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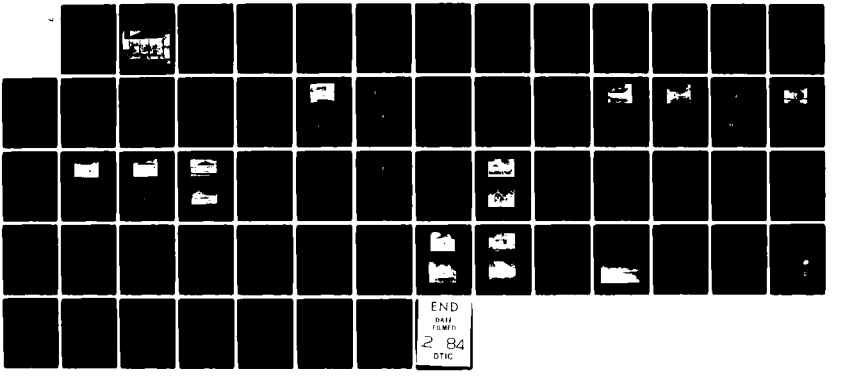

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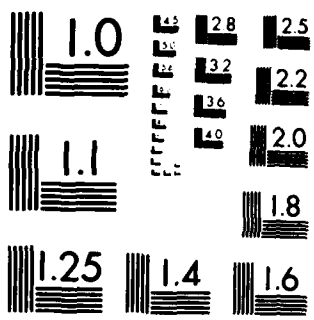
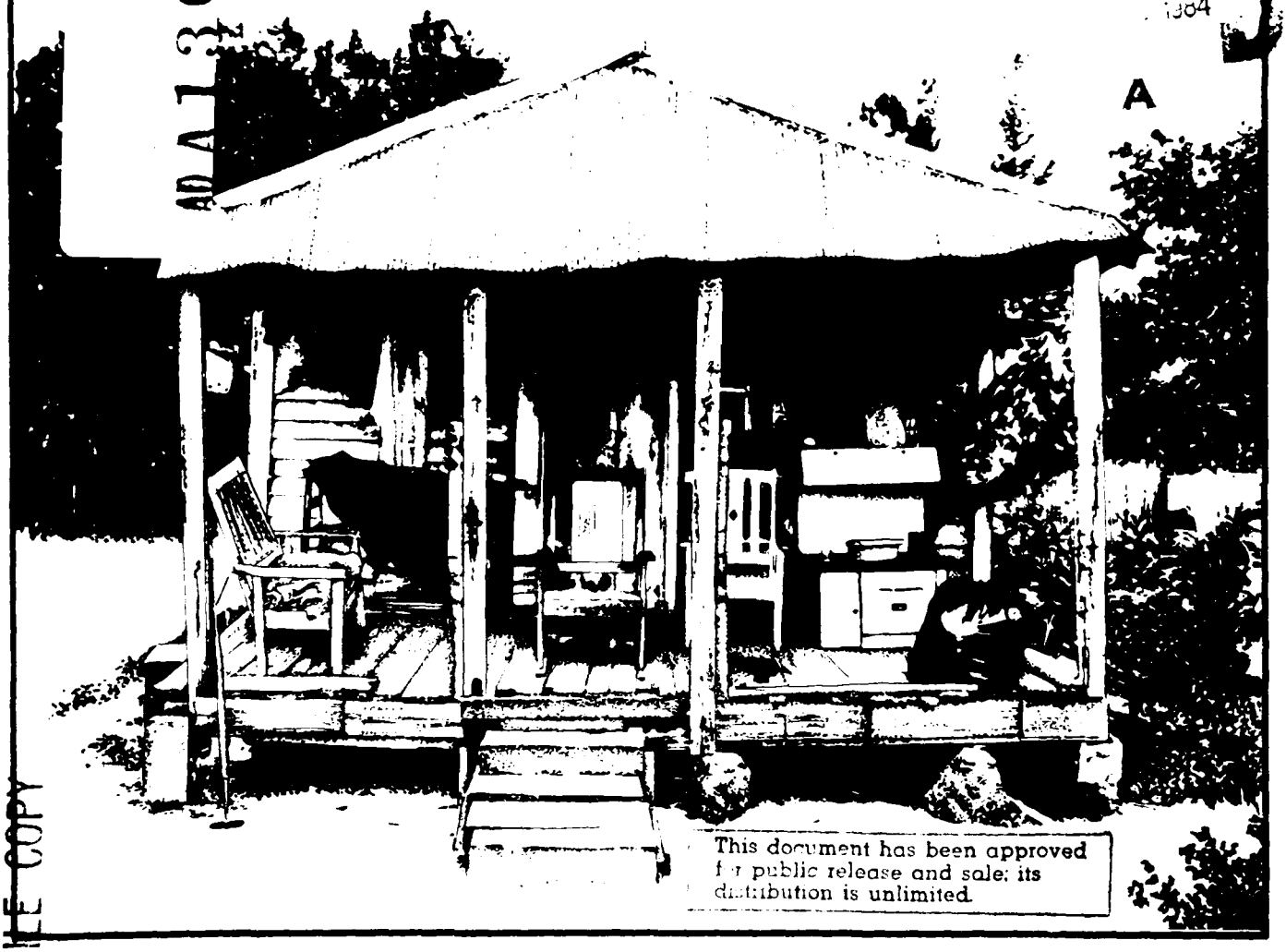


An Analysis of Rural Buildings in the Tombigbee River Multi-Resource District, Alabama and Mississippi

Prepared by:
Eugene M. Wilson
Department of Geology and Geography
University of South Alabama
Mobile, Alabama 36688



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The Tombigbee River Multi-Resource District contains rural building types that evolved from the building traditions of European and African settlers in America. The common house types of the District include the single pen, dogtrot, double pen, saddlebag, and shotgun houses to which was added the bungalow after 1900.

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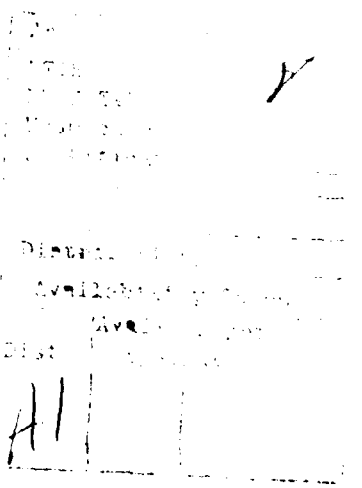
Prepared by:

Eugene M. Wilson
Department of Geology and Geography
University of South Alabama
Mobile, Alabama 36688



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16. Abstract (Limit: 200 words)

The Tombigbee River Multi-Resource District (TRMRD) contains rural building types that evolved from the building traditions of European and African settlers in America. The common house types of the TRMRD include the single pen, dogtrot, double pen, saddlebag, and shotgun houses to which was added the bungalow after 1900. Examples of these types were recorded in Historic American Buildings Survey and U.S. Army Corps of Engineers inventories in the TRMRD. Measurements of these houses did not differ significantly from those previously studied in other Southern states. Farmstead layouts also appear to be typical of the region. Spatial patterns of folk houses seem closely associated with physiographic provinces in the southern Appalachians and adjacent Coastal Plain. The rural house types present still reflect nineteenth century patterns of land use of the TRMRD.

17. Document Analysis a. Descriptors

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Upper Tombigbee River Valley
Tombigbee River
Historic American Buildings Survey
Architectural Resources
Rural Buildings
Folk Houses
Folk House Types

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Introduction

Congress authorized the Corps of Engineers to construct a navigable connection between the Tennessee and Tombigbee Rivers in the River and Harbor Act of 1946. After years of planning and restudy, the construction was started on the lower-most structure, the Gainesville Lock and Dam, in 1972. The waterway, as authorized, extends upstream from Demopolis, Alabama, on the existing canalized Black Warrior-Tombigbee Waterway, 217 miles above Mobile, upstream via the Tombigbee River, the East Fork of the Tombigbee, Mackeys Creek, a deep cut through the Tennessee River Divide Ridge into Yellow Creek and via Yellow Creek to the Pickwick pool on the Tennessee River near the common boundary of Alabama, Tennessee, and Mississippi.

The project consists of three parts: a river section, including four locks and dams in the Tombigbee River; a canal section with five locks roughly parallel to the east fork of the Tombigbee River; and a divide section, including a high lock and dam (Bay Springs Reservoir) and a cut through the dividing ridge 27 miles long and a maximum of 175 feet deep at the peak. All four of the river section locks and dams (Gainesville, Aliceville, Columbus, and Aberdeen), the entire canal section and the Bay Springs Lock and Dam project of the divide section are included in the Tombigbee River Multi-Resource District.

The Tombigbee River Multi-Resource District extends upstream via the Tombigbee River, the east fork of the Tombigbee River and Mackeys Creek from Gainesville, Alabama, to the crossing of Mackeys Creek by Mississippi Highway 30 west of Paden, Mississippi, a total distance of approximately 130 miles. The district has an arbitrary width of five miles and traverses portions of Pickens, Greene and Sumter Counties in Alabama, and Noxubee, Lowndes, Clay, Monroe, Itawamba, Prentiss and Tishomingo Counties in Mississippi (Figure 1). The district lies wholly within the Fall Line Hills and Black Belt (Prairie) sectors of the Gulf Coastal Plain physiographic province.

The Tombigbee River Multi-Resource District was declared eligible for the National Register of Historic Places in September 1977. The District contains prehistoric and historic sites including buildings and bridges. The mitigation plan for the District requires an inventory and evaluation of all structures within the project area and appropriate recording of the significant resources. This mitigation plan was approved and the Memorandum of Agreement ratified in December 1977.

The Corps of Engineers and Interagency Archeological Services-Atlanta approached the Historic American Buildings Survey (HABS) and the Historic American Engineering Record (HAER) in February 1978 about the possibility of performing the inventory, evaluation and recording of buildings and bridges in the Tombigbee River Multi-Resource District as required in the mitigation plan. The inventory was conducted from

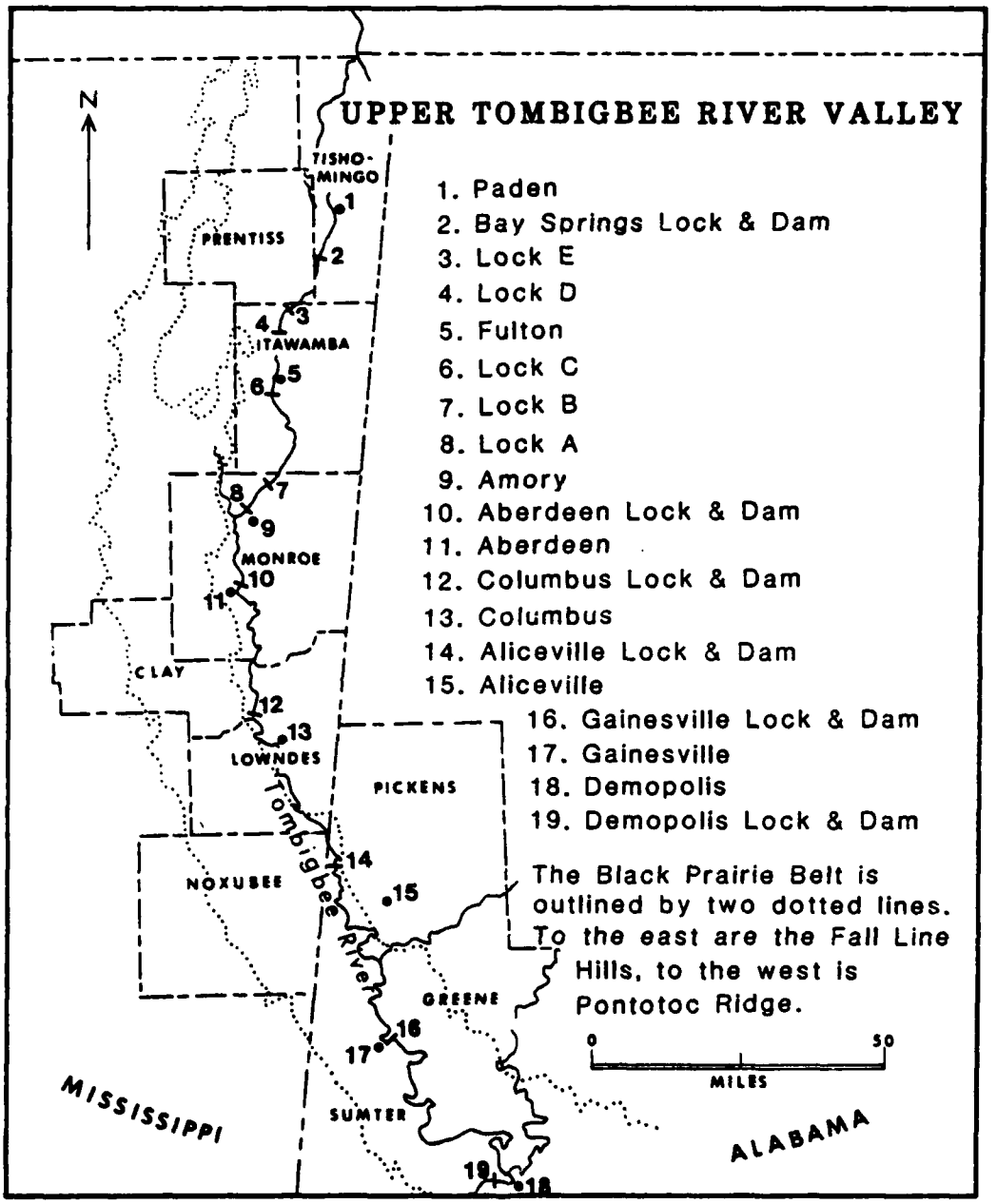

Figure 1. Upper Tombigbee River Valley.

June 5 to August 25, 1978 under the mandates of Executive Order 11593 and the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966. The results of the inventory, including recommendations for appropriate recording for significant buildings and bridges, were detailed in the report, including the field data sheets, which were used as part of this discussion of rural buildings (Table 1). The HABS information is filed at the Library of Congress.

This report includes a review of certain aspects of culture history of the Southeast as background for the data obtained by the Historic American Buildings Survey in the Tombigbee River Multi-Resource District (hereafter referred to as the TRMRD). A review of house types is also given and some statistical data are presented. A general model of house type evolution during the nineteenth century is presented. Three sources of information are used in this report. These include personal observations from previous work in Alabama and several trips in the TRMRD, U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, Nashville District, tract files from the upper part of the valley and field data sheets from the U.S. Department of the Interior and U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, Nashville and Mobile Districts 1980 Tennessee-Tombigbee Waterway Project, Tombigbee River Multi-Resource District, Alabama and Mississippi: inventory report of architectural and engineering resources, Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service, Atlanta, Georgia, performed by the Historic American Buildings Survey (hereafter referred to as HABS). Specifically, copies of the field data sheets included information on 38 houses and photographs of 35 other buildings without inventory forms. The inventory included three levels: 1) common structures 50 years old or less, with limited documentation; 2) variations, modifications, or extensively altered examples of basic traditional building types, with limited documentation; 3) buildings considered to be good to excellent examples of particular types or interesting variations or modification of basic types. Structures at level 3 were photographed and had floor plans drawn at the scale 3/32-inch to the foot. Where possible, local information was added to the architectural and historical descriptions.

Approaches to the housing study depend largely upon academic background. The understanding of the great variety of surface phenomena is the objective of geography. Geographers study individual cultural and physical features to understand the processes that created them and the patterns they make on the earth's surface. The dwelling house is important to the understanding of human patterns and cultural diffusion. For studies of buildings, geographers have defined types, distinguished by roof form, chimney location, position of doors and windows, porch type, house plan and dimensions.

Research on rural building types and their distributions was first published in Germany, independently by Henning and by Meitzen in 1882. The pioneering study in America was "Louisiana House Types," by Fred Kniffen in 1936. In that paper, Kniffen showed that regional house types have distinctive geographical patterns. Edna Schofield (1936) described an evolution of house types in Tennessee. Wilbur Zelinsky (1953) made a study of houses in Georgia for his dissertation, and Martin Wright (1956) did the same for Louisiana and sought the origins of Southern folk houses in Europe. In 1965, Fred Kniffen illustrated

TABLE 1

TRACT FILES CONSULTED FOR THE PRESENT STUDY

A. Field data sheets from the U. S. Department of the Interior and U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, Nashville and Mobile Districts 1980 Tennessee-Tombigbee Waterway Project, Tombigbee River Multi-Resource District, Alabama and Mississippi: inventory report of architectural and engineering resources, Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service, Atlanta, Georgia, performed by the Historic American Buildings Survey.

Gainesville Lock and Dam: 203a, 203b, 810, 817.

Aliceville Lock and Dam; 403, 407, 408, 420, 901, 933, 934.

Columbus Lock and Dam: 416, 417, 419, 703a, 703b, 703c, 708, 709, 736, 1001, 1006.

Aberdeen Lock and Dam: 121, 131, 211E, Aberdeen Station.

Canal Section: 101, 102, 112, 113, 117, 131, 133, 163, 547, 613, 716, 743a, 743b.

Bay Springs Lock and Dam: 200, 204, 205, 208, 303, 400-2, 500a, 500b, 501, 504, 508, 517, 601, 602, 610, 613, 614, 617, 619, 621, 624, 700, 701, 702, 703, 712a, 712b, 801, 801b, 803, 804, 806, 811, 821a, 821b, 901-1, 903-1, 903-2, 906, 909, 911, 914, 915, 916, 925.

B. U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, Nashville District Real Estate Tract Files

Bay Springs Lock and Dam: 100, 200, 204, 205, 208, 302, 303, 402, 500, 508, 517, 601, 617, 619, 624, 700, 701, 702, 801, 803, 811, 901-1, 901-2, 903, 904, 906, 911, 912, 915, 925.

how traditional building types could be used to identify culture areas and to show the diffusion of settlers to the west and south in the nineteenth century. Kniffen and Henry Glassie (1966) described wood building techniques and their probable routes of diffusion in the eastern United States. Wilson (1969) made measurements of folk houses and described their evolution from log to frame. Terry Jordan (1980) has made surveys of Texas log houses and recently published a paper showing the close relationship between log structures in Texas and those of the Alpine region in Europe. Milton Newton (1974, 1976, 1977) has provided very important data on the characteristics of the Upland South culture. Latham (1977) made a folk housing survey that included most counties of the Upper Tombigbee Valley.

Physical Geography

The Tombigbee River Multi-Resource District extends north and west of the confluence of the Tombigbee and the Black Warrior at Demopolis (Figure 1). This includes Mackeys Creek which the Tennessee-Tombigbee Waterway will follow in part. The Valley lies in the east Gulf Coastal Plain section of the Coastal Plain physiographic province. Subdivisions, or districts, include the Fall Line Hills and the Black Prairie Belt which form north-to-east crescent shaped topographic zones. Underlying these districts are rocks of sedimentary origin, mostly sand and gravel in the Fall Line Hills, and limestone and limey clay in the Black Prairie.

The Black Prairie soils are fertile; however, they obtained their qualities from the underlying parent materials and have low permeability because of their high clay content. This results in the absence of water from shallow wells and a very sticky and difficult surface for normal ground travel after rains. Deep-bored artesian wells and cisterns were used in the Black Prairie Belt by European-Americans for domestic water.

Important to the settlement patterns are river deposits that include floodplains of the present river and higher and older alluvial deposits in the form of terraces, largely on the east bank of the Tombigbee River. Because of their elevations, fairly flat surfaces, fertile soils and permeability, alluvial terraces make ideal locations for town and house sites and most European-American activity along the valley took place on the terraces.

Mackeys Creek forms the eastern branch of the Upper Tombigbee and flows across the Eutaw and Tombigbee sand geologic units, which have been dissected by erosion into a hilly upland. Land available for agriculture was less fertile and less extensive than in the Black Prairie, although it was well-drained. Not attractive to planters seeking areas of extensive, rich farm lands, the upper region was left to settlers accustomed to small-scale agriculture, as in adjacent Alabama and Tennessee. These landuse patterns still persist and can be recognized by anyone passing through the region.

Most towns in the Upper Tombigbee Valley were located on the higher, well-drained terraces and uplands adjacent to the streams. Here owners of large size properties often congregated in communities and maintained

farms some distance away. These included Demopolis, Eutaw, Pleasant Ridge, Vienna and Aliceville in Alabama, and Columbus, Mississippi. Gainesville, Alabama, and Aberdeen, Mississippi, were the only towns of any size to develop on the west bank of the Upper Tombigbee River.

The changing volume of water in the Tombigbee River was one of the most critical aspects affecting human use of the Upper Valley. Prior to the construction of new locks and dams, large seasonal changes in volume occurred and at low water, during summer, the depth over shoals dropped to two feet or less. This resulted in seasonal changes in river crossings and in use of the river for transportation, with high water being the time for river shipping. North of the confluence with the Buttahatchee River, the normal low volume produced a smaller, tightly meandering channel which, as one progressed upstream above Cotton Gin Port, could not be used for large-scale shipping. The importance of the river was thus diminished and, with only small terrace remnants present, the settlements were located in the adjacent uplands where land most suited for cultivation lay some distance from the stream.

Other aspects of the physical environment that affected settlement in the upper Tombigbee Valley include climate and vegetation. Possibly as a result of the lower elevations and the general lack of projecting hills, precipitation in the Black Prairie Belt is somewhat less by several inches annually than on the hills on either side (NOAA 1980). The vegetation response to soil and drainage or permeability is one of the major characteristics and provides a visual difference between the Black Prairie Belt and Fall Line Hills. The Black Prairie Belt vegetation at the time of the European settlement consisted of broadleaf deciduous forest and, for the settlers, unattractive scattered expanses of herbaceous plants or "prairie" openings in the uplands and dense canebrakes in drainageways which attracted bears (Dubose 1947, Harper 1943, Myers 1948). Most of the Black Prairie is presently in pasture or farmland and it stands apart from the pine and oak forest on either side.

History

This summary is based on the histories of Rowland (1907) and Trover (1972). The De Soto expedition of 1540 through the South was the first major European contact with the Indians in the Upper Tombigbee Valley. In 1699, a French expedition led by the Canadian, Iberville, came to the Gulf Coast and established settlements at Biloxi and Dauphin Island. The next major intrusion into the interior was a French force led by Bienville which was defeated by the Chickasaw Indians near present Pontotoc, Mississippi, in 1736. Permanent European settlement in the Upper Tombigbee River Valley began after the Territory of Mississippi was created by Congress on April 7, 1798. In 1801, the Natchez Trace right-of-way was granted by the Treaty of Chickasaw Bluffs. The route extended from a point near Nashville, Tennessee, to Natchez, Mississippi. The first Choctaw land cession was concluded in 1802, an area now in southern Alabama and Mississippi. In 1803, the United States purchased the Louisiana Territory and during that year Gaines' Trace was marked between a point near Muscle Shoals on the Tennessee River and Cotton Gin

Port, on the Tombigbee River. By 1810, there had been three Indian land cessions, a route established across the region from Georgia to Natchez, and a European-American population in the Territory estimated at 40,352 (Rowland 1907). During the next seven years, there were major land cessions by the Cherokee, Chickasaw, Choctaw, and especially by the Creeks, who lost the larger part of their lands as a result of their defeat in the Creek War of 1813-1814. Mississippi became the twentieth state on December 10, 1817, and Alabama became the twenty second state on December 14, 1819. Those were the years of some of the greatest public land sales in United States history. Riverboat trade began in the early 1820s and in the next two decades the frontier was gone and many permanent settlements were established. Two areas of the most desirable land occupied by the 1840s were the Tennessee Valley and the Black Belt, dominated by settlers of the Lowland South from Virginia, the Carolinas, Georgia, and Tennessee (Wilson 1969). Between these two rich areas lay the hill lands of the Appalachians and the adjacent Fall Line Hills. These were occupied largely by farmers of small acreage properties with many, perhaps the majority, from the Piedmont district of South Carolina. The last counties to be formed in the Upper Tombigbee River Valley were Itawamba and Tishomingo in 1836 and Prentiss County in 1870.

Southern Culture Traits

By the time of European-American occupation of the Tombigbee Valley there had already been synthesized two different, but not altogether opposing, systems of agricultural life on the Southern Frontier. These have been identified as Upland South and Lowland South, or Tidewater South (Newton 1974, 1976). Upland South traditions stem mainly from the Celtic Britons - Scots, Welsh, and Irish, who were basically stockman-farmers. The Lowland South traditions had largely Anglo-Saxon (English) origins of an aristocratic class of the colonial tidewater region of the Chesapeake and Southern Atlantic coast. Both of these evolved during the colonial period in the Coastal Plain and Piedmont culture hearth that extended from Lancaster, Pennsylvania, to Augusta, Georgia (Newton 1974).

On the frontier "planters" and non-slave holding, upland farmers shared many common traits even though socio-economic differences existed. Newton (1974, 1976) characterized these groups. The Upland South had: 1) a dispersed rural settlement with a few people scattered over a large area; 2) loosely structured, kinship based communities with little variation in size and functions; 3) an open-range stockman-farmer economy; 4) the use of modular units in building; 5) log building construction, especially double-log houses (dogtrot, double pen, and saddlebag) and the transverse crib barn; 6) food production based upon vegetables and livestock; 7) cash crop adaptability - corn, cotton, tobacco; 8) evangelical, atomistic Protestantism and autonomous local control; 9) open class system with vertical mobility; 10) action-seeking, direct, simplistic approach to problem-solving, and 11) a courthouse town administering civil order and focusing retail and professional services. The Lowland or Tidewater, South was characterized by 1) an identification with a literate, aristocratic, wealthy ancestry (real and imagined); 2) slave holding; 3) delegated farm management through an overseer system; 4) a tendency toward absentee ownership and urban residence by the nineteenth

century; 5) Episcopal and Presbyterian churches; 6) status-indicative dwellings - often two-story weatherboarded and painted, brick chimneys, incorporating classic revival features, especially in town; 7) cash crop system with varying degrees of crop flexibility; 8) propensity toward the professions of law, military, politics and medicine.

Vertical mobility was also characteristic of these two lifeways and with a shift of habits and attitudes, the Upland Southerner could move into the "planter" class. Settlers combining traits of both Upland and Lowland traditions seem to have been common in the TRMRD, although there must certainly have been persons representing the extremes of both groups.

The Upland Southerners in the Fall Line Hills of northeast Mississippi and north central Alabama retained their basic house and farmstead layout through the nineteenth century, although some changes occurred after the Civil War. One that had a serious effect was the end of open range livestock grazing (McDonald and McWhiney 1975:164-65). This probably led to the forerunners of the present farmstead layouts that include pig-pens, fenced cattle pastures, and barns for periodic livestock housing and feeding. A shed or crib for storing tools, corn, and equipment and a corral or crib for one or two horses or mules, and a fence for the house yard to keep animals out are still present on farmsteads. The traditional gable roof log barn was replaced in some areas, including the TRMRD, by frame, gambrel roof barns sometime between 1920 and 1930, according to local inhabitants.

The plantation system throughout most of the South was greatly changed after the Civil War. Ideally, this system depended upon an inexpensive labor force, a favorable price for the primary product, an economical transport system, operational capital, an investment in land and equipment and managerial ability. Many planters evidently preferred to live in towns, a pattern certainly encouraged by the poor condition of roads in the heavy clay of the Black Prairie. Some owners also lived on their plantations, usually located on alluvial terrace hills or other high ground. Present-day farmsteads and at least some hamlets are located on low hills and ridges in the Black Prairie counties in Mississippi.

The initial occupance stage, according to descriptions of the Mississippi Territory, was typical of the frontier (Burkhalter 1965). Early settlements were often crude log buildings for both dwellings and businesses, hastily thrown together. Settlers sought to find and occupy familiar sites having an adequate water supply, land suited for cultivation, range for livestock and space for other farmsteads. Stewart (1965: 26) has noted that in all such settlements a subconscious effort was made to "recreate and maintain accustomed patterns." The selection of familiar topography, vegetation that indicated favorable soils, and a similar climate was aimed at survival. Stability and psychological comfort were provided, while the accustomed farming procedures were applied. Experimentation is a luxury only afforded those who are secure in terms of survival; where the production of food and life is assured, there is margin for speculation.

Folk Houses

In the past fifteen years geographers whose interests lie in settlement geography and rural landscapes have used the terms folk houses or folk housing to refer to traditional log or frame farm buildings (Kniffen 1965, Wilson 1969, Newton 1976). Folk buildings are derived from the long experience among a people sharing a way of life. They are not designed by some outside source. Construction materials and the shape and size of each structure are known to all and established by tradition. The dwelling is an integral part of the settlement unit and helps maintain cohesion and identity.

Folk buildings are normally very conservative, following well established plans, exterior form, dimensions, roof type, and materials. They are largely non-individualistic, non-commerical, and generally non-pretentious. Kniffen (1965) described various rural house types, peculiar to areas in the eastern United States, which, regardless of the construction materials, retained their basic configuration. These include plan, roof type, orientation of the gables, position of windows, doors, and chimneys.

The American frontier settlement process included an initial, or pioneer, phase of adjustment that employed whatever knowledge and resources were at hand to resolve the immediate problem of food and shelter. In the next phase, the cultural heritage was expressed in the familiar materials, tools, and techniques, although modified by the American physical environmental conditions. On the eighteenth century frontier of Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, two important groups were exchanging traits: the German-speaking settlers and the English-Gaelic-speaking settlers. Their types of habitations and outbuildings were merged to form American types in the latter years of the eighteenth century.

House Types in the Tombigbee River Multi-Resource District

The folk building tradition of Europe, especially from Britain, greatly influenced the development of Southern rural housing. Modular construction employed in Britain was based upon the one-bay house of the Middle Ages (Field 1965). Buildings, as well as language and common measurements, were synthesized in the Middle Ages as part of an agricultural system (Addy 1898). Americans, physically isolated from this heritage, do not always recognize its continuity.

By the tenth century, the English one-bay single room peasant house was fairly standardized in plan and dimensions as well as in its method of enlargement (Addy 1898). Additions to the one-bay house of approximately the same size were made at the side that resulted in two and three bay houses (Field 1965). Bay referred to the size of the structure on the front, between the principal structural timbers. A bay (perch, rood, rod) was 16 feet, sufficient to house four oxen used in plowing. The basic field unit of this system was a strip 1 rod wide and 40 rods (660 feet) long (a furrow-long or furlong), four of which made an acre (Tate 1967). The rod is now 16.5 feet. The one-bay house was a single story, timber-framed structure with a gable roof and oblong floor plan with

front and rear entrances in the longer walls, usually centered. Similar dwellings were built in Wales, Scotland, and Ireland.

The one-bay house was introduced into the Chesapeake-Delaware coastal region, where it was being built of crucks, or wooden arched principal supports, and other methods of timber-framing essentially the same as in Britain (Forman 1934, 1948, 1957). German settlers in southeast Pennsylvania, mainly during the late seventeenth and early eighteenth century, introduced horizontal timber construction that was used on the American frontier (Kniffer and Glassie 1966:58-59). This method was adopted by Scotch-Irish settlers who entered the region mainly from 1700 to 1720 (Evans 1965). The result was the one-bay log structure which became known as the "log cabin," Cabin originally designated any temporary or crudely built habitation in Britain and is a term derived from dwellings of herdsmen of the Italian Campagna (Peate 1940:55-56). The term log cabin is a poor designation for many well constructed log dwellings that have survived from the nineteenth century. Although some have survived in Texas (Jordan 1976), no example of original, temporary log structures of the early pioneer period has been recorded in the TRMRD. Although other methods of construction were used prior to 1800, the horizontal wood timber method introduced by German-speaking settlers came to dominate in the Deep South, with stone used only for chimneys and piers.

Single Pen. The first distinctive Southern folk house type was the single pen (Figure 2), so designated by Kniffen (1936:184-5). The mode of enlargement at the sides, regardless of the material used, was the continuation of the English custom of enlarging on the one-bay house (Field 1965: 112-5).

Four frame single pen houses are included in the TRMRD data provided by HABS. The Charity house at Memphis (Gainesville Tract 810, Figures 2 and 3) appears to be the oldest, typologically, because it retains the oblong floor plan in the front room of early single pen houses. The enlarged single pen of Bay Springs Tract 400-2 has an interesting floor plan (Figure 4). It can be identified as an enlarged single pen from the chimney position. The farmhouse of Aliceville Tract 934 is unusual in two respects. It has a loft, or half story, and the main entrance is off center in the gable end. This area generally has no one-and-one-half story frame houses. The inventory notes that it was a barn used as a farmhouse, but that seems unlikely since it rests upon brick piers and has a brick chimney. Bay Springs 500b is a traditional layout for the single pen (Figure 5) and includes a shed room behind and a small porch room at the front, a widely used plan (Wilson 1975B:31). These last two houses are board-and-batten covered. This and their relatively small size would indicate they are recent, that is, from about 1900 to about 1940, based upon my experience with such structures in Alabama.

Double Houses. To acquire more living space, the solution most often used in the Southeast, including Alabama and Mississippi, was to add a second single pen house to the side of the first. This led to three kinds of double log houses which became well established types: the

Figure 2. Left front view, Charity house, a frame single pen, c. 1885, rear room added c. 1900. Gainesville Tract 810, Memphis vicinity. Pickens County, Alabama. HABS plan.

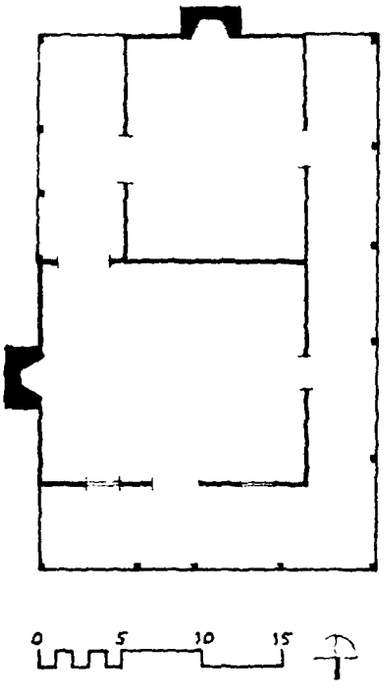

Figure 3. Plan of Charity house. HABS plan.

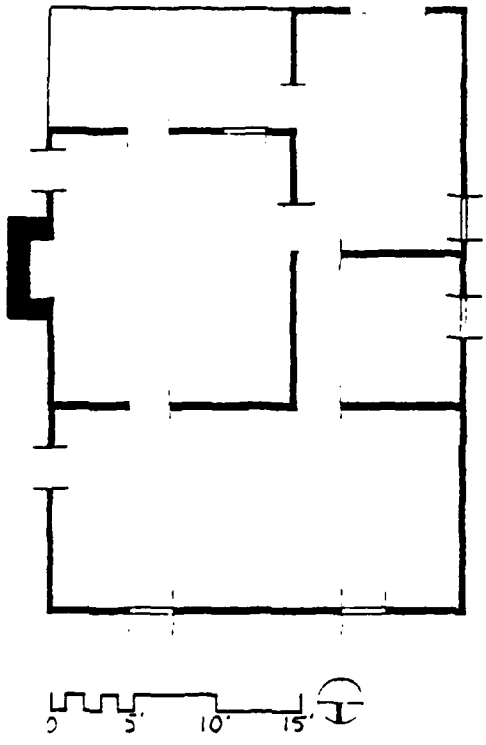

Figure 4. Plan of a frame single pen house enlarged with additions on the front and side. Bay Springs Tract 400-2, 4½ miles southwest of Tishomingo, Tishomingo County, Mississippi. HABS plan.

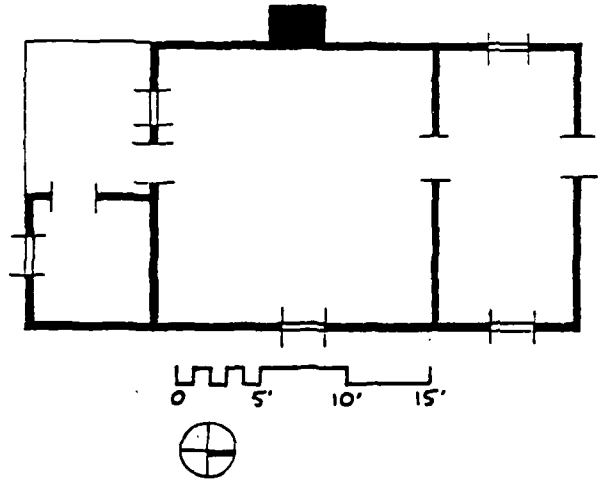

Figure 5. Plan of a frame single pen house with a rear shed room and a small front porch room. Bay Springs Tract 500b, built c. 1926, Paden vicinity, Tishomingo County, Mississippi. HABS plan.

dogtrot, double pen, and saddlebag (Kniffen 1936, Wright 1950, Wilson 1969). Frame shed roof additions were commonly made on these three types, so that the resulting plans, overall, might be nearly square. The rear shed rooms were incorporated into the traditional types that were built entirely with milled lumber, their presence indicated by a break in the roof line, The single and double houses of log and of frame were still identified as "single houses" or as "double houses" even though the shed rooms, in fact, gave a two room or four room plan. Thus, the single pen house type, originally a one room log house, could have a rear shed room added later but still would be thought of as a "single house." "Double" houses had two rooms joined at the gable side and the shed rooms added to the rear did not change that designation in the folk tradition.

A very popular Southern double house was made by separating the two log rooms by a distance of usually about eight to twelve feet. When the entire house was roofed over, the central hall or dogtrot house resulted (Figures 6 and 7). The hallway, in many examples, was left open as a breezeway and various creatures could move through it. Thus, such names as "possumtrot," "turkeytrot," and "dogtrot" have been applied to it. With the addition to a single pen house made directly against the gable end wall opposite the chimney, a double pen house was created (Figure 8). If the new pen was placed at the chimney gable side, a central chimney or saddlebag house was the result (Figure 13). The chimney could be built to accomodate both rooms with a fireplace. Log saddlebag houses in Alabama and Mississippi are not common, but many frame saddlebag houses were built in these states. The three double houses and the single pen, shotgun, and bungalow are the most common rural houses in northeastern Mississippi. We can speculate that double houses had prototypes in Western Europe (Henning 1882:69-70; Erixon 1937:143; Evans 1965; Field 1965) and in the Atlantic coastal region (HABS photographic collection, Library of Congress). Georgian architecture of the Atlantic coast seems to have influenced later builders in the Southeast. Cedar Oaks (Figures 14-15), with its central hallway plan appears to reflect this. An early nineteenth century frame house, it incorporated more formal porch and columns and interior decoration including ceiling and wall plaster, mantles, wainscotting and door panels.

Examples of log and frame double folk house types are found in various parts of the eastern United States. The dogtrot was built as far northwest as New Harmony, Indiana; it was present in western North Carolina, and in eastern Oklahoma but it appears, judging from surviving examples, to have reached its greatest popularity in Alabama, Mississippi, northern Louisiana and parts of east Texas (Wilson 1969, Jordan 1978). I have observed that the double pen is very common in Tennessee and in central Arkansas, and the central chimney or saddlebag house is found mainly from Pennsylvania southward through parts of the Appalachian Highlands and in Tennessee and Kentucky.

Dogtrot. In the Upper Tombigbee Valley, the J. T. Butler house (Bay Springs Tract 801b, Figure 6) is a good example of a frame rural dogtrot except for its oblong front rooms, approximately 16.5 feet by 14.5 feet.

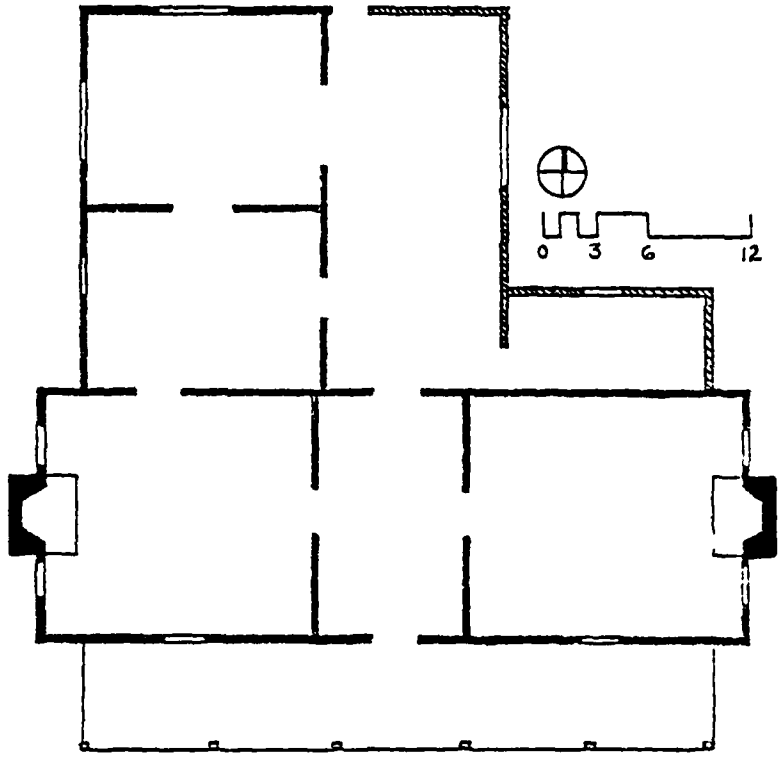

Figure 6. Plan of the J. T. Butler house, a frame dogtrot type built in 1913. Bay Springs Tract 801b, Tishomingo vicinity, Tishomingo County, Mississippi. HABS plan.

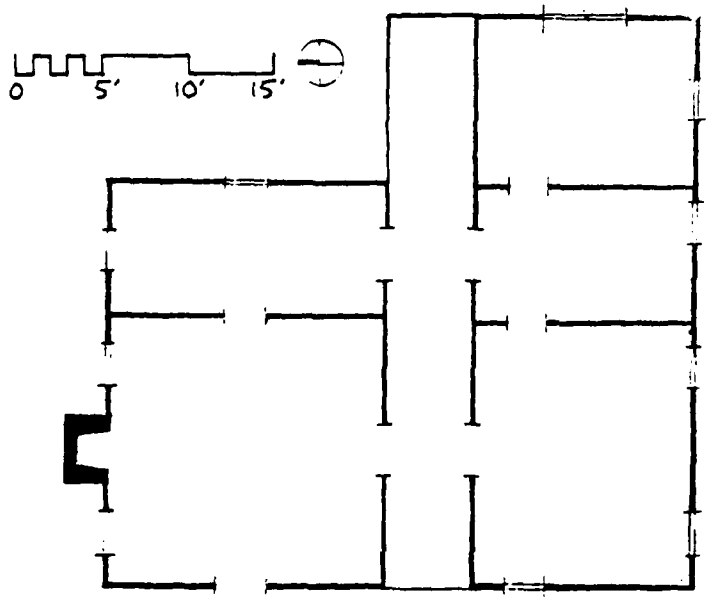

Figure 7. Plan of a late frame dogrot house, probably an enlargement of a single pen (room with chimney). Bay Springs Tract 624, five miles southwest of Paden, Tishomingo County, Mississippi. HABS plan.

Other examples include Bay Springs Tract 700, the Billie Eaton house (Bay Springs Tract 903-2) and Bay Springs Tract 624 (Figure 7) which seems to be a more recent modification of a single pen, with its narrow five foot dogtrot and small left front room.

Double Pen. Six double pen frame folk houses in the Tennessee-Tombigbee Waterway corridor have plans on the tract data sheets. An example of a double pen is the Boykin house at Memphis (Gainesville Tract 817, Figures 8 and 9), with its two slightly oblong front rooms, two gable-end chimneys, and board-and-batten vertical siding. It is one of the ubiquitous "tenant houses" which served both White and Black occupants, depending upon the location. Another example is the John Eaton double pen (Bay Springs Tract 619, Figures 10 and 11), the rooms measuring 18 by 16 feet, similar to the two-bay tenant houses described in the records of fifteenth century Worcestershire, England (Field 1965:114) when crucks (arched principal timbers) and wattle-and-daub wall construction was used. Other examples include the remodeled dwelling on Bay Springs Tract 702, the former dwelling on Bay Springs Tract 602 later used as a barn, as are many log houses from earlier times, the Holley house located on Bay Springs Tract 906, and Bay Springs Tract 303, the two last named dwellings being enlarged from frame single pens.

Saddlebag. The central chimney or saddlebag type is represented by seven houses that have tract data sheets. The dwelling on Bay Springs Tract 701 (Figure 12) is an interesting example of enlargement and change. It began as a log single pen, then was changed to a dogtrot and completed as a saddlebag, illustrating how the basic modules can be moved around. Bay Springs Tract 925 is probably another case of enlargement. Starting as a saddlebag, with additions it became what the HABS inventory termed simply a "multi-room house." Two other saddlebag houses are good examples of the type built of frame. These are the Tobe Eaton house (Bay Springs Tract 617, Figure 13) and the Searcy house (Bay Springs Tract 517). A modern version of the central chimney house is on Canal Section Tract 716f, C. 1930, the front rooms of which are nearly square. Aliceville Tract 933 is a large frame central chimney house. It is a two-story structure with entrances in the gable ends and is non-traditional in these respects. Gainesville Tract 203a (Figure 24) is a saddlebag house used for recreation.

The Shotgun House. The shotgun (Figure 16) in this discussion is considered as a folk house type that evolved in Haiti (St. Domingue) from French and West African traditions (Vlach 1976). Typically, the shotgun house is one room wide, three rooms deep and has a gable roof with the front entrance in the gable. It was probably brought to New Orleans by non-white Haitian immigrants. The shotgun house type diffused along the Gulf Coast and into the Mississippi-Ohio Valleys, reaching Louisville by the 1840s, possibly introduced there by Germans moving northward from New Orleans (Dakan 1980:63). The shotgun was well suited to narrow urban lots and gained more popularity in town than in the country. In the United States it is still primarily an urban area house type.

Figure 8. Left front view, Boykin house, a frame double pen, c. 1900. Gainesville Tract 817 at Memphis, Pickens County, Alabama. HABS photo.

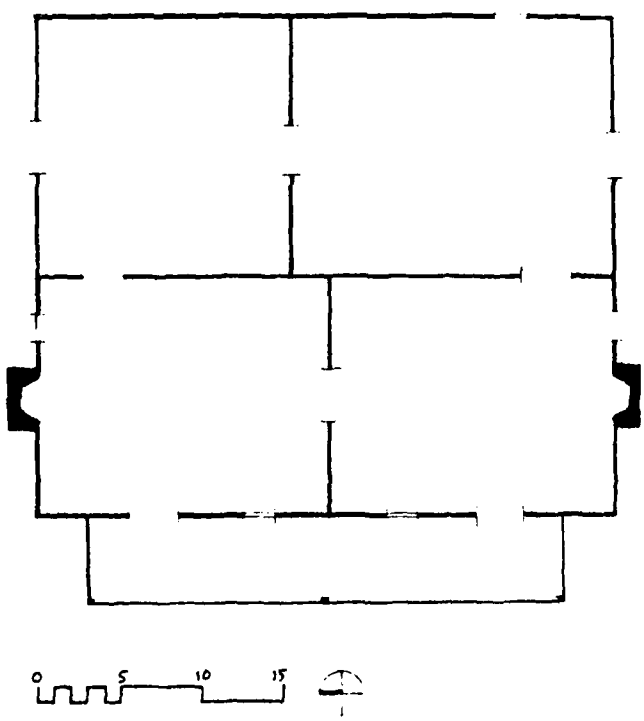

Figure 9. Plan of Boykin house. HABS plan.

Figure 10. Front view, John Eaton house, a frame double pen, c. 1895. Bay Springs Tract 619, Paden vicinity, Tishomingo County, Mississippi. HABS photo.

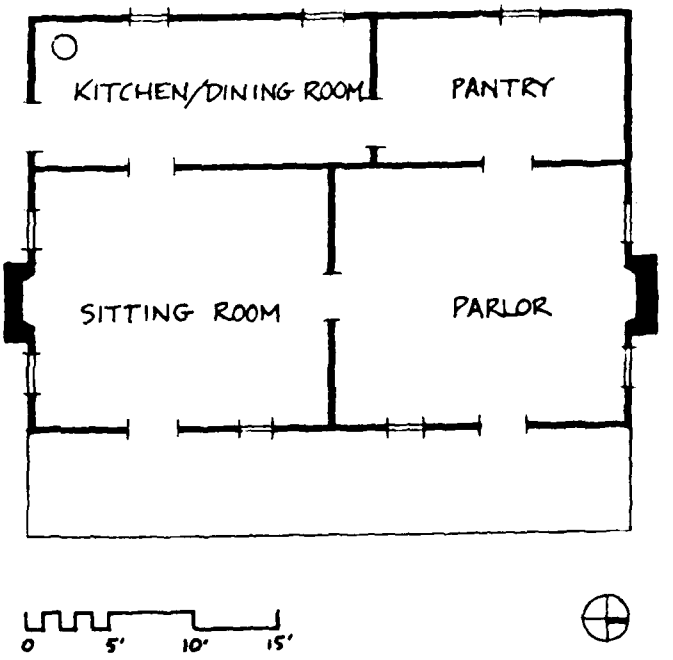

Figure 11. Plan of John Eaton house. HABS plan.

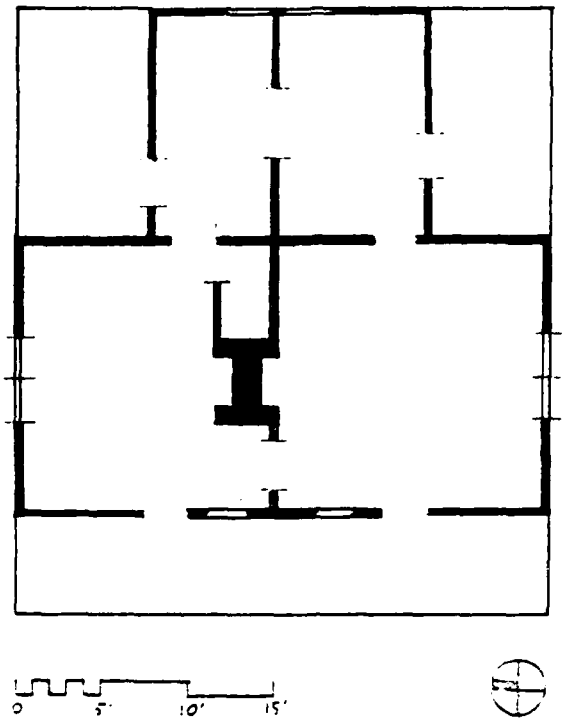

Figure 12. Plan of a frame saddlebag house, c. 1920, evolved from an earlier dogtrot house. Bay Springs Tract 710, Tishomingo County, Mississippi. HABS plan.

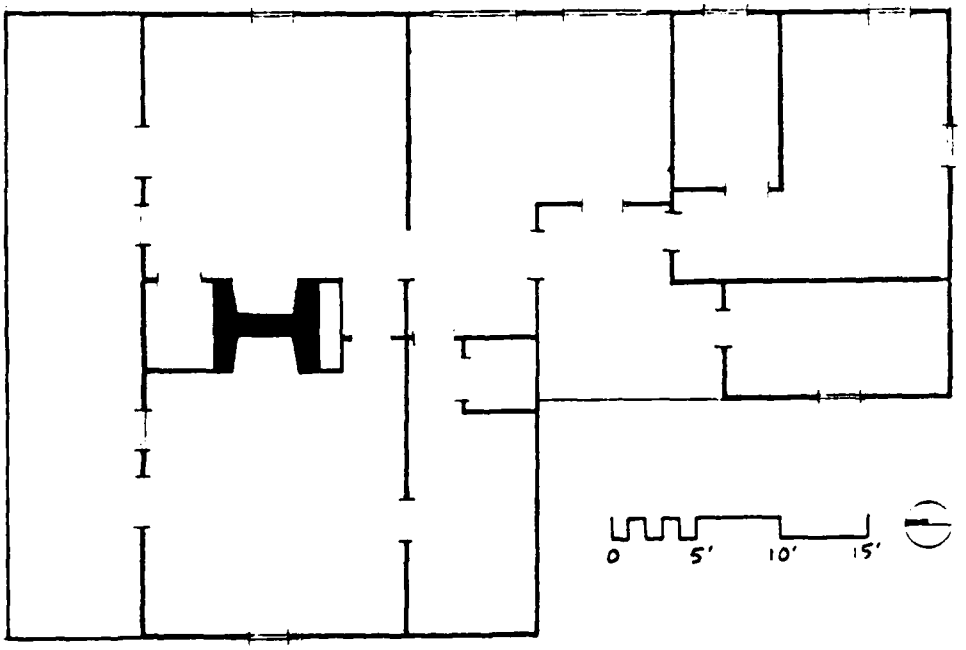

Figure 13. Plan of a frame saddlebag, the Tobe Eaton house, c. 1895. Bay Springs Tract 617, six miles southwest of Paden, Tishomingo County, Mississippi. HABS plan.

Figure 14. Left front view, Cedar Oaks, c. 1835. A central hall frame house, at the site of Barton. Columbus Tract 736, Clay County, Mississippi. HABS photo.

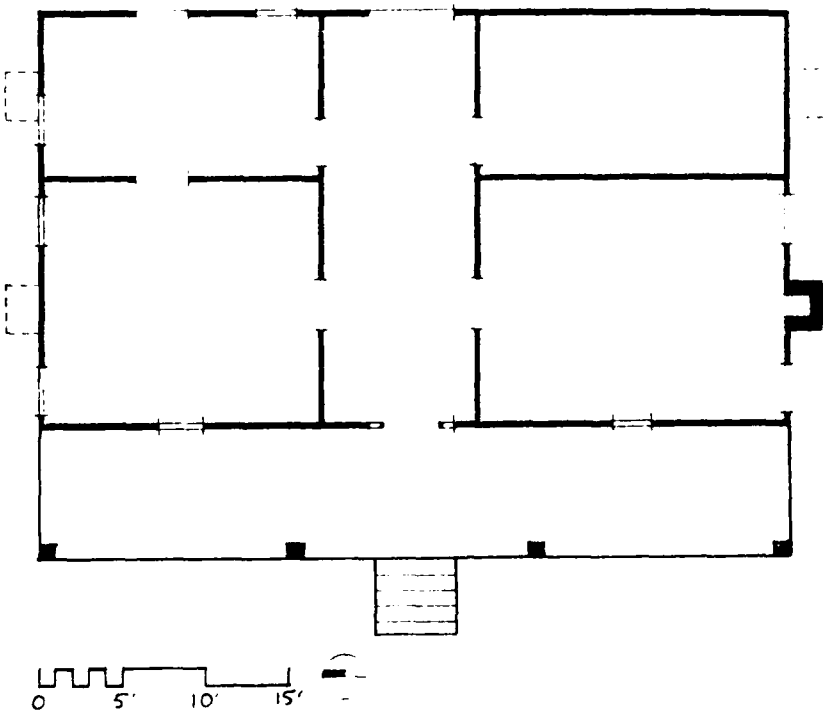

Figure 15. Plan of Cedar Oaks. HABS plan.

Five shotgun houses have inventory sheets and three include plans. These are of interest as they show similarity to saddlebag houses. They include Bay Springs Tract 901-1, the Jeffries-Gardner farm (Aliceville Tract 403, Figures 16 and 17), and the Norwood-Williams house (Aliceville Tract 408, Figures 18 and 19), the latter two located in the Black settlement near Carmen (Carmel) Church. The Bay Springs Tract 806 shotgun seems to have resulted from the enlargement of a frame single pen house. The Canal Section Tract 113 house has remained unchanged, measuring approximately 12 by 38 feet.

Pyramidal-Roof House. The pyramidal-roof house (Figures 20 and 21) has no more specific designation among geographers. It seems to have been based on a Georgian architectural design and is not a folk house. It was popular, widespread and had many variations in the last three decades of the nineteenth century. Glassie (1968:109-111) considered it the typical rural Southern house. The basic plan is roughly square with a central hallway and two rooms on either side, two side chimneys and a front porch. As recently as 1977, pyramidal-roof houses were still the most common nineteenth century houses in the Piedmont Plateau of western Georgia and eastern Alabama and across the Fall Line Hills of central Alabama. Some examples are present in the TRMRD. Although none were specifically described in the tract files used in this study, the Nashville District real estate files include two possible examples.

The Bungalow. The bungalow, which was not a folk house type, became one of the most popular houses in the South. In Alabama, Roland Harper noted the introduction of the first bungalows around 1910 (Wilson 1975B). The most popular version was a fairly simple, front-facing gable house with an attached gable porch supported by two pillars, the lower portion of which was often brick. One or two front entrances and one or two central or side chimneys were usually present. Rooms, varying in size, were usually in two rows, separated by a center wall. The popularity of bungalows reached a peak in the 1920s and 1930s, when they were sometimes known as "depression houses." In 1926, they could be ordered through the Sears and Roebuck catalog for just over $2,000 (Shroeder 1973).

The name bungalow seems to have been derived from an English version of bangla (as in Bangladesh) indicating a low-pitched roof East Indian or Bengal house (Newton 1977:141). The name, and perhaps some forms of the Asian bungalow, possibly were introduced into the West Indies by British officers or colonial officials (Edwards 1979). Various bungalow designs were promoted by west coast builders and designers through advertisements and through Bungalow Magazine.

The orientation of the bungalow, like the shotgun house, was a basic change from the folk houses with the gable roof turned 90 degrees and the entrance in the gable end. At least some shotgun houses and some bungalows, retained the plans of double pen and saddlebag houses. Examples from the TRMRD are the Jeffries-Gardner house, Lowndes County, Mississippi (Aliceville Tract 403), the Norwood-Williams house, Lowndes County, Mississippi (Aliceville Tract 408, Figure 19), both shotgun-saddlebags, and Bay Springs Tract 601, Prentiss County, Mississippi, a large bungalow developed by rebuilding a saddlebag house.

Figure 16. A modified shotgun type, the Jeffries-Gardner house. Aliceville Tract 403, Carmen Church vicinity, Lowndes County, Mississippi. HABS photo.

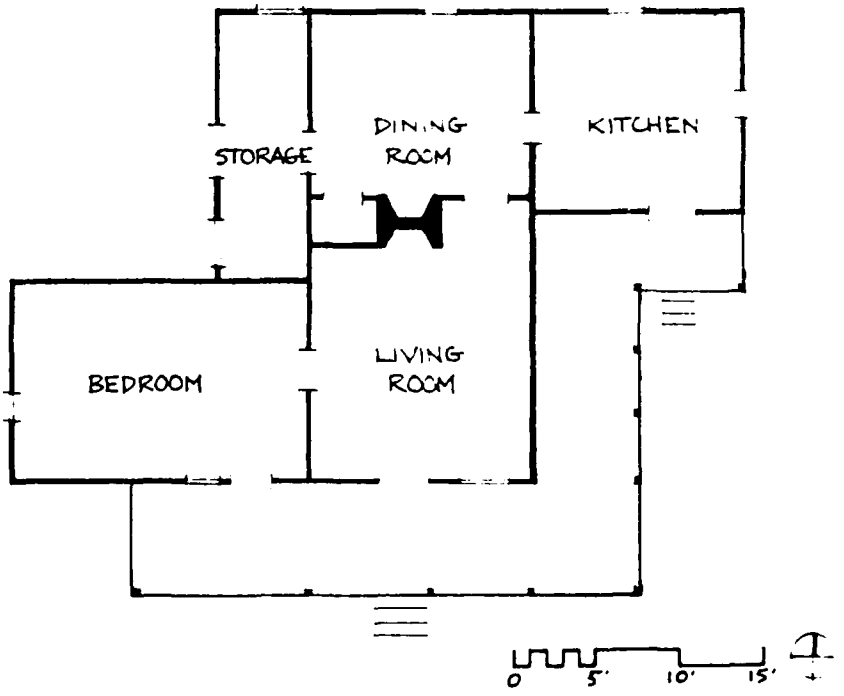

Figure 17. Plan of Jeffries-Gardner house. HABS plan.

Figure 18. Side view, Norwood-Williams shotgun house, c. 1930. Aliceville Tract 408, Carmen Church vicinity, Lowndes County, Mississippi. HABS photo.

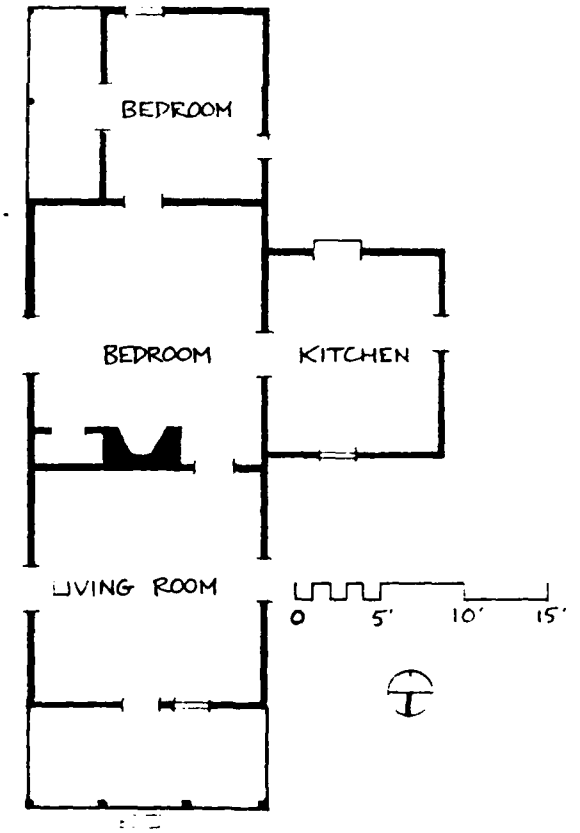

Figure 19. HABS plan of Norwood-Williams house.

Figure 20. Pyramidal-roof house, near New Site, Prentiss County, Mississippi.

Figure 21. Pyramidal-roof house, Pickens County, Alabama.

Nine bungalows have HABS inventory forms, two with plans, which differ from the common rooms-in-a-line plan noted previously. Externally, all are easily recognized as bungalows, have a gable roof, the entrance in the gable end, and have or had an attached front gable porch or portico. Bay Springs Tract 205 (Figure 22) is square with four 16 foot square rooms, a room size characteristic of frame folk-derived house types (Wilson 1975B). Aberdeen Tract 131 (Figure 23) is a board-and-batten variation with a small porch on the right front and three odd size rooms from front to rear. Bay Springs Tract 601 was an exceptionally large composite of the frame saddlebag and dogtrot with small rooms added on. It had a front central hall and disharmonious proportions overall. Of the remaining six, Aliceville Tract 407, about 21 feet by 28 feet, was the most common bungalow variation. Others include examples on Aliceville Tract 420, Canal Tract 112, Canal Tract 131, Bay Springs Tract 500a, and a second house on Bay Springs 601.

Recreational Housing. Five HABS inventory forms are of "camp houses," two of which include plans. The designation camp house was used in the HABS survey for recreational housing. One of these, on Gainesville Tract 203a (Figure 24), is a recent central chimney house. The other camp house with a plan is on Gainesville Tract 203b (Figure 25), resembling a single pen but with a very low pitched roof, like those of modern pre-fabricated houses. Of the remaining three camp houses, Canal Section Tract 743a is a recently built house with round saddle notched logs, and except for the gable roof, is otherwise nontraditional. The other two, Aliceville Tract 901 and Columbus Lock and Dam Tract 708, have gable roofs and screen porches, but cannot be otherwise classified.

Houses Without Inventory Forms. A total of 35 tract sheets contain photographs without inventory forms and are identified only by tract name and number. These include 1 saddlebag, 1 double pen, 6 bungalows, 4 modern unclassified houses, 9 camp houses, 12 outbuildings, 1 store, and 1 not identified.

A Model of Evolution in Folk Houses

The flexibility of balloon framing, which appeared in the late nineteenth century, was not possible in folk houses built of logs. As the technology of wood building changed through the nineteenth century in the Upland South, attitudes also changed about what constituted the proper house. The nineteenth century can be viewed as a transition from an agricultural folk society toward a national, commercial-industrial society. We can find early log folk houses, and later frame houses of the same type built of commercial materials, clearly indicating a change in building technology. Because of the large number of dogtrot houses in the Upland South area of Alabama, it is possible to use an evolutionary scheme and distinguish early log dogtrot houses, which may be called the "first generation," a transitional log "second generation," and a frame "third generation," (Wilson 1969). This sequence applies only to houses, not to generations of human inhabitants who may have lived in them.

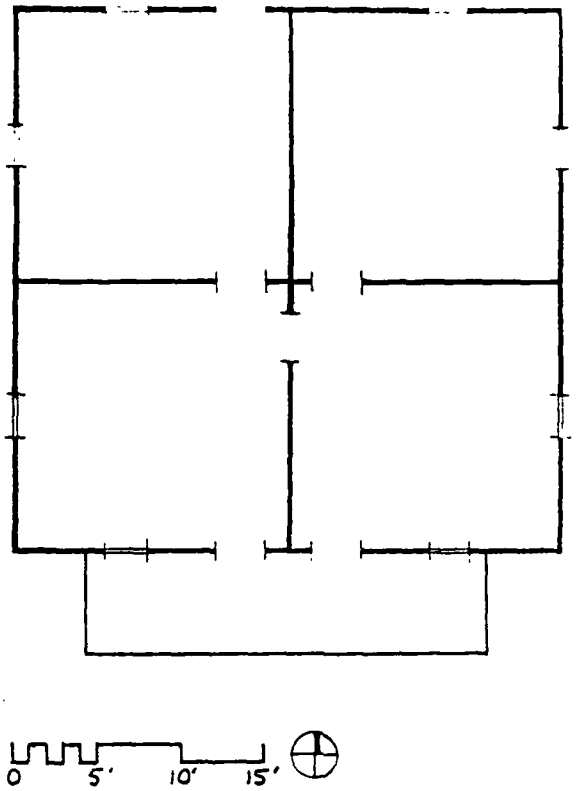

Figure 22. Bungalow house with a square plan, c. 1930. Bay Springs Tract 205, New Site vicinity, Prentiss County, Mississippi. HABS plan.

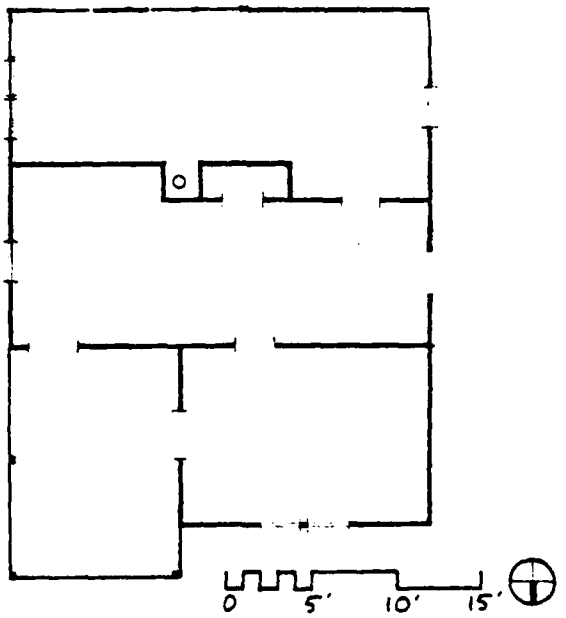

Figure 23. Small bungalow house, c. 1935. Aberdeen Tract 131. Aberdeen, Monroe County, Mississippi. HABS plan.

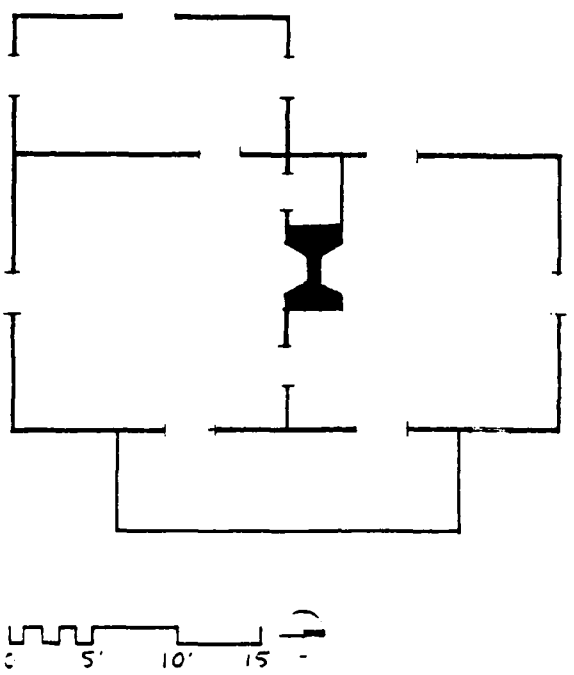

Figure 24. Saddlebag type used as a camp house. Gainesville Tract 203a, Gainesville vicinity, Greene County, Alabama. HABS plan.

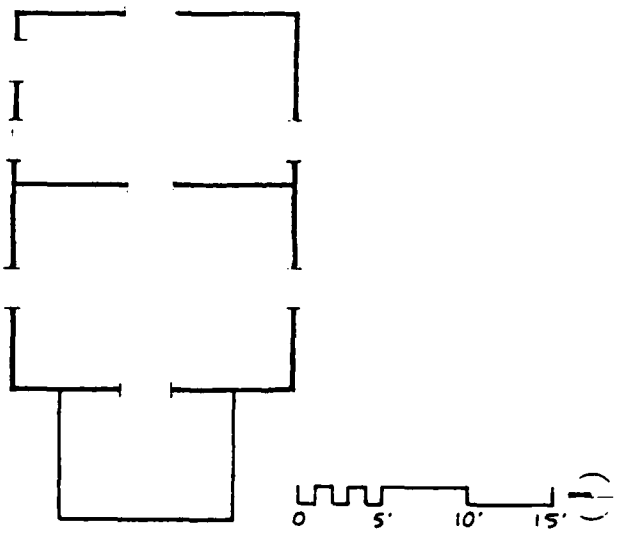

Figure 25. A small recent camp house. Gainesville Tract 203b. New West Greene vicinity, Greene County, Alabama. HABS plan.

First Generation. In this sequence, the first generation identified the oldest permanent dwellings, ideally distinguished by rock piers, the sills usually 12 inches by 12 inches in section; walls 10 to 12 feet high above the sills and 2 to 4 feet above the hewn exposed ceiling joists of the first floor; large diameter logs hewn to a plank-form shape and half dovetailed or V (inverted V) corners; separate front doors to each log room measuring close to 3 by 6 feet; room size approaching 20 feet on the front, and sometimes larger, and 16 to 18 feet on the side (outside measurements); massive rock or ashlar chimneys; roof of shakes, butting poles and weight poles. Depending on the availability of hardware and more specialized tools, these early houses might have framed and shingled roofs; shutters or glass in the windows; iron hinges, bolts, latches, nails, door locks; sawn plank floors; framed shed roof appendages averaging 9 feet deep added to the rear and porches or "piazzas" added to the front. Both single and double log houses would have these characteristics, some double houses being formed by placing two log single pen houses together. The first generation house was intended by the builders to be a permanent dwelling, replacing the expedient cabin of the pioneer phase. The first generation time in the Southeast was c. 1790 to c. 1840, during which the settlement of parts of the western Carolinas, Tennessee, Georgia, Mississippi, and Alabama took place. No first generation houses have been identified in available HABS or tract records in the TRMRD.

Second Generation. From the period approximately 1840 to 1940, the tradition of log building continued in Upland South areas. However, the decline in log technology through time was manifested in several features. One change in double log houses was toward smaller rooms that were square, 18 by 18 feet to 16 by 16 feet, smaller diameter wall logs that were not always carefully hewn; the use of simple square and V corners, and wall heights that were lower with the loft area smaller and not used for living space. Hardware was common, as were framed and shingled roofs and glass in windows. Although many were never weatherboarded over, some examples were built expressly to be sided, with the log walls used as a substitute for framing, suggesting the lack of knowledge by the builders of how to make a framed house (Wilson 1975B:36). Windows sometimes replaced the separate front doors to each log room in the dogtrot house, shifting the entrance to the breezeway. Frame shed roof additions were built at the rear. A window on either side of the hearth was typical. The chimney was more often of brick, or the upper portion was brick and the lower of rock; piers were sometimes brick. Where suitable limestone or sandstone was available, ashlar, hewn or cut stone, was used for chimney and piers. The most recent log dogtrot house that retained the approximate traditional size and proportions that I have located was built in 1938 (date on chimney) in Fayette County, Alabama. In the TRMRD, the Butler log dogtrot (Bay Springs Tract 801, c. 1870) is typical of the second generation.

Third Generation. These houses, built from about 1870 to about 1920, were weatherboarded framed versions of log folk houses, following the basic plans but built with commercial materials (Figure 26). Some were probably owner-built, but it seems likely that the majority of these houses were built by more or less full-time carpenters. For a time, hand-hewn sills continued to be used for frame houses. Occasionally,

Figure 26. Front view, frame dogtrot, the J. T. Butler house, built in 1913. Example of a "third generation" dogtrot house. Bay Springs Tract 801b, Tishomingo County, Mississippi. HABS photo.

Figure 27. Side view, J. T. Butler house. HABS photo.

rock and ashlar chimneys and piers were used in places where the materials were available and stoneworking skills were retained. Third generation double houses almost always had square front rooms about 15 by 15 or 16 by 16 feet inside; dogtrot 7 to 8 feet wide; ceilings 9 to 10 feet above the floor; loft or attic space little used; commercially made doors and sash windows of standard size; appendages were often added at the front, sides and rear, in addition to the rear shed roof rooms, and the roof was usually covered with metal roofing material. In frame dogtrot houses, the dogtrot was the only entrance and usually was left open in rural areas. One or two front windows and two hearthside windows were standard. Locally, there was variation in the roof pitch, porch width and exterior trim.

The great flexibility of milled lumber made possible greater variation, expressed in appendages and features. Wealth, exposure to new ideas, availability of materials and carpentry skills encouraged town people to give more attention to details than residents in rural areas.

Statistical Study of Houses

The data for this section were taken from HABS field data sheets, Tract Files from the U. S. Army Corps of Engineers, Nashville District, and Wilson (1969) in Alabama.

The 92 tract files used for this synthesis included a total of 258 structures. Of these, 101 were houses of which 36 had sufficiently complete measurements for use in statistical calculations. The information provided in the tract records reflects the concentration of data gathering in the Bay Springs area which comprised 56 of the 92 tracts represented. Thus, the analyses best represent that particular portion of the TRMRD.

The 101 total houses included 7 single pen, 10 double pen, 9 saddlebag, 9 dogtrot, and 6 shotgun houses, 23 bungalows, 11 camp (recreation) houses, 24 unidentified, unclassified, or modern types, and 2 possible pyramidal roof houses.

Of the 101 houses represented in the tract files, the modern types, camp (recreation) houses, and unidentified houses which are of no direct interest to this study, comprised 35% of the sample. The Bay Springs section contained 58% of the total remaining dwellings. The rest, about 7%, were from the other sections of the Upper Tombigbee Valley. There were 15 unidentified houses, some in ruins which were of no value to the analysis, so the comparison of the Bay Springs area rests upon 43 samples (43%) of which 26 were traditional types: 3 single pen, 8 double pens, 6 saddlebags, 7 dogtrots, and 2 shotguns. Two possible pyramidal roof houses, 1 converted schoolhouse, and 14 bungalows complete the sample.

The 36 houses from the tract files that were used in the calculations were as follows: 4 dogtrot, 3 single pen, 5 double pen, 7 saddlebag, 4 shotgun houses, and 13 bungalows (Table 2).

TABLE 2

HOUSE TYPE MEASUREMENTS FROM TRACT FILES

	Tract	House Type
Gainesville Lock and Dam:	203a	Saddlebag
	810	Single Pen
	817	Double Pen
Aliceville Lock and Dam:	403	Shotgun
	407	Bungalow
	408	Shotgun
	420	Bungalow
	933	Saddlebag
	934	Single Pen
Aberdeen Lock and Dam:	131	Bungalow
Canal Section:	112	Bungalow
	113	Shotgun
	131	Bungalow
	716	Saddlebag
Bay Springs Lock and Dam:	205	Bungalow
	302	Bungalow
	303	Double Pen
	500	Bungalow
	500b	Single Pen
	508	Bungalow
	517	Saddlebag
	601	Bungalow (two)
	617	Saddlebag
	619	Double Pen
	624	Dogtrot
	700	Dogtrot
	701	Saddlebag
	702	Double Pen
	801b	Dogtrot
	901-1	Shotgun
	903	Bungalow
	903-2	Dogtrot
	906	Double Pen
	912	Bungalow
	915	Saddlebag

Statistical Qualities of House Types

Statistical tests (chi-square) done by computer showed no statistical difference in the primary room (module) dimensions between log and frame folk houses of the Upper Tombigbee Valley and those data previously obtained in northern Alabama (Wilson 1975B). This was a test of the exterior dimensions of the primary room of the single pen, and both primary (front) rooms of the double house types - double pen, saddlebag, and dogtrot. Statistically, there is no significant difference between the two primary log or frame rooms of any of the houses measured in Alabama and Mississippi.

The results of the calculations tabulated for each house type are presented in Tables 3-8. Because of data limitations, the variables were restricted to the measurement of the front of the primary rooms, measurement of the side of the primary rooms and the ratio of front to side measurement of these rooms. The standard deviation and the maximum and minimum sizes and ranges of these variables were obtained.

Statistics. Computer generated statistics were based upon exterior measurements in feet and tenths of feet, obtained from field measurements and HABS measured drawings (Wilson 1969, 1975B), HABS inventory sheets, and appraisal data from the Bay Springs Tract Files. Because of the strong tradition of modular building in folk houses, the size of the modules (pens) - the primary (front) rooms, were the principal measurements used in this analysis. Most other measurements could not always be systematically or accurately obtained or were missing in the records. This included such characteristics as height of walls, height of roof ridge, roof pitch, size of porch, size of shed rooms and other frame additions, and dimensions of doors and windows. Measurements taken from houses in northern Alabama show that front porches were commonly 6 to 7 feet deep and rear shed rooms 8 to 9 feet deep (Wilson 1969).

Single Pen. The basic module used in Southern folk building was the oblong one-bay house, or single pen. Of the 56 measured log houses, only 4 log single pens can be considered square, that is, where the intent of the builders evidently was to make an equal-sided room. Two of these have the same measurements on four sides, one has a front 2 inches larger than the side, and one has a front 3 inches smaller than the sides. The rest have the front from 10 inches to 12 feet larger than the side, which I interpret as an intent to build an oblong room. The word oblong is used in preference to rectangular, to distinguish from a square, which is a kind of rectangle. Glassie (1976) has made an elaborate argument for the square as the basic module for folk building. I found that square log rooms were seldom used in log single pens or in most early log double houses built before 1840. However, square rooms are a characteristic of log and frame folk houses after about 1840 in north Alabama (Wilson 1975B) and of those I measured in north Mississippi. This change possibly reflects the growing use of lumber instead of logs for building houses.

Table 3

A. Log Single Pen Houses, Alabama: 38 examples (Exterior Measurements in Feet)

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Maximum	Minimum	Range
1) Front	20.765	2.755	30.00	15.00	15.00
2) Side	17.088	1.427	19.170	13.830	5.34
*3) 1:2	1.219	0.165	1.714	0.987	0.728

B. Log Single Pen Houses, Md. (4), Va. (2), Tenn. (5), NC (4), Ky. (2), Miss. (1): 18 examples

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Maximum	Minimum	Range
1) Front	20.657	2.830	26.830	16.580	10.250
2) Side	17.134	1.444	20.000	14.580	5.420
*3) 1:2	1.207	0.137	1.462	1.000	0.462

C. All Above Log Single Pen Houses: 56 examples

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Maximum	Minimum	Range
1) Front	20.730	2.754	30.000	15.000	15.000
2) Side	17.103	1.419	20.000	13.830	6.170
*3) 1:2	1.215	0.156	1.714	0.987	0.728

D. Frame Single Pen Houses, Upper Tombigbee Valley: 3 examples

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Maximum	Minimum	Range
1) Front	15.833	0.764	16.500	15.000	1.500
2) Side	15.000	1.323	16.000	13.500	2.500
*3) 1:2	1.063	0.139	1.222	0.968	0.254

*Ratio of front to side.

Table 4

A. First Generation (Log) Dogtrot, Alabama: 12 examples

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Maximum	Minimum	Range
1) R. Front	19.077	1.487	21.830	16.500	5.330
2) Dogtrot	9.292	1.631	12.000	7.000	5.000
3) L. Front	19.701	2.403	24.830	16.170	8.660
4) T. Front	48.069	4.320	57.420	41.750	15.670
5) Side	17.070	1.509	21.000	15.830	5.170
*6) 1:4	0.398	0.026	0.446	0.350	0.096
7) 3:4	0.409	0.027	0.464	0.375	0.087
8) 2:4	0.193	0.024	0.231	0.156	0.075
9) 4:5	2.819	0.152	3.146	2.567	0.576

B. Second Generation (Log) Dogtrot, Alabama: 16 examples

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Maximum	Minimum	Range
1) R. Front	17.349	1.247	20.000	15.000	5.000
2) Dogtrot	9.016	1.136	10.830	7.000	3.830
3) L. Front	17.279	1.235	20.000	15.000	5.000
4) T. Front	43.599	2.663	49.000	30.000	11.000
5) Side	17.371	1.179	20.000	15.000	5.000
*6) 1:4	0.398	0.013	0.426	0.375	0.051
7) 3:4	0.397	0.011	0.413	0.375	0.038
8) 2:4	0.207	0.024	0.250	0.161	0.089
9) 4:5	2.512	0.066	2.619	2.421	0.198

*Ratios as follows:

1:4 = R. Front:Total Front
3:4 = L. Front:Total Front
2:4 = Dogtrot:Total Front
4:5 = Total Front:Side

Little difference is seen between log single pen houses from Alabama and those from six other states (Table 3) based upon this modest sample. The three frame single pen houses of the TRMRD do show the typically smaller and often square module of more recent time.

Dogtrot. The early form of the log dogtrot (first generation) retained oblong rooms, being derived from the oblong single pen. However, the mean size of the front rooms, 19.4 feet by 17 feet, and the standard deviation are smaller than the single pen (Table 4). This suggests that the dogtrot type was developing along a separate line early in the nineteenth century. In the Alabama sample five houses had both pens of the same size and seven had pens of different sizes added on.

Two circa 1870 log dogtrot houses with oblong rooms were noted east of Bay Springs and illustrate the continued use of the oblong floor plan in that area. Their dimensions fall within the range of those previously studied in Alabama.

The later form of the log dogtrot (second generation) usually had square log rooms of a smaller size than the early examples, averaging 17.3 feet on a side. Thus, the overall house size had diminished. Two examples of second generation dogtrot houses from the Upper Tombigbee were quite compatible with those recorded previously in north Alabama (Table 4), having rooms 18 by 18 feet and hallways 9 to 10 feet wide.

Frame, or third generation, dogtrot houses of the Upper Tombigbee may be compared with those of Alabama (Table 5). Four from the tract files were within the size ranges for the Alabama houses, and two others measured in the Bay Springs area were smaller. The sample of 25 frame dogtrot houses illustrates a trend toward square rooms uniform in size over a wide area. Fourteen had rooms almost exactly 16 feet square, one had rooms 18 feet square, one had rooms 18.5 feet square, and nine houses had rooms oblong or of different sizes. Two story central hall houses ("I" houses), while varying slightly from one story frame dogtrot measurements, do not show a significant difference in size (Table 5).

Double Pen. Log double pen houses were evidently not as popular as dogtrot houses in north Alabama; only one example has been located there and none was reported in the TRMRD. Five combination log and frame double pen houses were located in previous surveys by Wilson (1975B). A sample of five frame double pen houses from the TRMRD contained only three that had rooms of the same size. Two houses had a side measurement greater than the front of either pen, which is an unexpected feature. In the sample, there was no clear trend indicated. Data available on two-story, double houses were not as detailed as for the one-story type. Front and side measurements appear to have more variation (Table 6).

Saddlebag. Only three log saddlebag houses have been recorded in prior field work (two by HABS) in north Alabama and this seems to be a good indication that log saddlebags were never popular there (Wilson (1975B). Frame saddlebag houses were more widely used, however. A sample

Table 5

A. Third Generation (Frame) Dogtrot, Alabama: 19 examples

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Maximum	Minimum	Range
1) R. Front	17.294	1.866	22.000	16.000	6.000
2) Dogtrot	8.065	1.164	12.000	6.750	5.250
3) L. Front	17.193	1.481	20.170	16.000	4.170
4) T. Front	42.552	3.793	52.500	39.000	13.500
5) Side	16.693	1.001	18.580	15.330	3.250
*6) 1:4	0.406	0.017	0.466	0.383	0.082
7) 3:4	0.404	0.011	0.434	0.384	0.050
8) 2:4	0.190	0.020	0.229	0.143	0.086
9) 4:5	2.547	0.124	2.864	2.406	0.459

B. Third Generation (Frame) Dogtrot, Upper Tombigbee: 6 examples

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Maximum	Minimum	Range
1) R. Front	15.888	1.583	17.830	13.000	4.830
2) Dogtrot	7.777	1.636	10.330	5.330	5.000
3) L. Front	15.888	2.360	19.830	13.000	6.830
4) T. Front	39.553	5.015	47.990	34.000	13.990
5) Side	15.208	1.327	16.500	13.000	3.500
*6) 1:4	0.404	0.036	0.474	0.372	0.102
7) 3:4	0.401	0.015	0.413	0.373	0.040
8) 2:4	0.195	0.022	0.215	0.153	0.062
9) 4:5	2.612	0.354	3.199	2.177	1.022

*Ratios as follows:

1:4 = R. Front:Total Front
3:4 = L. Front:Total Front
2:4 = Dogtrot:Total Front
4:5 = Total Front:Side

Table 5 Cont'd.

C. Two Story Frame Dogtrot, Alabama (6), North Carolina (1): 7 examples

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Maximum	Minimum	Range
1) R. Front	16.571	0.940	18.000	15.500	2.500
2) Dogtrot	9.227	1.969	11.830	7.420	4.410
3) L. Front	17.261	1.929	20.750	15.500	5.250
4) T. Front	43.060	4.607	49.500	38.420	11.080
5) Side	17.440	1.836	21.000	16.000	5.000
*6) 1:4	0.387	0.024	0.403	0.342	0.062
7) 3:4	0.401	0.010	0.419	0.387	0.032
8) 2:4	4.753	0.475	5.178	4.057	1.120
9) 4:5	2.470	0.099	2.619	2.357	0.262

*Ratios as follows:

1:4 = R. Front:Total Front
3:4 = L. Front:Total Front
2:4 = Dogtrot:Total Front
4:5 = Total Front:Side

Table 6

A. Frame Double Pen, Upper Tombigbee: 5 examples

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Maximum	Minimum	Range
1) R. Front	16.950	1.891	19.250	15.000	4.250
2) L. Front	16.850	2.343	19.250	13.000	6.250
3) T. Front	33.800	4.009	38.500	28.000	10.500
4) Side	15.300	0.975	16.000	14.000	2.000
*5) 1:3	0.502	0.024	0.536	0.469	0.067
6) 2:3	0.498	0.024	0.531	0.464	0.067
7) 3:4	2.221	0.336	2.571	1.750	0.821

B. Two Story Log Double Houses, Alabama (1), Maryland (2), North Carolina (2), Virginia (1): 6 examples

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Maximum	Minimum	Range
1) Front	31.362	8.407	46.000	22.500	23.500
2) Side	19.472	3.329	25.250	15.580	9.670
*3) 1:2	1.616	0.374	2.300	1.254	1.046

C. Two Story Frame Double Houses, Alabama (1), Maryland (1), North Carolina (2), Tennessee (1): 5 examples

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Maximum	Minimum	Range
1) Front	33.614	4.015	38.330	29.250	9.080
2) Side	17.234	2.548	21.000	14.250	6.750
3) 1:2	2.002	0.478	2.620	1.468	1.152

*Ratios as follows:

1:2 = Front:Side
1:3 = R. Front:Total Front
2:3 = L. Front:Total Front
3:4 = Front:Side

Table 7

A. Log Saddlebag, Alabama (3), North Carolina (1), Illinois (1): 5 examples

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Maximum	Minimum	Range
1) R. Front	18.200	4.994	26.000	13.920	12.080
2) L. Front	17.534	3.005	20.750	13.920	6.830
3) T. Front	38.934	8.833	50.000	29.750	20.250
4) Side	17.684	1.778	20.170	15.920	4.250
*5) 1:3	0.466	0.041	0.520	0.423	0.097
6) 2:3	0.456	0.038	0.504	0.400	0.104
7) 3:4	2.197	0.409	2.728	1.653	1.075

B. Frame Saddlebag, Alabama (9), Tennessee (1): 10 examples

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Maximum	Minimum	Range
1) R. Front	16.073	1.263	18.670	14.830	3.840
2) L. Front	15.760	1.177	18.670	14.920	3.750
3) T. Front	33.398	3.073	37.330	29.750	7.580
4) Side	15.944	1.034	18.000	14.330	3.670
*5) 1:3	0.483	0.034	0.516	0.417	0.099
6) 2:3	0.474	0.032	0.501	0.422	0.080
7) 3:4	2.101	0.219	2.321	1.778	0.544

C. Frame Saddlebag, Upper Tombigbee: 7 examples

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Maximum	Minimum	Range
1) R. Front	16.643	1.274	18.250	15.000	3.250
2) L. Front	16.286	2.114	18.250	12.000	6.250
3) T. Front	32.929	3.181	36.500	27.500	9.000
4) Side	15.643	1.144	17.000	13.500	3.500
*5) 1:3	0.507	0.026	0.564	0.484	0.080
6) 2:3	0.493	0.026	0.516	0.436	0.080
7) 3:4	2.109	0.198	2.355	1.882	0.472

*Ratios as follows:

1:3 = R. Front:Total Front
2:3 = L. Front:Total Front
3:4 = Total Front:Side

Table 8

A. Shotgun Houses, Upper Tombigbee: 4 examples

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Maximum	Minimum	Range
1) Front	14.125	1.750	16.000	12.000	4.000
2) Side	31.500	5.307	38.000	25.500	12.500
*3) 1:2	0.461	0.104	0.542	0.316	0.227

B. Bungalow Houses, Upper Tombigbee: 13 examples

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Maximum	Minimum	Range
1) Front	28.327	5.494	38.000	21.000	17.000
2) Side	37.846	11.482	70.000	27.000	43.000
*3) 1:2	0.784	0.197	1.152	0.500	0.652

*Ratio as follows:

1:2 = Front:Side

including nine from north Alabama, one from Tennessee, and seven from the TRMRD is presented in Table 7, which shows little difference between the examples.

Shotgun. Four frame shotgun houses were included in data from the TRMRD, however, no measurements from other areas were available for comparison. The data are shown in Table 8. They all retain the ideal shape of the type being two to three times longer on the side than on the front.

Bungalow. Thirteen frame bungalow houses were measured in the TRMRD (Table 8). Relatively greater variation is seen in the sample for this type of house than for folk houses. The shape in two cases was square, that is, house front = house side, and in two others the side was twice the measurement of the front, being similar to the shotgun in that respect. Eleven examples had the side 3 to 35 feet greater than the front, so the square bungalow form may not be very common.

Outbuildings

Four tracts studied by HABS have descriptions of outbuildings, and eighteen other outbuildings are included in photographs and are briefly described in other tract forms.

Barns and other outbuildings have been given considerable attention by Glassie, although he has not specifically studied the TRMRD (Glassie 1969, 1974). Barns of the Upland South possibly came to be more abundant as a result of the post Civil War laws restricting the open range which had been a tradition that started in Tidewater settlements (McWhiney 1978). Double crib, transverse barns, single cribs with side sheds, and store and smoke houses were the most common Upland South buildings (Figures 28-31). The construction of these buildings with logs continued well into the 1950s, long after the tradition of building dwellings with logs ended. The oldest log outbuildings have half dovetail, square and inverted V corners with hewn logs. Late log buildings were mostly inverted V and round, or saddle, corners usually with round logs, or "poles."

Probably more outbuilding measurements or estimates of measurements have been obtained as a result of property evaluations in the Tennessee-Tombigbee Waterway corridor than from any other source in Alabama and Mississippi. Most of these measurements are probably rounded off to the nearest whole foot since the dimensions seldom include inches. These data must be further qualified in other respects. The distinction between barns, sheds and cribs is not always clear in the property descriptions, and these were made by different appraisal companies. Further, the HABS measurements, in several cases, differ from those given by the appraisers. For example, a barn on Bay Springs Tract 617 was given as 16 by 24 feet by HABS but by the appraiser it was recorded as 12 by 34 feet. This suggests that the property appraisers likely made estimates of these dimensions and that they possibly did so for many other structures.

Figure 28. Typical single crib, smoke house, and storage building type. The corn crib of the Jeffries-Gardner farm. Aliceville Tract 403, Carmen Church vicinity, Lowndes County, Mississippi. HABS photo.

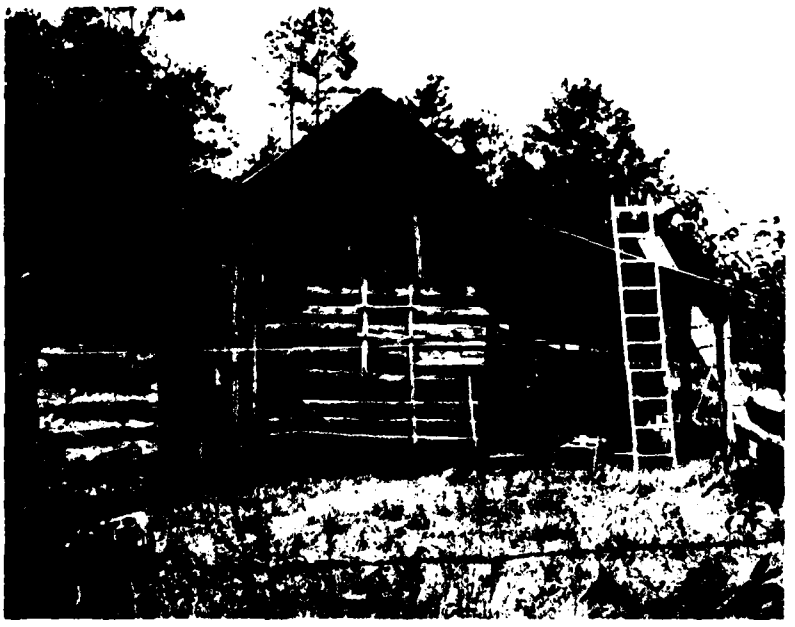

Figure 29. Log single crib barn with side sheds, a very common and widespread Southern building. M. V. Riddle farm, Bay Springs Tract 911, Paden vicinity, Tishomingo County, Mississippi. HABS photo.

Figure 30. Gambrel roof barn type, introduced into the area around 1930. J. T. Butler farm, Bay Springs Tract 801b, Tishomingo County, Mississippi. HABS photo.

Figure 31. Transverse barn with gable roof, an older type than the gambrel roof shown above. J. T. Butler farm, Bay Springs, Tract 801b, Tishomingo County, Mississippi. HABS photo.

In the measurements obtained, the dominant shape of outbuildings was oblong, as was the case of dwellings. Barns were all oblong, ranging from 12 by 24 to 40 by 100 feet, but 22% of the animal pens and storage structures were square. The dominant roof type was a simple gable. A few shed roof structures were present. The frame gambrel roof barn, 37% of the total, is a recent feature, always found with a transverse plan (Figure 31). The use of this type dates to about the 1930s in the Valley and many probably replaced, or were built in addition to, earlier log barns and cribs. However, only nine outbuildings (one barn) are identified as being of log or pole construction, a surprisingly low figure.

Farmstead Layouts

The typical farmstead layout in the TRMRD and the surrounding area is comprised of the dwelling house, barn, smokehouse, pens, sheds, ornamental plants, gardens, fences and other features (Figures 32 and 33). While there is no distinctive grouping of these features, some common spatial arrangements can be observed. The dwelling house normally faces a road. Outbuildings are commonly oriented toward the house from the rear or the sides and few farmsteads are very compact or have clearly aligned structures.

Regionally, there probably are some variations in farmstead arrangements. Glassie (1975:143-144) noted that in middle Virginia the barn and the dwelling were widely separated, just as in Alabama and Mississippi, where the barn is usually the most distant building. In some instances, the barn was placed so that it faced the dwelling across the road. Male dominated activities and outbuildings associated with large livestock and plowing, were usually more distant: the animal stalls, barn, corn crib, harness and tool storage sheds that were most often used by men. Activities of women took place closer to the house, associated with the yard, well, smokehouse, storage sheds, chicken pens, root cellars and small flower and vegetable gardens. Picket fencing was once common around the house but has gone out of style. Wire fencing is now normally used for most animal enclosures and outlines the territory allotted to livestock. Shrubbery was widely used to decorate and help define the space dominated by activities of the house. Yard trees were standard features; most commonly they were oaks, but red cedar, walnut, chinaberry, mimosa, and magnolia were all widely used. In the present landscape these are house site indicators, standing out among the more recent growth of "old field" pines.

The Bay Springs Tract Files and aerial photos of parts of Lamar, Lowndes, Greene and Pickens counties were the sources for data on farmsteads. Twelve Bay Springs Tracts had low oblique aerial photos included with property evaluations that showed house and outbuilding locations. These tracts were: 200, 303, 402, 500, 517, 700, 801, 811, 901, 904, 906, and 912. On five farmsteads the barn was placed to the side of the house, one had a shed or crib facing the house from across the road and six had all outbuildings behind the house to the right or left rear. In Pickens, Lamar, Lowndes, and Greene counties, sixteen farmsteads were sketched from USDA aerial photos. Eight had outbuildings to the rear of the dwelling and five farmsteads had outbuildings to the side.

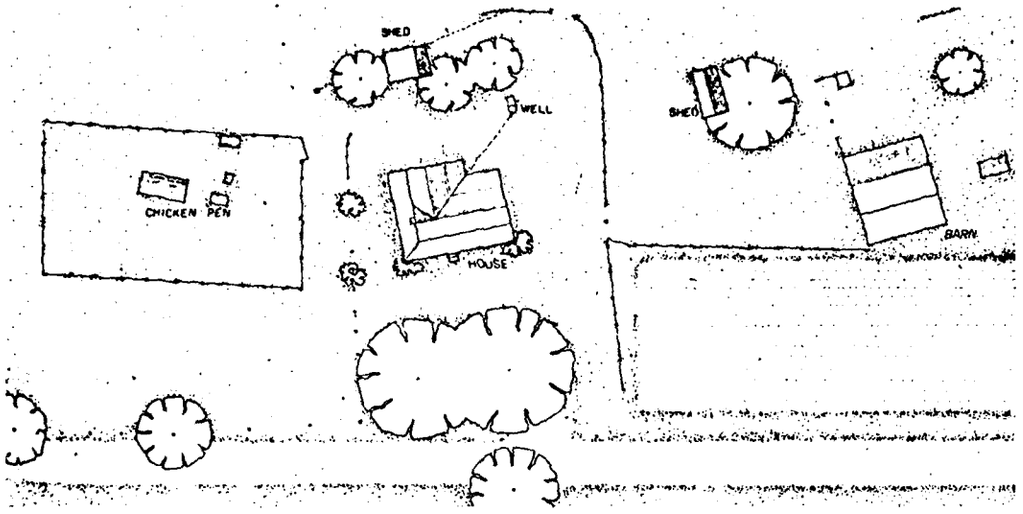

Figure 32. Farmstead layout, R. G. Adams farm, Bay Springs Tract 700, five miles southwest of Paden, Tishomingo County, Mississippi. HABS drawing.

Figure 33. Farmstead layout showing outbuildings typically to the rear and one side of the dwelling. The barn is usually the most distant structure in this area. Kirkville, Itawamba County, Mississippi.

With five exceptions in a total of twenty-eight, the barn, assumed to be the largest structure on the photographs, was the most distant building from the house. Three examples from the Black Belt around Dancy, Alabama, showed a scattered arrangement that included more than one dwelling house, probably housing for farm workers. This dispersed arrangement of dwellings and outbuildings seems to have been more common in the Black Belt.

Regional Patterns

Settlement patterns, including house types and farmsteads, are indicators of cultural and economic history and they may be associated with certain physiographic areas. The background for these relationships is drawn primarily from northern Alabama which has been studied more intensely than other areas (Wilson 1969) and which may serve as a general model for the southern Appalachians and the adjacent Coastal Plain.

The models developed for house types, farmsteads and settlement patterns for north Alabama began with observations along state and county roads. The research also included the study of mid-nineteenth century census records and data from historical records and publications on the origin of settlers. No clear association of house types with immigrating settlers could be established. The north central part of the state, for example, had been settled largely by people from South Carolina but no specific evidence of house type or farmstead arrangement could be identified as originating in South Carolina during the late 1960s when the research was done.

The last part of the study was the selection of a series of transects, about 20 miles apart, that would cover north Alabama with a reasonably good network along which all rural houses observed on the transects would be classified. More than 17,000 dwellings were classified according to type. The subjective decisions made in this scheme were moderated toward objectivity by obtaining a fairly large sample of houses. The results were presented on a series of maps showing patterns derived from the percentages of various house types (Figure 35).

Northern and central Alabama are divided into a number of physiographic (geologic-topographic-soil) units (Figure 34). Three categories of physical units are important: hill areas with only small sections of flat land suitable for agriculture, moderately hilly areas, and lowlands with gently rolling surfaces developed on limestone and alluvial deposits of rivers. The hilly areas are developed on gravel, sandstone, and shale, none of which produce particularly fertile soils. Moderately hilly areas are found in the Fall Line Hills with soils derived primarily from sandy materials and in the Piedmont where soils are derived from a variety of rock types. The soils developed on limestone and alluvium originally had great fertility and were the most attractive for large scale agricultural use.

The arrival of large numbers of European-Americans in the Mississippi Territory who were primarily using agricultural land for cash crops, obtained maximum wealth from the limestone and alluvial soils of the

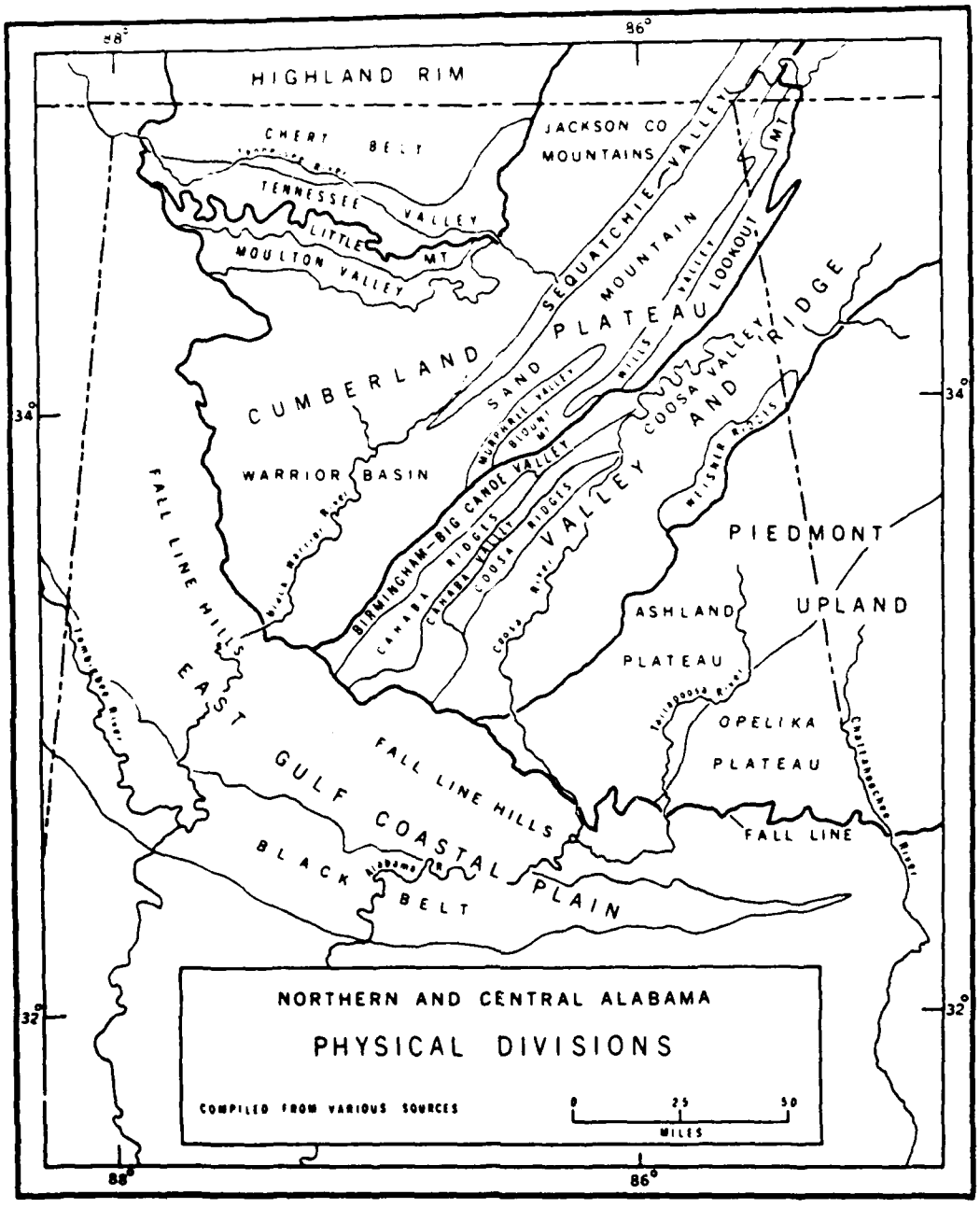

Figure 34. Physical divisions, northern and central Alabama (Wilson 1969).

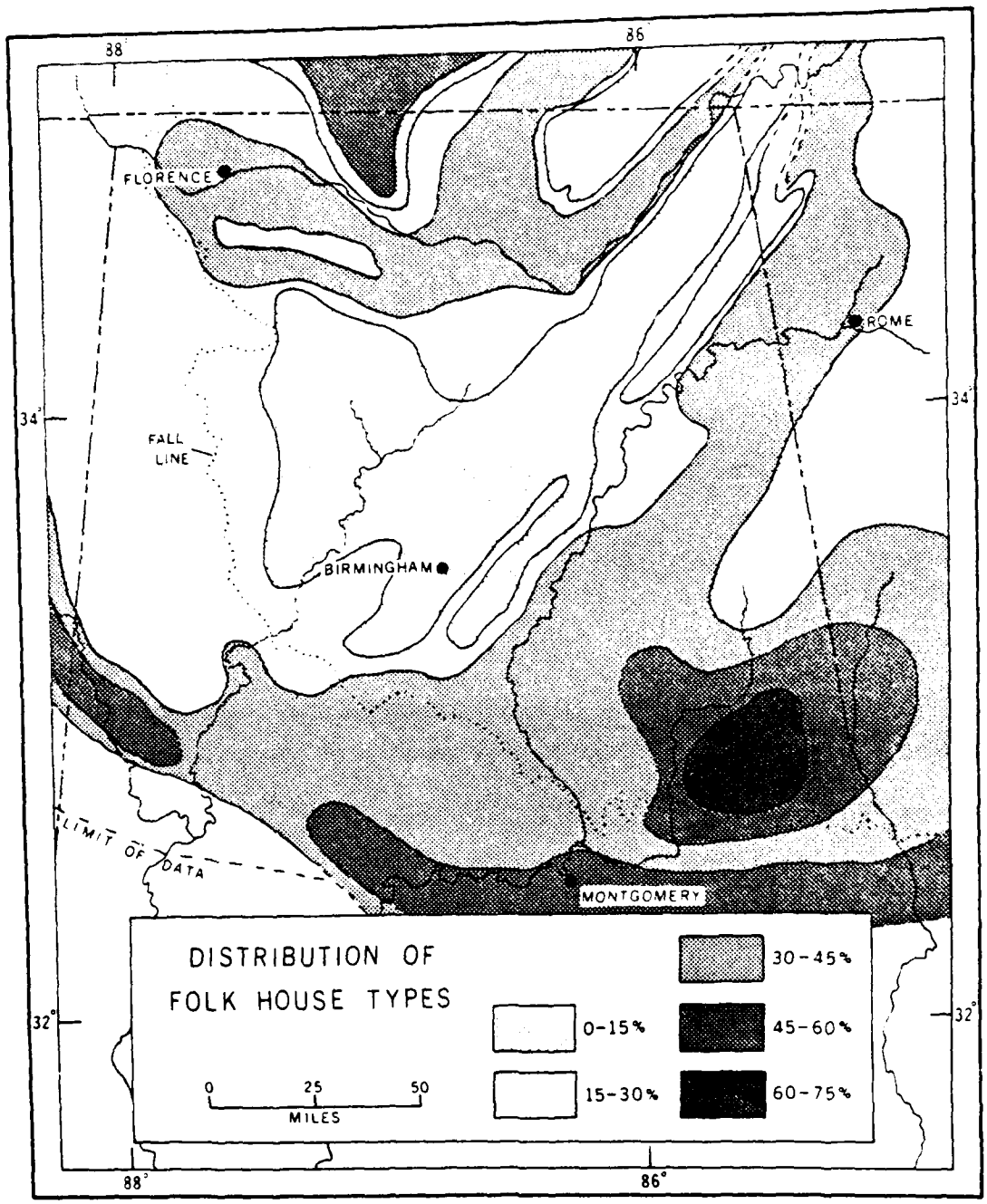

Figure 35. Distribution of folk house types, northern Alabama, northwestern Georgia and northeastern Mississippi (Wilson 1969).

Tennessee Valley, the Coosa Valley, the Black Prairie Belt, the valleys of the folded Appalachians, and the Delta area of west Mississippi. These areas were developed for plantation agriculture with the associated large, formal houses of owners and the folk house types once used for slave quarters. These include the single pen, double pen, and saddlebag. Later, the shotgun came to be commonly used in the Delta area of Mississippi (Latham 1977). Both the residual Black population and the buildings still give distinctive quality to these former plantation areas.

At the other extreme were the hilly areas, particularly of the Warrior Basin and other portions of the Appalachian Plateau which were never important for large scale cash crop farming. For generations, they were occupied by stockmen and farmers with small holdings. A major change occurred in the Warrior Basin when coal mining prosperity brought changes in housing, today manifested by the presence of large numbers of bungalows and a small number of folk houses.

The intermediate areas, including the Piedmont and the Fall Line Hills in the TRMRD, that were not affected by any substantial economic change, have remained relatively stable and conservative and have retained a large number of folk houses. The highest concentration recorded was in the Alabama-Georgia Piedmont, which had a dominance of dogtrot house variations.

Although this is only a sketch of the complex regional history, it appears to be generally correct. Some conclusions are suggested: 1) folk housing, like architectural designs, can be useful in identifying periods of relative prosperity; 2) periods of economic prosperity and change are times during which new designs and new house types replace older designs; 3) areas that maintain the same, or lower, level of prosperity for a long period will retain the housing designs and types that were popular at some earlier period.

Certain house types have come to have ethnic associations. In older Black rural and urban settlements, the single pen, double pen, saddlebag, and particularly the shotgun, have been widely used for Black housing. The origin of the use of the single pen, double pen and saddlebag for Black housing is in the Atlantic Coast settlements. European derived folk house types were in time gradually replaced by formal architectural designs for White dwellings and the folk types were used for slave quarters in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. The shotgun house was introduced into New Orleans and then to other Southern towns and was used for both Black and White occupants. As a rural house, it is almost entirely used for Black housing. The term "tenant house" has been often applied to all of these dwellings with no indication of the type of house referred to. In some cases the occupying tenants were White. Often farm laborers occupied other house types and even former plantation houses were sometimes used.

Summary and Conclusions

The Tombigbee River Multi-Resource District, located along the Fall Line Hills and Black Prairie Belt of the inner Coastal Plain, contained cultural elements of the Lowland South plantation economy and the small

farmer-stockman economy of the Upland South. The focus in this report is upon rural buildings affected by the construction of the Tennessee-Tombigbee Waterway. Examples included here were mostly representative of the Upland South. The houses were derived mainly from the cultural traditions of the British, German-speaking, and Haitian immigrants in America. Later structures were based upon the folk houses but were built of commercially manufactured materials and had more decorative details.

Geographers have used the building type as a means of understanding settlement history and the spread of people and traits. A building type combines plan, roof form, proportions, door and window positions that are the same from place to place even though the materials of its construction may vary. Five folk house types common to north Alabama and northeast Mississippi were the single pen, double pen, saddlebag, dogtrot and shotgun. Pyramidal roof houses were built in large numbers in the South after 1865. They are not abundant in the rural TRMRD, however. Bungalow houses were introduced in the early twentieth century and were very popular in the 1920s and 1930s.

Examples of these types, except possibly pyramidal roof houses, were recorded in HABS inventory forms and tract files which provided data on houses and outbuildings. Chi-square tests showed no statistical difference between house sizes from the TRMRD and the same types from other area samples. There was not statistical differences in size between the three proposed "generations" of the dogtrot house type; nevertheless, an evolution from oblong pens to square pens and smaller house size is interpreted from the evidence contained in systematic field measurements.

Strongly held traditions of building configuration existed in the Southern states. Great similarity in the layout of Southern farmsteads probably exists, although systematic study of them is lacking. Lowland South-Upland South areas can still be recognized today. These rural housing patterns are closely related to physiographic districts and with associated nineteenth century agricultural practices.

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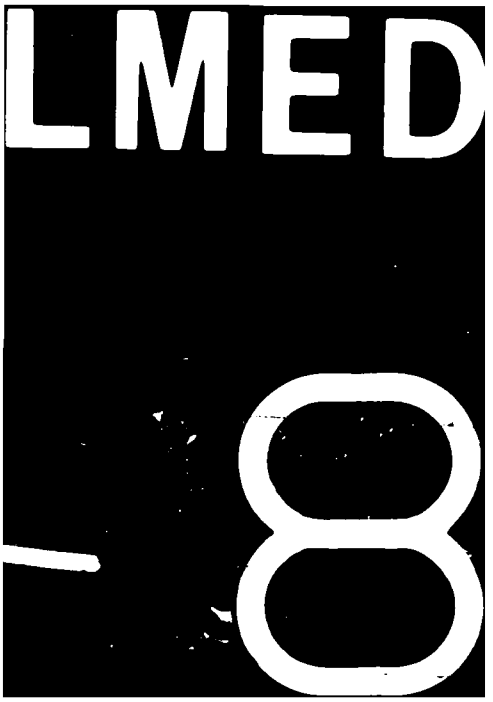
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