

Cultural Investigations at the Wolf Creek Boatworks, Prince of Wales Island, Alaska

by

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**Report prepared by Heritage Consulting Services, Anchorage, Alaska under contract to
Sam Romey, Wolf Creek Boatworks, Prince of Wales Island, Alaska**

**Cover: 1939 view of the Wolf Creek Boatworks (CRG-346) taken from the water looking northwest.
Courtesy of Sam Romey.**

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Introduction

This report presents the findings of a cultural resource investigation at the historic Wolf Creek boatworks (CRG-346) in the spring of 2015 on Prince of Wales Island, Alaska. Heritage Consulting Services (HCS) was engaged under contract by Wolf Creek boatworks owner Sam Romey to conduct an archaeological survey and inventory of historic buildings. The Wolf Creek boatworks was built between 1939 and 1940 and sits at the mouth of Wolf Creek to the northeast of the community of Hollis. The buildings that compose the historic boatworks belong to Sam Romey, but the land that they rest on belongs to the United States Forest Service (USFS). In 1992 the Wolf Creek boatworks was determined eligible to the National Register of Historic Places by John Autrey of the United States Forest Service (USFS) with concurrence from the Alaska State Historic Preservation Officer (SHPO) through its contribution to our understanding of Southeast Alaska maritime history under criteria A. Onsite investigations were carried out by Charles Ottar Mobley of HCS on May 2nd and 3rd, 2015.

Background

Natural Environment

The project area lies at the mouth of Wolf Creek to the northeast of the community of Hollis and is located on Prince of Wales Island, Southeast Alaska (Figure 1). Prince of Wales is dominated by a cool, moist, maritime climate. Summer temperatures range from 49° to 63°F; winter temperatures range from 32° to 42 °F. Average annual precipitation is 120 inches, with 40 inches of snow. (ACDCRA 2015).

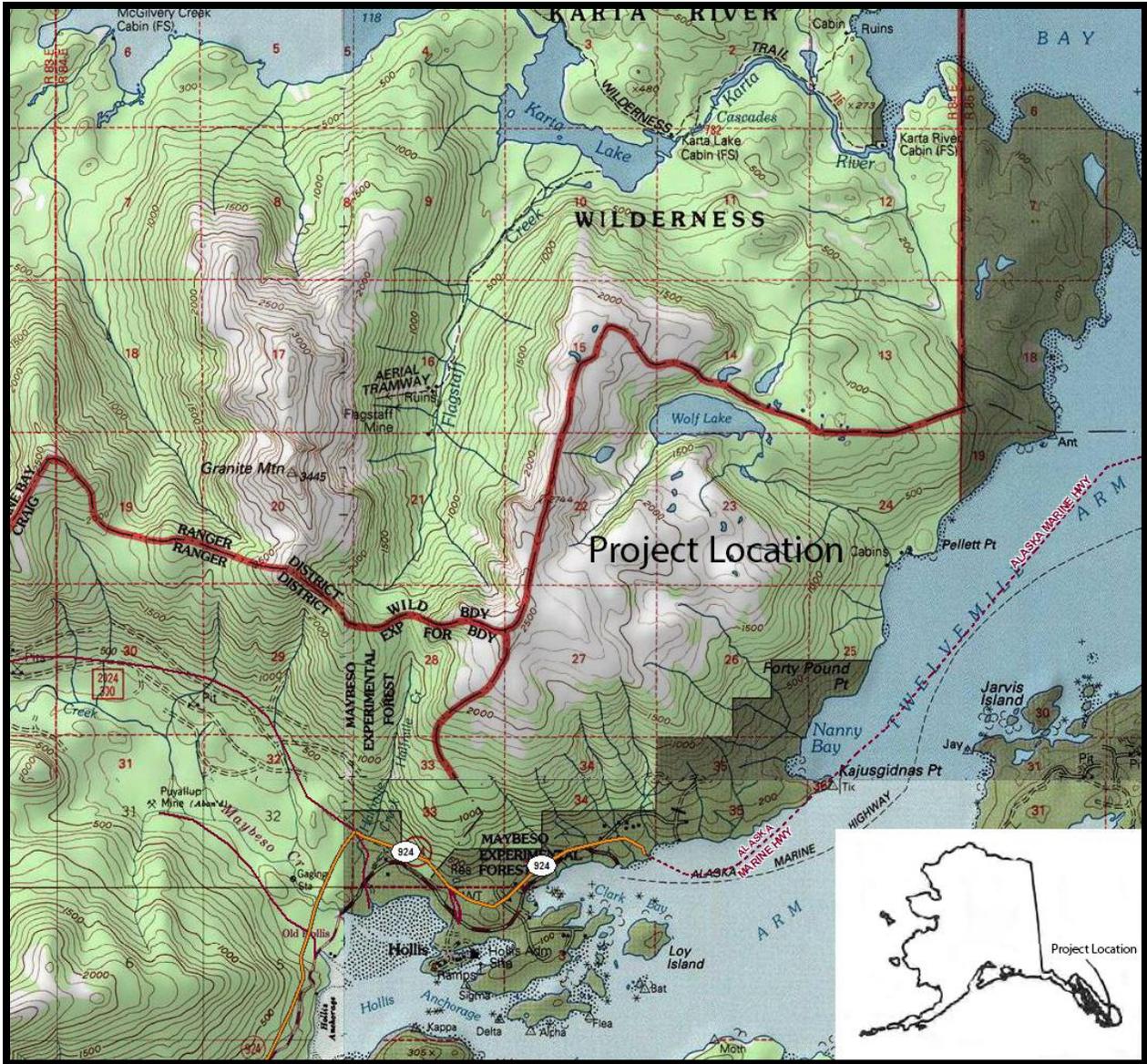


Figure 1: The Wolf Creek boatworks are located along Twelve-Mile Arm north of Nancy Bay, Prince of Wales Island, Southeast Alaska.

The soils of Southeast Alaska date to the post-Pleistocene period and are composed of mineral soils of poorly sorted glacial till, gravelly silty loam, and wet organic soils and peat (Davis 1984:9, Langdon 1977:18). The cool, wet climate of the region slows the decomposition of organic material and promotes heavy leaching in the better drained soils. Using soil types as a predictor for the presence of cultural resources has not proved useful (Mobley 1988:66, Campbell 1985:6). The soils of the region are not particularly arable due to cool temperatures, low fertility, and high moisture content. Uplifted beach soils and alluvial soils with southern or western exposures are the most likely to be used for gardening (Selkregg 1976:106).

The forest encompassing Prince of Wales Island is primarily part of the Tongass National Forest, 17 million acres stretching across all of Southeast Alaska, from Dixon Entrance at the south to Cape Fairweather in the north. The rainforest contains a number of plant species including: red cedar, yellow cedar, cottonwood, devil's club, ferns, fireweed, goose tongue, hemlock, skunk cabbage, spruce, and a number of berry species including: blueberry, cranberry, currant, elderberry, huckleberry, raspberry, salmonberry, and strawberry. The evergreen trees, berry bushes, and alder thrive between sea level and 1,500' elevation. Between 1,500' and 2,500' stunted spruce and hemlock can be found. Muskegs and grassy peat flats are interspersed with dense evergreen growths in lowland areas (Sainsbury 1961:305).

Local species of fish include: black sea bass, black cod, ling cod, pacific cod, eel, flounder, halibut, herring, hooligan, red snapper, and all five species of salmon (Goldschmidt and Haas 2000:181). Regional land mammals include: beaver, black bear, deer, lynx, land otter, marmot, marten, mink, muskrat, porcupine, squirrel, weasel, wolf, and wolverine (Goldschmidt and Haas 2000:181), although there are no lynx, muskrat, porcupine, squirrel, muskrat, or wolverine presently on Prince of Wales Island. Marine mammals include: fur seal, harbor seal, sea lion, sea otter, porpoise, orca, and humpback whales (Goldschmidt and Haas 2000:182). Numerous species of birds can be found in the area including: geese, ducks, gulls, loon, and grouse, as well as bald eagles, hawks, and falcons (Goldschmidt and Haas 2000:183). The beaches in the area are also rich with inter-tidal and marine species including: abalone, multiple species of clams, Dungeness crab, king crab, chitons, limpets, mussels, octopus, sea cucumbers, sea urchins, shrimp, and squid (Goldschmidt and Haas 2000:182).

Cultural Environment

Pre-History

The Archaeological record in Southeast Alaska began prior to the end of the last Ice Age. Due to eustatic sea level changes, the earliest archaeological sites are probably located underwater on the continental shelf and are now inaccessible (Carlson 2012:33). During the Late Pleistocene, much of Southeast Alaska was covered by ice up to 2,000 feet thick until approximately 14,000 years B.P., however the outer shores of the western-most islands are notable exceptions. The weight of the glacial ice depressed the mainland and forced sub-crustal material under the islands of the Alexander Archipelago, causing them to rise up (Carlson 2007:41, 2012:4; Carlson & Baichtal 2015:124). On Prince of Wales Island, the earliest archaeological sites preserved are those above present sea level, occupied during the same time as the maximum transgression of the sea, when sea level rose world-wide as a result of climatic warming (Carlson 2012:4). As the ice sheets and continental glaciers melted, water flowed into the oceans, submerging low lying lands around the globe. Raised marine beaches or deposits on Prince of Wales Island date to approximately 9,700 to 7,000 B.P., and are located at an elevation roughly 17 to 22 meters above Mean Lower Low Water (MLLW) (Carlson 2012:287, Carlson & Baichtal 2015:120).

The area's flora rapidly expanded as glacial ice receded. Stuckenrath (1971:4) believed the present shorelines were established between 7,000 and 5,000 B.P. Pollen records from northeastern Baranof Island indicate a mountain hemlock-spruce forest with alder undergrowth by 10,000 B.P. and a western hemlock-spruce forest by 4,500 B.P. (Holloway 1989:91). The southern parts of the archipelago would have experienced a similar pattern with the addition of cedar forests showing up somewhat later.

The people who moved into these areas after the glaciers receded would have been marine based subsistence hunters and gatherers, and would have likely lived along the coastlines. Due to isostatic rebound and tectonic uplift, these older coastal sites, as mentioned above, are currently located at higher elevations from modern sea level.

The oldest human remains found southern Southeast Alaska come from "On Your Knees Cave" located near the northern tip of Prince of Wales Island. Radiocarbon samples taken from the bone have yielded dates of approximately 9,200 radiocarbon years B.P. after calibration for the Marine Reservoir Effect (Dixon 2002). A biface was found in association with the human remains in the cave, and other bifaces and microblades were recovered outside of the cave's entrance (Carlson 2007:12, Dixon 2002).

Pre-historic sites in the region are often defined by their microblade assemblages. Microblades are a common artifact in nearly all of the earliest archaeological sites in the region, with assemblages often dominated by these small ribbon-like stone tools that were made from prepared wedge-shaped and cubical cores. Sites exhibiting this technology have been found at various locations in Southeast Alaska including Baranof Island, Prince of Wales Island, Heceta Island, Kupreanof Island, Kosciusko Island, and Ground Hog Bay in Glacier Bay (Davis 1990, Moss et al. 1996, Moss 1998, Carlson 2012, Carlson & Baichtal 2015). The reevaluated Irish Creek site is presently the oldest known site in Southeast Alaska and has been radiocarbon dated 9,280 years B.P. (Carlson 2012, Carlson & Baichtal 2015).

Aside from the lithic technology, very little archaeological evidence is available to help us better understand the people who inhabited the region in antiquity. The cultures associated with these lithics are known by different names: the Paleomarine tradition (Davis 1990:187-198), the Early Period (Moss 1998:92-100), the Archaic period (Ames and Maschner 1999:67), the Northwest Coast Microblade tradition (Matson and Coupland 1995:82-95), and the Paleoarctic tradition (Ackerman 1996:429). The Paleoarctic tradition has been well defined, and the stone tools found in Southeast Alaska assemblages from this period show similarities to Paleoarctic collections of similar age from various locations in Alaska, Northwest Canada and Northeast Siberia.

The Paleoarctic tradition has been shown at a site near Thorne Bay on Prince of Wales Island. Numerous microblades and cores, unifacial flake tools, and a small number of bifacially flaked tools were recovered from CRG-177, as well as radiocarbon samples yielding dates of approximately 7,600 years B.P. (Holmes et al. 1989:95).

The transition from the microblade using Paleoarctic cultures that occupied Southeast Alaska post glaciation, to the traditional Northwest coast culture that supplanted them is not well understood. Known as the Transitional stage, (Davis 1990:198), or the Middle period (Moss 1998:100), the archaeological record indicates that a gradual transformation in technology and lifeway to a cultural pattern somewhat reminiscent to classical Northwest Coast cultures took place between 6,500 and 4,000 years B.P. During this transition, an increasing emphasis on ground stone tools over chipped stone tools is evident. Whether or not this change in technology was developed within the archipelago, or came about through diffusion is unknown (Davis 1990:198). Similar transformations are seen in other archaeological assemblages in Alaska and British Columbia. These regional technology shifts may indicate that interacting cultures across Alaska and Canada were interacting (Workman 1980:88-91). As the people living in southern Southeast Alaska changed, an increasing reliance on maritime and riverine resources, especially salmon, took place. Larger wooden structures became common, as did large, semi-permanent winter villages, similar to those of contact era Tlingit and Haida (Davis 1990:200).

The placement of many habitation sites, apparently chosen because of their ability to be defended, may give indication of regional hostilities (Moss and Erlandson (1992:83). Ethnographic evidence suggests that the Haida presence in Southeast Alaska is relatively recent. The Haida migrated north from the Queen Charlotte Islands into southern Southeast Alaska, perhaps due to overpopulation and competition for resources. This northward movement most likely occurred in several migrations that occurred between the late 1600s and the late 1700s (deLaguna 1990:204). There is evidence to suggest that the Tlingit have occupied the Alexander Archipelago from well into the prehistoric period and onward. Archaeological evidence to support this is scarce, but oral histories detail the migration of the Tlingit people entering the area from the Tsimshian Peninsula and interior British Columbia via the Taku, Nass, Skeena and Stikine Rivers (de Laguna 1990:205-206). Prince of Wales Island was primarily occupied by the Tlingit. "At one time all of Prince of Wales Island was their territory." (Goldschmidt & Hass 2000:79).

European Contact

The first suspected European contact with the Tlingit and Haida occurred in 1584, and again in 1587 when Spanish explorers sailed up the Pacific coast as far as 57° 30' north, but no mention of contact with the native inhabitants was documented (Grinëv 2005a:91). In 1741 contact was probably made when two boatloads of Russian sailors under the command Alexei Chirikov disappeared in the vicinity of Kruzof Island. The men may have been killed by the local Tlingit, but the local Tlingit oral tradition suggest these men may actually have deserted because of the harsh conditions aboard ship, and later fled to the area around Klawock to avoid discovery by their countrymen (Grinëv 2005a:93, 2005b:4-6).

European description of Prince of Wales Island is first recorded in the written accounts of English naval captain, George Vancouver. The British Admiralty dispatched Vancouver to chart America's continental Northwest Coast to search for the "Northwest Passage." He arrived in the area in August 1793 (Roppel 1998: 2).

In 1774, the Spaniard Bucareli sailed the schooner *Sonora* along the west coast of Prince of Wales Island, likely encountering the Kaigani Haida of southern Prince of Wales and the Henya Kwáan Tlingit who occupied the northern part of the island (Grinëv 2005a:92). The Spanish visited the waters off western Prince of Wales Island again in 1779 with the voyage of Bodega y Quadra, who reported trading with the Henya. Additional European expeditions followed quickly, the region was visited by the French in 1786, by the English and the Americans in 1787, and the Russians in 1788 (Grinëv 2005a:97-100).

The European and American vessels traded firearms, alcohol, iron, copper, and other goods in exchange for sea otter pelts. The Russians came to the archipelago from the west, first occupying the Aleutians and then Kodiak, where they forcefully conscripted the native Aleuts and Koniag as hunters. It was the decline of the sea otter populations in these areas that spurred the Russians further south into the territory of the Tlingit and Haida. In 1797, they established a trading outpost in Yakutat Bay, and another in Sitka Sound. The Tlingit, threatened by the Russian presence, destroyed both outposts in 1802. The Russians, under the command of Alexander Baranov, retaliated in 1804, defeating the Tlingit and establishing a new fort at Novo-Arkangle'sk, at the present site of Sitka. Sitka served as the headquarters of the Russian-American Company beginning in 1808 and continuing until U.S. takeover in 1867 (de Laguna 1990:223).

The Europeans brought with them various diseases including smallpox, which devastated local native populations. When Nathaniel Portlock entered the area in 1787, he reported seeing the pockmarks associated with smallpox on many of the Tlingit of Sitka Sound, and those farther to the southeast. He noted that children younger than ten or twelve years old did not have marks, and he attributed the disease's likely origins as the Spanish expeditions of a decade before (Boyd 1999:23-24). In 1791, the Frenchman Étienne Marchand noted pockmarks on the faces of the Tlingit of the Sitka area, and the Haida of the Queen Charlottes, suggesting that there had been a widespread epidemic with high mortality (Blackman 1990:255; Boyd 1999:25-26; see also Khlebnikov 1976:29).

Between 1835 and 1837, a small pox pandemic that affected much of northwest North America made its way through Southeast Alaska. Sitka (Novo-Arkangle'sk) was infected in late November or early December of 1835 (Arndt 1985:2). The effects of the disease were devastating to the Native cultures of the region. It was lethal to the Tlingit, who experienced an overall 50 percent mortality rate (Boyd 1999:117). It is estimated that the Tlingit lost approximately 27% of their population due to the disease (Boyd 1999:143-144).

Historical Background

The transfer of Alaska in 1867 from the custody of the Russian American Company to the government of the United States had little initial positive effect on the Natives of Southeast Alaska. Cultural differences and indifferences led to hostilities between Natives and Americans, including the U.S. Navy's bombardment of the Tlingit villages of Kake in 1869, and Angoon in 1882 (de Laguna 1990:223-224). Commercial interests were at first limited to the fur seal harvest of the Pribilof Islands in the Bering Sea. The Russians had dried fish for commercial consumption using Native techniques, and had salted salmon in commercial quantities, but they had not developed large markets for the product.

Within a decade after the 1867 Alaska transfer, several American companies built commercial salteries in Alaska. A saltery was established at Klawock by Scottish trader George Hamilton in about 1872 (Langdon 1977:140). The nearby village of Klawock was on the forefront of Alaska's salmon canning industry, having the distinction of hosting one of the two first facilities in the territory in 1878 (Roppel 1986:4-5). Canning food in metal containers had begun in the United States in 1839, not long after Napoleon awarded 12,000 francs to inventor Nicholas Appert for inventing the canning method in 1809. In 1866, the Hapgood, Hume and Company started a salmon cannery on Oregon's Columbia River, and by 1873 that river had seven canneries in operation (Smith 1979:16-17). Alaska was not far behind. At the same time that a cannery was being assembled at Sitka in early 1878, Alaska's second "first" cannery was built at Klawock by the North Pacific Trading and Packing Company, which bought out George Hamilton's saltery (Moser 1899:109). The cannery burned in 1898 (Cobb 1917:41), and was rebuilt by the same company one year later at a new site across the small bay from Klawock (Langdon 1977:160). A second cannery was built in Klawock in 1899 (Langdon 1977:160) and operated by the North Pacific Trading and Packing Company until 1929, when it was purchased by Libby, McNeil Libby (MacDonald 1949:30). This ended a 50 year history of fish packing in Klawock by the North Pacific Trading and Packing Company. Libby, McNeil Libby closed the cannery two years later and began operations in Craig (Langdon 1977:161, 248).

Ketchikan was well established city by the beginning of the 20th century, serving as a gateway to the state, a hub for mining, and newly forming logging industry. Mineral deposits were found in many areas of Prince of Wales Island. A number of mines were staked and prospected near Hollis including the Cascade, Lucky Nell, Harris Creek, Puyallup, Cracker Jack, and George (Bufvers 1967). A copper mine and smelting facility was established at the townsite of Hadley on the Kassan Peninsula in the early decades of the century (Roppel 1972). The Flagstaff Mine near Karta Lake was operated by Tom Stevens, the father of Wolf Creek boatworks owner Israel Stevens (Mobley 2000:7).

Development from fledgling industries in the area stimulated the logging industry as timber was needed in greater numbers to construct canneries, boatworks, and mine facilities. The early

method of logging was hand-logging, utilizing axes, wedges, and saws. Springboard notches were a common mark of trees cut by hand, as loggers would notch the base of a tree to place a horizontal support to facilitate cutting. Steam donkeys were eventually used to winch trees out to tidewater for transport (Mobley 1995:15).

A large variety of vessels were required to support these commercial activities. Larger vessels were typically built in larger shipyards along the coasts of the continent, however smaller vessels in the range of skiffs to seine boats 40' or more were often built locally (Charles and Carlson 1994:13). A number of commercial boatworks were established in Southeast Alaska during the early part of the century. The facilities often required extensive power and as a result were often sited near bodies of water with hydroelectric potential. A boatworks operated by Louis Jones at New Kasaan was established, but burned down in the 1940s (Autrey 1988). Another early boatworks was operated at Kasaan by James Peele (Autrey 1988).

In late 1939 Israel Stevens began residing on Forest Service land at the mouth of Wolf Creek under a special use permit. The Wolf Creek boatworks was built by Stevens in 1940 (CRG-346) at the mouth of Wolf Creek to the northeast of the community of Hollis (Figure 2). When Israel Stevens built the boatworks it was originally referred to as the Twelvemile Arm boat shop, the Wolf Creek name came later (Mobley 2000:12). The boatworks machinery was water powered and a flume system was setup to bring water from the creek (Figure 3). A wheel and generator were housed in a shed to the rear of the boatworks. Eventually a water turbine and generator were installed to provide electrical power. A cradle was built inside the open boatworks and eventually a marine rail and grid system was built along the north side of the building (Mobley 2000:19). Between 1946 and 1960 a sawmill was co-located with the boatworks and trees in the surrounding area were felled to build the boats (Mobley 2000:19). Between 1939 to 1951 Israel Stevens made small skiffs which he sold. Additionally he also built larger boats at the property for himself (Figure 4).

The boatworks changed hands several times between 1951 and 1994, although no boats were built during that period. In 1995 Sam Romey purchased the properties and began the process of restoring the buildings, power systems, and other improvements. Aluminum skiffs are being constructed in the boatworks for the purpose of commercial sale as of 2012.



Figure 2: The Wolf Creek Boatworks under construction in 1939 or 1940.



Figure 3: The flume bringing water to the boatworks.

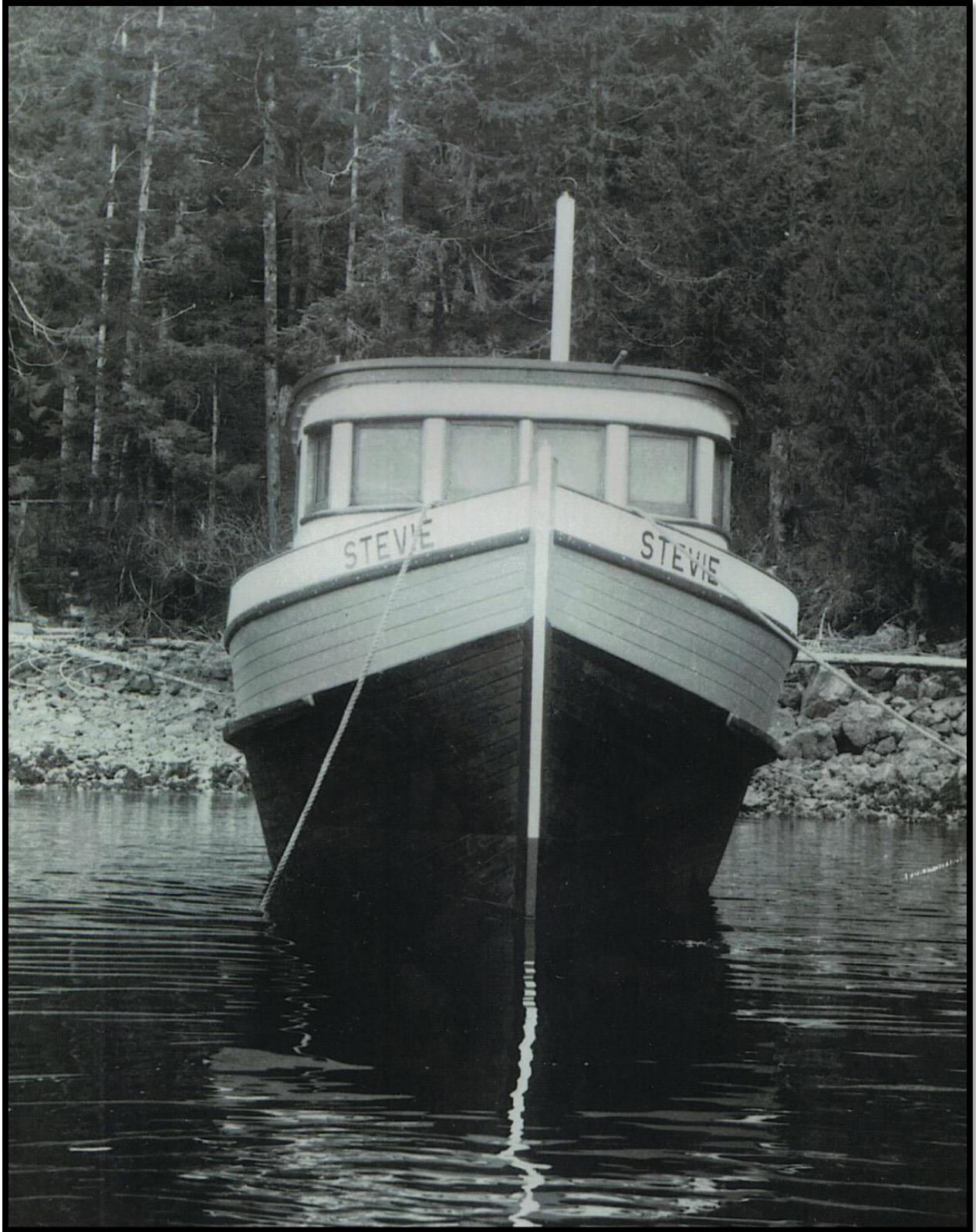


Figure 4: The *Stevie* the day after launch May 30, 1949.

Previous Investigations

There have been two previous cultural investigations of the Wolf Creek boatworks. John Autrey of the USFS wrote a determination of eligibility in 1986 and determined that the boatworks was eligible under Criterion A for the association with the broader marine industry of early Southeast Alaska and the importance the boat building played. Autrey also found the boatworks eligible under criterion D, stating that, “The Wolf Creek boat works is likely to provide information important to the history of the local area. This significance is derived through the relative integrity of the structure, machinery and power system. A boat works of this type may have been commonplace during its time, but the integrity should be considered a rarity today. There has been no systematic or organized documentation of the ship/boat building industry in Southeast Alaska. The documentation of this significant historical theme is a critical element in preserving the regional and local maritime heritage. For these reasons, the property is considered significant under criteria D and A and therefor, eligible for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places” (Autrey 1986:3).

In a 1988 report of the same name, but titled “amended” Autrey adds additional information on the history of the boatbuilding industry in Southeast Alaska, but removes his recommendation for eligibility under criterion D, stating only, “This machinery is still in place and potentially operable. While improvements have been made over the years including repairs, the marine ways have deteriorated and the structure and equipment is not significant for architectural or other values under criterion D. The Wolf Creek boatworks does not contain archaeological information important to the prehistory/history of the local area or the Region and is therefore not considered significant under criteria D” (Autrey 1988:6).

No other information is provided to support the statement that the boatworks does not contain archaeological information important to the prehistory/history of the local area. No mention of a site visit or methods of inspection are given.

Charles M. Mobley investigated the site in 2000 as part of a potential hydroelectric effort that was never constructed. Mobley conducted archival and oral history interviews, and recorded the Wolf Creek boatworks and house as well as 26 culturally modified trees (CMT) in the immediate area (Mobley 2000).

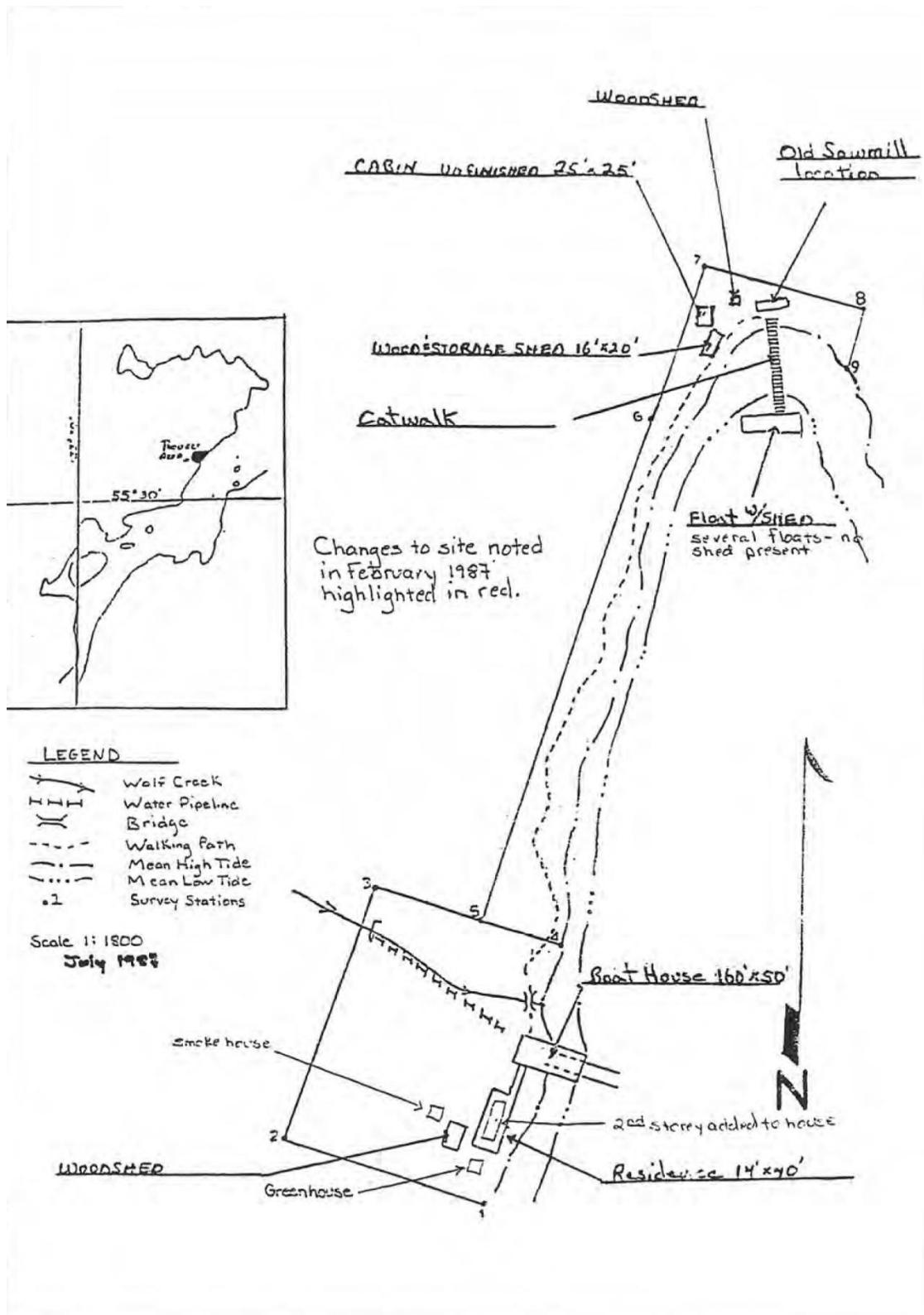


Figure 5: Sitemap drawn by John Autrey in his 1988 report.

Fieldwork

Charles Ottar Mobley traveled to Prince of Wales Island to meet with Wolf Creek Boatworks owner Sam Romey on May 1st with the purpose of conducting an archaeological survey to find the boundaries of CRG-346 and document contributing features. Over the course of two days, architectural and archaeological features were investigated at the property.



Figure 6: The boatworks is at bottom left while the sawmill site is just above the tree line north of the dock in upper right.

Investigations began at the boatworks building CRG-346 (Figure 7) which is still in good condition and changed little since 1986 when Autrey made his determination of eligibility. All of the original equipment is still housed within the building, and while modern aluminum skiffs are now built in the boatworks, the building still serves the same function as it did in 1940.



Figure 7: The Wolf Creek Boatworks CRG-346 is in good upkeep and remains mostly unchanged since it was built in 1940.



Figure 8: Modern boatbuilding tools sit inside the boatworks building, while original overhead pulley power systems remain in place in the background.

The house adjoining the boatworks was also inspected. The house replaced Israel Steven's original log cabin sometime before 1951, as the newer house was standing when Stevens sold their interest in the Wolf Creek property to John Stacker for \$1,500 and the log cabin was no longer there (Mobley 2000:21). The house that stands today also incorporates an addition that was likely done in the early 1980s after the property was sold to Dan and Brenda Kulin. The original house included a partial second story and measured 17' 4" by 13' 4" and was built much the same way as the boatworks building with board and batten siding. The addition kept the same width of 13' 4" and added an additional 20' to the length keeping the same one and a half stories. A woodshed was added to the northwest side of the cabin, also likely during the early 1980s. Both the house and the boatworks were converted from board and batten siding to wood shingle sometime between 1951 and 1980. As they both stand today the exterior siding of both the boatworks and house are matching wood shingles. When Autrey conducted his initial eligibility nomination in 1986 the house was not of a sufficient age to be considered eligible. However, in 2015 the original structure is now 64 years old, and while some addition and cosmetic changes have occurred over the last 6 decades, the structure retains many of the same structural and cosmetic features as when it was built.



Figure 9: View of west gable end of the house looking east with boatworks in the background.

Survey in the area around the boatworks discovered several types of features, some previously documented by Mobley in 2000 and others that have not been previously recorded. These features were, 1) the dam and wood stave water line that provided water to the powerhouse at the boatworks, 2) the remains of the sawmill that used to stand nearby providing lumber for the construction of the boats, 3) historic artifacts (can scatters, machinery parts, power transmission equipment), and lastly 4) culturally modified trees (CMT) both historic and some that were likely Alaska Native in origin.



Figure 10: The dam serves as the water source for the power system at the Wolf Creek Boatworks.

The dam that provides the source of water for the original pelton wheel is still used (Figure 10). While upkeep on the dam has been necessary through the years, it still sits in the same spot on the creek and looks much as it would have 70 years ago. A number of smaller dams and catchment boxes were also observed along various sections of the creek.

The original wood stave pipe that brought water down from the dam to the powerhouse still exists. Some sections of the pipe have had to be replaced by steel and modern HDPE, although in some places modern pipe has been strung through the original wood stave to maintain the original appearance (Figure 11).



Figure 11: In some places the original wire wrapped wood stave water line has had modern HDPE pipe strung through.

The sawmill was located to the north of the boatworks just back from the shoreline on the cove. While the structure of the sawmill is no longer standing, artifacts from the operation are evident in the area (Figures 12 & 13).



Figure 12: Cast iron artifact on the ground surface in the location of the sawmill.



Figure 13: Abandoned sawn lumber in the location of the sawmill.

Numerous can scatters, cables, wires, and other historical artifacts were found on the surface and partially buried throughout the area of the boatworks (Figures 14-17).



Figure 14: This winch with attached Dodge engine is located near the sawmill site.



Figure 15: This Chevron RPM oil can was found near the sawmill site.



Figure 16: The remnants of a MJB Coffee can located near the sawmill site.



Figure 17: Ceramic insulators still hold electrical wire strung between the sawmill site and the boatworks.

A number of culturally modified trees were found in the area surrounding the Wolf Creek boatworks. Some of them showed clear axe marks and springboard notching (Figure 18), while others were burned out (Figure 19), and some were bark stripped (Figure 20).



Figure 18: Axe cuts mark this cedar located near the boatworks.



Figure 19: This CMT appears to have been burned out as a method of felling.



Figure 20: This CMT has been bark stripped.

Recommendations

The 2015 field investigations at the Wolf Creek boatworks were successful in identifying additional cultural resources not previously reported. We suggest that Autrey's original finding that the Wolf Creek boatworks is eligible to the National Register under criteria A and D are indeed correct. The Wolf Creek boatworks does have important historical and archaeological information to yield and the 2015 field survey indicates that features are numerous. We further recommend that the AHRS number CRG-346 be expanded to include the associated house and other architectural and archaeological features associated with the property during the period of significance as they are a collective site. The culturally modified trees located during the survey demonstrate a long pattern of timber use in the area of the boatworks. In 2000 Mobley discussed the possibility that the CMTs located in the survey area may be eligible to the National Register; however, the precedents set by previous determinations of eligibility of CMTs on forest service land make it difficult to make determinations without extensive sub surface testing to demonstrate associated artifacts. Therefore, no recommendations are made in regards to the CMT collection in the surrounding area.

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ADCRA

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