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National Park Service

National Register of Historic Places
Multiple Property Documentation Form

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REGISTER

This form is for use in documenting multiple property groups relating to one or several historic contexts. See instructions in *Guidelines for Completing National Register Forms* (National Register Bulletin 16). Complete each item by marking "x" in the appropriate box or by entering the requested information. For additional space use continuation sheets (Form 10-900-a). Type all entries.

A. Name of Multiple Property Listing

Prehistoric and Historic Resources of Montgomery County, Virginia

B. Associated Historic Contexts

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. Prehistoric Settlement Patterns | 6. Industrial Architecture,
1745-1940 |
| 2. Exploration/Settlement, 1792-1828 | 7. Agricultural Architecture,
1745-1940 |
| 3. Domestic Architecture, 1745-1940 | |
| 4. Commercial Architecture, 1745-1940 | |
| 5. Institutional Architecture, 1745-1940 | |

C. Geographical Data

Montgomery County, Virginia

See continuation sheet

D. Certification

As the designated authority under the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended, I hereby certify that this documentation form meets the National Register documentation standards and sets forth requirements for the listing of related properties consistent with the National Register criteria. This submission meets the procedural and professional requirements set forth in 36 CFR Part 60 and the Secretary of the Interior's Standards for Planning and Evaluation.

Hugh C. Miller 9/21/89
 Signature of certifying official Date
Director, Virginia Department of Historic Resources
 State or Federal agency and bureau

I, hereby, certify that this multiple property documentation form has been approved by the National Register as a basis for evaluating related properties for listing in the National Register.

Patrick Andrews 11/13/89
 Signature of the Keeper of the National Register Date

E. Statement of Historic Contexts

Discuss each historic context listed in Section B.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Montgomery County is located in southwestern Virginia between the Blue Ridge and Appalachian Mountains. The western portion of the county is drained by the New River and the eastern portion is drained by the headwaters of the Roanoke River. The eastern continental divide bisects the county from north to south.

Based on archaeological evidence, the New River Valley was inhabited by prehistoric Native Americans for a great period of time from approximately 15,000 B.C. to 1580 A.D. Very little is known of these early dwellers because only a limited amount of archaeological research and testing has been conducted. The upper reaches of the Roanoke River in Montgomery County are included with the New River Valley in this narrative. There are few differences in archaeological remains from the two river systems. Despite the fact that limited research has been conducted in the region, we still are able to interpret the past by making comparisons of local sites with those of other parts of Virginia and nearby states. These comparisons, along with the local research that has been conducted, give an increasingly clear picture of past lifeways.

Human occupation of the Montgomery County area has been nearly continuous since as early as 8000 B.C. Sites may date back to previous millennia during the Paleoindian period. Permanent settlements may date as early as 1200 B.C. during the Woodland period. After about 1600 A.D., there was increasing contact with Europeans. Near the end of this period the New River Valley seems to have been largely abandoned, except for hunting parties passing through. The burning of large portions of the area to promote an open hunting, planting, and grazing area may have been practiced. When the early expedition led by Thomas Batts and Robert Fallam reached the New River Valley they noted extensive clearings and abandoned cornfields along the river. Batts and Fallam explored the area in 1671, on an exploratory trip sponsored by the colonial government and private interests.

The land comprising Montgomery County was claimed by the British Crown and by Virginia long before white men actually entered it. At the time of the area's earliest settlement in the early 1740s it was a part of Orange County.¹ In 1745 Augusta County was formed from Orange, and it included Montgomery until the formation of Botetourt County from Augusta in 1779.

After 1772 part of the county was in Botetourt County and part in the new county of Fincastle. In 1776, due mostly to the agitation of its westernmost inhabitants, Fincastle County was dissolved and three counties formed from it: Kentucky, Washington, and Montgomery. Montgomery stretched from the North Carolina border to the Ohio River. The county seat was established at Fort Chiswell in present Wythe County and the first county court convened there on January 7, 1777. The formation of Wythe County in western Montgomery in 1790 necessitated the removal of the Montgomery County seat. By 1791 the court was meeting in a new courthouse in the new town of Christiansburg.² During following decades several counties were formed from Montgomery and by 1839, when Pulaski County was formed from the western portion of Montgomery and the eastern portion of Wythe, Montgomery County had assumed roughly its present form.

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Two features of Montgomery County that invariably appear on 18th-century maps are the New River and the Alleghany Mountain. The New River was the great discovery of the Batts and Fallam expedition of 1671--a river flowing westward to an unknown destination. Even after it was fully mapped and understood, the New River had a special importance as Virginia's prime potential water connection to the Ohio River and the Gulf of Mexico.

The Alleghany Mountain was often portrayed as a sinuous ridge separating the waters of the New and the Roanoke rivers. It was commonly referred to in 18th- and 19th-century deeds and persisted on maps as late as the Blacksburg Railroad Map of ca. 1881. In fact the Alleghany Mountain is merely the name applied to a series of spurs between the relatively elevated tablelands which make up the western half of the county and the valleys drained by the Roanoke River to the east. However, the Alleghany Mountain was very real to travelers in the early 19th century. After a series of gaps and gradually ascending valleys, the slope from the Roanoke River up to Christiansburg or Blacksburg must have been perceived as the first major obstacle the traveler had to overcome in his progress from the north.

STUDY UNIT DESCRIPTIONS

The Little River Study Unit (1), located in the southwestern part of the county, contains mostly rolling farmland punctuated by small hills. A line of hills including Calfee's Knob and Pilot Mountain occupies its southern half and separates the more elevated Brush Creek drainage from the Meadow Creek and upper Elliott Creek drainages. The Little River Study Unit seems to have been settled somewhat later and more sparsely than the Toms Creek and Crab Creek units, perhaps because it was more heavily wooded in the 18th century. Even in 1864 the level area around Riner was still forested. Today this area is one of the most intensively cultivated in the county and is in large part made up of agricultural/forestral districts.

Lead and zinc mining was carried out at Calfee's Knob in the 1870s and 1880s and some sort of mining occurred at the county poorhouse site near Christiansburg. A small gold rush took place at Brush Creek in 1880. Brush Creek was later the site of flue-cured tobacco production evidenced by the survival of several tobacco barns in the area.

The Crab Creek Study Unit (2) is located in the central western part of the county, in hilly terrain with Barringer Mountain at its center and Price Mountain as its northern border. The early-settled Crab Creek Valley stretches almost the full extent of the unit, which also includes the bottom land along the New River now occupied by the Radford Arsenal. A high neck of land (the top of the Alleghany or Christiansburg Mountain, as it was once known) forms that portion of the unit to the east of Christiansburg.

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Settlement in this area took place along the New River and Crab Creek in the 1740s and somewhat later at Hans Meadows near Christiansburg. The area is traversed by Southwest Virginia's major transportation routes, past and present: the Great Road (crossing the New River at Ingles Ferry, now in Radford) and its successor, the Southwestern Turnpike, the Virginia and Tennessee Railroad and the Virginian Railroad (both now a part of the Norfolk Southern system); the Lee Highway (Route 11); and Interstate 81.

The Christiansburg Town Study Unit (3) is located on the headwaters of Crab Creek at the western end of the Crab Creek Study Unit. In the late 18th century most of the land in the unit was known as Hans Meadows. In 1790 the county court of Montgomery received from James Craig, owner of much of the land at Hans Meadow, 175 acres on the Great Road as the site for the county buildings and shortly thereafter a town and public square were laid out. The town was incorporated as Christiansburg in 1792 and was from its inception the location of a number of taverns.

The Toms Creek Study Unit (4), in northwestern Montgomery County, is a rolling plateau extending from the chain of hills (the Alleghany Mountain) east of Blacksburg to the bluffs and bottoms along the New River, and is walled in by the parallel ridges of Brush Mountain and Gap Mountain on the north and Price Mountain on the south. The area is drained by Stroubles Creek, Toms Creek and its tributary Poverty Creek, and Norris Run.

Contained within this study unit is the Patton Tract of 3500 acres which was selected by James Patton about 1745. A group of German settlers arrived on Toms Creek at roughly the same time. The Patton Tract, also known as Drapers Meadow, was the site of the famous Drapers Meadow Indian massacre in 1755, in which Patton and several others were killed. Later the Preston family dominated the central section of the study unit and built Smithfield, probably the county's earliest surviving structure (1775), and two notable later houses. By the 1850s James R. Kent had amassed 6,400 acres (nearly two thousand improved acres) at the mouth of Toms Creek; it was the largest and most valuable farm in the county. The post-Civil War black community of Wake Forest was settled in part by Kent's former slaves on the northern edge of his holdings.

The Blacksburg Town Study Unit (5) is located on the headwaters of Stroubles Creek at the western end of the Toms Creek Study Unit. Most of the land in the unit originally constituted the eastern end of the Patton Tract and belonged to the Black family. Blacksburg was planned by William Black and incorporated in 1798. Despite its close proximity to Christiansburg, the county seat, Blacksburg managed to prosper, perhaps because it was located on the Pepper's Ferry branch of the Great Road.

The Upper North Fork Study Unit (6), in the northern corner of the county, includes the North Fork of the Roanoke River and the headwaters of Craigs Creek, a tributary of the James River, which flows between Brush Mountain and Sinking Creek Mountain on the northern edge of the unit. Paris (Pearis) Mountain defines the southern and eastern sides of a

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continuous strip of bottom land along the North Fork. A rolling shelf of land occurs at the southern base of Brush Mountain roughly five hundred feet higher than the river elevation. The earliest settlement may have been in the vicinity of Lusters Gate, a late 19th-century crossroads community probably named for a turnpike toll gate. A substantial portion of the study unit is in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District, being nominated as part of this submission.

The Lower North Fork Study Unit (7), in the east central part of the county, includes a good deal of rugged mountain land drained by the North Fork of the Roanoke River and its tributaries, Wilson Creek and Bradshaw Creek. Portions of the Peddlar Hills, Paris Mountain, and Fort Lewis Mountain are within the unit.

The South Fork Study Unit (8), in the southeastern corner of the county, like the Lower North Fork Unit, is mostly mountainous land, carved into numerous hollows by the small tributaries of the South Fork of the Roanoke River and Elliott Creek (itself a tributary of the South Fork). The county's lowest and highest elevations are in this unit: 1,190 feet where the Roanoke River flows out of the county and 3,770 feet at the top of Poor Mountain. Along the southern boundaries of the unit are Pilot Mountain and Fishers View Mountain. At the headwaters of the South Fork is Bottom Creek Gorge and Virginia's highest waterfall, Puncheon Run Falls. Early settlement occurred on the wide bottoms of the lower South Fork. Near present-day Shawsville stood Fort Vauses, which was destroyed by Indian attack in 1756.

Historical Overview

Settlement of the region began in the mid-1740s, after the signing of the Treaty of Lancaster whereby the Six Nations of Indians gave up their claim to lands in Virginia. Traders and trappers had been familiar with the region for many decades. The area had been accessible since the 17th century by the well-traveled Trader's Path, which may have followed the Little River from the east to its junction with the New River.

Virginia leaders did not encourage settlement beyond the mountains, but directed their principal interest to the region's fur trade. Settlement of the Shenandoah Valley in the 1730s by immigrants from Pennsylvania and Maryland began an era of rapid expansion into the largely uninhabited areas of the western frontier. By the 1740s these settlers had reached the Roanoke River and may have penetrated into the eastern portions of present-day Montgomery County, on the north and south forks of the Roanoke.

James Patton, an Ulster ship captain and agent for land developers in the Shenandoah Valley, arrived with several relatives in Virginia in 1738 and by 1740 had purchased all the shares in a 100,000-acre group of tracts on the James and Roanoke rivers. He later was active in the government of Augusta County, serving in the most powerful positions. In 1745 the

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colony of Virginia began granting large tracts of land west of the Alleghenies to selected citizens and groups of speculators to be resold to settlers at a profit. Among the earliest and most important of these was the Wood's River Company Grant of 1745, which gave to Patton and his partners in the Wood's River Company 100,000 acres of land to be selected in smaller tracts in any location on the waters of the Clinch, Holston, and New rivers.

Patton and his partners began in 1746 to select and survey the best land in the region. Two tracts had already been surveyed, one of which was on Stroubles and Crab creeks in present-day Montgomery County. This tract represents one of the first tracts recorded in the New River lands. Starting in 1745, settlers had entered the area in anticipation of gaining title to land.

Drapers Meadow, near present-day Blacksburg, and the Dunkard (German-Baptist) settlement, on the west side of the New River in present-day Pulaski County, were both established in about 1745. Patton entered 7,500 acres in his own name in the meadows east of the New River; the tract became known as the Patton Tract or Drapers Meadow. The Patton Tract stretched between the future locations of Blacksburg and Prices Fork on the east and west, and Toms Creek and Prices Mountain on the north and south. The land was subdivided using the Indian Road of 1745 (corresponding to present Prices Fork Road) as a spine to either side of which smaller tracts stretched down to Stroubles and Toms creeks. Certain present-day property lines and roads (such as Route 657) may preserve these early divisions. Several nominated sites are in this area, including 60-233, 60-235, 60-240, 60-241, 60-243, 60-247, and 60-248. Patton also selected land on Crab Creek southwest of Christiansburg.

Several German settlers had taken up residence on New River bottom land, including a group of previously mentioned Dunkards in what is now Pulaski County. Individual settlers included Adam Harmon on the east side of the river and Jacob Harmon on the opposite side, across from the mouth of Toms Creek. The New River region was a popular destination for German settlers from the Shenandoah Valley for twenty years following 1743. Many of the settlers were of Moravian or Dunkard background, and tended to travel and settle in family and extended family groups. John Michael Preis (Price), Adam Wall, Philip Harlas (Harless), and Casper Berger (Barger) were among the early settlers of German descent. Harmon was living in Strasburg, Virginia, in the lower Shenandoah Valley, in 1736; the others arrived together at Philadelphia on the ship Winter Galley in 1738. They settled on Toms Creek and on the higher land just to the south in the Patton Tract.

James Patton reportedly wished to encourage Scotch-Irish and English settlement in particular. By August 1746 George Draper had settled on the Patton Tract and he and other settlers by 1755 constituted a rural community known as Drapers Meadow.

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The earliest route used by white men through Montgomery County was the Trader's Path, which connected Montgomery with the areas to the east beyond the Blue Ridge. It crossed the Blue Ridge between Franklin and Floyd counties and may have followed the Little River to a ford of the New River at or near Ingles Ferry. Batts and Fallam very likely followed this path on their exploration to the New River in 1671. In the mid-18th century, however, access to the region from the north was more important than a connection with Tidewater Virginia. By the terms of the 1745 Treaty of Lancaster, to which James Patton was a signatory, the road then extending as far as present-day Staunton was to be extended south for the benefit of the Indians, who expressed a desire for a road and safe passage on it as one of their terms. It was one of the few substantive gains won by the tribes in the settlement. Soon thereafter the Orange County Court ordered James Patton and John Buchanan to view the way from the Frederick County line through the upper Shenandoah Valley and beyond. They shortly thereafter reported that they had viewed the road as far as Adam Harmon's farm on the New River and had "blazed and laid [sic] with two notches and a cross."

Patton stood to gain far more than the Indians from any road to the New River because the road passed through his own settlement on the James River at Pattonsburg. In the following month the court ordered the road (referred to often as the Indian Road) to be cleared and direction posts erected, and the route was to be divided into sections with individual overseers and workgangs of tithables.³

German, Ulster, and English settlers from Pennsylvania, the Valley of Virginia, and the east streamed into the region and settled on land in the hope of eventually securing title. By the mid-1750s the best tracts of land in the county had been claimed. John Elswick (and later his widow) grazed horses on Crab Creek. William Ingles, near Ellett, Tobias Bright, near Lusters Gate, and Francis Cyphers were the principal inhabitants of the upper North Fork of the Roanoke River. The rich bottom lands along New River (where Batts and Fallam observed old Indian cornfields in 1671) attracted numerous settlers, among them Frederick Stern, Jacob Snell, Adam Wall, John Stroud (near present-day Radford), and Henry Bingamin. The South Fork of the Roanoke may have been settled early by Ephraim Vause (near Shawsville), James Calhoun, William Bones, and John Brieniger. The southwestern portion of the county appears to have been largely unsettled until the American Revolution, with the exception of Reuben Radcliff at the mouth of Brush Creek on the Little River. In spite of the likely penetration of the area in the earliest days of exploration by the Trader's Path, the land was not seen as desirable by the first settlers, who generally preferred river and bottom land to higher elevations.

Between 1753 and 1755 there was a marked increase in confrontations between the Indians and the British on the frontier. These confrontations were in part a result of French and British tension on the Ohio River and

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its tributaries. On July 30 and 31, 1755, a party of Shawnee Indians surprised a number of families at Drapers Meadow, killing James Patton, who was visiting the settlement, and making off with Mary Draper Ingles to the Ohio River. This incident and others like it caused an exodus of settlers from the area. Many settlers gathered at first in makeshift forts, but soon left the area never to return. A renewed wave of settlement followed the cessation of hostilities. The immigrants ignored the Proclamation of 1763, which prohibited settlement on the Indians' land west of the mountains.

After the American Revolution, a further period of settlement resulted in the claiming of most of the remaining land and the resale and purchase of many earlier patents. Many settlers on the New River left their claims in Virginia for the cheaper land of Kentucky and Tennessee. A process of consolidation began in which some sections of the best lands were concentrated in the hands of a few wealthy men, although the majority of landholders were and remained yeomen farmers. This process lasted into the second quarter of the 19th century. In the last decade of the 18th century, Montgomery County's first towns were formed. Christiansburg was laid out in 1790 and incorporated in 1792 and Blacksburg was incorporated in 1798.

As the New River Valley filled up the region could be traversed by two routes, each a branch of the Great Road. The northerly route, which passed through Blacksburg and corresponded to Patton's Indian Road, was known as the Pepper's Ferry Road, and the southern road, which climbed the Alleghany ridge at Christiansburg, was called the Ingles or English's Ferry Road. Each road was named after a crossing on the New River. The southerly Ingles Ferry Road was supposedly the best, according to several contemporary sources⁴.

The Ingles Ferry Road became the great corridor of migration known as the Wilderness Road after the American Revolution, when thousands of immigrants poured through the New River Valley on their way to the newly opened territories in Kentucky and Tennessee. Previously the overwhelming majority of settlers moving south up the Shenandoah Valley had stopped at the spurs of the Alleghany Ridge and passed through the Blue Ridge Mountains and on into the Carolina Piedmont.

As the region west of the Blue Ridge became more extensively settled, Virginia leaders and merchants were anxious to secure trade generated by the region through the development of roads and canals. Much of the surplus produce of the area was being siphoned off to Baltimore and Philadelphia along the Great Road.⁵ It became evident by the 1770s that the county road system then in force could not support the movement of goods and products through the mountainous West. The eastern counties were more densely settled, and capital available for roads which traversed much shorter distances was greater, while the western counties were characterized by a smaller tax base and great distances between settlements. While toll roads and publicly supported turnpikes were

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commissioned for the West by the commonwealth in the late 18th century, the roads of Montgomery County remained the responsibility of gangs of county tithables until the early 19th century.⁶

Slavery was not as strong an institution in Montgomery County as it was in eastern Virginia. In the 18th century Montgomery County's slaves often performed work not related to agriculture; William Ingles's slaves ran his ferry and other slaves worked in mills or in domestic capacities. Nevertheless, some farmers assembled sizable work forces. William Preston had thirty-four slaves in 1782 and soon after his heirs at Smithfield had forty-two.⁷

In the 1820s slaveholding increased markedly. One writer observed: "The increase in the number of slaves, slave holders, and the size of slave holdings in Montgomery County indicate that the economy, characterized by slow growth before 1820, had suddenly boomed."⁸ The number of slaves grew sixty-nine percent from 1820 to 1830, from approximately twelve hundred slaves to two thousand. This may be related to improved transportation for agricultural produce, stimulating a need for farm workers and integrating Southwest Virginia into the slave-based economy.

Between 1830 and 1840 the number of slaves dropped--a decrease which may have reflected the economic difficulties of the late 1830s but may also have reflected the formation of Floyd and especially Pulaski County during that decade. These were the years that Charles Featherstonhaugh witnessed a slave caravan of three hundred slaves at Ingles Ferry. These slaves were being taken westward to the Old Southwest, and whether they were from Montgomery County or not, their fate was probably similar to the fate of some Montgomery County slaves of the same period.⁹

Until 1816 and the creation of the Board of Public Works, road improvement continued to lag behind the needs of the western regions. Private funds and limited state aid could not effectively connect the eastern markets with the rapidly expanding West by roads or canal.¹⁰ In 1804 the Richmond Enquirer suggested the creation of a good wagon road to the falls of the Kanawha, to be paid for and maintained by the state, which would connect with tributary roads from the Roanoke, New River, and Holston valleys, as part of a larger plan for a state highway system. However, beginning in the early years of the 19th century a number of private turnpike companies were formed.

Among the earliest was the Alleghany Turnpike, chartered in 1805. John Ingles and Andrew Lewis, Montgomery County's delegates, sponsored the bill incorporating the turnpike "because the cost of maintaining the previous public road in good condition had proved too great a burden on the laboring tithables."¹¹ The route followed by the Alleghany Turnpike, which opened in 1809, was that of the Ingles Ferry Road as it ascended the Alleghany Mountain between the South Fork of the Roanoke River and Christiansburg.

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In 1822 the French engineer Claudius Crozet was appointed principal engineer by the Virginia Board of Public Works, and he instituted a vigorous program of survey and development of road and river transportation. In 1827 Crozet put forward a plan for the comprehensive development of the state's transportation routes, based on his progressive and cosmopolitan views. One of the principal elements in his plan was the connection of the New River with the Roanoke by either a railroad or a canal.¹² Although a railroad was soon to be chartered as well as a state-funded turnpike to connect Virginia and Tennessee, neither would actually be built until mid-century.

A number of Montgomery County's villages had their start in the mid-19th century. Mills and country stores seem to have been the nuclei around which these communities formed. In turn, the presence of a turnpike or well-traveled road seems to have been an important factor in the location of stores and mills.

As one of the country store villages, Rough and Ready may be the best example. Amos Wade had a store there in 1851, when it first shows up in the records.¹³ It was situated on the road between Snowville and Christiansburg on the high shelf of land above the Little River. It also appears to have been the point where many small farms of the area gained access to the road. No early resources remain. Two other country store villages were Matamoras, which developed on the Salem and Pepper's Ferry Turnpike west of Blacksburg around Israel Price's store (circa 1848), and perhaps also Prices Fork at the junction of the roads leading to Pepper's and Brown's ferries. Prices Fork and Rough and Ready are shown on the 1864 Confederate Engineer's Map whereas Matamoras does not (although the latter is depicted, like Prices Fork, as a sparse collection of buildings). A portion of Prices Fork is being nominated as the Prices Fork Historic District, part of this submission.

The other class of village might be termed the mill village. A well-documented succession from mill to village makes Graysontown (Grayson Mills) the best example in the county of the mill village. A large grist- and sawmill (60-542) was built by the Graysons on the Little River below Snowville between 1849 and 1851 and led to the establishment of a blacksmith shop and other manufactories. A store opened in 1853 to serve the burgeoning support community and the farmers and others attracted to the mills. Graysontown continued to function as an industrial village into this century (Montgomery County Chancery Suit No. 210). Several sites connected with the development of Graysontown are being nominated as part of this submission (60-117 and 60-118).

The village of Riner, which contains the Riner Historic District (being nominated as part of this submission), was formed sometime between 1827 and 1853 and was first known as Five Points (Crozet). According to legend a nearby sawmill precipitated the formation of the village. It is true that a stream-driven sawmill was in operation just to the north of the main crossroads before 1853. The village did not grow considerably

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until after the Civil War, at which time a store (Kinsey and Cromer), meetinghouse (Auburn Meeting House), schoolhouse, lumberyard, tanyard, hotel (Auburn Hotel), shoe factory, barrel factory, blacksmith shop, and tobacco factory operated there. (More information can be found in the individual district nomination forms.) Pilot, another community with antebellum roots, may have been associated with Guerrant's Mill. The Jacksonville and Christiansburg Turnpike and the original Guerrant House or Pilot House Hotel (being nominated as part of this submission [60-7]) may have provided additional stimuli to growth.

Ellett (as distinguished from New Ellett) formed around the inter-sections of a number of minor roads and the Salem and Pepper's Ferry Turnpike. By 1864 a blacksmith shop (called Wilson's Shop) and the first structure housing the Trinity Methodist Church had been constructed in Ellett. The later, Trinity Methodist Church building of 1908-1910 is being nominated as part of this submission (60-383).

The slaves of the antebellum period performed a variety of non-agricultural tasks. Jacob Guggenheimer and James Murray employed "ten negro men and and one negro woman" at their mine on Brush Mountain.¹⁴ John Davis, at Big Spring, owned slaves, some of whom may have been employed in road construction.

Montgomery County, like other mountain counties, was not overwhelmingly in favor of the continuation of slavery. Governor John Floyd, of Montgomery County, encouraged an antislavery debate initiated in 1831 (as a result of Nat Turner's Rebellion) by members of the House of Delegates from west of the Blue Ridge. His nephews James McDowell and William B. Preston "provided a nucleus around which liberal legislators gathered." A vote on the desirability of considering legislation concerning the gradual abolition of slavery was lost fifty-eight to seventy-three, and the vote clearly divided the state along the Blue Ridge; with only a few exceptions, the fifty-eight votes were from west of the mountains.¹⁵

In 1860 only twenty-one percent of the county's white families owned slaves, which is above the average for the rest of Southwest Virginia but appreciably below the statewide average of thirty-eight percent. Some of the German farmers of Toms Creek were apparently antislavery and later pro-Union. The following item appeared in a May 1861 issue of the Christiansburg New Star:

Just as we go to press we are informed by Dr. Otey [of Walnut Spring on Toms Creek] that Messrs. Michael Kipps, Perfater and Himself arrested Enos Price, living on Toms Creek, for inciting the negroes (or a negro) to insurrection. Price was caught while giving his plans to a negro, who had apprize(d) his master of what was going on, and had him with others secreted within hearing distance during the conversation. Price is in jail. He ought to be severely punished.¹⁶

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In 1860 only two landowners owned more than fifty slaves: James Randall Kent was one and had the most with a total of nearly one hundred. This compares with eight holdings of over fifty slaves in neighboring Pulaski County, where a few large farms commanded most of the superior agricultural land in the northern half of the county. In spite of this, regional sentiment was to support secession in 1861. During the Civil War, the Confederacy requisitioned slaves to work in the war effort, which put a strain on the county's agricultural production. By 1865 neighboring Pulaski County could no longer comply, as it maintained that it had been drained of free and slave labor, food supplies, and money.¹⁷

During the antebellum period a large number of turnpikes in the state were authorized and completed with the assistance of the Board of Public Works. In addition, railroads competed with canals and roads for transportation monies. Political struggles between rival regional forces delayed the implementation of plans developed by Claudius Crozet and the Board of Public Works, while the panic and depression of the late 1830s and early 1840s affected the progress of some projects.¹⁸

Montgomery County turnpike projects, however, seem not to have been too adversely affected by the depression. Several privately supported road improvements were begun between 1839 and 1841. The Salem and Pepper's Ferry Turnpike was incorporated in 1839, and a series of turnpikes were built to traverse the county and link its agricultural and industrial resources with eastern markets.

The Lafayette and Ingles Ferry Turnpike, incorporated in 1839 and completed in 1843, took the place of the Ingles Ferry Road. On January 9, 1841, the General Assembly authorized Thomas Ingles to erect a toll bridge across the New River. Ingles Bridge was necessary to preserve the Lafayette and Ingles Ferry Turnpike as the main east-west route through Montgomery County.

In the early 1850s Montgomery County's two main north-south connections were improved; these were the route from Blacksburg north to Newport in Giles County and the route from Christiansburg south to Floyd County. The Blacksburg and Newport Turnpike Company was incorporated on March 14, 1850. The road was to be cleared to a width of twenty-five feet and constructed to eighteen feet except in difficult places, where it could be reduced to fourteen feet in width. The grade of the road was not to exceed four degrees.

The Jacksonville (Floyd) and Christiansburg Turnpike was Montgomery County's improved connection with the counties to its south. By September 30, 1852, \$1,822 had been paid out for construction of the road. Approximately eight miles had been completed and a bridge, utilizing the wooden lattice form patented in 1820 by Ithiel Town, was under construction across Little River. The bridge was designed by Ludwell H. Brown, the turnpike company's engineer.¹⁹ It survived until 1944, when it was the last Town lattice bridge in the state.²⁰

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Far more important than any of Montgomery County's local turnpikes was the Southwestern Turnpike, chartered in 1835 to link Salem and points north and east with Tennessee. The road, when built in the late 1840s, became one of four major western Virginia turnpikes (the Kanawha, the Northwestern, the Staunton and Parkersburg, and the Southwestern) that connected the rapidly expanding frontier with eastern markets. One historian remarked that their length (approximately two hundred miles each) and their ambitious purpose would have earned them the title of "superhighway" in the context of the period.²¹

When the Virginia and Tennessee Railroad was surveyed in 1848, Montgomery County offered the most practical east-west route for the line. Mountains blocked the way in counties to the north and south, whereas in Montgomery County the Alleghany Mountain posed the only obstacle separating the level valley of the Roanoke River from the chain of valleys leading along the New River and beyond to the Tennessee line.

The first move towards the building of a railroad into Southwest Virginia was made in 1831 with the incorporation of the Lynchburg and New River Railroad Company. The railroad lost out to the James River and Kanawha Canal in the sectionally motivated funding battles of the era. The Lynchburg and Tennessee Railroad, chartered in 1836, also had difficulties. The Panic of 1837 and the ensuing depression did much to suppress such internal improvement projects as the Lynchburg and Tennessee Railroad. On May 24, 1848, the Lynchburg and Tennessee Railroad was reincorporated. On March 6, 1849, the Lynchburg and Tennessee was renamed the Virginia and Tennessee, and on August 7, 1849, a convention was held in Christiansburg to stimulate interest in the railroad. When the question of exact route was finally settled, the Virginia and Tennessee began to acquire rights of way and sites for depots, shops, etc. beginning in 1851. The railroad opened to Christiansburg Depot on April 1, 1854.²²

Tourism was an important aspect of Montgomery County's economy in the late 1850s, and the railroad helped to further it. The sizable Alleghany Springs and Montgomery White Sulphur Springs were built in response to the railroad. The railroad's effect on the economy as a whole was dramatic. In 1855, 1857, and 1858, a total of 6,641 tons of leather, lumber, mineral, and agricultural products were shipped out of two of the county's three depots and only 4,100 tons of goods were imported, indicating a favorable balance of trade. (As for the volume of trade, Christiansburg Depot dwarfed Big Spring and Central Depot, with Central Depot being the least active in trade of any station on the Virginia and Tennessee line). Montgomery County land values rose from an average of \$5.84 an acre in 1850 to \$91.30 an acre in 1860--an increase of 1,463%--and that by the beginning of the Civil War, the economic importance of the railroad to the country "linked Montgomery County to eastern Virginia, whereas western Virginia, not well served by improvements, split to the north."²³

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A number of branch railroads were planned for Montgomery County in the 1850s, but none were built. In 1850 Andrew Ellison examined an alternative route for the Virginia and Tennessee Railroad that would have left the line at the Christiansburg Depot and passed northwesterly to the New River at present-day Whitethorne and from there to Saltville.²⁴ On March 12, 1853, an act was passed to construct a line connecting the Virginia and Tennessee Railroad to the Covington and Ohio Railroad. This line was to leave the Virginia and Tennessee near present-day Cambria and join the Covington and Ohio at or near the mouth of the Greenbrier River at the New River. A western line from the New River Valley was not built until 1881-1883.

Apparently little was done to improve the New River until the Civil War when the use of the river in the supply and defense of western Virginia necessitated improvement. On December 18, 1861, the General Assembly passed an act fostering the development of the New River. The act reads in part:

The board of public works [is] hereby authorized and directed . . . to remove the obstructions to the navigation of New River by batteaux, and to improve the navigation of said stream by sluice, in such manner as will accommodate the transportation of military stores in batteaux, from some point at or near the Central depot [Radford], on the Virginia and Tennessee railroad, to the mouth of Greenbrier river.²⁵

Sluices were constructed at two areas of rapids at a cost to the state of \$7,600.00.²⁶ A fleet of eighty-foot-long keel boats supplied the Confederate soldiers at Narrows in Giles County.²⁷

In the postwar era, many smaller turnpikes never resumed operations in Montgomery County. The destruction suffered during the war years, such as the burning of the Ingles Bridge, probably took time to repair. Physical damage, especially to the Southwestern Turnpike, and depleted funds caused many turnpike companies throughout the state to return their roads to the counties.²⁸ In 1874 Montgomery County purchased the section of the Jacksonville and Christiansburg Turnpike within its boundaries²⁹ and other turnpikes were similarly acquired. At the same time, the Board of Public Works began to transfer the state's share of local companies to the county governments. During the late 19th century the counties took over responsibility for all bridge and road building and maintenance.³⁰

The Civil War did not suppress Montgomery County's railroad projects for long. The Brush Mountain Mining and Transportation Company was incorporated immediately after the war. Blacksburg began to petition the General Assembly for a branch railroad in February 1874; it continued to do so, unsuccessfully, through the remainder of the century (in 1889/90, 1891/92, 1895/96 and 1897/98).³¹

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In 1867 William Mahone became president of the Virginia and Tennessee Railroad Company. In June 1870 Mahone consolidated the Virginia and Tennessee with the Southside Railroad and the Norfolk and Petersburg Railroad to form the Atlantic, Mississippi and Ohio Railroad.³²

An article in the local newspaper of June 1873, reported on the economic effect of the railroad on the county. Between April 1872 and April 1873 the railroad spent \$57,781 for ties, wood, and lumber and paid \$90,000 in wages and salaries--a total of \$147,781 or one-fifth the value of the entire agricultural product of the county in 1870.³³

In 1876 the financially troubled Atlantic, Mississippi and Ohio went into receivership, and in 1881 it was bought for \$8,605,000 by Clarence H. Clark of the Philadelphia banking firm E. W. Clark and Company. The reorganized company was renamed the Norfolk and Western Railroad. In 1881-83 the Norfolk and Western built its New River lines from New River Depot in Pulaski County to the Pocahontas coal fields near Bluefield.

After the Civil War, land transportation in the Appalachian region was increasingly supplemented by water transportation. Sections of larger rivers west of the Alleghenies were navigated by steamboats and for many miles into their headwaters by small boats called bateaux. Until the region was opened to the railroads in the late 19th century, bateaux were important to Appalachian settlements, bringing in provisions and taking out agricultural products. The New River was a part of the water transportation system in the mountains, and the improvements of 1862 probably helped strengthen the river trade. During the 1870s the bateaux and crude flat-bottomed boats built and operated by farmers were joined by steam paddlewheelers in sections of the river. One such paddleboat is said to have been built at New River Depot across from Radford.³⁴

An illustration from an unidentified 19th-century illustrated magazine may show one of these boats, although the boat portrayed is not as long as those described in the depositions. In the illustration, seven black boatmen are taking a keel-bottom boat over treacherous rapids. At the middle of the boat is an iron-hoop-and-canvas shelter and to the stern is attached a steering oar. Three of the men hold poles. The illustration captures the atmosphere of what must have been a very dangerous undertaking.³⁵

The names of some of the black boatmen of 19th-century Montgomery County include Frank Bannister (who was a boatman on the James River before the Civil War),³⁶ Calvin Bannister, Roland Stuart, George Brown, and Lewis Smith.³⁷

The cargo carried by the various boats, in addition to the stone, dynamite, commissary provisions, coffee, sugar, and oil already mentioned, consisted of: flour (from General Wharton's mill at New River Depot in Pulaski County), wheat, corn, bacon, groceries, pig iron (from Macks Creek Furnace, in Pulaski County), lumber (including fencing plank, siding plank and two by fours), and cross ties. Logs were rafted on the river. Boating of all sorts more or less ceased on the river by the 1930s.

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In 1906 the State Highway Commission was created to begin a coordinated effort of improving the state highways. The 1816 Board of Public Works went out of existence in 1902. Counties continued to be responsible for most road and bridge building.³⁸ There were only seventy-six and a half miles of state administered highway in Montgomery County by 1929. Only forty-six miles of that were improved with a macadamized surface. The national highway, U.S. Route 11 or the Lee Highway, extended across the county following the approximate route of the Southwestern Turnpike. It and portions of State Route 23 were macadamized.³⁹ Route 460 follows the path of Route 23 which traversed the county from north to south. The section of Route 23 connecting Christiansburg and Blacksburg was narrow and largely unimproved. The last section of the Lee Highway to open was the climb up Christiansburg Mountain. When the road was opened in November 1926, the citizens of Christiansburg had a celebration with a parade; a floral arch was erected over the road.⁴⁰

Montgomery County witnessed active railroad construction at the beginning of the 20th century. In September 1904 the 8.88-mile Virginia Anthracite and Coal Railroad was completed linking Blacksburg and the Merrimac Mines to the Norfolk and Western Railroad at Cambria.

In 1907 the Tidewater Railroad (renamed the Virginian Railroad on March 8, 1907) was built through the county. An editorial in a local paper in 1904 discussed the proposed railroad and predicted the beneficial effects the road would have on the county coal industry.⁴¹ Several other, ultimately unsuccessful, railroads were projected and even partially built in the first few decades of the century.

Today the New River area in Montgomery County as well as portions of the Roanoke River drainage are experiencing accelerated growth. The lands around Blacksburg and between Blacksburg and Christiansburg are developing commercially and residentially, in part spurred by the growth of Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University in Blacksburg. The advent of Interstate 81 through Christiansburg in the 1960s, following closely the route of the Great Road across the county from east to west, has resulted in development along its path. The region along the old Southwestern Turnpike/Lee Highway between Christiansburg and Roanoke County has been targeted by the county as an Urban Development Corridor and provided with sewage and water service. It is a continuation of the urban sprawl associated with the cities of Salem and Roanoke to the east. Other areas such as the Little River, Upper North Fork, and portions of the South Fork Study Unit have managed to retain their rural characteristics, and may develop better strategies for controlling growth.

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For the past 11,500 years, humans have adapted to the environment of Montgomery County. This process of adaptation has taken many different forms at different times, and has involved the use of a variety of natural resources.

The first human occupation and use of the area occurred during the Paleoindian period (Purrington 1983; Turner 1984) (Table 1). These earliest Native Americans lived in small, nomadic bands, hunted late Pleistocene megafauna (such as the mastodon) and foraged wild plant foods. Although evidence for Paleoindian hunter-gathers in Montgomery County is sparse, they likely exploited high quality cryptocrystalline stone resources which provided raw materials for the production of stone tools, and sites having a high potential for exploitable animals and plants (such as water holes and springs, and gaps or narrow valleys) (Turner 1984).

The following Archaic period represented a long period of human adaption to an essentially modern post-Pleistocene environment. The Ice Age megafauna disappeared, and Native American groups began to exploit modern wild animals (such as white-tailed deer, bear, turkey, box turtle and squirrel) wild seeds, and the nut harvest from deciduous trees like the oak, walnut and hickory (Chapman 1975, 1977, 1981). A wide range of habitats with diverse food resources continued to be exploited throughout the Archaic period in Montgomery County and the Appalachian Mountains (Purrington 1983). In some areas late archaic sites were primarily located in the main river valleys and floodplains (Baden 1985; Bass 1977). This has been interpreted either as an intensive concentration on the use of riverine resources or as an emphasis on the exploitation of quartzite outcrops and gravel bars for stone for the production of large bifacial spear points (Bass 1977). The frequency of late Archaic sites in the uplands of the Blue Ridge in Virginia also increases over that of the earlier Archaic and Paleoindian periods. These sites are found in all environmental zones, including hollows, saddles, ridges, upland basins, gaps, slopes, and foothills (Barber and Tolley 1984; Hoffman and Foss 1980).

Some major technological changes occurred in this area during the Early and Middle Woodland periods. These included the widespread manufacture and use of clay pottery, the development of the bow and arrow, and the introduction of maize as a domesticated food plant (Boyd 1986; Chapman 1973; Chapman and Crites 1987). By middle Woodland times (beginning about the time of Christ), Native Americans in the Montgomery County area probably began to live in more sedentary occupations, and there was an increase in the use of floodplain areas (Bass 1977; Ferguson 1986; Purrington 1983). Although specialized exploitation of the uplands for hunting continued, the increasing frequency of the floodplain sites certainly reflects a growing emphasis on the cultivation of domesticated plants. Such plants as squash, gourd and corn were introduced by this

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time, but had little impact on aboriginal subsistence compared to later time periods.

The Late Woodland period was a time of increasing cultural complexity and diversity. An emphasis on the construction of large palisaded villages on or near lands with prime agricultural soils is seen in southwest Virginia. (Hoffman and Foss 1980). Domesticated plants (particularly corn) became important food resources during this period. Because of the scarcity of extensive floodplain soils along portions of the New River and other areas of southwest Virginia, some sedentary villages were located on less agriculturally productive soils (Custer 1984: 81-82). Although the uplands were less extensively exploited for resources than in the earlier Archaic and Woodland periods, as hunting territories for these sedentary populations, they still had an important, specialized role in the total settlement system.

The Protohistoric period began with the earliest direct or indirect contacts between Native Americans and European explorers. The settlement pattern of the sociopolitically less complex societies of southwest Virginia was comparable to that of the Late Woodland, and apparently did not change as drastically in the Protohistoric period as in adjacent areas. However, abandonment of settled villages certainly occurred during the last century of this period. Early historic accounts of the last half of the 18th Century by European settlers only mention contact with Cherokee or Shawnee hunting parties in southwest Virginia (Egloff 1987).

Prehistoric components (representing some of the periods described above) were identified on three of the sites archaeologically tested during the Montgomery County National Register nomination project. Lithic artifact scatters (possibly representing temporary hunting camps) were identified around the present locations of the Woods-Grubb and Madison Farm houses. Of course, a major prehistoric component was investigated at the Marye site (44MY37). Although some Archaic period projectile points and other artifacts have been recovered from the surface of this site, the major prehistoric component is the Late Woodland village, excavations and collections of which have produced primarily Dan River (Wythe variant) ceramic artifacts (dating ca. A.D. 1300-1700 (Gardner 1980).

Previous surveys, notably those of C. G. Holland (1970), James Madison University archaeologists, other contract archaeologists, and avocational archaeologists have identified hundreds of archaeological sites in Montgomery County and the City of Radford, many of which are prehistoric Archaic and Woodland sites (see also Rotenizer 1986). Holland's (1970: 20-23) extensive survey, for example, identified nineteen prehistoric sites, many with Woodland (ceramic-bearing) components.

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Most of the intensive site excavations conducted in Montgomery County by professional archaeologists and members of the New River Valley Chapter of the Archaeological Society of Virginia have focused on large, Late Woodland village sites like the Marye Site. Other sites include the Shannon Site (44MY8) - a village dating to approximately A.D. 1550-1600, the Radford Arsenal Site (44MY7), the Thomas Site (44MY18) which has been radiocarbon dated to the eleventh century A.D., the Trigg site (44MY3) - dating from A.D. 1600-1700, and the hall site (44MY33), with three radiocarbon dates placing the major occupation of this site in the thirteenth century A.D. (Rotenizer 1986).

Thus, the extensively recorded prehistoric Native American occupation of Montgomery County certainly attests to its significance as a major component in the cultural and historical record of the county. Although a few Late Woodland and Protohistoric sites have been the most extensively documented, numerous other sites representing several millennia of human use of the natural environment constitute a unique historical resources for the county.

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Continuation SheetSection number E Page 23 HISTORIC CONTEXT #2
Exploration/Settlement

1792 - 1828

The Virginia colonial and state legislatures passed approximately three hundred and fifteen acts establishing towns between 1760 and the mid-19th century. The colonial government had tried, often unsuccessfully, since the late 17th century to create towns throughout Virginia to encourage and control trade. The legislation of 1680, 1691, 1706, and 1778 had an effect on the forms and types of Virginia towns founded in the late 18th and early 19th centuries. The towns were governed by trustees appointed initially by the county courts or named in the act of establishment; their replacements were elected by the freeholders of the town. Each town was surveyed and recorded. Many were founded on the land of a promoter who stood to benefit greatly from lot sales and an increase in land values. Lot purchasers were required to build a dwelling house of specified proportions by a prescribed date, and most towns were divided into one-half acre lots as specified in the early legislation.¹

The form of early towns has been shown to have been culturally determined, rather than legislatively ordained. One of two forms of plan were usually adopted: a linear or a checkerboard grid. The checkerboard plan was used in courthouse and other towns which presumed a large potential growth, and linear grids were most commonly found in the smaller towns along the turnpikes. In some cases, particularly those of Blacksburg and Christiansburg, an initial checkerboard plan turned out, for most of the 19th century, to function as a linear grid, as lots of the main street were not immediately developed.²

CHRISTIANSBURG

On March 4, 1790, the county court of Montgomery moved from Fort Chiswell, now in Wythe County, to James Craig's house and tavern at Hans Meadow, one mile east of present downtown Christiansburg and on the county's eastern boundary. In May 1790 the court directed that "the place for erecting the public buildings for the County of Montgomery shall be at the Mile Branch on the land of James Craig's." One hundred and seventy-five acres were purchased from James Craig for \$1 by Francis Gardner and the other trustees of the town. A survey was made on May 21, 1790, and Christiansburg (then unnamed) came into being.³

The form of the early town is revealed by a plat drawn between 1790 and 1793. This plat was probably drawn from either Francis Gardner's survey of 1790 or another survey of December 3, 1793, made by William Taylor.⁴ The major elements of the town's form were fixed at this time: a main street and a cross street intersecting at a public square, an arrangement identified by scholars as the Lancaster Plan. This plan first

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appeared in use during the first half of the 18th century in southeastern Pennsylvania. The layout, in which the two streets enter the square at the center of each of its sides, also bears a resemblance to the plan of Londonderry in Northern Ireland, the homeland of many of Montgomery County's early settlers.⁵

As platted, Main Street and Cross Street (now Franklin Street) were sixty-six feet wide and the public square was two hundred and sixty-four feet square. Around the square were four odd-shaped blocks made up of thirteen lots of either a quarter or a half acre in size. A fifth block and a portion of a sixth were strung along West Main Street and were separated from the others by a twenty-two-and-a-half-foot side alley. Alleyways of identical width bordered the town on the northwest, northeast, and south-east.

Lots in the unnamed town were sold at the July and September courts of 1790. A list of the original purchasers shows that only six still owned their lots at the time the plat was made. Beside the column of purchasers is a column of those securing the cost of the purchase. John Preston, purchaser of lot 14, had listed beside him under securities, "The County." Lot 14 is the second lot on the north side of West Main; on the plat it is identified as the courthouse. Apparently, Preston bought the lot and had erected on it, by March 1, 1791, a temporary courthouse. On April 6, 1791, a prison and stocks were completed.

Sometime during the 1790s, a second and permanent courthouse was built in the center of the public square. As portrayed by artist Lewis Miller in 1831, the second courthouse was a two-story brick structure with two large windows and a central six-panel door with transom and steps on the southwest front. On November 10, 1792, an act was passed by the state legislature to incorporate Christiansburg.

Ordinary licenses from 1793 suggest that in that year there were at least five houses standing in Christiansburg. Louis Phillipe passed through the town on April 21, 1791, and described it as "a tiny village of about ten houses."⁶ Five homeowners applied for and received licenses to operate ordinaries in their homes. Three of the houses that received licenses were located across from the courthouse on West Main Street.

The nature of these ordinaries is revealed by the account books of Henry Edmundson's tavern. Edmundson and King bought a lot on the east side of the public square in 1806; by the end of 1807 they were running the Christiansburg Tavern. The tavern supplied room and board, served breakfast, dinner, gin, and toddies, and provided dancing. A purchase of five tons of hemp is also listed in the accounts, suggesting a mercantile side to the business.⁷

It is evident from the Christiansburg town minutes of 1805 through 1826 that the town form was not static. On February 21, 1805, the town trustees resolved that a new street forty-five feet wide would be laid out parallel to Main Street and one range of lots (one hundred and ninety-eight feet) to its south. The lots on the south side of Main must have required access on the rear, something the original plan did not

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provide. Another street of twenty-two and a half feet in width was established to the south of the first street. Also on May 31 the trustees resolved to make the first street south of Main Street an alley twenty-two and a half feet wide and the second street an alley five feet wide. Both remained in their 1805 positions. More changes were made in 1813 when the first street was moved back two ranges of lots (two hundred and ninety-six feet) from Main Street.

By 1835 Christiansburg had a population of 335 (230 white, 105 black) and the town had forty-five houses.⁸ Later, in 1860, it had four hundred and fifty-four whites, forty free blacks, and two hundred and forty-five slaves in the U.S. census schedules.

In 1833 James Herron noted the Methodist church on Kyle's Hill, a tavern on the north side of West Main Street near the public square, and a large house to the west of town. Herron did not indicate houses along North Cross Street nor did he note the Presbyterian church on South Cross Street.⁹

The 1831 sketch Lewis Miller made of the courthouse also shows a lively public square. Men and women stroll, boys bounce balls off the courthouse wall, a carriage drives by, a wagon is mired in the mud, figures sit at tables on which food or wares appear to be displayed, a man with a rifle leads another man.

John Preston may have established Blacksburg's first store at the corner of Main and Jackson streets as early as 1798.¹⁰ The town had a meetinghouse used by the Methodists and the Presbyterians at the corner of Church and Lee streets by 1819. Lydia Savine ran an early tavern that was moved from an unspecified location in town to a house on Main Street in 1808. Dangerfield Dobbins taught school at a small schoolhouse on Roanoke Road on the eastern outskirts of the town.¹¹

The extent of the town's growth by 1833 is hinted at in a sketch map made by engineer and surveyor James Herron or an associate. The map is apparently limited to the lots abutting Main Street for it does not show any of the growth that is known to have occurred on Church Street and elsewhere. It has been sometimes asserted that Blacksburg was originally six blocks instead of sixteen; the 1833 map portrays roughly six blocks. It may be that only six out of the original sixteen blocks were surveyed and densely built upon by the 1830s.¹²

BLACKSBURG

Blacksburg was formally established as a town on January 13, 1798, but in reality it is at least a year older. The town was formed from the land of William Black on land that formerly belonged to his father, Samuel Black, and originally was a part of the Patton Tract. Upon Samuel Black's death in 1772, his land was divided between his sons William and John; the dividing line seems to have corresponded with the present Draper Road. This line was important in determining the placement of the town.¹³

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It seems strange that a town should be established so near to Christiansburg, the county seat and a way-station on the Great Road. It is likely, however, that Blacksburg was meant to capitalize on the traffic of the Pepper's Ferry Road, the alternate and parallel route of the Great Road.

The town that William Black had laid off by 1797 was a rectangular grid of sixteen blocks. The property line corresponding to Draper Road anchored the grid and was known as Toms Creek Street but was soon called Main Street. The sloping space between Main Street and Draper Road was occupied by the first range of four two-acre blocks; three more ranges filled in the rest of the town land. Each block was divided into four half-acre lots.¹⁴

Blacksburg in the antebellum period experienced growth much like that of Christiansburg. Methodist institutions such as the Blacksburg Female Academy (1842) and the Olin and Preston Institute (1854) were established while similar Presbyterian schools were begun in Christiansburg. The Presbyterians moved out of the meetinghouse they shared with the Methodists to a building called the Union Hill Church on the southern edge of town in 1832. The Methodists probably built a new church beside the old meetinghouse around the same time. In 1848 the Presbyterians moved back into town into a brick building at the corner of Main and Lee streets (150-2).

This action may have prompted the Methodists to build another church on the site of their former one.¹⁵ The Baptists built a church at Church Street and Roanoke Street in the 1850s.¹⁶ Unlike Christiansburg, Blacksburg gradually filled the many blocks not directly on its main street. In fact, only the early houses built on the narrower back streets have survived to the present.

LAFAYETTE

The area surrounding the confluence of the north and south forks of the Roanoke River was settled in the mid-18th century by Isaac Taylor. His property, which soon after his arrival in 1751 consisted of four hundred acres, was located in the path of the Ingles Ferry Road as it followed the Roanoke Valley toward the New River plateau.¹⁷ The position of Taylor's land at the head of a potential seasonal water transportation route and at the juncture of the two agricultural valleys of the north and south forks suggests the eventual development of a regional center.

In 1822 local landowners agreed to build a grist- and sawmill at the forks of the Roanoke River on the land owned by the heirs of William Taylor. In 1825 the land where the mill stood was purchased from the Taylors. In that same year John Pepper laid out a town nearby: it was referred to as Fayette in the deeds for lots sold by the Taylors beginning in 1826.¹⁸

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In 1828 Fayette was officially incorporated as a town by the General Assembly. Ten acres had been laid out in lots, streets, and alleys. The development of Lafayette may have been spurred by proposals in the late 1820s and 1830s to improve the Roanoke River from Salem to the forks, probably through the construction of a canal. Salem was the termination of the proposed Roanoke Canal of 1815, which would have provided much movement of goods and produce to and from the region. In fact the town of Lafayette, as it officially styled itself after 1835, was successful in its growth during the 1830s. It was the most populous area between Christiansburg and Salem.

Lafayette was originally laid out in six blocks totaling forty-eight lots. While only four blocks are recognizable today, and only two are obvious on a early surveyor's map,¹⁹ the original plat of 1826 (which does not survive) probably included all six blocks, with two extending eastward from the present four. By 1848, a brick Methodist church (60-418-14) was constructed on a lot adjacent to the center of the four blocks of present-day Lafayette. There also was a public square used as a muster ground during the Civil War. This square was comprised of nine square poles subtracted from each of the four lots at the intersection of Main and Union streets and was located directly in front of the church.²⁰

In 1846 the Southwestern Turnpike bypassed the town and growth slowed dramatically. The surviving elements of the town are being nominated as part of this submission. A more detailed description may be found there.

ENDNOTES

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³F.B. Kegley and M.B. Kegley, Early Adventurers on the Western Waters, 2 vols (Orange, Va: Green Publishers, Inc., 1980), vol. 1.

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⁸Joseph Martin, A New and Comprehensive Gazetteer of Virginia,
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records.

¹⁰Kelgey, Early Adventurers, vol. 1, p. 258.

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¹⁴Donna Durnay, et al, Blacksburg: Understanding a Virginia Town:
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¹⁵Ellison A. Smyth, A History of the Blacksburg Presbyterian Church:
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¹⁶W.B. Conway, "In Old Blacksburg," typescript copy of article in
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¹⁷Works Progress Administration, Montgomery County Historical
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¹⁸Montgomery County Virginia, Deed Books.

¹⁹Southwestern Turnpike papers.

²⁰Works Progress Administration, Inventory.

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HISTORIC CONTEXT #3 Domestic Architecture

1745 - 1800

Most of the early dwellings in Montgomery County, a region lacking in sawmills and skilled craftsmen, were constructed of logs. Techniques of log construction were brought to the North American continent by continental European immigrants as a part of their cultural heritage. The log home was well suited to a land with an ample supply of clear-splitting, inexpensive timber, while the craftsmanship and materials necessary to build a frame or masonry house were very expensive. The Scotch-Irish adapted the log building technology they encountered in Pennsylvania to the kinds of houses they were familiar with in Ireland and they and the settlers of German and Swiss ancestry carried the tradition with them throughout the upland South. Log as the material for building churches and public buildings as well as houses was a part of the means by which the settlers quickly tamed and improved the upland South, and its economy and rapidity of assembly made it possible for some families to relocate several times in a quarter-century during a gradual move west.

While logs continued to be a popular building material until the mid-nineteenth century and even later, brick was introduced for the homes of wealthy landowners before 1800. Although at least one sawmill is known to have existed before 1798,¹ few frame buildings survive from before the third quarter of the 19th century. Notable exceptions are Smithfield (listed in the National Register of Historic Places in 1969), which was built in the Drapers Meadow vicinity in the mid-1770s, and the Madison Farm (60-564) near Elliston on the South Fork of the Roanoke, built probably in the fourth quarter of the 18th century or early 19th century (being nominated as a part of this submission). Few 18th-century log dwellings survive in recognizable form. Those which are traditionally assigned early dates are frequently incorporated in later frame buildings and have been stripped of features that might help to establish their age.

While a few substantial homes from the period remain and others may have been built, the survival rate indicates that from the 1740s until well into the 19th century housing in Montgomery County was of a semi-permanent nature. Probably the most ubiquitous houses built by the early settlers, (and the first choice of most Montgomery County landowners during the first half of the 19th century as well), was the one-story, one-room dwelling with a garret. These were invariably constructed of logs and took square and rectangular forms. In some cases the logs were covered with weatherboarding at an early date, if not at the time of construction. The single-pen or one-room log house was usually equipped with a garret reached by a ladder or steep enclosed stair; and the house was heated by an external chimney on one gable end.

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While patterns of addition or combination of single-pen dwellings have been recognized in related settlement regions, such as saddlebag, dogtrot, and double-pen dwellings, no examples have been identified from the early period.

John Preston, a son of William Preston, was important in the affairs of the county in the late 18th and early 19th centuries. In 1797 he had a store (perhaps in Blacksburg), and the survival of a record of one man's method of payment is illustrative of the region's barter economy as well as of the nature and form of log building. To settle an account at Preston's Store, Casper Barger, a farmer to the north of Blacksburg, built for Preston "a log house 30 feet by 20 feet, laying sleepers and joices and hewing down, agreed on @ \$50."²

There seems to have been no middle ground in 18th-century Montgomery County housing. In contrast to the many small and largely vanished houses of the early settlers, a number of wealthy landowners erected large and ostentatious dwellings as soon as it was possible. Many of the landowners arrived with sufficient wealth, while others had gradually accumulated it during the first decades of the county's settlement. The Prestons were of the first kind. William Preston was the nephew of James Patton and had emigrated with Patton from Ireland to settle in the Shenandoah Valley. By 1752 he was deputy surveyor for Augusta County. He acted as surveyor for Patton's Draper Tract in 1754. In the 1760s he moved up the valley to the vicinity of the James River and developed an estate called Greenfield in Augusta County (later Botetourt County). In the early 1770s he purchased the lands further south patented by William Ingles and his brother-in-law, John Draper, and others, and immediately built a house on the combined tracts, which he named Smithfield. He moved his family to the region, then part of Fincastle County, from Greenfield before 1774. With each move Preston was able to reap large profits by the purchase of new land at cheaper prices in the riskier frontier areas.³ The new house had enabled Preston also to be in closer touch with the important political center at Fort Chiswell and the nearby lead mines. The farm eventually included a mill and a row of slave cabins.

The house at Smithfield (60-273), originally the seat of a farm of 1,770 acres, is one of the most unusual surviving houses in the county, and certainly the oldest. Situated on a rise in the rolling land on the upper section of Stroubles Creek, Smithfield stands on a Flemish bond brick basement. The five-bay principal (southeast) facade is pierced by a central door that opens into a passage containing a steep open stair to the upper floor. The garret is lit by four dormers on the south front and additional dormers on the rear and sides. An ell to the northeast joins the roof of the main house in a hip at the southeast corner, giving the house an L-shaped appearance. The rooms are plastered and feature molded trim and chair railing. The principal room features a paneled fireplace surrounded with a dentiled cornice.

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A double-shouldered chimney is set into the end wall of the ell. A chimney set in the reentrant angle of the ell, an unusual feature, serves corner fireplaces in the corner room and the main room in the ell. Recent key-year tree-ring cross-dating performed by the American Institute of Dendrochronology has established the date of 1775 as the last season of growth for the trees used to construct the main body of the house. No early agricultural buildings survive at Smithfield, although archaeological excavations have uncovered evidence of such buildings.

Smithfield's plan in part represents the trends that influenced domestic building on a national scale. The center passage with flanking rooms is characteristic of a house type which has been identified by architectural historians as the center-passage house. It seems to have developed out of an increased desire for privacy and a pervasive sense of classical symmetry and detail. In its two-story form the center-passage house is sometimes known as the I-house. As the 19th century passed, the I-house and its one-story counterpart became a prominent feature of the western Virginia landscape. Recent examination of the framing of Smithfield with an infrared sensor indicates that the building may have been built in sections, and in its original form it may have been similar to that of the house discussed below.

George Hancock, an emigrant from England to the Fincastle area, purchased land from Joseph Kent and moved to the broad bottom lands of the South Fork of the Roanoke River (in Study Unit 8) in 1796. Apparently he soon after began construction of a large brick house on a slope overlooking his farm, which he named Fotheringay. Fotheringay (60-442, listed in the National Register in 1969) is an elaborate two-story house with an unusually highly articulated interior. The original three-bay principal (north) facade is of Flemish bond. The entrance with a delicate two-story porch is in the west bay of the front. The nine-over-nine-light double-hung windows on the first floor are headed with splayed stone lintels with keystones. The cornice, which is ornamented with a dentil course and modillions, extends around and forms a pediment above the two-story porch, supported by slender columns on pedestals. An arch-headed doorway with enriched pilasters and keystone surrounds the entry on each floor of the porch. The house, with its ell, forms an L-shape, with the roof hipped at the northeast corner. The east wall, actually longer than the original front, is pierced by an arched door and forms a secondary facade.

The interior of Fotheringay is articulated with robust carved woodwork. Both first-floor rooms have modillion cornices and reeded chair rails, and the door connecting the passage with the parlor is flanked by pilasters and surmounted by a garlanded frieze and cornice. The ceiling of the passage is ornamented with a bull's-eye medallion. The parlor mantel carries a carved frieze and tablet supported by paired colonnettes, and above the shell stands a pedimented overmantel with flanking volutes.

The house takes the form of a two-thirds center-passage house, a not

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unusual variation of the form in eastern Virginia. A single room opens off the passage to the east. The passage is wider than a conventional entry passage, but contains an open stair. While there is no evidence that Hancock planned to add a room on the side of the passage opposite the parlor, the house was composed as if that was the case. In about 1960 an addition completed the symmetry of the house.

One house in Montgomery County provides a particularly clear connection to Shenandoah Valley forms. The Howard-Bell-Feather House (60-24), being nominated as part of this submission, located east of Riner in the southern part of the county, is the only early house in the county constructed of stone. It is sited in a bank, so that the ground floor is entered at grade on the southeast facade. Probably built during the first decades of the 19th century or the last decades of the 18th century, the house is unique in the region in several respects. While numerous stone houses have been recorded farther to the southwest, including Pulaski and Wythe counties, they differ from the Howard-Bell-Feather House in that their gables are built of stone, while at the Montgomery County house the gables are framed on top of a plate resting on the stone wall of the first floor. The banked siting is known to occur in only a few instances elsewhere in the immediate region; the three-room upper-floor plan, while rare in the area, is typical of houses in the Shenandoah Valley's upper half. The bank siting and three-room plan have been associated by some writers with the German ethnic tradition,⁴ although there is no evidence for such at the Howard-Bell-Feather House. The upper floor, which was reached by a door at ground level on the northwest and a former porch on the southeast, incorporates a nearly square heated room at the southeast end and shows evidence of two small rooms at the opposite end, each originally heated by fireplaces set diagonally at the center of the northeast end wall. The lower floor contained two rooms, one unheated and the other apparently serving as the principal cooking space of the house.

The Madison Farm (60-565, a part of this nomination) in the broad bottom lands of the South Fork of the Roanoke River just west of the forks, is a very unusual house for the region both in materials and integrity. Apparently built by William Madison, who had settled in the region in the late 18th century, the house has been substantially altered since its building. The two-story frame house retains a hall-parlor floor plan, discussed in the next period, but was modified to act as a side-passage layout in the third quarter of the 19th century, at which time the stairs were removed and almost all of the interior trim was replaced, and a large ell and two-story front porch were added. The chief features of the house remain the twin Flemish-bond chimneys at either end, similar in many respects to those at Smithfield, where the parents of Madison's wife (Elizabeth Preston) lived. The farm includes a group of important early log and frame outbuildings. Archaeological testing performed as part of the project leading to this nomination indicated that

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significant deposits around the house and on the site of a former kitchen containe artificats likely to increase our understanding of the site and its use, and of 18th- and 19th-century life in Montgomery County. The only similar site in the area is the late 18th-century frame hall-parlor house at Ingleside, now in the City of Radford (listed in the National Register in 1979 as part of the Ingles Bottom Archaeological District).

1800 - 1830

In the early 19th century log single-pen or one-room dwellings continued to be the most common housing type. Of the approximately six hundred domestic structures recorded in the county, as many as one hundred and five seem to have been of the single-pen form, of which fourteen were square in shape. As few as ten were identified as dating from the early 19th century. In this period the homes of middling and prosperous farmers began to take on a more substantial character. Surviving early 19th-century houses in the Montgomery County area frequently take the form of the two-room or hall-parlor house. This house form, which is found in the Pennsylvania and Chesapeake areas in both one- and two-story examples, was developed in 17th-century America from Medieval Irish and English precursors. Early examples in Virginia are characterized by an asymmetrical bay (door and window) organization reflecting the unequal sizes of the two rooms behind the facade. The larger room was served by a fireplace and is usually identified as the hall, where cooking and household activities took place. The smaller room, separated from the hall by a partition, usually functioned as a parlor or "best room," and secondarily as a bedroom. Second-floor or loft areas were used for storage and sleeping, and were usually reached by an enclosed stair rising from the hall.

The remaining recorded two-room houses were built of log (of which several good examples survive) as well as stone and brick. Of the approximately six hundred domestic structures recorded in the county, as many as fifty-five houses of all materials took the two-room form, of which only a limited number of log examples were clearly identified as dating from the early 19th century. The early part of Solitude (60-100-3), near Blacksburg, listed in the National Register in 1988, the Patterson-Eakin House in the North Fork Vally Rural Historic District (60-355), the McDonald Farm (60-235) on Toms Creek, and the Earhart House #1, (60-385) near Ellett--all part of this nomination--are among the most important of the two-room or hall-parlor houses dating from this period.

Several brick two-room houses from the early 19th-century period have been identified in the portion of early Montgomery County now in Pulaski County, and more within present-day county boundaries. The Keister House (60-280) near Blacksburg and the Arrington House (60-300), both part of

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this nomination, are two-story brick two-room houses probably dating from late in the period.

At least two brick center-passage houses were built in present-day Montgomery County during the period, such as the much-altered five-bay Barnett House (60-440), part of this submission, near Elliston in Study Unit 8; the house has a fanlighted front entry. Kentland (60-202, not a part of this nomination), a five-bay center-passage house of brick which stands in the bottom lands of the New River, is related to an important series of brick houses built across the river in the Back Creek section of present-day Pulaski County. Kentland House, supposedly built by county craftsman John Swope, features splayed jack arches and an elegant frontispiece at the entry, on which engaged columns flank the door below a full entablature. The Crumpacker-McPherson House (60-360), also part of this nomination, is a much altered brick five-bay center-passage house in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District. Of the approximately six hundred domestic structures recorded, twenty-four were of this form. Only the three houses mentioned appear to date from the early part of the century. Only two-story center-passage-plan houses were built after Smithfield until the mid-19th century.

Blacksburg and Christiansburg, founded in the 1790s, apparently grew gradually through the period. According to one secondary source Christiansburg's lot sales were governed by a restriction that the buildings be a minimum of sixteen feet square and be equipped with a brick or stone chimney (Crush, 1957 p. 145). Blacksburg's deeds carried a rider stipulating that the houses were to be built of brick, stone, or wood, no less than seventeen feet square, and with a brick or stone chimney. The regulations (which are not unusual) seem to be designed to prevent the erection of a type of building of lesser quality or fire safety. It is left to us to imagine the kinds of structures which would have been unacceptable, since few, if any, houses survive from the period which fail to meet the regulations.

The few remaining early houses in Blacksburg and Christiansburg are single-pen and hall-parlor log houses. These include the Barnett-Montague House (154-1-1) and the Lane-Moore House (154-1-9) in the East Main Street Historic District in Christiansburg and the Croy House (150-8), the Spout Spring House (150-68), and the Johnson House (150-66) in the eight-block area in the Blacksburg Historic District northeast of Church Street in Blacksburg. The Barnett-Montague House and the Johnson House were the subjects of archaeological investigation as a part of the project leading to this nomination. The artifacts uncovered at each site support the existence of extensive middens of both properties, containing information of considerable value in understanding the way the sites were used and the habits of the occupants. The ceramic and other artifacts found confirm the mid-19th-century date of the Johnson House and the late 18th- to early

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19th-century occupation date for the Barnett-Montague House suggested by historical research. More testing needs to be done, however, to establish whether either site contributes to the significance of the district under criterion D.

1830-1865

During the antebellum period domestic architecture was influenced by national design trends to a greater extent than previously. The delicate and finely detailed finishes identified with the Federal style were gradually replaced by the heavier and more two-dimensional Greek Revival finishes, based in part on an increasing reliance on popular pattern books by owners and builders. The introduction of new plans and decorative forms, however, did not mean that traditional plans and forms were abandoned by builders of any economic level. The hall-parlor plan continued to be employed, particularly in connection with log construction. Log continued to be the most popular building material during the antebellum period. As with earlier periods, the low survival rate among dwellings of poor farmers and landless inhabitants causes a distortion in the information available.

Out of a total of 105 recognizable single-pen houses, as many as forty appear to date from the period, of which only two are square or nearly square in shape. While in some cases it is difficult to distinguish between hall-parlor and single-pen houses, due to the inaccessibility of views of the alterations, there appear to be in addition nearly forty log hall-parlor houses dating from the period. The houses of both forms appear in both one-and-one-half- and two-story examples, with the front of hall-parlor houses often symmetrically pierced with three bays, and a single chimney of stone or brick at one end, although several log hall-parlor houses with two chimneys were recorded. Two frame hall-parlor houses were built, including the important Preston Waskie House (60-118-11) in the Lafayette Historic District, a two-story example constructed early in the period.

Frame and brick center-passage houses were built in larger numbers during the mid- 19th century in most of the study units. Five-bay fenestration was largely replaced by three-bay fenestration in the period, while hipped roofs became popular in connection with this house type. Nineteen frame I-houses were located from the period, and eight brick examples. The James Brown House (60-330), in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District, is a good example of a largely unaltered frame center-passage house with a two-story Greek Revival-inspired portico centered in its two-story principal facade. The Earhart House #2 (60-380) near Ellett is another good example, and is individually listed as part of this nomination. It features a wide one-story porch with plastered

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ceiling and wall above an outdoor paneled wainscot, as well as a well-preserved log kitchen.

Another form in the county originally derived, like the conventional center-passage house, from classical published prototypes, is known as the double-pile, center-passage house. It is essentially a two-room-deep version of the plan in which a pair of rooms flank the passage on each side. One frame and three brick double-pile, two-story, center-passage-plan houses were located, including the brick Price House (60-244-1), in the Price's Fork Historic District, and Whitethorn (60-241), an individual nomination, near Blacksburg. Whitethorn, for which a good inventory exists, has elaborate Greek Revival details. A house built early in the period, the Woods-Grubb House (60-362) in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District, is a double-pile brick house, which, like Fotheringay (built in the late 18th century) is a two-thirds manifestation of its primary form. Archaeological testing around the house revealed the existence of deposits of artifacts and architectural features adding to knowledge about the house and the lives of its occupants. A nearby tanyard site associated with the house was also tested and is discussed in the industrial context.

Few frame structures have been identified from before mid-century; the Preston Waskie House mentioned above and the hotel at Yellow Sulphur Springs (60-558), listed in the National Register in 1979, are notable exceptions. Portions of the hotel date from the previous period, but the exterior of the present structure was built as part of a redevelopment of the spa in the mid-1850s and consists of a long two-story frame building on a raised basement with a triple-tiered Greek Revival porch running its full length. By 1840 the industrial census records five wooden houses built the previous year as opposed to two masonry houses. These were houses built by contractors who made more than \$500 per year in order to be counted in the industrial record--the census did not include houses constructed by any part-time or nonprofessional builder.

1865 - 1940

The large farms, small industrial concerns, and mining industries stimulated the building of houses for many workers in the rural and town areas. Many homes built in this context were built as part of vernacular patterns of housing on a national scale. Most of these homes fit within types recognized by architectural historians as the three- or four-bay double-cell dwelling. Usually a single story in height, the double-cell house is a small frame dwelling frequently divided into two equal-sized rooms. The houses were built in the period between 1880 and about 1940. In the three-bay form the house is entered through a single central door into one of the rooms or a small lobby between them. Sometimes, in the

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symmetrical four-bay form, each room is equipped with a front door in the two center bays. Roofs are usually gabled, although examples of hipped roofs have been found in the region. The double-cell house is also found in agricultural districts, where it was used for tenant housing on large farms. Several of these are located in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District, as well as a three-room variant, identified as the T-plan form. These forms, and the recording methods used are discussed in the survey report.⁵

The three-bay center-passage-plan house continued to be built in increasing numbers on smaller farms and at crossroads communities and suburban locations. These houses are invariably framed and weatherboarded in this period, and frequently feature a two-story gabled or pedimented porch in the center bay. The houses were built well into the 20th century. Additional rooms were built, as in previous periods, in an ell to the rear. Stylistic differentiation was achieved through the use of pattern book ornament applied to the porch or gabled ends in the form of spindle friezes, sawn brackets, and decorative wood shingles in fishscale or other patterns.

Using field codes and survey forms it was determined that there were more than five hundred center-passage one- and two-story houses of light frame construction located in the county between 1880 and about 1940. Almost all were of three-bay fenestration, while a minority were of only one-story or double-pile depth. The largest number of center-passage houses in the typology (more than 50 percent) were located in the hilly agricultural land to the south in the Little River and South Fork study units.

Only one rural center-passage house from the period, the strongly traditional Pompey Callaway House (60-434, part of this nomination), was of brick construction. The builder was a former slave who built his house in 1910 with bricks burned on his lot in his own kiln. A few large double-pile brick and frame houses were built principally in the towns, and a few smaller one-story center-passage frame houses were built in rural areas. Large brick center-passage houses include the Presbyterian Manse in the Blacksburg Historic District (150-48), which incorporates a five-bay facade, unusual in this period, and is more typical of early to mid-19th-century center-passage houses.

During this period several houses were located that appear to be mail-order dwellings, including the Frank Lawrence House of about 1918 (60-3, part of this submission), which was bought and shipped from Sears and Roebuck Company. Sears began shipping house materials and plans in 1908.⁶ In addition many houses were influenced in varying degrees by the national publications of designs for one-story bungalows, and their two-story counterparts known as foursquare houses, several of which are found in the Backsburg Historic District. These types of houses, which

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were built of brick and frame construction, and occasionally of stone or concrete block, often incorporate asymmetrical plans and deep gable roofs with central dormers. The largest concentrations of bungalows are found in the towns of Blacksburg and Christiansburg, with the next largest group in the Crab Creek Study Unit (18 percent). By far the greatest concentration of foursquare houses is found in Blacksburg (43 percent), with the next greatest group (16 percent) in the South Fork Study Unit. The house at the Blankenship Farm (60-386, part of this nomination) takes the foursquare form. In many cases the traditional double-pile, or two-room deep, double-cell house was adapted to resemble the bungalow model in one or more specifics. Examples of these can be found in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District.

A number of fine architect-designed Colonial Revival brick houses were built in the 1930s in Blacksburg's proposed Miller-Southside Historic District. The designer of the houses, which resemble center-passage houses from the exterior and utilize brick in an ornamental manner, was Virginia Polytechnic Institute architecture professor, Clinton W. Cowgill. The subdivisions which were brought together by a group of landowners to form the Miller-Southside district in the 1920s form a cohesive whole. The street grid found in the district are an extension of the streets of downtown Blacksburg. Today it is one of Blacksburg's most pleasant residential areas.

Unlike neighboring Pulaski County, Montgomery County did not see the construction of a significant group of large brick center-passage-plan houses as the seats of new farms or replacements of old farmhouses, due to the different scale and range of agriculture in the county, but the center-passage-plan house remained the symbol for success well into the 20th century in all areas of the county until replaced by other popular forms in the second quarter. At several farms, small single-pen dwellings were relegated to subsidiary use by the construction of a new center-passage-plan house in the early years of this century.

ENDNOTES

¹F.B. Kegley and M.B. Kegley, Early Adventurers on the Western Waters (Orange, Va: Green Publishers, Inc., 1980, 1982), vol. 1, p. 204.

²Kegley, Early Adventurers, vol. 1, p. 258.

³Robert D. Mitchell, Commercialism and Frontier: Perspective on the Early Shenandoah Valley (Charlottesville, Va: University Press of Virginia, 1977), p. 52.

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⁴Edward A. Chappell, "Acculturation in the Shenandoah Valley: Flemish Houses of the Massanatten Settlement," in Proceedings (Philadelphia: American Philosophical Society, Vol. 124, no. 1, February, 1980), p. 61.

⁵Gibson Worsham, et al, Montgomery County Historic Sites Survey, (Christiansburg, Va: County of Montgomery, 1986), pp. 246-248.

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HISTORIC CONTEXT #4 Commercial Architecture

1745-1790

The stores in the 18th-century New River region were probably similar to the country stores operated by farmer/merchants in the Shenandoah Valley back country; a source for finished goods, and a market for surplus farm produce, often used to exchange directly for goods or on an account system in which the merchant functioned as the only reliable source of long-term credit.¹ Farmers also offered their services in exchange for goods as is shown by an instance in which Casper Barger provided a log house for settlement of his account with John Preston's store in the Blacksburg area in 1797.² Peddlers filled the interstices of the trading network, supplying areas that had no stores as well as supplementing what was available in the stores.

Frequently the store of a frontier merchant occupied only a room in his house. Most of the stores in Montgomery County during the 18th and early 19th centuries seem to have taken that form. Joseph Cloyd, a farmer in the Back Creek area of present-day Pulaski County, operated a store during the 1770s that was clearly designed to fill the needs of that agriculturally wealthy region in the absence of any other merchant. In New Dublin, a small settlement in southeastern present-day Pulaski County, James McConkle and William Christian operated a store in the early 1770s. Account books from that store reveal that numerous utilitarian articles and basic foodstuffs were sold there, as well as books, medicines, rum, and writing materials. Craftsmen in the area with accounts include seamstresses, tailors, and hatters.

On the east side of New River, merchants in the 1770s and 1780s included John Elbeck, David Ross (who bought land at the head of Mill Creek possibly near present-day Riner), William and James Donald Company, Frederick Ire and Company, Manassas Friel, William Dill, James Russell and William Hany. No resources were located from the period.

1790-1830

During the early 19th century the Great Road through southwest Virginia continued to serve as the region's sole link to eastern and western areas. Access to the area was much improved by the construction in 1806-1809 of the Alleghany Turnpike along the critical stretch of the Great Road from Salem to the crest of the Alleghany Ridge near Christiansburg. The road carried a heavy traffic in hogs, sheep, cattle, chickens, and turkeys and helped create an important market for local farmers throughout the Appalachian region.³ This trade was served by merchants who erected stockades or "stands" where animals and their drivers were fed. These sometimes developed into local centers for trade

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where farmers could exchange produce for goods. Many developed where stock roads crossed or ran beside larger rivers. These roads were used for limited shipment of goods.⁴ Such a settlement may have spurred the initial development of Lovely Mount (Radford) among other early villages.

A rare reference to the region's commercial needs and activities is made in Montgomery County's 1809 petition for the establishment of the town of Triggsville in present-day central Pulaski County. The town, which never existed, was intended to "encourage a degree in the general scale of mechanism and manufacturers" and was to remedy the lack of a convenient market in the area.

By 1828 Montgomery County trade supported twelve retail and no wholesale merchants.⁵ While several of the merchants were located in Jacksonville and Newbern in the present counties of Floyd and Pulaski, the largest concentration was undoubtedly in Christiansburg. Today the stores of Newbern are the only surviving examples of early 19th-century mercantile establishments. The best preserved store, which dates from after 1810, was incorporated into the Hance-Alexander House as a lower room.

In the late 18th century wealthy landowners on the eastern seaboard began traveling to the mountain regions of Virginia in order to escape the heat and humidity of summer in the coastal areas. Following the examples of Berkeley Springs and the White Sulphur Springs beyond the Allegheny Mountains, a number of resorts were developed in the early nineteenth century to capitalize on the reputed healing properties of mineral springs in the western region. One of the earliest of these was located in Montgomery County. In operation as early as 1800, Taylor's or the Yellow Springs (60-558), listed in the National Register in 1979, was developed by Charles Taylor on a tract owned by David Robinson between Christiansburg and Blacksburg in a hollow of the Alleghany Ridge just below the eastern continental divide. A characteristic of early resort life was its camp-like simplicity. Visitors to Taylor's Springs were housed in log buildings near the spring and in a central frame structure.

1830-1865

During the majority of the antebellum period trade functioned as it had during the previous periods. The advent of the Southwestern Turnpike in 1848 stimulated trade along the route of the former Great Road. Barter and the extension of credit continued to be primary roles of the merchant in his relations with local farmers. The arrival of the Virginia and Tennessee Railroad in 1854 helped to open the region to the national economic system and began the alteration of local economic structures.

The 1850 census schedules list a total of nineteen merchants in the county, of whom eight were in Christiansburg, five in Blacksburg, one in Lafayette, and five elsewhere. Of the last group, two (Stephen and Thomas

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Childress) were at Childress, one (James V. Deaton) may have been in Shaws-ville or on the South Fork of the Roanoke River, another (Anthony Obenchain) may have been in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District at McDonald's Mill, and the last (Russell Carper) may have been near Lovely Mount, three miles southeast of present-day Radford. Carper, and possibly Deaton, seem to have been trading with travelers on the Southwestern Turnpike and Obenchain seems to have located near a prosperous mill.

Lafayette was the headquarters of Montgomery County's diminished tobacco trade of 1850. Two traders lived there--Thomas J. Deyerle and James Moses. Two tobacconists, possibly tobacco buyers (Charles Frasier and Isaac Lane), lived in the Deyerle household. The only other trader listed in the county was Edward A. Craddock in Christiansburg. Lafayette's sole merchant was White G. Ryan. Peddlers continued to serve the population of the more remote areas as they had since the colonial period. Five are listed for the county, three of whom were based at Anderson's Hotel in Christiansburg.⁶

In the Appalachian region, as in other rural parts of the United States, legal tender was scarce during the whole of the 19th century. Barter formed almost the only medium of exchange. Some banks were established in county seats before the Civil War, but generally very few were able to reopen afterwards. The merchant was the central figure in the local economy. He exchanged retail goods for the farmer's surplus produce and extended credit to his customers. The community's service businesses, such as mills, provided a service in exchange for a toll or portion of the product. This commercial arrangement insulated the local economy from the cycles of the national markets.

The first bank in Montgomery County was the Blacksburg Savings Institution incorporated on March 8, 1849. On March 16, 1850, in an attempt to encourage the development of regional economies, an act was passed by the General Assembly to establish a branch of a major bank at Fincastle, Salem, Christiansburg, or Blacksburg. The Bank of Virginia, the Farmers Bank of Virginia, the Exchange Bank of Virginia "or any other bank of circulation within this commonwealth" was authorized to establish a bank in those towns. In 1853 the Bank of the Valley bought a lot on the northeast side of the public square in Christiansburg from John Gardner and erected a bank building and residence where Charles B. Gardner lived. The Farmer's Bank of Virginia may have availed itself of the legislation to open a branch in Blacksburg, for in 1855 it purchased from Edwin Amiss the Amiss Hotel and adjoining lot. The Farmer's Bank may have absorbed the Blacksburg Savings Institution by 1855.

The public and commercial buildings of this period continue to display domestic scale and fenestration patterns. The two banks built in Christiansburg and Blacksburg in the mid-1850s were similar to large three-bay, two-story houses of brick. Both buildings were demolished in the 1960s.

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In 1842 Charles Taylor sold the small resort at Yellow Springs to Armistead W. Forrest. By the antebellum period springs resorts were burgeoning throughout the western regions of Virginia. The lawns near the water sources were often laid out as elaborate pleasure grounds, and the spas were popular as both social and health resorts.

In the early 1850s the imminent arrival of the Virginia and Tennessee Railroad, connecting the New River region with the southwest and east, stimulated the development of several other resorts. In Montgomery County a consortium of wealthy landowners formed a corporation to build the Montgomery White Sulphur Springs, one of the most extensive and elaborate undertakings of the period in the commonwealth. The resort opened in July 1855 and was constructed based on architectural plans prepared by Richmond designers Exall and Clopton. The buildings, located near the North Fork of the Roanoke River, were removed at the turn of the century.

The two-story hotel and cottages of Montgomery White Sulphur Springs constituted an important architectural grouping. Built in 1855, the quadrangle of frame buildings in the Italianate style shows the influence of the picturesque forms promulgated by the architectural press, particularly in the alternating sizes and shapes of the cottages which symmetrically flanked the central hotel. One of the cottages (154-8, part of this submission) apparently was moved to Christiansburg in the early twentieth century. It is a one-story four-bay hip-roofed structure with an integral porch supported by heavy square columns.

In 1853 the Alleghany Springs was opened by John W. Holt and Charles Calhoun on the South Fork of the Roanoke River, three and one-half miles from the railroad at Shawsville. The resort quickly grew and housed four hundred guests in 1857. The principal structure was a two-story double-pile five-bay frame building on a raised basement.

The Yellow Springs had changed hands in 1853 and was incorporated in 1856 under the expanded title of the Yellow Sulphur Springs, although there was little sulphur in the water, and the cottage rows were extended. The improved resort now presented a much grander appearance, as depicted in Edward Beyer's Album of Virginia of 1857.⁸

1865-1910

While barter continued to be an important economic tool in the farm economy, the increased dependence of the local market on extraregional commerce tied it more closely to the national economy and led to the growth of several banks.

Chataigne's Directory of 1889 lists forty-one general merchants in Montgomery County. The breakdown by town is as follows: Lovely Mount (near present-day Radford), eight; Christiansburg, Blacksburg, and Big Spring Depot (Elliston), five each; Prices Fork, four (all named Price); Shawsville, Alleghany Springs and Ronald (Cambria), two each; and one each for Lafayette, Riner, McDonald's Mill, Bennett's Mill, Childress, Vicker's Switch, Fagg and the county at large.⁹

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Two stores of the 1870s reveal information about commerce during that period by their advertisements in the Montgomery Messenger. D. W. Frizell's "dry goods, notions" store in Christiansburg advertised: "All kinds of produce taken in exchange for goods." T. W. Jones and Sons' "Depot Emporium," presumably in Cambria, sold "Brush Mountain and Price Mountain COAL."¹⁰

Among the first banks to be chartered in Montgomery County after the Civil War were the Christiansburg Savings Institution incorporated in 1866 and the 1876 Christiansburg Bank. In 1888 the Bank of Christiansburg was chartered and opened in the building constructed in 1853 by the defunct Bank of the Valley. In Blacksburg the bank of Conway and Hubbert was established by 1889. The Bank of Blacksburg was chartered in 1891 with Alexander Black as its first president.

Together with the two major commercial buildings in the Cambria Historic District from the turn-of-the-century period, the Dew Drop Inn (154-48-4) and the Surface-Lee Block (154-48-5), the Old Christiansburg Depot (154-48-1) forms the center of the railroad community of Cambria, a small area including significant commercial structures from the late 19th and early 20th centuries.

The earliest of the county's extant historic commercial resources date from the late 19th century. Eight buildings were identified from the period: generally of frame construction, of one or two stories in height, and usually featuring a gable or parapet facing the street or road. Pressed metal and iron are rare streetfront materials; usually wooden display windows, often heavily shuttered, flank a central door, and in many rural areas, a shed addition to one side served as a warehouse or storage area. A good rural example is the one-story Price Store (60-224-2) in the Prices Fork Historic District. The Deyerle Store (150-71) in the Blacksburg Historic District is one of the largest and most elaborate surviving commercial buildings. Its three-story gambrel-roofed mass is concealed behind a large weatherboarded parapet with a bracketed cornice. The Gardner Store in Lafayette (1-418-2) dates from the late 19th century and has a three-bay front with an integral storeroom door forming a fourth bay.

The Montgomery White Sulphur Springs and the Alleghany Springs dominated postwar resort life in Montgomery County. In the 1872 season, attendance at these two springs and Yellow Sulphur Springs averaged a total of one thousand guests. The springs generated an estimated income of \$100,000, outstripping the combined income estimated for the county's educational institutions by more than two-thirds.¹¹ The resorts were clearly among the most important elements of the county's economy. Small farmers were able to market their produce locally to the managers of these resorts without paying a commission or freight charge and at inflated prices.

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The Alleghany Springs was mentioned in social dispatches in the urban press almost as often as were the popular White Sulphur Springs in West Virginia and the Rockbridge Alum Springs near Lexington in the upper Shenandoah Valley. By 1880 it could accommodate as many as a thousand guests. The springhouse at the Alleghany (60-476, nominated as part of this submission) was built during the late 19th century and is one of few remaining structures on the site. The rustic building was constructed of untrimmed cedar posts combined with curved and convoluted rhododendron roots and branches. It takes the form of an octagonal arcade around a central space lit by a clerestory. A series of marble shelves surrounds the central spring enclosure. In the ceiling of each bay of the arcade a laurel root forms a knot at the center of the decorative vaulting.

The Yellow Sulphur Springs (60-558, listed in the National Register in 1979) was acquired in 1871 by J. and J. J. Wade, who proceeded to improve the facilities. A springhouse and a new hotel with forty guest rooms and hot and cold mineral baths were constructed. The new hotel at the Yellow Sulphur burned in 1873 and the resort struggled until 1886 under court-appointed commissioners. In that year Captain Ridgeway Holt built a new hotel (since demolished) which was the most modern and picturesque in the county. Sixty guest rooms were housed in a rambling 2-1/2-story U-shaped hotel with an irregular roofline punctuated by superimposed gables, dormers, and a domed turret.

Crockett Springs opened in 1899 several miles upstream from the Alleghany Springs on the South Fork of the Roanoke River. A 2-1/2-story frame hotel was built. The company operated at a loss for some years, but the resort's financial condition improved by the end of the century, just as the county's two largest springs resorts went out of business. Today only a two-room cottage (60-487, part of this submission) remains at this site.

1910-1940

National retail chains began to appear in Montgomery County's towns during the early 20th century as evidenced by the Great Atlantic and Pacific Tea Company which opened a grocery market on Main Street in Blacksburg in the 1920s. Locally owned establishments continued to operate. The beginning of the 20th century saw the establishment of banks in three of the county's smaller communities. In 1907 the Bank of Shawsville was formed by George W. Gardner and John L. Vaughn. Vaughn was probably the builder of the 1910 bank building (60-456-3) on the main street in the Shawsville Historic District. The present site of the Bank of Riner was owned by G. D. Surface in 1912-13 when the bank building was constructed on the site of an old community well. The Bank of Riner (60-44-4, in the Riner Historic District) closed in December 1931.^{1,2} The Bank of Cambria (no longer standing) was founded early in the century.

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In 1901 the Bank of Blacksburg had moved to the Conway Building (150-36) next door to its former offices, and in 1920 it constructed a two-story brick-faced bank and store building (150-37) on the west corner of Main and Roanoke streets (both buildings are in the Blacksburg Historic District). In 1922 the name of the bank was changed to the National Bank of Blacksburg, its present name. In 1942 the bank built a stylish coursed stone building (150-42) across the street on the site of the Amiss Hotel. In 1961 the bank moved again, this time out of the district, onto the site of the original Farmers Bank of Virginia building, built about 1855.

The commercial buildings from the period constitute the largest group of surviving commercial structures. They range from hotels, like the Virginia Inn of about 1920 (154-24) in Christiansburg, a three-story brick structure, to the Lyric Theatre of 1930 (154-30) in the Blacksburg Historic District, an ornate moviehouse, store, and office block. Most of the more substantial store buildings, which include the two-story store (154-29) and the Palace Theater (154-18) in Christiansburg and many two-story stores in Blacksburg and Christiansburg, are located in the towns. The surviving rural stores are similar in form to the stores described in the previous period and are typical of the fifty-three commercial structures surveyed from the period. Christiansburg was the commercial center of the county during this and the previous period and its surviving structures illustrate that element of its history.

ENDNOTES

¹Robert D. Mitchell, Commercialism and Frontier: Perspective on the Early Shenandoah Valley (Charlottesville, Va: The University Press of Virginia, 1977), pp. 154-5.

²F.B. Kegley and M.B. Kegley, Early Adventurers on the Western Waters (Orange, Va: Green Publishers Inc. 1980, 1982), vol. 1, p. 258.

³Walter Kirk Wood, "The Alleghany Turnpike and Internal Improvements" (M.A. thesis, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, 1969).

⁴Ronald P. Eller, Miners, Millhands, and Mountaineers: The Modernization of the Appalachian South, 1880-1930, (Ann Arbor, Mi: University Microfilms International, 1979).

⁵Virginia, House of Delegates, Journal.

⁶U.S. Census Schedules, 1850.

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⁷Lynchburg Daily Virginian, July 1855.

⁸Jon Kukla, ed., Album of Virginia; or Illustrations of the Old Dominion (Richmond, Va: Virginia State Library reprint of 1858 edition, 1980).

⁹Chataigne's Business Directory (1889).

¹⁰Montgomery Messenger, advertisements, 1870s.

¹¹Montgomery Messenger, May 23, 1873.

¹²Virginia Deal Lawrence, "Memories of Riner," Mountainside Magazine, vol. 1, no. 4 (1981): 26-29.

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HISTORIC CONTEXT #5 Institutional Architecture

1745 - 1790

Religion was of foremost importance to the Montgomery County area's earliest settlers, a small band of Dunkard brethren from the Ephrata Society in Pennsylvania who settled at Dunkard Bottom on the New River in present-day Pulaski County in 1745. The Dunkards are a communal separatist religious group of Baptists founded in Germany in the early eighteenth century under the influence of Pietism. Mounting tension between Indians and settlers on the frontier led the Dunkards to abandon their New River settlement in the early 1750s and move to a safer and less isolated site now located in northern West Virginia.

Before churches had been established in Montgomery County, itinerant preachers were active in the area. Among the earliest for which records survive were the Moravian Leonhard Schnell and a companion from Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, who in late 1749 traveled to the New River region and ministered to Jacob and Adam Harmon and other early German settlers.¹

The majority of settlers in the New River Valley were Scotch-Irish and at least nominally Presbyterian, although few saw or heard a minister during the first decades of settlement. Presbyterian preachers did, however, visit the area more or less regularly throughout the late eighteenth century.

The newly formed Hanover Presbytery appointed John Craig, minister of the Tinkling Springs congregation in the Shenandoah Valley, to supply congregations at Roanoke River and Catawba Creek. In 1769 Craig visited the newly formed New Derry congregation at the forks of the Roanoke River. The New Derry congregation built a meetinghouse (probably by 1769) which was described as being in a ruinous condition in 1791.²

A revival began in Virginia in 1787, by which time Virginia had a large portion of the nation's Methodists, a group that evolved from the established Anglican church. Although controversies over the strictness of the church's episcopal government caused the church to lose ground in the 1790s, by the turn of the century western churches were growing rapidly.

One of the earliest adherents to Methodism in Montgomery County was Edward Morgan, who in about 1773 built Page's Meeting House in present-day eastern Pulaski County. Local tradition states that in 1783 Joseph McDonald was successful in persuading a Reverend Green Hill of North Carolina to come preach at his farm later known as Green Hill (60-225, being nominated as part of this submission). The Methodist church in Blacksburg regards this as its date of organization.

The Baptists, an important British Protestant group of strict Calvinist theology, had first appeared in Virginia in 1714. The earliest

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Baptist church in Montgomery County was the Bethel Church organized in 1774 with William Howard (d. 1815) as pastor and an initial membership of twenty-one. Howard's house, the Howard-Bell-Feather House (60-24) is included in this submission. In 1810 Bethel was the largest congregation in the New River Association with a membership of seventy-eight. Meadow Creek Church was organized in 1785 by John Lawrence. According to Semple (1810), the congregation of twenty-eight was formed "partly out of members who moved hither from New York [among them Lawrence] and partly of natives."³ A multid denominational function was not uncommon among these early churches; so-called "union" churches were common throughout Montgomery County and western Virginia.

A Baptist congregation was formed on the North Fork of the Roanoke in the late eighteenth century by James Mathews and was headed by Isaac Rentfro until 1798. At the time of its constitution, the church had twenty-seven members.

As in Europe, the two principal German denominations in western Virginia were Lutheran and Reformed. The Evangelical Lutheran Church was founded by Luther in reaction to the abuses of the Roman Catholic Church in continental Europe. The Reformed Church, the second arm of the Reformation in Europe, was more Calvinistic and sided with Zwingli rather than Luther. In spite of a continuing lack of ministers, Lutheran and Reformed congregations gradually built churches and schools in the Valley of Virginia, although the more isolated German community in Montgomery County did not have a Lutheran church on record until about 1790. There is no evidence of the organization of a Reformed congregation in Montgomery County, and by the second quarter of the nineteenth century all the Reformed congregations in Southwest Virginia had dissolved entirely.⁴ In 1806 the elders of the St. Michael's Lutheran Church on Stroubles Creek included John Wall and Michael Surface. The Lutherans on Toms Creek organized their church in 1790.

Little is known of the appearance or form of the churches of eighteenth-century Montgomery County. Many of the early churches built before 1800 in the neighboring Shenandoah Valley region followed the meetinghouse plan in which the rectangular structure was entered through doors in three of its four walls, with the main entry in the long wall opposite the pulpit and with seats arranged in three groups, each facing the pulpit.⁵

Education in Montgomery County in the eighteenth century may have taken any of a number of forms.⁶ Most were probably community schools supplied by the parents of the children. These were sometimes called "old field" schools for the supposed practice of locating them on exhausted land. Public schools also existed, but because the children of poorer families attended them, they gained the reputation of being "poor schools" and the resultant stigmatization of those who attended them rendered them ineffective. Education could also be had at grammar schools for older

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students or under a tutorial system whereby neighboring children were taught along with the children of a wealthy individual by a tutor.

Public buildings in early Montgomery County were located in Fort Chiswell, now in Wythe County. At the April court of 1778, a prison of logs was ordered to be built measuring not less than twenty feet by eighteen feet. The first courthouse (also of log) was twenty feet square, with a ten-foot-wide shed at one end for the use as a jury room. After the division of Montgomery County in 1790, a log courthouse was constructed in Christiansburg, and in about 1796 a stone jail and an associated two-story, brick jailer's house were ordered built by the court.⁷ None of these early public buildings survive.

1791-1830

Numerous Methodist preachers followed in the footsteps of Edward Morgan. Thomas and Samuel Kennerly preached in the county in 1804, and the eccentric and flamboyant Lorenzo Dow preached in Christiansburg the same year.

The earliest church buildings in both Blacksburg and Christiansburg were Methodist. The developer of Blacksburg, William Black, was Methodist, and a log Methodist meetinghouse was built on the north corner of Church and Lee streets sometime after the town's establishment in 1797. The meetinghouse was definitely standing by 1819 when reference is made to it in a deed. Blacksburg's Presbyterians also worshipped in this building. The Methodists probably built a second meetinghouse, also of log but larger, on the same site in 1825.⁸

The Christiansburg Methodist Church was built in 1825 on Kyle's Hill to the north of the public square; the Presbyterians helped raise the structure. The burying ground connected with this church is still in existence.⁹ Other early nineteenth-century Methodist churches in Montgomery County included a log church built at McDonalds Mill on the upper North Fork of the Roanoke River around the year 1800. A general revival took place among the Baptists of Montgomery County in 1802, greatly swelling church membership.

The churches of early nineteenth-century Montgomery County continued, for the most part, to be built on a domestic scale. The earliest church in Christiansburg, the Methodist church of 1825, appears in Lewis Miller's sketch as a simple, frame, rectangular building with three bays on the long wall and a door in the gable end, a form recognized as a nave-plan church. By contrast, the Presbyterian church of 1829 was an elaborate, brick, nave-plan building with a three-bay, gable-end facade in which a pair of arch-headed doors flanked a central window. The much-altered building survived until recent years as the Odd Fellows lodge.

The educational system developed in the eighteenth century continued into the nineteenth century; financial assistance became available in the

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form of matching funds beginning in 1811 when the Literary Fund (which still exists) was established. Unlike later supervisory agencies, the Literary Fund did not in any way control education.

The names of only a handful of early schools survive. The oldest in the county in 1836 was said to be the Barger School between Blacksburg and Toms Creek.¹⁰ School was also held in at least two of the county's meetinghouses: in St. Peter's Lutheran Church at Matamoras in 1806 and at Forks Meeting House near Lafayette around 1820. Christiansburg's first Presbyterian minister, the Reverend William G. Campbell, and his wife opened a small school for girls in Christiansburg in about 1827, and the Presbyterians in Blacksburg operated a girls' school in the former Burke Tavern on Main Street in the early nineteenth century.

At some point in the late eighteenth or first quarter of the nineteenth century a brick courthouse was constructed in Christiansburg in the center of the square. The building was two stories in height, gabled, and had its principal entrance in the center of one long side, as shown in a 1831 sketch by Lewis Miller. In 1829 the county built a brick poorhouse (no longer standing) about two miles south of Christiansburg. The building cost \$2,000 and was shown on the Confederate Engineers' Map in 1864.¹¹

1831 - 1865

The Presbyterians built their churches in Christiansburg and Blacksburg after the Methodists, but their initial efforts were on a grander scale. The Christiansburg Presbyterian Church was organized in 1827 and had a congregation of twenty-five. Soon after organization the Presbyterians began construction of a large, two-story, brick meetinghouse on the north corner of South Franklin Street and First Street. This meetinghouse may have been completed in 1829. The building served after 1852 as the Montgomery Female College and then as a Masonic lodge until its demolition in the mid-twentieth century.

The Blacksburg Presbyterian Church was formed in 1832. The first Presbyterian church building erected in Blacksburg was the Union Hill Church (no longer standing), built on a site on Clay Street overlooking the town. This first church was a modest, weatherboarded structure, but as the congregation prospered, it commenced the construction of a new church in 1847. The second Blacksburg Presbyterian Church (150-2), which is located in the Blacksburg Historic District, is a two-bay, nave-plan, brick building built at a more bustling location on the north corner of Main and Lee streets.¹²

The Presbyterians of Christiansburg also prospered. In 1845 they bought a site on the eastern outskirts of town for a manse, built in 1852. Also in 1852, the Presbyterians raised a handsome, new church building on West Main Street (listed in the National Register in 1978), and in the 1840s and 1850s they founded two schools in Christiansburg: the

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Montgomery Male Academy and the Montgomery Female College.¹³ The four-bay, nave-plan church has an in antis porch surmounted by a pediment and flanked by Greek Revival, paired columns. A Presbyterian church (commonly known as the Old Brick Church) was organized and built at Lovely Mount southeast of present-day Radford around 1852 (no longer standing).

The Methodists built churches and established new congregations throughout the antebellum period. One account states that the Methodists in Blacksburg began construction of a brick church beside their former church in 1840, completing it in 1846, but another account states that that brick church (no longer standing) was not built until 1860. The Methodists in Blacksburg, like the Presbyterians in Christiansburg, founded academies: the Blacksburg Female Academy in 1842 and the Olin and Preston Institute in 1854 (no longer standing). In Christiansburg, the Methodists moved into a new, brick church (much altered) on North Franklin Street in 1857.

Elsewhere in the county the Methodists established or attempted to establish churches on the South Fork of the Roanoke River, at Lafayette, Ellett, Vicker's Switch, and Shawsville. The Alleghany Springs Methodist Episcopal Church may have been built about 1838 near the confluence of Elliotts Creek and the South Fork of the Roanoke River, but it apparently had vanished by 1864. The Lafayette Methodist Church (60-418-14), in the Lafayette Historic District, was built about 1848. The Flemish-bond brick church features a molded brick cornice and differs from the other churches in the period in the use of the meetinghouse plan with an entry in the long wall as well as the gable end, although the evidence is not conclusive. Trinity Methodist Church in Ellett was built about 1856; about 1861, Vicker Methodist Church was built "near Old New Hope Church."

Missionary and tract activities by the General Baptist Convention were opposed by a large number of congregations throughout the country. The anti-missionary controversy caused many congregations to withdraw from the Convention over changes they felt compromised the Calvinist principles of the church. By 1840, many of the oldest western Virginia churches had allied themselves with a group identified today as the Primitive Baptists. In the New River Association, only one out of the nine churches recorded in 1809 remained in the Missionary or Regular Baptist Church in 1892.¹⁴

The Lutheran church continued to be active in Montgomery County. A brick St. Peter's Church replaced the old, log church in 1861.¹⁵

In 1836, Dr. Chester Bullard organized the Snowville Christian Church, now in Pulaski County (listed in the National Register in 1986), said to have been the first of its denomination west of the Appalachian divide. Dr. Bullard organized other Christian churches in Montgomery County.¹⁶

In 1856, the Edgemont Christian Church (Disciples of Christ) congregation acquired land (for a church building). Built by 1864 and also used as a school, Edgemont Church (60-138, part of this submission) occupied a site on the Mud Pike roughly half way between Christiansburg

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and Ingles Ferry. The three-bay, nave-plan, weatherboarded frame church with pedimented gable end and applied pilasters is still standing.

The Episcopal Church made its first appearance in Montgomery County in 1857 when the St. Thomas Episcopal Church congregation met in the recently vacated Methodist church building on Kyle's Hill in Christiansburg.

The U.S. Census of 1860 provides an overview of Montgomery County's religious composition in the late antebellum period listing a total of twenty churches in the county along with their aggregate accommodations and value of church property. Of these churches, six were Union; five, Methodist; three, Presbyterian; three, Lutheran; two, Christian; and one Baptist. The presence of only one Baptist church in the list suggests that most Baptist churches functioned as, and were therefore classified as, union churches. The value of church property was smallest for the union churches (\$280 for each church) and largest for the Presbyterian and Methodist churches (\$11,000 and \$10,300 respectively, but the inclusion of parsonages and college buildings may have inflated these figures).

Masonry, a social and quasi-religious movement begun during the Enlightenment in Great Britain, had its start in the county in 1823 when the Montgomery Harmony Lodge No. 130 was chartered in Christiansburg. In 1826, the lodge had forty-five members, but by 1833 the lodge had become dormant. A second attempt was made in 1854 when the McDaniel Lodge was formed in Christiansburg.¹⁷ This lodge survives to the present.

In Blacksburg the Hunter's Lodge No. 156 was established in 1856. This lodge concerned itself with education; it assisted school children, and in 1858 it assumed the administration of the Blacksburg Female Academy.¹⁸ Lodge No. 156 is still active and meets in a Roanoke Street temple built by Wes Gray in 1928.

The Alleghany Lodge of the International Order of Oddfellows was active in Christiansburg in 1860 as was the Montgomery Division (No. 166) of the Society of Temperance, which met at Temperance Hall on West Main Street every Saturday night.¹⁹

Almost all churches during the period were built following the nave plan. A number of brick churches were built in Blacksburg and Christiansburg. The Blacksburg Methodist Church, which stood at Church and Lee streets, was fronted with four engaged columns with capitals adapted from a pattern book model in a flat and distorted manner. It, like the Blacksburg Presbyterian Church of 1848 (154-2) in the Blacksburg Historic District, seemed dwarfed by a large tower and spire imposed on the roof of the rectangular, gabled structure. The Christiansburg Methodist Church (154-9, not part of this submission) of 1855-56 survives in a much altered form on North Franklin Street.

Primary education in Montgomery County in the mid-nineteenth century probably differed little from earlier schooling. In the 1860s, the Blacksburg Hunter's Lodge of Masons was purchasing supplies for certain school children. In 1851, Davis H. Bennet acquired the Union Hill Church

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building on the southeast edge of Blacksburg, probably for use as a schoolhouse; it was used as such in 1864 and after the war.²⁰

The mid-nineteenth century saw the birth of a number of academies, colleges, and institutes in Montgomery County, specifically in Blacksburg and Christiansburg. The Blacksburg Female Academy was the first academy in the county, built by Charles Black on land given by John Black in 1842.²¹ The two-story, brick school building with a one-story, brick ell was located on what is today Draper Road beside the present armory building. It is unclear whether this institution evolved into the later Montgomery Female College.

In the spring of 1849, the Presbytery of Montgomery resolved to establish a "High School" in or near Christiansburg to be called the Montgomery Academy.²² In October 1849, the building was in the process of construction according to a plan adopted by the Presbytery, and the school opened in 1850.²³ In the 1850s, both Lewis Miller and Edward Beyer depicted this building which was also known as the Montgomery Male Academy and the Montgomery Presbyterian Academy. Boarding was with the principal or with "respectable families in the town."

On November 1, 1852, the Montgomery Collegiate Institute (later known as the Montgomery Female College) opened in the old Presbyterian church in Christiansburg. The school was supported by the Presbytery of Montgomery, and a building for the school was eventually constructed in 1860.

The Methodists of Blacksburg were responsible for the school that formed the basis for the Virginia Agricultural and Mechanical College (later Virginia Polytechnic Institute) in 1872. On February 28, 1854, an act was passed to establish at Blacksburg the Olin and Preston Institute, "a seminary of learning for the instruction of youth in the various branches of science and literature, the useful arts, and the learned and foreign languages." The two-story, brick college building was built (probably in 1854) on land acquired from Jacob Keister.²⁴ The site was on a hill overlooking Blacksburg on a line with Main Street.

Both the Blacksburg Female Academy, built in 1842, and the more extensive Olin and Preston Institute were domestic in scale and detail. The Christiansburg Female Institute of about 1860 was a three-story, brick building with projecting end pavilions flanking a five-bay central section and was also domestic in its modest Greek Revival detail. The Christiansburg Male Academy of 1848, however, was one of the most elegant buildings in the town. The two-story, brick building took the form of a small, Greek Revival temple, with pilasters between the bays on all facades. The pedimented, principal facade was entered through a central, double door. All of these buildings are gone.

The public and commercial buildings of this period continued to display domestic scale and fenestration patterns. The courthouse of about 1834 in Christiansburg, as shown in a sketch by Lewis Miller, was a three-part, two-story building which largely relied on its geometric form for

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distinction. Located on the northeast quarter of the square, the hip-roofed, three-bay central section was taller than the flanking gabled wings, and the wide entry and the window above it were round-arched. The central, hipped roof was topped by a large, octagonal cupola with arched openings in the sides. It is similar to the extant courthouse in neighboring Giles County.

1866 - 1910

The various branches of Methodism grew in the 1870s and 1880s and added at least six new churches to the five listed in 1860 and built three new church buildings to replace older ones. These churches include the Prices Fork Methodist Church of 1877 (60-224-7, in the Prices Fork Historic District), McDonalds Mill Methodist Church of 1878 (60-359, in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District), and Auburn Methodist Episcopal Church of 1885 (60-44-9, in the Riner Historic District). McDonalds Mill Church was built on a site given to the congregation by Edward McDonald. George McDonald supplied timber for the construction of this church. The Auburn Methodist Church was organized in the early 1870s (Lawrence). Today the church is known as the Auburn United Methodist Church. The McDonalds Mill and Auburn Methodist churches both retain Greek Revival architectural details, including pediments and corner pilasters, in spite of their late date of construction.

The Presbyterian church had not followed the evangelical path before the Civil War in the same spirit as other denominations and had lost ground numerically. The church continued to exert an influence in the community though few new churches were built.

The Baptist churches expanded in the late 19th century. In 1880 a Missionary Baptist church was established near Lafayette, and in 1891 a tract of land was donated for the site of the Cambria Baptist Church. Charles Schaeffer, founder of the Christiansburg Institute, was also a Baptist minister and a tireless champion of the new black Baptist congregations of the area. In 1883-85 Schaeffer built the Baptist church on Zion Hill between Christiansburg and Blacksburg now called the Schaeffer Memorial Baptist Church (154-45, listed in the National Register of Historic Places in 1978), and in 1888 he built the Big Spring Baptist Church in Elliston (60-435, part of this submission).

The Schaeffer Memorial Church (154-45) of 1885, which is located on Zion Hill between Christiansburg and Cambria, is a large brick church of Gothic Revival style built for a black congregation. A corner tower of two stages is crowned by a pyramidal-roofed frame belfry. The church is of the four-bay nave-plan form, with an attached frame chapel and features pointed-arched windows and doors. Plans and money were supplied by the Friends' Freedmen's Association, a group of Quaker philanthropists based in Philadelphia. The frame Big Spring Baptist Church features a

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nave plan with pointed windows and a two-stage central tower. Wake Forest Church was organized by the blacks of the Wake Forest community in 1866.²⁵

As early as 1870, a conservative movement within the Methodist Church to restore Wesley's doctrine of perfection (or sanctification accompanying a second crisis of experience to follow conversion), received considerable support from laity and ministers. Beginning in 1885, however, the southern church began purging the popular movement from the church. From 1895 to 1905 and after, many churches were split or new churches were formed as a score of new Holiness or Pentecostal denominations.²⁶ The Piedmont Pentecostal Holiness Church had its beginnings in 1910 when members of the Piedmont Methodist Church began to speak in tongues during a tent revival. In conjunction with the Pentecostal movement an inspired group left the church. The church the Pentecostals built soon after the 1910 split was in time surrounded by a campground (60-500, included in this submission), that at present includes over twenty cabins and a large tabernacle rebuilt in 1939.²⁷

A brick Gothic Revival church (no longer standing) was built for the congregation of the Christiansburg Methodist Church during this period, adjacent to the courthouse on the square. The church was of the nave-plan type, but was given a more picturesque silhouette by a tall tower at the south corner and by transepts projecting to the sides.

Christ Episcopal Church (150-10), in the Blacksburg Historic District, was built in Blacksburg in the late 1870s, while St. Thomas's Episcopal congregation built a now-vanished frame sanctuary in Christiansburg. The early twentieth-century second St. Thomas Church building (154-1-1) is part of the East Main Street Historic District. The unexceptional brick church is modest in its scale and Gothic Revival detailing. The stone nave-plan Christ Church in Blacksburg is influenced by the Gothic Revival designs of Richard Upjohn and features buttresses, arched windows, a projecting chancel, and exposed ceiling trusses. It was designed by New York architect Emlyn Littel. A tower, added in the 1930s with the advice of noted church architect Ralph Adams Cram, completed the picturesque profile.²⁸

Rural churches continued to employ the traditional nave plan. Post-war churches were generally similar in style and form to antebellum churches. The thirteen frame churches from the period include the elaborate Edgemont Methodist Church (60-139), in Study Unit 2 on the Mud Pike (being nominated as part of this submission); Fairview Church, near Childress (60-60), a simple nave-plan structure; and Alleghany Springs Methodist Church (60-478), an ornate Italianate-inspired church with bracketed eaves in Study Unit 8. Alleghany Christian Church (60-171) is one of the few rural churches from the period not to have been built by the Methodists.

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The Virginia Public Free School System was organized in 1870 by Dr. W. H. Ruffner, Superintendent of Public Education. In 1885 School Superintendent F. D. Surface reported on the first decade of Montgomery County's public school system. Surface's statistics were less conservative than statistics compiled by the state. Surface claimed that the number of schoolhouses increased from fifty-eight schools to ninety-eight between 1874 and 1884, whereas the state report counted only forty-eight in 1881. Surface reported eight graded schools with eighteen teachers and a rise in attendance from 2,464 pupils in 1874 to 3,037 in 1884.

Montgomery County's ungraded schools were probably similar to schools before 1870: one- or two-room buildings throughout the countryside, presided over by a single teacher. The beginnings of public education in Riner may be representative of the county as a whole. In 1873 a three-room V-notched log structure was purchased for \$30 for use as a school. In the 1880s a two-room schoolhouse was built and funded by the community with some assistance from the school board. Canaan Lawrence was the school superintendent and Joseph Akers and J. T. Crabtree were teachers. Textbooks used at this school included readers, spellers, arithmetic, and geography texts.²⁹

The several academies established in the 1840s and 1850s provided (when they closed) ready-made buildings for the public school system. The Blacksburg Female Academy building was acquired by the local school board in 1881 and the Montgomery Academy building served the Christiansburg public schools until 1907.³⁰

For the first time black children had access to education. A school for blacks was established at the Wake Forest community in 1866.³¹ In 1885, for \$50, Crowell Henderson sold to the Blacksburg School District "the old [Union Hall] church on the hill which has been occupied by the colored people for a school."³²

The Christiansburg Institute, one of the South's leading black institutions, was established near Christiansburg in 1866 by Charles Schaeffer, a Baptist minister supported by the Friends' Freedmen's Association of Philadelphia. Students from outside the area lodged with families in the neighborhood. In 1867 Schaeffer purchased land on Zion's Hill between Christiansburg and Cambria. In 1885 a two-and-a-half-story brick school building (154-44, listed in the National Register of Historic Places in 1979) was built on it, replacing an earlier schoolhouse (1873) nearby.

The Montgomery Female College was bought by Oceanas Pollock in 1876 and run on a private basis. A prospectus of 1877 refers to "College Buildings" and described the main building built by Crush and Hickok in 1859 as "a substantial brick edifice . . . capable of accommodating a large number [seventy-five] of boarding and day pupils." Another private school of the late 19th century was the Riner Academy begun by the Rev. Floyd Surface in 1887. Virginia Deal Lawrence wrote: "Classes were held in the Meeting House. The cost of the summer session of five months was \$8.00."³³

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The Olin and Preston Institute reopened in 1868 as the Preston and Olin Institute, directed by Dr. P. H. Whisner. Towards the end of 1870, Harvey Black and Dr. Whisner conceived the idea of applying for Virginia's share of the Morill land-grant money made available by the federal government for the creation of agricultural and mechanical colleges throughout the nation. On March 13, 1872, after much political maneuvering, the Senate voted to give two-thirds of the land-grant money to the Preston and Olin Institute, thereafter known as the Virginia Agricultural and Mechanical College and later as Virginia Polytechnic Institute.³⁵⁴

The campus of the school at first consisted solely of the Preston and Olin Building. Many of the first students lodged in town at such places as Lybrook's Row ("Hell's Row") at the north corner of Roanoke and Church streets and took their meals at the Western Hotel at the north corner of Main and Jackson streets. By 1874 a two-story frame building was constructed behind the college building as a dormitory and by 1875 the college building had been given an additional, third story. In the first years of the development of the campus some new buildings such as the President's House (150-100-1, Henderson Hall, under construction in September 1875) and the Pavilion (1879) were built close to the town, but soon other parts of the present campus were to take shape. Academic Buildings 1 and 2 were built in the late 1870s, thereby establishing the Upper Quad, and the majority of the houses on Faculty Row were built by 1900, delineating one side of the later Drill Field, the present heart of the campus. By the late 1870s the school had adopted military discipline for all students.

1910-1940

The twentieth century opened with a burst of church building activity in Blacksburg. The Baptists built a new church in 1903, the Presbyterians in 1904 (150-47), and the Methodists in 1906 (150-54). A Roman Catholic church was organized in Blacksburg in the late 19th century and a church was built on Wilson Avenue in 1923 (150-75). This church was replaced by a large granite-faced church on nearby Progress Street in 1948 (150-74).³⁵⁵

The cross-shaped brick Main Street Baptist Church (154-17) on the corner of Hickok and Main streets in Christiansburg features a corner tower and pointed-arched windows. Similar churches were built in the period in the Cambria Historic District (the Cambria Baptist Church, 154-56) and the Blacksburg Historic District (the Blacksburg Presbyterian Church of 1904, 150-47). The fifteen rural churches recorded are almost all of the traditional nave-plan frame construction, with the exception of Trinity Methodist Church of Ellett, (60-383, included in this submission), which is built of brick and adds Gothic details and a corner tower to its otherwise conventional nave plan.

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In 1907 there were 3,768 students enrolled in Montgomery County's public schools. In 1929 there were 4,145. R. L. Humbert described public education in Montgomery County in a nutshell in 1929: "The policy of school consolidation is proving to be the most satisfactory way of raising the standard of instruction and making a more complete education available to a larger number of students. High schools are found in the towns of Christiansburg, Blacksburg, Shawsville, and Auburn [Riner].³⁶ These four high schools had a total enrollment of four hundred and twelve with a teaching staff of twenty-three. The old Christiansburg High School (154-11) is a two-story, brick, H-shaped structure in the East Main Street Historic District.

There were fifty-six elementary schools in Montgomery County in 1929. A typical rural school from the period is the Luster's Gate School (60-316), in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District. It is a modest frame two-room structure with an L-shaped plan in which the two classrooms are offset under a hipped roof. Christiansburg had one grammar school (in the East Main Street Historic District) with a teaching staff of nine and one primary school with a teaching staff of five. Blacksburg had one elementary or grade school with a teaching staff of eleven. Cambria had one primary school with a teaching staff of four. The designs for many twentieth-century schools were prepared by the educational authorities in Richmond during this period.

There were nine schools for blacks in Montgomery County in 1929 with a total enrollment of five hundred and twenty and a teaching staff of twenty-eight. The former Christiansburg Institute building on Zion Hill was used as a grade school with an enrollment of approximately one hundred and twenty. Blacksburg had two primary schools for blacks.

V.P.I. grew slowly through the early years of the twentieth century. For its first thirty years, the Virginia Polytechnic Institute was predominately a brick campus (what President Eggleston once called the "poverty-stricken factory" style), but beginning with the YMCA Building (1901, 150-100-5) and Price Hall (1907, 150-100-6) the campus began to shift to a local limestone.³⁷ The shift to limestone became stronger in the 1920s and 1930s and Collegiate Gothic came to be the dominant style. Richmond architect J. Ambler Johnston, a graduate of the school, was responsible for the first master plan of the campus during these years (the plan that consolidated a central Drill Field and set up the axial relationship of Miles Stadium, War Memorial Gym, and Burruss Hall). Ambler Johnston was also responsible for the design of many campus buildings, as was Clinton H. Cowgill, a professor of architecture. By 1921, V.P.I. was the principal focus of the town of Blacksburg.

In 1896 Charles L. Marshall of the Tuskegee Institute succeeded Charles Schaeffer as head of the Christiansburg Institute. The curriculum was reorganized along the lines of the manual and industrial training

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emphasized at Tuskegee and Hampton institutes. In 1898 Marshall purchased a farm of ninety-eight acres north of Christiansburg as a site for the new school (154-53, no longer standing). Initially a large farmhouse on the property was used as a classroom building and students boarded in "two former slave cabins".³⁸ In 1901 an ambitious building program was commenced with the support of the Friends' Freedmen's Association and various philanthropists. Evidently the Friends supplied the plans for the Institute's new buildings. Marshall died in 1906 and was succeeded by Edgar A. Long who served as principal until his death in 1924; then A. M. Walker served as principal until 1941. The institute then became a high school under the jurisdiction of Montgomery County until its closing in 1966.³⁹

The Montgomery County Courthouse of 1909-10 represented a reworking of the shell of the 1834 courthouse in the Classical Revival style, with a large dome and pressed metal cornice. The windows were arched with keystones. A columned portico was removed in 1926. The courthouse was designed by H. H. Huggins, a Roanoke architect of South Carolina birth, who was responsible for several buildings and remodeling in the county, including the Grove, home of the president of V.P.I. (150-100-4, not included in this nomination).⁴⁰ The courthouse was torn down in 1976.

ENDNOTES

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³Robert B. Semple, A History of the Rise and Progress of the Baptists in Virginia (Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society, 1894), p. 349.

⁴Klaus Wust, The Saint Adventurers of the Virginia Frontier (Edinburg, Va: Shenandoah History Publishers, 1977).

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⁶Cornelius J. Heatwole, History of Education in Virginia (New York: Macmillan Company, 1916), p. 109.

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⁷Montgomery County, Virginia, County Court Orders; Crush, The Montgomery County Story.

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¹²Ellison A. Smyth, A History of the Blacksburg Presbyterian Church: Its First 100 Years (Blacksburg, Va: 1982), pp. 2,4,52.

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²³Montgomery County, Virginia, Deed Book O, p. 643.

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²⁴Duncan Lyle Kinnear, The First 100 Years: A History of Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University (Blacksburg, Va: Virginia Polytechnic Institute Education Foundation, 1972).

²⁵Anne Swain, "Christiansburg Institute: From Freedman's Bureau Enterprise to Public High School" (M.A. thesis, Radford University, 1975).

²⁶Vinson Synan, The Holiness Pentecostal Movement in the United States (Grand Rapids, Mi: W.B. Eerdmans Publishing Company, 1971), pp. 50-61.

²⁷Lois A. Henson, The Family Jewells (Franklin Springs, Ga: Advocate Press, 1979).

²⁸Ralph Adams Cram, letter, collection, Christ Church.

²⁹Virginia Deal Laurence, "Memories of Riner" Mountainside Magazine, vol. 1, no. 4 (1981): 26-29.

³⁰Montgomery County Virginia, Deed Books.

³¹Clyde Kessler and John Nicolay, unpublished research on the Wake Forest community, Montgomery County, Virginia.

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³⁶R.L. Humbert, Industrial Survey of Montgomery County and City of Radford (Blacksburg, Va: Virginia Polytechnic Institute Engineering Extension Division, 1929).

³⁷Kinnear, The First 100 Years.

³⁸Swain, "Christiansburg Institute."

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HISTORIC CONTEXT #6 Industrial Architecture

1745 - 1790

Among the first buildings to be erected by settlers were mills to grind corn and wheat. These were invariably water-powered and were generally located on a stream where the water dropped considerably over a short distance. Among the earliest mills was one built on Cedar Run off the North Fork of the Roanoke River by William Ingles in 1750 and a mill built in the Dunkard Bottom area of present-day Pulaski County by the Dunkard community several years earlier. Many mill seats were developed during the late eighteenth century. Important examples include that of George McDonald in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District, which first operated in 1795. Mills operated until the late nineteenth century entirely on a custom or toll basis. Most were operated on a part-time basis by farmers as a secondary source of income in kind, since the toll charged by the miller was a portion of the product being milled. In addition to milling, tanyards served as processing points for raw materials. Hides were converted into leather for shoes and harnesses. Cottage industries included the weaving of flax and wool.

Coal is found in two areas of Montgomery County: on the south side of Brush Mountain and on the north and south sides of Price Mountain. The coal-bearing rock exposed at these locations is known as the Price Formation and is of Mississippian age. The earliest substantiated reference to coal in the county is in a plat description of 1799. The plat is for the land of John and Francis Preston "on the Laurel Lick near the Alleghany Ridge and including a bank of stone coal near the same and on the head of the north fork of Toms Creek." The same land was conveyed to John Preston by William Preston in March 1783.¹

Coal had been discovered along the James River at the beginning of the eighteenth century and was being mined at Richmond by the end of the century.² William Preston had reported "coal lands" on the Clinch and Sandy rivers in his 1756 expedition against the Shawnee. It seems likely that he and his sons were aware of the value of coal and consequently mined it at an early date.

In 1799 John Preston acquired a tract of land that included the uppermost waters of the Slate Branch. The deed refers to a "Boring Mill seat" approximately one mile northeast of present-day Merrimac. The presence of a boring mill (for the boring of rifle barrels) lends credence to the claim (1931) that mining and smelting operations were underway at present-day Merrimac after the Revolutionary War.³ No industrial resources from the eighteenth-century period were located.

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By 1810, 557 (hand) looms and two fulling mills were in operation in Montgomery County, joining the gristmills which continued to be active in increasing numbers throughout the region.⁴ Industries such as fulling and weaving wool and the production of flax provided marketable goods for the farmers. The development of a linen industry, based on the skills the Scotch-Irish population brought with them from Ulster, had been encouraged in the mid-eighteenth century in the Shenandoah Valley.⁵ The New River Valley also had a sizable population engaged in the production of cloth.

In the early nineteenth century coal extraction was conducted on a small scale to suit small-scale needs. A revealing reference to coal was made by James Herron in a Southwestern Turnpike survey notebook of 1833. On a sketch map of a portion of the Slate Branch one mile southwest of present-day Merrimac, Herron indicated a lump of coal and noted: "Here an appearance of coal / several smiths have drawn away most of it but I have been informed there is much slate in it."⁶ Blacksmiths were probably the largest group of consumers. Henry Linkous (d. 1822) was a blacksmith residing near the present juncture of routes 657 and 643 at Merrimac.⁷ Saltpetre was mined and gunpowder was manufactured in the county, at least during the War of 1812, as it had been during Revolutionary War times, and it may have been produced at the time of the Civil War.

In the nineteenth century Montgomery County's limestone was used as building and paving stone and in the production of lime for agricultural and building purposes. A "Lime Pit" existed about one mile southeast of Blacksburg in 1831 and a lime kiln was operated near the lands of Shelbourne and Fowlkes southwest of Christiansburg in 1853.⁸ At least one talented stonecutter is known to have operated in Montgomery and the adjoining counties in the early nineteenth century. B. F. Spyker fashioned highly ornamental gravestones in the county between 1817 and 1836.

Sawmills and related structures began to be noted in the county records in the early nineteenth century. Edward Rutledge, who lived near present Luster's Gate in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District, operated a sawmill on Indian Run before 1806. Sawmills were frequently associated with gristmills. No industrial resources from this period were located.

1830 - 1865

In 1840 the newly reduced Montgomery County had nine distilleries, eight tanneries, nineteen gristmills, nineteen sawmills and no oil mills. Montgomery County industry represented a total capital investment of \$59,345. In the same year, neighboring Pulaski County, approximately half of which had been a part of Montgomery County in 1839, had twenty distilleries, six tanneries, seven gristmills, five sawmills and one oil mill, which represented a total investment of \$32,360. By contrast, Wythe

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County, beyond Pulaski, was the most industrially developed in the New River Valley, with thirty-eight distilleries, thirteen tanneries, thirty-eight gristmills, twenty-five sawmills and one oil mill, the total capitalized at \$72,051. Wythe County also had the region's only iron furnaces and forges, and the state's only lead mining and smelting industry.

By 1860 several merchant mills existed in the county in addition to the many gristmills. After the advent of increased regional and extra-regional transportation, flour and wheat could be shipped to and from mills and a related industry grew up in which cash was used to buy and sell the raw materials and the product. Merchant mills included the Forks Mill (1825) at Lafayette, Big Spring Mill (1850) near present-day Elliston, and Grayson Mills (1852) on the Little River.

One of the three large gristmills surveyed in Montgomery County dates from the antebellum period. McDonald's Mill (60-357), a frame two-story structure on a coursed rubble basement, is three bays in width and seems to represent a typical large water-powered custom mill of its day. The mill is located in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District. It was one of only two standing industrial structures recorded for the period. The other is the frame mill (60-204) near Kentland, which was standing in the 1830s (not a part of this submission.)

Grayson Mills (later Graysontown), on the Little River in southwestern Montgomery County, was established in 1847 by William Grayson and his sons, John and Crockett, a short distance downstream from the 1833 industrial village of Snowville (listed in the National Register in 1986), in present-day Pulaski County. The early history of the development of this antebellum industrial village probably would have been lost had not Crockett Grayson, in 1857, filed suit against William and John, claiming William had unlawfully deeded to John the mill property on which stood "improvements" which Crockett had helped finance and build.⁹

In 1811 William Grayson bought land that included the Grayson Mills site (60-542) from David Hall and Adam Pate upstream and adjacent to William Grayson. Asiel Snow later bought David Hall's mill or mill seat and began in 1833 the development of Snowville. William Grayson built his home near the later Grayson Mills site.

In 1847, John Grayson, "Having the sum of \$4000 or \$5000 in ready money, . . . determined . . . to erect a valuable manufacturing mill, upon the homeplace, with the consent of his father and with the understanding . . . that the homeplace was to be conveyed to him." One of Grayson's employees deposed that: "I think one of his [Williams's] reasons was him and the Foundry Folks [Snow and others] did not get along very well. I think he said it would be a good improvement for the Boys." The Graysons evidently conceived of Grayson Mills as a way to bypass Asiel Snow and his establishments, but Grayson Mills in its extended form as an industrial complex was undoubtedly inspired by Snowville.

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John Grayson's house (60-118) is being nominated to the National Register as part of the multiple properties nomination. The 1850 industrial census lists William Grayson as owner of a water-powered sawmill producing \$1,500 worth of lumber annually. This was the largest production of any sawmill in the county at the time.

Jacob Roop probably oversaw the building of the mill machinery (he appears in the 1850 industrial census as a millwright and was in that year employed in "Building Flouring Mill . . . materials furnished"). He was paid \$1,725.75 for the work he did for the Graysons. Another early and important addition to the Grayson Mills complex was a blacksmith shop or forge. The shop began operation in November 1859, almost halfway into the census year of June 1859 to June 1860. Nevertheless, Grayson and Evens tied George W. Anderson for the largest value of product in the county (\$1,200).

Brick for house building was usually burned near the site of the house, where a supply of clay was available. Such kilns are often represented by a low mound of brick fragments and other remains, and the location of such sites is often known by the building owner. The brick kiln site near the Michael Kinzer House (60-248, part of this submission) was tested as a part of the project leading to this nomination, and gives information about the construction of houses during the greater part of the 19th century. As late as 1910 Pompey Calloway burnt the bricks he used to build his house (60-434, part of this submission) using the same general techniques.

In Montgomery County in 1850 there were eighty-four craftsmen directly involved in the building trades.¹⁰ Of the eighty four, there were sixty-five carpenters, eight brickmasons, three stonemasons, five plasterers and three painters. There was also one brick maker--Simon Havins, age ninety, a free black. Twelve of the carpenters were residents of Christiansburg, twelve lived in Blacksburg, and three lived in Lafayette. A significant number of the sixty-five--thirty or forty-six percent--lived in households not their own, sometimes in gangs. Seven carpenters boarded with the important Christiansburg carpenter, George Hubbard, a partner of Augustus M. Jordan. Michael and George W. Kipps lodged with their older relation Noah Kipps, all of them carpenters. Four carpenters lodged with Christian Keagy, a farmer who with William Johnson operated an important mill on the North Fork of the Roanoke River (at the site of Bennett's Mill, 60-375).

Blacksburg was the site of an important regional pottery in the mid- and late nineteenth century, that of Davide N. Bodell. Before Bodell came to Montgomery County, about 1863, there were two potteries in the county.¹¹ On a combined capital of \$200, the potteries produced \$300 worth of manufactured articles. Only two men were employed in these potteries.

Bodell operated from the former Amiss Hotel and a nearby shop and kiln in Blacksburg in the 1870s.¹² Later he moved his kiln to a somewhat more unobtrusive site beyond Draper Road. The 1870 industrial census records Bodell operating on a capital of \$100 and employing two hands at \$100 for eight months (roughly \$4 a month). Bodell used two "machines" and required for his glazes three hundred pounds of lead. He produced three thousand pieces during the census year. A site in the Blacksburg Historic District used by the Bodell pottery was tested as part of the archaeological research for this submission, but while evidence of Bodell ware was found, no kiln was located.

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One observer discussed Montgomery County's coal deposits in an 1835 geological survey of the state.¹³ Referring to Brush Mountain as "Catawba Mountain," he reported the "recent discovery . . . of a semi-bituminous dry coal . . . in the Catawba Mountain . . . little as yet is known" and "In the coal from Catawba, I have found varying proportions of bitumen in the specimens from different localities. An average of these results indicated about 14% of volatile material, chiefly of a bituminous character." It was Rogers's opinion that the coal of the area would spur iron production. The 1840 census lists one mine in the county producing 200 tons (5,600 bushels) of anthracite coal with a capital investment of \$100 and a work force of two.

Montgomery County's isolation was the chief limiting factor in the development of its coal fields. This changed with the coming of the Virginia and Tennessee Railroad. In Montgomery County entrepreneurs did not wait for the railroad to arrive before launching into the buying of coal lands and the mining of coal. In addition to a well-documented partnership formed in 1852 between Jacob Guggenheimer and Robert Murray, at least three other coal mining companies, featuring prominent local merchants and landowners, were active in the county in the 1850s.

The quarrying of rock constituted one of Montgomery County's most important minor industries throughout the nineteenth century. Among the most significant of the quarries were those that produced circular stones for use in milling grain and other products. The earliest recorded millstone quarry was probably worked for local consumption, but later operations were larger in scale, producing high quality millstones for the commercial trade.

1865 - 1910

Small-scale industries, including tanneries and gristmills, continued to be of great importance in Montgomery during the late nineteenth century. Unlike neighboring Pulaski and Wythe counties, Montgomery County did experience a major immediate postwar industrial boom. By 1870 Pulaski was still behind both Montgomery and Floyd counties in numbers of industrial establishments (40 to 69 and 105 respectively), but the nature of the industries gave Pulaski an industrial income slightly higher than Montgomery and well above Floyd County. By 1890, the imbalance in the relationship between Montgomery and Pulaski was even more pronounced, indicating the heavy nature and large scale of the factories and furnaces of the town of Pulaski, which had become the industrial center of the region. With only eighteen establishments Pulaski produced \$650,000, while Montgomery County's thirty-four manufacturers produced only \$111,000. Most of that manufacturing took place in the growing town of Radford, incorporated in 1882, as well as in Cambria, Elliston, and Graysontown.¹⁴

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During this period a new development in flour milling led to the construction of large new mills or the conversion of existing mills. The gradual reduction system, a technique developed in Minnesota in the 1880s, led to the use of steel roller mills rather than horizontal millstones in all but the smaller custom mills, and continues to the present day at Big Spring Mill. Rural custom millers continued to barter their services to farmers for a toll. A small gristmill survives (60-366) on Dry Run, a tributary of the North Fork, in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District. Apparently the one-story frame mill, or a stone basement contained two runs of horizontal millstones.

The large brick structure at Bennett's Mill (60-375) clearly housed a substantial operation, possibly in conjunction with wood milling equipment. Several large early twentieth-century mills, which were powered by steam or gasoline and later converted to electrical power, continue in operation in the county as feed mills. A defunct gasoline-powered mill, the Surface Mill (60-44-6), stands in the Riner Historic District.

The mill and accompanying small industries at Graysontown continued to operate. In the industrial census of 1880, the mill of John Grayson was identified as a flouring and gristmill (three-quarters of the business being custom) with a ten-foot fall and four center overcharge wheels powering three runs of stone. During the census year the mill produced \$23,620 worth of wheat, cornmeal, feed, and a small quantity of buckwheat flour.

The 1880 census also lists the lumbering and sawmills of Palmer and Richardson at Graysontown, apparently housed in a separate building from the flouring and gristmill because the two center discharge wheels were turned by a fall of more than seven feet. This sawmill was equipped with two circular saws and one muley or up-and-down saw and converted \$1,000 worth of lumber into \$2,000 worth of product (200,000 board feet of lumber and 5,000 feet of lath). This may be the same establishment identified as a sash and door factory. The highly ornamental nearby Grayson-Gravelly House (60-117, part of this submission), may be a product of this mill.

After the Civil War, coal mining in Montgomery County went into a decline, due to the total disruption of the pre-war economy. In 1870 the only coal mine to produce more than \$500 worth of coal (thereby qualifying it to appear in the industrial census of that year) was John M. Cromer's mine, probably located on Toms Creek near the mouth of Lick Run. By 1880, however, Montgomery County experienced a tenfold increase in reported production over 1870, but not through the establishment of any large mines. The 1880 industrial census counted twelve "Farmers' Diggings" producing 2,497 tons a year (\$6,665).

By 1890 five "regular" and seven "local" mines raised 8,165 tons of coal ("all grades") bringing \$19,644 and an average price of \$2.41 per ton at the mine. The mines shipped 3,062 tons of the coal, 4,642 tons were sold to the local trade, 226 tons were used by employees and 235 were used

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to generate steam at the mine. Fifty-six hands worked at these mines, a figure which included two office workers, and \$9,935 in wages were paid to them. Power was supplied by two steam boilers and four "animals." Total capital investment was \$62,530.

Zinc and lead mining had taken place in the county in the mid-nineteenth century but had apparently subsided. By 1881 William M. Langhorne of Shawsville, succeeded Lorenzo D. Lorentz, of Christiansburg in the mining of zinc on Poor Mountain. The best documented zinc and lead operation was at Calfee Knob in the 1870s and 1880s. Hiram Haines bought the mineral rights for Calfee Knob (then called Abner's Knob) in 1874. Haines mined zinc, lead, and silver ore and built a furnace with a tall stack. The fumes from this operation are said by local residents to have killed nearby vegetation.

In May 1880 gold was discovered in Montgomery County by J. M. Thomas of Blacksburg, "an old California miner, who suspected its existence from the similarity of the rocks, timber and soil to that of the California diggings." By July, thirty-five to forty men were panning in the area and \$2,500 worth of gold had been found. Panning continued into the winter of 1880 and was still going on in 1883. Contemporary writers commented on the "very primitive fashion" in which the gold was recovered.

The workings at Brush Creek became somewhat more sophisticated in 1882 with the formation of the Brush Creek Gold Mining Company. Theodore De Forest, of Ohio, founded this company and used a stamping machine that crushed the gold-bearing rock. De Forest's associates were still mining at Brush Creek in 1893.¹⁵

The town of Elliston, known as Big Spring during the late nineteenth century, was developed and expanded in the 1880s under the name of Carnegie City, by a group of northern capitalists. Like a group of similar cities in western Virginia, Carnegie City failed to become the great industrial center projected by its promoters, but some industry and development survived the depression during the 1890s. No historic resources associated with the boom town were located.

1910 - 1940

Renewed industrial growth accompanied the economic recovery following the depression years of the 1890s. Small-scale industrial activities were begun in Cambria and Elliston, with even smaller enterprises in Christiansburg and Blacksburg. Roller milling activities continued in the larger centers and custom milling served the needs of farmers until well into this century. The city of Radford became the major industrial center within the county's boundaries. The Radford Army Arsenal, which manufactured smokeless powder, was established north of Pepper's Ferry beginning in the early 1940s. It is the largest industrial plant ever built in the area and employs thousands of workers from the surrounding

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area. The arsenal includes army warehouses, factory houses, barracks, fire and emergency facilities, a railroad line, and a hospital.

In 1900 in Montgomery County there were 124 craftsmen in the traditional building trades of carpentry, brickmasonry, stonemasonry, and plastering and ten men employed in previously rare building occupations such as contractor, contractor foreman, railroad contractor, and civil engineer. There were two stonecutters and two "sculptors", all four probably employed in making gravestones. Of the 125 craftsmen in the traditional trades, 95 were carpenters (a figure which includes three bridge carpenters), eight were stonemasons, five were brickmasons and sixteen were plasterers.

The one general contractor in Montgomery County in 1900 was Blacksburg resident Wesley W. Gray (born in 1864). Among Gray's many buildings and residences in Blacksburg were the brick Presbyterian Church (150-47) on the south side of Roanoke Street (built in 1904), the two-story Corner Drug Building (150-31) on Main and College Streets (brick, 1922-23), the Hunter's Lodge of Masons (150-43) on Roanoke Street (built in 1928 of brick and Bedford stone for \$25,000) and the Wes Gray House (150-78) on Faculty and Progress streets (brick) all in the Blacksburg Historic District.

Coal mining in Montgomery County was highly profitable in the first decade of the twentieth century, in part due to the strikes of 1902 that closed anthracite coal mines in Pennsylvania.¹⁶ The building of the Virginian Railroad through the county in 1907 was also a factor. The biggest operations were at Merrimac and McCoy. In 1901 the Virginia Anthracite Coal and Railroad Company was formed to exploit the coal deposits at Merrimac. The workings included a breaker, a commissary, and a small village of company houses (now gone). The mines at Merrimac were shut down from 1909 to 1918 due to flooding in the shafts but reopened and were not shut down again until 1934, when they were closed permanently by the county's first coal miners' strike (Garnett, p. 31).

In 1920 the Superior Anthracite Coal Company opened the Big Vein Mine one and a half miles east of McCoy on Brush Mountain; their improvements included a breaker (which stood until 1931) and a tram road. The Big Vein Mine closed in 1934 along with Merrimac but the Big Vein Mine reopened whereas Merrimac remained closed. Miner housing at McCoy was better than that at Merrimac.¹⁸ Other smaller mines were in operation during the early twentieth century, and there were twenty truck mines that operated intermittently, and produced two to twenty tons of coal per day. The truck mines of Brush Mountain trucked their coal to the railroad at Blacksburg.

Lumbering in Montgomery County in the early years was probably undertaken to supply the local building trades and to provide charcoal for iron furnaces. James Herron noted extensive stands of pine on Price Mountain in 1833; thus it may have been either a natural result of the

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slaty soils of the mountain or an indication of new growth from cutting for the charcoal iron industry that apparently existed at Merrimac.¹⁹

Humbert (1929) noted: "The most important forest product at the present time is lumber. The forests of the region produce a considerable quantity of lumber for shipment to the manufacturing cities of the north, in addition to supplying the local demand. . . . Their production of ties ranks second in importance to that of lumber. . . . Other products are poles, chestnut extract wood, oak and hemlock tanbark, cordwood, piling and pulpwood."²⁰

Quarrying in Montgomery County continued to be an important minor industry in the twentieth century. One of the more important elements of this industry was the fashioning and exportation of millstones. Brush Mountain millstone quarry appears on the Blacksburg Railroad map of 1881. Boyd (1881) wrote, "These [Brush Mountain] millrocks have even been used with satisfaction in the large mills at Richmond; and would, no doubt, form the basis of a large business, if there was a railroad passing by."²⁰ Limestone was quarried extensively at the mouth of Little River on the Pulaski County side around 1920 and at Ellett until 1930.

ENDNOTES

¹Montgomery County, Virginia, Deed Books.

²Kathleen Bruce, Virginia Iron Manufacturers in the Slave Era (New York: The Century Company, 1931).

³O.C. Burkhart, "Coal Mining History Traced," Montgomery News-Messenger, May 6, 1931.

⁴U.S. Census Schedules, 1810.

⁵Robert D. Mitchell, Commercialism and Frontier: Perspectives on the Early Shenandoah Valley (Charlottesville, Va: University Press of Virginia, 1977), p. 146.

⁶Southwestern Turnpike papers, Virginia, Board of Public Works.

⁷Montgomery County, Virginia, Will Book 3, p. 454.

⁸Southwestern Turnpike papers.

⁹Montgomery County, Virginia, Chancery Case No. 210.

¹⁰U.S. Census Schedules, 1950.

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¹¹U.S. Census Schedules, 1840.

¹²Montgomery County, Virginia, Deed Books, and Chancery Case No. 685.

¹³William B. Rogers, "Report on the Geological Reconnaissance of the State of Virginia," In the Virginia House of Delegates Journal, 1855.

¹⁴U.S. Census, 1890.

¹⁵Roderick Lucas, A Valley and Its People in Montgomery County, Virginia. (Blacksburg, Va: Southern Printing Co., 1975), pp. 48-51.

¹⁶Burkhart, "Coal Mining History."

¹⁷William E. Garnett, "A Social Study of the Blacksburg Community," In Virginia Agricultural Experiment Station Bulletin 299 (1935), p. 31.

¹⁸Garnett, "A Social Study," p. 31.

¹⁹Southwestern Turnpike papers, Virginia, Board of Public Works.

²⁰R.L. Humbert, Industrial Survey of Montgomery County and City of Radford (Blacksburg, Va: Virginia Polytechnic Institute Engineering Extension Division, 1929).

²¹C.R. Boyd, Resources of Southwest Virginia, 1881.

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HISTORIC CONTEXT #7 Agricultural Architecture

1745-1790

The availability of good agricultural land that could be purchased at low prices (and oftentimes sold at much higher prices) was a major inducement for migration into the back country of western Virginia. In Montgomery County a number of clearings and open groves of oaks as well as rich river and stream bottom land attracted English, German, and Scotch-Irish settlers from eastern Virginia and the Shenandoah Valley starting in the 1740s. A description of an early farm in the Shenandoah Valley is applicable to the New River region as well:

A typical pioneer farm in the valley consisted of a few acres of cleared land for cultivation (often river bottomland), a meadow (natural or timothy), a small orchard (apple or peach), a large amount of woodland in which cattle browsed and mast was available for the swine, and occasionally some hilly grazing land.¹

The average farm size might have been from one hundred to four hundred acres in the Valley, with four hundred acres representing an upper limit set by colonial policy, but several tracts in the North Fork of the Roanoke River were of more than six hundred acres. The seventy-five hundred-acre Patton Tract in the Toms Creek Study Unit was divided into about twenty-five holdings by 1754 rendering an average farm size of three hundred acres.² In the Valley only about ten or twelve acres would be cleared in a typical farm. This amount may have been greater in the Patton Tract owing to the pre-existing open and clear nature of the land.

Livestock production was the agricultural mainstay of the region in the 18th century. James Patton was an important early cattleman in western Virginia and there is a record of him gathering a herd of two hundred for payment of debts in 1753. Cattle herds were driven down the Valley until favorable markets were encountered at Winchester, and Philadelphia. During the Revolution a new market was created by the military in western and eastern Virginia.

Aside from cattle production, agriculture in the region was based almost entirely on a subsistence level in the mid-18th century. The Revolutionary War stimulated the growth of markets. Flour milling centers developed at Richmond and Alexandria later in the century, and mills also began to be established locally (the two earliest local mills known were Ingles Mill on Cedar Run near the North Fork Valley Rural Historic

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District, and a mill at the Dunkard settlement on the New River, both established by 1750). A linen industry, based on the skills of Scotch-Irish weavers, had been encouraged in the Valley in the 1740s, and the fulling and weaving of wool and the production of hemp and flax undoubtedly produced marketable goods in the New River region later.³ Ginseng may have been gathered for the market.⁴ Hunting supplemented local larders and also provided furs for trade.

The meadows of the New River Valley have always proved excellent for the raising of horses. Bluegrass, possibly introduced at an early date by Europeans on the North American coast, either predated or accompanied settlement and thrived on the limestone soils of the continental interior. Montgomery County was furnished predominantly with limestone soils, especially in its eastern half and presented the earliest settlers with ready-made grazing land. Thomas Batts and Robert Fallam, early explorers in the region, commented on the region's luxuriant grass in 1671.

The average early farm in the New River Valley had nine or more horses. This compares with the one to four horses per farm found elsewhere in the colonies. John Elswick on Crab Creek had a herd of sixty-five horses as early as the 1740s.⁵

It may be assumed that the raising of livestock was a principal agricultural activity in the early years, owing to the absence of roads for hauling produce. Such an agricultural focus would also explain the popularity of the more elevated, drier sections of the county, good for the raising of livestock but not as good as the river bottoms for the raising of crops. Few sites from the period have been located and none were surveyed as part of this project, except the Madison Farm (60-565), which may contain significant information about mid-to-late 18th-century agricultre practices, and Smithfield (listed in the National Register in 1969).

1790-1830

Self-sufficient agricultural practices continued in the early nineteenth century, but market-oriented agriculture was on the rise. The agricultural census of 1840 suggests that livestock numbers were large at the beginning of the century. Several authors have downplayed the importance of sheep in 18th-century western Virginia,⁶ but sheep seem to have been important in Montgomery County in the early nineteenth century. Cattle certainly continued to range the woods of the county, and the development of Kentucky and eastern Tennessee probably made the fattening of cattle on their way to market an increasingly important element in the agriculture of Montgomery County, situated as it was on the Great Road.

If antebellum trends can be extended back to the beginning of the century, it may be assumed that much more corn was produced than wheat.

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Oats were grown as feed and as spring pasturage, as was rye, which along with corn was used in making whiskey. Hay production was probably limited.

The earliest fences in western Virginia were post and rail but they were superseded by worm fences by the 19th century⁷. Numerous surveys of the 1820s and 1830s show worm fences marking boundaries and lining farm lanes, county roads, and turnpikes. Fences along major roads probably served to prevent livestock being driven to market from trampling farmers' fields. Stone fences have a limited occurrence in the elevated and rocky sections of the county.

In 1773 the British Crown offered a bounty for the growing of hemp in its dominions. Hemp was used to make rope, and a dependable source was vital to the British Navy.⁸ Southwestern Virginians responded enthusiastically. A number of Montgomery County's larger landholders were certified growers; most of them lived along the New River and also, undoubtedly, along the Roanoke River and major stream bottoms.

Flax, like hemp and wool, was a raw material that could be readily processed into an easily transported product. In 1810, 557 looms and two fulling mills were in operation in the county. Flax fiber was generally made into linen for local use and for export, and linseed oil was extracted from flax seed.⁹ In 1840, 48,000 pounds of hemp and flax were grown in Montgomery County; more than half of this amount was probably flax. The production of flax and flax seed dropped off throughout the 19th century but not as precipitously as hemp.

Few barns and outbuildings were clearly identified from the period. Most barns and outbuildings followed the patterns found in later periods. Records from related areas in Botetourt and Grayson counties indicate that many farms in the late 18th and early 19th centuries did not include any substantial agricultural outbuildings. It is likely that such patterns hold true in Montgomery County as well. Barns and cribs were built as the farm family prospered and grew. An exceptional octagonal brick meat house from the period, related to high style developments outside the county, exists at Kentland (60-202, not part of this submission), but the majority of farms featured log barns and outbuildings, in single- and double-crib formations, which served as cribs, meat houses, springhouses, granaries, stables and other more or less specialized functions. A stone bank barn for which a photograph survives,¹⁰ was built by the McDonalds in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District. It was related to the family's earlier house in Botetourt, dated 1766, in the provision of a sandstone principal facade. Another important stone and frame bank barn was constructed at Back Creek in present-day Pulaski County in the same period by the Cloyd family, but apparently few other bank barns were built until the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the twentieth century. A large log tobacco barn (60-164) was built by Charles Taylor between Christiansburg and Blacksburg prior to 1834,¹¹ and there is a record of a double-crib barn built in connection with the county poor farm during the period.¹²

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1830-1865

The first half of the 19th century saw a surge in agricultural experimentation in the southern United States accompanied by a proliferation of agricultural societies and journals and the development of new agricultural implements. Agricultural societies and journals provided agriculturalists with the means to disseminate new ideas and exchange information on the results of experimentation. Various societies existed at the state level, an important later one being the Virginia State Agricultural Society founded by one of the South's preeminent antebellum agriculturalists, Edmund Ruffin, and others in the 1840s. An agricultural society existed in the New River Valley at Wytheville at mid-century. Agricultural journals were published in the early 19th century but they especially proliferated in the period from the 1830s through the 1850s. Local newspapers often reported on the state of crops and new methods of cultivation and carried advertisements for national-level agricultural supply houses and local implement manufacturers. The Christiansburg New Star, for instance, maintained that it was "devoted to general intelligence, Agriculture, etc." In an issue of October 6, 1880, the New Star reported on the destruction by frost of the wheat crop in Montgomery County due to "the shallowness of the wheat in the ground."

Census statistics exist from the later antebellum period for the type of land devoted to farming and the size of farms in Montgomery County. The statistics suggest that the county was underdeveloped agriculturally in 1850 and 1860 compared to the beginning of the 20th century (when it may in fact have been overdeveloped). In 1859 one hundred sixty-eight thousand acres, or sixty-six percent of the county land, was in farms, of which thirty-seven percent (60,000 acres) was improved farmland (tilled and fallow fields, meadow, pasture, and orchard). These were the lowest amounts until the post-World War II period. The average farm size in 1850 was 299 acres, and there were quite a few farms of 1000 acres or larger (five percent). There were few farms in the zero to ninety nine-acre size range: 157, or twenty eight percent, compared to 859, or fifty nine percent, in 1880. See the survey report for further crop data.¹³

Barns and agricultural outbuildings in this period were largely built of log. Popular types included single-crib and double-crib structures, often with added leantos on one or more sides. One important double-crib barn is located at the Patterson-Eakin Farm (60-335) in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District, it features an unusual second-floor loft, apparently cantilevered along both long sides. Corncribs are often found standing alone or under a common roof with a shed, separated by a drive-through shelter for vehicles. Meat houses, often located near the kitchen ell of the house, were usually of log until the middle of the century when frame examples appear, and springhouses, of both log and stone, were usually located in a hollow not far from the house. Other common specialized outbuildings that survive on county farms include granaries.

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Livestock as a component of the agriculture of Montgomery County appears to have diminished in importance through the antebellum period. The decline in herds of sheep was most pronounced, but horses, cattle and swine herds decreased only slightly during the period, and swine herds were larger than they were to be at any time in the future.

Initially, most of Montgomery County's agricultural produce, including tobacco, was probably either consumed locally or hauled in wagons to Lynchburg, the nearest major market. The improvement of Montgomery County's roads by way of the formation of turnpikes (the Alleghany Turnpike in 1809, the Lafayette and Ingles Ferry and the Salem and Pepper's Ferry turnpikes in 1839, and the macadamized Southwestern Turnpike in 1847) may have reduced transportation costs. The Virginia and Tennessee Railroad undoubtedly boosted the county's tobacco production for the later 1850s and early 1960s, but the presence of railroad transportation apparently did not completely override market and other conditions of the second half of the 19th century.

1865-1910

The postwar period was marked by an increase in improved land in farms and an increase in most livestock categories, but in crop production a general leveling out at or just above antebellum levels occurred. The amount of all land in farms continued its antebellum surge upwards, accounting for eighty-one percent of the land in the county by 1870 but dropping back to seventy-seven percent by 1900. The amount of improved land rose throughout the period, accounting for thirty-nine percent (79,500 acres) of land in farms in 1870 and fifty-eight percent (112,000 acres) by 1900. This suggests the stabilization of the amount of land going into farms and an increasing utilization of what land was devoted to farms. Of the county's four magisterial districts, Blacksburg district (comprised of the Toms Creek and Upper North Fork Study Units) had the most improved farm land in 1870 (24,500 acres) followed by Auburn (22,500), Christiansburg (19,500), and Alleghany (13,000).

Throughout the antebellum period and in 1870, the number of farms in the county had hovered around six hundred, but by 1880 this number ballooned to 1,463 farms. As one might expect, small farms made up the bulk of this growth. In 1880, fifty-nine percent of all farms were of ninety-nine acres or less. There were 156 farms (or eleven percent) in the zero-to-nine acre range (compared to seven farms in 1850 and forty-six farms in 1900). In 1880 the number of large farms of 500 acres or more was comparable to the number in 1850.

At the end of the 19th century, Montgomery County began its rise to becoming one of the major sheep producers of the state. The number of sheep increased from 5,000 in 1870 and 1880 to 31,000 in 1910. The number of dairy and beef cattle, swine, and horses also rose from an 1870

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low. In 1889 a Montgomery County farmer corresponding with the Virginia Board of Agriculture claimed that corn and hay were the most profitable crops in the county.

At the Virginia Agricultural and Mechanical College (later Virginia Polytechnic Institute) in Blacksburg, the Agricultural Experiment Station was established in the 1880s. Soon the station was publishing a bulletin and also publishing articles in The Southern Planter.¹⁴ In 1899 the school completed construction of what was called a hillside barn on the rise to the south of the present Drill Field. David O. Nourse, the author of the November 1899 Experiment Station Bulletin, explained the need for the barn:

For years the operations of the College farm have been seriously crippled by the lack of a good barn. Our horses and cattle were in separate buildings, our corn cribs, hay mows, silos and ricks at greater or less distance from them.

In other words, the various functions of the farm were housed in separate buildings as was the norm throughout the Upland South. The new barn was a bank barn, a form with Germanic roots that was championed in the agricultural press of the later 19th century as the most efficient type of barn. As Nourse explained:

With the modifications and changes suggested in the bulletin this barn would meet the requirements and not strain the resources of any farmer successfully running a farm of 300 acres and upwards.

Montgomery County farmers did begin building small bank barns at the end of the 19th century and throughout the 20th, but a causal relationship between the Virginia Polytechnic Institute or Christiansburg Institute barns and these barns has not been established. Agricultural outbuildings and barns generally followed traditional patterns during the period, but frame barns with, center-isle plans began to appear beside the smaller log barns.

Agricultural developments in postwar Montgomery County led to the construction of several large bank barns, including the framed timber barn with cantilevered forebay at the Crumpacker-McPherson Farm (60-360) in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District.

1910-1940

Montgomery County was fortunate in its climate. One commentator wrote in 1907: "Few persons realize the existence of such a section in the

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Heart of the South where the farmer may practice, for instance, very much the same rotation of crops followed in Minnesota or the Dakotas."¹⁵ County farmers also benefited from the presence of a strong school of agriculture at the Agricultural Experiment Station at Virginia Polytechnic Institute, and agricultural course offerings at both the Blacksburg High School and the Christiansburg Institute.

Sources in 1907 and 1929 noted the growth of dairying in the county and cited "better facilities for marketing" and "the high price of milk and butter" as reasons.¹⁶ One observer in 1935 noted "a turn from beef cattle to dairying but as yet little high grade dairy stock."¹⁷ The census statistics bear out his comment: after 1930 Montgomery County herds declined from a peak of 10,500 cattle to 5,700 in 1935 whereas dairy herds peaked in 1940 at 6,300 head after steadily increasing since 1870. In 1935 the Cooperative Cheese Factory at Lusters Gate (60-304) in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District was producing 64,000 pounds of cheese a year.

Agricultural societies and fairs continued to flourish through the late 19th and early 20th centuries. In Riner and Prices Fork granges were organized. At Virginia Polytechnic Institute an agricultural extension division began to develop in the 1910s. The VPI faculty was in part responsible for the development of the Future Farmers of Virginia organization for students of vocational agricultural high schools. This organization soon grew into Future Farmers of America.¹⁸

The farms of Montgomery County continued to take up more land in the first decade of the 20th century. An all-time high was reached in 1910 when 211,000 acres or eighty-three percent of county land was in farms, of which 123,500 acres or fifty-nine percent was improved. These levels were to remain constant through the 1910s but dropped significantly through the 1920s: land in farms decreased to 174,000 acres by 1930 and by 1940 had almost approached the level of 1850. A comparison of the U.S.G.S. Blacksburg quad map of 1932 to the 1864 Confederate Engineer's Map and recent U.S.G.S. maps shows extensive deforestation by the beginning of the 20th century and reforestation later on. The persistence of large stands of original timber into the late 19th century is suggested by a correspondent to the Virginia State Board of Agriculture, who in 1889 stated that sixty percent of the county was in original timber and that there was little second growth.

The number of farms in the county was relatively low (1,230) in 1900, but in 1910 began a climb that peaked in 1935 at 2,158 farms. Seventy-two percent of these farms were in the zero-to ninety-nine-acre size range. The number of farms of more than a thousand acres totaled only ten and decreased to four in 1940 (in 1982 there were fourteen farms of over one thousand acres out of a total of 565 farms).

Barns built during the period range from small frame three-bay center-aisle barns and bank barns to larger progressive dairy barns with concrete

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floors and a lateral central aisle lined with stanchions. An unusual barn built in 1929 on the Blankenship Farm (60-385) on the North Fork of the Roanoke River, was nominated individually as part of this submission. It was influenced by popular writings on the economy of round or polygonal barns and features a fourteen-sided structure following a conventional center-aisle plan rather than the often-published prototype of the circular ring of cattle stanchions surrounding a central silo.¹⁹ New cribs, springhouses, and meat houses tended to follow old forms in most cases, interpreted in varied modern materials, such as the meat house at the Barnett House (60-440), nominated as part of this submission. Crop production increased between 1900 and 1920 as did livestock production.

Today, livestock and forage production are the main sources of agricultural income in Montgomery County. The main types of livestock produced are beef and dairy cattle. Other types include hogs, sheep, and horses. The main forage crops are corn silage, pasture grasses, grass/legume hay, and alfalfa. Small areas of grain and specialty crops are also produced in the county. Grain crops include corn, wheat, and barley. Specialty crops include tobacco, strawberries, grapes, nursery stock, and Christmas trees.

ENDNOTES

¹Robert D. Mitchell, Commercialism and Frontier: Perspectives on the Early Shenandoah Valley (Charlottesville, Va: University Press of Virginia, 1977), p. 136.

²F.B. Kelgey and M.B. Kelgey, Early Adventurers on the Western Waters (Orange, Va: Green Publishers, Inc., 1980, 1982), vol. 1, p. 174.

³Mitchell, Commercialism and Frontier, p. 146.

⁴Mitchell, Commercialism and Frontier, p. 138.

⁵Kegley, Early Adventurers, vol. 1, pp. 153-154.

⁶Kegley, Early Adventurers, vol. 1, pp. 156; Mithcell, Commercialism and Frontier, p. 139.

⁷Mitchell, Commercialism and Frontier, pp. 136-137.

⁸Kegley, Early Adventurers, vol. 1, pp. 100-101.

⁹Mitchell, Commercialism and Frontier, pp. 181-182.

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¹⁰F.B. Kelgey, Kegley's Virginia Frontier (Roanoke, Va: Southwest Virginia Historical Society, 1938), p. 617.

¹¹Southwestern Turnpike Papers, Virginia, Board of Public Works.

¹²John Nicolay, unpublished research on the Montgomery County Poorhouse.

¹³Gibson Worsham, et al, Montgomery County Historic Sites Survey (Christiansburg, Va: County of Montgomery, 1986).

¹⁴Duncan Lyle Kinnear, The First 100 Years: A History of Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University (Blacksburg, Va: Virginia Polytechnic Institute Education Foundation, 1972), p. 155.

¹⁵R.L. Humbert, Industrial Survey of Montgomery County and City of Radford (Blacksburg, Va: Virginia Polytechnic Institute Engineering Extension Division, 1929).

¹⁶Humbert

¹⁷William E. Garnett, "A Social Study of the Blacksburg Community," in Virginia Agricultural Experiment Station, Bulletin, 299, 1935.

¹⁸Kinnear, The First 100 Years, p. 286.

¹⁹Mark L. Peckham, "Central Plan Dairy Barns of New York State Thematic Resources," National Register of Historic Places, 1984.

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I. Archaeological Sites

II. Description

Archaeological sites are locations of past human behavior containing artifacts (portable material residues) and features (non-portable residues) reflecting this past behavior. Artifacts, including objects produced or modified by humans, were used to perform certain functions. Their discovery indicates what functions or activities were conducted in or around the site. Many of these objects (particularly aboriginal stone tools and pottery and historic ceramics and nails) are temporally diagnostic of specific time periods. Features include aboriginal cooking and storage pits and historic house foundations, middens, and industrial facilities, the discovery of which substantiates the integrity of a site.

All of the archaeological sites tested were investigated in order to discover features and artifacts reflecting significant past behavior. For the prehistoric Marye Site, this significant behavior was predominantly related to the major village occupation during the Late Prehistoric/Protohistoric period (ca. A.D. 1500-1600), although indications of even earlier site use were identified. For the other historic sites, the period of significant behavior was between about 1780 and 1870, and it was this temporal range that was the focus of investigation.

The Marye Site, representing the Prehistoric Settlement Patterns context, is located on the Madison Farm in a fertile floodplain near the South Fork of the Roanoke River and reflects the dual needs of its Late Prehistoric inhabitants for water and agricultural land. The later historic sites investigated in rural locations, such as the Madison Farm, Woods-Grubb Farm, Kinzer Farm, and Elijah Murdock Farm, also reflect similar needs for water and agricultural or pasture lands in their settings.

Two sites, the Woods-Grubb tanyard in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District and the Kinzer brick kiln, contain important information on those industries as they were conducted in the nineteenth century. Few such sites have been archaeologically investigated. Both contained intact features, such as tanning pits, wooden drain pipes, and brick rubble and pits related to brick firing. Both sites were also located near creeks, reflecting water needs in these manufacturing processes.

As with these rural sites, historic sites in the towns of Christiansburg and Blacksburg contained rich artifact assemblages pertaining to the time period of interest, midden deposits containing these artifacts, and, in many cases, intact architectural features. Artifacts from the Barnett-Montagu House excavations in Christiansburg, and those associated with the Phillips-Ronald House in Blacksburg, as well as the Johnson House and Lybrook's Row sites in the Blacksburg Historic District, predominantly represented food production/consumption (or kitchen-related) and architectural activities. These artifact assemblages

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provide a rich record of early through mid-nineteenth-century technology in these areas.

III. Significance

Significance for archaeological sites is determined by their research potential. Research potential, in turn, is determined by the presence of artifact-bearing deposits and intact features relating to the time periods of interest. Most of the archaeologically tested sites contained abundant artifact assemblages and evidence of subsurface features that could be used in the development of a variety of research questions. These sites were subjected to limited test excavations primarily to document the presence of these material remains and to obtain information on the time periods they represent. Thus, as complete excavations occur the potential for other deposits with research significance is high.

Significant evidence for intact prehistoric features (containing carbonized plant remains amenable to radiocarbon dating) and temporally diagnostic artifacts dating from the Early Archaic (ca. 8000 B.C.) to the Late Prehistoric/Protohistoric (ca. A.D. 1500-1600) period was identified at the Marye site. Although other Late Prehistoric sites have been investigated previously in Montgomery County (see bibliography), the interrelationships between these sites (i.e., do they represent a single culture or many cultures) are still poorly understood. Sites with abundant artifact assemblages in association with datable organic remains are vital in defining the chronological and cultural relationships of these villages. Artifacts from good stratigraphic or datable contexts can also be studied to chart chronological changes in ceramic and lithic manufacturing technology as well as stylistic variation. Finally, many of the other Late Prehistoric/Protohistoric Native American villages previously investigated have been either completely excavated or destroyed by modern construction. At present, no sites representing this time period in Montgomery County are listed in the National Register. Listing the Marye Site, therefore, would recognize not only the research potential of the remaining intact deposits of this site but also an important period in Montgomery County's past.

Most of the historic sites tested also contain artifact assemblages and intact features representing activities conducted in and around domestic dwellings and outbuildings, such as smokehouses. A variety of research questions can also be addressed for these sites.

Major research questions include the documentation of local variation in ceramic technology and style from 1780 to 1870. The tested historic sites were initially occupied during this period and contain abundant assemblages of contemporary ceramic wares. Change through time in the use of different wares can also be addressed, as well as differences in ceramic types possibly relating to differences in economic status of the

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site occupants. Sites with particularly rich and diverse assemblages of pearlwares, whitewares, redwares, and porcelains include the Madison, Woods-Grubb, Elijah Murdock, Phillips-Ronald, Barnett-Montague, and Johnson House middens (located below the surface around these structures). Excavations at the Lybrook's Row site also produced a rich assemblage relating to the mid- to late-nineteenth-century activities of the Bodell Pottery, Lybrook's Row student housing, and the corner general store.

Research questions concerning changes in architectural technology (construction techniques, nails, glass, brick) may be addressed by examining foundation features and their associated architectural material residues around the Madison Farm, Elijah Murdock, Woods-Grubb, and Phillips-Ronald houses. The Kinzer brickyard also contains information on brick manufacture and firing methods common in the early to mid-nineteenth century.

Finally, questions concerning mid-nineteenth-century industrial technology and production, particularly on a small scale, can be addressed by examining the intact features and deposits relating to hide tanning at the Woods-Grubb tanyard and brickmaking at the Kinzer brickyard. Because such small manufacturing sites are not recorded in contemporary tax records in many cases, their documentation and study can only proceed through archaeological investigation.

IV. Integrity

The integrity, or authenticity of identity, of archaeological sites was also determined through testing. Integrity of location and setting are reflected through the archaeological discovery of artifact-bearing midden deposits and features associated with standing historic domestic sites and outbuildings. Many of these deposits apparently relate to functionally specific activities (i.e., food bones and kitchenwares around smokehouses or near kitchen entrances), thus indicating the locations of these buildings and associated deposits have not been altered. Although the exact location of prehistoric artifacts in the plowzone of the Marye site has been disturbed by plowing, their general location (clustering within an identifiable site boundary) has been maintained. More importantly, sub-plow zone features have retained their exact locational integrity.

Integrity in design is also reflected by the spatial relationships of features within a site and by the site's location in relation to natural features. Location, for example, near creeks, rivers, or springs is reflected in the rural archaeological sites as a conscious placement near a vital resource. That this water resource was also important for nondomestic use is demonstrated by the placement of the Woods-Grubb tanyard and Kinzer brickyard near creeks. Integrity in the spatial relationships of subsurface features is also noted at all the rural sites, as well as the Phillips-Ronald House.

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In terms of materials relating to the periods of interest, and the workmanship exhibited by these materials, all of these archaeological sites possessed great integrity. Particularly noteworthy are the large collections of ceramic artifacts spanning both the prehistoric and historic periods of interest. Variation in the manufacturing technology, craftsmanship, and decoration of these artifacts--both aboriginal and nonaboriginal--can thus be traced through time. Other artifact classes are also abundant, particularly stone artifacts and tools from the Marye site and nails, window glass, and brick from the historic sites. These provide excellent documentation of the local character of historic and prehistoric technologies, as well as how they, too, changed over time. These artifact assemblages also provide a unique data base for comparing technologies in Montgomery County to those similar materials from adjoining regions in Southwest Virginia.

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I. Town Plans

II. Description

Town plans in Montgomery County are typical of the linear grids used in Virginia from the early eighteenth century until late in the nineteenth century. A checkerboard grid was used in the pre-1830 town plans associated with historic districts being nominated. Christiansburg's important Lancaster-plan public square, laid out in 1790-1793, has suffered from extensive modification and no longer has sufficient integrity to warrant its inclusion as either an historic district or a landscape feature. The town plans of Blacksburg (1797) and Lafayette (1825) are, however, included in the Blacksburg Historic District (150-108) and Lafayette Historic District (60-148).

Blacksburg was laid out in sixteen square blocks. Only six of the blocks were fully developed by 1830, but as the town grew the 1797 plan was rigorously followed. Unlike Christiansburg, Blacksburg's residents gradually filled in the blocks throughout the town. Lafayette was laid out on a smaller scale with six square blocks, four of which survive to the present day. At the central point in these blocks, a small public square or muster ground was created by subtracting square sections from the corners of each of the four abutting lots. Significant portions of each town plan are included in the historic districts being nominated. The nominated portions of both towns retain their street width, block size, and some original undivided lots. While the actual muster ground does not survive as a visible feature, the location of Lafayette Methodist Church clearly indicates its north side, and the site is largely undisturbed.

III. Significance

Town plans in Montgomery County are indicative of the county's prominence as a regional merchantile and transportation nexus in the 1792-1828 period. The survival of the town plans in Blacksburg and Lafayette can be associated with their relative lack of growth after the second quarter of the nineteenth century. Christiansburg's relative predominance is the cause of the loss of many of the early structures and features of the town plan of this successful commercial and governmental center.

Blacksburg's town plan is unusual for its early date and ambitious scale so close to the county seat at Christiansburg. It is likely that this regionally unprecedented occurrence was prompted by rival groups attempting to promote alternate routes through the region--the Pepper's Ferry Road through Blacksburg and the Ingles Ferry Road through Christiansburg. Few towns in western Virginia without a courthouse

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aspired to more than the linear form of typical towns along the Great Road, such as Newbern (founded in 1810, west of Christiansburg in Montgomery County, but in Pulaski County since 1839).

Founders of Lafayette, the largest town between Salem and Christiansburg, also had great hopes for that community. The relocation of the main road in the late 1840s and the town's failure to secure a railroad depot in the 1850s led to its failure to grow significantly after that time. In the 1830s, however, it was a prosperous and successful place and developed four of its six platted blocks. The inclusion of a small public square, later used as a muster ground during the Civil War, is believed to be unique among small turnpike towns in western Virginia. Like the similar but larger Lancaster-plan square in Christiansburg, it draws on Renaissance design concepts as utilized in Pennsylvania and Northern Ireland, former homes of many of the Scotch-Irish settlers of the area. The Lancaster plan is widespread throughout the upland South and Midwest.

IV. Integrity

In the districts being nominated as part of this submission, the town plan must be intact and clearly discernable from street locations, building relationships, and lot layout. Two town plans, Blacksburg and Lafayette, meet these criteria.

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I. Domestic Buildings and Sites

II. Description

The domestic buildings of Montgomery County include farmhouses with associated secondary structures, such as meat houses, offices, kitchens, springhouses, and wash houses, as well as urban dwellings with associated secondary structures, such as garages and meat houses. Farm groupings incorporate essentially the same types and layout patterns throughout the period 1775-1940. Knowledge of farm forms before 1775 is largely speculative; few sites in the region from the period have been archaeologically explored.

The predominant building material in the periods 1745-1800, 1800-1830, and 1830-1865 was log. Logs were squared on the two vertical sides and then stacked in a rectangular or (rarely) square form utilizing one of several notching methods, principally V-notching. While the majority of dwellings built during these periods do not survive, of the approximately 130 buildings surveyed, eight-six were built of log, twenty-five of frame, and nineteen of brick. The superior durability of frame and brick dwellings undoubtedly causes the proportion to not reflect accurately the greater number of log houses evident from the study of tax records and deeds for the area.

The predominant building form during the period 1745-1860 was undoubtedly the single-pen dwelling, of which forty-one survive that can be said, based on architectural details, to date from before 1860. Three have a square or nearly square form, while the majority are rectangular. The houses are generally of one to one-and-one-half stories in height and feature a single room below and a garret above, normally reached by an enclosed stair. Often an ell or rear wing has been added later to increase the functional capacity of the house. Houses included in the nomination that take this form include principally those dating from the second quarter of the nineteenth century in Blacksburg and Christiansburg, but also include the early-nineteenth-century secondary dwellings at the McDonald Farm (60-235), the later secondary structure at Walnut Grove (60-452), and the houses at the Cromer Farm (60-121) and the Elijah Murdock Farm (60-547), built in the second quarter of the nineteenth century.

Rarer and more substantial building materials during the eighteenth century and first half of the nineteenth century included stone and brick masonry and framed-timber dwellings. These survived in greater numbers proportional to their log counterparts often because of their relatively greater scale and durability, although a few log houses were built in the region that rivaled the frame and masonry houses in scale and, were protected from deterioration by weatherboards.

Frame houses include the county's earliest known dwelling, Smithfield (60-273, listed in the National Register in 1969), a house dating from

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about 1775, the late- eighteenth-century house at the Madison Farm (60-565), and the second-quarter nineteenth-century Preston Waskie House in the Lafayette Historic District (60-418). Early brick houses include Fotheringay (60-442) and the Barnett House (60-440). Fotheringay, Smithfield, and the Barnett House are large houses with classical motifs associated with the Georgian and Federal styles and derived from pattern books published for the use of builders and carpenters. They employ variations of the center-passage form, adopted before 1860 by only the wealthiest and most successful rural landowners. Madison Farm and the Preston Waskie House are examples of the hall-parlor, or two-room house form, which was the most popular among well-to-do farmers and survives as the county's most commonly recorded urban dwelling from the period before 1860.

The Howard-Bell-Feather House (60-24) is a unique example in the county of the three-room plan, an apparent variant of a house form found in large numbers in the Shenandoah Valley. Two small rooms open side-by-side off a larger room resembling the hall in a hall-parlor house. The house combines these features with an unusual banked siting on a sloping hill, with entrances to the lower floor on grade on one facade and entrance to the principal (upper) floor on the opposite side. In addition to the unusual plan, the Howard-Bell-Feather House is the only stone house in the county, although stone houses of more conventional hall-parlor form are found in adjacent counties.

Hall-parlor log houses survive in greater numbers from the pre-1860 periods than any other house forms built of log, again probably because they were more substantially finished and often were large enough to be reused as families required more and increasingly differentiated space for their living accommodations during the nineteenth century. The Patterson-Eakin House (60-335), in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District, is a good early- nineteenth-century example. The Adam Wall House (60-233) and the MacDonald House (60-235) are neighboring houses dating from the early nineteenth century. The houses are unusually large (about 23' x 39' at the Wall House) as compared to the more common sixteen to eighteen by twenty-two to twenty-four feet dimensions.

The log James Charlton House (60-137) embodies another variation of a popular traditional plan, in this case a doubled hall-parlor house, creating essentially a four-room plan, with paired stone chimneys serving the rooms on one end of the house. It is unique among surveyed houses in the New River Valley region.

The center-passage plan became more popular as the nineteenth century progressed, and frame construction gradually overtook log building technology as sawmills and craftsmen became more available. While these buildings employed fashionable decorative treatments, such as Greek Revival porches, Italianate cornices, or Queen Anne brackets, their plans

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were traditional. A good example is the Greek Revival, center-passage James Brown House (60-330). Brick masonry continued to be utilized for substantial, center-passage dwellings such as Walnut Spring (60-243). These houses became increasingly simple and restrained in detailing, like their frame and log counterparts. The double-pile form, featured at the Woods-Grubb House (60-362) in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District, became more common, essentially a doubling in depth of the center-passage plan.

The brick, James Bain Price House (60-224-1) and the brick Phillips-Ronald House (150-15) are examples of this form, dating from just before (the former) and just after the Civil War (the latter). The Amiss-Palmer House (150-14) and the Thomas-Conner House (150-5) are large substantial examples of this form.

Kentland (60-202, not a part of this nomination) is a brick center-passage house of large scale and massive form, dating from the 1830s. Its interior detailing is simple, except for elegant federal-style mantels, and its exterior ornament centers on a fine entry surrounded with a full entablature and engaged columns.

Traditional forms such as hall-parlor, center-passage, and single-pen plans continued to be employed well into the late nineteenth century. The brick, double-pile Bishop House near Graysontown, the single-pen, log Joe Wells House (60-302), and others on Paris Mountain in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District, and the similar log house at the Nealy Gordon Farm (60-392) were all built in the third and fourth quarters of the century. The brick Pompey Calloway House (60-434), near Elliston, was built in 1910 by a former slave using traditional forms and following the center-passage plan.

New plans appeared in the late nineteenth century that also seem to be rooted in the traditional forms discussed above. The T-plan dwelling employed in several examples in the Blacksburg, South Franklin, and East Main Street historic districts often incorporated a center passage between a single room on one side and a pair of rooms shifted forward on the other side to form a projecting element in the principal facade. Small, two-room houses known as double-cell dwellings appeared in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries and are found in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District.

During the early twentieth century, popular sources such as magazines and pattern books spread plans and decorative motifs resulting in new largely non-traditional house forms and plans being built in Montgomery County. These include the Bungalow, the Foursquare house, and the Colonial Revival house. These exist in all of the urban historic districts in Christiansburg and Blacksburg. A number of fine Colonial Revival dwellings with unusual detailing were designed by Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University architecture professor Clinton W. Cowgill in Blacksburg's Southside Historic District. Folk houses and

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idiosyncratic dwellings also were built, of which the Preston House (60-270) (a fantastical grouping of turrets, porches, and cupolas), and the Hut House (154-10-11) (a bizarre assemblage of conically-roofed circular elements inspired by African dwellings) are the outstanding examples.

Traditional center-passage, double-cell, and T-plan dwellings as well as double-pile elaborations of those forms continued to appear in the county well into the twentieth century, with 1940 as an approximate cutoff date. The largest number by far of these houses date from the twentieth century, and while in some cases they were disguised with Bungalow detailing to resemble the popular prototype, their plans retained the traditional forms. Many of these are included in this submission.

III. Significance

All of the nominated dwellings are significant under criterion C, with their significance deriving from architectural form. Several houses, such as the Pompey Calloway House (60-434), the unusual home of a well-known black resident of Elliston, convey considerable information about black life in twentieth century Montgomery County. But all gain their principal significance from their architectural form. A few other houses where archaeological work has been performed have secondary significance under criterion D.

Architectural style categories have been eschewed for a system of analysis based on a morphology of plan and form as described in part II above. Analysis based on architectural style was used in areas where traditional features were overlaid with ornament based on national styles or where the house is more representative of national styles as depicted in pattern books or other sources than of any regional tradition (such as the Rife House, 60-443).

IV. Integrity

Registration Requirements: For domestic structures to be eligible, they were examined for their conformity to several alternative criteria. They must (1) be an outstanding example of a particular form or style important in delineating the history of Montgomery County, or (2) be an unusual example of a form, plan, or style not found in large numbers in the county, and/or (3) best represent the work of an individual, pattern of life, the adaptation of buildings to cultural change, or historic event important in the history of the county. Properties from the first category must retain a greater degree of physical integrity than properties from the second category since they are to represent the best of a large number of structures, while the latter category is by nature unusual and therefore may have suffered some loss of integrity if the features supporting their significance are intact. Properties nominated

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for the third category may have changed significantly if the change is illustrative of the reason for its eligibility, or if the character that gives it significance has not been impaired. Categories 1 and 3 or 2 and 3 may apply to any one property.

The analysis of properties for eligibility includes the National Register categories of location, design, setting, workmanship, materials, association, and feeling. The location and setting bear greatly on a building's eligibility: properties that have been moved have not normally been considered, and no buildings in this property type have been relocated. Setting is considered very important in the third category detailed above, where change through time or the ambiance of an historical event might be elements of a building's significance. Design is one of the most important criteria for architecturally significant dwellings. Workmanship and materials, other important elements of a building's integrity, may have received some limited modification, but the clarity of the significant elements of the design must be intact. Feeling and association are important elements of a building's integrity as conveyed by the location, design, setting, workmanship, and materials, and except where they are present in a building which has undergone substantial and significant change over time, cannot be said to be important criteria for significance.

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I. Commercial Buildings and Sites

II. Description

The commercial buildings of Montgomery County include stores, banks, hotels or boarding houses, resorts with associated secondary structures, theaters, and transportation-related buildings from the twentieth century. Information concerning commercial building forms is derived from surviving structures once in Montgomery County but in neighboring Pulaski County since 1839.

The predominant building material in the periods before 1830 for commercial buildings as well as domestic buildings was logs. Surviving buildings with a commercial/domestic function in Newbern (Pulaski County) from the period 1810-1830, as well as documentary sources, indicate that stores and inns were the principal commercial buildings and, like most other building types in the region, were large scaled and detailed like domestic structures and often provided a principal residence for the owner/proprietor as well.

Spring resorts in the region deviated from this pattern to a degree. Yellow Sulphur Springs (listed in the National Register in 1978) features a central building that apparently housed a dining room and tap room as early as 1810. The frame structure is unusually large and did not originally resemble a domestic building in scale. Surrounding log huts or cabins provided sleeping accommodations for resort-goers. No commercial buildings from this period are included in this nomination.

During the mid-nineteenth century, stores began to take the narrow gable-end entry form (Pezzoni, "Town Form"). This commercial architecture was linked to regional and national developments in urban architecture by pattern books and other methods of the transmission of design. The form of the building also was a logical use of the economics of space on expensive town lot frontages. Eventually, by the third quarter of the nineteenth century, the stores often had bright signs and large display windows flanking a central entrance. In one case (Deyerle's Store in the Blacksburg Historic District), the gable-roofed building was concealed behind a decorative false front, visually enlarging the building. Buildings like the James Bain Price Store, in the Price's Fork Historic District, and others in the Riner, Shawsville, Lafayette, and Blacksburg historic districts take the form of deep, gable-fronted, frame buildings with central entry doors flanked by barred or heavily shuttered windows. Often a shed-roofed wing to one side is entered by a heavy door on the gable front and served the function of a wareroom. Such buildings were used until well into the twentieth century.

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Beginning at the turn of the twentieth century, store buildings began to be larger. Examples include two very large, brick-faced buildings of three stories in downtown Christiansburg and nearby Cambria (the A. L. Johnson Store and the Surface-Lee Block). Smaller but equally substantial brick stores were built in Blacksburg and the smaller communities, such as the Hornburger Store (60-153) in the railroad village of Vickers Switch. Many stores had wide plate glass windows flanking the door, and offices or housing on a second floor.

Banks built in the mid-nineteenth-century period were of brick but retained a domestic character. Banks built in the 1850s in both Christiansburg and Blacksburg resembled large Greek Revival houses. The banks no longer stand in either town.

Spring resorts built in the mid- to late nineteenth century often featured a large central hotel, a term which began to appear in the 1830s in western Virginia. The Montgomery White Sulphur, Alleghany, and Yellow Sulphur Springs featured large frame central buildings surrounded by a village-size collection of elegantly detailed cabins or cottages and other subsidiary buildings. Yellow Sulphur Springs and Crockett Springs were the sites of large Queen Anne hotels in the late nineteenth century, but the tradition of detached cottages for guests, begun in the early nineteenth century and before, continued. Although none of the hotels, except the already-listed Yellow Sulphur Springs hotel (enlarged in the mid-1850s), are now standing, several cottages survive, including the Montgomery White Sulphur Springs cottage (154-8) now located in Christiansburg and the cottage at Crockett Springs (60-487). Both take the one-story, four-bay, two-room form typical of some resorts in the period. Earlier springs cottages, such as those at the Yellow Sulphur Springs, consist of long rows of rooms under a common roof. The hotels or rooming houses in smaller communities, such as Shawsville Historic District's Showalter House or the Guerrant House (60-7), often resembled large, traditional, center-passage, double-pile houses.

Commercial architecture in the first half of the twentieth century became more frequently related to national trends through the growth in popularity of chain stores and the increased awareness of architecture in more developed parts of the country. Banks in the Blacksburg Historic District and the Bank of Shawsville in the Shawsville Historic District show a strong tendency on the part of owners and builders to incorporate fashionable styles into their buildings, within the limits set by the narrow urban lot. Hotels, like the William Preston Hotel in the Blacksburg Historic District, were similarly detailed with Classical Revival decorative features. Other banks or commercial buildings in rural communities continued to utilize the simple forms from previous decades. The Bank of Riner in the Riner Historic District is a small, one-story, brick structure with a gable roof concealed behind a parapet, and the neighboring stores continue regional commercial forms.

Transportation-related commercial structures such as service stations, motels, and garages were built throughout the period from 1910 to 1940.

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One service station is included in the Shawsville Historic District. Like many others, it is a small, rectangular building set back from the road on a large lot, but unlike many it does not have a deep canopy roof sheltering the gas pumps.

III. Significance

All of the nominated commercial buildings are significant under criterion C, with their significance deriving from architectural form and detailing. Several are also significant under criterion A, as important examples of buildings representing commercial developments in Montgomery County. Few stores or other commercial buildings from before the early twentieth century have a clearly identifiable architectural style, and they have usually been described by their plan.

IV. Integrity

Registration Requirements: In order for commercial buildings to be eligible they must conform to several alternative criteria. Each building eligible under criterion C must be (1) an outstanding example of a particular form or style of commercial architecture important in delineating the history of Montgomery County or (2) be an unusual example of a form, plan, or style not found in large numbers in the county. Properties from the first category must retain a greater degree of integrity than properties from the second category since they are to represent the best of a large number of structures, while the latter category is by nature unusual and therefore buildings in this group may have suffered some loss of integrity if the features supporting their significance are intact. The analysis of properties for eligibility includes the National Register categories of location, design, setting, workmanship, materials, association, and feeling. The location and setting have great bearing on a property's eligibility: properties that have been moved have not normally been included, although one (the Montgomery White Sulphur Springs Cottage, 154-8) was judged eligible because of its excellent state of preservation, rarity (the only well-preserved example of a number of buildings moved from the now-vacant original site in 1904), and the significant factor of the building's participation in a regionally popular practice of building relocation.

Setting is important, although radical change in commercial settings in most parts of the county leaves little room for historic commercial landscapes outside the Blacksburg Historic District and the Shawsville Historic District. Design, workmanship, and materials are important criteria for architecturally significant buildings and must be substantially intact for consideration, while feeling and association are not normally considered unless location, design, materials, and workmanship are impaired.

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I. Institutional Buildings and Structures

II. Description

The institutional buildings and structures of Montgomery County include churches, lodges, schools, and such government-ordered buildings as the courthouse, poorhouse, jail, and clerk's office, as well as government structures such as bridges. Institutional buildings follow essentially the same forms and patterns from the early period through the mid-nineteenth century when the influence of pattern books and architects began to be felt in the imposition of Greek Revival ornament on what were still generally traditional structures. But in the early twentieth century, institutional buildings were among the first to reflect the direct influence of the mainstream of American popular architecture. Prominent among these institutional buildings is the redesigned courthouse of 1909-1910 in Classic Revival style by Roanoke architect H. H. Huggins.

Early institutional buildings in Montgomery County from 1740 until the mid-nineteenth century were domestic in scale and detail. Churches, schools, and government buildings were often built of log in the eighteenth century and well into the nineteenth century. Little is known of the form of churches or schools in the eighteenth century. Many churches may have utilized the meetinghouse plan with doors in the gable end and side wall. The courthouse and jail at Fort Chiswell (1778) were log structures roughly twenty by twenty feet in size. The first courthouse in Christiansburg, built of brick in the late eighteenth or early nineteenth century, was a simple, gabled, two-story building. No institutional buildings survive from before the late 1840s, except portions of the brick clerk's office incorporated in the Phlegar Building (154-7), which seems to have been a two-room, six-bay building of one story.

The courthouse of 1834 retained a domestic scale and feeling. Additional distinction was given by its three-part facade, octagonal capola, and arch-headed central window. The only school said to survive from the mid-nineteenth-century period is the one-story, log Matamoras school (not included due to insufficient integrity). The academies and seminaries from the mid-nineteenth century often rivaled the churches of the period for refinement of Greek Revival detailing. Usually built of brick, they too had a domestic scale, except the Montgomery Academy in Christiansburg, which had colossal pilasters on all sides and a classical entablature and pediment. The brick poorhouse of 1829 does not survive.

Churches surviving from the mid-nineteenth century take the nave plan form in which the entry is in the gable end and the pulpit or communion table at the opposite end, approached by one or more longitudinal aisles. The Blacksburg Presbyterian Church, with two windows in each side and a pair of doors in the end, and the three-bay-long Methodist Church in the Lafayette Historic District, both built in the 1840s, show the increasingly popular trend to build in brick. The Christiansburg

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Presbyterian Church of 1852 (listed in the National Register in 1969) is the grandest and most sophisticated of the mid-nineteenth-century churches, with its galleries; recessed, pilastered entry; and spire.

During the late nineteenth century and early twentieth century, the nave-plan church was the most popular rural form, while urban churches, such as Christ Episcopal Church and First Methodist Church in the Blacksburg Historic District, were heavily influenced by Gothic Revival or Romanesque architectural trends on the national level. Asymmetry and elaborate stylistic treatments became common.

Governmental structures were still few in number until 1940. The courthouse of 1834 was heavily altered in 1909-10 by architect H. H. Huggins of Roanoke. Refaced in pressed brick with narrow joints and given classical details such as a dome and columns, it became the county's grandest structure. The courthouse no longer stands. The jail was rebuilt in the 1940s.

Schools in the late nineteenth century and early twentieth century changed greatly in form. In the mid-nineteenth century, the academies were the only substantial educational structures; other schools were generally log structures of a single room. During the 1800s, school buildings were gradually improved. By the 1900s, schools such as the old Christiansburg High School and Elementary School, both in the East Main Street Historic District, were often large substantial brick structures with complex floor plans, while rural schools, such as the Luster's Gate School in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District, were generally well-built, one-story frame structures of one or more rooms. Most of the plans for surviving urban schools were prepared by the Department of Public Instruction as early as 1911.

Bridges were built by the counties until well into the twentieth century. Bridges, such as the bridge over the North Fork of the Roanoke River at site 60-568, are metal truss bridges purchased from local or extra-regional bridge manufacturers. Few such bridges remain in the county. The unusual bridge under the railroad at New Ellett (60-573), while allowing passage of a county road, was actually constructed by the Virginia Railroad.

III. Significance

All of the nominated institutional buildings are significant under criterion C, with their significance deriving from architectural form. Architectural style categories have been, in some cases, substituted by a system of analysis based on plan type as described in Part II above. Analysis based on style was utilized in areas where traditional features were overlaid with ornament based on national styles or where the building is more representative of national styles as depicted in pattern books or other sources than of any regional tradition.

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IV. Integrity

Registration Requirements: For institutional structures to be eligible they must conform to several alternative criteria. They must (1) be an outstanding example of a particular form or style important in delineating the history of Montgomery County, or (2) be an unusual example of a form, plan, or style not found in large numbers in the county, and/or (3) best represent the work of an individual, pattern of life, the adaptation of buildings to cultural change, or historic event important in the history of the county. Properties from the first category must retain a greater degree of physical integrity than properties from the second category since they are to represent the best of a large number of structures. The latter category is by nature unusual and therefore buildings in this group may have suffered some loss of integrity if the features supporting their significance are intact. Properties nominated for the third category may have changed significantly if the change is illustrative of the reason for its eligibility or if the character which gives it significance has not been impaired. Categories 1 and 3 or 2 and 3 may apply to any one property.

The analysis of properties for eligibility includes the National Register categories of location, design, setting, workmanship, materials, association, and feeling. The location and setting have great bearing in a building's eligibility. Properties that have been moved have not normally been considered, and no buildings in this property type have been relocated. Setting is considered very important in the third category detailed above, where change through time or the ambience of an historical event might be elements of a building's significance. Design is one of the most important criteria for architecturally significant dwellings. Workmanship and materials, other important elements of a building's integrity, may have received some limited modification, but the clarity of the significant elements of the design must be intact. Feeling and association are normally conveyed by the location, design, materials, setting, and workmanship. Except where they are present in a building which has undergone significant change over time, these criteria cannot be said to be important elements.

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I. Industrial Buildings and Sites

II. Description

The industrial buildings and sites of Montgomery County include mills, tanyards, mines and related buildings, quarries, potteries, and factories. Industrial buildings and sites were generally similar in form and function from the mid-eighteenth century to the early nineteenth century. Buildings and structures from the earliest periods included grist mills and tanyards, of which no early examples survive, where basic perishable products of the region (corn, wheat, and skin) were transformed into easily stored and transported materials. Sawmills, a slightly later development, enabled an efficient transformation of timber into building materials. Iron forges and furnaces, while popular in neighboring areas, never flourished in Montgomery County, although ore was mined in the late nineteenth century and a zinc furnace was located in the southern part of the county in the late nineteenth century. The milling of flour and lumber increased radically with greater demand and better transportation after the mid-nineteenth century, as did the mining of coal, which occurred on a small scale beginning in the late eighteenth century.

Nominated sites include several water-powered mills. The large frame grist mill at McDonalds Mill in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District dates from the mid-nineteenth century. Unlike its larger brick and probably steam-driven neighbor, the late-nineteenth-century Bennetts Mill in the same district, the McDonald Mill, like buildings of other types from the period, is of domestic scale, form, and material. However, the structure of such buildings from early in the county's history was different from other frame buildings. The craft of mill-weighting varied from carpenter to carpenter, and the heavy timber framing characteristic of mills seems to be an independent structural tradition from residential and other forms of construction. Mills are built with structural bays defined by heavy, braced timber posts and beams to support and distribute the static and dynamic loads associated with a wide variety of traditional industrial pursuits. The Henderson Mill, a small mill which is also in the rural historic district, employs the same structural system on a much smaller scale appropriate for a seasonal use corresponding to water levels in the unfortunately named Dry Run.

Each mill stood on a substantial basement story to contain the larger elements of the power drive and to resist the damage of flooding. Later nineteenth century mills, such as the Walnut Grove Mill (60-451), reflect the same traditions, although some mills such as Bennetts Mill, mentioned above, or the Old Mill Building (portions of which survive in the Blacksburg Historic District) were much larger and more ambitious operations utilizing the late-nineteenth-century

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developments in milling technology. The Surface Mill in the Riner Historic District is an early twentieth century building far from a water source and originally powered by a diesel engine, yet its form is not unlike the two-to-three-story, nearly square, three-bay buildings of previous periods.

Tanyards originally existed at many locations throughout western Virginia, but few locations have been examined. The Woods-Grubb tanyard, in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District, consists of a series of limestone pits with wooden water pipes. It is one of a few such small tanyards examined in the region and possesses great potential for research. It dates from the mid-nineteenth century.

III. Significance

All of the nominated industrial sites are significant under criterion C, with their significance deriving from architectural form. Several are also significant under criterion A as important examples of buildings representing and illustrating phases in the industrial development of Montgomery County. The Woods-Grubb tanyard has significance under criterion D as a significant site likely to yield data about small-scale industrial processes and operations in the region. Conventional style categories are of little value in analyzing industrial sites and buildings.

IV. Integrity

Registration Requirements: For industrial structures to be eligible they must conform to several alternative criteria. They must (1) be an outstanding example of a particular form or style important in delineating the history of Montgomery County, or (2) be an unusual example of a form, plan, or style not found in large numbers in the county, and/or (3) best represent the work of an individual, pattern of life, the adaptation of buildings to cultural change, or historic event important in the history of the county. Properties from the first category must retain a greater degree of physical integrity than properties from the second category since they are to represent the best of a large number of structures, while the latter category is by nature unusual and therefore buildings in this group may have suffered some loss of integrity if the features supporting their significance are intact. Properties nominated for the third category may have changed significantly if the change is illustrative of the reason for its eligibility or if the character which gives it significance has not been impaired. Categories 1 and 3 or 2 and 3 may apply to any one property.

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The analysis of properties for eligibility includes the National Register categories of location, design, setting, workmanship, materials, association, and feeling. The location and setting have great bearing in a building's eligibility. Properties that have been moved have not normally been considered, and no buildings in this property type have been relocated. Setting is considered very important in the third category detailed above, where change through time or the ambience of an historical event might be elements of a building's significance. Design is one of the most important criteria for architecturally significant dwellings. Workmanship and materials, other important elements of a building's integrity, may have received some limited modification, but the clarity of the significant elements of the design must be intact. Feeling and association are normally conveyed by the location, design, setting, workmanship, and materials. Except where they are present in a building which has undergone substantial and significant change over time, these elements cannot be said to be important criteria for significance.

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I. Agricultural Buildings Structures and Sites

II. Description

Agricultural buildings in Montgomery County include barns, corncribs, silos, granaries, henhouses, and other farm-related outbuildings. Few agricultural outbuildings are known positively to exist in the county from before the mid-nineteenth century, but it is thought that the forms found from that period are related to the barns of previous decades. Records show that many farms had no substantial agricultural outbuildings until they had been in existence for several decades. Few agricultural buildings were surveyed that were not associated with a surveyed domestic structure.

The earliest barns took several basic forms in the county. The single-crib log barn used for animal habitation or tobacco curing was one form. The log crib was often used in western Virginia in a paired arrangement with another crib, with a central threshing floor between them, sometimes built into a bank with long storage above and animal pens below, like a bank barn discussed below. Several double-crib log barns are found in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District, including the locally unique Patterson-Eakin Barn, which incorporated overhangs on the two long sides.

Bank barns were also present in the area during the mid-nineteenth century. Important stone bank barns were built at the McDonald farm near McDonalds Mill in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District (they are no longer standing) and at Back Creek Farm (now in Pulaski County and listed in the National Register in 1975). The form is widespread in the Shenandoah Valley but little used here in spite of these early and very fine examples. Another bank barn, built in the late nineteenth century of braced heavy timber, is located at the Crumpacker-McPherson Farm in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District.

Corncribs took forms similar to that of barns, being built of logs in single- and double-crib examples, except that the cribs are long and narrow in relation to their width in order to keep the corn well-ventilated. A single-crib corncrib at the James Brown Farm in the North Fork Valley Rural Historic District is still in use. Few granaries from the mid-nineteenth century were identified.

By the late nineteenth century, agricultural periodicals and books about agricultural reform influenced the building of a new generation of barns, many of them based on the bank barn form. In some cases, traditional forms were built of framed timber. In the twentieth century the adoption of dairy farming as a single farm activity led to the construction of large dairy barns with concrete floors and metal or wooden stanchions for organizing the milking operations. Agricultural outbuildings were increasingly numerous and often built of light sawn lumber

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sheathed with vertical boards, as well as brick and concrete block. Henhouses, brooder houses, granaries, milking parlors, feed mills, silos of wood and masonry, and other structures accompanied the technical advances made in agriculture. Such buildings are present on nearly every farm in the county. Unusual buildings, such as the polygonal barn built on the Blankenship Farm (60-386) in 1929, are rare.

III. Significance

All of the nominated agricultural buildings are significant under criterion C, with their significance deriving from architectural form. Architectural style categories are of little use in dealing with most agricultural buildings. A system of analysis based on plan and form has been employed.

IV. Integrity

For agricultural buildings to be an eligible part of a district or farm complex they must conform to several alternative criteria. They must (1) be an outstanding example of a particular form or style important in delineating the history of Montgomery County, or (2) be an unusual example of a form, plan, or style not found in large numbers in the county, and/or (3) best represent the work of an individual, pattern of life, the adaptation of buildings to cultural change, or historic event important in the history of the county. Properties from the first category must retain a greater degree of physical integrity than properties from the second category since they are to represent the best of a large number of structures, while the latter category is by nature unusual and therefore buildings in this group may have suffered some loss of integrity if the features supporting their significance are intact. Properties nominated for the third category may have changed significantly if the change is illustrative of the reason for its eligibility or if the character which gives it significance has not been impaired. Categories 1 and 3 or 2 and 3 may apply to any one property.

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integrity, may have received some limited modification, but the clarity of the significant elements of the design must be intact. Feeling and association are conveyed by the location, design, setting, workmanship, and materials. Except where they are present in a building which has undergone substantial and significant change over time, these elements cannot be said to be important criteria for significance.

G. Summary of Identification and Evaluation Methods

Discuss the methods used in developing the multiple property listing.

The multiple property listing for the resources of Montgomery County is based on the survey performed by the firm of Gibson Worsham, Architect, in 1985-86. The survey was funded under a program of reconnaissance level survey initiated by the Virginia Division of Historic Landmarks. A thorough program of research and study mandated by the state's Resource Protection Planning Process (RP3) resulted in a two-volume report in which the contexts and property types herein described were first developed. In order to organize the survey effort into manageable units, the county was divided into eight geographical or political study areas. Research was undertaken in order to understand the county's development in ten theme areas discussed below. Chronologically, the county's history was broken into six generally meaningful periods to allow and assure coverage of each theme. The periods were pre-historic, 1745-1800, 1801-1830, 1831-1865, 1866-1900, and 1901-1940.

See continuation sheet

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See continuation sheet.

Primary location of additional documentation:

- State historic preservation office
 Other State agency
 Federal agency

- Local government
 University
 Other

Specify repository: Virginia Department of Historic Resources

I. Form Prepared By

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Fieldwork followed Division of Historic Landmarks directives for a reconnaissance level survey, using the Division of Historic Landmarks Reconnaissance Level Survey forms and utilizing intensive survey techniques where possible, including room-by-room descriptions, interior photographs, and measured drawings. U.S.G.S. maps (7.5 minute) were used to locate and travel all county routes and accessible private roads. Structures were usually considered if they were more than fifty years old. A total of 810 sites were surveyed, 125 of which were measured. In addition, 2,077 buildings were given a typological code on the field maps, identifying them as a member of a particular group of defined vernacular structures from the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

The research involved analysis of all available primary and secondary sources. Deed research was generally performed for individual properties. The contexts for the historic periods used in this nomination result from a condensation of the ten themes established by the Division of Historic Landmarks: Residential/Domestic, Agriculture, Government/Law/Welfare; Education, Military, Religion, Social/Cultural, Transportation, Commerce, and Industry/Manufacturing/Crafts. Certain themes, notably Social/Cultural, Education, Government/Law/Welfare, and Military had few surviving eligible resources, so these and those listed above were subsumed into a new group of pertinent contexts: Community Planning (2), Domestic (3), Agriculture (4), Commerce (7), Institutions (5), and Industry and Crafts (6). A prehistoric component was also developed in the 1985-86 study. This has been expanded and incorporated for the purposes of these reports into a Prehistoric Settlement Patterns context (1) by Dr. Cliff Boyd of Radford University.

Additional research, field work, and excavations were performed as part of the preparation of this multiple property listing. Dr. Boyd undertook a limited series of archaeological tests at some of the historic properties being nominated, and this resulted in more information about these sites, as well as one significant prehistoric site on the Madison Farm (Marye Site, 44MY37). It is anticipated that additional archaeological sites, as well as standing properties, will be incorporated in this listing in the future.

A typology of significant historical property types was developed, principally based where possible on an examination of the morphology of regional architectural plans. Property type categories under which regional vernacular and popular architecture are discussed include: Sites, Town Plans, Domestic Buildings, Agricultural Buildings, Institutional Buildings, Industrial Buildings, and Commercial Buildings. Style was considered in cases where traditional architectural forms or details were absent. This appears to be the most useful way of understanding the data, since such criteria as style, function, or association do not usefully apply to more than a few of the property types in the county.

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The standards of integrity were based on National Register criteria for assessing integrity, modified by an analysis of the relative scarcity and condition of similar property types and subgroups within the property types. Allowances were made for the relative value of the resources within the county and region, based on the survey data and initial research. In certain cases, deterioration and alteration were mitigated by the intrinsic value of the property type. Since a significance based on plan morphology survives many varieties of alteration with its integrity undamaged, a larger degree of loss of integrity could be tolerated in certain instances. These issues are discussed in further detail in Section F.

The process of preparing the nomination was a complex one, as this is the first multiple property submission to be prepared in the state under new National Park Service directives. Meetings with Virginia Division of Historic Landmarks staff in the field and with them and National Park Service personnel in Richmond helped firm the evaluation criteria for individual sites and define district boundaries. Montgomery County staff members, especially Susan Swain, strove to make the project operate as smoothly as possible by administering the grant efficiently and assisting in every level of work toward the completion of the nomination.

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