bond; the one on the west roof slope has been partially rebuilt. The west elevation of the addition has a one-story bay window with a lower roof pitch than the two-story simulated turret style bay window on the east elevation of the original block. The replacement windows in the one-story bay window and those above it match those found on the original block. Other windows on the hipped-roof addition are smaller two-over-two and one-over-one replacement units, including a triplicate set of replacement units filling an originally larger window opening. A rear one-story addition is attached to the ca. 1930 addition; it has a low pitched hipped roof, and was likely constructed in the 1960s, at the same time that aluminum siding was added to the entire structure. It features modern one-over-one vinyl windows. The dwelling is in good condition

According to the Appraiser for Pocahontas County, Rosemary Coyner is listed as selling the property in 1954. Mrs. Coyner (1904–1976) was the wife of Jacob Ligon Coyner (1897–1958) of Clover Lick. She served as a teacher, and eventually moved to Florida where she passed. Jacob Coyner worked with the mills, and he is listed as patent applicant on several patent applications for sawmill carriage mechanisms in the 1940s. Both Rosemary and Jacob are buried at the Clover Lick Cemetery (Coyner 1948; Find a Grave n.d.).

A non-historic one-story single-bay shed is located west of the dwelling on an adjoining parcel (Appendix B, Photo 14). The shed has an above-grade metal roll-up door on the south elevation, two slider windows on the east and west elevations, standing seam metal siding, and metal sheet roofing.

NRHP Assessment: PH-0462 does not exhibit high artistic value of the work of a master, nor is it an outstanding example of a particular architectural style or building type. The house has seen a number of changes to design and materials as well as the original building footprint. The significant changes to the porch, the additions that have changed the style and massing of the house, as well as replacements of siding, doors, and windows detract from the original design and appearance. According to Pocahontas County tax records, the most recent modification occurred in 2004. Therefore, it is ERM's recommendation that this resource is not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion C. The historic research carried out for this Project did not identify any significant events this resource, and it is also recommended as not eligible for the NRHP under Criteria A. The historic research carried out for this Project did identify locally significant persons associated with the property. Jacob Coyner's career achievements within the milling industry, while somewhat notable for the local area, do not rise to the level of significance to warrant NRHP eligibility under Criterion B.

PH-0470

Located on the southern side Edray Road near the intersection with Back Mountain Road (County Route 1) and Laurel Run Road (County Route 1/4), Clover Lick, PH-0470 is a two-story dwelling built ca. 1900. The rural residence is located in a small community located near Clover Creek in the Monongahela National Forest. The dwelling is located approximately 1,500 feet southwest from the proposed pipeline (Appendix A, Sheet 4). It is sited at the main intersection of Clover Lick near several other residences, a vacant commercial building and former railroad depot. Historically, Clover Lick was accessible by rail; however, the railroad infrastructure was removed and converted to a hiking trail. The dwelling is built at the foot of a hill and is situated just above street level. Wooden stairs lead up to the house from the street. No ancillary buildings or structures appear to be associated with PH-0470.

Originally surveyed in 2011, there have been no changes since that survey (Greenawalt and Stack 2011c). The two-story I-house features Greek Revival stylistic elements like cornice returns and Doric pilasters (Appendix B, Photo 15). The side-gable roof is covered with standing seam metal with visible patina. A stuccoed internal chimney is located slightly off center on the ridgeline (Appendix B, Photo 16). The exterior is clad with asbestos shingles on the original block and wood paneling on the addition attached to the east elevation. This addition likely enclosed part of the original full-width, L-plan, wrap-around, one-story hipped roof porch (Appendix B, Photo 17). The rebuilt porch is supported by turned wood posts resting on wood decking; the porch features two sections of balustrade with turned wood balusters, a simple wooden handrail, wood steps on the west side, and wood skirting that conceals the wood pier foundation. The north-facing façade of the original block features two single-leaf doors, of which the one on the west appears to have been added later, based on its placement relative to an adjacent window, and given its more recent age compared to the older door on the east side. The door on the west is solid wood with some decorative trim work and modern brass hardware, while the door on the east has had its hardware removed and features a single light and decorative panel work (Appendix B, Photo 18). The added door on the façade suggests that the dwelling may have been converted to a duplex for a time, perhaps when the addition was constructed on the east elevation. But with the older door now inoperable and lacking any evidence of dual occupancy, it appears that the dwelling once again houses one family. The second floor of the façade features three symmetrically placed windows, the middle being smaller than the rest on the original block. Windows on the original block consist of two-over-two double-hung wood sash covered with aluminum storm windows. Mid-twentieth century decorative louvered shutters are found on all elevations. A slight overhanging eave with wide

band trim under the roofline is present on all elevations (Appendix B, Photo 19). Flush Doric pilasters are located at the corners of the front elevation at the second story. The east and west elevations feature returned cornices at the gable ends and a single window at the second story and rectangular louvered vents at the gable ends. The west elevation also has a single, centered window on the first floor; the first floor of the east elevation contains the addition with a series of various modern windows not consistent with those on the original block.

NRHP Assessment: PH-0470 is an I-house that has been altered in significant ways that have compromised the resource's integrity of materials, design, and feeling. Important changes that detract from the original appearance of the dwelling include the construction of the addition on the eastern portion of the original porch; the replacement porch supports, balustrade, and skirting; the addition of a door on the façade; and the addition of decorative shutters to trim windows and doors. If the dwelling was converted to a duplex, it likely features a number of significant interior changes as well. Many original materials have been replaced or obscured: the original windows are covered by aluminum storm windows, the original door hardware has been removed from what had been the primary entrance, and the original siding has been replaced by asbestos shingles. While the asbestos siding may be 50 years or older, it does not contribute to the historic feeling of the resource. Because PH-0470 does not exhibit high artistic value as the work of a master, and is not an outstanding example of a particular architectural style or building type, it is recommended not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion C. The historic research carried out for this Project did not identify any significant events or personages associated with his resource, and it is also recommended as not eligible for the NRHP under Criteria A and B.

PH-0490

Located at 3870 Laurel Run Road, Clover Lick, PH-0490 is a one-story, upright and wing dwelling with two sheds and one well house on the property. The rural residence is located in a small community located near Clover Creek in the Monongahela National Forest. The dwelling and outbuildings were built ca. 1940. The dwelling is located approximately 175 feet northeast from the proposed pipeline (Appendix A, Sheet 4). The dwelling is sited east of Clover Creek near a small cluster of residential properties in a fairly open field-like setting. Forest surrounds the location on all sides. Laurel Run Road (County Route 1/4) connects with Clover Lick Road to the southeast and crosses a bridge to connect with Greenbrier River Trail to the southwest. Historically, Clover Lick was accessible by rail; however, the railroad infrastructure was removed and converted to a hiking trail.

Originally surveyed in 2011, PH-0490 has had few material changes since that time (Greenawalt and Stack 2011d). The one-story dwelling features a vernacular design somewhat reminiscent of an upright and wing building form (Appendix B, Photo 20). Modern replacement materials are found throughout, including vinyl siding, a modern metal roof, vinyl skirting to conceal the foundation, vinyl windows, and a modern Masonite primary entry door covered by a vinyl storm door. The front-gable section of the southeast-facing façade features two bays with an off centered single door entrance and a window (Appendix B, Photo 21). The gable roof is moderate pitched with turned cornices. An external concrete masonry unit chimney is located on the southwestern elevation of the front-gable section. Projecting northeast from the front-gable section is a two-bay side-gable wing. The roof details on the gable end of the side-gable wing suggest that this wing was expanded to the rear and the roof raised, possibly first through construction of a shed-roof addition (Appendix B, Photo 22). Rectangular louvered attic vents were added to both new gable ends of the side-gable wing; an older louvered vent remains on

what was originally the northeast elevation of the side-gable wing. The roofline was likely modified ca. 1980, to provide additional living space in a half-story loft. Two windows each are found on the current southeast and northeast elevations. The rear (western) elevation was not accessible; however, a one-bay gable addition featuring a secondary entrance is found off the rear of the front-gable section. A modern wood staircase runs to a single-leaf wood panel door with four lights on the southwest elevation of the rear gable addition (Appendix B, Photo 23). All of the windows are one-over-one double-hung vinyl sash, replacing three-over-one wood sash that was present as of the last recordation of the resource in 2011. The building is in good condition due to recent rehabilitation efforts.

A shed and a well house are located on the property. The side-gable shed is located southwest of the dwelling. The shed has a rear shed-roof extension, vinyl siding, and standing seam metal roofing (Appendix B, Photo 24). The shed has a single man door constructed of vertical boards on the south elevation and a single four-over-four wood window on the northeastern elevation. The foundation is likely poured concrete. The well house is located north of the dwelling. The well house has a low-pitched gable roof with asphalt roll roofing and vinyl siding on the exterior. Decorative shutters flank a modern one-over-one vinyl window (Appendix B, Photo 25). The outbuildings are in fair condition.

NRHP Assessment: PH-0490 does not exhibit high artistic value as of the work of a master, nor is it an outstanding example of a particular architectural style or building type. The house has seen a number of changes to design as well as the original building's footprint and massing. Most significantly, the dwelling and outbuildings have exterior alterations to siding, roofing and windows, which detracts from the original design and appearance. Therefore, it is ERM's recommendation that this resource is not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion C. The historic research carried out for this Project did not identify any significant events or personages associated with his resource, and it is also recommended as not eligible for the NRHP under Criteria A and B.

PH-0954

Located on WV 92, north of its intersection with Blind Path Road (11/3), PH-0954 is located in the floodplain of Knapp Creek in a proposed contractor yard associated with the Project. The surrounding area is rural with few residences and other farm properties visible from the resource. The floodplain is agricultural, but this quickly gives way to mountains, which are forested (Appendix A, Sheet 5).

PH-0954 consists of two barns. The residence associated with the barns was outside of the study area and could not be seen from the Project. According to county tax records, a two-story residence constructed in ca. 1940 is within the same tax parcel as the barns. Constructed in ca. 1940, the first barn is a three-and-a-half-story wood frame structure (Appendix B, Photos 26 and 27). The main block has a gambrel roof covered in corrugated metal with two gable roof vent hoods. The primary façade is the southwest. Entry can be gained through a large pass-through opening on the south, or through a smaller personnel door on the north. Also on this façade is a large hay loft and various sized, nearly square asymmetrical openings on both the second and third floors. The northeast elevation features various window openings, the pass-through entry, and a prominent hay-hood. The walls on the gambrel section are clad in flush horizontal siding, and the barn rests on a concrete foundation. Shed additions have been added to the northwest and southeast elevations; both have corrugated metal roofs with exposed rafter tails. The southeast addition is two stories, and covered in vertical wood boards. The first story is an open

equipment storage bay, and may have originally been a lean-to. Entry can be gained through a man door in the south elevation. Entry at one time also may have been through the open southwest end; however, corral fencing nearly abuts the wall. The second story appears to have been added later, and is used for storage of smaller farm equipment. Lattice work covers the southwest, which is otherwise open to the elements. The shed roof addition on the northwest is smaller than that on the southwest. The section closest to the gambrel roof section is two-stories and is enclosed with vertical wood siding. Access to the second story is through a fixed wooden ladder on the southwest elevation. The remainder of the addition is open, and the roof is supported by wood posts. The second barn on the property is an equipment barn constructed ca. 1998–2000. The central bay is two-stories with a front-gable standing seam metal roof. Two slightly shorter shed bays extend off the northwest and southeast elevations. The entire structure is composed of four-by-four lumber, with two-by-four bracing and beams. The posts rest on a concrete slab base.

NRHP Assessment: The barn at PH-0954 does not exhibit high artistic value as the work of a master, nor is it an outstanding example of a particular architectural style or building type. Although the property has retained its status as an agricultural property, and continues to be used for farming practices, the addition of a modern barn in close proximity to the historic barn has affected the property's integrity or setting and feeling. Modifications to the barn have affected the resource's integrity of design. Therefore, it is ERM's recommendation that this resource is not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion C. The historic research carried out for this Project did not identify any significant events or personages associated with his resource, and it is also recommended as not eligible for the NRHP under Criteria A and B.

Upshur County

Two historic resources were surveyed in the APE in Upshur County in the current field effort. One of these is the Lorentz Methodist Church and Cemetery (UP-0113/46-UP-348), which is considered eligible for the NRHP under Criterion A. Also in the APE in Upshur County is the Buckhannon Civil War Study Area. The mapped National Register area for this resource is not in the APE, and the portion of the study area in the APE was not found to have attributes that justify NRHP eligibility.

In addition to those two resources which are discussed below, ERM revisited a location in the APE that was recorded as part of an earlier reconnaissance survey for the current Project (Lesiuk and Sylvester 2016b). The location was recorded as UP-0818, although it was inaccessible and documented recorded principally based on its depiction on USGS quadrangles. A review of historic USGS quadrangles and aerial photographs suggests that a structure had been built on the property between 1950 and 1962, when the house first appears on a map of the location (NETRonline; USGS 1962). Aerial photographs indicate that the original house was razed by 2003, and soon thereafter, a new house was built just north of the original house's location. During the current survey, ERM obtained access to UP-0818, located at 158 Misty Morning Lane in Buckhannon, and found that no historic structures were present on the property. The survey confirmed that the current house is modern (Appendix B, Photo 28), as are the outbuildings (Appendix B, Photos 29–31). ERM recommends that the HPI number for UP-0818 be deaccessioned, since the property is not historic.

UP-0113/46-UP-348

Located at 3520 Old Weston Road, Buckhannon, UP-0113 is known as the Lorentz Methodist Church. The center of the religious building and adjacent Lorentz Cemetery is approximately

1,900 feet southwest from the proposed pipeline (Appendix A, Sheet 2). The church building was built in 1913, while the associated cemetery features interments beginning in 1837 through the present. UP-0113 is bounded by Brushy Fork Road to the south, which runs parallel with West Road (Route 33) in an east to west direction and Lorentz Lane to the west. The area is rural residential and agricultural. In addition to the church building, a one-story block construction outbuilding is found on the property. The cemetery features modest grave markers, a manicured lawn with no other landscaping, and a modern chain-link fence. An asphalt driveway leads up a small hill from Brushy Fork Road to the church building. There is no parking lot, but rather a worn gravel and dirt road that surrounds the church building.

At the founding of Lorentz Methodist Church, religious services were held at private houses. In 1857, the first formalized building was constructed just west of Bridge Run in 1857 approximately a half mile from the location of the current church. Jacob Lorentz, the town's namesake, provided the land for the church. The original building was burned in 1881 and rebuilt on the same site in 1884. Although the previous survey form draws on an informant interview to suggest that the church was moved to the current site in 1900 (Hicks 2000), an early historical source indicates that the present church building was constructed in 1913, at its current site (Marple 1923). A sign on the church reads, "Mount Olivet M.P. Church 1913," but no reference to this name was uncovered in historical sources. The church was initially surveyed in 2000 (Hicks 2000), and has changed little since that time. The one-story vernacular church building features Gothic Revival elements such as arched windows and a steeply pitched belfry (Appendix B, Photo 32). The front-gable roof is clad with asphalt shingles, and the walls are clad with vinyl siding; according to the original HPI form, these modern materials were introduced in the late 1960s. No mention of the previous material was given (Hicks 2000). The western elevation includes a central bell tower with a side entrance. The belfry is topped with a pyramidal hip roof with metal shingles and sheet roofing. A small cross weathervane rests on top of the spire (Appendix B, Photo 33). A single lancet opening, now boarded up, is found on each side of the belfry. A flared roof extension continues from the main nave section onto the mid-section of the bell tower, providing additional water repelling properties between the bell tower and nave. A single multi-light lancet window is found on the western elevation under the bell tower and between the gable entries. The first floor vestibule features a broken gable roof interrupted by the central bell tower; on the north side of the bell tower, there is an at-grade wood panel three-light door, while the south side features the original primary double-door entrance with a lancet transom at the base of the bell tower (Appendix B, Photos 34 and 35). A modern access ramp built with concrete block and simple iron railings provides access to the



MP church at Lorentz

primary entrance, which is protected by a curtain wall and pent roof built at a lower pitch than that on the vestibule's north side and that covering the nave to allow adequate clearance after construction of the ramp. The gabled features on both sides of the bell tower are not original (Figure 5), but the enclosed addition on the north side predates roofed entry structure on the south side. The north and south elevations of the nave feature four lancet windows with clear glass panes; they are of the same style as the one on the west elevation of the vestibule but at a larger scale. The apse is

Figure 5. Undated historic photograph of the Lorentz Methodist Protestant Church (Marple 1923).

located on the eastern elevation and displays a polygonal design with low-pitched hipped roof and two multi-light lancet windows matching that in the vestibule. The apse is surmounted by a rose window with decorative star pattern on the east elevation of the sanctuary. A single door entrance at the sub-level on the east elevation of the sanctuary near the southern corner is protected a low-pitched gable roof with metal post supports (Appendix B, Photo 36). The foundation of the church is continuous concrete block and metal casement windows are found at the sub-level. There also is an original ornate iron foundation grate preserved where the access ramp starts, with older concrete block visible here from before the construction of the basement (Appendix B, Photo 37). The building retains its original form and key architectural elements. The building is in good condition.

The Lorentz Cemetery (46-UP-348) is sited northeast of the church building (Appendix B, Photo 38). The cemetery is surrounded with modern chain-link fencing and covers approximately 2.81 acres, with approximately 676 interments. The earliest interment is from 1837, and latest is from 2015. It is unclear whether this is the original location of the cemetery, or if the early graves were relocated here when the church moved. The most active period was the twentieth century, with 505 interments, while 88 are from the nineteenth century, 65 from the twenty-first century, and another 18 of unknown date. Headstones include a range of conventional styles with no above-ground tombs or mausoleums. The earliest burials include Lorentz pioneer families such as the Allmans, Castos, Clarks, Lorentzes, Regers, and Westfalls. A concrete block building is located south of the cemetery near the church building (Appendix B, Photo 39). This building appears to function as a tool or maintenance shed. The concrete block building features asphalt shingles on the moderate pitched gable roof. A turned wood cornice and wood weatherboard siding is located in the gable end. Two wood panel man-doors are located on the front (southern) elevation. Based on the condition and materials, the concrete block building was likely built soon after the church.

NRHP Assessment: The Lorentz Methodist Church and associated cemetery were central to the community from its earliest history. The church in both its former location and current location served as the node for community life in Lorentz for well over a hundred years. The cemetery serves as a resting place for the town's earliest settlers and their descendants through the present day. Although changes have been made to the church building, it still conveys its historic feeling, standing as a visible reminder of the history of the community. As such, ERM recommends the Lorentz Methodist Church and Cemetery eligible for the NRHP under Criterion A. The proposed NRHP boundary, encompassing the recorded architectural resource and cemetery boundaries, is depicted in Figure 5. The historic research carried out for this Project did not identify significant personages associated with the resource that would justify the resource's eligibility for the NRHP under Criterion B. Although members of pioneer families attended the church and are buried in the cemetery, none are known to be associated with significant events or achievements. The Lorentz Methodist Church and Cemetery also is recommended ineligible for the NRHP under Criterion C. UP-0113 is a vernacular interpretation of a Gothic Revival church with important changes to its design and materials that have compromised its integrity. The primary entrance has been dramatically changed through the construction of the large ramp, curtain wall, and roof whose pitch does not match that of the rest of the structure. The earlier addition on the north side of the bell tower also changed the original appearance of the church. These changes have impacted not only the appearance of the building, but the experience of entering and exiting the building by changing the original flow of egress. Changes to the church can be seen by comparison to an undated historic photograph of the church (see Figure 5). The creation of the basement necessitated a new foundation with new sub-level windows, and a new entrance on the east elevation. Beyond those major

changes,

the

church



Figure 6. UP-0113/46-UP-348, proposed NRHP boundary in relation to the Project corridor. has been clad in vinyl siding, asphalt shingles have replaced an earlier roof, and the lancet openings formerly in the bell tower are now boarded up. It is ERM's opinion that because of the changes to the church's original fabric and design, the church no longer is a good example of a rural Gothic Revival church. Likewise, the associated cemetery (46-UP-348) is an unremarkable example of a rural churchyard cemetery. The marker styles and landscape use are ubiquitous in the region. In relation to NRHP Criteria Consideration D for cemeteries, research for this Project did not identify persons of transcendent historical importance buried in the Lorentz Methodist Church Cemetery, nor find that the cemetery dates to the earliest history of the region or relates to significant historical events, and no distinctive design features were noted in the cemetery.

Buckhannon Civil War Study Area

The Buckhannon Civil War Study Area is 6,500-acre area around the town of Buckhannon associated with military activity during the Civil War. It was defined as part of an effort by the West Virginia GIS Technical Center of West Virginia University and the West Virginia Historic Preservation Office to map the locations of Civil War actions in West Virginia (Brewer and Donaldson 2011). The boundary is based on research from primary and secondary sources, but did not involve on-the-ground survey. Where "a definitive location could not be established, a polygonal area was digitized that most closely represented all known landmarks and features detailed in the battle accounts," according to the study methodology. In addition to the study area, there is a mapped proposed National Register area consisting of two polygons in Buckhannon proper. The proposed pipeline passes west of the western extent of the study area; the nearest point being 330 feet away. There also is a proposed contractor yard (CY Spr 01-A) that intersects a very small area on the edge of the study area (Append A, Sheets 2 and 3).

No major engagements were fought in Upshur County, but troops from both sides traveled through the area, skirmishing occasionally, as the territory changed hands. For most of the war, the Union Army maintained control of Upshur County. However, in August and September 1862, approximately 550 Confederate troops under the command of General Albert G. Jenkins marched through central West Virginia, capturing several hundred prisoners, and destroying Union supplies and public records. On August 30, 1862, his troops engaged about 200 Union troops commanded by a Captain Marsh on the outskirts of Buckhannon. The Union forces were routed; more than a dozen Union soldiers were killed during the battle and about 20 more were taken prisoner. Captain Marsh was among those taken prisoner. The Confederate troops then entered the city and, according to General Jenkins's journal, destroyed everything of value. The following day, the Confederate troops left the town and headed for Weston. Confederate troops again recaptured the town on April 28, 1863 during General John D. Imboden's Raid. Imboden led 3,400 Confederate soldiers from Staunton, Virginia toward Wheeling in an effort to destroy portions of the B & O Railroad and disrupt the Restored Government of West Virginia at Wheeling. His line of march took him through Beverly to Buckhannon, where he was joined by an additional 1,200 men under General William E. Jones. The raid continued into Wirt County where an oil field was destroyed. However, the raid was not effective in breaking up the railroad or unseating the Union government (The Villages Civil War Study Group n.d.).

NRHP Assessment: The main travel route through Buckhannon during the Civil War was the Staunton-Parkersburg Turnpike, which followed the route of U.S. 48 today (CivilWarTrails.org n.d.). A small portion of the Project's visual APE falls within the Buckhannon Civil War Study

Area where U.S. 48 enters Buckhannon from the west. The views toward the Project corridor from the Study Area are of a 4-lane divided highway flanked by modern businesses, warehouses, and residences (Appendix B, Photos 40–43). A portion of the APE for a temporary contractor yard also falls within the southwest corner of the Study Area (Appendix A, Sheets 2 and 3). No Civil War military action is known to have taken place in this vicinity. The Buckhannon Civil War Study Area has not been determined eligible for the NRHP, and no evidence was encountered in the survey—at least within the APE—to suggest that this expansive area has sufficient integrity to be considered eligible. The mapped Buckhannon National Register areas are well east of the APE.

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A total of nine historic resources were examined during the field survey work for the ACP Project documented in this report. Of these, ERM recommends that five are not eligible for the NRHP, and four (PH-0037-64, PH-0037-65, PH-0461, and UP-0113/46-UP-348) are eligible for the NRHP.

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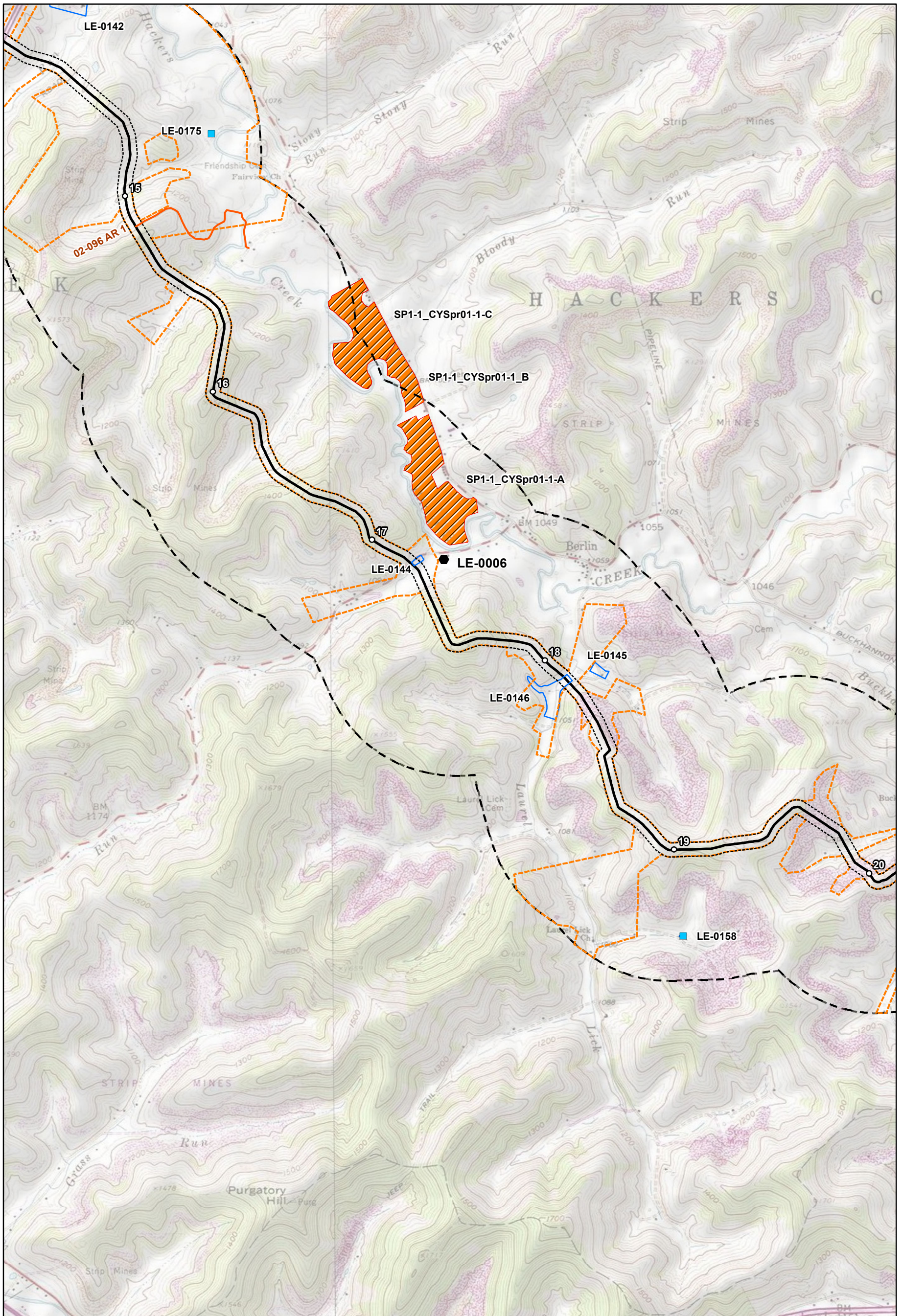
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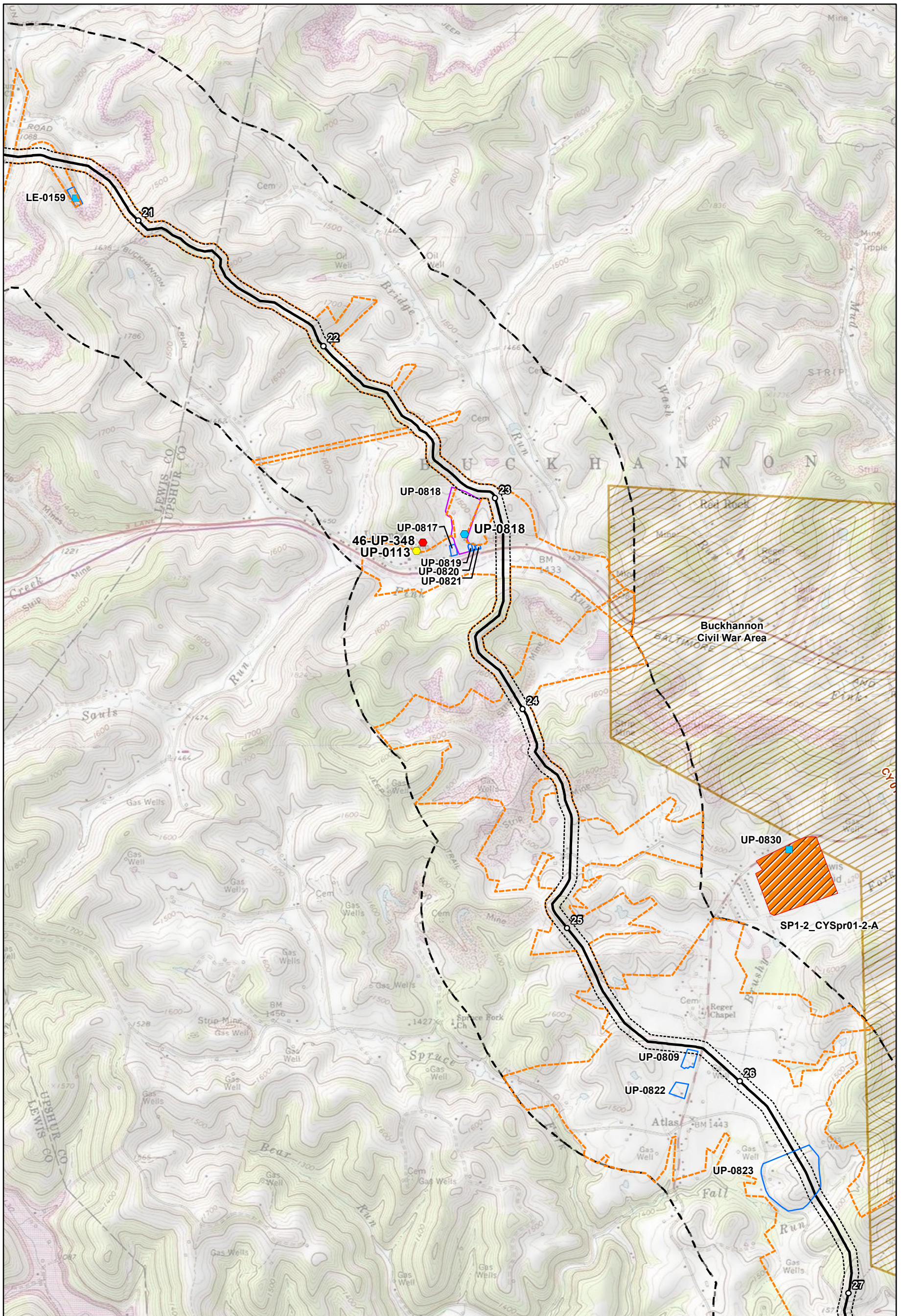
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APPENDIX A – PROJECT MAPS DEPICTING HISTORIC RESOURCE LOCATIONS



**APPENDIX A
PHASE 5 SURVEYED
HISTORIC RESOURCES
Sheet 1 of 6**

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> — Current Route ○ Mileposts — Access Roads for Survey - - - Survey Corridor - - - Visual APE - - - 0.5-Mile Radius ▨ Contractor Yards 	<p>Historic Resources Recorded by Dovetail:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▭ Potentially Eligible ▭ Not Eligible ▭ Indeterminate <p>Historic Resources Surveyed by ERM:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ ERM Ph 3 Newly Recorded - Ineligible ■ ERM Ph 3 Revisited - Eligible ■ ERM Ph 3 Revisited - Ineligible ■ ERM Ph 3 Revisited - Not Extant ▭ ERM Ph 4 Recommended NRHP Eligible ▭ ERM Ph 4 Recommended NRHP Ineligible 	<p>Historic Resources Surveyed by ERM Phase 5:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Revisited - Eligible ● Revisited - Ineligible ● Revisited - Not Extant ● Newly Recorded - Eligible ● Newly Recorded - Ineligible ▨ Civil War Areas
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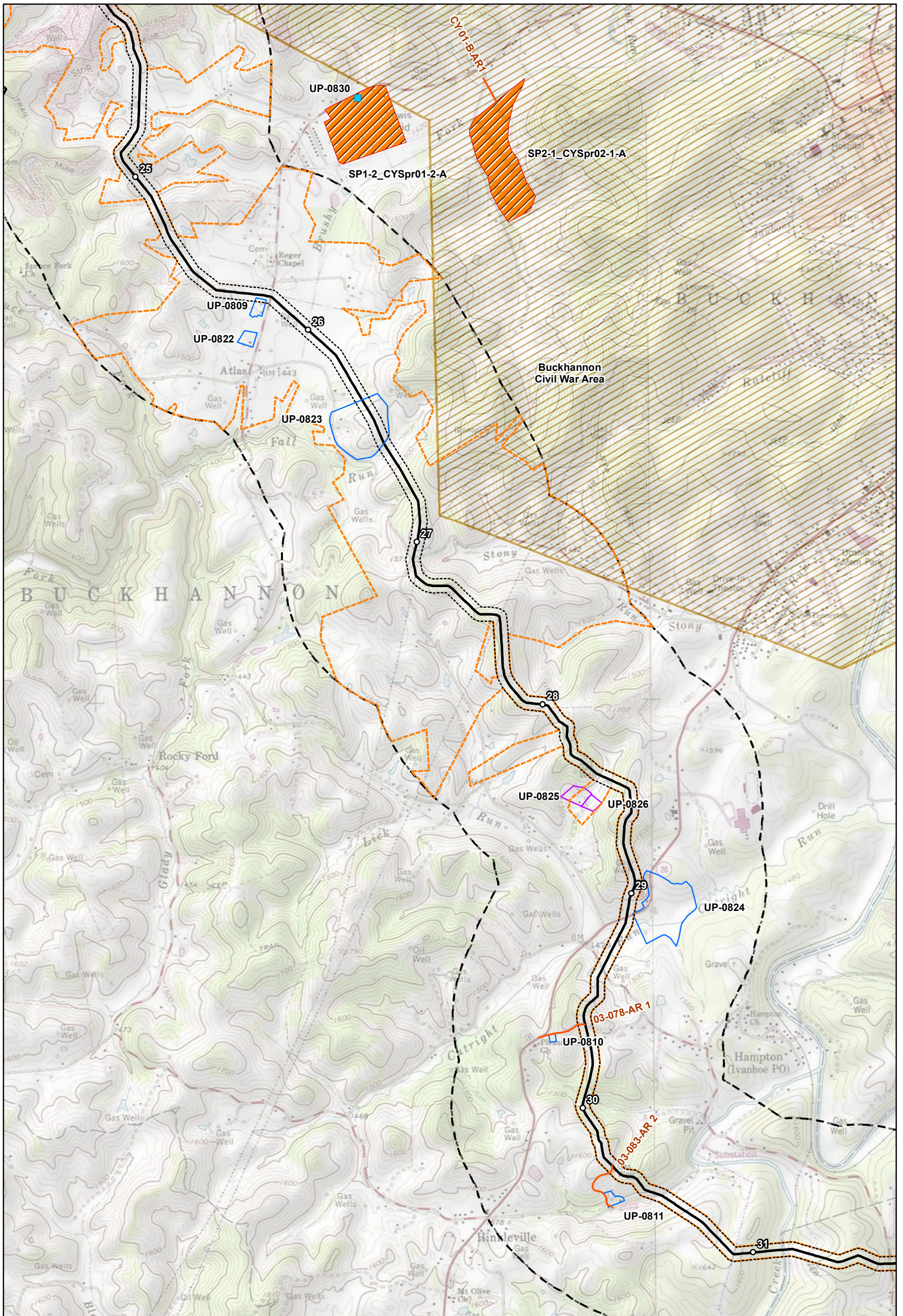
**APPENDIX A
PHASE 5 SURVEYED
HISTORIC RESOURCES
Sheet 2 of 6**



- Current Route
- Mileposts
- Access Roads for Survey
- Survey Corridor
- Visual APE
- 0.5-Mile Radius
- Contractor Yards

- Historic Resources Recorded by Dovetail:**
- Potentially Eligible
 - Not Eligible
 - Indeterminate
- Historic Resources Surveyed by ERM:**
- ERM Ph 3 Newly Recorded - Ineligible
 - ERM Ph 3 Revisited - Eligible
 - ERM Ph 3 Revisited - Ineligible
 - ERM Ph 3 Revisited - Not Extant
 - ERM Ph 4 Recommended NRHP Eligible
 - ERM Ph 4 Recommended NRHP Ineligible

- Historic Resources Surveyed by ERM Phase 5:**
- Revisited - Eligible
 - Revisited - Ineligible
 - Revisited - Not Extant
 - Newly Recorded - Eligible
 - Newly Recorded - Ineligible
 - Civil War Areas



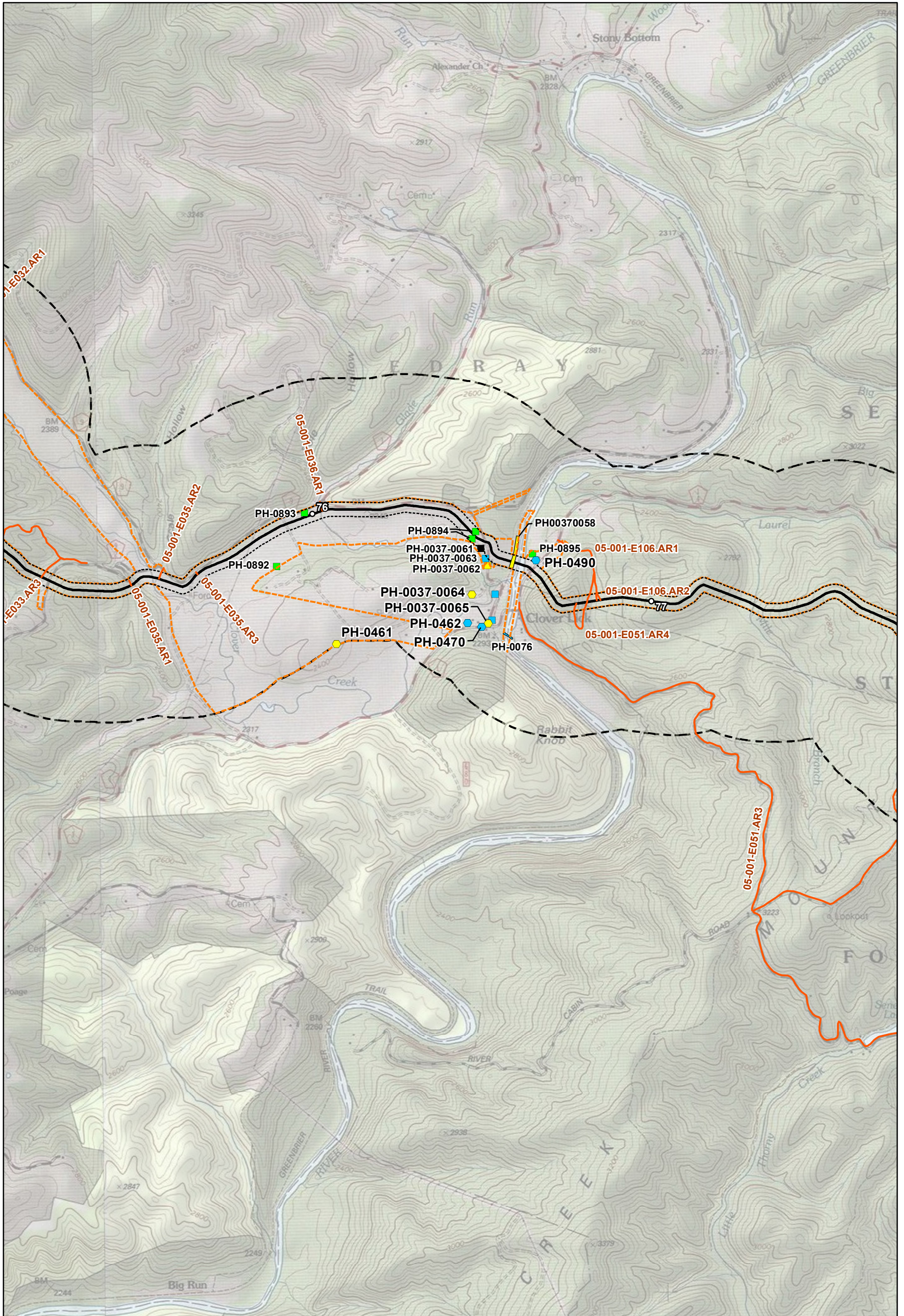
**APPENDIX A
PHASE 5 SURVEYED
HISTORIC RESOURCES**
Sheet 3 of 6



- Current Route
- Mileposts
- Access Roads for Survey
- Survey Corridor
- Visual APE
- 0.5-Mile Radius
- Contractor Yards

- Historic Resources Recorded by Dovetail:**
- Potentially Eligible
 - Not Eligible
 - Indeterminate
- Historic Resources Surveyed by ERM:**
- ERM Ph 3 Newly Recorded - Ineligible
 - ERM Ph 3 Revisited - Eligible
 - ERM Ph 3 Revisited - Ineligible
 - ERM Ph 3 Revisited - Not Extant
 - ERM Ph 4 Recommended NRHP Eligible
 - ERM Ph 4 Recommended NRHP Ineligible

- Historic Resources Surveyed by ERM Phase 5:**
- Revisited - Eligible
 - Revisited - Ineligible
 - Revisited - Not Extant
 - Newly Recorded - Eligible
 - Newly Recorded - Ineligible
 - Civil War Areas



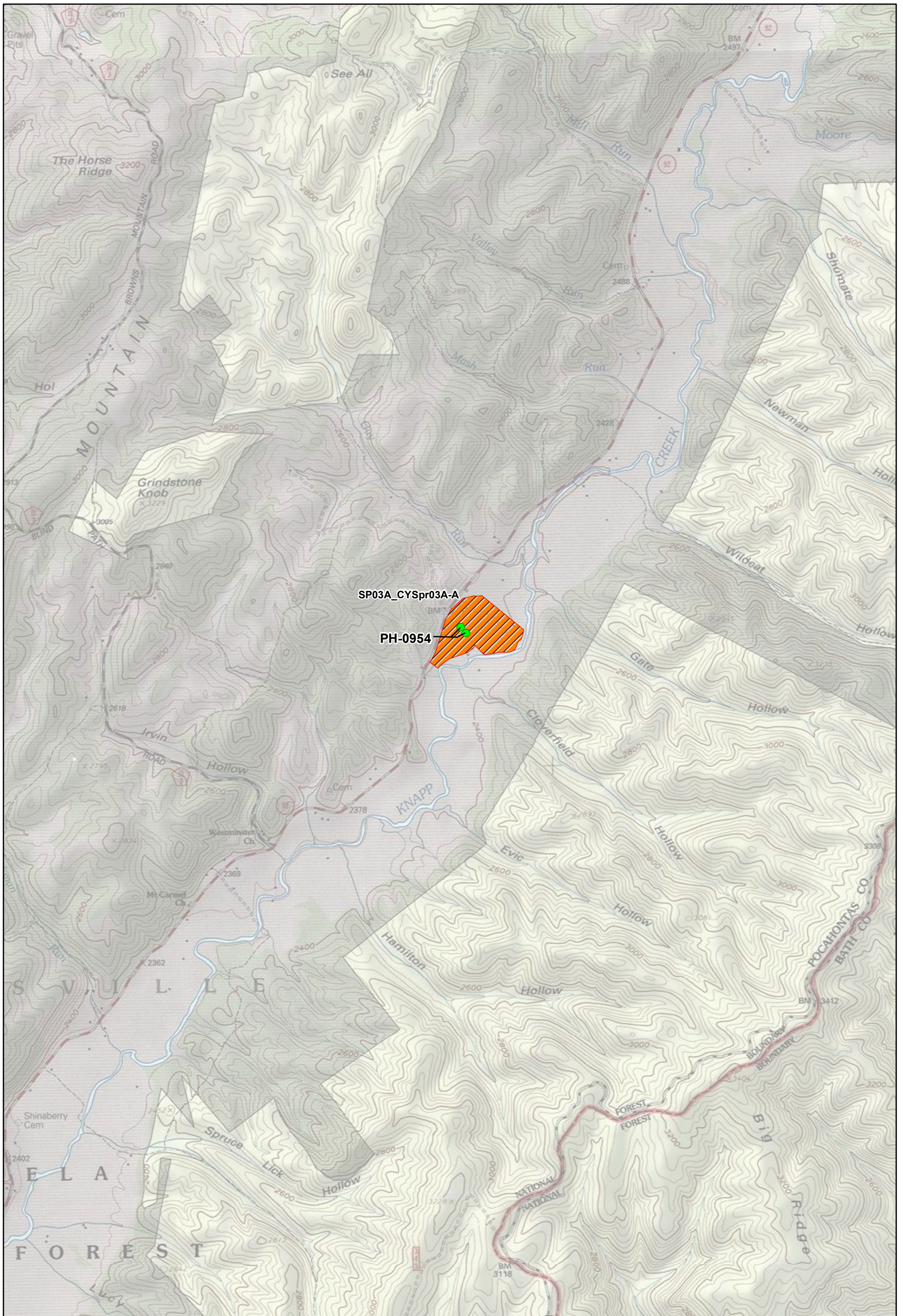
**APPENDIX A
PHASE 5 SURVEYED
HISTORIC RESOURCES
Sheet 4 of 6**



- Current Route
- Mileposts
- Access Roads for Survey
- Survey Corridor
- Visual APE
- 0.5-Mile Radius
- Contractor Yards

- Historic Resources Recorded by Dovetail:**
- Potentially Eligible
 - Not Eligible
 - Indeterminate
- Historic Resources Surveyed by ERM:**
- ERM Ph 3 Newly Recorded - Ineligible
 - ERM Ph 3 Revisited - Eligible
 - ERM Ph 3 Revisited - Ineligible
 - ERM Ph 3 Revisited - Not Extant
 - ERM Ph 4 Recommended NRHP Eligible
 - ERM Ph 4 Recommended NRHP Ineligible

- Historic Resources Surveyed by ERM Phase 5:**
- Revisited - Eligible
 - Revisited - Ineligible
 - Revisited - Not Extant
 - Newly Recorded - Eligible
 - Newly Recorded - Ineligible
 - ▨ Civil War Areas



**APPENDIX A
PHASE 5 SURVEYED
HISTORIC RESOURCES
Sheet 5 of 6**

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> — Current Route ○ Mileposts — Access Roads for Survey — Survey Corridor — Visual APE — 0.5-Mile Radius ▨ Contractor Yards 	<p>Historic Resources Recorded by Dovetail:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▭ Potentially Eligible ▭ Not Eligible ▭ Indeterminate <p>Historic Resources Surveyed by ERM:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● ERM Ph 3 Newly Recorded - Ineligible ● ERM Ph 3 Revisited - Eligible ● ERM Ph 3 Revisited - Ineligible ● ERM Ph 3 Revisited - Not Extant ▭ ERM Ph 4 Recommended NRHP Eligible ▭ ERM Ph 4 Recommended NRHP Ineligible 	<p>Historic Resources Surveyed by ERM Phase 5:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Revisited - Eligible ● Revisited - Ineligible ● Revisited - Not Extant ● Newly Recorded - Eligible ● Newly Recorded - Ineligible ▨ Civil War Areas
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APPENDIX B – RESOURCE PHOTOS



Photo 1. PH-0037-64, dwelling, facing northwest.



Photo 2. PH-0037-64, dwelling, facing northeast



Photo 3. PH-0037-64 smokehouse/root cellar, facing northwest.



Photo 4. PH-0037-64, garage, facing west.



Photo 5. PH-0037-64, shed, facing north.



Photo 6. PH-0037-64, barn, facing north.



Photo 7. PH-0037-65, store, facing west.



Photo 8. PH-0037-65, store, facing east.



Photo 9. PH-0461, dwelling, facing north.



Photo 10. PH-0461, dwelling, facing north.



Photo 11. PH-0462, facing north.



Photo 12. PH-0462, facing northwest.



Photo 13. PH-0462, facing northeast.



Photo 14. PH-0462, shed, facing north.



Photo 15. PH-0470, facing south.



Photo 16. PH-0470, chimney detail, facing southwest.



Photo 17. PH-0470, facing southwest.



Photo 18. PH-0460, front detail, facing south.



Photo 19. PH-0470, facing southeast.



Photo 20. PH-0490, facing northwest.



Photo 21. PH-0490, facing northwest.



Photo 22. PH-0490, facing west.



Photo 23. PH-0490, facing north.



Photo 24. PH-0490, facing northwest.



Photo 25. PH00490, facing northwest.



Photo 26. PH-0954, facing south.



Photo 27. PH-0954, facing east.



Photo 28. UP-0818, house, facing southeast.



Photo 29. UP-0818, outbuildings, facing southeast.



Photo 30. UP-0818, modern cattle shed, facing northwest.



Photo 31. UP-0818, modern garage, facing east.



Photo 32. UP-0113, Gothic Revival Church, facing northeast



Photo 33. UP-0113, Gothic Revival Church, bell tower, facing northeast.



Photo 34. UP-0113, Gothic Revival Church, facing south.



Photo 35. UP-0113, Gothic Revival Church, facing north.



Photo 36. UP-0113, Gothic Revival Church, facing west.



Photo 37. UP-0113, Gothic Revival Church, foundation detail, facing north.



Photo 38. UP-0113 and 46-UP-348, Gothic Revival Church, Shed and Cemetery, facing northeast.



Photo 39. UP-0113 and 46-UP-348, Gothic Revival Church, Shed and Cemetery, facing northeast.



Photo 40. Buckhannon Civil War Study Area viewshed, facing north.



Photo 41. Buckhannon Civil War Study Area viewshed, facing east.



Photo 42. Buckhannon Civil War Study Area viewshed, facing south



Photo 43. Buckhannon Civil War Study Area viewshed, facing east.