AGRICULTURAL AND DOMESTIC OUTBUILDINGS IN CENTRAL AND WESTERN KENTUCKY, 1800-1865

by

Rachel Kennedy and William Macintire

Kentucky Heritage Council
The State Historic Preservation Office
Cover: Storage Building, Spring Valley Farm, Bourbon County, Circa 1860.

Back Cover: Beamer Springhouse, Nelson County, Circa 1830.

Cover Background Drawing: Beamer Springhouse, Front Elevation.

Foreword

The preservation of Kentucky’s historic resources begins with research and an understanding of the important role historic buildings and sites play in community life, economic development, and in interpreting our past. The Kentucky Heritage Council, the State’s Historic Preservation Office, has been gathering information on Kentucky’s historic resources for over thirty years, and currently has data on more than 50,000 sites in the Kentucky Historic Sites Survey. Many of the significant sites have been listed in the National Register of Historic Places. The Survey and the National Register serve as planning tools and as an archive of our architectural and cultural heritage. The Heritage Council is pleased to have an opportunity through this publication to make some of its research available to the public.

This booklet is intended to complement our 1999 State Fair exhibit, “Agricultural and Domestic Outbuildings in Central and Western Kentucky from 1800 to 1860.” Because this year’s Fair focuses on the nineteenth century, we found it appropriate to examine the way most Kentuckians made their living in the 1800s—through farming. There has been a great deal of research done on the nineteenth century farmhouse in Kentucky. Certainly, there is much more work that needs to be accomplished. However, Kentucky’s outbuildings, that is structures that were necessary for farming operations in the 1800s, have rarely been studied or recorded in field work. More alarmingly, as they were built for specific purposes which have since become outdated, outbuildings are being destroyed at a brisk pace. The only way we can learn more about how outbuildings were used and what they looked like is to examine existing outbuilding structures. Thus, the more structures we lose, the more our knowledge of nineteenth century farming is limited. We hope that this study sparks interest in preserving these reminders of our agrarian past. As much as the farmhouse itself, outbuildings, like barns and smokehouses, can be adapted to accommodate modern uses. Long after the Fair is over, we hope that this booklet will not only provide useful information about 1800s Kentucky, but also fuel preservation of these fragile historic resources.

David L. Morgan
Executive Director and
State Historic Preservation Officer

Barn Window, Mercer County, Circa 1810-25.
Acknowledgments

This article would not have been possible without the encouragement and support of the staff members of the Kentucky Heritage Council, especially David Morgan, Richard Jett, Marty Perry, Julie Riesenweber, David Pollack, Donna Coleman, and Lynn Webb. Special thanks to Stephanie Darst with the State Fair Board, who edited and helped organize the “Agricultural and Domestic Outbuildings in Central and Western Kentucky from 1800 to 1860” exhibit. Thanks also to all the field workers who have documented Kentucky’s historic outbuildings, and to the owners of historic outbuilding structures who so graciously provided access to their properties. Scott Estes and James Black deserve credit for exorbitant time spent scanning and burning images onto cd-rom. Others who warrant special thanks include David Hall, Jane Julian, Lori Macintire, and Miss Jake. And on the other side corn.

Kentucky Heritage Council

The Mandate of the Kentucky Heritage Council is to identify, preserve, and protect the cultural resources of Kentucky. The Council also maintains continually updated inventories of historic structures and archaeological sites and nominates properties to the National Register of Historic Places. By working with other state and federal agencies, local communities, and interested citizens, the Council seeks to build a greater awareness of Kentucky’s past and to encourage the long-term preservation of Kentucky’s significant historic and cultural resources. Through its various programs (e.g., Main Street, Grants, Publications, Rural Preservation, African-American and Native-American Commissions, Civil War Initiative, Conferences), the Council strives to show how historic resources contribute to the heritage, economy, and quality of life of all Kentuckians. To learn more about the Council, write to: Kentucky Heritage Council, 300 Washington Street, Frankfort, Kentucky 40601, or visit our web site at www.state.ky.us/agencies/khc/khchome.htm.

Residence of Darius Downing, Maysville: The Old Home, from An Illustrated Atlas of Mason County, Kentucky (1876).
Introduction

Throughout the nineteenth century, the primary occupation for most Kentuckians was farming. While there were town-dwellers, artisans, and shopkeepers early on, the majority of Kentucky’s residents, slave or free, lived in rural areas and practiced agriculture. Certainly, farming was necessary for survival on the “western frontier.” But, agriculture was not just seen as a means for subsistence, it was a way to become wealthy and successful. Some Kentuckians were able to do just that. This essay will look at agriculture as practiced by middling to upper income farmers in central and western Kentucky from 1800 to 1865. In particular, the study will focus on agricultural and domestic outbuildings constructed by this group of Kentuckians. In this study, middling to upper income farmers includes those who owned over 100 acres of land, a substantial masonry or frame house, and a few slaves. “Middling” does not mean average; the majority of Kentucky farmers were probably living in one to two room houses, owned under 50 acres of land and no slaves. It was the successful farmers, however, who made the most impact on Kentucky’s landscape. They were the ones building stock barns, rock fences, and substantial houses. Thus, their influence has survived in material form for us to study. The buildings of the less affluent farmers have not, in general, endured.

To make clear how farming practices changed before the Civil War, two distinct eras will be discussed. The first epoch considered is the “late settlement period,” which ranges loosely from 1800 to 1820. “Settlement” is a misleading word, given that Native Americans had lived in Kentucky for thousands of years, but it is commonly used to

Hamilton Farm, Washington County, a “Middling” Outer Bluegrass Farm. The Hamilton Farm was developed by Alexander Hamilton in the Late Settlement Period. The initial dwelling was a two-room log house supplemented by few domestic outbuildings. No outbuildings from this period survive. The house and the farmstead grew to their present form over the course of the nineteenth century. This view is taken from an agricultural field looking toward the domestic yard: the division is marked by a rock fence. On the left is the house, a raised stone cellar is visible in the center front, and to the right, a backhouse. The slave house is in the center background.
refer to that period beginning about 1775 when whites and African-Americans began populating the area. Very few, if any outbuildings survive today that date before 1800. The second era examined will be the “antebellum period,” from about 1820 to 1865. Although settlement was a continual process, by about 1820, most of the land was claimed and farmed; a period of redevelopment began. This overview will be followed by a descriptive inventory of domestic and agricultural outbuildings. Other structures common to antebellum farming operations will be discussed in this section as well.

What are outbuildings?

Outbuildings are structures designed to perform specific functions away from the main house. Carl Lounsbury, architectural historian, defines an outbuilding as, “An independent, freestanding building generally associated with a dwelling house and designed for a specific, subsidiary purpose.” (Lounsbury 1994, 250). In other words, farmers, slaves, and housewives performed specific activities necessary for household economy in these buildings. There are basically two types of outbuildings: agricultural and domestic. The question arises as to why farmers needed so many different structures in addition to their main house. In the case of agricultural related structures, it is clear that farmers had to have buildings to house crops and animals separate from the house, such as stock barns, granaries, and corn cribs. In the case of domestic outbuildings, which were closer to the main house, the necessity for all these structures seems less clear. When
we remember, though, that there was no electricity, plumbing, or stoves on early farms, the reasons are more apparent. Domestic outbuildings removed heavy household work, with its odors, dirt, and danger of fire, from the main house. Some common domestic outbuildings are kitchens, smokehouses, and dairies.

**Regional Difference and Change**

There are at least ten cultural regions - that is, areas with similar histories and landscape elements - in Kentucky. Of these, this study will investigate material life in the Inner Bluegrass, the Outer Bluegrass, the Eden Shale Hills, and the Pennyrile Plains regions. The focus will be on these areas because they share similar agricultural and architectural histories, despite some dissimilarities. Differences between these regions were, initially, geographic in nature. The Inner Bluegrass, for example, has the largest amounts of the richly fertile Maury-McAfee soils. It is characterized by gently rolling hills and a limestone-rich topography. The Outer Bluegrass does not share the same proportion of high quality soils. Yet, it contains a moderate degree of fertile soils and a reasonably calm topography. The Eden Shale Hills are distinguished by thin clay soils and a rugged topography. The land is not as productive as either of the above mentioned areas. The Pennyrile Plains area, while not as fertile as the Bluegrass, is a region of gentle hills and good, well-drained soil, interrupted by
the occasional sinkhole. As could be imagined, settlement was more rapid in areas with better quality soils. The Inner Bluegrass, then, was peopled first, followed by the other regions based upon the potential for productive agriculture. It follows that the rate of settlement was not uniform for all of Kentucky. The time period in which farmers were able to make a comfortable living depended largely on when a settler arrived in Kentucky and in what region he/she obtained land: these factors in turn affected the types of buildings they constructed. Thus, the late settlement and antebellum time frames are used to show a general sketch of farming in central and western Kentucky.

The Late Settlement Period

Farming in the first decades of the nineteenth century was, in general, at the subsistence level. The early farmer had much work to accomplish before the land could reach even partial productivity. The first task that farmers in all regions of Kentucky faced was clearing the land of trees and brush. This could be a very arduous undertaking. Trees had to be girdled, that is, the bark and the cambium had to be cut away, in order to kill the tree. Then, the roots had to be cut and the stumps pulled up. It could take several years of hard physical labor to prepare a medium sized lot for cultivation. In the meantime, farmers grew small plots of corn, beans, and squash for their own consumption. Game caught in wooded areas, along with various breads, provided the remainder of their sustenance. (Harrison and Klotter 1997, 137).

Fencing was also a priority during this period. From trees removed from the fields, farmers shaped and placed wooden fencing around the perimeter of their holdings. More fencing followed, enclosing crop fields and pastures as they were improved. In early Kentucky, fences were used to keep stock from wandering off the property and from destroying agricultural yields. Bourbon County tenant farmer Martin Davis wrote to landowner Green Clay, of Madison County, about this difficult process in 1825, “We are all well and at work on our fence as hard as we can I have got about 3 hundred paniels done ten rales high I am determen to have the best fence in the nabourhood before I quiet” (Murray-Wooley and Raitz 1992, 111).
This last quote illustrates a very important point about agriculture in early Kentucky. The Virginia Legislature, by which Kentucky was governed until statehood in 1792, compensated Revolutionary War veterans with land grants in the Kentucky territory. Many of these individuals had either no intention of settling the land or had land elsewhere in Kentucky. Thus, these landowners found tenants, like Martin Davis, who would improve and farm the land themselves. (Riesenweber 1990, 12). By the end of the settlement period, landholders or their children had moved onto the property or sold it to tenant farmers. Thus, tenancy rates, which had been quite high, declined over the settlement period.

Simultaneous with improvement of the land, Kentucky farmers deliberated about what buildings they needed and where to place those buildings. Easy access to water was preferred, as rivers, creeks, and streams provided drinking, cooking, and laundry water. Additionally, waterways furnished the best mode of cheap transportation, as roads during this era were unpaved and difficult to traverse. Typically, settlers chose housing sites on high ground, yet still in proximity to streams. Dwellings on settlement era farms were usually small, one to two room affairs with direct entry into the family’s primary living space. Oftentimes, families slept, cooked, ate, worked, and entertained in the same room. Cooking, though, was considered a heavy domestic task; it generated a lot of heat, smoke, and odor as well as the danger of fire. When possible, this task was removed from the main dwelling house. Detached kitchens, slave/servant houses, smoke and meat houses, and springhouses comprise the most common domestic outbuildings of the time. Frequently, these outbuildings were arranged in a courtyard-like pattern at the rear of the main house. The pattern that the buildings form is remarkably consistent throughout central and western Kentucky. In general, domestic yards contained few outbuildings in the settlement period.

Agricultural outbuildings were few in number as well. The typical settlement era farmer might have a corn crib and/or a multi-purpose shelter for stock, threshing, and grain storage. It was not common for

*Threshing Grain, from the Western Farmer’s Almanac (1835)*
Kentuckians to build specialized barns for cattle or crops until the mid-1800s. Nor was it typical for Kentucky farmers to furnish any sort of year-round housing for stock. Until the advent of a scientific agriculture, most farmers believed that stock could withstand Kentucky’s temperate climate. Barns or cribs of this era were usually situated outside the fenced domestic yard in field or pasture lots. Of course, the ability to construct outbuildings differed according to the time settled and agricultural and financial success.

Kentucky’s settlement era agriculture was diverse in nature. Corn, wheat, and livestock were cultivated primarily for local markets or the farmstead itself. As the farm developed, surplus products, including butter, hams, eggs, and corn whiskey, were exchanged for necessities like salt and tools. (Harrison and Klotter 199, 134). Given the poor quality of early roads, few products were marketed on a regional or national level. Only commodities of considerable value were shipped over a long distance. In Kentucky, crops that returned investment upon shipping were tobacco and hemp.

The production of hemp was hard, dirty work which was usually attended to by slaves. In fact, the counties with the most hemp cultivated were the areas with the largest concentrations of slaves. (Hopkins 1951, 24-30). While tobacco processing was not as labor intensive nor as profitable, it too was attended to by slaves. (Hopkins 1951, 27). In western Kentucky, where it was intensively cultivated, the proportion of slaves to free whites was extremely high. In general, the number of slaves held appears to relate to the production of market-oriented crops and not to the amount of land owned and farmed. Of course, not all slaveholders grew hemp and tobacco. Nevertheless, even on smaller farming operations, slaves performed some of the most difficult and necessary tasks. Often, they cleared and fenced the land and aided with heavy agricultural and domestic tasks. The majority of the state’s residents, however, owned no slaves.
The Antebellum Period

Agriculture in the antebellum period was based upon a diverse array of crops and livestock, similar to those cultivated in the settlement period. Corn, wheat, oats, hemp, tobacco, cattle, and mules were raised in all of Kentucky’s cultural regions before the Civil War. (Harrison and Klotter 1997). The main difference between the two eras was in the larger amount of land under cultivation, the availability of regional and national markets, and, in turn, the increasing prosperity for Kentucky farmers. These successes were due, in part, to the construction of level, macadamized (paved with crushed stone) turnpike roads, which led to shipping points on the Ohio, Kentucky, Green, and Cumberland Rivers. Toward the end of the antebellum time, in the 1850s, the construction of railroads made it even more affordable for Kentucky farmers to deliver their goods to a national market.

Springdale Stock Farm, Mayslick, Mason County, Kentucky, from An Illustrated Atlas of Mason County, Kentucky (1876), two details. In this unusual view, the back of the dwelling house is surrounded by subsidiary buildings, including a kitchen in the back wing, a smokehouse or meathouse behind the kitchen, and other buildings. This bustling domestic yard is surrounded by a pale fence. The building in the yard behind the house is a stable. Other buildings for crop and stock are spread out in the fields beyond the domestic yard.
There would have been no need, however, for extra-local markets without the acceptance of scientific agriculture. (Raitz 1975). In sum, wealthy, college-educated gentlemen farmers promoted more rational and efficient methods of both farming and arrangement of farmstead complexes. These ideas, whether learned in school or from agricultural improvement journals, were publicized throughout the general populace in a number of ways. For example, gentleman farmers would lend their prize, blooded stock for breeding purposes, thus improving regional cattle quality. They also founded local agricultural societies and fairs and counseled their neighbors on ways to improve farming operations. The result was an increase in crop yields and cattle quality. For example, the average weight of cattle increased from 450-500 pounds in 1793 to 900-1000 pounds in 1836. (Harrison and Klotter 1997, 136). While there were certainly other factors that stimulated improvements on Kentucky farms, the contributions of gentlemen farmers to the state’s agricultural practices can hardly be overstated. Agricultural improvements were initiated in the Bluegrass region—the area with the most fertile farmland. From there, these ideas spread throughout the state.

While in the settlement period differences in agricultural economy among Kentucky’s regions were fairly minimal, by the antebellum time clear distinctions had emerged. For example, farms in the Inner Bluegrass were larger than farms in any other area. A comparison of farm size between the Inner and Outer Bluegrass finds the amount of profitable middling level farms at 51% in the Inner Bluegrass and at 41% in the Outer Bluegrass. (Riesenweber 1993, 22). Additionally, farmers in the Inner Bluegrass consistently held the largest proportion of slaves working the land. In general, prosperity meant that Kentuckians were able to purchase more land and slave labor, and to construct more buildings.

Building types reflected the new affluence fostered by scientific agricultural practices. Agricultural outbuildings began to be constructed for particular purposes. It was thought that planning for a single objective, as opposed to a “hodge-podge” of functions, would lead to a rational use of space and, thus, savings in time and money. (Herman 1987). As could be imagined, gentlemen farmers built the first experimental stock, mule, and horse barns in the 1830s and 40s. It was not common, however, for middling farmers to erect such structures until the years immediately before the Civil War. Some of the new agricultural buildings planned and constructed in the antebellum period include stock barns, granaries, chicken houses, and stables for mules and horses. Oftentimes, the plans for these structures were taken from agricultural betterment magazines with some adjustments for the situation of the particular farmer. Agricultural outbuildings
were most often placed outside the domestic yard, adjacent to the field crops or stock pasture, depending upon what purpose the barn was intended to serve. The sole exception to this rule was the placement of chicken houses, which were always in the domestic yard. The care of chickens and hens was considered a female activity and, thus, the building was situated within the woman’s sphere. Of course, not all farmers could afford to construct these buildings.

Farm Scene, from *The Freeman’s Almanac* (Cincinnati, 1836). This illustration shows a farm woman feeding chickens in the domestic yard and a child watching from the doorway of a building to the left. The yard beside this building - it may be a house or an outbuilding - is enclosed with a pale fence, beyond which a man works at some task. The domestic yard is separated from agricultural fields by a post and rail fence. The farmer plows the fields with a team of mules. Two sheep are pasturing in the fields. On the horizon is a view of another farm, which could be intended as a distant view of the same farm. It has one house, and one outbuilding—a multi-purpose barn.

*Isaac Miller Farm, Spencer County, Circa 1820-60, Site Plan.* An example of a late settlement period farm that grew over the course of the nineteenth century. Domestic work buildings are clustered around the main house, while agricultural buildings are farther out, convenient to the fields. The site is situated close to water and a transportation route. Drawing by William Macintire after Gibson Worsham.
Specialized domestic outbuildings appeared early on. As functions like cooking and food and cloth processing were removed from the main residence, they gained separate buildings of their own. This separation of functions occurred as soon as the farmer was financially successful enough to afford outbuildings. While there were domestic outbuildings in the settlement period, farmers constructed many more domestic outbuildings in the affluent antebellum years. Frequently, in Kentucky, a structure was built that maintained room divisions, but combined domestic functions under the same roof. For example, at the Hamilton Farm in Washington County, a “backhouse” was constructed which combined a smokehouse, food/cloth processing room, and possibly living quarters in the garret or attic. In Nelson County at the Doom House, there is a well house and dairy combination. By mid-century, the kitchen began to be incorporated into the main house. When the main dwelling was newly constructed, the kitchen and domestic work rooms were located in an ell at the rear of the house. If the main house and kitchen existed as separate structures, they were frequently joined by an open breezeway or passage addition. In both cases, however, heavy domestic work was placed at the rear of the dwelling and was considered a distinct zone within the house.

William Guyn House, Woodford County, Circa 1820-45. The oldest part of this house, the ell, dates from circa 1820. The kitchen, a single story section at the very back, was added to the end of this two-story log house around 1825-30. The front section, a fashionable frame house in the Greek Revival Style, was added about 1845, effectively converting the original house into an ell. The rooms in the original house, once living areas, were relegated to work space. Photograph by Jet Lowe, HABS.
Short-lived wooden fencing began to be replaced by more permanent rock fencing in the 1830s. (Murray-Wooley and Raitz 1992). Successful farmers employed Irish stonemasons to construct dry-laid rock fences around fields, pasture, and the perimeter of their holdings. Everything from small orchards to eighty-five acre pasture lots were surrounded by rock enclosures. Defining separate work lots was a priority for middling and upper level farmers, as it gave the farm an orderly appearance. Rock fences provided an attractive and permanent solution to the fencing problem. This type of enclosure, which could be very costly, visually demonstrated the farmer’s affluence.

By 1860, Kentucky had 83,689 farms; the majority of these farms were mid-sized operations which contained between 50 and 100 acres. (Harrison and Klotter 1997, 138). The 1850s was a decade of rapid agricultural improvements. The cash value of farms increased from $155 million in 1850 to $291 million in 1860. (Harrison and Klotter 1997, 138). By the eve of the Civil War, Kentucky ranked first among southern states in the production of rye, barley, horses, and mules; second in hemp, tobacco, corn, wheat, and sheep; third in hogs; and fourth in cattle. (Harrison and Klotter 1997, 138). Kentucky’s material landscape, i.e. the buildings and structures that characterized the region’s farms, had changed as well. From the one to two room houses and sparse domestic and agricultural complexes of the settlement period, the antebellum middling to upper level farmstead had been, in general, transformed into a landscape with numerous structures serving increasingly specific purposes. These outbuildings reflected the prosperity and scientific ideas guiding the development of the antebellum farmstead.
Domestic Outbuildings

Slave/Servant Quarters:
Very few slave quarters built for field hands still exist in Kentucky. Field quarters were usually situated at some distance from the main house, close by the crops where field hands worked. The rare survival of this housing could be due to poor quality of materials and techniques used in their construction. It is also possible that after the Civil War, field slave housing was not needed and was torn down.

There are, however, numerous examples of housing for domestic slaves remaining in the state. For several reasons, these houses tended to be of better quality than field quarters. One reason is that their location in the domestic yard made them more visible, so the quality reflected on the image of the farm. Another reason is that domestic slaves - housekeepers, drivers, and skilled workers such as carpenters - were considered more valuable than field slaves. These structures were usually built of log or frame and less often of brick or stone. Because of their durability, the masonry examples are encountered more regu-
larly today. It was typical for slave housing to be constructed with multiple units under the same roof. The saddlebag plan, in which at least two units are separated by a central chimney, was a common type of dwelling for household slaves. Also common was for slaves to be sheltered in the farmer’s initial settlement house, after a more elaborate dwelling was erected for the farmer and his/her family. Domestic slave housing is nearly always found in the houseyard, facing the main dwelling. Windows generally faced away from the main house.

Additionally, slaves lived in the garrets of domestic work buildings and in segregated rooms in the main house. In the latter case, slaves’ sleeping quarters were situated at the rear of the dwelling, cut off from the white family’s living spaces by design. Wherever their living spaces were, however, slaves had very little time to spend at their leisure. It might be more accurate to describe slave spaces as any building in which domestic or agricultural labor occurred.

**Backhouses:**
Backhouses are usually located in the domestic yard behind the main house, in proximity to the kitchen. Typically, they have two or more rooms and combine several domestic work functions in one building. These combinations vary from farm to farm, but include such tasks as spinning, weaving, washing, and food processing. Backhouses frequently have a sheltered porch so that some tasks, like washing, could be done outdoors during good weather. Sometimes the backhouse furnished living space for slaves or servants.

*Backhouse, Hamilton Farm, Washington County, Circa 1810-30. This backhouse combines a smokehouse and an unheated room with good window light. This room may have been used for such tasks as spinning, weaving, and food processing. A loft overhead may have been used as for living space or storage.*

*Saddlebag Slave House, Circa 1810 and 1840, Homeplace Farm, Woodford County. This structure began as a single pen log house on the left. It was probably the original dwelling of the farmer who later built a fashionable brick house. The log house was then expanded by adding a second pen - larger, but not as well finished - on the other side of the chimney.*

*Backhouse, Bourbon County, Circa 1820-30.*
Kitchens:

Two patterns of kitchen use were common in the states by the time of Kentucky’s settlement period. In the Northern states, kitchens tended to be located in a secluded room within the main house; often in an ell, back addition. In the South, kitchens tended to be separate structures, for a number of reasons, among them the heat and the desire to architecturally define boundaries between the white family and the slaves who did the cooking. Both traditions mingled in Kentucky, but the Southern one was most common until mid-century.

Kitchens were perhaps the most important outbuildings on Kentucky’s antebellum farms. Usually located behind or to the side of the main house, the detached kitchen was commonly a rectangular or square shaped, one-to one-and-a-half story log, frame, or masonry structure with a large cooking fireplace and masonry chimney on the gable end. Although most surviving kitchens are constructed of stone or brick, it is likely that frame or log kitchens were built with more frequency, but have vanished due to fire or decay. Masonry kitchens are typically found on more upper-income farms, while frame and log kitchens were erected on more modest farms. Kitchens were usually no more than a single room with one entry door and at least one window. Occasionally, a small root cellar, for fruit and vegetable storage, was positioned at the foot of the hearth under a hatch in the floor. Interiors were plastered or whitewashed. Although there might be a few shelves, there were typically no cabinets or counters. Kitchen furnishings were intended to serve for both storage and work surfaces. Sometimes, a kitchen was combined with other domestic rooms under the same roof. Oftentimes, it served double duty as living space for one or more domestic slaves.

By the 1860’s, detached kitchens began to be appended to the rear of the main house. Following the trend in new construction, in which the kitchen would be located in an ell at the back of the house, the builder would join the two structures through an open breezeway or enclosed passage. This occurred at the Hardin House in Owen County, above and right, when the 1830’s log kitchen was attached to the house around 1870.
Kitchens were used for soap making, laundering, and sewing as well as food preparation. Cooking was usually done in a large fireplace (approximately 5-6 ft wide by 2-3 ft deep) in an iron kettle suspended over a wood fire or in pans and dutch ovens set over coals. A crane was used to move the heavy iron cookware into and out of the hearth area. Stoves were not common in Kentucky before the Civil War. One “cooking stove” is listed in the estate of Gabriel Farnsley of Jefferson County in 1849, and at $18.00, it was one of the most valuable items he owned--nearly as valuable as a horse.

**Cellars:**

Cellars afforded year-round storage space for fruits, vegetables, vinegars, and ciders. These structures were usually dug out of the side of a hill or small rise and fitted with masonry walls. An arched masonry dome, often covered with grass, is typically the only element visible from the exterior. In Kentucky, dry-laid stone work was the preferred form of masonry. Entrance to the cellar was gained through a door near the center of the dome. If the cellar was not built into the side of the hill, then stairs were required to reach the pit storage area. Flooring in the cellar was usually earth.

Small root cellars are sometimes found in kitchens or other domestic work buildings. In this instance, a small masonry-lined pit is accessible from a hatch in the floor boards of a domestic outbuilding. The type of foods preserved in these smaller cellars was the same as in the larger free-standing root cellars.
Smokehouses and Meathouses:
Smokehouses and meathouses provided two different ways to preserve meat. It is not certain why some farmers chose to salt/pickle their meat in meathouses and some decided to smoke theirs in a smokehouse. There does not appear to be a pattern based on income, social status, geography, or ethnicity that would explain the decision. In any case, smokehouses were the more versatile structures, because they could be adapted for either curing process. Meathouses, which were normally not ventilated, could not be used to smoke meat.

Smokehouses:
Smokehouses were structures used to shelter the meat curing process. Typically, these buildings were square or rectangular, one-to one-and-a-half-stories in height, constructed of brick or stone, and less frequently of log or frame. Covered by a pyramidal or gable roof, the smokehouse employed ventilation (a few bricks or stones were removed) near the top of one wall to provide oxygen for the fire. In order to preserve meat for long-term periods, a pit, of at least two feet in depth, was excavated. Next, wood was placed in the pit and set afire. Meat was then hung from S-hooks near the center of the structure. A slow smoke cured the meat. Smokehouses were among the first outbuildings constructed on early Kentucky farms.
Meathouses:
Meathouses were also constructed to shelter the meat curing process. Typically, meathouses are one-to one-and-a-half-story log, masonry, or frame structures with an entrance on the gable end. On the interior, meathouses have dirt or wooden floors and built-in tubs. The tubs, which were usually made out of hollowed-out logs, served as a container in which to salt or pickle the meat. No ventilation was needed in meathouses, because the process did not involve flame curing. Like smokehouses, these buildings were one of the first buildings erected on Kentucky farms.

![Meat House, Oldham County, Circa 1850, Section and Plan, above, and Photo, Right. The section drawing shows the braced framing of the meathouse with commercially milled lumber. The availability of affordable, mass-produced lumber gradually helped to phase out log construction. The plan shows the location of the hollowed log salting trough.](image)

Ice Houses:
Ice houses were built to store large quantities of ice over the spring and summer seasons. These structures were common only on wealthy farms in Kentucky; most Kentuckians did not have easy access to ice. Typically, a large circular pit was dug and brick or stone walls were erected to above ground level. The structure was oftentimes topped by a conical roof covered in wood shingles. Although the actual practice probably varied, the ice house floor was first blanketed in sawdust or straw. Then ice, gathered from frozen ponds or waterways, was loaded into the house. When the house was full, another layer of sawdust or straw was placed on top of the ice. The ice, which melted together to form a mass, was chipped away for use in drinks, food, and for medical purposes.

![Ice House, Ashland, Henry Clay Estate, Lexington, Circa 1830-40. Below, an ice house interior, Bourbon County.](image)
An interesting variant on the spring house and dairy is the Doom/Simpson well house and dairy in Bardstown, constructed circa 1830-40. The building has three sections under one roof: an open area with a stone-capped well and a bucket crank (at “A” - still in place, but later replaced by a pump), and two enclosed rooms, each ventilated by a barred opening. The room nearest the well, a dairy, functioned much like a springhouse. It had a trough (at “C”, now missing) that was filled directly from the well by means of a stone sluice (“B,” detail left) running through the wall. The original use of the dry room on the far right is less clear. It was later used as a smokehouse.

Springhouse/Dairy:
Springhouses are usually one-to one-and-a-half-story, square-shaped, stone or brick structures. Although there are examples built in log or frame from the second story up, springhouses were typically not constructed of wood, because they would rot. These buildings were situated at the head of a stream to protect the water source and to provide a constant supply of cool water for household uses. On the interior, flowing water was often channeled through a shallow trough(s) so that jars of milk, wine, cheeses, butter, and other foods could be kept fresh. Springhouses are always well-ventilated, as damp and mold could ruin food stuffs. Louvers or ventilators near the top of a wall furnished air circulation. When possible, spring houses were located close to the domestic yard for convenient access to the kitchen. However, these buildings had to be situtated on a stream; sometimes this meant that the structure was positioned far from the domestic yard.

Dairies are frequently associated with spring houses. When dairies occupy separate structures, they are small frame or masonry buildings, used for storage and processing of milk, butter, and cheese. Typically, they were well ventilated to help keep these products cool. The interiors of these buildings are often fitted with shelves and are usually plastered or whitewashed because this type of finish was thought to be cleaner. Separate dairies are not commonly found in Kentucky, suggesting that springhouses may have served this purpose.
Privies:
Privies are thought to be common outbuildings on Kentucky’s ante-bellum farms. Evidence has not been uncovered, however, to support this assertion. They are actually more likely to be found in towns, where the need for waste control and privacy is more critical. In any case, it appears that most rural Kentuckians, prior to the Civil War, did not use such structures. Privies, or necessaries as they were called, were most frequently found on upscale farms, before 1865. On Brutus Clay’s gentleman farm, Auvergne, there were two necessaries; one for men and one for women. Sometimes these structures were quite large and contained several seats. Necessaries were built of masonry, frame, or log. They were typically square or rectangular in form.

Springhouse/Dairy, Mercer County, circa 1830. This stone spring house has two segregated spring rooms on the ground floor and a plaster-finished dry storage room in the loft.

Privy, Hamilton Farm, Washington County, Late Nineteenth Century. This five-hole privy has two seats at a lower height to accommodate children.
Agricultural Outbuildings

Multi-Purpose Barns
Despite efforts toward specialization of barn types before the Civil War, the most common agricultural outbuilding found on early Kentucky farms was the generic multi-purpose barn. This barn is a large structure, usually built of frame or log, and sometimes even stone or brick (masonry examples are rare in Kentucky). It was used for a number of purposes, from stables to equipment or crop storage. Frame barns were usually built in bents, that is, cross-sectional trusses consisting of posts, connecting rails, and a rafter pair, which were assembled on the ground, then raised and connected in sequence. Log barns were built in pens, rectangular stacks of logs, and are characterized by the number of pens, usually single-pen, double-pen, or four-pen. Both log barns and frame barns were commonly expanded through the addition of sheds.

“Plan of a Permanent fodder house which will answer for Cattle, Hogsheads & pens of thrashed grain etc. 8 ½ feet high 12 feet between posts waggon to Run thru the Center,” Julian Account Book, circa 1812. Franklin County gentleman farmer Charles Julian sketched this plan for an English multi-purpose barn. It is unclear what he was trying to show with the little structures below the barn drawing: it may be a note on raising the barn in bents. Hogsheads are large barrels often used to store tobacco for shipping.
Barn Types
Like houses, barns are classified by architectural historians according to their shape, size, roof type, floor plans, and materials used in their construction. Most barns fall into a few basic types based upon these criteria. Of course, not all barns within a type share each and every characteristic element. There can be subtle variations among barns within each classification. Some barn types, such as the combined house/barn associated with European immigrants in the Dakotas, or the connected big house/little house/back house/barn of New England, have no known presence in Kentucky. Three barn types - the English Barn, the Aisled Barn, and the Bank Barn (which is really a subtype) account for most Kentucky barns.

English Barn
The English Barn type has doors opening on the center of the long side (not the gable ends). Inside is a tri-partite plan, a central drive flanked by storage areas. Often, the center area is open to the roof, while the side areas have lofts. That way, a cart can be driven in and hay conveniently unloaded into the loft storage area. Animals could be stabled in the areas below the lofts. The English barn is commonly associated with threshing (see below), but could also be used for other purposes. It may have been one of the most common types of barn in early Kentucky, though few examples survive from prior to 1830.

Aisled Barns
The most common type of barn seen today is the aisled barn. This barn has entries on either gable end, usually through a pair of large doors, and a long aisle down the center flanked by bays on either side. The traditional method was to raise this barn in bents. The barn became popular due to ease of construction and versatility. It lends itself to a number of uses - it can have a threshing floor in the center, and stables in the side bays, and there is room for storage of carriages and other equipment. The loft space is typically used for hay and grain storage.
Bank Barns:
Bank barns were designed to serve many purposes. They are called bank barns because they were built into the side of a hill or slope, so that the upper and lower stories of the building can be easily accessed without having to climb stairs. Hay and grain were stored in the upper story, which follows the English barn plan with a central threshing floor. The bottom floor, temperate by contact with the ground, was used to stable stock, particularly cattle. Often, there were shutters or chutes to allow hay and fodder to be dropped from above directly into racks in the cattle stalls below.

This form is most common in Pennsylvania and the mid-Atlantic. Immigrants from these regions probably brought it to Kentucky. The barn type is not common in Antebellum Kentucky. Most known examples are found in the Outer Bluegrass and Pennyrile regions. It may be associated with Dutch and German Settlers, although the Jackman/Gerig bank barn near Glasgow Kentucky (now demolished) utilized English framing techniques found in Virginia’s Tidewater region. This indicates that different cultural/ethnic traditions contributed to the form and plan of this particular barn.

Above: Jackman/Gerig Bank Barn, Glasgow, Kentucky, circa 1800-15, and Drawing of Rafter/Plate Assembly. The method used here of notching the rafters to an angled timber (called a tilted false plate) was used on Virginia Tidewater Houses as far back as the seventeenth century. By the early 1800’s, when this barn was constructed, this method had long been abandoned in house construction, but it was occasionally used in barns. The use of this framing technique in a Kentucky building whose form is of German-Pennsylvanian descent (bank barn) reflects the intermingling of different cultural ideas.

Bank Barn, Mason County, 1840-60. An English Barn type, banked.
Crop Storage Facilities

Corn Cribs:
Corn cribs were generally long, narrow structures that were designed to provide maximum air circulation, in order to dry corn. The most common type of crib was a single, rectangular log pen. Surviving examples tend to be of nicely finished hewn logs, but there is some evidence that pens of roughly-stacked split rails or round poles may have been typical. Framed corn cribs are not common in Kentucky until after the Civil War, when frame construction gradually replaced log. Corn cribs typically had at least two openings, secured with shutters; one near the top for loading and one near the bottom for unloading. Sometimes a shed was attached to one side of the crib to shelter a wagon. A more elaborate type, associated with larger farms, consisted of two pens, either of log or frame, which were separated by an open carriage drive. In some cases, the loft area of this central-drive corn crib was used for grain or other storage.
Granary, circa 1840-60, Oldham County. The building is elevated well above ground on a stone pier foundation.

Granaries:
On smaller farms, grains could be kept in the loft of the house or kitchen. Grain storage facilities could also be located in the lofts of multi-use outbuildings, above corn cribs or carriage houses. Farmers with greater storage needs, however, sometimes built granaries. Granaries are usually frame structures with tightly sheathed interior and exterior walls. Storing corn, wheat, rye, and oats required that the grain be kept dry and free of vermin. In most instances, granaries were designed to prevent pest infestation; typical measures included elevating the building well above ground, or placing some sort of barrier at the top of the foundation. Space on the inside was divided into bins which separated the various types of grain. These structures were not common in Kentucky until after the Civil War.

The Humphrey-Milton Granary, in Nelson County, of circa 1850-60, has a rough concrete-like chinking in the spaces between the studs, above the sill as high as the floor level (see below), to discourage rats from gnawing their way into the building. Wooden shutters allowed the building to be aired out during fair weather. The configuration of the interior could be easily changed by adding or removing partitions.

Granary, Julian Farm, Franklin County, circa 1820. A rare survival of an early, small granary.
**Hemp House:**
Hemp houses are generally one-and-a-half-to two-story masonry buildings, which are square or rectangular in form. Their shape is somewhat like a large smokehouse, however, hemp houses are not ventilated. These buildings are usually divided into two floors. The loft could be reached by an interior ladder stair. Use of these floors is unclear at this time. Although hemp farming was quite common on larger farms in antebellum Kentucky, there are very few remaining buildings that were devoted solely to hemp processing. It is possible that hemp farmers preferred to store hemp with grains and cattle.

**Threshing Barns**
One of the important tasks on the early farm was the threshing of wheat to remove the hulls from the seed. This process occurred on a threshing floor. Wheat was threshed on the floor in the central aisle of a barn by beating it with flails or by walking horses over it. Mechanical threshers were invented by the 1830s, but were not in common use until the 1860s. Gentlemen farmers were the first to use such mechanical tools in Kentucky.

*The “Cutting Up Barn,” Auvergne, Bourbon County, 1842. This small Granary and Threshing barn was completed the same year that owner Brutus Clay purchased a mechanical threshing machine. Although the barn was built so that it could handle manual threshing, Clay ultimately used it in conjunction with a threshing machine. The thresher could have been housed in one of the sheds and grain stored on the interior. The barn was also used for fodder, thus the name “Cutting Up Barn”.*
Tobacco Barns:
The air-cured Burley tobacco barn is a familiar site on the Kentucky landscape. Generally, tobacco barns are three-bay, five to ten bent, pole or frame structures with gable end doors and a small stripping room attached to one side. This barn type, however, was developed in the post-bellum era to accommodate the new strain of White Burley tobacco. Most tobacco barns used today are from the twentieth century.

Prior to the Civil War, Kentucky farmers grew dark tobaccos, either air or fire-cured, as a part of a diversified grain, hemp, and stock farm economy. Tobacco was primarily an export commodity; its production was labor-intensive, so it tended to be confined to larger farms with available slave labor. Antebellum air-cured barns do not commonly survive. It is likely that some of the early log-pen barns, however, may have been used for this purpose; long poles could simply be inserted between the logs to hang tobacco. Such barns tend to be multi-purpose, with uses related to stock or corn on the ground level, and hay, grain, or tobacco storage in the loft.

The fire-cured tobacco barn may have been a more common building type. These structures are usually square, one-and-a-half-to two-story buildings, which were typically constructed of log. To cure the tobacco, a small, smoldering fire was set on the floor of the barn. The tobacco was then hung above the flames. Smoke escaped through vents in the roof of the barn. While dark burley tobacco was grown in the Bluegrass regions, it appears to have been heavily cultivated in the Pennyrile area of Western Kentucky.
Animal Housing

Stables:
Ebenezer Stedman, recalling his visit to a trapper’s log cabin in about 1822, in present day northern Grant or Southern Kenton County, describes the simplest sort of stable that could exist: “By The Cabbin there was a Small patch of Corn. On the Side of that was a Rail pen Coverd with Corn Stalks. This was his Stable & the ondly Building, if I might Call it Such, out side The house.” By “rail pen,” Stedman probably meant a square-shaped stack of roughly split rails such as those used for fencing, with a door or an opening on one side. Simple structures like this may have been the most common means of penning animals. This could account for the fact that few stables survive from antebellum times. Those that are still around exist on the more substantial antebellum farms; they were probably not the type of stable used by most early Kentucky farmers. The log pen barn may have been the most common type of early stable, built for other purposes, but adapted for stableage when the weather was fierce.

By the 1830s or 40s, however, Kentucky farmers began to construct specialized stables with stalls and mangers fitted out for the particular type of animal housed there, such as mules, cows, horses, and sheep. Sometimes the animals were kept in separate stable buildings, but

Stable or Storage Building, Springhill, Clark County, Circa 1795-1820. Although the original use of this building is uncertain, it does have the appearance of an early small stable.

Log Stable, Shelby County, Circa 1820-30. More substantial than the simple rail pen, the hewn log barn was a common site in early Kentucky. These barns usually served many functions, including storage of crops and carriages.

Rail Pen (Double Crib), Metcalfe County, circa 1880-1910. Early stables like the one described by Ebenezer Stedman may have looked much like this, with a thatched or split shingle roof rather than a tin roof. When wrought iron hinges were unavailable, leather or wood was used.
oftentimes they were sheltered together. The typical stable floor plan had two rows of stalls on either side of a central aisle. Frequently, the loft floor was used for hay or grain storage.

The trend towards more elaborate and stylish stables, constructed especially for thoroughbred stock, such as those commonly seen in the Bluegrass regions, began in the decades after the Civil War. The stables depicted in the 1875 Mason County Atlas, for example, are sturdy but not elaborate--although the patrons depict their prize-win-
“Bull Lot Barn,” Auvergne, Bourbon County, Circa 1840-60. This stable for bulls has a simple plan of stalls and hay racks under a gable roof with a hay loft overhead. It was built partly resting on a rock fence - the remaining foundation is of earth-fast posts. Drawing by Howard Gregory.

Model Cottage Stable, from A. J. Downing’s *The Architecture of Country Houses* (1850). Downing helped popularize the Gothic Revival architectural style, and encouraged farmers to extend the style beyond the house to the farm buildings.

Sheep Barn, Hamilton Farm, Washington County, Circa 1900-10. This sheep barn looks much like a stable for larger cattle, except it is scaled for sheep.

Stables became more specialized with the advent of scientific farming. Separate buildings for sheep, cows, bulls, horses, and mules could be found on larger estates such as Brutus Clay’s Auvergne. Popularized through publications, agricultural fairs, and almanacs, such specialization spread to middling and lower income farms through the second half of the century.

Sheep Shearing, from *The Freeman’s Almanac* (1836).
Chicken houses:

Chicken houses, also known as hen, fowl, or poultry houses, rarely survive from the antebellum period, so little is known about their early form. In many cases, chickens were allowed to run free in the yard and roosted in trees or shrubs. A.J. Downing, in *The Architecture of Country Houses* (1850) calls for the better management of fowl, our “companions at once so vexatious and so indispensable,” complaining of “he who leaves his chickens to make a hen-roost of all things sacred and profane.” Farmers who chose to house chickens probably kept them in small rectangular or square buildings of frame or log with built-in roosting boxes. These structures were usually located convenient to the house near the edge of the domestic yard, as the care of chickens was the domain of women and children. The standard chicken house with overhanging slanted roosting areas appeared by the middle of the century, under the influence of scientific agricultural ideas. It was not adopted by most Kentucky farmers, however, until after the Civil War.
Miscellaneous Structures

Carriage Houses:
Carriage houses come in a range of sizes and types. The urban carriage house is perhaps the most familiar version: a frame or masonry building often with an apartment overhead. The rural examples tended to be plainer, often nothing more than a long frame shed open on one side, or a shed attached to the side of a barn. Typically, farmers had several types of vehicles (and later in the century, machinery) which required storage, including buggies, wagons, plows, harrows, sleds, and reapers. Specialized buildings for this purpose were rare in the earlier part of the nineteenth century; a buggy and a wagon could always be stored in the aisle of a barn or corn crib if there was no shed. As agricultural machinery became available toward mid-century, farmers desired more storage space. Because of the substantial financial investment involved, buildings began to be designed to shelter the new mechanical items. These structures were often multiple purpose in nature, as was the case with the Hamilton Farm carriage house of 1877 which functioned as a granary and tack room. Carriage storage was also frequently combined with stables.
Shops:
Shops are primarily found on the farmsteads of wealthy Kentuckians. No doubt, there were spaces in which farmers could repair items on middling level operations, whether tucked into the corner of a barn or in a room in the backhouse. However, separate buildings constructed solely for this purpose are rare on middling income farms. The simplest shop buildings would have a bench and a collection of tools for simple repairs. More elaborate shops would include forges for blacksmith work, in which to shoe horses and repair wagons. Very few free-standing shop buildings survive from this period. Therefore, typical forms and construction materials are not known at this time. Perhaps the blacksmith shop on the Guyn property in Woodford County represents a common type of shop. The building is a double-cell (two room) log and frame structure with a stone/brick forge and a dirt floor. At Auvergne in Bourbon County, a small log blacksmith shop was said to exist on the west yard fence between the grain house and the “small house.” A vinegar shop and a leather shop were also found on the farmstead. Nothing is known of their appearance.

Cemeteries:
In early Kentucky, family cemeteries were commonly surrounded by a low stone wall, or a wood or iron fence. Although burial grounds can be found adjacent to the main house, cemeteries were usually located at a distance from the main dwelling. Slaves were buried in a separate cemetery, apart from their white owners.
Fencing

Massed Fences:
Massed fences are enclosures created by grouping smaller elements into a larger whole. Basically, assorted items cleared off the land during improvements were massed together to form a barrier. These items could be anything from branches to tree stumps. These fences were probably typical of the very early settlement periods in Kentucky, as they were not durable. Not all massed fencing was intended to be semi-permanent in nature. Rock fences are massed enclosures which were built to symbolize durability and wealth. (See rock fence section for description).

Wooden Fencing

Virginia Rail Fence:
This type of enclosure, also known as a worm fence, was probably widely used on early Kentucky farms. The fence consisted of five to fourteen stacked rail sections which were set on a similarly sized rail section at the corners. A fairly wide angle between the sections was preferred as it led to structural stability. Stakes were oftentimes placed crossways at the juncture of the two sections and a rider rail connected the stakes on either side of the fencing panel. Because Virginia Rail fences did not have posts set in the ground, they were easily moved as the farmer saw fit. The main drawback to the worm fence was the amount of land consumed by the necessary wide angles; in some cases a corridor ten feet wide was required.
Post and Rail Fencing:
The post and rail fence was also widely used on Kentucky’s antebellum farms. Basically, this type of enclosure employed regularly spaced posts, which were mortised to receive split or sawn rails. The number of rails used depended upon the type of barrier sought. Obviously, the more rails placed on the fence, the more impenetrable the barrier. The choice between split or sawn rails appears to have been motivated by a concern for either haste or status. Sawn rails were more expensive to make and gave the fence a more finished look. Split rails were quicker to shape and did not convey a higher status. The post and rail fence, unlike the Virginia rail fence, was planned to remain in one position.

Pale Fencing:
A version of the post and rail fence is pale fencing. In this instance, the post and rail sections are covered on the more public face with sawn or split vertical upright members. As was the case with post and rail fencing, sawn members gave the impression of refinement. This type of enclosure was, perhaps, the most decorative of all wood fencing types. Elaborate finish could be added to the tops of the pales, such as points or arrow shapes; this would be most likely in an ornamental garden or front yard. Picket fences are closely related to this type of enclosure. With picket fencing, however, smaller, thinner sawn vertical pales were attached to a post and rail frame. Traditional pale fencing was considered more sturdy and less ornamental than picket fencing.
Rock Fences

Dry Laid Rock Fencing:
When wooden fences began to deteriorate, successful antebellum farmers replaced them with rock fences. Meant to convey a sense of status and permanence, rock fences enclosed orchards, crop fields, pastures, property lines, and road frontages. The most common type of rock enclosure was the dry-laid (without mortar) flat-coursed rock fence. Coursing is simply the way in which the rocks were laid in rows, one atop the other. Structural stability in a dry laid rock fence required that the rocks be tightly fit together with the joints resting on the middle of the rock immediately under it. Most nineteenth century rock fences had two faces which were held together by long tie-rocks. Coping, that is the use of triangular shaped rocks above the fence’s top course, is also typical of rock enclosures in the 1800s. The sharp edges created by the coping were probably intended to keep cattle from escaping. Most dry laid rock fences were battered, i.e. the fence became slimmer as it reached full height. Foundations are used to carry the weight of the fence.

Cross-Section of a Rock Fence. From Carolyn Murray-Wooley: Rock Fences of the Bluegrass, drawing by Murray-Wooley.
Earlier rock fences, between 1800 and 1840 approximately, utilized a full width cap course, regularly spaced tie rocks, and carefully packed rock spalls (chips) between the fence’s two faces. By mid-century, when economy became an issue, rock fences were built without a cap course, few tie rocks, and the longest side of the rock facing outward. (In earlier types, the longest side was oriented toward the fence’s interior). The turnpike fence, as the mid-nineteenth century fence is called by specialists, was also made cheaper by employing unskilled labor to pour rock chips between the faces.

Edge fences, which were also built to symbolize status and permanence, were commonly erected on hilly, less desirable agricultural lands. In particular, they are frequently found in the Eden Shale sub-region of Kentucky. Edge fences are dry-laid rock enclosures with diagonal coursing. For structural stability, the rock’s edges were wedged into the space between the rocks directly below. The coursing leans downhill. Other elements typical of this type of fencing are the large tie rocks and battered sides. The edge fence usually has no foundation or coping course.

*Edge Fence, Outer Bluegrass Region, 1850-75.* Edge fences are most often found in the hilly areas of the Outer Bluegrass region.
Selected Bibliography


Kentucky Heritage Council. Survey and National Register Files.


