

**PHASE II AND III ARCHAEOLOGICAL INVESTIGATIONS
OF THE FAIRLAND BRANCH SITE AND
THE JACKSON HOMESTEAD (SITE 18MO609)
INTERCOUNTY CONNECTOR PROJECT
MONTGOMERY COUNTY, MARYLAND
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The Maryland State Highway Administration (SHA) is constructing the Intercounty Connector (ICC), which will link areas between the Interstate 270 (I-270)/Interstate 370 (I-370) and Interstate 95 (I-95)/U.S. Route 1 (US 1) corridors in portions of Montgomery County and Prince George's County, Maryland. The ICC will be a state-of-the-art, multi-modal east-west highway that limits access and accommodates the movement of passengers and goods.

As part of the ICC project, URS Corporation (URS) contracted with ICC Corridor Partners to conduct Phase II and III archaeological investigations of Site 18MO609 (the Fairland Branch Site), which is located on the east and west sides of U.S. Route 29 (US 29) along the proposed ICC alignment in Montgomery County, Maryland. The site was approximately 4.45 hectares (11 acres), and was situated on ridges, terraces, and a floodplain overlooking the headwaters of Fairland Branch, a tributary of Paint Branch. The site is located within Maryland Research Unit 12, Potomac Drainage.

The Phase II and III investigations were conducted in compliance with the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966 (Public Law 89-665), as amended, the National Environmental Policy Act of 1969 (Public Law 91-190), and the Maryland Historical Trust Act of 1985, as amended (State Finance and Procurement Article 5A-325 and 5A-326 of the Annotated Code of Maryland).

Site 18MO609 is a multicomponent site that includes a series of short-term resource procurement camps dating from the Middle Archaic through the Late Woodland Periods. In total, 342 prehistoric artifacts were recovered during the Phase II and III investigations. No prehistoric features were identified. The historic component consisted of a nineteenth to early twentieth century African American homestead. Phase II investigations focused on both components, while the Phase III data recovery focused solely on the historic homestead component. The homestead is associated with Malinda Adams Jackson, a freed slave, and her family. The Jackson homestead includes three dwellings: the main Jackson family house and two less substantial dwellings. The main house was first constructed as a single-pen slave cabin and was expanded in the late nineteenth century. It burned catastrophically by ca. 1915. Nineteen historic features were identified and 160,491 historic artifacts were recovered from the site.

In addition to the normal range of artifacts recovered from historic domestic sites, a rich diversity of personal and religious artifacts provides information on aspects of life not always present or recognizable in archaeological contexts. Of particular significance are the artifacts associated with West African-derived spiritual practices. Two caches were identified within the chimney base and other ritual artifacts were found throughout the house. The quality, quantity, and diversity of artifacts also allow identification of activity areas and furnishings within the house. URS conducted extensive historic research, which, along with the archaeological data, provides a glimpse into life at the Jackson homestead, as well as into African American life in rural Maryland in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

1.0 INTRODUCTION	1
2.0 PROJECT LOCATION AND DESCRIPTION	7
2.1 Geology	7
2.2 Soils	9
2.3 Flora and Fauna.....	9
3.0 CULTURE CONTEXT.....	11
3.1 Prehistoric Context.....	11
3.1.1 Paleoindian Period (13,000–7500 B.C.)	11
3.1.2 Archaic Period (7500–1000 B.C.)	12
3.1.2.1 Early Archaic Period (7500–6000 B.C.)	12
3.1.2.2 Middle Archaic Period (6000–3500 B.C.)	13
3.1.2.3 Late Archaic Period/Transitional Period (3500–1000 B.C.).....	14
3.1.3 Woodland Period (1000 B.C.–A.D. 1600)	16
3.1.3.1 Early Woodland Period (1000 B.C.–A.D. 200)	16
3.1.3.2 Middle Woodland Period (A.D. 200–900).....	17
3.1.3.3 Late Woodland Period (A.D. 900–1600)	18
3.2 Historic Context	20
3.2.1 Euro-American Contact and Settlement Period (A.D. 1570–1680)	20
3.2.2 Rural Agrarian Intensification (A.D. 1680–1815).....	22
3.2.2.1 Early Development of Free African American Communities.....	25
3.2.3 Agricultural-Industrial Transition (A.D. 1815–1870)	26
3.2.3.1 Josiah Henson.....	31
3.2.4 Industrial Dominance (A.D. 1870–1930)	33
3.2.4.1 Church and Religious Life	34
3.2.4.2 Education.....	37
3.2.4.3 Political and Economic Development	38
3.2.4.4 The Fairland Community	40
3.2.5 Modern (A.D. 1930–Present)	45
3.3 Project Area History.....	47
3.3.1 Malinda Adams Jackson and Family	55
4.0 PREVIOUS INVESTIGATIONS	79
4.1 Archaeological Resources	79
4.2 Historic Structures.....	79
4.3 Cultural Resource Surveys	80
5.0 RESEARCH DESIGN	83
5.1 Objectives.....	83
5.2 Research Questions	83
5.2.1 Sociocultural/Socioeconomic Theme	83
5.2.2 Community/Spatial Pattern Theme.....	84
5.2.3 Consumer Pattern Theme	84
5.2.4 Regional Theme	84
5.3 Background Research Methods.....	85
5.4 Field Methods.....	85
5.4.1 Feature Excavation	86

TABLE OF CONTENTS

5.4.2	Geophysical Survey	86
5.5	Laboratory Methods	87
5.5.1	Prehistoric Lithic Artifacts	88
5.5.1.1	Identification of Raw Material Types	89
5.5.1.2	Cores and Tested Material	89
5.5.1.3	Flaked Stone Tools and Diagnostic Artifacts.....	89
5.5.1.4	Debitage	90
5.5.1.5	Ground or Battered Stone.....	93
5.5.2	Historic Artifact Analysis	93
5.5.2.1	Artifact Classification Scheme.....	94
5.5.3	Faunal Analysis	100
5.5.4	Flotation and Archaeobotanical Analysis	101
5.5.4.1	Flotation	102
5.5.4.2	Sorting and Identification.....	102
5.5.5	DNA Analysis.....	104
5.5.5.1	Background	104
5.5.5.2	Goals and Methods.....	105
5.5.6	Conservation	105
5.5.6.1	Conservation Ethics	106
5.5.6.2	Five-Step Conservation Process.....	107
5.6	Expected Results	107
6.0	RESULTS OF PHASE II EVALUATION.....	109
6.1	Locus A	110
6.1.1	Phase I Summary	110
6.1.2	Phase II Field Results	110
6.1.3	Phase II Laboratory Results.....	119
6.1.3.1	Cores and Tested Material	119
6.1.3.2	Flaked Stone Tools and Diagnostic Artifacts.....	120
6.1.3.3	Debitage	120
6.1.3.4	Mass Analysis and Gini Indices.....	122
6.1.3.5	Thermally Altered Materials	124
6.1.4	Locus A Lithic Analysis Summary.....	124
6.2	Locus B	125
6.2.1	Phase I Summary	125
6.2.2	Phase II Field Results	125
6.2.3	Phase II Laboratory Results.....	129
6.2.3.1	Cores	130
6.2.3.2	Flaked Stone Tools and Diagnostic Artifacts.....	130
6.2.3.3	Debitage	132
6.2.3.4	Mass Analysis and Gini Indices.....	133
6.2.3.5	Thermally Altered Material.....	135
6.2.4	Locus B Lithic Analysis Summary	136
6.3	Locus C	136
6.3.1	Phase I Summary	140
6.3.2	Phase II Field Results	140
6.3.2.1	Prehistoric Component.....	141

TABLE OF CONTENTS

6.3.2.2	Historic Component	144
6.3.3	Phase II Laboratory Results	150
6.3.3.1	Prehistoric Artifacts	150
6.3.3.2	Locus A, B, and C Prehistoric Artifact Summary.....	156
6.3.3.3	Historic Artifacts	158
6.3.3.4	Feature Artifacts and Artifact Distribution	169
6.4	Site 18MO609 Evaluation	169
6.4.1	Prehistoric Component	170
6.4.2	Historic Component.....	171
7.0	RESULTS OF THE PHASE III FIELD INVESTIGATIONS	173
7.1	Results of the Geophysical Survey	174
7.2	Yard Area Excavations	184
7.2.1	North Yard	187
7.2.2	East Yard	189
7.2.3	South Yard	189
7.2.4	West Yard	189
7.2.5	Slopewash	189
7.3	Features	193
7.3.1	Structure A, Main House	193
7.3.1.1	Feature 3, Foundation.....	194
7.3.1.2	Feature 2, Burn Layers.....	199
7.3.1.3	Feature 4, Chimney and Fireplace	205
7.3.1.4	Feature 5, Cellar	212
7.3.1.5	Feature 6, Builder’s Trench.....	215
7.3.1.6	Feature 7, Unknown Function.....	215
7.3.1.7	Feature 8, Cooking Hearth	218
7.3.1.8	Feature 9, Possible Furniture Remains.....	218
7.3.1.9	Feature 10, Furniture Remains	221
7.3.1.10	Feature 11, Builder’s Trench.....	222
7.3.1.11	Feature 16, Possible Builder’s Trench	222
7.3.2	Structure B, Possible Domestic Structure.....	227
7.3.2.1	Feature 1, Possible Domestic Cellar	227
7.3.2.2	Artifact Concentration.....	232
7.3.3	Structure C, Small Domestic Structure.....	233
7.3.3.1	Feature 13, Stone Piers and Steps	233
7.3.3.2	Feature 14, Brick Pile.....	241
7.3.4	Yard Features	241
7.3.4.1	Feature 12, Posthole and Postmold	241
7.3.4.2	Feature 15, Drainage Trench.....	243
7.3.4.3	Feature 17, Rodent Burrow	243
7.3.4.4	Feature 18, Midden	243
7.3.4.5	Feature 19, Midden	247
8.0	LABORATORY RESULTS.....	251
8.1	Prehistoric Assemblage	251
8.2	Historic Assemblage	251

TABLE OF CONTENTS

8.2.1	Historic Artifacts	253
8.2.1.1	Activities	253
8.2.1.2	Architectural.....	266
8.2.1.3	Arms.....	273
8.2.1.4	Clothing.....	276
8.2.1.5	Furniture.....	296
8.2.1.6	Kitchen.....	306
8.2.1.7	Miscellaneous.....	364
8.2.1.8	Personal.....	368
8.2.1.9	Religious	399
8.2.1.10	Tobacco.....	406
8.2.2	Historic Ecofacts.....	408
8.2.2.1	Faunal Assemblage	408
8.2.2.2	Floral Assemblage.....	414
8.3	Spatial Analysis.....	427
8.3.1	Structure A.....	427
8.3.1.1	Activities Group.....	429
8.3.1.2	Architectural Group	438
8.3.1.3	Arms Group.....	444
8.3.1.4	Clothing Group.....	444
8.3.1.5	Faunal Group.....	456
8.3.1.6	Floral Group.....	456
8.3.1.7	Furniture Group.....	461
8.3.1.8	Kitchen Group.....	466
8.3.1.9	Personal Group.....	487
8.3.1.10	Religious Group	495
8.3.1.11	Tobacco Group.....	504
8.3.2	Yard Areas	504
8.3.2.1	Architectural Group	507
8.3.2.2	Arms Group.....	507
8.3.2.3	Faunal Group.....	511
8.3.2.4	Kitchen Group.....	511
8.3.2.5	Tobacco Group.....	511
8.3.3	Structure C.....	511
8.3.3.1	Architectural Group	515
8.3.3.2	Kitchen Group.....	519
8.4	Burned Historic Artifacts	519
8.5	DNA Analysis	523
8.6	Artifact Conservation.....	524
8.6.1	Jackson Homestead Conservation Treatments	524
8.6.2	Treatment Results	525
8.6.3	Storage Recommendations	528
9.0	HISTORIC INTERPRETATIONS.....	529
9.1	Jackson Homestead Summary.....	529
9.2	Anatomy of a House Fire	534
9.3	Research Questions	542

9.3.1	Community/Spatial Pattern Theme.....	542
9.3.2	Sociocultural Theme.....	550
9.3.3	Socio-Religious Theme.....	555
9.3.4	Socioeconomic Theme.....	559
9.3.5	Regional Theme.....	568
10.0	CONCLUSIONS	579
10.1	Recommendations for Further Research.....	580
10.2	Public Outreach Program.....	580
10.2.1	Media Events.....	580
10.2.2	ICC Web Site.....	581
10.2.3	Society for Historical Archaeology Symposium.....	581
10.2.4	Cultural Resources Booth at Maryland State Fair.....	582
10.2.5	Montgomery County School District Visits.....	582
10.2.6	Maryland National Capital Park and Planning Commission Presentation ..	582
10.2.7	Archaeological Exhibit.....	582
11.0	References Cited.....	583

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix A:	Qualifications of Investigators
Appendix B:	Data Recovery Plan
Appendix C:	Will of Zachariah Downs
Appendix D:	Feature Catalog
Appendix E:	Minimum Vessel Count Catalog
Appendix F:	Faunal Report
Appendix G:	Archaeobotanical Report
Appendix H:	DNA Report
Appendix I:	Conservation Documents
Appendix J:	Lithic Material Types
Appendix K:	Schablitsky (2011) Article
Appendix L:	Prehistoric Artifact Catalog
Appendix M:	Fauna Catalog
Appendix N:	Flora Catalog
Appendix O:	Historic Artifact Catalog

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.	Rosenwald Schools.....	38
Table 2.	Descendants of Zachariah Downs.....	50
Table 3.	Enslaved Individuals Owned by Zachariah Downs in 1826.....	52
Table 4.	Household Residents from the 1870 U.S. Census.....	59
Table 5.	Household Residents from the 1880 U.S. Census.....	61
Table 6.	Household Residents from the 1910 U.S. Census.....	67
Table 7.	1920 Census for George W. Jackson Family.....	70
Table 8.	1920 Census for John T. Jackson Family.....	70
Table 9.	Prospect of Peace Chain of Title.....	74

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Table 10. Descendants of Malinda Adams Jackson.....	76
Table 11. Sites Located within a 1.6-km (1-mi) Radius	79
Table 12. Historic Structures Located within a 1.6-km (1-mile) Radius.....	80
Table 13. Debitage Size Grades.....	91
Table 14. Experimentally Derived Gini Indices	92
Table 15. Averaged Experimentally Derived Gini Indices.....	93
Table 16. Phase II Summary	109
Table 17. Locus A Prehistoric Artifact Summary	119
Table 18. Locus A Debitage Cortex Types.....	120
Table 19. Locus A Debitage Morphology	120
Table 20. Locus A Debitage by Material Type.....	122
Table 21. Locus A Mass Analysis Data.....	123
Table 22. Locus A Thermally Altered Flaked Stone	124
Table 23. Locus A Thermally Altered Flaked Stone by Material Type	124
Table 24. Locus B Prehistoric Artifact Summary.....	129
Table 25. Locus B Cores.....	130
Table 26. Locus B Flaked Stone Tools.....	130
Table 27. Locus B Debitage Cortex Types.....	132
Table 28. Locus B Debitage Morphology.....	132
Table 29. Locus B Debitage by Material Type.....	133
Table 30. Locus B Mass Analysis Data.....	134
Table 31. Locus B Thermally Altered Flaked Stone	135
Table 32. Locus B Thermally Altered Flaked Stone by Material Type.....	136
Table 33. Phase I Artifact Summary	140
Table 34. Locus C Prehistoric Artifact Summary.....	150
Table 35. Locus C Cores.....	151
Table 36. Locus C Flaked Stone Tools.....	151
Table 37. Locus C Debitage Cortex Types.....	153
Table 38. Locus C Debitage Morphology.....	153
Table 39. Locus C Debitage by Material Type.....	154
Table 40. Locus C Mass Analysis Data.....	154
Table 41. Historic Artifact Summary.....	158
Table 42. Activities Group Artifacts.....	159
Table 43. Architectural Group Artifacts	160
Table 44. Caliber and Maker's Marks Date Ranges	160
Table 45. Clothing Group Artifacts	161
Table 46. Kitchen Group Artifacts.....	161
Table 47. Kitchen Ceramic Sub-group Summary.....	162
Table 48. Manufacturing Dates for Ceramic Wares	163
Table 49. Ceramic Vessel Forms	164
Table 50. Kitchen Glass Color.....	165
Table 51. Faunal Group Artifacts	166
Table 52. Floral Group Artifacts.....	167
Table 53. Furniture Group Artifacts	167
Table 54. Miscellaneous Group Artifacts	168
Table 55. Personal Group Artifacts	168

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Table 56. Historic Artifact Counts by Context	169
Table 57. Summary of Phase II and III Excavations for the Jackson Homestead	174
Table 58. Yard Area TU Summary	187
Table 59. Feature Summary	193
Table 60. Stratum II Artifacts Directly Underneath Feature 3	199
Table 61. Feature 2 Artifact Summary	202
Table 62. Summary of Artifacts from Soil Strata Below Feature 2.....	204
Table 63. Summary of Feature 4 Artifacts.....	210
Table 64. Summary of Feature 5 Artifacts.....	213
Table 65. Summary of Fill Artifacts around Feature 5 Bulkhead.....	215
Table 66. Summary of Feature 8 Artifacts.....	218
Table 67. Summary of Feature 9 Artifacts.....	218
Table 68. Summary of Feature 10 Artifacts.....	221
Table 69. Summary of Feature 11 Artifacts.....	222
Table 70. Summary of Artifacts from Feature 1, Structure B	232
Table 71. Summary of Artifacts from Artifact Concentration Associated with Feature 1	233
Table 72. Summary of Feature 13, Structure C, Artifacts	239
Table 73. Summary of Feature 12 Artifacts.....	241
Table 74. Summary of Feature 15 Artifacts.....	243
Table 75. Summary of Feature 18 Artifacts.....	247
Table 76. Summary of Feature 19 Artifacts.....	249
Table 77. Diagnostic PPK Types Recovered from Features 2 and 5.....	251
Table 78. Historic Artifact and Ecofact Summary.....	252
Table 79. Historic Artifact Summary.....	253
Table 80. Activities Group Summary	253
Table 81. Construction and Farm Tools Sub-groups	254
Table 82. Miscellaneous Hardware Sub-group.....	255
Table 83. Music Sub-group.....	257
Table 84. Sewing Sub-group.....	260
Table 85. Stable and Barn Sub-group	260
Table 86. Toys Sub-group.....	262
Table 87. Doll Summary.....	264
Table 88. Architectural Group Summary.....	267
Table 89. Nail Summary	271
Table 90. Arms Group Summary	273
Table 91. Caliber and Maker's Marks Date Ranges	275
Table 92. Clothing Group Summary.....	276
Table 93. Beads Sub-group.....	277
Table 94. Buttons Sub-group	279
Table 95. Molded Glass Button Sets.....	288
Table 96. Corsets Sub-group.....	288
Table 97. Fabric Sub-group	290
Table 98. Fasteners Sub-group	290
Table 99. Shoes Sub-group	293
Table 100. Furniture Group Summary	296
Table 101. Furniture Hardware Sub-group.....	297

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Table 102. Lighting Sub-group.....	299
Table 103. Knickknacks Sub-group.....	303
Table 104. Other Furniture Sub-group.....	303
Table 105. Kitchen Group Summary.....	306
Table 106. Diagnostic Ceramics.....	307
Table 107. Ceramic Forms.....	309
Table 108. Ceramic Decorations.....	311
Table 109. Kitchen Ceramic Vessels.....	313
Table 110. Food Storage Vessels.....	314
Table 111. Food Preparation Vessels.....	320
Table 112. Serving Vessels.....	322
Table 113. Tea Service Vessels.....	329
Table 114. Ceramic Sets.....	339
Table 115. Ceramic Maker's Marks.....	344
Table 116. Ceramic Manufacturing Flaws.....	346
Table 117. Bottles and Jars.....	349
Table 118. Glass Container Manufacturing Techniques.....	349
Table 119. Glassware.....	358
Table 120. Glass Fragment Colors.....	362
Table 121. Kitchenware.....	363
Table 122. Tableware.....	364
Table 123. Miscellaneous Group Summary.....	367
Table 124. Personal Group Summary.....	368
Table 125. Jewelry.....	373
Table 126. Stationery.....	393
Table 127. Toiletries.....	394
Table 128. Religious Group Summary.....	399
Table 129. Tobacco Group Summary.....	406
Table 130. Stem Bore Diameters.....	406
Table 131. Structure A Faunal Group.....	411
Table 132. House Distribution of Common Meat Sources.....	414
Table 133. Floral Group Summary.....	415
Table 134. Seed Summary.....	416
Table 135. Plant Use, Seasonality, and Habitat.....	419
Table 136. Nut Summary.....	422
Table 137. Wood Summary.....	423
Table 138. Identified Wood Taxa from Flotation.....	424
Table 139. Miscellaneous and Unidentified Remains from Flotation.....	425
Table 140. Structure A Spatial Analysis Artifacts.....	428
Table 141. Sets of Matching Dishes.....	482
Table 142. RC1 (Feature 4a) Assemblage.....	499
Table 143. RC2 (Feature 4b) Assemblage.....	500
Table 144. Yard Artifact Summary.....	506
Table 145. Yard Contexts.....	507
Table 146. Structure C Artifact Summary.....	515
Table 147. Site-Wide Burned Artifact Summary.....	521

Table 148. Kitchen and Parlor Burned Artifact Summaries 522
 Table 149. DNA Analysis Results from Selected Artifacts 523
 Table 150. Summary of Treatment Results 526

LIST OF CHARTS

Chart 1. 1830 County Demographics 29
 Chart 2. Enslaved Populations in Montgomery County, 1790-1860 29
 Chart 3. Population of Montgomery County, 1850–1950 46
 Chart 4. Locus A Quartz Debitage Distribution by Weight 123
 Chart 5. Locus B Quartz Debitage Distribution by Weight 135
 Chart 6. Locus C Quartz Debitage Distribution by Weight 155
 Chart 7. Phase II Overall Site Quartz Debitage Distribution by Weight 157
 Chart 8. Historic Artifact Assemblage 252
 Chart 9. Common Nails 272
 Chart 10. Clothing Assemblage 276
 Chart 11. Button Materials 284
 Chart 12. Furniture Assemblage 296
 Chart 13. Kitchen Assemblage 306
 Chart 14. Ceramic Wares 308
 Chart 15. Ceramic Forms 310
 Chart 16. Ceramic Decorations 311
 Chart 17. Bottle Manufacture Techniques 350
 Chart 18. Glass Container Forms 360
 Chart 19. Glass Fragment Colors 362
 Chart 20. Personal Assemblage 368
 Chart 21. Stationery Assemblage 393
 Chart 22. Toiletries Assemblage 395
 Chart 23. Religious Assemblage 401
 Chart 24. Food Remains 412
 Chart 25. Floral Assemblage 415
 Chart 26. Seed Assemblage 418
 Chart 27. Nut Assemblage 422
 Chart 28. Wood Assemblage 424
 Chart 29. Distribution of Burned Artifacts between the Kitchen and Parlor Contexts 522

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Site Location 2
 Figure 2. Overview of ICC Corridor and Location of Site 18MO609 3
 Figure 3. Site 18MO609 Showing ICC Construction Plan and APE 4
 Figure 4. Maryland Archaeology Research Unit Map 8
 Figure 5. 1795 Griffith Map 24
 Figure 6. 1865 Martenet Map 28
 Figure 7. 1879 Hopkins Map 36
 Figure 8. 1907 Topographic Map 41

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Figure 9. 1926 Topographic Map	42
Figure 10. 1945 Topographic Map	43
Figure 11. 1803 Prospect of Peace Tract	48
Figure 12. 1826 Zachariah Downs Will.....	51
Figure 13. 1840 U.S. Census	53
Figure 14. 1850 Slave Schedule.....	54
Figure 15. 1860 Slave Schedule.....	56
Figure 16. 1869 Deed of Sale from Ann Downs to Malinda Jackson	58
Figure 17. 1870 U.S. Census	60
Figure 18. 1880 U.S. Census	62
Figure 19. 1880 U.S. Census (Showing Woodchoppers)	63
Figure 20. 1900 U.S. Census	65
Figure 21. 1910 U.S. Census	66
Figure 22. 1913 Emma J. Jackson Death Certificate.....	68
Figure 23. 1916 Deed of Sale from Mary E. Jackson to Eli Perry Johnson	71
Figure 24. 1942 Mary Jane Adams Johnson Death Certificate	73
Figure 25. 1969 Map With 1803 Prospect of Peace Tract Overlay	75
Figure 26. Abyssinia Baptist Church in Fairland, Maryland	78
Figure 27. Malinda Jackson’s Descendants at Jackson Homestead, March 2008	78
Figure 28. Phase I Survey Map Showing Location of Testing Areas and Loci.....	111
Figure 29. Location of Phase II STPs and TUs	113
Figure 30. Locus A Overview, Looking West.....	115
Figure 31. Locus A Representative STP Profiles	116
Figure 32. Locus A, TU 15 North Wall Profile	117
Figure 33. Locus A, TU 17 North Wall Profile	118
Figure 34. Locus A Prehistoric Tools.....	121
Figure 35. Locus B Overview, Looking West	126
Figure 36. Locus B Representative STP Profiles.....	127
Figure 37. Locus B, TU 10 West Wall Profile	128
Figure 38. Locus B Prehistoric Tools	131
Figure 39. Locus C Phase II STP, TU, and Feature Locations.....	137
Figure 40. Locus C, View of Slope and Floodplain, Looking South.....	139
Figure 41. Locus C, Fairland Branch, Looking West.....	139
Figure 42. Locus C Representative STP Profiles.....	142
Figure 43. Locus C, TU 2 North Wall Profile	143
Figure 44. Locus C, Feature 1, Looking West.....	145
Figure 45. Locus C, TU 4 North Wall Profile	146
Figure 46. Locus C, Features 2 and 3, Looking West.....	147
Figure 47. Locus C, TU 7 West Wall Profile	148
Figure 48. Locus C, Feature 18, TU 6 North Wall Profile	149
Figure 49. Locus C Prehistoric Tools	152
Figure 50. Locus C Phase III STP, TU, and Feature Locations.....	175
Figure 51. Structure A Excavation Overview Facing Southeast	177
Figure 52. Structure A Excavation Overview Facing Southwest	177
Figure 53. Structure A Overview Facing Northwest	178
Figure 54. Structure B Excavation Overview Facing Northwest	178

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Figure 55. Structure C Excavation Overview Facing North.....	179
Figure 56. Results of GPR Survey.....	181
Figure 57. GPR Survey Overview Facing South.....	183
Figure 58. GPR Survey Overview Facing Northeast.....	183
Figure 59. Phase III TU and Feature Plan.....	185
Figure 60. North Yard, TU 70 North Wall Profile	188
Figure 61. East Yard, TU 90 North Wall Profile.....	190
Figure 62. South Yard, TU 122 North Wall Profile	191
Figure 63. West Yard, TU 72 North Wall Profile.....	192
Figure 64. Structure A Plan View Showing Features	195
Figure 65. Structure A, Feature 3 (Parlor) Facing East	197
Figure 66. Structure A, Feature 3 (Single Pen) Facing Northwest	197
Figure 67. Structure A, Feature 3 Showing Axe In Situ Facing North.....	198
Figure 68. Structure A Cross Section, Composite East Wall Profile, Features 2 and 3	200
Figure 69. Structure A, TU 22 Profile Facing East.....	201
Figure 70. Structure A, TU 51 Facing South.....	201
Figure 71. Feature 4 Chimney During Excavation, Looking East.....	206
Figure 72. Feature 4 Plan View	207
Figure 73. Feature 4 Profile	208
Figure 74. Features 4a and 4b.....	209
Figure 75. Structure A, Feature 5 South Wall Profile.....	211
Figure 76. Feature 6 Plan View, Test Units 35 and 38	216
Figure 77. Feature 7 Plan View, TUs 39 and 40.....	217
Figure 78. Feature 8 Plan View, Test Units 35, 38, 41, and 42.....	219
Figure 79. Feature 9 Plan View and Profile, TU 45	220
Figure 80. Feature 10 Plan View, Test Units 58 and 56.....	223
Figure 81. Feature 10 South Wall Profile, TUs 51 and 48	224
Figure 82. Feature 11 Plan View and Profile, Test Units 56 and 58	225
Figure 83. Feature 16 Plan View and Profile, Test Unit 42.....	226
Figure 84. Structure B, Feature 1, Facing North.....	228
Figure 85. Structure B, Feature 1 Plan View	229
Figure 86. Structure B, TU 23 North Wall Profile	230
Figure 87. Structure B, TU 67 North Wall Profile	231
Figure 88. Structure B Yard, TU 69 North Wall Profile	234
Figure 89. Structure C Overview Facing Northeast.....	235
Figure 90. Structure C Plan View	237
Figure 91. Structure C, TU 81 South Wall Profile	240
Figure 92. Feature 12 Plan View and Profile, Test Unit 71.....	242
Figure 93. Feature 15 Plan View and Profile, TUs 87 and 88	244
Figure 94. Feature 17 Plan View and Profile, Test Unit 128.....	245
Figure 95. South Yard, TU 74 West Wall Profile.....	246
Figure 96. South Yard, TU 114 North Wall Profile	248
Figure 97. Music Sub-group	258
Figure 98. Sewing Sub-group	259
Figure 99. Shoe Last	259
Figure 100. Barn and Stable Sub-group.....	261

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Figure 101. Toys Sub-group	263
Figure 102. Doll Parts	265
Figure 103. Nails Sub-group.....	268
Figure 104. Spikes Sub-group.....	269
Figure 105. Chimney Pot (V-9)	274
Figure 106. Buckles Sub-group	278
Figure 107. Copper Alloy Rectangular Belt Style Buckles	280
Figure 108. Copper Alloy Double Framed Oval Buckle with Greek Key Decoration.....	281
Figure 109. White Metal Crimp Style Buckle with Floral Decoration.....	281
Figure 110. Iron Crimp Style Buckle with Embossed “IRONMAN” Lettering.....	282
Figure 111. Prosser Buttons.....	283
Figure 112. Copper Alloy Buttons.....	283
Figure 113. Shell Buttons	285
Figure 114. Bone Buttons	285
Figure 115. Glass Buttons.....	286
Figure 116. Molded Glass Buttons	286
Figure 117. Military Style Buttons	287
Figure 118. Corsets Sub-group	289
Figure 119. Fasteners Sub-group.....	292
Figure 120. Shoes Sub-group.....	294
Figure 121. Cuff Links.....	295
Figure 122. Studs	295
Figure 123. Pie Safe Fragment.....	298
Figure 124. Stove Sub-group	300
Figure 125. Lighting Sub-group	301
Figure 126. Lamp Parts.....	302
Figure 127. Clock Parts.....	304
Figure 128. Grover Cleveland Match Safe Fragment.....	305
Figure 129. Historic Photograph of Grover Cleveland.....	305
Figure 130. Ceramic Decorative Techniques.....	312
Figure 131. Stoneware Bottle (V-22).....	315
Figure 132. 1901 Apollinaris Advertisement.....	315
Figure 133. Redware Jar (V-32)	316
Figure 134. Redware Jug (V-31)	317
Figure 135. Stoneware Jug (V-19).....	318
Figure 136. Stoneware Jug (V-15).....	319
Figure 137. White Granite Baker (V-48).....	321
Figure 138. Batter Bowl (V-5).....	321
Figure 139. Porcelain Bowl (V-38)	324
Figure 140. Whiteware Butter Pat (V-142).....	324
Figure 141. White Granite Pitcher (V-146).....	325
Figure 142. Ironstone Plate (V-63)	327
Figure 143. White Granite Plate (V-78)	327
Figure 144. Whiteware Muffin Plate (V-124)	328
Figure 145. Blue Shell Edge Whiteware Plate (V-148).....	331
Figure 146. White Granite Platter (V-56).....	331

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Figure 147. Ironstone Creamer (V-145)	332
Figure 148. White Granite Cup (V-132).....	333
Figure 149. Whiteware Cup in Blue Willow Pattern (V-141).....	334
Figure 150. Porcelain Saucer (V-37)	335
Figure 151. Whiteware Saucer (V-104).....	335
Figure 152. Ironstone Sugar Bowl (V-149).....	337
Figure 153. Rebekah At The Well Teapot (V-4)	338
Figure 154. Whiteware Dinner Plates in Verona Pattern (V-60 and V-61).....	340
Figure 155. Whiteware Cups (V-138 and V-139)	341
Figure 156. White Granite Cups (V-136 and V-137)	341
Figure 157. Whiteware Vessels, Edge Molded and Blue Painted, with Floral Garland Decal .	342
Figure 158. Whiteware Dinner Plates with Pink Rose Decal Decoration	343
Figure 159. Example Maker’s Marks	345
Figure 160. Whiteware Plate with Misshapen Rim (V-57)	347
Figure 161. White Granite Saucer with Uneven Glaze (V-116).....	347
Figure 162. Stoneware Jug with Dent (V-6).....	348
Figure 163. Examples of Glass Bottle Manufacturing Techniques.	351
Figure 164. Dr. B. Bates Tonic Beer Bottle.....	353
Figure 165. McCuen and Young Soda Bottle.....	354
Figure 166. Rumford Baking Powder Bottles.....	355
Figure 167. Arlington Bottling Company Bottle	357
Figure 168. P. Babb Bottle.....	359
Figure 169. Tableglass.....	361
Figure 170. Glass Berry Bowls.....	361
Figure 171. Forks	365
Figure 172. Spoons	365
Figure 173. Knives.....	366
Figure 174. Bells.....	370
Figure 175. Coins.....	371
Figure 176. Eyeglasses.....	372
Figure 177. 1860 Lincoln-Hamlin Campaign Medallion	374
Figure 178. Museum Example of 1860 Lincoln-Hamlin Medallion	374
Figure 179. Heart-shaped Charm with Initial “C”	376
Figure 180. Stick Pin with Initial “A”	377
Figure 181. Pocket Watch Covers	377
Figure 182. Keys.....	378
Figure 183. Pocket knives.....	378
Figure 184. Medical Sub-group	380
Figure 185. Medicine Bottles.....	381
Figure 186. Lightning Hot Drops Bottle.....	382
Figure 187. Advertisement for Lightning Hot Drops Paine’s.....	382
Figure 188. Celery Compound Bottle.....	383
Figure 189. Dalby’s Carminative Bottle.....	384
Figure 190. Frey’s Vermifuge Bottle.....	386
Figure 191. Advertisement for Frey’s Vermifuge	387
Figure 192. Boyer’s Hoof Liniment Bottle.....	388

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Figure 193. Dr. Townsend’s Sarsaparilla Bottle.....	388
Figure 194. Stonebraker Chemical Company Bottle	389
Figure 195. Perkin’s Apothecary Bottle	390
Figure 196. Purses Sub-group.....	392
Figure 197. Stoneware Ink Bottle	392
Figure 198. Toiletries Sub-group.....	396
Figure 199. Stoneware Chamber Pot (V-9)	396
Figure 200. Perfume bottle	397
Figure 201. Shaving-related Artifacts.....	398
Figure 202. Religious Group.....	400
Figure 203. Quartz Crystals	402
Figure 204. Pierced Coins.....	403
Figure 205. Infant of Prague Medallion.....	403
Figure 206. Hoyt’s Cologne Bottle.....	405
Figure 207. Ball Clay Tobacco Pipes	407
Figure 208. Reed-style and Terracotta Pipes	407
Figure 209. Tobacco Tags.....	409
Figure 210. Historic Tobacco Tags.....	409
Figure 211. Structure A Overview of Artifact Distributions	431
Figure 212. Structure A, Construction Tools Sub-group Distribution.....	433
Figure 213. Structure A, Music Sub-group Distribution	434
Figure 214. Structure A, Sewing Sub-group Distribution	435
Figure 215. Structure A, Storage Items Sub-group Distribution	436
Figure 216. Structure A, Toys Sub-group Distribution	437
Figure 217. Structure A, Cut Nail Sub-group Distribution.....	439
Figure 218. Structure A, Wire Nail Sub-group Distribution	440
Figure 219. Structure A, Window Glass Sub-group Distribution.....	441
Figure 220. Structure A, Feature 2 Window Sub-group Distribution.....	442
Figure 221. Structure A, Door Parts Sub-group Distribution	443
Figure 222. Structure A, Arms Group Distribution	445
Figure 223. Structure A, Feature 2 Arms Group Distribution	446
Figure 224. Structure A, Clothing Group Distribution	447
Figure 225. Structure A, Fastener Sub-group Distribution.....	448
Figure 226. Structure A, Button Sub-group Distribution	449
Figure 227. Structure A, Shoes Sub-group Distribution.....	450
Figure 228. Structure A, Grommet Sub-group Distribution	451
Figure 229. Structure A, Corset Sub-group Distribution	452
Figure 230. Structure A, Bead Sub-group Distribution	453
Figure 231. Structure A, Buckle Sub-group Distribution	454
Figure 232. Structure A, Stud Sub-group Distribution	455
Figure 233. Structure A, Faunal Group Distribution, Excavated Contexts	457
Figure 234. Structure A, Faunal Group Distribution, Excavated and Flotation Contexts	458
Figure 235. Structure A, Floral Group, Food/Medicinal Seed Distribution	459
Figure 236. Structure A, Floral Group, Nut Distribution	460
Figure 237. Structure A, Furniture Group Distribution	462
Figure 238. Structure A, Furniture Hardware Sub-group Distribution.....	463

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Figure 239. Structure A, Pie Safe Sub-group Distribution	464
Figure 240. Structure A, Clock Sub-group Distribution.....	465
Figure 241. Structure A, Mirror Sub-group Distribution.....	467
Figure 242. Structure A, Lighting Sub-group Distribution.....	468
Figure 243. Structure A, Kitchen Group Distribution	469
Figure 244. Structure A, Ceramics Sub-group Distribution	470
Figure 245. Structure A, Ceramic Storage Vessel Distribution.....	471
Figure 246. Structure A, Ceramic Jars Distribution	472
Figure 247. Structure A, Ceramic Food Preparation Vessel Distribution	474
Figure 248. Structure A, Ceramic Serving Vessel Distribution.....	475
Figure 249. Structure A, Ceramic Bowls Distribution	476
Figure 250. Structure A, Ceramic Cups Distribution	478
Figure 251. Structure A, Ceramic Saucers Distribution	479
Figure 252. Structure A, Whiteware Distribution.....	480
Figure 253. Structure A, White Granite Distribution	481
Figure 254. Structure A, Glass Bottles and Jars Sub-group Distribution	483
Figure 255. Structure A, Glass Alcohol Bottle Distribution.....	484
Figure 256. Structure A, Glass Jar Distribution.....	485
Figure 257. Structure A, Glassware Sub-group Distribution.....	486
Figure 258. Structure A, Kitchenware Sub-group Distribution.....	488
Figure 259. Structure A, Tableware Sub-group Distribution	489
Figure 260. Structure A, Personal Group Distribution	490
Figure 261. Structure A, Coins Sub-group Distribution	491
Figure 262. Structure A, Jewelry Sub-group Distribution.....	492
Figure 263. Structure A, Eyeglasses Sub-group Distribution.....	493
Figure 264. Structure A, Toiletries Sub-group Distribution.....	494
Figure 265. Structure A, Stationery Sub-group Distribution.....	496
Figure 266. Structure A, Religious Context Locations.....	498
Figure 267. Structure A, Tobacco Group Distribution	505
Figure 268. Yard Areas, Artifact Distribution	508
Figure 269. Yard Areas, Architectural Group Distribution	509
Figure 270. Yard Areas, Arms Group Distribution	510
Figure 271. Yard Areas, Faunal Group Distribution	512
Figure 272. Yard Areas, Kitchen Group Distribution.....	513
Figure 273. Yard Areas, Tobacco Group Distribution	514
Figure 274. Structure C, Artifact Distribution	516
Figure 275. Structure C, Window Glass Sub-group Distribution.....	517
Figure 276. Structure C, Nails Sub-group Distribution	518
Figure 277. Structure C, Kitchen Group Distribution.....	520
Figure 278. Conjectural Rendering of the Jackson Homestead ca. 1915	530
Figure 279. Conjectural 1st Floor Plan	531
Figure 280. Conjectural 2nd Floor Plan.....	532
Figure 281. Whiteware Saucer (V-123).....	536
Figure 282. Burned Conglomerate of Mortar, Glass, Metal and Ceramic.....	537
Figure 283. Melted Glass.....	538
Figure 284. Burned Window Glass.....	538

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Figure 285. Structure A, Burned Artifact Distribution	540
Figure 286. Structure A, Unburned Artifact Distribution.....	541
Figure 287. Conjectural 1st Floor Plan Showing Layout and Activity Areas	545
Figure 288. Conjectural 2nd Floor Plan Showing Layout and Activity Areas.....	546
Figure 289. Ca. 1899 Photograph Showing Clothing Styles	560
Figure 290. Ca. 1899 Photograph Showing Women’s Clothing	561
Figure 291. Ca. 1899 Photograph Showing Men’s Clothing Styles and Musical Instruments .	562
Figure 292. Ca. 1899 Photograph Showing Men’s Clothing.....	563
Figure 293. Ca. 1899 Photograph Showing Children’s Clothing	564

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The Maryland State Highway Administration (SHA) is constructing the Intercounty Connector (ICC), which will link areas between the Interstate 270 (I-270)/Interstate 370 (I-370) and (Interstate 95 (I-95)/U.S. Route 1 (US 1) corridors in portions of Montgomery County and Prince George's County, Maryland. The ICC will be a state-of-the-art, multi-modal east-west highway that limits access, and accommodates the movement of passengers and goods. The highway is being constructed to:

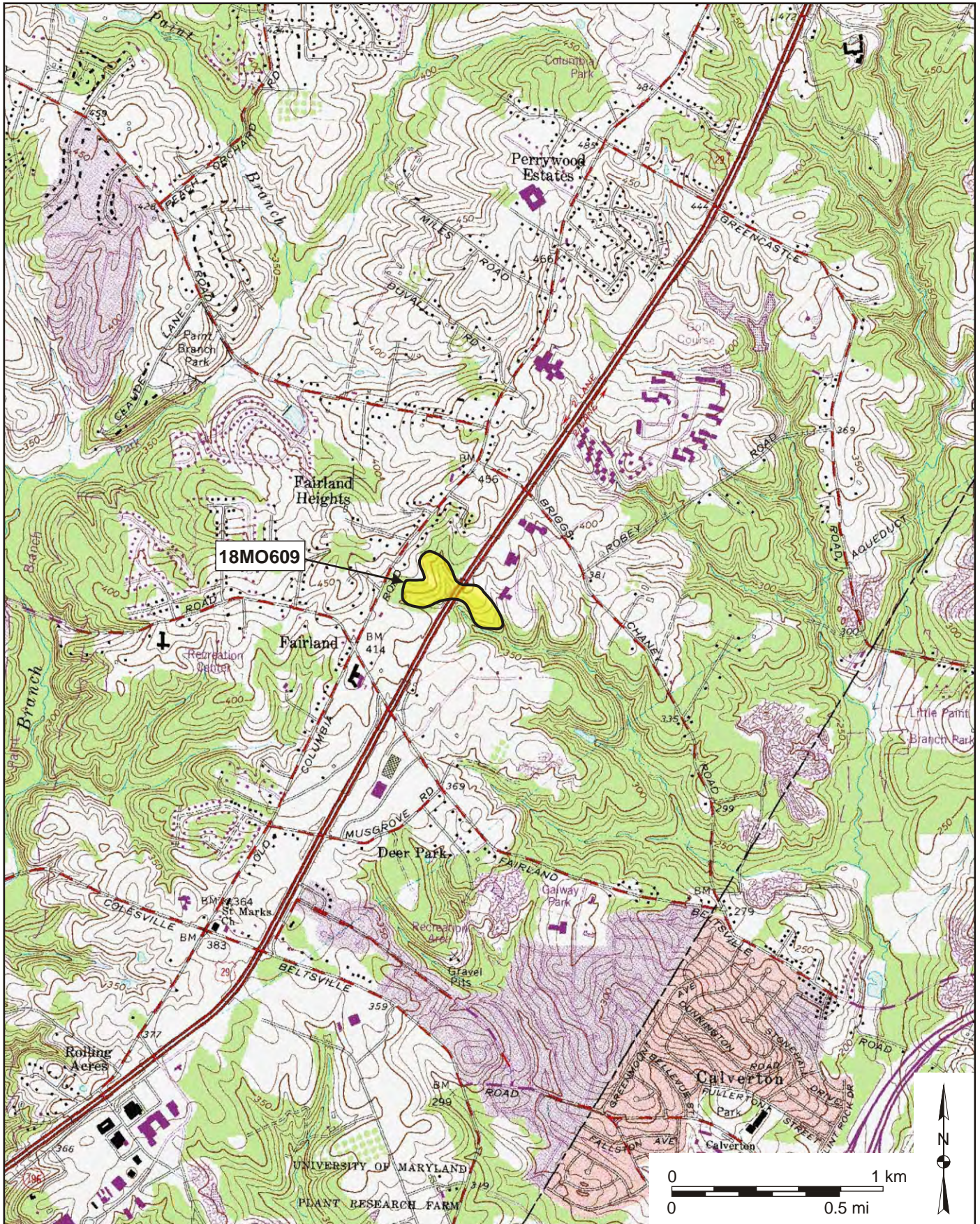
- Increase community mobility and safety
- Facilitate the movement of goods and people to and from economic centers
- Provide cost-effective transportation infrastructure to serve existing and future development patterns that reflect local land use planning objectives
- Help restore the natural, human, and cultural environments from past development impacts in the project area
- Advance homeland security by providing additional mobility


As part of the ICC project, URS Corporation (URS) conducted Phase II and III archaeological investigations of site 18MO609 (the Fairland Branch Site), which is located on the east and west sides of U.S. Route 29 (US 29) along the proposed ICC alignment in Montgomery County, Maryland (Figures 1–3). The site is approximately 0.62 kilometers (km; 0.38 mile [mi]) north of Fairland Road and 0.58 km (0.36 mi) south of Briggs Chaney Road. It is approximately 4.45 hectares (11 acres), and is situated on ridges, terraces, and a floodplain overlooking the headwaters of Fairland Branch, a tributary of Paint Branch.

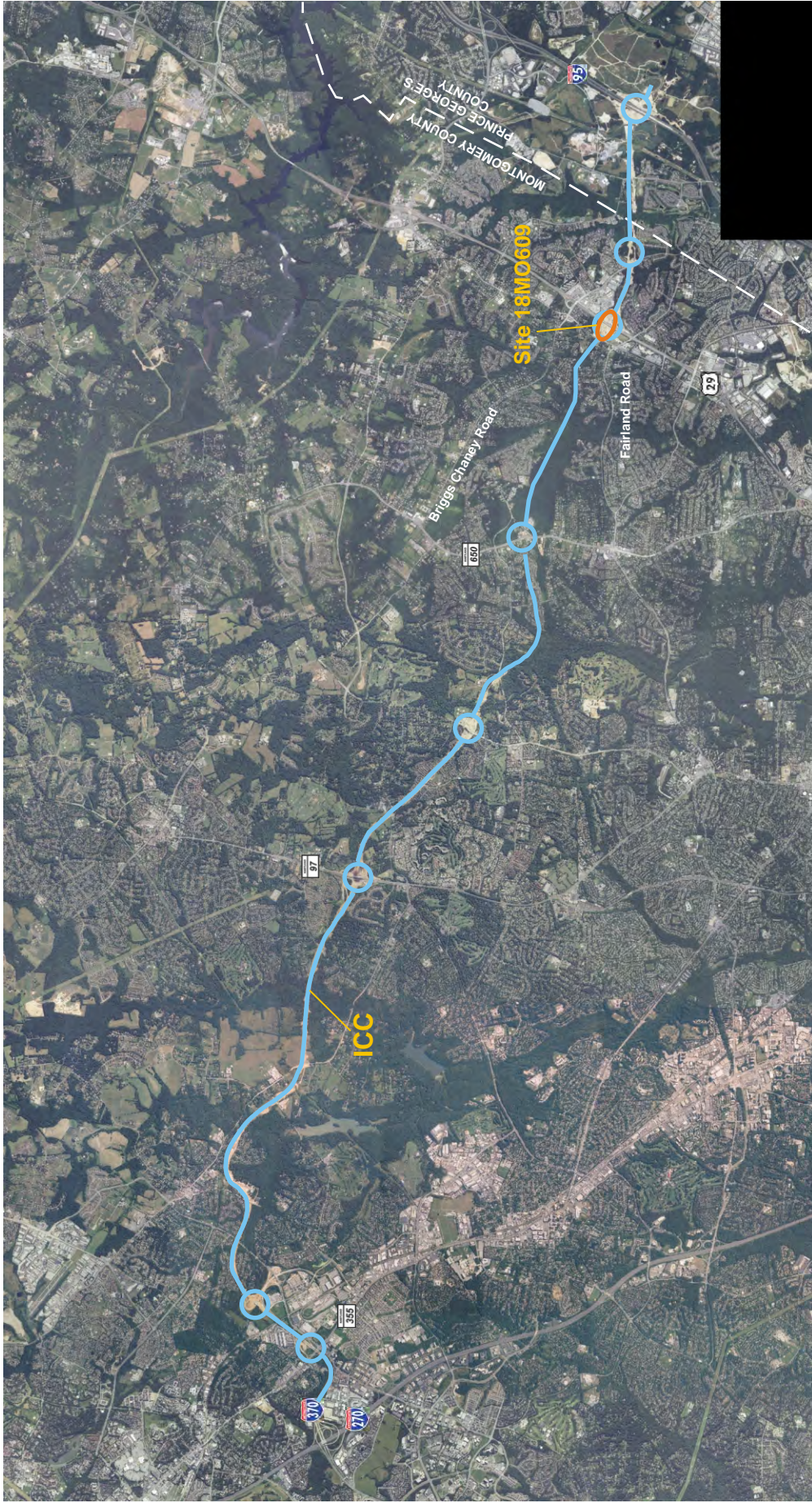
A Phase I Survey by Louis Berger Group, Inc. (Berger), identified the multicomponent site in 2004 (Bedell and LeeDecker 2005). The prehistoric components were concentrated in three distinct loci, and included diagnostic projectile points (Dry Brook, bifurcated point, and Morrow Mountain or Piscataway), debitage, other tools, an anvil, and fire-cracked rock. The prehistoric components were interpreted as temporary camps dating to the Early Archaic to Early Woodland Periods. The historic component consisted of a scatter of domestic artifacts and a fieldstone foundation. The artifacts ranged in date from the nineteenth through the late twentieth centuries. The prehistoric components were recommended for Phase II evaluation to assess their eligibility to the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP; Bedell and LeeDecker 2005). Originally, the historic component was not recommended for Phase II evaluation due to its apparent recent date and disturbed nature (Bedell and LeeDecker 2005); however, it was later determined that the historic component also required Phase II evaluation.

The goals of the Phase II evaluation were to examine the prehistoric and historic components to identify prehistoric and historic activity areas; determine the presence and nature of any associated artifacts and cultural features; and gather additional data to evaluate the significance and eligibility of the site for listing in the NRHP.

As a result of the Phase II evaluation, site 18MO609 was recommended eligible for the NRHP; however, only the historic component was considered significant. Since construction of the ICC would result in adverse effects to the site, mitigation measures were considered to avoid or lessen the impacts to the site.



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Site Location 	
SCALE 1 inch = 0.63 km (0.39 mi)		
SOURCE USGS 7.5' Topographic Quadrangle, Beltsville, MD, 1979	FIGURE NO. 1	



Overview of ICC Corridor and Location of Site 18MO609

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

SCALE 1 in = 2.96 km (1.84 mi)

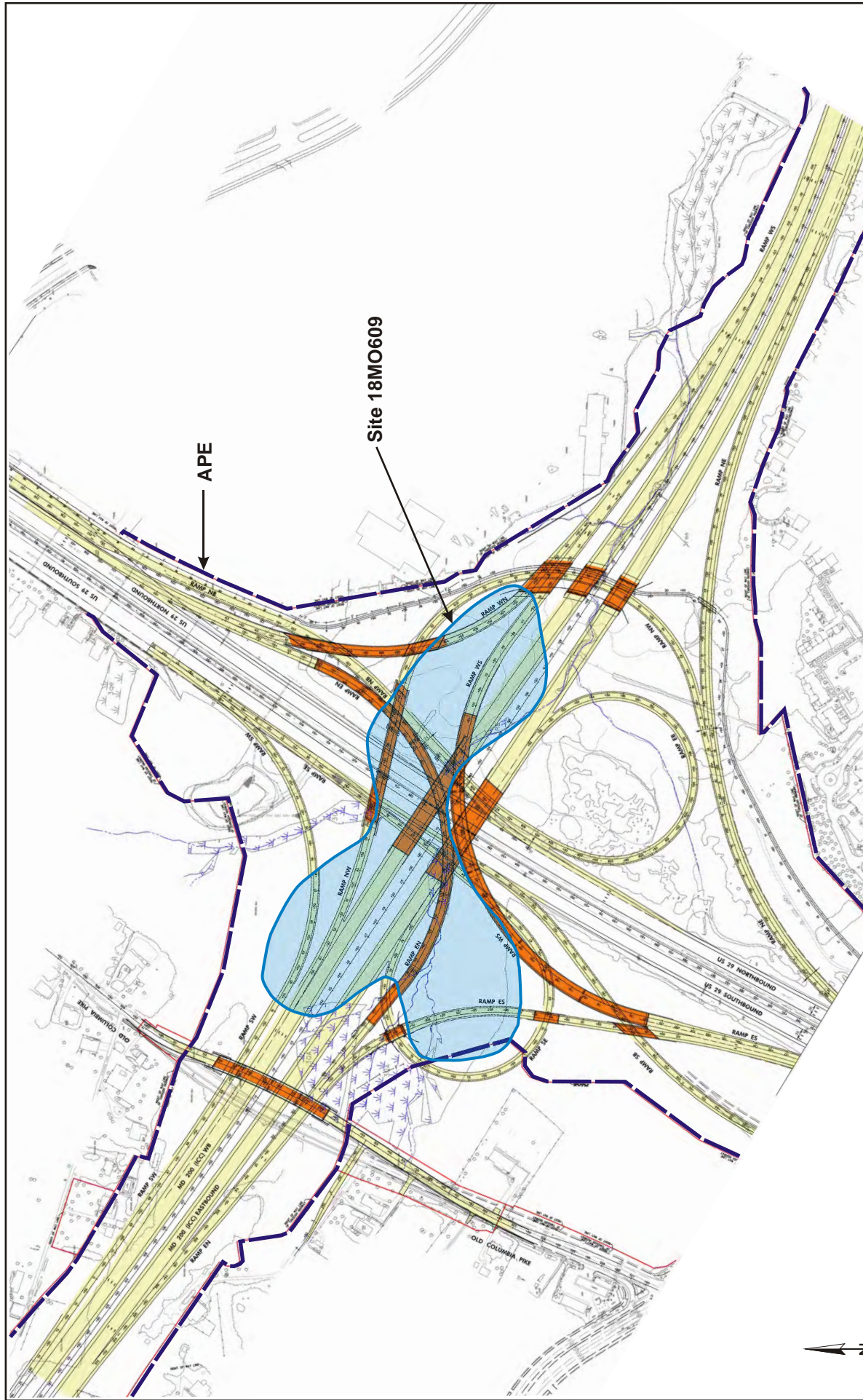
SOURCE ICC



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 2





APE

Site 18MO609

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Site 18MO609 Showing ICC Construction Plan and APE	
SCALE 1 in = 37 m (121 ft)		PROJECT NO. 20831016	
SOURCE ICC		FIGURE NO. 3	



Phase III data recovery of the historic Jackson homestead component was determined to be the appropriate measure to mitigate impacts to the site. This was accomplished through data collection that allowed relevant research questions about the site and its occupants to be addressed. The mitigation efforts included field excavation, artifact analysis and conservation, reporting, and a public outreach program. Consultation with the SHA and the Maryland Historical Trust (MHT) resulted in the development of a data recovery plan.

The Phase II and III investigations were conducted in compliance with the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966 (NHPA, Public Law 89-665), as amended, the National Environmental Policy Act of 1969 (Public Law 91-190), and the Maryland Historical Trust Act of 1985, as amended (State Finance and Procurement Article 5A-325 and 5A-326 of the Annotated Code of Maryland), and conformed to specifications and guidelines established by the SHA (Maryland State Highway Administration 1992), National Park Service (NPS; 1983), and Shaffer and Cole (1994). The Federal Highway Administration (FHWA) serves as lead Federal agency for the purposes of the NHPA.

Phase II and III field investigations were conducted between January and April 2008. Brian Jarboe was the Project Manager, Varna Boyd, RPA, served as Task Manager for the archaeological investigations, and Kathleen Furgerson, RPA, served as Principal Investigator for the archaeological investigations and was the Project Archaeobotanist. Heather Crawl, RPA, provided supervisory and technical support. Jean Bernard Pelletier, RPA, conducted the remote sensing survey, and provided logistical and health and safety support during the Phase III investigations. Carey O'Reilly served as the Laboratory Director, Mechelle Kerns-Nocerito, RPA, conducted the historic and archival research, Tracy Formica, RPA, served as Lithic Analyst, and Anthony Randolph, Jr., RPA, served as Conservator, with assistance from Lisa Guerre, who also served as Artifact Photographer. R. Jeannine Windham from New South Associates, Inc., conducted the zooarchaeological analysis, and Stephen Fratpietro from Lakehead University's Paleo-DNA Laboratory conducted the DNA analysis. Field and Laboratory Archaeologists included Kelly Arford-Horne, Ann Chatham, Stephanie Duensing, Peter Holmes, Kristen Heasley, Tara McLeod, Sharon Moose, Brian Ostahowski, Matt Reilly, Susan Peltier, Adele Philippides, Mary Kate Schneider, Jillian Smith, and Steven Younts. Additional field support was provided by Tara Giuliano, Nichole Sorenson-Mutchie, and Julie Schablitsky, PhD, from SHA, and Ben Perlmutter, Amy Fanz, Frank Mikolic, and Esther Read from Parsons Brinckerhoff. Henry Ward and Gregory Katz from Parsons Brinckerhoff provided logistical support.

Following this Introduction, the report presents nine chapters: Project Location and Description, Culture Context, Previous Investigations, Research Design, Results of Phase II Evaluation, Results of Phase III Field Investigations, Results of Laboratory Analysis, Interpretations, and Conclusions and Recommendations. The References Cited section completes the body of the report. Fifteen appendices follow the main body of the report:

- Appendix A: Qualifications of Investigators
- Appendix B: Data Recovery Plan
- Appendix C: Will of Zachariah Downs
- Appendix D: Feature Catalog

- Appendix E: Minimum Vessel Count Catalog
- Appendix F: Faunal Report
- Appendix G: Archaeobotanical Report
- Appendix H: DNA Report
- Appendix I: Conservation Documents
- Appendix J: Lithic Material Types
- Appendix K: Schablitsky (2011) Article
- Appendix L: Prehistoric Artifact Catalog
- Appendix M: Fauna Catalog
- Appendix N: Flora Catalog
- Appendix O: Historic Artifact Catalog

2.0 PROJECT LOCATION AND DESCRIPTION

Site 18MO609 is located in the Middle Potomac River watershed (Maryland Department of the Environment 2010). The unnamed creeks and ephemeral drainages within the site drain into the Fairland Branch of Little Paint Branch Creek. Little Paint Branch Creek is a tributary of the Paint Branch River, which drains into the Potomac River. The site is within Maryland Research Unit 12, the Potomac Drainage (Figure 4).

The site is situated between Briggs Chaney and Fairland Roads in eastern Montgomery County (Figure 1). Old Columbia Turnpike is located west of the site and Route 29 roughly bisects the site. The topography in the vicinity of the site consists of rolling ridge lines and hills divided by a series of small drainages and creeks. The site encompasses the upper portions and side slopes of three ridges that are separated by the upper reaches of the Fairland Branch of Little Paint Branch Creek. The portion of the site west of Route 29 is located atop the western ends of two adjacent ridges that are separated by a small creek that drains into Fairland Branch east of Fairland Road. The portion of the site east of Route 29 is located on the south face, atop a northwest-southeast trending ridge to the north of Fairland Branch and south of a retail car complex.

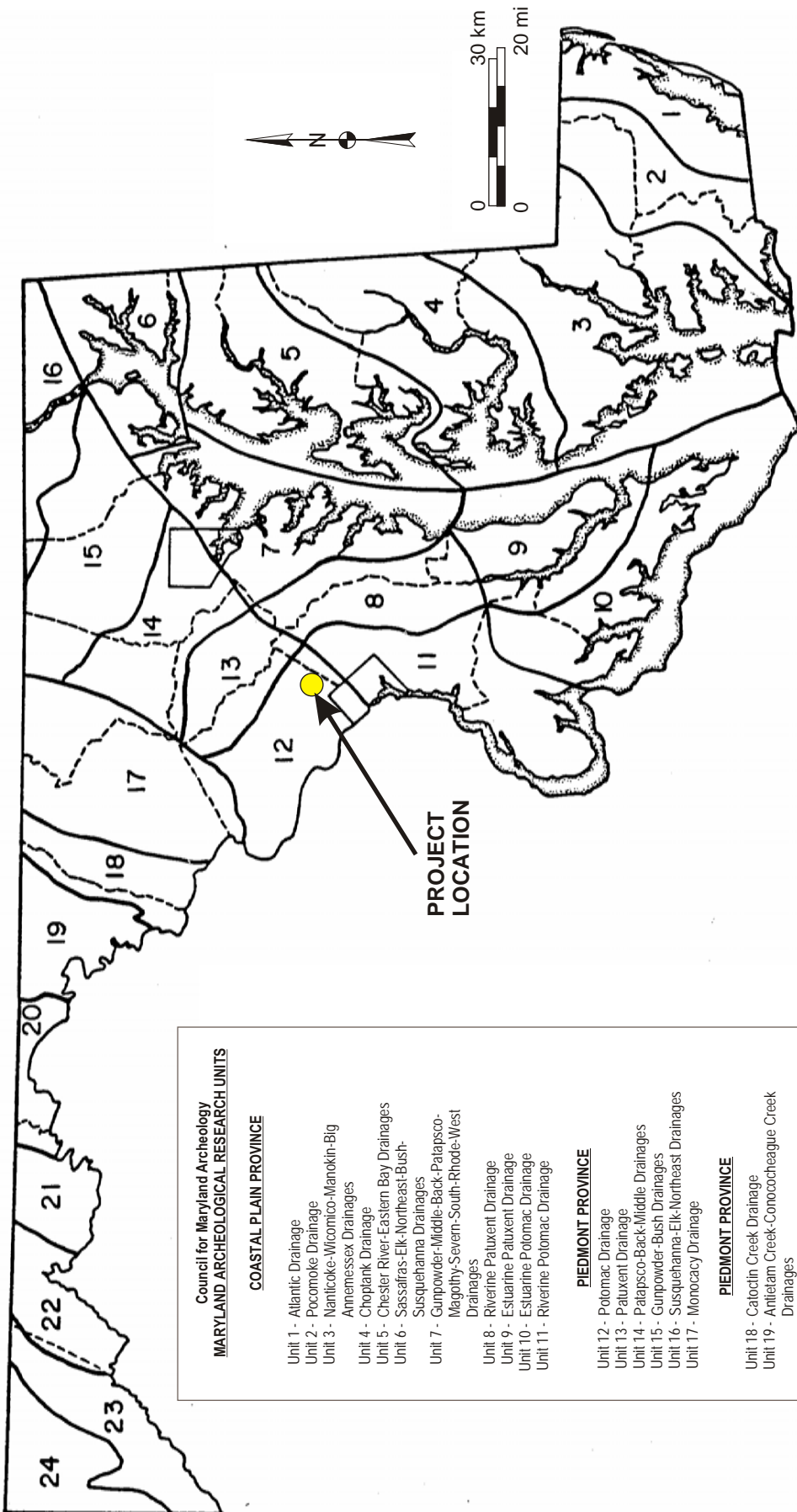
2.1 GEOLOGY

Site 18MO609 is located along the Fall Line that forms the boundary between two distinct physiographic provinces, the Piedmont to the west and the Coastal Plain to the east. This location along the boundary between two major physiographic provinces influences the geology, soils, hydrology, flora, and fauna found within the immediate environs of the site.

To the west of site 18MO609 lies the Piedmont Province, which is composed of hard, crystalline igneous and metamorphic rocks. The eastern end of the province consists of schist, gneiss, gabbro, and other highly metamorphosed sedimentary and igneous rock (Edwards 1981). These rock formations in the site area are predominantly Precambrian in age (Weaver 1967). Differential erosion of these underlying rocks has created the rolling landscape dominated by ridges and low hills found in the Piedmont Province (Edwards 1981).

The Coastal Plain Province lies to the east of 18MO609 and is underlain by a wedge of unconsolidated sediments, thickening from east to west. These sediments overlay the igneous and metamorphic rock of the Piedmont Province along the Fall Line and gradually thicken to more than 2.44 km (1.52 mi) along the Atlantic Coastline (Edwards 1981). These sediments range in age from the Triassic through the Quaternary, with younger formations outcropping from west to east. To the east of the site, the Coastal Plain Province sedimentary rocks date to the Cretaceous (Weaver 1967).

Within the larger physiographic provinces identified in Maryland, there are numerous smaller physiographic regions, areas, and districts. Site 18MO609 lies within the Fall Line region, which is defined as the transition between the crystalline Piedmont and the unconsolidated Coastal Plain. The portion of the Fall Line in Maryland where the site is located is classified as the Perry Hall Upland District (Reger and Cleaves 2008). Rivers flowing through this area typically run through steep-walled valleys incised into the crystalline rock.



- Council for Maryland Archeology**
MARYLAND ARCHEOLOGICAL RESEARCH UNITS
- COASTAL PLAIN PROVINCE**
- Unit 1 - Atlantic Drainage
 - Unit 2 - Pocomoke Drainage
 - Unit 3 - Nanticoke-Wicomico-Manokin-Big Annemessex Drainages
 - Unit 4 - Choptank Drainage
 - Unit 5 - Chester River-Eastern Bay Drainages
 - Unit 6 - Sassafras-Elk-Northeast-Bush-Susquehanna Drainages
 - Unit 7 - Gunpowder-Middle-Back-Patapsco-Magothy-Severn-South-Rhode-West Drainages
 - Unit 8 - Riverine Patuxent Drainage
 - Unit 9 - Estuarine Patuxent Drainage
 - Unit 10 - Estuarine Potomac Drainage
 - Unit 11 - Riverine Potomac Drainage
- PIEDMONT PROVINCE**
- Unit 12 - Potomac Drainage
 - Unit 13 - Patuxent Drainage
 - Unit 14 - Patapsco-Back-Middle Drainages
 - Unit 15 - Gunpowder-Bush Drainages
 - Unit 16 - Susquehanna-Elk-Northeast Drainages
 - Unit 17 - Monocacy Drainage
- PIEDMONT PROVINCE**
- Unit 18 - Caloclin Creek Drainage
 - Unit 19 - Antietam Creek-Conococheague Creek Drainages
 - Unit 20 - Licking Creek-Tomoloway Creek-Fifteenmile Creek Drainages
 - Unit 21 - Town Creek Drainage
 - Unit 22 - Everts Creek-Georges Creek Drainages
 - Unit 23 - Potomac-Savage Drainages
 - Unit 24 - Youghiogheny-Casseleman Drainages

PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and II	Maryland Archaeology Research Unit Map	
SCALE	1 inch = 36 km (22 mi)	URS	PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE	Maryland Historical Trust		FIGURE NO. 4

2.2 SOILS

The soil types found in the area are influenced by the underlying geology and the topography. The soil series present within and in the immediate vicinity of the site are indicative of its location along the boundary between the Piedmont (with its underlying metamorphic bedrock) and the Coastal Plain (comprised of unconsolidated sediments) Provinces.

Nine soil series are mapped for the area in which 18MO609 is situated. The Beltsville, Chillum, Croom, and Sassafras series soils formed through the weathering of sedimentary rock. The Blocktown, Brinklow, Gaila, Glenelg, and Wheaton series soils formed through the weathering of metamorphic bedrock (United States Department of Agriculture, Natural Resource Conservation Service [USDA, NRCS] 2009). All of the soil series found in the area are moderately drained to well-drained soils, with soil profiles varying among types.

The dominant soil type found in Locus A is Croom series gravelly loam, a well-drained soil found on 3 to 8 percent slopes. A typical Croom series soil profile in a cultivated field consists of an approximately 23-centimeter (cm; 0.75-foot [ft]) thick, very dark grayish brown (10YR 2/2) to dark yellowish brown (10YR 4/4) loam Ap Horizon over a strong brown (7.5YR 4/6) to dark yellowish brown (10YR 4/6) gravelly clay loam Bt Horizon (USDA, NRCS 2009). Where soils have not been plowed, an A-E-Bt-BC-C profile may be evident (USDA, NRCS 2009).

Beltsville series silt loam is the dominant soil type found in Locus B. These soils are moderately well drained, and found on 0 to 3 percent slopes. A typical soil profile in a forested area is comprised of a 13-millimeter (mm; 0.51-inch [in]) thick Oi horizon underlain by an approximately 8-cm (0.262-ft) thick, dark grayish brown (10YR 4/2) silt loam A Horizon. The A Horizon is underlain by a roughly 12-cm (0.394-ft) thick, yellowish brown (10YR 5/4) silt loam E Horizon, which is underlain by a yellowish brown (10YR 5/6) to yellowish red (5YR 4/6) silt to sandy clay loam B Horizon. The B Horizon extends to a depth of approximately 1.8 meters (m; 5.91 ft), where it transitions to a C Horizon (USDA, NRCS 2009).

Locus C is in an area comprised of Glenelg series silt loam. These soils are well drained, and found on 3 to 15 percent slopes. A typical soil profile in a crop field is comprised of a brown (10YR 4/3) loam to clay loam Ap Horizon approximately 25 cm (0.82 ft) thick. The Ap Horizon is underlain by a strong brown (7.5YR 5/8) to yellowish red (5YR 5/6) clay loam B Horizon, approximately 43 cm (1.41 ft) thick, which is underlain by a C Horizon (USDA, NRCS 2009). The soils in Locus C were observed to have high amounts of mica, reflecting the saprolite deposits (degraded schist) that underlay the site.

2.3 FLORA AND FAUNA

The flora and fauna found in the vicinity of the site are classified as part of the Eastern Broadleaf Forest (Oceanic) Province (United States Forest Service [USFS] 2008). Vegetation in this province is characterized by a winter deciduous forest dominated by tall broadleaf trees, such as oak and northern red oak, mixed with some pines. Lower forest layers consist of small trees and shrubs, with the forest floor dominated by herbaceous ground cover (USFS 2008). Trees in the vicinity of the site include oak (*Quercus* spp.), hickory (*Carya* spp.), beech (*Fagus grandifolia*), pine (*Pinus* spp.), tuliptree (*Liriodendron tulipifera*), slippery elm (*Ulmus rubra*), American hornbeam (*Carpinus caroliniana*), and American holly (*Ilex opaca*). Ground vegetation includes

eastern poison ivy (*Toxicodendron radicans*), greenbrier (*Smilax* spp.), multiflora rose (*Rosa multiflora*), blackberry/raspberry (*Rubus* spp.), and pachysandra (*Pachysandra* sp.).

Common terrestrial mammals found in the area include the white-tailed deer (*Odocoileus virginianus*), coyote (*Canis latrans*), gray fox (*Urocyon cinereoargenteus*), red fox (*Vulpes vulpes*), mink (*Mustela vison*), long-tailed weasel (*Mustela frenata*), raccoon (*Procyon lotor*), muskrat (*Ondatra zibethicus*), Virginia opossum (*Didelphis virginiana*), striped skunk (*Mephitis mephitis*), American beaver (*Castor canadensis*), eastern cottontail (*Sylvilagus floridanus*), woodchuck (*Marmota monax*), eastern gray squirrel (*Sciurus carolinensis*), eastern fox squirrel (*Sciurus niger*), red squirrel (*Tamiasciurus hudsonicus*), southern flying squirrel (*Glaucomys volans*), eastern chipmunk (*Tamias striatus*), and several species of bats (family Vespertilionidae), mice (families Cricetidae, Muridae, and Zapodinae), rats (family Cricetidae), voles (*Microtus* spp.), moles (family Talpidae), and shrews (family Soricidae; eNature.com 2007; USFS 2008)

Bird populations include birds of prey, such as the golden eagle (*Aquila chrysaetos*), bald eagle (*Haliaeetus leucocephalus*), falcons (*Falco* spp.), hawks (family Accipitridae), and owls (families Strigidae and Tytonidae); scavengers, such as the turkey vulture (*Cathartes aura*) and black vulture (*Coragyps atratus*); game birds, such as the wild turkey (*Meleagris gallopavo*) and ring-necked pheasant (*Phasianus colchicus*); waterfowl, such as ducks, geese, and swans (family Anatidae); corvids, such as crows (*Corvus* spp.) and blue jays (*Cyanocitta cristata*); nightjars, such as the whip-poor-will (*Caprimulgus vociferus*); woodpeckers (family Picidae); ruby-throated hummingbirds (*Archilochus colubris*); belted kingfishers (*Ceryle alcyon*); chimney swifts (*Chaetura pelagica*); and a variety of passerines or songbirds (order Passeriformes), such as sparrows (family Passeridae), vireos (family Vireonidae), nuthatches (family Sittidae), and finches (family Fringillidae; eNature.com 2007).

Amphibians and reptiles include the five-lined skink (*Eumeces fasciatus*), fence lizard (*Sceloporus undulatus*), and several species of salamander (families Ambystomatidae, Hynobiidae, and Plethodontidae), newts (family Salamandridae), toads (*Bufo* spp., *Scaphiopus holbrookii*), frogs (*Rana* spp. and family Hylidae), turtles (families Chelydridae, Emydidae, and Kinosternidae), non-poisonous snakes (family Colubridae), and the copperhead (*Agkistrodon contortrix*; eNature.com 2007; USFS 2008).

Fish species found in the area include sunfish and bath (families Centrarchidae), yellow perch family Percidae), killfish (family Fundulidae), minnows (family Cyprinidae), trout (family Salmonidae), catfish (family Ictaluridae), lampreys (family Petromyzontidae), Eastern mosquito fish (family Poeciliidae) and American Eel (family Anguillidae; eNature.com 2007; Montgomery County Department of Natural Resources 2011).

Insects in the area include species of butterflies and moths (family Lepidoptera), beetles (family Coleoptera), flies and mosquitoes (family Diptera), bees, wasps, and ants (family Hymenoptera), termites (family Isoptera), crickets and grasshoppers (family Orthoptera), and millipedes (family Spirobolida). Other fauna include crustaceans, such as pillbugs (family Isopoda), and arachnids, such as ticks (family Ixodida) and spiders (family Araneae; eNature.com 2007).

3.0 CULTURE CONTEXT

The MHT has developed cultural contexts that provide a necessary framework for the description and analysis of known and anticipated cultural resources (Weissman 1986). These contexts, which are organized by geographic region, time/developmental period, and theme, are the basis for evaluating the significance of resources within the project area. The time periods listed in the following prehistoric and historic contexts are those identified by the MHT as important for the State (Weissman 1986).

3.1 PREHISTORIC CONTEXT

Archaeologists generally divide the prehistoric era in the region into three periods: Paleoindian (13,000–7500 B.C.), Archaic (7500–1000 B.C.), and Woodland (1000 B.C.–A.D. 1600). These periods cover the time from the earliest occupation of the region by humans until contact with people from Europe and Africa in the middle of the sixteenth century. While there may be evidence of human occupation in western North America and South America before 10,000–12,000 B.C., there is no conclusive evidence in the Mid-Atlantic region for human occupation before the Paleoindian Period. There is, however, a great deal of debate over the issue, and archaeological sites, such as Cactus Hill in Virginia (e.g., McAvoy and McAvoy 1997), Meadowcroft Rockshelter in southwestern Pennsylvania (e.g., Adovasio et al. 1978), and the Topper Site in South Carolina (e.g., Parfit 2000; Rose 1999), have provided tantalizing, yet controversial and inconclusive, evidence for human occupation predating the Paleoindian Period.

The Archaic and Woodland Periods are each further subdivided into Early, Middle, and Late Periods, which are characterized by changes in material culture, environmental adaptation, subsistence strategies, settlement patterns, technology, and sociopolitical configurations. Each major time period is discussed below, along with relevant data concerning settlement and subsistence patterns that have been established by previous excavation and study of archaeological sites in the Piedmont and Coastal Plain.

3.1.1 PALEOINDIAN PERIOD (13,000–7500 B.C.)

The end of the Pleistocene epoch (ca. 10,000 years ago) represents the terminus of the Ice Age, or at least the beginning of a long interglacial episode. The environment during this time was quite different from modern conditions. Moisture that was locked up in the glacial ice sheets resulted in lower sea levels and greater exposure of land area along coastal areas. Areas that were exposed during this time were subsequently inundated by the global rise in sea level that began at the end of Pleistocene, when climatic amelioration resulted in melting continental ice sheets. During this period of post-glacial warming, the climate was probably 3 to 8 degrees Celsius (5.4 to 14.4 degrees Fahrenheit) colder than it is at present, and the vegetation consisted of an open spruce parkland forest composed of spruce, pine, fir, and alder (Brush 1986:149; Owens et al. 1974; Sirkin et al. 1977). While the dates for the Paleoindian Period are continuously debated, it is generally accepted that human populations had become established in spatially discrete areas of North America by 10,000 B.C.

The Paleoindian toolkit typically consists of diagnostic lanceolate projectile points, unifacial and bifacial knives, endscrapers, sidescrapers, graters, burins, denticulates, *pieces esquillées*, wedges, perforators, and generalized unifaces and bifaces (Dent 1995). Diagnostic projectile

points consist of fluted and unfluted forms, and include Clovis, Cumberland, and Dalton types (Justice 1995). Limaces are also thought to be diagnostic of this time (e.g., Vail Site, Gramly 1982). Paleoindian tools tend to be well made; they were typically manufactured from high-quality cryptocrystalline materials chosen for their predictable and consistent flaking properties.

Paleoindian sites are rare in the Mid-Atlantic region, but a sufficient number has been identified to provide for an interpretation of prehistoric settlement patterns and subsistence during the period. Much of what archaeologists know about Paleoindians comes from isolated finds of fluted projectile points (e.g., Flint Run Complex; Gardner 1974, 1977). Buried Paleoindian sites are rare in Maryland (e.g., Higgins Site, Ebright 1992). Paleoindian settlements consisted of seasonally occupied camps, from which forays were made to obtain specialized resources, such as stone for tool manufacture (Custer 1984a; Dent 1995; Gardner 1977). Site types postulated for the Paleoindian Period include base camps, quarry sites, quarry reduction stations, quarry-related base camps, base camp maintenance stations, outlying hunting stations, and isolated projectile point finds (Turner 1994).

The Paleoindian Period inhabitants of the Mid-Atlantic region are typically viewed as being close to the idealized forager (Binford 1980), with small bands moving through the landscape for most of the year, hunting, fishing, and foraging for wild edibles. While Paleoindian subsistence was probably focused on hunted game, evidence suggests that plants and fish were also important food resources (Dent 1995; Kavanagh 1982; McNett 1985).

3.1.2 ARCHAIC PERIOD (7500–1000 B.C.)

The Archaic Period dates from 7500–1000 B.C., and is conventionally subdivided into the Early (7500–6000 B.C.), Middle (6000–3500 B.C.), and Late/Transitional (3500–1000 B.C.) sub-periods. The Archaic Period generally refers to pre-ceramic sites associated with hunter-gatherers that occupied the emerging deciduous forests of the Eastern Woodlands.

Human populations living in the region during the Archaic Period were adapting to major changes in the environment. Evidence from Paleoindian and Early Archaic sites suggests that the transition from the Paleoindian way of life was not a sharp break, but rather a gradual transition (Custer 1990) associated with a major climatic change that marked the end of the Pleistocene and beginning of the Holocene. The cool and moist climate of the late Ice Age shifted to a warmer and drier climate that approximates that of today. Rising sea levels inundated the lower Susquehanna River Valley and began forming the Chesapeake Bay estuary and its large salt and brackish water marshes, habitats that provided a rich and diverse subsistence base (Kraft 1976). As temperatures increased during the early Holocene, vegetation in the region shifted from coniferous forests of spruce to mixed deciduous/coniferous forests of hemlock, birch, hickory, and oak (Brush 1986:149; Custer 1990:10; Owens et al. 1974; Sirkin et al. 1977). After 7000 B.C., the spread of deciduous woodlands into upland areas, which had been predominantly spruce, hemlock, and pine forests, opened up new habitats to be exploited by animals and humans (Custer 1990).

3.1.2.1 Early Archaic Period (7500–6000 B.C.)

The Early Archaic is marked by the replacement of lanceolate bifacial projectile points of Paleoindian assemblages with somewhat smaller, side- and corner-notched and bifurcate-base projectile points (Gardner 1974, 1977). These stylistic changes in lithic tool technology reflect

changes in subsistence strategies, which moved towards the exploitation of a more diverse set of animals. The introduction of notching likely reflects the introduction of the atlatl. Side- and corner-notched projectile points diagnostic of the Early Archaic Period in the region include Dalton/Hardaway, Kessel, Palmer, Charleston, and Kirk; bifurcate types include LeCroy, MacCorkle, St. Albans, and Kanawha (Dent 1995; Justice 1995). There was an apparent shift in lithic raw material preferences during the Early Archaic. At the beginning of the period, there was still a focus on imported stone for tool manufacturing, but by the end of the period, locally available stone was in more use.

Settlement patterns in this period were dictated by the distribution of floral and faunal resources, and were, therefore, scattered across a wider range of environmental zones (Barse and Harbison 2000). Both Gardner (1974) and Custer (1980) have hypothesized that, during the Early Archaic Period, people banded together into macro-base camps—or groups of families—in the spring and summer, and dispersed into smaller micro-base camps in the fall and winter. The larger base camps were located in the valley floodplains, while the smaller fall and winter camps were located in upland regions.

The number and distribution of Early Archaic sites across the region likely reflect an adaptation to the abundant and diverse game species that inhabited the rapidly spreading deciduous forests. There is little faunal evidence from archaeological sites dating to the Early Archaic Period, though “it is assumed that this environment supported bear, deer, elk, and a variety of small game adapted to a northern climate” (Kavanagh 1982:9). One exception is the Cactus Hill site (44SX202), which contains the remains of species that are still common in the region today (Whyte 1995). Floral evidence from sites, such as the Crane Point site on the Maryland Western Shore, includes hickory nut, butternut, acorn, amaranth, and chenopodium (Lowery and Custer 1990; Lowery 2001, 2003). Other sites in the region have produced similar results (Dent 1995). The floral remains recovered from Early Archaic contexts indicate that a variety of plants were used for food. In addition to floral remains, stone artifacts, such as grinding slabs, milling stones, and nutting stones, are indications of increased reliance on plant foods, while adzes indicate the increased use of wood. The changes in tool types have been interpreted as a shift in subsistence strategies towards a broad-spectrum adaptation, which indicates the utilization of a variety of species of animals and plants, rather than a focus primarily on large animals.

3.1.2.2 Middle Archaic Period (6000–3500 B.C.)

The beginning of the Middle Archaic Period coincided with the onset of the Atlantic climatic episode, a warm, humid period with a gradual rise in sea level that led to the development of inland swamps (Barse and Beauregard 1994:9). It was a period marked by an increase in summer drought, sea level rise, grassland expansion into the Eastern Woodlands, the appearance of new plant species, and the spread of deciduous forests (Carbone 1976:106; Hantman 1990:138). These changes significantly altered the Mid-Atlantic region, from a relatively homogeneous to a much more diverse environment (Barse and Harbison 2000). During this time, the effects of sea level rise following deglaciation were visible; extensive riverine swamps formed, and river and estuary systems took on their modern configurations. Large Middle Archaic occupations have been identified around Zekiah and Mattawoman Swamps in southern Maryland, and Dismal Swamp in Virginia, evidence that Middle Archaic populations opportunistically expanded into a newly emerging, ecologically productive environment (Custer 1990).

Stemmed and side-notched projectile point forms are characteristic of the Middle Archaic Period. Diagnostic projectile points include Stanly, Morrow Mountain, Guilford, Halifax, Otter Creek, and Brewerton series (Coe 2006; Dent 1995; Hranicky 1994; Justice 1995; Klein and Klatka 1991). The Laurentian Tradition (ca. 4000–2000 B.C.), which encompasses the late Middle Archaic and early Late Archaic, is represented by Otter Creek, Vosburg, and Brewerton corner- and side-notched types (Ritchie 1980). Fully grooved axes are also diagnostic of this period.

Most Middle Archaic sites are identified through projectile point finds on Holocene terraces and upland surfaces in the Potomac Valley, as well as along estuaries and swamp margins, and near springheads. Middle Archaic occupations tend to be small and artifact assemblages limited primarily to tool manufacturing debitage related to toolkit replenishment (Barse and Beaugard 1994). Most are surface finds (e.g., Zekiah Swamp, Looker and Tidwell 1963); however, Middle Archaic occupations have been identified at a few stratified sites (e.g., Clifton Site, Barse and Beaugard 1994; Higgins Site, Ebright 1992).

A rise in the number of Middle Archaic sites is indicative of steady population growth. Settlement patterns of the period are defined by a foraging pattern that emphasized the use of seasonally available floral and faunal resources (Barse and Harbison 2000). Settlements consisted of small base camps located in or near inland swamps that were conveniently accessible to seasonally available subsistence resources, as well as small, temporary upland hunting sites. Custer (1990) has interpreted available Middle Archaic settlement data as indicating a serial settlement system that began replacing the more cyclical system prevalent during the Early Archaic beginning around 6500 B.C. In this model, Middle Archaic groups moved through their territory, establishing base camps with smaller, satellite resource procurement camps or base camp maintenance stations (e.g., hunting, collecting, or quarrying sites), from which resources were brought to the base camps. Base camps were moved seasonally as resources in different environments became available.

Reliance on seasonally available resources required a dependable collecting and harvesting schedule, and the development of a more specialized toolkit to process diverse resources. The increasing reliance on seasonally available plant and animal resources required Middle Archaic groups to schedule their occupations based on the time of year when resources, such as nuts and seeds, could be harvested or collected.

3.1.2.3 Late Archaic Period/Transitional Period (3500–1000 B.C.)

By approximately 3000 B.C., modern vegetation had become established in the region, and the climate was punctuated by alternating periods of dry and moist conditions (Brush 1986:150). In general, the Late Archaic Period is characterized by a warmer and drier climate than that of today, with the development of xeric forests (e.g., oak and hickory) and open grasslands (Carbone 1976; Custer 1984b; Kellogg and Custer 1994). The sea level continued to rise, but was relatively stable by the end of the Late Archaic Period (Colman et al. 1993; Dent 1995; Lowery 2003).

This period is characterized by the exploitation of riverine and estuarine resources. Higher sea levels resulted in the saline cline moving upriver in tidal environments, which forced freshwater-spawning fish to travel further upstream to spawn. This, in turn, resulted in seasonal fish runs in the rivers and streams along the Coastal Plain. Another effect of sea level rise was the

development of brackish water estuaries in the greater Chesapeake area, which encouraged the spread of aquatic food species, including oysters and blue crabs (Barse et al. 2006; Gardner 1982). The exploitation of new food sources resulted in changes to the Late Archaic toolkit, site types, and settlement patterns.

As previously mentioned, the Laurentian Tradition (ca. 4000–2000 B.C.) continued into the early Late Archaic Period, and is represented by Otter Creek, Vosburg, and Brewerton corner- and side-notched types (Ritchie 1980). Other diagnostic projectile points of the Late Archaic Period include the Piscataway, Vernon, and Bare Island/Holmes types of the Piedmont Tradition (Steponaitis 1983); however, Mouer (1991) assigns Piscataway and Vernon points to the Early Woodland Period, following the reinterpretation of the Stephenson et al.'s (1963) work at the Accokeek Creek site.

The Broadspear Tradition appeared throughout most of the eastern Coastal Plain around the beginning of the second millennium B.C. (Mouer et al. 1981). Diagnostics include the Savannah River, Koens-Crispin, and Susquehanna Broadspear points, as well as steatite bowls. In Maryland and Virginia, the beginning of the Transitional Period is marked by the appearance of the Savannah River Complex, originally described by Coe (2006) with the appearance of Savannah River points around 2200 B.C. (Mouer 1991). Bannerstones and three-quarter grooved axes first appear in the archaeological record during the Late Archaic Period.

Technological development continued throughout the Late Archaic Period. Groundstone objects, including carved steatite bowls and steatite net weights, are common components of period assemblages (Barse et al. 2006). The steatite bowls recovered from Late Archaic sites represent the first archaeologically visible, durable container technology in the Mid-Atlantic region. It is believed that, prior to the appearance of steatite bowls, the prehistoric inhabitants of the region used containers made from more perishable materials, such as wood or woven baskets, but these objects have not been preserved in the archaeological record.

The most common steatite vessel form is the shallow, round to oblong, thick-walled bowl with an unrestricted opening and opposing lug handles on the side (Dent 1995). Traditionally, these bowls have been interpreted as cooking vessels used in indirect heat cooking, whereby the contents of the bowl were boiled by the addition of heated stones (Dent 1995; Klein 1997). Steatite vessels have also been interpreted as vessels used to process items consumed during rituals, or to serve ritual drinks or foods, rather than for generalized cooking (Hantman and Gold 2002; Klein 1997).

While the majority of Late Archaic sites can be characterized as short-term exploitive sites or camps, and short-term base camps, the movement of the saline cline, creation of brackish water estuaries, and development of seasonal fish runs led to a new settlement type, the long-term base camp. These larger, semi-sedentary base camps were typically located at the divide between fresh water and brackish water sections of major rivers (Dent 1995). Late Archaic semi-sedentary base camps appear to represent multi-season occupations near stable, predictable riverine/estuarine resources (Barse et al. 2006; Klein and Klatka 1991). Not only were these sites occupied for longer periods of time, but also Late Archaic populations began to invest labor in constructing permanent features that could be used year after year by groups returning to these base camps.

Subsistence was still largely based on gathering and hunting, although there was an increased reliance on riverine resources towards the end of the period (Steponaitis 1980). Seasonal hunting and foraging continued, but exploitation of riverine resources rapidly became an important part of the subsistence base. This continued the earlier trend towards a broad-spectrum adaptation, in which a variety of resources were exploited in many different environmental settings. This broad-spectrum adaptation is another way of characterizing what Caldwell (1958) called “primary forest efficiency” in the Archaic of the Eastern Woodlands.

A number of indicators point to an intensification of certain subsistence strategies ca. 2000 B.C., representing a major change in lifeways. This intensification has been explained both as a consequence of gradual change (Caldwell 1958) and as episodic change relating to shifts in the composition of the environment (Carbone 1976). Structures used to exploit anadromous fish runs, such as fish weirs, were constructed during this period and reflect the intensive riverine focus of the latter part of the period. While riverine resources were certainly important, interior and upland areas continued to be utilized by Late Archaic peoples. Late Archaic subsistence economies may be described as diffuse, considering the use of upland areas for a broad range of resource procurement activities, including gathering foods, such as acorns, hickory nuts, and butternuts, as well as hunting large and small game (Cleland 1976). By 1500 B.C., subterranean storage pits and steatite containers appear in the archaeological record; both are direct evidence of technological development that reflects the production of food surpluses and the need to preserve them over an extended period. The appearance of large numbers of implements used to process seed and fiber products is further evidence of this emerging economic pattern.

3.1.3 WOODLAND PERIOD (1000 B.C.–A.D. 1600)

The Woodland Period dates from 1000 B.C.–A.D. 1600, and is conventionally divided into the Early (1000 B.C.–A.D. 200), Middle (A.D. 200–900), and Late (A.D. 900–1600) periods. The climate during the Woodland Period was characterized by a return to cool, moist conditions and the establishment of modern floral communities. The Woodland Period is marked by the introduction of ceramics, population growth, and an increasingly sedentary way of life. Natural floral and faunal resources remained important, but horticulture, centered on maize cultivation, eventually formed an important part of the Late Woodland Period subsistence base.

The transition between the Archaic and Woodland Periods is characterized by an increase in population and sedentism. The Woodland Period featured new material and cultural features, including technological advances in pottery, food processing, and storage (Dragoo 1976:17). The introduction of pottery into the artifact assemblage around 1000 B.C. typically characterizes the beginning of the Woodland Period. Innovations in ceramic types have become a significant basis for dating deposits within the Woodland Period.

3.1.3.1 Early Woodland Period (1000 B.C.–A.D. 200)

Early Woodland sites are generally larger than sites of previous periods, and reflect an increasing reliance on estuarine resources, such as shellfish. This is evidenced by finds of large shell midden sites dated to this period. It was previously thought that the transition between the Archaic and Woodland Periods, between 2000 and 1000 B.C., represented the introduction of horticulture (e.g., Fritz 1993; Smith 1992). Although Early Woodland groups in the South and Midwest used cultivated plants, there is presently no evidence that cultivated foods played a role in the diet of Early Woodland people in the area. Very efficient hunting and gathering systems

(Caldwell 1958), including riverine and marine species exploitation, may have made the acceptance of cultigens slow at first. Only after A.D. 900, when varieties of tropical cultigens adapted to local conditions arrived in the Mid-Atlantic, did cultivated foods begin to assume an important role (Smith 1992).

Projectile points characteristic of the Early Woodland Period include Calvert, Rossville, Potts, and Piscataway types, some of which are also found in Late Archaic contexts (Dent 1995; Hranicky 1991, 1993, 1994). Other artifact types include drills, perforators, flake tools, scrapers, bifaces, anvil stones, net sinkers, mortars, pestles, manos, metates, groundstone tools (e.g., axes, adzes, celts), ground slate, gorgets, and tools made from animal bone and teeth (Dent 1995).

The introduction of pottery around 1000 B.C. marks the beginning of the Woodland Period. Potters' innovations, as reflected in ceramic types, have become a significant basis for dating Woodland Period archaeological site components. The earliest ceramic types from the area are the steatite-tempered Marcey Creek ware and Selden Island varieties, which were replaced by the sand or crushed quartz-tempered Accokeek wares. These ceramics are associated with fishtail and corner-notched projectile point types. In particular, Accokeek ceramics are often associated with Calvert and Rossville points (Wesler et al. 1981:183).

Settlement patterns in the Early Woodland Period are similar to those of the Late Archaic, and at numerous sites, Early Woodland occupations succeed earlier Late Archaic habitations with little or no evidence of a break in occupation. The settlement-subsistence system was focused primarily on a series of base camps, where people gathered to exploit seasonally available resources (Gardner 1982:60). These base camps were used to harvest anadromous fish in the spring and early summer, and to exploit estuarine resources in the fall and early winter. Smaller sites generally associated with specialized ventures, such as hunting or quarrying, are found on or near interior drainages. Other than a trend towards sedentism and more focused hunting and gathering, subsistence patterns were similar to those of the preceding Late Archaic Period, with increasing reliance on marine resources (e.g., shellfish) and cultivated plants (Dent 1995). Barber (1991) contends that an increase in sedentism was, in part, a result of a stabilized sea level that facilitated the establishment of resource-rich environments.

3.1.3.2 Middle Woodland Period (A.D. 200–900)

Generally, the Middle Woodland Period is not well defined, and researchers disagree about the exact boundaries of the period. Dent (1995:235) has referred to this as a period of “technological homogenization,” where “ceramic and projectile point variability becomes limited to fewer types.” Despite the presence of fewer ceramic and projectile point styles, the Middle Woodland Period represents a continuation and further development of cultural complexity that culminates in the Late Woodland Period. In addition, intensification in trade networks over a large region is one of the notable trends evident by the onset of the Middle Woodland Period. It is thought that warmer and drier conditions may have prevailed during this period (Kellogg and Custer 1994).

Stone toolkits utilized by Middle Woodland peoples are basically the same as those used during the succeeding Late Woodland, but more exotic lithic materials are evident in Middle Woodland assemblages. The technology evident in many of the Middle Woodland sites seems to favor bifacial tool production rather than the prepared core and blade flake technology that typifies Ohio Valley cultures at this time. Projectile points characteristic of the Middle Woodland Period include Selby Bay/Fox Creek and Jack's Reef types (Custer 1989; Dent 1995; Potter 1993).

Other tool types found during the Middle Woodland Period are similar to those found during the Early Woodland Period, and include drills, perforators, flake tools, scrapers, bifaces, anvil stones, net sinkers, mortars, pestles, manos, metates, groundstone tools (e.g., axes, adzes, celts), ground slate, and gorgets (Dent 1995). Dent (1995) also notes that bone tools, such as awls and needles, appear to be more ubiquitous during the Middle Woodland than the preceding Early Woodland Period. The presence of non-local rhyolite, argillite, and jasper at a few sites suggests that exchange networks may have been in place between the Coastal Plain and areas near both western Maryland and the New Jersey Fall Line (Barse and Beaugard 1994:15).

The major ceramic type for the area is Popes Creek (Barse and Beaugard 1994; Dent 1995), which was first manufactured in the Early Woodland Period. The style persisted through the early Middle Woodland Period in the region (Maryland Archaeological Conservation Laboratory [MAC] 2003). Mockley ware was introduced ca. A.D. 200. Different diagnostic projectile point/knife types are associated with the Pope's Creek and Mockley phases of the Middle Woodland. Rossville and Adena points are found at early Middle Woodland sites in association with Pope's Creek ceramics. Lithic artifacts associated with Mockley ceramics include crudely flaked, side-notched, and parallel-stemmed Selby Bay or Fox Creek points. These projectile point/knife types are followed by terminal Middle Woodland arrowheads, such as Jack's Reef corner-notched (Sperling 2008; Wright 1973).

Settlement patterns were largely similar to those of the Early Woodland Period, although base camp settlements located at fresh and brackish water junctions appear to have been abandoned in favor of broader floodplain sites, where maximum resource exploitation of both non-tidal and tidal aquatic resources was possible (Dent 1995). The large number of sites for this period and the extensive size of some of the sites support the argument for possible seasonal aggregation and dispersal. There is some evidence for a significant shift towards settlement of coastal and estuarine areas (Davidson 1981), though Hughes (1980) notes that inland areas along swamps and small streams were still being utilized. Hunting and gathering continued as the primary method of acquiring food, with an increased reliance on riverine and domesticated plant resources. The presence of large, shell middens during the Middle Woodland Period indicates the increased reliance on shellfish. There was also an intensification of horticultural practices, although hunting, fishing, and plant collecting were still important subsistence pursuits.

3.1.3.3 Late Woodland Period (A.D. 900–1600)

The Late Woodland Period is traditionally viewed as the culmination of technological, settlement, and subsistence trends that began in the Early Woodland. By the Late Woodland, cultivated crops became important in subsistence for much of the region (Dent 1995). It was during this time that maize horticulture was adopted, although hunting, gathering, and fishing remained an important part of the subsistence economy. The Holocene was thought to have been climatically stable; however, recent research has demonstrated that it was punctuated by abrupt periods of cooling or drought lasting decades or centuries (e.g., Brush and Hilgartner 2000; National Climatic Data Center 2005; Osborn and Briffa 2006; Willard et al. 2005). One of these cooling cycles, the Little Ice Age, occurred between ca. A.D. 1300 and 1850. Wall (2001:28) notes that archaeological evidence in the region suggests less agriculturally productive areas were occupied after A.D. 1400, which is perhaps a reflection of deteriorating environmental conditions caused by the Little Ice Age.

Late Woodland ceramics found in the region include Page, Shepard, Townsend, Potomac Creek, and Shenks Ferry wares (Egloff and Potter 1982; MAC 2003). Ceramic decoration and embellishment appear to be very important at this time. Projectile points characteristic of the Late Woodland Period include small triangular styles, such as the Madison and Levanna types and their variants, and are evidence of a change in hunting technology from the atlatl-launched spear to the bow and arrow (Custer 1989; Dent 1995). There is an apparent preference for locally available stone material for making points. Other stone artifacts associated with Late Woodland Period sites include scrapers, perforators, bifaces, hoes, choppers, net sinkers, groundstone axes, celts, adzes, mauls, grinding slabs, metates, manos, mortars, pestles, pendants, boatstones, bannerstones, and abraders (Dent 1995; Stephenson et al. 1963). Artifacts made from shell and bone are also recovered from Late Woodland Period sites, including fish hooks, scraping implements, pendants, awls, bodkins, beamers, needles, pins, and beads (Dent 1995). Clay tobacco pipes were manufactured during this period and copper beads and pendants are also found (Dent 1995).

The establishment of stable agriculture during the Late Woodland Period led to the development of sedentary floodplain villages, which were often located within palisades near agricultural fields (Wall 2001). The reliance on agriculture, as well as the presence of the remains of village palisades, hearths, storage pits, middens, and burials, indicates the greatest degree of sedentism seen until this time. Settlements were generally located on broad floodplains, often near the junction of a tributary stream and river (Wall 2001). Small transient camps have been found in upland settings (Gardner et al. 1984:18-20). Hunting and gathering was conducted from larger estuarine camps surrounded by micro-band camps. Smaller foraging and hunting ranges would have resulted in more limited exploration for lithic raw materials and greater dependence on resources found near the camps, as well as those regularly obtained through exchange with other groups.

One of the first widespread and clearly defined Late Woodland groups within the Piedmont physiographic province was the Montgomery Focus/Complex (Slattery and Woodward 1992). The Montgomery Focus initially was defined based on a suite of characteristics associated with numerous sites excavated along the Middle Potomac River Valley and adjacent tributaries (e.g., the Monocacy River) dating to A.D. 900–1450 (Dent 2005; Slattery and Woodward 1992). The Montgomery Focus sites have been interpreted as representing the settlements of small communities of agriculturalists along the banks of the Middle Potomac River and its larger tributaries (Dent 2005; Slattery and Woodward 1992). The type was defined by Schmitt (1952) based on his excavations at the Shepard site (18MO3) in Montgomery County, Maryland. Montgomery Focus/Complex sites are characterized by a circular palisade wall enclosing a series of elongated circular wooden post structures that are arranged around a ring of storage/trash pits encircling a small open space. The diagnostic ceramic ware associated with Montgomery Focus sites is Shepard ware (Dent 2005; Slattery and Woodward 1992).

Increased population density and competition for choice land and resources led to the rise of chiefdoms and a hierarchical political organization (Dent 1995). After A.D. 1500, there was an increase in social and political interaction among native tribes in the region, and Potter (1993:151) has suggested that an alliance of Coastal Plain Algonquian groups was formed prior to European contact. By the time of European contact, multiple chiefdoms existed along the Coastal Plain of Virginia and Maryland, including the Conoy, Piscataway, and Powhatan chiefdoms (Potter 1993).

3.2 HISTORIC CONTEXT

This section places the history of the Jackson homestead (the historic component of 18MO609), an archaeological site occupied by an African American family from the early nineteenth through early twentieth centuries, into a wider context of social, economic, and political trends within the State of Maryland and the United States. Key aspects of this historical sequence include the foundation of the Colony of Maryland and its development, which was based on tobacco plantations made profitable by an enslaved labor force, and the subsequent Emancipation and transition of the former enslaved to free citizens of the United States. This wider context intersects with the lives of members of the Jackson family, mirroring numerous events and trends in the African American experience in Maryland. These include enslavement, the religious and social movements of the early nineteenth century that espoused the freeing of slaves, the Civil War and eventual Emancipation, the subdivision of the large tobacco plantations, and, finally, the creation of community by freed African Americans. In particular, the role of churches and other institutions in the creation of community is examined.

Historic evidence suggests that members of the Jackson family were actively engaged in two of the local churches. At the same time, archaeological evidence suggests that the family employed various forms of folk rituals that reflect their African ancestry. This narrative is organized using the culture periods identified by the MHT as important historic contexts for the State: Euro-American Contact and Settlement (1570–1680), Rural Agrarian Intensification (1680–1820), Agricultural-Industrial Transition (1820–1870), Industrial Dominance (1870–1940), and Modern (1940–present). The history of Malinda Adams Jackson and her family is integrated throughout these broader temporal contexts.

As is often the case with historic research, there are some inconsistencies in dates and spelling of names or places. The spelling used here reflects the earliest or most common usage. In addition, period terms derived from historic sources relating to race or status (e.g., colored, mulatto, negro, slave, and owner) are used solely for historical accuracy.

3.2.1 EURO-AMERICAN CONTACT AND SETTLEMENT PERIOD (A.D. 1570–1680)

Native American culture at the time of contact with Europeans was a continuation of Late Woodland lifeways. Subsistence was based on agriculture, although harvesting wild plants and hunting game continued to be important. Social organization remained at a chiefdom level. Natives of the Maryland Coastal Plain probably felt the impact of initial European contact through contagious diseases and the movements of other Native American groups.

Captain John Smith's explorations of the Chesapeake Bay area during the years 1608 to 1610 marked the first well-documented contact between European explorers and Native Americans in the region. Captain Smith's journal describes his travels and maps villages along the extensive estuaries of the Potomac River. Initially, trade formed the basis for the relationship between Native Americans in the Potomac River area and the European settlers to the south. European-manufactured goods were traded for furs, with Native American groups vying for control of trade. The trading relationship also affected the material culture of Native American groups, which quite quickly began to shift from the use of stone and bone tools and locally made pottery to incorporate glass trade beads, brass arrow points, and other brass and iron objects (Potter 2006).

European exploration and settlement in the area continued through the 1600s, with relations between the Native Americans and Europeans characterized by peaceful coexistence interrupted by periods of tension and hostility. As colonists expropriated more land and the lands of local tribes were encroached upon, relations deteriorated further. By the 1650s, European settlers in Virginia and Maryland took an aggressive role in expropriating lands and driving out the Native Americans. Disease and warfare also decimated the extant Native American populations. Others were forced out of their homelands or accommodated to peaceful coexistence with the Europeans.

Sir George Calvert (1579–1632), a respected aide to both King James I (1603–1625) and King Charles I (1625–1649) of England, led the efforts for European colonization of what would become Maryland. Calvert served as Clerk of the Privy Council, Secretary of State, and a Member of Parliament (Scharf 1879:31). For his service to King James I, he was granted 2,300 acres (931 hectares) of land in County Longford, Ireland, elevated to Irish Peerage, and made Baron of Baltimore (Herbermann et al. 1913:193).

Due to his involvement in the colonization efforts of the Virginia Company, Calvert petitioned the King for the right to establish a colony in Newfoundland. In 1621, he purchased land in Ferryland, Newfoundland, and, in 1623, he received a patent from the King for proprietary lands consisting of the southeastern peninsula of Newfoundland (Scharf 1879:32-33). Calvert was intensely interested in the exploration and colonization of North America, but the climate of Newfoundland proved untenable and he soon set his sights further south. George Calvert died in April 1632, but his son Cecil (1605–1675), the second Baron of Baltimore, inherited his charter for the establishment of the Maryland colony, or “*Terrae Mariae*.” In 1634, colonists established St. Mary’s City, the first permanent settlement and capital in Maryland.

From the first days of settlement, tobacco was the primary cash crop in Maryland, which promoted migration to the colony, as labor was in high demand. From the 1630s through the mid-1660s, the population increased at a rate of approximately 10 percent per year (Carr et al. 1988:103). During this early period, most of the immigrants were white bonded or indentured servants from England, who typically came to work in the plantation system for five to seven years to pay the cost of their transport. The majority of the immigrants were young, unmarried, and unskilled men; however, a small number were women who worked as servants to artisans and planters (Carr et al. 1988:126). Indentured servants were the most readily available source of labor in the early decades of settlement in the southern colonies (Land 1969:54); however, the use of English servant labor in the Chesapeake region gave way to the increased use of enslaved Africans after 1660 (Berlin 1998:110). Laws stipulating the permanent conditions of slavery first appeared in Virginia in 1662:

Negro women’s children to serve according to the condition of the mother: Whereas some doubts have arisen whether children got by any Englishman upon a Negro woman should be slave or free, Be it therefore enacted and declared by this present grand assembly, that all children born in this country shall be held bond or free only according to the condition of the mother (Hening 1823:170).

An investment in slaves brought the promise of labor for the lifetime of that slave and of their children; slavery provided a self-reproducing labor-force (Berlin 1998:127). This one-time investment in labor became more appealing than bonded labor, which had to be replaced every

five to seven years. In 1715, a similar law was passed in Maryland: “All Negroes and other Slaves, and their Issue, shall be Slaves during their natural Lives” (Bacon 1765).

The charter from King Charles I gave Cecil Calvert ownership of approximately 7 million acres for the Maryland colony. From 1634 through 1680, the Calverts promoted the settlement of the colony through the headright system, in which small tracts of land, usually 50 acres per person, were granted to those who funded their own or others’ passage to the colony. More than 34,000 land patents were recorded under the system, a figure that may account for 80 percent of the settlers entering Maryland prior to 1684 (Kilty 1808). As many as 40,000 whites migrated to Maryland between 1634 and 1681 (Carr et al. 1988:101). During this early period, settlements centered on the Potomac and Patuxent rivers, and Maryland quickly became an important tobacco-producing colony.

3.2.2 RURAL AGRARIAN INTENSIFICATION (A.D. 1680–1815)

The headright system was discontinued in 1680, after which land was acquired by direct purchase. Charles Calvert, third Lord Baltimore, established the Land Office to record and administer land transactions. The first land patent recorded under the new system in what is now Montgomery County was issued to Henry Darnall in 1688 for a tract called “Girl’s Portion” (Berger 2002:11). For the next century, settlement continued and the population increased, extending outward from Rock Creek and Great Falls (Berger 2002:12). Patents generally consisted of thousands of acres and were held by men of considerable means, who sold or rented to tenants smaller tracts averaging about 200 acres (Berger 2002:11).

In 1694, the capital of Maryland was moved from St. Mary’s City to Annapolis in Anne Arundel County. This resulted in a shift of population, as settlers moved north and west. By 1700, Maryland was divided into 10 counties (Anne Arundel, Calvert, Cecil, Charles, Dorchester, Kent, Prince George’s, St. Mary’s, Somerset, and Talbot), with a combined population of roughly 32,000 (Browne 1905:255). Hinton (1972:4) noted that in 1696, when Prince George’s County was formed, the county population included 658 taxables (she estimated the population at between 1600 and 1700). Taxables included “all free males 16 years and over, all male servants 16 years and over, and all slaves, both male and female, 16 years and over, with the exception of clergymen and those receiving alms” (Hinton 1972:4).

In 1704, Maryland undertook its first census of free and enslaved inhabitants (Browne 1905:256). Nearly 35,000 people lived in the colony and approximately 10 percent were slaves. This percentage continued to grow during the eighteenth century, as the number of plantations, and resulting need for labor, increased. Prior to 1740, most of the enslaved were brought directly from Africa. Thereafter, most slaves were either native to Maryland or were transported to Maryland from other colonies (Spero et al. 1996:183). It is statistically likely that the enslaved ancestors of the Jackson family were first transported to Maryland during this period.

Settlers ventured into the western part of Prince George’s County in the 1710s, and by the 1730s the population consisted of 120 households (Barnett 1994:185). What is now Montgomery County became the western frontier for tobacco farmers, who moved from Anne Arundel and Prince George’s counties looking for new lands for their crops of tobacco and corn. Agriculture, specifically tobacco cultivation, remained the primary occupation of settlers and residents in the Montgomery County area throughout the eighteenth century. The widespread cultivation of

tobacco, a highly land- and labor-intensive cash crop, contributed to the persistence of large land holdings and the rise of slave ownership in the colony. One unintended consequence of the reliance on tobacco production, the depletion of nutrients and topsoil, and the resulting decreased crop yields, was more keenly felt during the late eighteenth and early nineteenth century.

In 1747, in an effort to regulate the quality and quantity of tobacco produced, the Maryland legislature instituted inspections, a system already in place in Virginia. Tobacco inspection points were established and warehouses were built throughout the colony. As in Virginia, communities developed around the tobacco inspection sites and new land routes appeared between communities. Still, few commercial services were available in Montgomery County during this time (Spero et al. 1996:83).

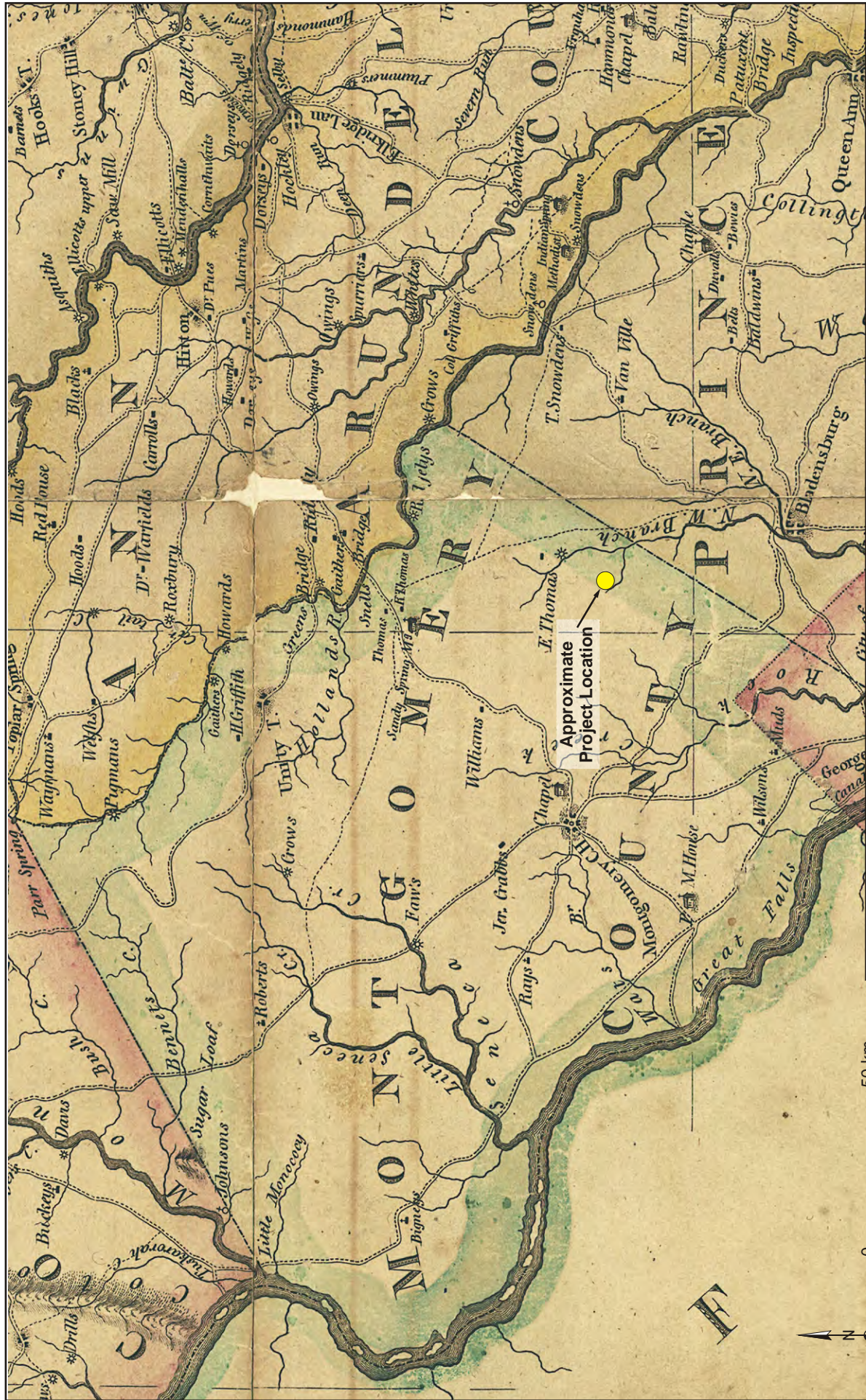
In 1776, the Maryland Constitutional Convention formed Montgomery County from parts of Prince George's County (founded in 1695) and Frederick County (founded in 1748). The county was named for General Richard Montgomery, an American officer killed in the Revolutionary War. The bounds of Montgomery County were recorded as:

Beginning at the east side of the mouth of Rock Creek, on the Potomac river, and running thence with the said river to the mouth of Monocacy, then with a straight line to Parr's Spring, from thence with the lines of the county to the beginning, shall be, in and hereby erected into a new county called Montgomery County (Maryland State Archives [MSA] 2008).

While named for a Revolutionary War officer, Montgomery County experienced little direct impact from the conflict. After the war ended, however, and Washington, D.C., was designated the new national capital of the United States, a symbiotic relationship developed between the city and county that continues to the present day.

The first U.S. Federal Census (U.S. Census 1908), conducted in 1790, recorded 18,003 people in Montgomery County, the sixth largest population among Maryland counties. Of these, approximately 6,030, or 33 percent, were enslaved and 204 were free, non-white persons. By 1810, the number of enslaved in Montgomery County reached an all-time high of nearly 7,500 (University of Virginia [UVA] 2004).

As the population of the new capital grew, commerce expanded and new transportation routes were developed throughout the county. Similarly, transportation routes linked Montgomery County with nearby ports in Baltimore, Georgetown, Bladensburg, and Annapolis. As depicted in the Griffith map of 1794, several key roads that define Montgomery County today were already present (Figure 5). Earliest among these is the Columbia Turnpike (the original Maryland Route 29, also known as Old Columbia Pike). Columbia Turnpike, which followed the course of older roads, was first proposed in 1809. It connected Baltimore's milling district on the Patapsco River near Ellicott's Mills to Washington, D.C., in the early years of the nineteenth century (MSA, General Assembly November 6, 1809–January 8, 1810: Session Laws, Volume 570:77). Other roads, such as Old Georgetown Road, connected points within the developing county (Berger 2002:13). By 1813, Old Baltimore Road (Maryland Route 28) between Rockville and Baltimore and the Washington-Brookeville Turnpike (Maryland Route 97) were established. These roads allowed farmers to transport produce overland to the growing population centers of Baltimore and Washington, D.C.



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SCALE 1 in = 41 km (26 mi)

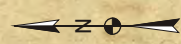
SOURCE Library of Congress 2010a

1795 Griffith Map

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PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 5



3.2.2.1 Early Development of Free African American Communities

It was late in the Rural Agrarian Intensification period that a nascent abolitionist movement began to coalesce. Evidence for that movement can be found in Montgomery County where early Methodist and Quaker communities, such as those found at Sandy Spring, found slavery morally wrong. Many Quakers began to free their slaves before the American Revolution and even more freed their slaves after the war (Hiebert and MacMaster 1976:48). The Sandy Spring Quakers were unified in the anti-slavery movement. Basil Brooke and Evan Thomas, two leaders in the community, were appointed to “visit their neighbors and encourage them to see the evil of slavery” (Hiebert and MacMaster 1976:48-49). Methodists, such as Thomas Rankin, also called for the end of slavery. By 1780, Methodists adopted a rule against slaveholding by preachers (Hiebert and MacMaster 1976:49).

The Sandy Spring Quakers led efforts to emancipate slaves and “ease the burden of slaves and free blacks alike” (Hiebert and MacMaster 1976:159). In 1801, William Stabler, a Quaker from Sandy Spring, drew up a petition calling attention to the sale of both enslaved and free African Americans; Evan Thomas presented the resolution to the Maryland House of Delegates (Hiebert and MacMaster 1976:155). In 1801, a bill passed that prohibited “out-of-state sale of slaves who would be free within a period of years” (Hiebert and MacMaster 1976:155). The same day, a bill that prohibited “the sale of slaves out of state when the sale would separate families” was defeated (Hiebert and MacMaster 1976:155).

The effects of this anti-slavery movement can be seen in the population statistics of Montgomery County. From 1790 to 1860, the number of free African Americans in Montgomery County rose steadily, although slavery continued throughout the county until Emancipation. In 1790, there were 294 free African Americans in Montgomery County. By 1800, the population rose to 494 and, by 1810, there were 677 free African Americans in the county (Hiebert and MacMaster 1976:155-156). Educational opportunities, however, were “scarce even in the Sandy Spring community” (Hiebert and MacMaster 1976:156).

While free African Americans were denied the right to vote or hold office in 1783, they did retain their right to own property (Hiebert and MacMaster 1976:156). Occasionally, plantation and farm owners who freed their slaves gave them property on which to settle. In 1793, free African Americans held 349 acres in the county. This increased to 1,773 acres in 1832, 5,371 acres in 1841, and 17,142 acres in 1860 (Hiebert and MacMaster 1976:156). By 1860, there were 51 African American landholders in the county, many of them concentrated in the Sandy Spring area. Zachariah Downs, owner of enslaved members of the Jackson family, may have been influenced by the anti-slavery movement. In Downs’ will of 1826, several members of the Jackson family were granted freedom, although it appears that his will was not universally enforced.

By the early nineteenth century, there was a substantial population of free African Americans in Maryland. In addition to Sandy Spring, two other early communities were founded in Montgomery County, Big Woods in 1813 and Mount Ephraim in 1814 (McDaniel 1979:15). Both were located adjacent to white farmers and reflect early “bi-racial communities of landowners” (McDaniel 1979:15). James Spencer, who purchased 50 acres in 1813, settled the Big Woods community. By the mid-century, another freeman, Elijah Awkard, acquired another 163 acres for Big Woods, making him one of the largest free African American landowners in the county (McDaniel 1979:15). David Moody, a charcoal burner who acquired 60 acres in

1814, founded Mount Ephraim near Sugarloaf Mountain. He purchased an additional 54 acres in 1833 (McDaniel 1979:15). Other free African American communities developed as the nineteenth century progressed, and many were adjacent to white farmers and resulted in “bi-racial communities of landowners” (McDaniel 1979:15). The history of freemen appears to intertwine with that of the Jackson family, as Malinda Adams Jackson’s father, Edward Adams, was a freeman.

3.2.3 AGRICULTURAL-INDUSTRIAL TRANSITION (A.D. 1815–1870)

The period of Agricultural-Industrial Transition encompassed a great many social, economic, and political trends in Maryland and the United States that had a direct impact on the inhabitants of the Jackson homestead. During this period, Montgomery County contained a largely rural, agricultural, plantation-based society, although soil depletion and decreases in tobacco yields caused changes in crops and settlement. Transportation routes improved, particularly those connecting communities in the county with Washington, D.C., which led to the development of numerous small crossroads communities.

If change in the county can be characterized as relatively slow during this period through 1865, the pace quickened dramatically thereafter. While, in some respects, the Civil War had little physical impact on Montgomery County, the concomitant changes this conflict brought fundamentally affected settlement, agriculture, and labor patterns in the county. Each of these aspects of Montgomery County history is reflected in the historical and archaeological record associated with the Jackson family.

While tobacco production was initially dominant, by 1840, depletion of the soil, and the subsequent decline in quantity, quality, and price of tobacco, brought about economic and demographic changes in Montgomery County. Societies, such as the Montgomery County Agricultural Society (organized in 1846) were formed to experiment with and disseminate information on alternative agricultural practices, such as crop rotation and diversification, deep plowing, and modern fertilizer applications (Anderson 1986:305). One consequence of the decline in tobacco production was that large land holdings were broken into smaller tracts, creating small-scale, family-owned farms that produced a variety of crops, including corn, wheat, and oats, where the farmers practiced animal husbandry. These changes in the agricultural base of Montgomery County, especially the use of fertilizers, crop rotation, and crop diversification, led to record prosperity between 1850 and 1860 (Spero et al. 1996:84). This agricultural revival ended with the Civil War. During raids by both Union and Confederate troops, fields were destroyed and farmhouses were burned. With the abolition of slavery in Washington, D.C., in 1862, many formerly enslaved persons fled to that city to live in freedom, thus undermining the labor base of Montgomery and other nearby counties (Spero et al. 1996:85).

Associated with the resurgence of agriculture during the 1850s, road development was spurred by farmers in Montgomery County wanting to distribute their produce more widely. What is now Colesville Road was established in 1856 to connect Laurel to Washington, D.C. Local landowners called for its construction and argued:

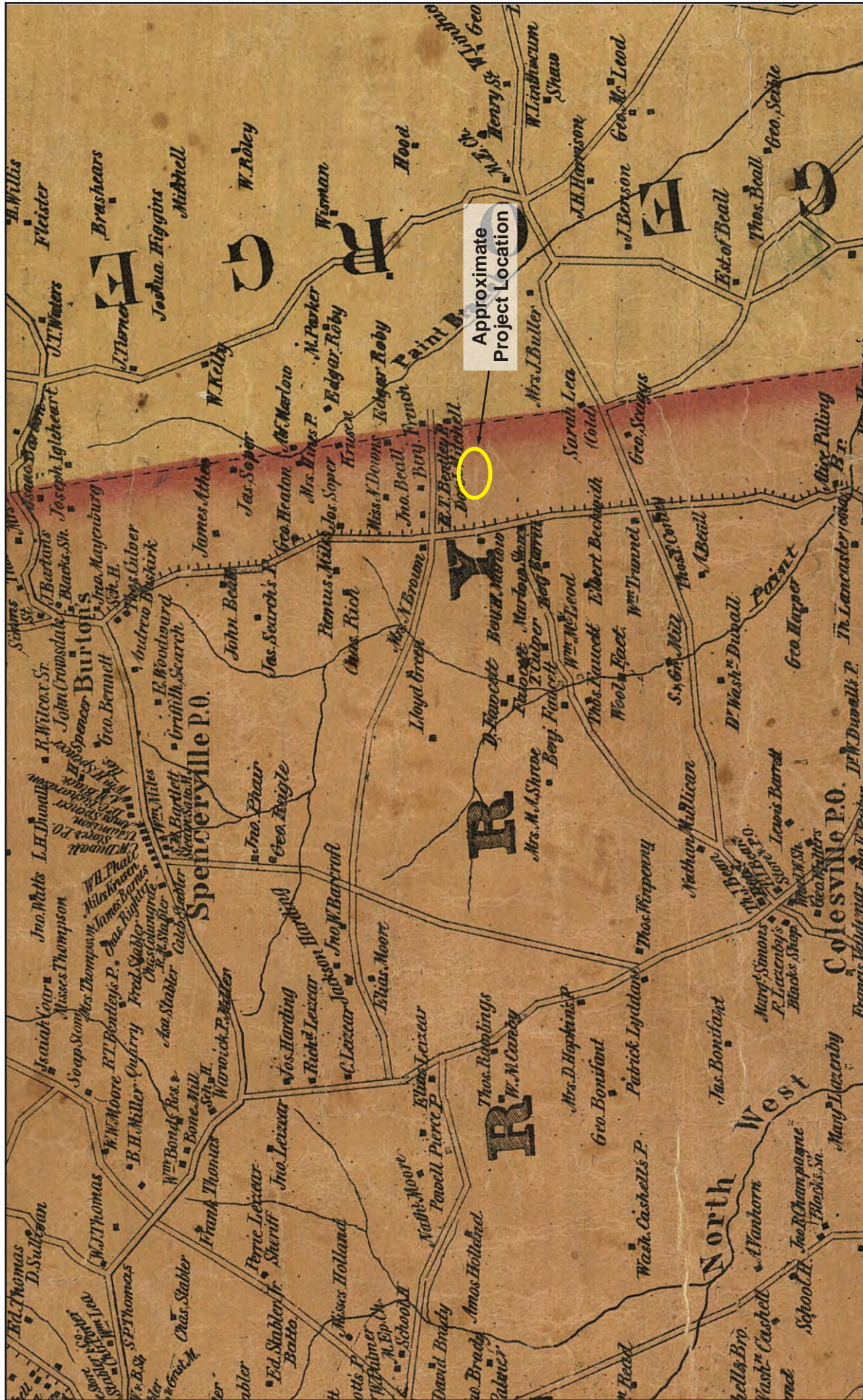
The public convenience required its location for the reasons that a large section of the County will be afforded the means of getting their produce to market by a nearer and better route and much land now unimproved and cut off from any road will be put into cultivation (MSA, Montgomery County Deeds [MCD] 1856: Liber JGH 5:140).

Smaller tracts became common in crossroads communities, as the subdivision of farmland and increase in the number of crossroads resulted in dispersed main street-type settlements. Alternatively, soil depletion sent some farmers west in search of more fertile land, as most available land in the county was in production by that time. Commerce and industry became increasingly important, influencing the development of new transportation systems. These trends continued throughout the nineteenth century. At the time, commerce was largely limited to general stores and services, such as blacksmith shops, often located within the newly formed crossroads communities (Spero et al. 1996:51, 85). Other services included gristmills to process grain, saw mills, wheel writes, and saddleries. One consequence of the changes in agriculture necessitated by soil depletion was the emergence of a fertilizer industry in the Sandy Spring area, where lime kilns and a bone mill were used to make fertilizer for local farmers (Spero et al. 1996:51).

The consequences of soil depletion, contributing to a decrease in tobacco production and an increased reliance on other crops and livestock, and the influence of improved transportation routes in Montgomery County during the mid-nineteenth century, can be detected in the Martenet and Bond map published in 1865 (LOC 2010b; Figure 6). Crossroads communities, such as Colesville and Spencerville in the northeastern section of the county, developed along major transportation routes. The Jackson homestead was located in one such crossroads community, known as Fairland. Fairland was geographically associated with the crossroads of Old Columbia Road and Fairland Road. Houses to the west were considered part of Colesville and, in the twentieth century, the area was integrated into greater Silver Spring.

In 1865, Fairland contained farmsteads, a school, store and post office, and mill. The 1865 Martenet and Bond map also shows what would become Fairland Road running northeast of Colesville and ending at Columbia Turnpike. A number of residences and the names of their owners are depicted near the turnpike and provide baseline information on this nascent community. Two of the same individuals are also listed in the 1860 U.S. Census. Benjamin Marlow owned a home and store between modern day Briggs Chaney and Fairland Roads. He was listed as a farmer with real estate valued at \$2,100. Joseph Soper was listed in the 1860 U.S. Census as a farmer who occupied a large tract of land, valued at \$4,500, which extended north of Briggs Chaney Road to the southern limits of Burtonsville.

By 1830, the population of Montgomery County rose to 19,816 and the percentage of enslaved individuals remained roughly consistent, at 33 percent (Chart 1) or 6,447 individuals (Chart 2). The slave population in the county was substantial and related directly to the agricultural dependence on large-scale and widespread tobacco cultivation. In contrast, the Prince George's County population consisted of 53 percent enslaved people and Frederick County, largely characterized by German dairy farmers and merchants, consisted of 12 percent enslaved people. Charts 1 and 2 indicate that, after significant rises in the numbers of enslaved in Montgomery County between 1790 and 1830, the enslaved population decreased and stabilized at below 5,500 by 1840. This decrease in the actual numbers and percentage of enslaved African Americans in Montgomery County has been attributed to the shift from the predominance of tobacco to a more mixed agricultural base and to the transportation of enslaved persons to the west as planters abandoned their depleted farms (Spero et al. 1996:183, 189).



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SCALE 1 in = 1.4 km (0.9 mi)

SOURCE Library of Congress 2010b

1865 Martenet Map

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FIGURE NO. 6

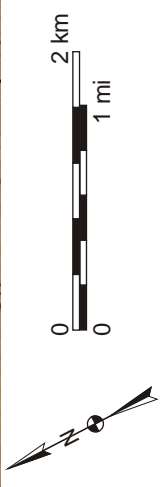
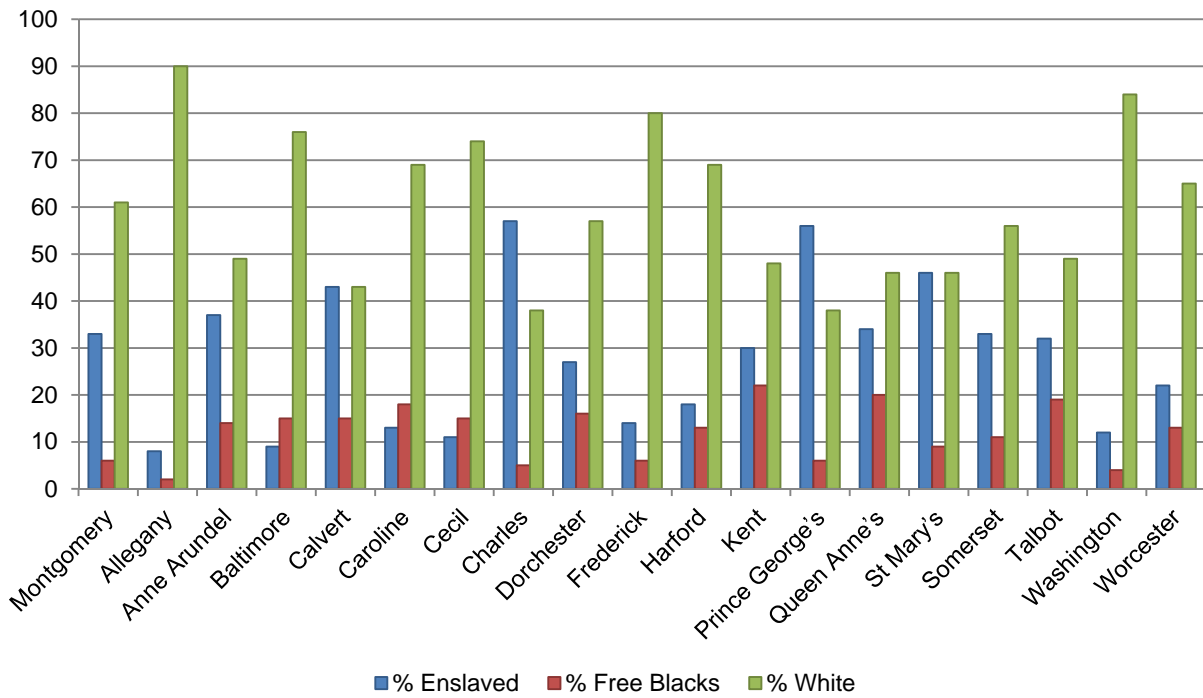
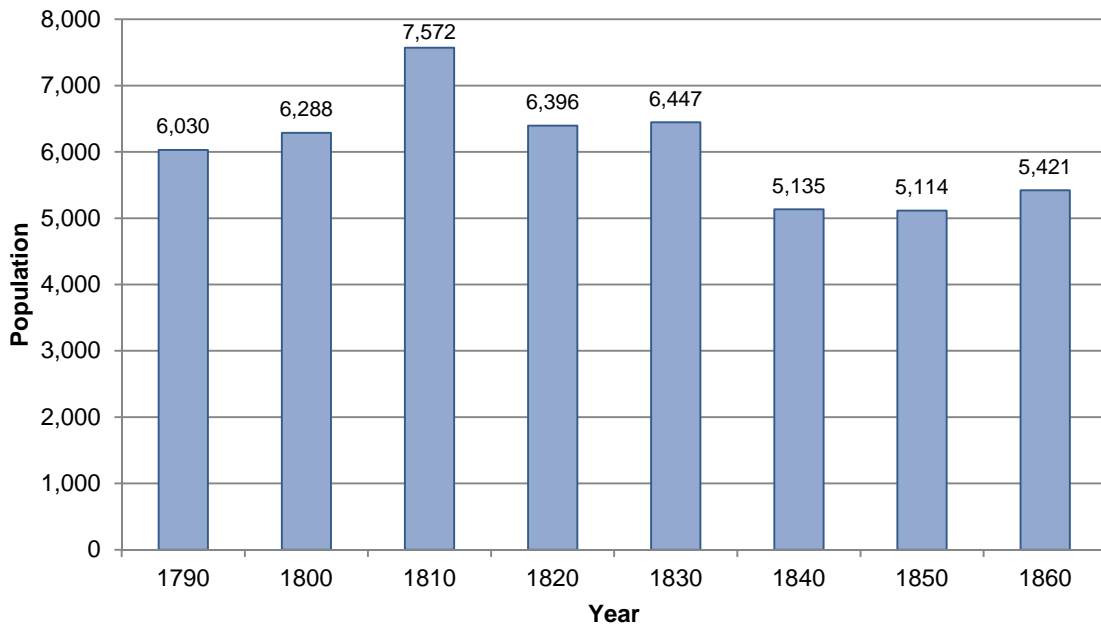


Chart 1. 1830 County Demographics



Source: Historical Census Browser, UVA, Geospatial and Statistical Data Center: 1830 U.S. Census

Chart 2. Enslaved Populations in Montgomery County, 1790-1860



Source: Historical Census Browser, UVA, Geospatial and Statistical Data Center

On the eve of the Civil War, Montgomery County had a population of 18,322 (United States, Bureau of the Census [U.S. Census] 1860). Of this, 5,421 (about 30 percent) were enslaved and 1,552 (about 8 percent) were free African Americans (Chart 2). Few owners held many slaves; only five in Montgomery County owned more than 50 slaves, while 765 owners averaged between six and seven slaves each (Spero et al. 1996:189).

Maryland was home to many free African Americans by the end of the first quarter of the nineteenth century. In 1830, the population in the State consisted of roughly 447,000 people. Of that, 65 percent were white, 23 percent were enslaved African Americans, and 12 percent were free African Americans. The ratio of free to enslaved persons varied dramatically from county to county (Chart 1). For example, Charles County's population in 1830 was 17,769, with 57 percent enslaved and only 5 percent free African Americans. In contrast, Allegany County's population was 10,609, with 8 percent enslaved and only 2 percent free African Americans. Kent County's population included 22 percent free African Americans, the highest percentage Statewide. Montgomery County fell near the average for the number of enslaved, at 33 percent, but below the average for the number of free African Americans, at 6 percent.

The 1830s became a key decade for the manumission of the African American enslaved. A slave revolt in Virginia in 1831 resulted in the enactment of a number of Maryland laws that restricted owners' rights to manumit the enslaved (Spero et al. 1996:189). After the enactment of these laws, the free African American population in Montgomery County stabilized through the 1850s (Spero et al. 1996:189).

Daily life for free and enslaved African Americans varied greatly from county to county and plantation to plantation in Maryland; both served as agricultural and house laborers (Hiebert and MacMaster 1976:152). On small farms, African Americans lived and worked side-by-side with the farm owners, with the enslaved often living in lofts in the farmer's house. On larger plantations, separate housing – in the form of slave quarters – was typically provided. Spero et al. (1996:189) indicate that those individuals living separately in quarters were often able to better develop family and community relationships. It was also common, especially on smaller farms, for enslaved husbands and wives to live and work separately on different farms. Children typically stayed with their mothers. Runaway advertisements often noted that a spouse was located on a different plantation and might be found there (Hiebert and MacMaster 1976:152).

Though Maryland did not secede from the Union during the Civil War, much of Montgomery County sympathized with the Confederacy due, in large part, to the tobacco-based, slave-dependent economy. The sympathy for the South and close proximity to the Nation's capital prompted President Lincoln to place Union troops throughout the county for the duration of the war. The county was traversed by both Union and Confederate troops, but little physical damage was done. Although a new Maryland Constitution outlawed slavery in late June of 1864, slavery was not effectively abolished until the Confederate surrender on April 9, 1865 (Myers 1901:53).

Nearly 60,000 Marylanders served in the Union army. Maryland produced six infantry regiments of African Americans, collectively known as the "U.S. Colored Troops," during the Civil War (MSA, History and Roster of Maryland Volunteers War of 1861-1865, Volume 2, 1899: Archives of Maryland Series, Volume 366). These soldiers were mostly from counties on the Eastern Shore and in southern Maryland, and from Baltimore, and may have numbered as many as 6,000.

The first historic evidence relating to the Jackson homestead dates to the Agricultural-Industrial Transition Period. Malinda Adams Jackson (her name after marriage) was enslaved from birth (ca. late 1825) to Zachariah Downs and, later, to his daughter, Ann Downs. Malinda, her mother, Rachel, and eight other slaves were listed in Zachariah's will in 1826. The 1860 census listed Malinda, Rachel, and four young boys (likely Malinda's children, John T. Adams, and George, Milburn, and Thomas, Jackson) as enslaved to Ann. A slave cabin was also listed as part of Ann's property; it is very likely that Malinda first occupied the house site as a child when it served as a slave quarter. While enslaved, she raised her children in the home prior to purchasing it in 1869. More information on the history of the Downs and Jackson families is provided later in this section.

During the nineteenth century, African American homesteads in Montgomery County often consisted of a dwelling house, privy, meat house, hen house, and hog pen. Additional structures may have been present, depending on the size of the parcel, including a stable, pasture, milk house, corn or feed house, garden, orchard, corn field, hay field, and well or spring (McDaniel 1979:28, 95). The first generation dwelling houses were simple two-story log buildings consisting of two rooms on each floor (McDaniel 1979:25). By the late nineteenth century, the houses were generally larger wood-frame buildings with a central hall, ell, and front porch (McDaniel 1979:26). In many cases, the owners built these houses, using carpentry skills learned on the plantation (McDaniel 1979:26). Although the African American communities were distinguishable entities, by the turn of the twentieth century, there were no appreciable formal differences between the rural houses of African Americans and those of white residents of similar socioeconomic status (McDaniel 1979:30).

Archaeological excavations suggest that the Jackson house mirrored some of the trends in African American housing. Initially, the structure was a single-pen slave cabin but, at some point—likely after Malinda purchased the property—it was expanded to a double-cell structure that was functionally a hall and parlor-style house. The single-pen side of the house served as the kitchen.

The small size of the parcels purchased by freed slaves generally prohibited anything but a subsistence living. Consequently, African American men typically maintained regular occupations to earn money for the family. Census records during the later nineteenth century indicate that most African American men in Montgomery County were farm laborers, farm hands, or day laborers, although a few men owned enough land to be designated as farmers. African American men were skilled in various trades, and were listed in the census as carpenters, blacksmiths, and wheelwrights. Freed African American women often worked as servants or washwomen. Children also worked as laborers or servants to supplement the family income.

3.2.3.1 Josiah Henson

It would be remiss to discuss African American life during this period without mentioning Reverend Josiah Henson, who wrote memoirs about his slave life in Montgomery County. Henson was also the inspiration for Harriet Beecher Stowe's *Uncle Tom's Cabin*. President Lincoln was said to have called Stowe "the little woman who wrote the book that made this big war" (Downs 1970:97).

Henson was born in Charles County, Maryland, but was separated from his mother and sold at auction at the age of 6 to a tavern keeper in Montgomery County (Hiebert and MacMaster

1976:153). After Henson became ill, the tavern keeper sold him to Isaac Riley, the farmer who had purchased his mother (Hiebert and MacMaster 1976:153-54). Henson recovered and became “the strongest and brightest slave on Riley’s farm” (Henson 1849:10-20). He later became an overseer and manager of Riley’s farm but, in order to pay his debts, Riley later sold Henson and his other slaves to his brother in Kentucky (Hiebert and MacMaster 1976:154). In 1806, at the age of 18, Henson attended a Methodist sermon after which he began to preach among the slaves (Hiebert and MacMaster 1976:154). He escaped to Canada, assisted in establishing a community of runaway slaves, and became a champion of abolitionists in the United States (Hiebert and MacMaster 1976:154). Henson eventually earned enough from preaching to purchase his freedom (Henson 1849:20).

In his book, *The Life of Josiah Henson, Formerly a Slave, Now an Inhabitant of Canada, as Narrated by Himself*, Henson describes slave life in detail, as demonstrated in the following excerpt:

Our lodging was in log huts, of a single small room, with no other floor than the trodden earth, in which ten or a dozen persons--men, women, and children--might sleep, but which could not protect them from dampness and cold, nor permit the existence of the common decencies of life. There were neither beds, nor furniture of any description--a blanket being the only addition to the dress of the day for protection from the chillness of the air or the earth. In these hovels were we penned at night, and fed by day; here were the children born, and the sick--neglected. Such were the provisions for the daily toil of the slave...The condition of the male slave is bad enough, Heaven knows; but that of the female, compelled to perform unfit labor, sick, suffering, and bearing the burdens of her own sex unpitied and unaided, as well as the toils which belong to the other, has often oppressed me with a load of sympathy. And sometimes, when I have seen them starved, and miserable, and unable to help themselves, I have helped them to some of the comforts which they were denied by him who owned them (Henson 1849:7-9).

Henson’s books made him famous and financially secure. He lectured across the United States and Europe, and met with President Hayes and the Queen of England (Hiebert and MacMaster 1976:154). At the time of the meeting with the President, he revisited the Montgomery County farm where he had once been enslaved, describing it as follows:

The old place is situated in Montgomery County, Maryland, about twelve miles from Washington, and four from Rockville. Long before we reached the house where my old master used to live, I saw that it was indeed another land from that of my boyhood. The once great plantation is now but a wilderness; the most desolate, demoralised place one can imagine.

The fertile fields where once waved acres upon acres of tasselled corn, of blooming rye, and oats and barley; the once ploughed land where grew the endless rows of potatoes, which I have hoed so many weary hours; the rich pastures where great herds of cattles used to graze,--all these splendid lands are overgrown with trees and underbrush. The fences are all gone; the fruitful orchards worn out and dead; and when we drove at last up the grass-grown road to the house, I saw it standing there all alone, without a single barn or stable or shed to bear it company, and it was in such a dilapidated condition that the windows rattled and the very door sprang ajar as we drove up and stopped before it (Henson 1881:220-221).

3.2.4 INDUSTRIAL DOMINANCE (A.D. 1870–1930)

During the Industrial Dominance period, Montgomery County saw the rapid development of railroads and commuter lines, telegraphs, electrical service, and towns, including some of the first suburbs of Washington, D.C. The Metropolitan Branch of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad provided passenger service to the county in 1873, and the railroad eventually supplanted the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal as a major route for the transportation of goods. The importance of agriculture to the county's economy declined, in part associated with the disruption of the Civil War and with labor shortages associated with Emancipation, although it continued to dominate the local economy until the turn of the twentieth century. Economic changes associated with suburbanization, spurred by the proximity of Washington, D.C., became important, as agriculture declined during the second half of this period. Trolley car lines were established, which allowed the development of early suburbs, including Takoma Park, Chevy Chase, Kensington, and Garrett Park. In the 40 years after the Civil War, suburbanization contributed to the doubling of the assessed real estate value, to \$12 million, in Montgomery County.

Montgomery County was a largely rural, agriculturally based society before 1900. By 1880, wheat had replaced tobacco as the major cash crop in the county (Spero et al. 1996:52). Dairy production became increasingly important as transportation routes improved. The first transportation improvement that influenced dairy farming in Montgomery County was the completion of the railroad in 1873. The line allowed producers to ship dairy products to both Washington, D.C., and Baltimore, which spurred the growth of a number of dairy farms in Montgomery County (Spero et al. 1996:92).

A second development boom spurred county growth after World War I, continuing until the eve of the Great Depression. During this period, Fairland also experienced significant changes that reflected its transition from a rural, agricultural community to a growing suburb of Washington, D.C. The introduction of motor vehicles and improved roads during the early twentieth century continued this trend, to the extent that tobacco was largely displaced by other farming enterprises by 1919, when only 134 acres of the crop were planted in Montgomery County (Spero et al. 1996:92). The advent of the railroad and motor vehicles also allowed farmers easier access to fertilizer and other markets (Spero et al. 1996:87).

Commerce and industry continued to reflect the rural nature of the county, at least through the early twentieth century. Crossroads communities and railroad stops expanded, providing taverns and lodging for travelers (Spero et al. 1996:54). Otherwise, most businesses were geared towards serving local residents. These businesses included manufacturers and suppliers of agricultural implements, blacksmiths, tanneries, saddleries, tin shops, wheelwrights, and the ubiquitous general stores (Spero et al. 1996:54).

Members of the African American community in Montgomery County had significantly fewer opportunities to participate in the post-Civil War economic revitalization than did their white counterparts. While the African American population of Montgomery County increased slightly after the Civil War, from 33 percent of the total population in 1860 to variously between 36 and 37 percent of total population between 1870 and 1890 (UVA 2004), individuals encountered a segregated society that was increasingly enforced by Jim Crow laws. While the number of African Americans living in Montgomery County rose between 1870 and 1900, to just over 10,000 in 1900, the U.S. Census of that year also marked a decline in the relative contribution of African Americans to the total county population, from 36 percent in 1890 to 33 percent in 1900

(UVA 2004). For the next 30 years, both the relative and actual numbers of African Americans residing in Montgomery County declined in every census. The 10,058 African Americans enumerated in 1900 accounted for 33 percent of the county population, whereas, by 1930, only 8,268 African Americans resided in the county, accounting for only 17 percent of the total population (UVA 2004). In other jurisdictions, significant declines such as those noted here were associated with out-migration spurred by job opportunities, often in large cities, including Baltimore and Washington, D.C., and the effects of Jim Crow laws. This appears to have been true in Montgomery County as well (Spero et al. 1996:191).

Those African Americans that remained in Montgomery County had to cope with both passive and active oppression, often in the form of Jim Crow laws during and after the 1870s, and a lack of opportunity and leadership. After the Civil War, the African American community lacked elites, such as bankers, merchants, and lawyers, and many of the professional occupations remained closed (Daniels 1990). Many individuals were closed out of the job market for skilled positions, and were employed as servants, laborers, and farmhands (Daniels 1990:97-99). Statistics for 1890 indicate that 45 percent of African Americans employed in Montgomery County were farm laborers and 44 percent were domestic helpers (Spero et al. 1996:191). Thorton and Gooden (1997:80) suggest that even talented artisans, such as carpenters, blacksmiths, coopers, and the like, were impacted by a lack of credit with which to establish businesses and by the influx of cheap goods from the North.

The response of the African American community in Montgomery County, as in most areas of the South, was to counter this institutionalized repression through churches, benevolent societies, and educational institutions. Churches and schools were the two primary institutions into which the African American community invested its time and resources. Through these, African Americans developed stronger political and economic bases.

3.2.4.1 Church and Religious Life

With Emancipation, African Americans faced the challenge of creating a new life (Billingsley 1999; Daniels 1990:95; Maffley-Kipp 2001), including organizing communities, reuniting families, and determining what it meant to live as free citizens in the United States (Kreisa et al. 2010:98). African Americans responded to these challenges by constructing community within the churches, schools, and affiliated benevolent societies.

The church was a central institution in African American life before and after the Civil War (Foner 2005:86-87). Clarke (1983:8) notes that African American schools and benevolent societies, including fraternal organizations and insurance companies, had their origin in the African American church. After the war, freed African Americans established their own churches (Foner 2005:87). Communities pooled their resources to build churches and pay ministers, and, by the end of Reconstruction, they had largely withdrawn from white dominated churches (Foner 2005:87). African American churches often emphasized the equality of humankind and provided a platform to affirm congregants' belief in a better future. The churches also created the kinds of leadership positions for African Americans from which they were excluded in the rest of American society (Kreisa et al. 2010:99). Quite often, congregations constructed schools in association with their church.

Churches were centers of community life that “housed schools, social events, and political gatherings, adjudicated family disputes, and provided a base for the institutional infrastructure”

(Foner 2005:87). The church was the first institution completely controlled by African Americans, and it became a vehicle for ministers to acquire leadership skills and, for some, to enter into politics (Foner 2005:87). Foner (2005:88) further notes that “[t]he ‘gospel of freedom,’ the providential view of history that had matured under slavery, strongly affected how these minister-politicians understood the momentous events of the Civil War era. God, said one minister, had ‘scourged America with war for her injustice to the black man.’”

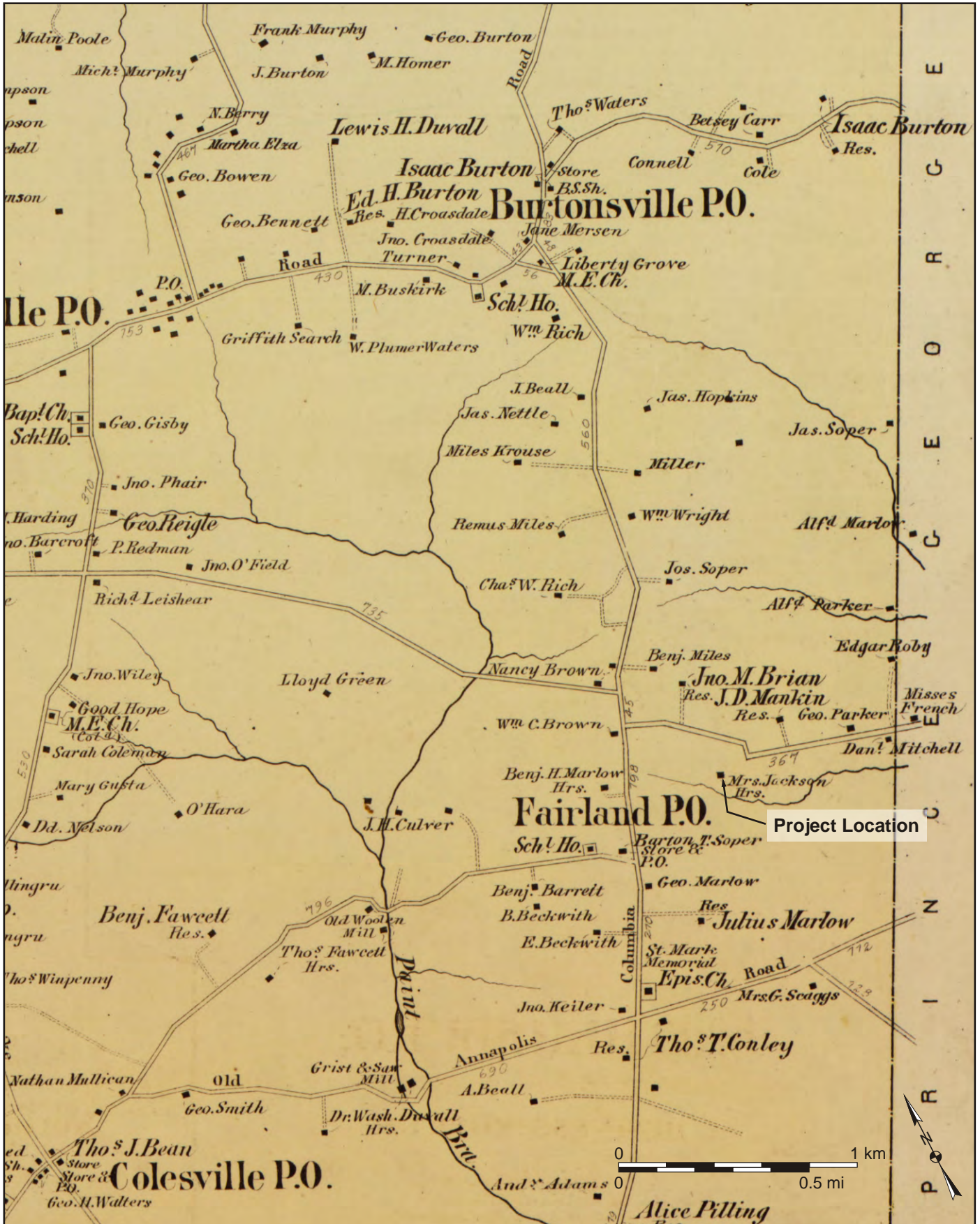
In the mid- to late nineteenth century, two African American churches existed in the Fairland community, Round Oak Missionary Baptist Church and Good Hope Methodist Episcopal Church. Historical evidence suggests that members of the Jackson family were associated with both churches. The Round Oak Missionary Baptist Church is located near the intersection of Good Hope Road and Spencerville/Sandy Spring Road (MD Route 198) in the Spencerville section of Colesville, Maryland. It was originally organized in 1859 by Baptist abolitionists and free African Americans (Works Progress Administration [WPA] 1937). Records suggest that the original church building dated to 1865 and was a plain frame building. That structure was replaced in the 1940s with a stucco building (WPA 1937). The 1879 Hopkins’ map of the Berry District (5th District) depicts the church and a school on the property (Figure 7). The Round Oak Missionary Baptist Church is located approximated 3.5 miles from the Jackson homestead.

In the 1930s, a descendant of Malinda Adams Jackson was a trustee of the church (MC Circuit Court 1935: Liber CKW584:116). There are 65 grave markers in the associated Round Oak Missionary Baptist Cemetery, although topographic evidence suggests the presence of unmarked graves. Of the 34 markers with legible information, seven show the names of Jackson family decedents.

The Good Hope Methodist Episcopal Church, which is located approximately 3 miles from the Jackson homestead, was founded a few years after the end of the Civil War. According to family Bible records, the original church was built in 1872, and it appears on the 1879 Hopkins Map of Maryland. The current church building was constructed in 1913 (MSA 2002). Of the 102 legible grave markers in the associated cemetery, at least 13 show the names of Jackson family members. Malinda Adams Jackson’s granddaughter, Mary Jane Adams Johnson, and her husband, Perry Eli Johnson, who owned the Jackson homestead from 1917 until 1944, are buried at the Good Hope Church Cemetery.

Archaeological evidence also suggests that at least some members of the Jackson family did not confine their spiritual pursuits to mainstream Christian churches. Artifacts found during the site excavations are indicative of aspects of African American folk ritual that was ultimately derived from West African religious traditions (e.g., Fennell 2007; Ferguson 1992; Leone 2005; Orser 1998; Singleton and Bograd 1995). In particular, conjure caches were emplaced to ward off malevolent spirits or bring in protective, benevolent spirits. Objects associated with conjure were generally located within structures, especially near chimneys, hearths, doorways, and in walls or floors. These caches often included quartz crystals, mirror fragments, pierced coins, buttons, pins, beads, bones, religious items, and Native American lithic tools.

Folk ritual practices may have been performed during any of the historic periods at the site. As will be discussed later in this report, archaeological evidence suggests that these folk rituals were practiced both before and after Emancipation. The possible cache artifacts and a discussion of wider African American folk rituals are presented in the Interpretations section (Section 9) of this report.



PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III	1879 Hopkins Map	
SCALE	1 inch = 0.6 km (0.3 mi)		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE	Library of Congress 2010c		FIGURE NO. 7

3.2.4.2 Education

Education was another important institution in the African American community—one tied closely to economic independence. It was considered “central to the meaning of freedom” and, as such, was a form of empowerment (Foner 2005:88). Education of African Americans in the late nineteenth century often “meant teaching the black boy to be a good farmer or a skilled worker and preparing the black girl to be a cook or seamstress” (Hiebert and MacMaster 1976:246). As a result, most African Americans throughout this period in the county’s history earned their living from farm work. For example, 74 percent of African American heads of household in 1900 were described as farm (60 percent) or day (14 percent) laborers (McDaniel 1979:24).

Education, however, allowed people to read the Bible and prepare themselves for the economic marketplace, and was the path to economic and social advancement (Foner 2005:88). Maryland, like other former slave-holding States, was plagued with its own share of methods for challenging the rights of freedmen. There was deep resentment, particularly in southern Maryland where the majority of Southern sympathizers and pro-slavery advocates resided. Former plantation masters, merchants, public officials, and clergymen alike were part of an old and ingrained way of life. Teachers at African American schools were threatened, and schoolhouses and churches were burned down. Children were harassed and intimidated on their way to and from school.

Like ministers, African American teachers held positions of leadership. They used their literacy to assist freed people with labor contracts and legal matters. Also much like ministers, teachers often moved into politics with the advent of African American suffrage (Foner 2005:89). The first African American schools constructed after the Civil War were funded through the support of Northern beneficial societies, the Federal government’s Bureau of Refugees and Abandoned Lands, or freedmen who donated land and money. In 1872, Montgomery County obtained State funding for African American schools. “With the appropriation and the school tax levied on black property owners, the County school board decided that each election district would have \$463 per quarter, enough to maintain one black school in each district” and, in 1876, the board appropriated \$300 for one school in Colesville (Hiebert and MacMaster 1976:190). This African American school in Colesville was likely the closest school to the Jackson homestead in Fairland, though churches also continued to provide classroom space for African American students.

This period also saw the development of an important initiative in the education of African Americans, the construction of Rosenwald schools. During Reconstruction, former slaves actively pursued education, establishing schools throughout the South. The Julius Rosenwald Fund relied on private money from the African American community to leverage public funds in the support of education in rural communities.

Julius Rosenwald (1862-1932) was the president of Sears, Roebuck and Company, and a trustee of the Tuskegee Institute from 1912 until his death (NPS 2003, Rosenwald Multiple Property Documentation Form). Rosenwald first conceived of a fund to support African American education after a 1911 meeting with Booker T. Washington, who had been attempting to build rural schools for African Americans with the support of John D. Rodgers of the Standard Oil Company. Standard Oil funded the construction of 46 schools in rural Alabama; that funding ended in 1909 with Rodgers’ death. Washington convinced Rosenwald to continue the efforts

begun by Standard Oil, and in 1912 Rosenwald funded six rural schools in Alabama, in conjunction with Washington and the Tuskegee Institute. In addition, Rosenwald donated an additional \$25,000 to mark his fiftieth birthday, an amount that was used as matching grant funding for the construction of additional schools. This gift was crucial in the development of the Rosenwald Fund, as the matching grant program became the standard way that schools received support from the fund. In 1917, the Rosenwald Fund became an entity separate from the Tuskegee Institute and, by the time it was closed in 1932, its resources had been used to build 5,357 schools in 15 states (NPS 2003, Rosenwald Multiple Property Documentation Form).

In the 1920s, the Rosenwald Fund built 153 schools in Maryland, 15 of them in Montgomery County. The schools were built with the matching grant concept, with a portion of the funds necessary to build and furnish the schools and hire teachers provided by the fund, a portion provided through public funding, and the remainder provided by the African American community. Rosenwald Fund files at Fisk University contain information about these schools, including funding amounts from fund, public, and African American (listed as “Negroes” in the original records) sources (Table 1; Fisk University 2001). While these schools were built after the Jackson homestead was abandoned, it is likely that some of Malinda Adams Jackson’s great-grandchildren attended a Rosenwald school.

Table 1. Rosenwald Schools

Historic Name	Budget Year	Building Plan	Total Cost	Funding Sources		
				African Americans	Public	Rosenwald
Burnt Mills School	1927-28	Two-teacher	\$6,200	\$500	\$5,200	\$500
Cloppers School	1927-28	One-teacher	\$3,000	\$500	\$2,300	\$200
Ken Gar School	1927-28	One-teacher	\$3,000	\$500	\$2,300	\$200
Laytonville School	1924-25	Two-teacher	\$6,000	\$500	\$4,800	\$700
Norbeck School	1927-28	Two-teacher	\$5,300	\$500	\$4,300	\$500
Poolesville School	1927-28	Two-teacher	\$5,800	\$500	\$4,800	\$500
River Road School	1925-26	Three-teacher	\$5,980	\$500	\$4,580	\$900
Rockville School	1920-21	Two-teacher	\$7,300	\$500	\$6,000	\$800
Sandy Spring School	1924-25	Three-teacher	\$7,180	\$500	\$7,180	\$900
Scotland School	1927-28	One-teacher	\$3,000	\$500	\$2,300	\$200
Spencerville School	1927-28	Two-teacher	\$5,500	\$500	\$4,500	\$500
Stewardtown School	1927-28	One-teacher	\$3,000	\$500	\$2,300	\$200
Sugarland School	1924-25	One-teacher	\$3,500	\$300	\$2,800	\$400
Takoma Park School	1928-29	Two-teacher	\$4,200	\$500	\$3,200	\$500
Washington Grove School	1924-25	Two-teacher	\$6,000	\$500	\$4,800	\$700

Source: Fisk University 2001

3.2.4.3 Political and Economic Development

Post-Civil War Maryland began a painful political and economic readjustment, with former slave owners creating systems that replaced “slavery” with systems of “indenture” and former slaves making efforts to establish cohesive communities. The labor shortages that occurred after the war occasionally resulted in bargaining power for the former enslaved, and the right to change jobs if conditions were not satisfactory was empowering for many African Americans. In some areas, farm and plantation owners would vie for good workers, offering benefits not previously

available before or during the war. African Americans, however, continued to be faced with discriminatory practices, and some States enacted laws prohibiting “employers from enticing away another employer’s laborers by offering them higher wages, thus, in effect, outlawing a functioning market in labor” (Foner 2005:96).

Kreisa et al. (2010:32-36) reviewed the post-bellum labor relationships in Maryland, and found that many of the same trends characterized Montgomery County. Congress created the Freedman’s Bureau after the Civil War, in part to establish labor relationships between the newly freed and their potential employers in the former slave-holding States. Initially, the Freedman’s Bureau established a contract-wage labor system, in which freed slaves were compelled to accept plantation work on a wage basis, for as little as \$10 to \$15 per month, including quarters and rations. Allied to the contract-wage system was the apprenticeship system (Foner 2005:96), which was a form of labor that required contracting individuals, generally youth between the ages of 12 and 18, for a specific period of time. Not surprisingly, the Maryland Apprenticeship Law had two separate requirements for blacks and whites. White apprentices were taught a useful trade and offered a basic education. They could not be transferred from one employer to another without prior knowledge and consent of a parent, nor were they subject to “sale” for running away.

The contracting of African American youth as apprentices was quite different and was in clear violation of the intent of the Thirteenth Amendment. The arrangement had the effect of mimicking the master-slave relationship after Emancipation. The law did not require providing an education to African American youths and did allow for their transfer from one employer to another without prior knowledge or consent of a parent. Moreover, if an African American apprenticed youth ran away, he could, upon capture, be “sold” to another planter anywhere within the State. If a parent tried to retrieve his or her child, he or she could be imprisoned for at least 18 months.

The law also required that African American youth be bound out to white employers. Under this arrangement, African American youths were illegally bound out to white farmers by the Orphan’s Court system in Maryland counties. According to a Freedman’s Bureau report for the year 1867, illegal apprenticing of African American youths by the Orphan’s Court was the chief complaint of parents seeking Bureau assistance. County courts justified their actions by maintaining that parents were unable to support their children. In other apprentice cases, children were literally kidnapped or continually held in bondage, despite the abolition of slavery.

Generally, by the end of the 1860s, these various forms of contract-wage labor were phased out of existence and a number of different types of tenancy relationships became common (Kreisa et al. 2010:32). Tenancy can be defined as an economic relationship between a landowner and individuals working on a farm. Three types of tenancy relationships were most common: share croppers, share renters, and cash renters. These relationships differed in terms of the type of payment (cash or a share of the crops) and in the material benefits, aside from land, provided by the landowner to the tenant. Such material benefits could include access to houses, outbuildings, fertilizers, seed, tools, and work animals. With little or no capital, newly freed African Americans seldom were able to purchase land after the Civil War, and tenancy or employment as farm laborers became the norm for many rural African Americans. Over time, African Americans were increasingly able to acquire small farms, and this trend was instrumental in creating an agricultural economy based on small, diversified farms that characterized

Montgomery County through the end of the nineteenth and into the twentieth century (Spero et al. 1996:87).

3.2.4.4 The Fairland Community


The growing relationship between Montgomery County and Washington, D.C., in the late nineteenth century is demonstrated by the County's inclusion in Hopkins' 1879 *Atlas of Fifteen Miles Around Washington Including the County of Montgomery, Maryland* (Figure 7), illustrating the significant growth and change that had occurred in the county since Martenet's map was published 14 years earlier. The Hopkins' map is also the first that depicts the location of the Jackson homestead, characterizing it as "Mrs. Jackson Hrs" (heirs). U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) 15-minute quadrangle topographic maps from 1907 to 1926 all show a structure at the site (Figures 8 and 9). By 1945, no structure is illustrated on the maps (Figure 10).

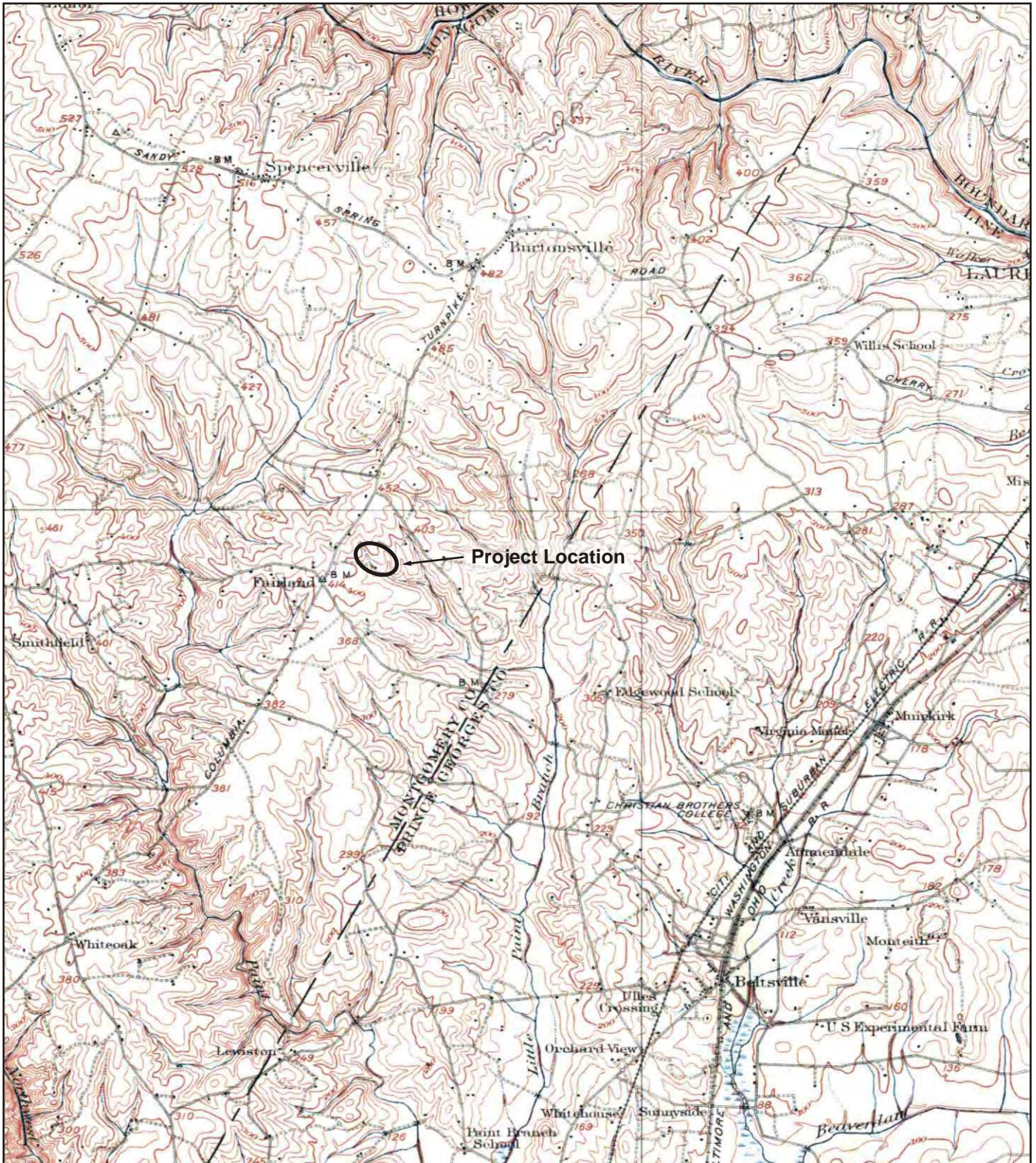
The Hopkins' 1879 map, Boyd's 1879 Directory (Boyd 1968), and the 1870 U.S. Census (Ancestry.com 2010; U.S. Census 1870) provide a picture of the demographic and economic composition of Fairland and the surrounding area during the last quarter of the nineteenth century. These sources reflect an overall increase in population in the intervening decade between 1860 and 1870.

Of particular interest is the identification of "Fairland P.O." at the intersection of what are now Fairland Road and Old Columbia Turnpike. During the nineteenth century, rural post offices were often built on private land with private funds in general stores by merchants seeking to attract business. Boyd's Directory indicates that Fairland had a population of 50 in 1879 (Boyd 1968:136). All the residents are listed as farmers, except for the postmaster, Barton T. Soper (Boyd 1968:136). The directory does not address the land's value per acre or yields, nor does it comment on crops, as it does for other towns in the county, which may indicate that tobacco remained a major crop in the area. While later records indicate the presence of dairy farms in the vicinity of Fairland, it is unclear whether this was the case in 1879. At the time, Fairland had a more rural character than that of Burtonsville to the north. In 1879, Burtonsville had population of 50, including a merchant, blacksmiths, wheelwrights, miller, physician, and four carpenters, as well as 31 farmers. Wheat, corn, and hay are listed as the major crops of the farms located in Burtonsville.

The 1870 U.S. Census (U.S. Census 1870) and the 1879 Hopkins' map together provide a glimpse into the Fairland community, which was one that consisted of both white and African American residents, as well as landowners and tenants. William C. Brown's property was in the northern section of Fairland near what is now Briggs Chaney Road. It is recorded that, in 1870, he was a white 48-year-old farmer whose real estate was valued at only \$400 and whose personal estate was valued at \$150. Soper (also white) is listed on the same page and appears on the Hopkins' map as the owner of a store and post office in what appears to be the center of Fairland. Soper's occupation is listed as carpenter whose real estate was valued at \$500 and whose personal estate was valued at \$150.

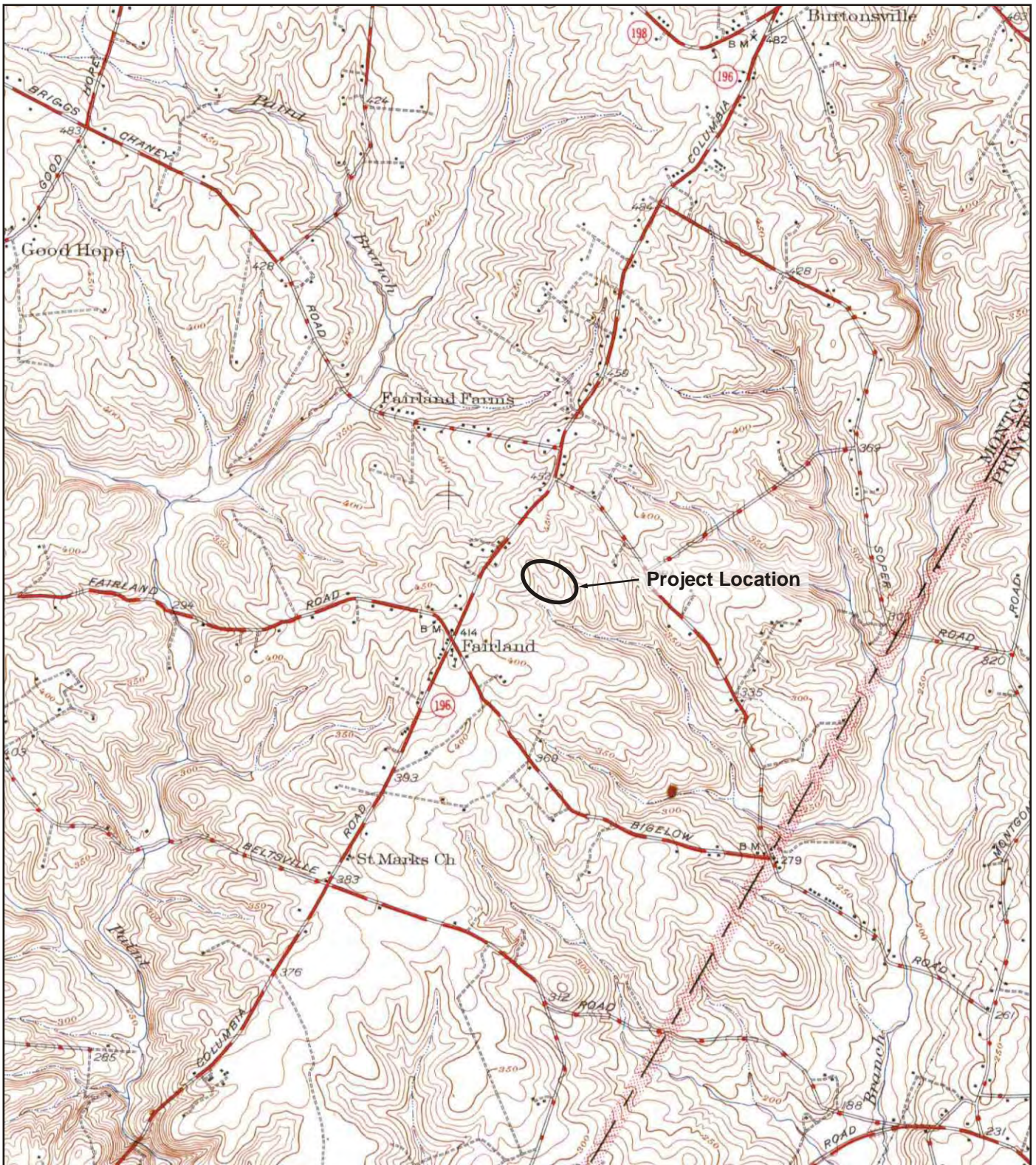


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	1907 Topographic Map	
SCALE 1 inch = 1.6 km (1 mi)		
SOURCE EDR 2008a		PROJECT NO. 20831016
		FIGURE NO. 8



PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III
SCALE	1 inch = 1.6 km (1 mi)
SOURCE	EDR 2008b

1926 Topographic Map	
	PROJECT NO. 20831016
	FIGURE NO. 9



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	1945 Topographic Map	
SCALE 1 inch = 0.8 km (0.5 mi)		
SOURCE EDR 2008c	FIGURE NO. 10	

White farmers, Samuel (age 27) and George W. (age 40) Rhine, are also shown in the 1870 census in the vicinity of the Jackson homestead. They were likely tenants, as they are not shown on the Hopkins' map. To the north of the Soper property along Columbia Road is the property of Benjamin H. Marlow. It is recorded that, in 1870, he was a white farmer and storekeeper, with real estate valued at \$2,500 and a personal estate valued at \$1,500. Directly east of the Marlow property is the Jackson homestead. In the 1870 census (Ancestry.com 2010), Malinda Adams Jackson is listed one household from Marlow's. One other African American family, the Adams, appears on the same census page. Benjamin Adams was a farm laborer and his wife, Caroline (age 45), is listed as a person that "keeps house and works out." Benjamin's brother, Robert Jackson (age 35, farm laborer), and two children, Martha (age 14) and Benjamin (age 7), are also listed as part of the household. Benjamin Jackson had neither real nor personal estate to assign value; this suggests they may have been tenants. They do not appear on the 1879 Hopkins' map.

By comparing the U.S. Census and map data, it appears that the census taker started in the area of the Marlow household and made a circular path to the Soper household, then to the Jackson household, and finally to the Brown household. The 1880 U.S. Census shows a number of different families in the area. Soper is still listed but Marlow had died by that time. His wife, Mary, continued to live in the area with her son-in-law and daughter's family (Thomas and Harriet Robey). The Adams' household is not listed in the vicinity, but numerous other African American families are. Thirty-two African American residents are shown on the same census page as the Jackson family; only 17 white residents are listed on the same page. It appears that, by 1880, a number of new African American families had moved into Fairland.

By 1880, 40 percent of the county's residents were African American and, by 1890, African Americans accounted for approximately 33 percent of the population (Hiebert and MacMaster 1976:245). Most of the African American families "lived in rural, predominantly black-owned sections of the County in small but well-defined enclaves...some of the black rural neighborhoods pre-dated the Civil War; others traced their origin to a gift or purchase of land by freed slaves" (Hiebert and MacMaster 1976:245). In 1900, only a few of the same families remained in the Fairland community. Robey and his family were still present, as were the Jacksons. It appears that one of Malinda Adams Jackson's sons, George, had moved back into the area near the family home.

During the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, Montgomery County experienced rapid change, particularly in the southern portion. The county was transformed from a largely rural, agricultural landscape to a suburban residential extension of the rapidly expanding Washington, D.C., metropolitan area. New and improved transportation networks, including rail and streetcar lines and roads, linked suburban neighborhoods like Chevy Chase, Kensington, and Takoma Park to the city (Montgomery County Government 1999:11). Those portions of the county more removed from Washington, D.C., also experienced change, although it was significantly less dramatic. In these areas, the number of smaller, family-owned farms remained steady through the nineteenth century, and farmers continued to grow both tobacco and grain crops. The dairy industry in the county was also established during this period, providing an additional source of income for farmers. By 1912, there were approximately 12,000 dairy cattle in the county (Hiebert and MacMaster 1976:241). The Fairland area remained largely rural and agricultural through the first half of the twentieth century, and the population remained small.

3.2.5 MODERN (A.D. 1930–PRESENT)

If the context periods prior to 1930 can be characterized as being largely dominated by agricultural trends, the final period, dating from 1930 to the present, is dominated by suburbanization, and the expansion of the Federal government, services, commerce, and industry in Montgomery County. Initially, the Federal government expanded in Washington, D.C., although increasingly, the lack of land in the District encouraged expansion in the surrounding counties, including Montgomery (Spero et al. 1996:55). This first resulted in the creation of suburbs that were often occupied by Federal employees (Spero et al. 1996:55). The Great Depression interrupted suburbanization, although it resumed after World War II, when the creation or expansion of Federal facilities in the surrounding counties began in earnest (Spero et al. 1996:167).

Both trends are largely attributable to the ease of transportation by automobile, the availability of land in counties such as Montgomery, and, in terms of suburbanization, the increased post-war prosperity (Spero et al. 1996:55, 94). In particular, the construction of the Capital Beltway/Interstate 495 (I-495) and I-270, and the expansion of rail services, including the Metro and Maryland Area Regional Commuter (MARC) lines, had a profound effect on the county, making it possible for people to commute farther between their homes and jobs. Along the rail lines, in particular, formerly small towns or suburban stops developed into urban clusters, such as Bethesda and Rockville. Suburbanization also led to increased retail and services development, with the towns becoming largely self-contained (Spero et al. 1996:94).

Beyond these major transportation routes to the nation’s capital, rural Montgomery County changed as well, but at a slower pace. By 1960, most residents of Montgomery County lived in urban or suburban settings, and the Federal government, not agriculture, was the dominant employer (Spero et al. 1996:169). The expansion of the Federal government also led to an influx of technology businesses and research facilities, creating a diversified economic base for the county (Spero et al. 1996:56).

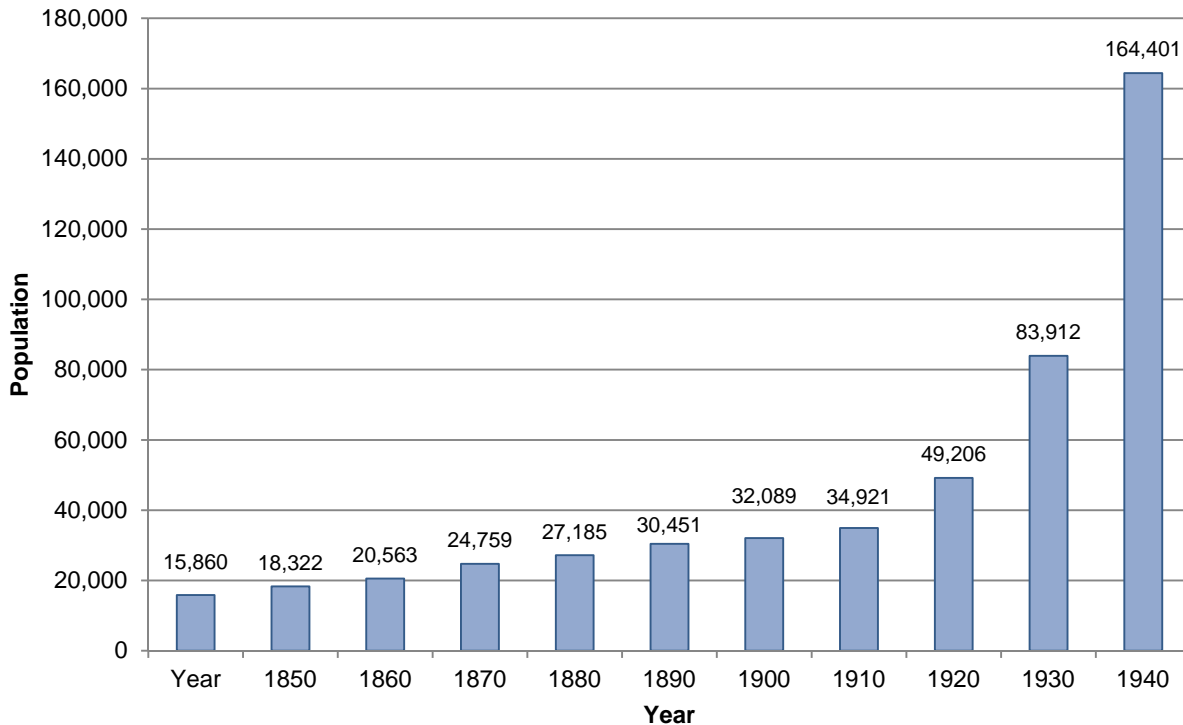
The increased Federal presence can also be tied to population increases in Montgomery County. While there was a steady population increase in the county between 1850 and 1930, it took nearly six decades for the population to double from its 1850 levels (Chart 3). Between 1930 and 1950, the population of the county nearly doubled every 10 years.

There is a direct correlation between population growth and the decrease in the number of farms in Montgomery County. The number of farms reached its highest level in 1910, when 2,442 farms were recorded. By 1950, the quantity had decreased to 1,555 (UVA 2004) and, by 1959, farms numbered half the 1929 total. Those that remained had shifted to large-scale commercial agriculture (Spero et al. 1996:55). While the number of farms decreased, new technologies reduced the number of farm laborers that were required (Spero et al. 1996:93). Small crossroads communities, however, remained agricultural in nature into the second half of the twentieth century.

By 1930, the county’s African American population dropped to 17 percent and, by 1940, it dropped further to 11 percent (Hiebert and MacMaster 1976:303). The suburban influx that occurred in the late 1930s resulted in county residents that were “better-educated, native-born whites earning above-average incomes. In 1940, fully 87 percent of the county’s citizens were native-born whites” (Hiebert and MacMaster 1976:303). This trend continued after World War

II. Spero et al. (1996:168) suggest that the “white flight” to the suburbs was not matched by a similar movement of African Americans due to residential restrictions. This created isolated pockets of African American neighborhoods, which, by the 1960s, were often described as impoverished and lacking in adequate housing. The response of the county was to demolish these neighborhoods and erect public housing (Spero et al. 1996:168, 193).

Chart 3. Population of Montgomery County, 1850–1950



Source: Historical Census Browser, UVA, Geospatial and Statistical Data Center

Fairland did not escape the impact of these changes on Montgomery County. It was chosen as a site for “rural villages,” which offered low-rent homes to farm labors (*The Frederick Post* [TFP] December 9, 1939:12). These were to be located on a “72-acre portion of the 100-acre farm of Albert R. and Sarah E. Roby, located about 1 mile from Fairland Junior High and Fairland Elementary School and about 0.4 miles off the main State highway between White Oak and Laurel, facing a well-improved county road” (TFP 9 December 1939:12). The 1943 USGS topographic map shows an increase in development, with a cluster of houses along Columbia Road on the south side of its intersection with Fairland Road. In 1941, Fairland was categorized as a village in Montgomery County, 2.75 miles southwest of Burtonsville, with a population of 32 (Maryland State Planning Commission and Department of Geology, Mines, and Water Resources 1941).

Fairland was also affected by the construction of New Columbia Road/Maryland Route 29 in 1955. The New Columbia Road ran parallel to Old Columbia Pike, which effectively cut the town in half and separated it from its rural setting. In the 1960s, suburban development began to encroach upon Fairland, and today, large-scale suburban residential subdivisions are located north and south of Fairland on Old Columbia Pike, and along the corridor between Briggs

Chaney and Coleville-Beltsville roads. According to the 1980 U.S. Census, the unincorporated community of Fairland consisted of 5,154 people (Ancestry.com 2010; U.S. Census 1980). The proliferation of suburban development in the Fairland area and throughout Montgomery County continues into the twenty-first century. What was once the town of Fairland is now a neighborhood of greater Silver Spring.

3.3 PROJECT AREA HISTORY

This section presents a detailed discussion of the Downs and Jackson families that owned or occupied portions of the former Prospect of Peace patent. Much of the property that came to make up Fairland and nearby Burtonsville was once part of two large parcels patented in the early eighteenth century. Archibald Edmondson originally patented “Bear Garden Enlarged” (800 acres) in 1721. He subsequently patented the adjacent track of “Deer Park” (682 acres) in 1724. Edmondson sold off parcels of the properties, and resurveyed the remaining lands into one continuous tract known as “Part of Deer Park and Bear Garden Enlarged” (691 acres) in 1768 (MSA, MC Patent Record: BC and GS 33:505). Portions of this tract remained in the Edmondston family for many generations, while other parcels were lost through probate and marriage to the Soper, Marlow, and Downs families. Parcels of the original Deer Park and Bear Garden tracts north of site 18MO609 were patented to Sarah Soper and her minor children in 1805 as “Sopers Seat,” which totaled 242 acres (MSA MC 1805: PC 470). The Marlow section of the property was located in the center of what would become Fairland, to the east and west of Columbia Road.

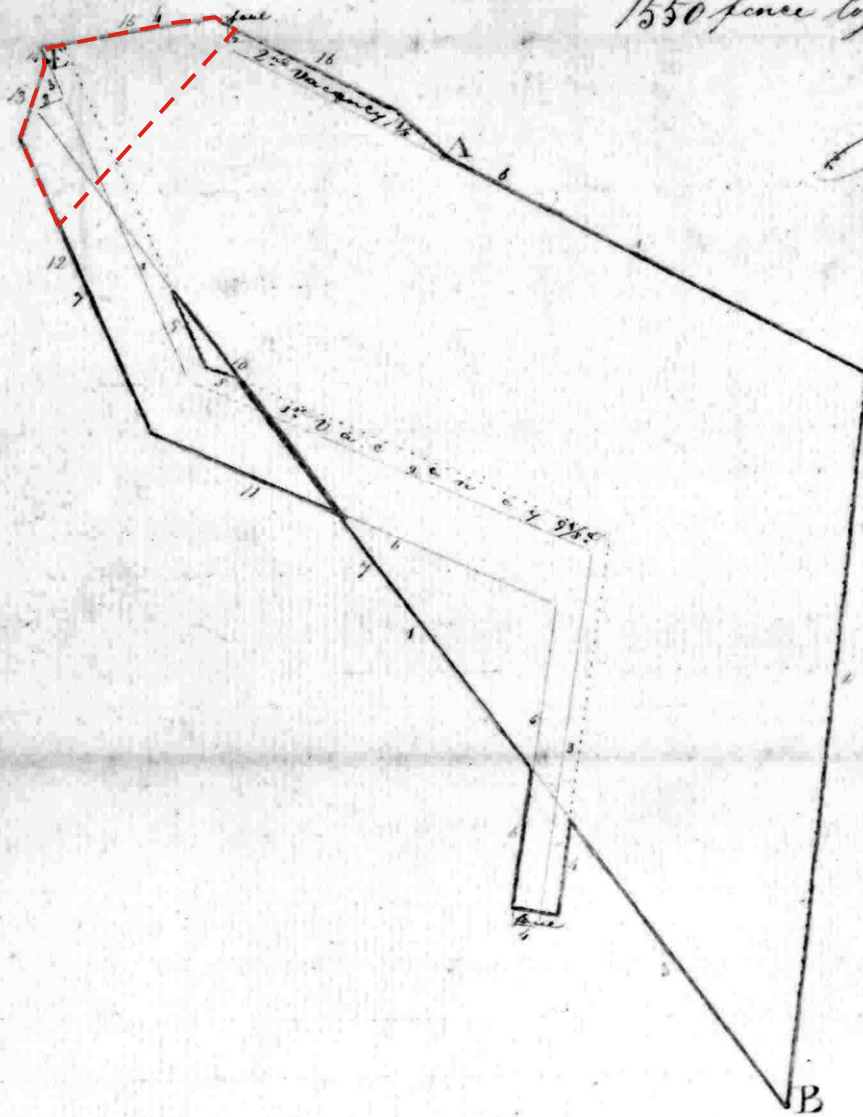
In 1785, Zachariah Downs of Montgomery County purchased a small section of “Deer Park” (MSA MC 1785: Unpatented Certificate 66). This 6.25-acre parcel was an irregular, linear section of the larger tract. In 1803, Zachariah purchased two sections (21.5 acres and 148 acres) of “Part of Deer Park and Bear Garden Enlarged,” along with other tracts deemed vacant by the court, to patent his 175.75-acre parcel called “Prospect of Peace” (MSA MC 1803: PC 364; Figure 11). Zachariah was born ca. 1750 and lived in Montgomery County as early as 1777, when he joined the militia as a Private. He married Elizabeth Ann Mason in the 1770s and, together, the couple had eight children (Daughters of the American Revolution 1966:201). In 1778, Zachariah signed an Oath of Fidelity to the Colonial government (MSA, Oaths of Loyalty 1778, Maryland Indexes Series SM120) and served during the American Revolution in the Lower Battalion of Montgomery County (Peden 1996). He appears in the 1783 Tax Assessment for Montgomery County as a resident of Lower Newfoundland, Rock Creek, and North West Hundred (MSA Maryland Indexes Tax Assessment [MITA] 1783, MSA S 1437). He was assessed for three properties. One of the properties was not named, but the other properties were “Slip” (21 acres) and “Bear Garden and Deer Park Enlarged” (155 acres; MSA MITA 1783, MSA S 1437). Zachariah was apparently a tenant, as the official land conveyance does not appear in the land records until 1785.

In 1790, the Downs household consisted of Zachariah, four white females, one “Free Yellow and Black male 16 years and upward,” and one “Free Yellow and Black male under 16 years.” No slaves were recorded at the time. By 1820, there were six white family members and eight enslaved African Americans (one male under age 14, two males between the ages of 14 and 26, two females under age 14, and three females between the ages of 14 and 26; Ancestry.com 2010; U.S. Census 1820). Unfortunately, the census records from this period do not provide names for anyone other than the head of household.

Improvements on the Vacancy

1550 fence logs & 200 lbs ... Dollars 3 - 10 lbs

Jos. Elgar Junr




By a scale of 50



8.75-acre Jackson homestead property (1869)



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	1803 Prospect of Peace Tract	
SCALE Unknown		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE Maryland State Archives: MSAS1202-461		FIGURE NO. 11

Downs' wife, Elizabeth, died in 1820 and their daughter, Mary, died in 1823, leaving, in birth order, Benjamin, Ann Magruder, John, Richard M., Elizabeth, William, and Leanah (MSA, Montgomery County Register of Wills [MCRW]: Liber 3, Folio 201; Table 2). Zachariah wrote his will in 1826 and died in 1831 (Figure 12). The will provides details on his property, family, and 10 slaves:

I give and bequeath to my daughter Ann Magruder Downs and to her heirs and assigns forever, one hundred acres of land whereon I now live called Prospect of Peace, which shall be laid out on the east end of said tract of land including the whole of the wood land at that end, also including all the orchard and dwelling houses and spring house... I also will to Ann Magruder Downs one of my slave women named Rachel to her and her heirs and assigns, and one good feather bed and common furniture (MSA MCRW: Liber 3, Folio 451; Appendix C).

Zachariah's son, Richard, received two young enslaved girls, Calline and Sarah, and the remaining seven enslaved people apparently were divided among the siblings (Table 3). Zachariah also stipulated:

And it is my will that my slaves which I now hold and possess both male and female shall go out free and be set fully at liberty as they shall arrive that the age of thirty-seven years, Vizt, Estimating now at the following ages Rachel aged twenty nine years and three months, Robert aged twenty-seven years and three months, Christiana aged twenty-five years and three months, David aged twenty-three years and three months and Susanah aged twenty-one years and three months. It is my will that the children of the aforesaid mentioned slaves and all those born hereafter or their increase shall go out free and be set fully at liberty as they shall arrive at the age of thirty-five years, Vizt, Estimating now at the following ages, Calline aged nine years and three months, Sarah aged six years and six months, Maryann aged five years and one month, Amma aged one year and ten months, Malinda aged four months, and that the slaves or negros above mentioned shall not be transferred from this state to any other state of the union by any person or persons whatever, or who may hereafter possess them after my decease, either by sale barter or traffic during the time of their servitude or for which they are bound (MSA MCRW: Liber 3, Folio 451).

Richard was a farmer living in Montgomery County near his siblings until his second marriage, to Tabitha Willson in 1832, after which he lived in the Howard District of Anne Arundel County. In 1850, his household consisted of four children: Mary J. (age 16), Leanna (age 10), Narcissa (age 5), and Jesse W. (age 1). He also had one enslaved male (age 22) and one enslaved female (age 23; Ancestry.com 2010: U.S. Census 1850, Slave Schedule). By 1860, Richard had 12 slaves between the ages of 3 and 35 (Ancestry.com 2010: U.S. Census 1860, Slave Schedule). Presumably, two of these enslaved were Calline and Sarah, left to him by his father in 1831 (Table 3).

William Downs, the youngest son of Zachariah, moved to Anne Arundel County as an adult. He could not be located in the 1840 U.S. Census, but did appear in the 1850 U.S. Census. In 1850, William was 60 years old and lived in a household with his wife, Mary Ann Carrick Downs (age 48), and eight children: William (age 22), Benjamin (age 20), Catharine (age 18), James T. (age 16), Doris A. (age 14), John Gere (age 12), Sarah A. (age 7), and Aariah (age 5). He also had seven enslaved individuals: one man (age 50), one woman (age 45), three boys (ages 16, 14, and 6), and two girls (ages 10 and 3). The enslaved appear to be from one family but their surname

is unknown. In 1880, William was a widower, who lived with his children in a household headed by his son, John. William died in 1883.

Table 2. Descendants of Zachariah Downs

<p>Children of Zachariah Downs and Elizabeth Ann Mason</p> <p>(1) Benjamin Downs, born 1777</p> <p>Children of Benjamin Downs</p> <p>(1.1) Elizabeth Ellen Downs, born 1827</p> <p><i>Children of Elizabeth Ellen Downs and Grafton Wheeler</i></p> <p>(1.1.1) Sarah A. Wheeler, born 1859</p> <p>(1.1.2) William P. Wheeler, born 1861</p> <p>(1.1.3) Joseph Wheeler, born 1864</p> <p>(1.1.4) John A. Wheeler, born 1865</p> <p>(1.1.5) Elizabeth E. Wheeler, born 1867</p> <p>(2) Ann Magruder Downs, born 1781</p> <p>(3) John Downs, born 1784</p> <p>Children of John Downs and Ann Smallwood</p> <p>(3.1) Mary E. Downs, born 1835</p> <p>(3.2) Lucinda A. Downs, born 1835</p> <p>(3.3) Benjamin J. Downs, born 1836</p> <p>(3.4) Emma R. Downs, born 1843</p> <p>(3.5) John T. Downs, born 1845 in</p> <p>(3.6) Almira Downs, born 1848</p> <p>(4) Richard M. Downs, born 1785</p> <p>Children of Richard M. Downs and Tabitha Willson</p> <p>(4.1) Mary J. Downs, born 1834</p> <p>(4.3) Leanna Downs, born 1840</p> <p>(4.3) Narcissa Downs, born 1845</p> <p>(4.4) Jesse W. Downs, born 1849</p> <p>(5) Mary Downs, born ?</p> <p>(6) Elizabeth Downs, born 1785</p> <p>Children of Elizabeth Downs and Unknown Wheeler</p> <p>(6.1) Grafton Wheeler, born 1818 [See 1.1]</p> <p>(7) William Downs, born 1790</p> <p>Children of William Downs and Mary Ann Carrick</p> <p>(7.1) William Downs, born 1828</p> <p>(7.2) Benjamin Downs, born 1830</p> <p>(7.3) Catharine Downs, born 1832</p> <p>(7.4) James T. Downs, born 1834</p> <p>(7.5) Doreas A. Downs, born 1836</p> <p>(7.6) John Gere Downs, born 1838</p> <p><i>Children of John Gere Downs and Mary Alvada Sutton</i></p> <p>(7.6.1) Mary Ellen Downs, born 1868</p> <p>(7.6.2) Susan P. Downs, born 1871</p> <p>(7.6.3) Edna F. Downs, born 1882</p> <p>(7.7) Sarah A. Downs, born 1843</p> <p>(7.8) Aria Downs, born 1845</p> <p>(8) Leanah Downs, born 1793</p> <p>Children of Leanah Downs and William M. Jones</p> <p>(8.1) Zachariah D. Jones, born 1826</p>
--

& Susannah aged twenty one years & three months ^{that} It is my will ^{the} the Chil-
 dren of the aforesaid mentioned slaves & all those born hereafter or their
 increase shall go out free & be set fully at liberty as they shall
 arrive at the age of thirty five years, viz. Estimating now at the
 following ages, Collin aged nine years & three months, Sarah aged six
 years & six months, Maryann aged five years & one month, Amma aged one year
 & ten months, Mahinda aged five months, & that the slaves or negroes above men-
 tioned shall not be transferred from this state to any other state of the union
 by any person or persons whatever or who may hereafter possess them after
 my decease, either by sale barter or traffic during the time of their servit-
 -ude or for which they are bound. I give & bequeath all the rest
 residue of my Estate real & personal among my seven children
 to wit Benjamin Downs, Ann M. Downs, John Downs, Richard M. Downs,

PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III	1826 Zachariah Downs Will	
SCALE	Not applicable	PROJECT NO. 20831016	
SOURCE	Maryland State Archives: MSAC11-42-11	FIGURE NO. 12	



Table 3. Enslaved Individuals Owned by Zachariah Downs in 1826

Recipient	Name	Age in 1826
Ann Magruder Downs	Rachel	29
Richard M. Downs	Calline	9
	Sarah	6
Possibly divided among siblings	Robert	27
	Christiana	25
	David	23
	Susannah	21
	Maryann	5
	Amma	1
	Malinda	4 months

The 1840 U.S. Census for the Berry District of Montgomery County lists four separate Downs households; three (John, Benjamin, and Ann) were the children of Zachariah Downs. In 1840, John's household consisted of himself (age 56), his wife, Ann Smallwood Downs (age 35), and three children: Mary E. (age 7), Lucinda A. (age 5), and Benjamin J. (age 4). In 1850, the household included three additional children: Emma R. (age 7), John T. (age 5), and Almira (age 2), as well as four enslaved mulattos: two males (ages 21 and 1 month) and two females (ages 19 and 1; Ancestry.com 2010: U.S. Census 1850, Slave Schedule). Until the 1850s, John lived near his sister, Ann, but he later moved to Washington, D.C. John lived until his late 80s.

In 1840, the household of Benjamin Downs consisted of himself and a white female (age between 60 and 70), presumably his wife. He owned 14 slaves: two male children, six female children (two between the ages of 10 and 24), four men, and two women. In 1850, Benjamin (age 73) was a widower and lived with his youngest daughter, Ellen (i.e., Elizabeth Ellen, age 21), and a free mulatto woman named Polly Squirrel (age 58; Ancestry.com 2010: U.S. Census 1850). In 1860, Benjamin lived with his daughter Elizabeth Ellen and her husband, Grafton Wheeler, along with their daughter, Sarah A. (age 1), and two free African Americans, Mary Squirrel (age 70; possibly the same person as Polly Squirrel or a relation of Polly), and Isaac Adams (age 16). Benjamin died in 1864 (MSA MCRW: Liber JWS1:166).

Ann Magruder Downs, the oldest surviving daughter of Zachariah Downs, never married. In 1840, she was living in the family home on the Prospect of Peace tract near her brother, John. Her household consisted of a white female less than 10 years of age, possibly a relative, and a free African American male between the ages of 35 and 55 (Figure 13). Rachel, willed to Ann by her father in 1831, is not listed in the 1840 census.

In 1850, Ann was 69 years old and is listed as the head of household living with her cousins, Alfred (age 33) and Martha Wheeler (age 16), and Edward Adams (age 50), a free African American laborer (Ancestry.com 2010: U.S. Census 1850; MCRW:Liber JWS1:369). Ann also had four slaves: Rachel, whose last name is unknown, but is possibly Adams (age 52); Malinda Adams (age 22); an unidentified male (aged 25); and a child (age 1; Figure 14). Rachel and Malinda had been with Ann since the death of her father in 1831. Rachel appears to have been Malinda's mother and it is likely that Edward Adams was her father. It should be noted that Rachel was not released from slavery at age 35, as stipulated in Zachariah's will.

(No. 4.) SCHEDULE of the whole number of persons within the division allotted to *Bartholomew H. Brooke*

NAMES OF HEADS OF FAMILIES	FREE WHITE PERSONS, INCLUDING HEADS OF FAMILIES										FREE COLORED PERSONS									
	MALES					FEMALES					MALES					FEMALES				
	5	10	15	20	25	5	10	15	20	25	5	10	15	20	25	5	10	15	20	25
<i>Asaon Henry</i>	1																			
<i>Blake Peter</i>																				
<i>James H. Sawyers</i>																				
<i>John Mason</i>																				
<i>Magaret Marks</i>																				
<i>Larry Roby</i>																				
<i>Jennesse F. France</i>																				
<i>Mary Spivey</i>																				
<i>Charles Peale</i>																				
<i>Elizabeth Hopkins</i>																				
<i>William Johnson</i>																				
<i>John King</i>																				
<i>Elena Kelly</i>																				
<i>John M. Davis</i>																				
<i>Estimier Blair</i>																				
<i>Benjamin Mathews</i>																				
<i>John Davis</i>																				
<i>Elias Baker</i>																				
<i>George B. Keys</i>																				
<i>Henry Combs</i>																				
<i>Sarah Beem</i>																				
<i>Daniel King</i>																				
<i>Joseph Bowen</i>																				
<i>John Tamm</i>																				
<i>John Hopkins</i>																				
<i>Thomas Spoke</i>																				
<i>Joseph Gitting</i>																				
<i>Rich. Street</i>																				
<i>William Hodge</i>																				
<i>Mary Rowles</i>																				

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

SCALE Not applicable

SOURCE Ancestry.com 2010

1840 U.S. Census

PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 13

URS

425

SCHEDULE 2. Slave Inhabitants in 5th Perry's District in the County of Montgomery State
of Maryland, enumerated by me, on the 24th day of July, 1850. W. H. Frazier, Ass't Marshal.

NAMES OF SLAVE OWNERS.								NAMES OF SLAVE OWNERS.							
1	2	DESCRIPTION.			6	7	8	1	2	DESCRIPTION.			6	7	8
		Age	Sex	Colour						Age	Sex	Colour			
	7	1	F	M			1	11	22	F	B				
George B Scaggs	1	42	F	B			2	12	20	F	B				
	2	30	M	B			3	13	20	F	M				
	3	22	M	B			4	14	12	F	B				
	4	17	M	M			5	15	10	M	B				
	5	15	F	M			6	16	8	M	B				
	6	14	M	B			7	17	5	F	B				
	7	13	M	B			8	18	4	F	B				
	8	11	M	B			9	19	5	F	B				
	9	9	F	B			10	20	2	F	B				
	10	6	M	B			11	21	4	F	B				
	11	4	M	B			12	22	3	M	B				
	12	2	M	B			13	23	8	F	B				
	13	31	F	B			14	24	6	F	B				
John Downs	1	21	M	M			15	25	4	F	B				
	2	19	F	M			16	26	9	F	B				
	3	1	F	M			17	27	4	F	M				
	4	1/2	M	M			18	28	1	M	B				
Benjamin Barrett	1	6	F	B			19	29	6	M	M				
Ann M Downs	1	52	F	B			20	30	1	M	B				
	2	25	M	B			21	31	35	M	B				
	3	22	F	B			22	32	21	M	B				
	4	1	M	B			23	33	15	M	B				
Nancy H. Brown	1	16	F	B			24	34	12	M	B				
Joseph Lopez	1	11	F	B			25	1	41	M	M				
Thomas Fawcett	1	24	M	B			26	2	23	F	B				
	2	40	F	B			27	3	15	F	B				
	3	16	M	B			28	4	14	F	B				
	4	12	M	B			29	5	1	M	B				
	5	1	F	M			30	1	12	F	B				
Lloyd Green	1	9	F	B			31	1	30	F	M				
Nathan Bulliken	1	9	M	B			32	2	25	F	M				
Washington Duwall	1	70	M	B			33	3	13	F	B				
	2	60	F	B			34	4	8	M	M				
	3	45	M	B			35	5	6	M	M				
	4	45	M	B			36	6	3	M	B				
	5	45	M	B			37	7	7	F	M				
	6	45	F	B			38	1	66	M	B				
	7	40	F	B			39	2	19	F	M				
	8	40	F	B			40	3	1	M	M				
	9	40	F	B			41	1	10	M	M				
	10	24	F	B			42								

In 1860, Ann was the only free person listed in her household. At that time, assessment records indicate she had one slave quarter (Figure 15; Ancestry.com 2010: U.S. Census 1860). The enslaved residents at Prospect of Peace included Rachel (age 63), Malinda (age 35), and four mulatto boys listed as ages 1, 3, 5, and 11 (Figure 15; Ancestry.com 2010: U.S. Census 1860). The four boys were presumably the children of Malinda. Shortly before writing her will in 1870, Ann sold an 8.75-acre section of Prospect of Peace for \$8.57 an acre to Malinda (MSA MCD 1869: Liber EBP 6:367). Ann specifically sold the property to Malinda and “the said children of Malinda Jackson of said county and state” (MSA MCD 1869: Liber EBP 6:367). The children are not named in the deed but appear in the 1870 U.S. Census (Ancestry.com 2010) as George (age 15), Milburn (age 13), Thomas E. (age 11), Emma J. (age 8), and Mary E. (age 5).

In 1870, Ann was 89 years old and lived with her niece Elizabeth Ellen Downs Wheeler, the daughter of her brother Benjamin, Elizabeth’s husband, Grafton Wheeler, and their five children; Sarah A. (age 11), William P. (age 9), Joseph (age 6), John A. (age 5), and Elizabeth E. (age 3). An African American farm laborer from North Carolina named Samson Ferguson also lived with the Wheelers (Ancestry.com 2010: U.S. Census 1870). When Ann wrote her will in 1870, she left the Wheelers her household effects and the remaining land left to her by her father (MSA MCRW: Liber JWS1:369). Ann died in 1872. The Wheelers were related to the Downs through multiple marriages (Table 2). Ann’s younger sister, Elizabeth Downs, married a Wheeler (first name unknown) and had a son named Grafton, who married Benjamin Downs’ daughter, Elizabeth Ellen (i.e., Elizabeth Ellen and Grafton were first cousins). Alfred and Martha Wheeler, who lived with Ann in the 1850s, were apparently related to Ann by marriage. Richard M., Ann’s brother, was uncle to Martha by marriage to his first wife, Sarah.

Through these familial connections, African Americans with the surname Adams worked for and lived with members of the Wheeler and Downs families. Before the Civil War, African American freedmen with the surname Adams appear in the Downs and related households. Moreover, they remained in the service of the Downs and descendent families after the Civil War. However, their exact relation to each other is difficult to ascertain. For example, in 1870, brothers, Alfred (age 7) and Andrew (age 5) Adams, lived with Martha Wheeler and her family (Ancestry.com 2010: U.S. Census 1870). The same was true in 1880, but the brothers were listed as farm laborers (Ancestry.com 2010: U.S. Census 1880). It is presumed that these Adams family members were related to Malinda Adams Jackson through her father, Edward Adams.

In 1875, the remaining portions of the Prospect of Peace property were further subdivided into one small and two large tracts. A 56-acre section was sold to Richard Bentley for \$8.03 per acre (MSA MCD 1875: Liber EBP 14:116). A 108-acre section was sold to Eli A. Berry for \$20 per acre (MSA MCD 1875: Liber EBP 13:343). The one small tract, 98 square perches (less than one acre), was sold to John W. Bell for \$6.15 (MSA MCD 1875: Liber EBP 14:36).


3.3.1 MALINDA ADAMS JACKSON AND FAMILY

Based on her age given in Zachariah Downs’ will of March 24, 1826 (4 months), Malinda Adams Jackson appears to have been born into slavery in Fairland in December of 1825. As noted previously, her mother, Rachel, was enslaved to Zachariah and later to his, daughter, Ann Magruder Downs. Malinda’s father was likely Edward Adams, a free African American who lived in Ann’s household in 1840. Malinda and both of her parents were in the Downs household in 1850. Edward Adams (age 50) was still a free African American laborer

SCHEDULE 2. Slave Inhabitants in 5th District in the County of Montgomery State of Maryland, enumerated by me, on the 5th day of June, 1860. North Hanby Ass't Marshal.

1	2	DESCRIPTION.			6	7	8	9	1	2	DESCRIPTION.			6	7	8	9		
		3	4	5							3	4	5						
NAMES OF SLAVE OWNERS.		Number of Slaves.	Age.	Sex.	Color.	Fugitives from the State.	Number manumitted.	Deaf & dumb, blind, insane, or idiotic.	No. of Slave houses.	NAMES OF SLAVE OWNERS.		Number of Slaves.	Age.	Sex.	Color.	Fugitives from the State.	Number manumitted.	Deaf & dumb, blind, insane, or idiotic.	No. of Slave houses.
1	John Baker	1	9	f	B					Ans Landry	1	7	m	B					
2	"	1	7	m	B					"	1	5	m	B					
3	"	1	7	m	B					"	1	3	f	B					
4	"	1	5	f	B					"	1	1	f	B					
5	"	1	5	m	B					"	1	7/2	m	B					1
6	"	1	5	m	B					Benjamin Bell	1	43	m	B					
7	"	1	3	f	B					"	1	26	f	B					
8	"	1	7/2	m	B				1	"	1	11	m	B					
9	Elizabeth A Bell	1	50	m	B					"	1	8	f	B					
10	"	1	35	m	B					"	1	6	m	B					
11	"	1	30	f	B					"	1	8	m	B					
12	"	1	18	m	B					"	1	1	m	B					1
13	"	1	10	f	B				1	George B Senaps	1	47	f	B					
14	Elizabeth A Bell	1	80	f	B					"	1	44	f	B					
15	Quander for Senaps & Senaps	1	40	f	B					"	1	40	m	B					
16	"	1	35	m	B					"	1	30	m	B					
17	"	1	23	m	B					"	1	31	m	B					
18	"	1	23	m	B					"	1	25	f	B					
19	"	1	30	m	B					"	1	23	m	B					
20	"	1	21	m	B					"	1	21	m	B					
21	MyFamily.com	1	19	f	B					"	1	19	f	B					
22	"	1	14	f	B					"	1	17	m	B					
23	"	1	8	m	B					"	1	15	m	B					
24	"	1	6	m	B					"	1	12	m	B					
25	"	1	3	f	B					"	1	9	f	B					
26	"	1	4	f	B					"	1	5	m	B					
27	"	1	1	f	B					"	1	1	f	B					
28	Ann M. Downs	1	63	f	B					"	1	34	m	B					1
29	"	1	35	f	B					Sarah Maccum	1	37	m	B					
30	"	1	11	m	B					"	1	18	f	B					2
31	"	1	5	m	B					Mrs Jones	1	65	m	B					
32	"	1	8	m	B					Henry M McCann	1	60	m	B					
33	"	1	1	m	B				1	"	1	58	f	B					
34	Maria Marlow	1	8	f	B					"	1	46	m	B					Deaf Dumb
35	"	1	5	m	B					"	1	40	m	B					
36	James P Paper	1	20	m	B					"	1	41	f	B					
37	Thomas M. Scandy	1	30	f	B					"	1	25	f	B					
38	"	1	18	f	B					"	1	35	f	B					
39	"	1	17	m	B					"	1	22	f	B					
40	"	1	11	f	B					"	1	16	f	B					

No. of owners, 75 No. of male slaves, 115 No. of female slaves, 41 No. fugitives, _____ No. deaf and dumb, _____ No. insane, _____ No. idiotic, _____

PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III	1860 Slave Schedule		PROJECT NO.	20831016
SCALE	Not applicable			FIGURE NO.	15
SOURCE	Ancestry.com 2010				

(Ancestry.com 2010: U.S. Census 1850; MCRW: Liber JWS1:369), while Rachel (age 52) and Malinda (age 22) were still enslaved. In addition, an unknown enslaved male (age 25) and enslaved child (age 1) were listed. The child was likely Malinda's oldest child, John T. Adams; the unknown male may have been John's father, though that could not be confirmed. According to information provided by living descendants, as well as census and death records, John was a "natural child" born out of wedlock.

Sometime prior to or during the Civil War, Malinda married Thomas Jackson. In 1860, a Thomas Jackson was listed as a free 30-year-old mulatto laborer living with the Joseph Soper family on a farm directly adjacent to that of Ann Magruder Downs (Ancestry.com 2010: U.S. Census 1860). It is presumed that this is the same Thomas Jackson who married Malinda and fathered her five youngest children. These children were born with the surname Jackson before or during the Civil War, suggesting that Malinda married Thomas while still enslaved. During slavery, this marriage would have required the permission of Ann. It does not appear, however, that Thomas and Malinda lived in the same household, as records never document Thomas as a member of the Downs or Jackson households. It is possible Thomas died before 1870 and that is why he does not appear in census records. The role her husband played in her life and that of her children is unknown. Prior to Emancipation, "it was common for husband and wife to belong to different planters; children stayed with their mother" (Hiebert and MacMaster 1976:152). The pattern of husbands and wives living on separate plantations during slavery may have continued for a period after the war, which may explain Thomas not appearing on the census records for the Jackson homestead.

In the 1860 census, a 35-year-old enslaved black woman, presumed to be Malinda, is listed in Ann Magruder Downs' household. Thomas Jackson is listed in the 1860 census as a mulatto still working on the Soper farm. Thomas and Malinda's children seem to have been considered mulatto at the time as well. The 1860 census indicates that four mulatto boys were in the Downs' household (Ancestry.com 2010). Based on their ages, they appear to have been Malinda's four sons, John T. Adams, and George, Milburn, and Thomas E. Jackson. Since John was also listed as mulatto, this could suggest his father was either mulatto or white (in theory, this would contradict the possibility that his father was the unknown enslaved black male in the 1850 census). By the 1870 census, Malinda and her five youngest children are described as black (Ancestry.com 2010).

Malinda was enslaved to the Downs family until she was approximately 40 years old. While Zachariah Downs' will dictated that the children of his slaves be freed at the age of 35 years, the 1860 U.S. Census suggests that Malinda and her mother, Rachel (age 63), remained enslaved until then and possibly until the end of the Civil War. Once freed, Malinda may have stayed with the Downs family as a servant until at least July 9, 1869, when she purchased the 8.75-acre section of Prospect of Peace from Ann (Figure 16; MSA MCD 1869: Liber EBP 6:367). The domestic structure on Malinda's property was likely the same single-pen cabin that she and her family occupied during slavery. It appears that, sometime after Malinda purchased the property, the house was expanded to form a hall and parlor style house, with the single-pen cabin side serving as the kitchen and the addition serving as a parlor.

While the Fairland area was generally characterized by large farms owned by white males, both Malinda Adams Jackson and Ann Magruder Downs were female heads of household during tumultuous times in the mid-nineteenth century. Property ownership was important, especially

Exam'd & filed
W. H. Stables
Sept 13: 1869

at the request of Malinda Jackson the following Deed
was recorded. The 26th July 1869. To wit:

This Deed made this seventh day of July, in the year
eighteen hundred and sixty nine, by Ann M. Downs of
Montgomery County, in the State of Maryland, ^{Witnessed}
that in Consideration of Seventy five dollars, the said Ann
M. Downs, doth grant unto Malinda Jackson and the
children of said Malinda Jackson, of said County and
State, All that lot or parcel of ground, situated in Mont-
gomery County, which is described as follows - being parts of
a tract of land called "Prospect of Peace" and part of a
tract called "Doar Park" Beginning at a stone standing
at the end of the thirteenth line of the "Prospect of Peace"
and running thence with said tract South fifty seven
degrees West, four perches to a stone, No. 1, standing at the
end of the ninth line of a tract of land called the "Cove-
nants of Peace"; then North Seventeen and three quarter
degrees West, thirty nine and two tenths perches to a stone
then North, twenty eight degrees East, ten perches to a stone
at or near the end of the fifteenth line of the "Prospect of
Peace"; then running across said land, South fifty three

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

1869 Deed of Sale from Ann Downs
to Malinda Jackson

SCALE Not applicable

URS

PROJECT NO. 20831016

SOURCE MSA MCD 1869: Liber EPB 6:367

FIGURE NO. 16

during this period, as the former enslaved “sought to escape tenancy and further circumscriptions upon their lives by buying land themselves and establishing their own homesteads” (McDaniel 1979:19). Since most freedmen had few assets, they could typically only purchase small tracts of land. After the Civil War, most white-owned farms were also relatively smaller and it was possible for African Americans to purchase property “on the edges of these farms and still walk to their work as farm laborers” (McDaniel 1979:20). Female heads of households were often shown as having no occupation, while the older sons were shown as being laborers (McDaniel 1979:22). It is likely that this was the case with the Jackson family. The relationship between the Jackson and Downs families may have lasted past 1869. Some of Malinda’s children were farm laborers and it is possible they continued to work for the Downs family until later in the nineteenth century.

In the 1870 census, Malinda Adams Jackson is listed as a 42-year-old black female, although she was likely 44 or 45 years old, based on Zachariah Downs’ will and earlier census records (Table 4; Figure 17; Ancestry.com 2010). Malinda’s mother, Rachel, was likely deceased by 1870, as she does not appear in the census with either the Jackson or Downs families. Malinda was the head of household with her five youngest children, George (age 15), Milburn (age 13), Thomas E. (age 11), Emma J. (age 8), and Mary E. (age 5). Her husband, Thomas Jackson, does not appear in the 1870 census with either Malinda’s or the Soper households. He may have moved farther away or died at a relatively early age. Malinda’s eldest child, John T. Adams, was no longer living at home in 1870. Census records for the City of Baltimore list a John Adams as a mariner. Whether this was the same John Adams is unclear; naval buttons found at the site, however, may provide some corroborating evidence for this possibility.

Table 4. Household Residents from the 1870 U.S. Census

Name	Age	Sex	Color	Trade
Malinda Jackson	42	Female	Black	Keeps House
George Jackson	15	Male	Black	Farm Laborer
Milburn Jackson	13	Male	Black	None
Thomas E. Jackson	11	Male	Black	None
Emma J. Jackson	8	Female	Black	None
Mary E. Jackson	5	Female	Black	None


Malinda’s occupation in 1870 was listed as “keeps house” and she had real estate valued at \$200, reflecting her modest house and 8.75-acre property. Her 15-year-old son, George, shown as a farm laborer, apparently helped support the family. It is unclear whether he worked on Malinda’s property or another farm in the area (possibly on the Downs property or the Soper farm, where his father had worked).

U.S. Census data indicates that three generations of Jacksons lived on the property between 1870 and at least 1910. Malinda died sometime between 1870 and 1879, but more likely later in that decade (based on the 1879 Hopkins’ map that labeled the property as “Mrs. Jackson’s Heirs”). Neither George nor Milburn Jackson was present on any census of the property after 1870. Milburn does not appear in any record after 1870 and may have lived outside Maryland or died at an early age. George may have lived nearby, as is discussed below.

SCHEDULE 1.—Inhabitants in Fifth District, in the County of Montgomery, State of Maryland, enumerated by me on the 9th day of July, 1870.
 Post Office: Sandy Spring 1/10/74 Jengulax, Ass't Marshal.

1	2	3	4			7	8		10	11		13	14	15			18	19		20
			DESCRIPTION	AGE	SEX		Color	VALUE OF REAL ESTATE OWNED		PLACE OF BIRTH	FATHER			MOTHER	EDUCATION	CONSTITUTIONAL INFIRMITY				
		(Brown) John	3	M	B				Md											
	395-395	Rhine Geo W	27	M	W	Keeps store		150	Md									/		
		" Augustus	25	M	W	Farmer			Md									/		
	396-396	Adams Benjamin	47	M	B	Farm laborer			Md									/		
		" Leonard	45	F	B	Keeps house & wks cut			Md					11						
		" Martha	14	F	B				Md					11						
		" Benjamin	7	M	B				Md											
		" Robert	35	M	B	Farm laborer			Md					11			/			
	397-397	Marlow Benjamin	58	M	W	Farmer & store keeper	2500	1500	Md									/		
		" Mary	57	F	W	Keeps house			Md											
		" Harriet	23	F	W				Md											
		Richardson Thomas	17	M	W	Farmer			Md											
		" Alfred	22	M	W	Farmer			Md									/		
	398-398	Soper Barton T.	43	M	W	Carpenter	500	150	Md									/		
		" Sarah C.	33	F	W	Keeps house			Md											
		" Mary C.	17	F	W				Md											
		" Basil	15	M	W				Md											
		" Joseph	12	M	W				Md											
		" Elmore	7	M	W				Md											
		" Louis F.	1	M	W				Md											
	399-399	Jackson Melinda	42	F	B	Keeps house		200	Md						11					
		" George	15	M	B	Farm laborer			Md					11						
		" Milburn	13	M	B				Md					11						
		" Thos E.	11	M	B				Md					11						
		" Emma	8	F	B				Md											
		" Mary C.	5	F	B				Md											
	400-400	Brown Regim	36	M	W	Farmer	3000	1500	Md									/		
		" Nancy	72	F	W	Keeps house			Md											
		Bell Mary	7	F	W				Md											
		Glinton Wm	40	M	B	Farm laborer			Pa									/		
	401-401	Brown Wm C.	48	M	W	Farmer	400	150	Md									/		
		" Mary	48	F	W				Md											
		Shaffer Edw	10	F	M				Md											
	402-402	Rhine Sam E B.	42	M	W	Farmer		450	Md									/		
		" Mahala	37	F	W	Keeps house			Md											
		" Margaret	16	F	W				Md						11					
		" Rebecca	12	F	W				Md						11					
		" Emily	9	F	W				Md						11					
		" Edas	7	F	W				Md						11					
		" Ugella	5	M	W				Md											

8 No. of dwellings, _____ No. of white females, _____ No. of males, foreign born, _____ 4 900 4 200 No. of inmates, _____
 " " families, _____ " " colored males, _____ " " females, " " _____

PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III	1870 U.S. Census	
SCALE	Not applicable		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE	Ancestry.com 2010		FIGURE NO. 17

In 1880, most of Malinda’s children lived in the Jackson family home (Table 5; Figures 18 and 19). Her eldest son, John T. Adams, was listed as the head of household. He married Mary Jane Walker (from Virginia) and they had a 10-year-old daughter named Mary Ida Adams (Ancestry.com 2010: U.S. Census 1880). It appears that John moved back to the family home to serve as head of household once his mother died. His unmarried half-siblings, Thomas, Emma Jean (also shown as Emma Jane), and Mary E., were living in the household. An infant named Ella Jackson is also listed in the census, but the identity of her parents is unknown; she may have been the daughter of Emma J. or Mary E. An unrelated African American adult male named Samuel Dorsey also lived in the household as a farm laborer. A number of Dorseys resided in the area; perhaps Samuel was formerly a neighbor or a neighbor’s child.

Table 5. Household Residents from the 1880 U.S. Census

Name	Color	Sex	Age	Marital Status	Relation to Head of Household	Occupation
Adams, John T.	B	M	33	Married	Head	Woodchopper
Adams, Mary J. Walker	B	F	27	Married	Wife	Keeping House
Adams, Mary Ida	B	F	10	Single	Daughter	At Home
Jackson, Thomas	B	M	22	Single	Half-Brother	Woodchopper
Jackson, Emma Jean	B	F	18	Single	Half-Sister	Keeping House
Jackson, Mary E.	B	F	15	Single	Half-Sister	Keeping House
Jackson, Ella	B	F	1		None listed	
Dorsey, Samuel	B	M	21	Single	None listed	Farm Laborer

Interestingly, the 1880 census listed 13 woodchoppers (seven households) in the vicinity of the Jackson homestead (Ancestry.com 2010). Both John T. Adams and his half-brother, Thomas Jackson, were employed as woodchoppers. One household had an uncle and nephew living together; though both men were listed as married, no women were shown on the census. There were five other households of one to two unrelated men living together—many also shown as married. With the exception of the Jacksons, no women were present in the woodchoppers’ households. Other than the brothers, John and Thomas, none of the woodchoppers were present in earlier or later census records for the area, suggesting that they were transient laborers. This was a period of significant growth in the area and the men likely were employed to clear trees for new housing, roads, or fuel. Two smaller structures (Structures B and C, as discussed later) were present on the site that may have served as housing for the additional men during this period. It is possible that John moved back to the family house not only to serve as head of household, but also to take advantage of economic opportunities present in Fairland. Since no census data is available for 1890, it is unknown how long John, Thomas, or others worked as woodchoppers in the area. Neither brother was working as a woodchopper in 1900 or thereafter.

Page No. 4
Supervisor's Dist. No. 3
Enumeration Dist. No. 114

Note A.—The Census Year begins June 1, 1870, and ends May 31, 1880.
Note B.—All persons will be included in the Enumeration who were living on the 1st day of June, 1880. No others will. Children BORN SINCE June 1, 1880, will be OMITTED. Members of Families who have DIED SINCE June 1, 1880, will be INCLUDED.
Note C.—Questions Nos. 13, 14, 22 and 23 are not to be asked in respect to persons under 10 years of age.

351

SCHEDULE I.—Inhabitants in 1st Elect. Dist., in the County of Montgomery, State of Maryland enumerated by me on the 7 day of June, 1880.

Wm. F. Layton Enumerator

Table with columns: Name, Personal Description, Relationship, Civil Condition, Occupation, Health, Education, Nativity. Rows include Fry William, Williams John, Washington George, etc.

- Adams and Jackson Household
- Unrelated Woodchopper Households

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III | 1880 U.S. Census | URS | PROJECT NO. 20831016 | SCALE Not applicable | SOURCE Ancestry.com 2010 | FIGURE NO. 18

D.

[7-296.]

Page No. 8
Supervisor's Dist. No. 8
Enumeration Dist. No. 114

Note A.—The Census Year begins June 1, 1879, and ends May 31, 1880.
Note B.—All persons will be included in the Enumeration who were living on the 1st day of June, 1880. No others will. Children BORN SINCE June 1, 1880, will be OMITTED. Members of Families who have DIED SINCE June 1, 1880, will be INCLUDED.
Note C.—Questions Nos. 13, 14, 22 and 23 are not to be asked in respect to persons under 10 years of age.

SCHEDULE 1.—Inhabitants in 5th Election Dist., in the County of Montgomery, State of Maryland, enumerated by me on the 5th day of June, 1880.

Wm. F. Lazenby

Table with columns: In Cities, Name of Person, Personal Description, Civil Condition, Occupation, Health, Education, Nativity. Rows include individuals like Adams Walter, Lawson John, Brown Robert, etc.

Note B.—In making entries in columns 9, 10, 11, 12, 13 to 22, an affirmative mark only will be used—thus /, except in the case of colored persons, column 11, when the letter "D" is to be used.
Question No. 13 will only be asked in cases where an affirmative answer has been given either to question 10 or to question 11.

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III
SCALE Not applicable
SOURCE Ancestry.com 2010
1880 U.S. Census (Showing Woodchoppers)
URS
PROJECT NO. 20831016
FIGURE NO. 19

Mary E. Jackson had a daughter in ca. 1881 whom she named Malinda A. Jackson. Malinda was not present in the 1900 census, suggesting she had moved away. It is likely, however, that Malinda lived much of her childhood at the Jackson homestead. By 1900, John T. Adams (incorrectly shown as James Adams in the 1900 census), his wife, and their children, Mary Jane (age 16), Annie M. (age 12), and Walker T. (age 7), had moved away from the Jackson homestead, though they continued to live nearby. Mary Ida, their daughter shown as age 10 in 1880, had either died or moved away from home by that time (she would have been approximately 30 years old in 1900). Given the fact that they named another daughter Mary, it is more likely that she died at an early age. John is listed as a laborer in the census.

Siblings Thomas and Emma J. Jackson, both still shown as single, continued to live in the Jackson family home. No other household residents are shown in the 1900 census; Emma is listed as a housekeeper and Thomas as a farmer (Figure 20). He appears to have been farming on the small Jackson tract, as the property was recorded as a farm (Ancestry.com 2010: U.S. Census 1900). This is supported by the archaeological data, which indicated the area in the vicinity of the house was plowed. Sister Mary and her daughter, Malinda, as well as Ella, could not be located in 1900 U.S. Census, though Mary was back at the family home by 1910.

While Malinda's son, George, is not listed in the household after the 1870 census, a George S. Jackson is listed in the 1900 and 1910 censuses as residing in the vicinity of the Jackson homestead (Ancestry.com 2010). In the 1870 census, Malinda's son, George, is listed as 15 years old and, in the 1900 census, George S. Jackson is listed as 38 years old, a 2- to 3-year difference between the two sources (most census records show some discrepancy in ages). A George S. Jackson also provided the information for Emma's will in 1913, further indicating a familial relationship.

In the 1900 census, George S. Jackson is shown as head of household with his wife, Martha, sons Imbrie (age 13) and George (age 9), and daughter Mattie (age 11; Figure 20). In the 1910 census, a George S. Jackson is listed as a lodger in the household of Martha Lee, who is listed with children, Emory (possibly Imbrie, age 24), Mattie L. (age 21), and George T. (age 19). It is clear these are the same households, but with Martha listed as a widow and George as single in 1910 (Figure 21). While a number of scenarios for the difference between the 1900 and 1910 census listings come to mind, none of the historic records indicates the reason for the change.

By 1910, Emma J. Jackson assumed the role of head of household in the family home and was employed as a servant in a private home (Figure 21; Ancestry.com 2010: U.S. Census 1910). There were nine people living on the family property: seven relatives and two boarders (Table 6). Thomas also lived in the family home and worked as a farm laborer (he had been head of household in 1900; their changing roles as head of household may simply reflect who provided the data to the census taker). Their sister, Mary, had also moved back into the family home.

Both Emma and Mary are listed as widows, with their maiden names. Emma had no children living in the house in 1910, but three of Mary's children (she bore six) lived in the household, along with Emma Jean's granddaughter, Emma C. Jackson. The parent of Emma C. is unknown, though it is possible that she was the daughter of Ella C. Jackson. The fathers of Emma Jean's and Mary's children are unknown, though George W. Bird, a boarder, may have been the father to some or all of Mary's children, as discussed below.

TWELFTH CENSUS OF THE UNITED STATES.

1-224.

125 A

State Maryland

County Montgomery

SCHEDULE No. 1.—POPULATION.

Supervisor's District No. 4 Sheet No. 11
 Enumeration District No. 66

Township or other division of county 1st District

Name of Institution

Name of incorporated city, town, or village, within the above-named division


Ward of city

Enumerated by me on the 16th day of June, 1900, Henry K. Schantz, Enumerator.

5779

IN CENTR.	NAME	RELATION	PERSONAL DESCRIPTIONS						NATIVITY			CITIZENSHIP	OCCUPATION, TRADE, OR PROFESSION	EDUCATION				SCHEDULE OF HOME	
			SEX	AGE	COLORED	ILLITERATE	DEAF	BLIND	Place of birth of this person	Place of birth of father of this person	Place of birth of mother of this person			Years in school	Years in college	Years in university	Years in technical school	Value of real estate	Value of personal property
201	Williama M.	
206	Robert	
207	Carroll	
208	Jackson	
209	
210	
211	
212	
213	

- Thomas and Emma Jackson Household
- George and Martha Jackson Household

PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III	1900 U.S. Census	PROJECT NO.	20831016
SCALE	Not applicable		FIGURE NO.	20
SOURCE	Ancestry.com 2010			

1241
SUPERVISORS DISTRICT NO. 5
EDUCATION DISTRICT NO. 110
SHEET NO. 6A

129
WARD OF CITY
J. J. McLean

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE AND LABOR - BUREAU OF THE CENSUS
THIRTEENTH CENSUS OF THE UNITED STATES: 1910 - POPULATION

COLESVILLE (6th election) - which (last) NAME OF INCORPORATED PLACE
EMBRACED BY ME ON THE DAY OF April 25 1910

FAMILY NO.	NAME	RELATION	PERSONAL DESCRIPTION					SEX	COLOR	ETHNIC OR NATURALIZATION	MARRIAGE	MILITARY	REMARKS
			AGE	SEX	COLORED	ETHNIC OR NATURALIZATION	MARRIAGE						
93 93	Rowena, Susan H	Wife	W	55	M	20	48	White	Virginia	Married			
93 94	John E	Husband	M	42	M	20	48	White	Virginia	Married			
93 95	John E	Son	M	17	M	20	48	White	Virginia	Married			
93 96	John E	Son	M	15	M	20	48	White	Virginia	Married			
93 97	John E	Son	M	13	M	20	48	White	Virginia	Married			
93 98	John E	Son	M	11	M	20	48	White	Virginia	Married			
93 99	John E	Son	M	9	M	20	48	White	Virginia	Married			
93 100	John E	Son	M	7	M	20	48	White	Virginia	Married			
94 94	John E	Son	M	11	M	20	48	White	Virginia	Married			
94 95	John E	Son	M	9	M	20	48	White	Virginia	Married			
94 96	John E	Son	M	7	M	20	48	White	Virginia	Married			
94 97	John E	Son	M	5	M	20	48	White	Virginia	Married			
94 98	John E	Son	M	3	M	20	48	White	Virginia	Married			
94 99	John E	Son	M	1	M	20	48	White	Virginia	Married			
94 100	John E	Son	M	0	M	20	48	White	Virginia	Married			

1910 U.S. Census

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

SCALE Not applicable

SOURCE Ancestry.com 2010

PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 21



Table 6. Household Residents from the 1910 U.S. Census

Name	Relation to Head of the Family	Sex	Color	Age	Marital Status	Occupation	Read	Write	Attended School in 1909
Jackson, Emma	Head	F	B	45	Widow	Servant in Private Family	Yes	Yes	-
Jackson, Mary E.	Sister	F	B	44	Widow	None	Yes	Yes	-
Jackson, George W.	Nephew	M	B	23	Single	Farm Laborer	Yes	Yes	-
Jackson, John T.	Nephew	M	B	11	Single	None	No	No	No
Jackson, Pauline	Niece	F	B	6	Single	None	-	-	-
Jackson, Emma C.	Grand-daughter	F	B	14	Single	None	Yes	Yes	Yes
Jackson, Thomas E.	Brother	M	B	46	Single	Farm Laborer	Yes	Yes	-
Bird, George W.	Boarder	M	B	51	Single	Farm Laborer	Yes	No	-
Conway, Griffin	Boarder	M	B	65	Single	Farm Laborer	No	No	-


The two boarders, George Bird and Griffin Conway, were also farm laborers in 1910. In the 1880 census, George Bird is listed as living with his wife, Annie, as neighbors to the Jackson family, while in the 1910 census, he is listed as single, likely either divorced or widowed. It is possible that George and/or Griffin lived in one of the secondary residences on the Jackson homestead (i.e., Structures B or C). Archaeological evidence discussed later suggests that they may have taken their meals at the main house.

The census record indicates that all of Malinda's children could read and write; however, of the three children living in the household in 1910, only one, Emma C. (age 14), attended school. Records also indicate that the Jackson property was owned free and clear of mortgage (Ancestry.com 2010: U.S. Census 1910).

A review of the MCRW Index (1777–1956) did not yield probate records for Malinda Adams Jackson or her children. No death certificate was found for Malinda or any of her children, except Emma J. Jackson (Figure 22; MSA MCRW: Liber CM757). Emma Jean (listed as Emma Jane on the death certificate) was born and lived in Fairland until her death on January 25, 1913. She died from “paralysis,” likely the result of a stroke, with a contributory diagnosis of “heart failure.” Her doctor certified that he had been attending her for five days before her death. The death certificate confirms that her mother, Malinda Adams Jackson, and her father, Thomas Jackson, were both born in Montgomery County. Her death certificate lists her age as “about 48,” slightly younger than is suggested by the 1870 census. Her occupation is listed as “house work.” George S. Jackson, likely her brother, submitted the personal information on Emma.

MARGIN RESERVED FOR BINDING
 WRITE PLAINLY, WITH UNFADING INK—THIS IS A PERMANENT RECORD
 N. B.—Every item of information should be exactly supplied. AGE should be stated EXACTLY. PHYSICIANS should state CAUSE OF DEATH in plain terms, so that it may be properly classified. Exact statement of OCCUPATION is very important. See instructions on back of certificate.

PLACE OF DEATH 687 County <u>Montgomery</u> Village or City <u>Fairland</u> (No. <u>66</u>) St.; Ward)		STATE OF MARYLAND CERTIFICATE OF DEATH Registered No. <u>214</u> <small>[If death occurred in a hospital or institution, give its NAME instead of street and number.]</small>	
FULL NAME <u>Emma Jane Jackson</u>			
PERSONAL AND STATISTICAL PARTICULARS		MEDICAL CERTIFICATE OF DEATH	
1 SEX <u>Female</u> 2 DATE OF BIRTH <u>unknown</u> 3 AGE <u>about 4 1/2</u> 4 OCCUPATION <u>House work</u> 5 BIRTHPLACE <u>Montgomery Co Md</u>	6 COLOR OR RACE <u>Black</u> 7 SINGLE, MARRIED, WIDOWED, OR DIVORCED <u>single</u> 8 IF LESS than 1 day, hrs. OR min. ? 9 NAME OF FATHER <u>Thomas Jackson</u> 10 BIRTHPLACE OF FATHER <u>Montgomery Co Md</u> 11 MAIDEN NAME OF MOTHER <u>Melinda Adams</u> 12 BIRTHPLACE OF MOTHER <u>Montgomery Co Md</u> 13 THE ABOVE IS TRUE TO THE BEST OF MY KNOWLEDGE (Informant) <u>Geo J Jackson</u> (Address) <u>Fairland Md</u>	16 DATE OF DEATH <u>Jan 25</u> , 191 <u>3</u> (Month) (Day) (Year) 17 I HEREBY CERTIFY, That I attended deceased from <u>Jan 24</u> , 191 <u>3</u> , to <u>Jan 24</u> , 191 <u>3</u> . That I last saw h. alive on <u>Jan 23</u> , 191 <u>3</u> . and that death occurred on the date stated above, at <u>12</u> <u>pm</u> . The CAUSE OF DEATH* was as follows: <u>Purpura</u> (Duration) yrs. mos. <u>5</u> ds. Contributory (Secondary) <u>Heart Failure</u> (Duration) yrs. mos. <u>2</u> ds. (Signed) <u>J. R. Jackson</u> , M. D. <u>Jan 31</u> , 191 <u>3</u> (Address) <u>Spencer Rd</u> <small>*State the DISEASE CAUSING DEATH, or, in deaths from VIOLENT CAUSES, state (1) MEANS OF INJURY; and (2) whether ACCIDENTAL, SUICIDAL, or HOMICIDAL.</small>	18 LENGTH OF RESIDENCE (FOR HOSPITALS, INSTITUTIONS, TRANSIENTS, OR RECENT RESIDENTS) At place of death yrs. mos. ds. In the State yrs. mos. ds. Where was disease contracted, if not at place of death? Former or usual residence 19 PLACE OF BURIAL OR REMOVAL <u>On the premises at Fairbank</u> DATE OF BURIAL <u>Jan 27, 1913</u> 20 UNDERTAKER <u>Fisher & Phair</u> ADDRESS <u>Laurel, Md</u>
Filed: _____, 191____ REGISTRAR If more blanks are needed, address State Registrar, 6 E. Franklin St., Balto., Requesting V. S. No. 1.			

PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III	1913 Emma J. Jackson Death Certificate	
SCALE	Not applicable		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE	Maryland State Archives: MSAMCRW: Liber Cm757		FIGURE NO. 22

It does not appear that Emma Jean was buried with other family members at either Round Oak Missionary Baptist Cemetery or Good Hope Church Cemetery. On her death certificate, her place of “burial or removal” is noted as “on the premises at Fairbank.” While likely, it is not certain that Fairbank is an erroneous spelling of Fairland and that Emma Jean is buried in the vicinity of site 18MO609. Additionally, it is not clear from the death certificate whether it is referring to the place Emma died (i.e., at home) or where she was buried. Results of remote sensing at the site (discussed later) revealed no graves near the house. In 1910, Malinda A. Jackson, Mary’s daughter, married Herman Lee. She died during childbirth in Fairland on April 2, 1917, at the age of 36. The 1910 census shows Herman and Malinda living along Columbia Pike not far from her mother at the family homestead.

The census data reflects a number of changes in the Jackson household over a period of 40 years. Seven Jackson family members are shown on the census in 1870; eight are shown on the 1880 census, though some had left and some had returned to the family home. In 1900, only two Jackson family members were living at the homestead. Nine people were living at the homestead in 1910—seven family members and two boarders. Some family members generally stayed on site, while others came and went. It appears a few generally stayed at the homestead (e.g., siblings, Thomas and Emma), while some left to establish their own families (e.g., George). Some likely left for economic reasons (i.e., to find work elsewhere), and some came and went throughout the family’s occupation of the site until it burned ca. 1915 (e.g., Mary E.).

Adams and Jackson family members occupied the property since the first half of the nineteenth century, when the earliest family members were enslaved. The family lived on the property for approximately 48 years (1869–1917), until a catastrophic fire destroyed the home ca. 1915. In 1916, Malinda’s daughter, Mary E., sold the property to Alexander Kilgour who in turn sold it to Perry Eli Johnson, the husband of Malinda’s granddaughter, Mary Jane Adams Johnson in early 1917 (Figure 23; MSA MCD 1917: Liber PBR 262:128). Mary Jane was the daughter of John T. Adams, Malinda’s eldest son. Perry and Mary Jane lived in Tacoma Park and attended the Good Hope Methodist Episcopal Church, where they both were buried. The fact that no one is shown as occupying the home site in 1917 at the time of sale, or anytime thereafter, is an indication that the house had burned by that time and no one rebuilt on the property. Perry held the property until 1944, when he sold it and ended the 75-year family ownership of the property (MSA MCD 1944:Liber 940:91). Mary Jane died of a coronary occlusion on June 19, 1942 (Figure 24; MSA S1179-7071 MdHR 50,259-803-6). Her death certificate confirms her father was John T. Adams and her mother was Mary J. Walker Adams. She was buried at the Good Hope Church Cemetery on June 22, 1942. Perry died in 1946.

In 1920, some of Mary E.’s children lived in nearby western Colesville along Columbia Pike (Ancestry.com 2010: U.S. Census 1920). George W. Jackson, Mary’s eldest son, married two sisters in succession, first Clara Virginia Lee and then Effie Malinda Lee. George and Effie had six children by 1920: Ruth (age 11), William E. (age 7), Hilda (age 5), George H. (age 4), Christine (age 3), and Spencer (age 1 month; Table 7). By 1933, they had four more children: Luther, Sarah, Grace, and Malinda Odel. George’s brother-in-law and nephew, Herman and Raymond Lee, respectively, were also present in his household in 1920. In actuality, it may have been that George and his family were living with Herman, since it appears it was the same home Malinda and Herman occupied in 1910. Perhaps George and Effie moved in after Malinda’s death to help pay the bills and take care of young Raymond. By 1930, Herman and Raymond had moved in with his mother on Beltsville Road.

Table 7. 1920 Census for George W. Jackson Family

Name	Relation to Head of the Family	Age
George W. Jackson	Head of household	37
Effie Jackson	Wife	26
Ruth Jackson	Daughter	11
Wm. E. Jackson	Son	7
Hilda Jackson	Daughter	5
Geo. H. Jackson	Son	3
Christine Jackson	Daughter	2
Spencer Jackson	Son	<1
Herman Lee	Brother-in-law	42
Raymond Lee	Nephew	3

In 1920, Mary E.'s younger son, John, was head of household at another residence in Colesville (Table 8). Pauline Jackson lived with her brother, as did their cousin Eva Jackson and her children Helen (age 3) and James (age 1). George Bird, the 65-year-old widower, also lived with John and Pauline and their family. The fact that George was living in the Jackson home in 1900 with Mary and her son, George, and that he continued to live with Mary's children, John and Pauline, suggests that he may have been the father to some, if not all of her children. Both Jackson families rented their homes.

Table 8. 1920 Census for John T. Jackson Family

Name	Relation to Head of the Family	Age
John T. Jackson	Head of household	23
Eva Jackson	Cousin	22
Helen Jackson	Cousin	3
James Jackson	Cousin	1
Pauline Jackson	Sister	18
George Bird	Lodger (possible father)	65

Malinda Adams Jackson's 8.75-acre section of the Prospect of Peace patent changed ownership 11 times between 1869 and 1983 (Table 9). Marshall Lehman purchased the property in 1944, but did not live on the tract. Moreover, the 1943 USGS map and a 1948 real estate map of the area shows neither a structure nor a road leading to the property. It remained a small isolated parcel until after the construction of Maryland Route 29 in the mid-1950s. Lehman's son, Melvin, sold the parcel to the State of Maryland Roads Commission in 1955 for the construction of Maryland Route 29. The State, in turn, sold it to William Magruder after the construction of the "White to Burtonville" section of Maryland Route 29 in 1956.

EXAMINED At the request of Alex. Kilgour the following Deed was recorded February 19th A. D. 1917, at 2:18 o'clock P. M. to-wit:-

Mailed to Perry E. Johnson Silver Spring Md Feb 27, 1917

THIS DEED, made this 30th day of August, in the year nineteen hundred and sixteen, by Mary Eliza Jackson, heir at law of Malinda Jackson. late of Montgomery County.

WITNESSETH, That for and in consideration of the sum of Ten Dollars and other valuable considerations the said Mary Eliza Jackson doth grant unto Alexander Kilgour all of her rights, title, and interest of and into all that tract, part of a tract, piece or parcel of land lying and being in Montgomery County, in the State of Maryland, containing eight acres more or less and which is fully described in a deed dated the 7th day of July in the year Eighteen Hundred and Sixty-nine made by Ann M. Downs to Malinda Jackson and recorded among the Land Records of Montgomery County, in Liber E. B. P. No. 6, folio 367, Reference being made to said deed for the purpose of making it a part hereof for the purpose of fully identifying and describing the tract of land hereby conveyed or intending to be conveyed as aforesaid.

Witness my hand and seal.

her Mary Eliza X Jackson, (SEAL) Mark

TEST: Alex Kilgour.

STATE OF MONTGOMERY COUNTY, TO-WIT:-

I hereby certify that on this 30th day of August, 1916, personally appeared before me a Notary Public of the State of Maryland, in and for Montgomery County Mary Eliza Jackson, child and heir at law of Malinda Jackson, deceased and acknowledged the foregoing deed to be her act.

Lydia P. Prattyman N. P.

Lydia P. Prattyman Notary Public Rockville, Maryland.

EXAMINED At the request of Perry Johnson the following Deed was recorded February 19th A. D. 1917, at 2:19 o'clock P. M. to-wit:-

Mailed to Perry E. Johnson Silver Spring Md Feb 27, 1917

This Deed made this 19th day of February in the year Nineteen hundred and Seventeen by Alexander Kilgour of Rockville, Montgomery County in the State of Maryland.

Witnesseth, That for and in consideration of the sum of Ten Dollars and other valuable considerations, I the said Alexander Kilgour do grant and convey unto Perry Johnson, all of my right, title and interest of an unto all that tract, part of a tract piece or parcel of land lying and being in said County and State, containing eight (8) acres of land more or less, and which is fully described in a deed dated the 7th day of July in the year Eighteen Hundred and Sixty-nine by Ann M. Downs to Malinda Jackson and recorded among the Land Records of Montgomery County in Liber

E. B. P. No. 6, Folio 367, as an reference thereto will appear.

Witness our hand and seal.

TEST: Alexander Kilgour, (SEAL) Emily T. Cashell.

STATE OF MARYLAND, MONTGOMERY COUNTY, TO-WIT:-

I hereby certify that on this 19th day of February in the year Nineteen hundred and Seventeen, personally appeared before me, a Notary Public of the State of Maryland, in and for said County, Alexander Kilgour and acknowledge the foregoing deed to be his act.

Emily T. Cashell, Notary Public.

Emily T. Cashell Notary Public Rockville, Montg. Co. Md.

EXAMINED At the request of Carratt D. Linthicum the following Deed was recorded February 20th A. D. 1917, at 3:30 o'clock P. M. to-wit:-

Mailed to Carratt D. Linthicum Feb 26, 1917

This Deed made this 13th day of February, in the year Nineteen hundred and seventeen by Cronin A. Gray and Mary E. Gray, his wife, of Montgomery County, Maryland, parties of the first part and Carratt D. Linthicum, of Montgomery County, Maryland, party of the second part.

Witnesseth, That for and in consideration of the sum of one dollar, in hand paid, the receipt of which is hereby acknowledged, the parties of the first part, do hereby grant, bargain, sell and convey unto the party of the second part, all of their right, title and interest in and to, all of that piece or parcel of land situate, lying and being in Montgomery County, State of Maryland, called "Misurveys on Wild Out", being the same land that was conveyed to Emily M. Nichols, by Mary E. Anderson, by deed dated the first day of January in the year Eighteen hundred and Ninety eight, and recorded in Liber T. D. No. 2, folio 155, and conveyed by Emily M. Nichols and Camden E. Nichols her husband, to Cronin A. Gray, by Deed dated the 13th day of November A. D. 1905, said deed being recorded in Liber 124, folio 254, one of the Land Records of Montgomery County, Maryland, and contained within the metes and bounds, courses and distances following to-wit:-

Beginning for the same at a stone planted on the South side of the public road, led ing from Hyattstown, to Clarksburg, and running thence South, thirty one and one half degrees east, twenty nine perches; to a notched oak tree; then North eighty five and one half degree East, twenty nine and seven tenths perches; North sixteen degrees West; twenty two perches; then by a straight line to the beginning, containing four acres of land more or less.

Together with all the buildings and improvements thereon as well as the rights, ways, privileges and appurtenances thereto belonging, or in anywise appertaining.

The parties of the first part do hereby warrant specially and generally the land hereby conveyed; That they have a right to convey said land and premises; That they have

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

SCALE Not applicable

SOURCE Maryland State Archives: MSA MCD 1917: Liber PBR 262:128

1916 Deed of Sale from Mary E. Jackson to Eli Perry Johnson



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 23

MARYLAND STATE DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH

2411 N. Charles St., Baltimore 942

CERTIFICATE OF DEATH

66263
Reg. Dist. No. 223

MARGIN RESERVED FOR BINDING

VS A15

PLEASE WRITE PLAINLY, WITH UNFADING INK. Supply every item of information carefully. The correct age is especially important. Physicians: please write the causes of death clearly and legibly.

1. PLACE OF DEATH: County <u>Montgomery</u> City or town <u>Jakoma Park, Md.</u> (If outside city or town limits, write RURAL and give nearest town) How long in above place of death? Hospital, institution, or street address where death occurred: How long in hospital or institution?			2. USUAL RESIDENCE (HOME) OF DECEASED: (For newborn infants give residence of mother) State <u>Montgomery</u> County <u>Montgomery</u> City or town <u>Jakoma Park</u> (If outside city or town limits, write RURAL and give nearest town) Street No. (If rural, give LOCATION) 2.(a) If veteran, name war		
3. (a) FULL NAME <u>Mary Jane Johnson</u>			3. (b) Social Security Number <u>none</u>		
4. Sex <u>Female</u>	5. Color or race <u>Colored</u>	6. (a) Single, married, widowed, or divorced <u>married</u>			
6. (b) Name of husband or wife <u>Perry E. Johnson</u>			6. (c) If alive, give age _____ years		
7. Birth date of deceased (mo., day, yr.)					
8. AGE: Years _____ Months _____ Days _____ If less than one day _____ hrs. _____ min.					
9. Birthplace <u>Tailand, Md.</u> (Town, county, and state)					
10. Usual occupation <u>Housewife</u>					
11. Industry or business					
12. Name <u>John J. Adams</u>					
13. Birthplace <u>Md.</u>					
14. Maiden name <u>Mary J. Walker</u>					
15. Birthplace <u>Richmond, Va.</u>					
16. Informant <u>Perry E. Johnson</u>					
Address <u>Jakoma Park, Md.</u>					
17. <u>Buried</u> Date thereof <u>June 22, 1942</u> (Burial, cremation, or removal. Which?) (month) (day) (year)					
Cemetery or crematory <u>Good Hope</u>					
Location <u>Colesville, Md.</u>					
18. Funeral director <u>Robert L. Snowden</u>					
Address <u>246 N. Wash. St.</u>					
19. <u>June 22</u> 19 <u>42</u> (Date rec'd by registrar)					
MEDICAL CERTIFICATION 20. DATE OF DEATH <u>June 19</u> 19 <u>42</u> , at <u>12:30 P.M.</u> 21. I CERTIFY that death occurred on the date above stated; that I attended deceased from _____ 19 _____ 19 _____ and that I last saw him _____ 19 _____ Immediate cause of death <u>Coronary occlusion</u> DURATION _____ Due to _____ Due to _____ Other conditions _____ (Include pregnancy within 3 months of death) Major findings of operations _____ Date of op. _____ Autopsy results _____ PHYSICIAN: Please underline the cause to which death should be charged statistically.					
22. VIOLENCE: If death was due to external causes, fill in the following: Accident, suicide, or homicide _____ Date of _____ Where did injury occur? _____ (City or town) _____ (County) _____ (State) Injured at home, farm, industry, public place (where?) _____ Means of injury _____ Injured at work? _____					
23. SIGNATURE <u>C. E. Hawks</u> <u>Deputy Medical Examiner</u> Address <u>Rockville, Md.</u> Date signed <u>6/22/42</u>					

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

SCALE Not applicable

SOURCE Maryland State Archives:
MSA S1179-7071 MdHR 50,259-803-6

1942 Mary Jane Adams Johnson Death Certificate



PROJECT NO. 20831016

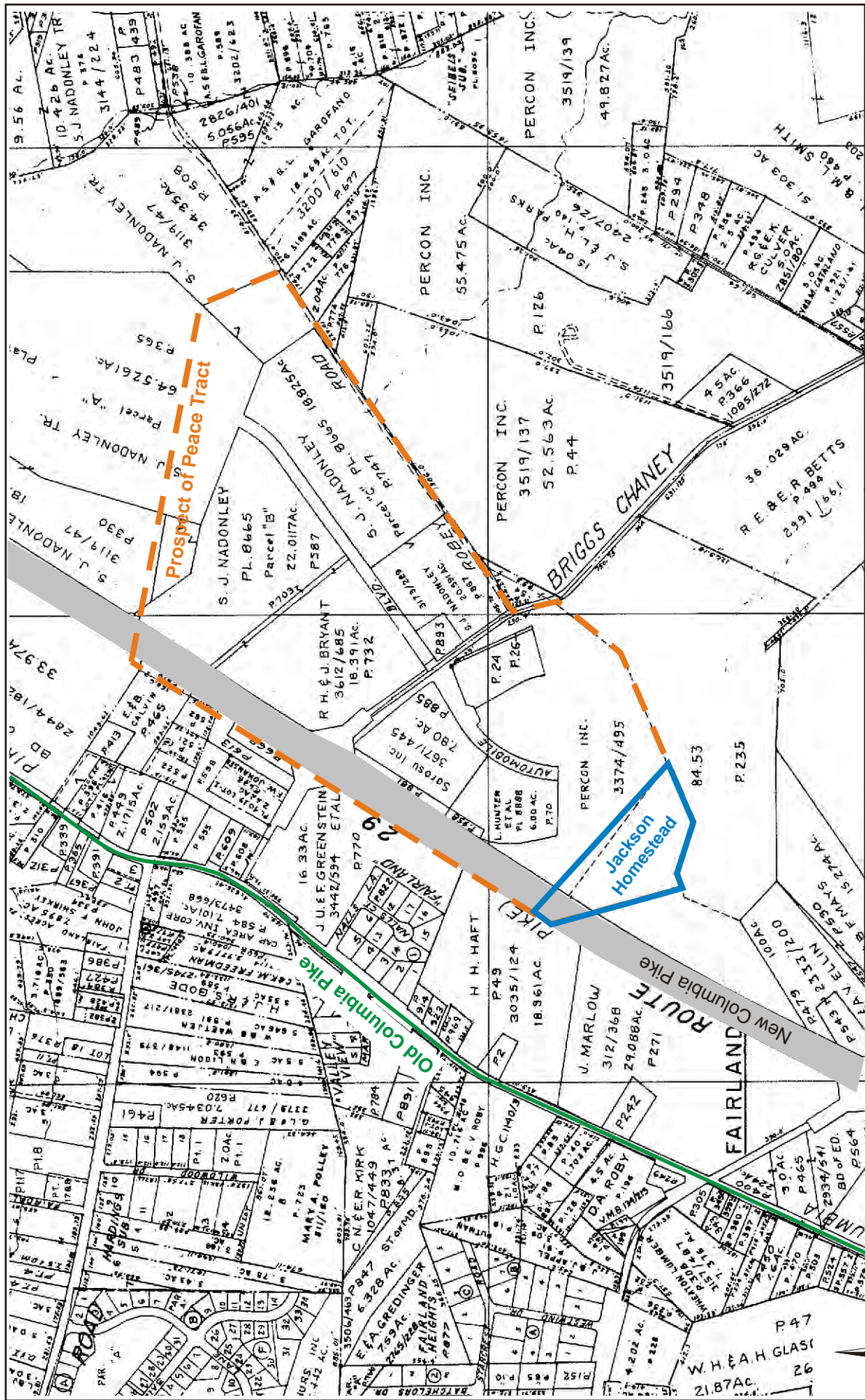
FIGURE NO. 24

Prior to the construction of Maryland Route 29, Magruder owned two adjacent tracts: 65 acres to the north, part of the original Prospect of Peace patent, and 50 acres to the east of the Jackson property. After the sections were taken for the new road, his property consisted of 106.98 acres, including the Jackson homestead. In 1958, the consolidated 106.98-acre property was sold by Magruder to the Rhodes-Fletcher Corporation, which subsequently became part of the Contee Sand and Gravel Company, also known as Percon, Inc. Percon accumulated hundreds of acres in the Fairland area north and south of Briggs Chaney Road and east of Maryland Route 29 for gravel mining operations. The property directly to the north of the Jackson homestead was subdivided in 1969 for the development of the Montgomery Auto Sales Park (Figure 25). Percon held the subject property until the current section, “Parcel 26,” was subdivided and purchased by the State of Maryland in 1986 in preparation for the ICC.

Table 9. Prospect of Peace Chain of Title

Date	Grantor	Grantee	Acres
12/6/1803	Western Shore Land Office	Zachariah Downs	175.75
7/7/1869	Ann M. Downs	Malinda Jackson	8.75
8/30/1916	Mary Eliza Jackson	Alex Kilgour	Not Listed
2/13/1917	Alex Kilgour	Perry E. Johnson	8 +/-
6/16/1944	Perry Eli Johnson, Widower	Marshall & Ethel D. Lehman	8.75
10/18/1946	Marshall & Ethel D. Lehman	Melvin A. & Susan A. Lehman	8.75
1/14/1955	Melvin A. & Susan A. Lehman	State of MD, Roads Commission	8.75
10/25/1956	State of MD, Roads Commission	William E. & Marie V. Magruder	8.75
1/3/1958	William E. & Marie V. Magruder	Rhodes-Fletcher Corp.	106.99
6/30/1965	Contee Sand and Gravel Co.	Percon Inc.	106.99
6/30/1969	Contee Sand and Gravel Co.	Montgomery Auto Sales Park	Not Listed
6/30/1983	Percon, Inc.	Inter County Connector, Parcel 26	22.36

Chain-of-title documentation and research have provided a window into the past that has led to the identification of living direct descendants of Malinda Adams Jackson, many of who still live within a few miles of the Jackson family homestead (Table 10). Informal oral history interviews were conducted with a number of family members in an effort to learn more about Malinda Adams Jackson and her family. The majority of the Jackson relatives contacted are direct descendants of Malinda through her daughter, Mary, and Mary’s son, George. For example, the Reverend Spencer E. Jackson is the son of Reverend Luther Jackson and grandson of George W. Jackson. Reverend Spencer Jackson has two sisters and one brother. Other relatives are also descendants of George W. Jackson, but through his daughters. Two are still living: Malinda Jackson Adams and Sarah Jackson Thornton. While none of the family members were aware of the family homestead location, it is interesting to note the close connections that remain to the area. Malinda Adams Jackson’s great-grandson, Reverend Luther Jackson, founded the Abyssinia Baptist Church in Fairland, only 1 mile from the Jackson homestead (Figure 26). Luther’s son Spencer E. Jackson continues to serve as pastor at the church.



1969 Map With 1803 Prospect of Peace Tract Overlay		PROJECT NO.	20831016
PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		FIGURE NO.	25
SCALE Unknown			
SOURCE Real Estate Directors 1969			



Table 10. Descendants of Malinda Adams Jackson

Children of Malinda Adams

- (1) John T. Adams, born ca. 1847

Children of John T. Adams and Mary Jane Walker

- (1.1) Mary Ida Adams, born 1870
- (1.2) Mary Jane Adams, born 1884
- (1.3) Annie M. Adams, born 1888
- (1.4) Walker Thomas Adams, born 1893

Children of Malinda Adams and Thomas Jackson

- (2) George Jackson, born ca. 1855

Children of George Jackson and Martha Lee

- (2.1) Imbrie (or Emory) Jackson, born ca. 1887
- (2.2) Mattie L. Jackson, born ca. 1889
- (2.3) George Jackson, born ca. 1891

- (3) Milburn Jackson, born ca. 1857

- (4) Thomas E. Jackson, born ca. 1859

- (5) Emma J. Jackson, born ca. 1862, died 1913

Children of Emma J. Jackson

- (5.1?) Ella C. Jackson, born ca. 1879
 - (5.1?.1) Emma C. Jackson (unconfirmed parent), born ca. 1896

- (6) Mary E. Jackson, born ca. 1865

Children of Mary E. Jackson

- (6.1) Malinda A. Jackson, born ca. 1883, died 1917

Children of Malinda A. Jackson and Herman Lee

- (5.1.1) Raymond Lee, born 1917

- (6.2) George Washington Jackson, born 1887

Children of George Washington Jackson and Clara Virginia Lee

- (6.2.1) Elvie Edward Lee, born 1904

Children of George Washington Jackson and Effie Malinda Lee

- (6.2.2) Ruth Jackson, born 1909

- (6.2.3) William E Jackson, born 1913

- (6.2.4) Hilda Jackson, born 1914

- (6.2.5) George H. Jackson, born 1917

Children of George H. Jackson

- (6.2.5.1) Anna Jackson

- (6.2.5.2) Alice Jackson

- (6.2.5.3) Earline Jackson

- (6.2.5.4) Larue Jackson

- (6.2.6) Christine Jackson, born 1918

- (6.2.7) Spencer Jackson, born 1920

- (6.2.8) Reverend Luther Jackson, born 1922

Children of Luther Jackson

- (6.2.8.1) Juanita Jackson Frazier

- (6.2.8.2) Kathleen Jackson

- (6.2.8.3) Reverend Spencer Jackson

- (6.2.8.4) Luther Jackson

- (6.2.9) Sarah Jackson, born 1926

- (6.2.10) Grace Jackson, born 1929

- (6.2.11) Malinda Odel Jackson, born 1933

- (6.3) John T. Jackson, born 1900

- (6.4) Pauline Jackson, born 1904


Many members of the family visited the archaeological site during excavations and saw the remains of the home occupied by their ancestors (Figure 27). Upon completion of the excavations, numerous family members took foundation stones from the house as a remembrance of Rachel, Malinda, and Malinda's children. A number of family members also visited during a laboratory open-house event to see the thousands of artifacts recovered as part of this study.



Figure 26. Abyssinia Baptist Church in Fairland, Maryland



Figure 27. Malinda Jackson's Descendants at Jackson Homestead, March 2008

PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III	Project Photographs		
SCALE	N/A			
SOURCE	URS		PROJECT NO.	20831016
			FIGURE NO.	26 and 27

4.0 PREVIOUS INVESTIGATIONS

Previous investigations in the vicinity of site 18MO609 include archaeological and architectural history surveys. These are detailed below, as are previous investigations conducted on site 18MO609.

4.1 ARCHAEOLOGICAL RESOURCES

Although numerous cultural resource surveys have been conducted in the area, very few archaeological sites have been identified. Table 11 lists archaeological sites recorded within a 1.6-km (1-mi) radius of site 18MO609. Of these, two have not been evaluated and two were recommended not eligible for the NRHP (Maryland Inventory of Historic Properties [MIHP] Archaeological Site Survey 2010). The prehistoric sites are typical for the Mid-Atlantic region; lithic scatters are plentiful and tend to lack diagnostic artifacts. The Early or Late Archaic Period camp dates to roughly the same periods as the prehistoric component at site 18MO609; diagnostic artifacts consists of one Projectile Point/Knife (PPK) base that was determined to be either an Early Archaic Kirk or Terminal Archaic Dry Brook point.

Site 18MO597 includes a nineteenth through mid-twentieth century scatter of artifacts, interpreted as a dump, with a possible association with a house located north of the site and shown on the 1865 Martenet and 1879 Hopkins' maps.

Table 11. Sites Located within a 1.6-km (1-mi) Radius

Site Number	Site Type	Culture Period	NRHP Eligibility*
18MO272	Lithic Scatter	Undetermined Prehistoric Period	Not Evaluated
18MO273	Lithic Scatter	Undetermined Prehistoric Period	Not Evaluated
18MO597	Camp	Early or Late Archaic	Not Eligible
	Dump	1800–1950	
18MO610	Lithic Scatter	Undetermined Prehistoric Period	Not Eligible

*Eligibility as recorded on MIHP Forms

4.2 HISTORIC STRUCTURES

The majority of structures inventoried in the vicinity of site 18MO609 were the result of an ICC-specific survey conducted by the P.A.C. Spero & Company (1996) for SHA. Table 12 summarizes historic structures located within a 1.6-km (1-mi) radius of the project area. The structures include primarily domestic residences dating from the eighteenth through the mid-twentieth century. Only three of the 28 residences listed in Table 12 were recommended eligible for the NRHP. One late nineteenth church (1876) and cemetery was identified, and determined not eligible; the church burned in 1987 but the cemetery is extant. Fairland School, with two periods of construction (1934 and 1942), was also recommended not eligible to the NRHP.

Table 12. Historic Structures Located within a 1.6-km (1-mile) Radius

MHT Inventory Number	Property Name	Property Type	Date	Eligibility*
DOE-MO-0011	12921 Old Columbia Pike	Domestic	1957	Not Eligible
DOE-MO-0012	13304 Old Columbia Pike	Domestic	1945	Not Eligible
DOE-MO-0013	2409 Musgrove Road	Domestic	1957	Not Eligible
DOE-MO-0014	2501 Fairland Road	Domestic	1942	Not Eligible
DOE-MO-0015	2511 Fairland Road	Domestic	1942	Not Eligible
M:33-06	Benjamin Fawcett House	Domestic	ca. 1800	Not Eligible
M:33-07	Valley Mill House	Domestic	Eighteenth century	Not Eligible
M:34-07	Elbert Beckwith House	Domestic	ca. 1865	Not Eligible
M:34-08	Julius Marlow House	Domestic	ca. 1800	Undetermined
M:34-09	St. Mark's Chapel Episcopal Church and Cemetery	Religious	1876	Not Eligible
M:34-12	Joseph Edwards Property	Domestic	1929	Not Eligible
M:34-13	Roy Wilson Property	Domestic	ca. 1910	Not Eligible
M:34-15	Edgar Roby Property	Domestic	ca. 1920	Not Eligible
M:34-16	Howard Marlow Property	Domestic	1910	Eligible
M:34-17	Lacy Shaw House	Domestic	1924	Eligible
M:34-21	Willard Marlow House I and II	Domestic	ca. 1920	Not Eligible
M:34-22	William Rich Property	Domestic	ca. 1870	Not Eligible
M:34-23	John Norton House	Domestic	1929	Eligible
M:34-24	Clarence and Catherine Wright Property	Domestic	1932	Not Eligible
M:34-27	Odorian Robey Property	Domestic	1903	Not Eligible
M:34-28	Fairland School	School	1934 and 1947	Not Eligible
M:34-29	Donald Carle Property	Domestic	1946	Not Eligible
M:34-30	Edwards House	Domestic	ca. 1930	Not Eligible
M:34-31	Hollen House	Domestic	ca. 1930	Not Eligible
M:34-32	J.T. Lancaster Property	Domestic	1940	Not Eligible
M:34-33	Joseph Smith Property	Domestic	ca. 1930	Not Eligible
M:34-34	Patricia Raglan Property	Domestic	ca. 1930	Not Eligible
M:34-35	Richard Bryant Property	Domestic	ca. 1920	Not Eligible
M:34-36	Robert Hoffman Property	Domestic	1943	Not Eligible
M:34-38	Ben Petree Property	Domestic	ca. 1920	Not Eligible

*Eligibility as recorded on MIHP Forms

4.3 CULTURAL RESOURCE SURVEYS

In 1979, a cultural resource reconnaissance was performed for the Metropolitan Washington Area Water Supply Study for the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers (Thomas 1979). A portion of the study traversed Fairland Branch to the south without locating any resources in the vicinity. The linear survey located no evidence of prehistoric or historic resources. The majority of areas examined by the reconnaissance were determined to have been highly disturbed by suburbanization, past road construction, and previously existing pipeline connections.

During the early planning for the ICC, a Maryland Geological Survey reconnaissance was performed on select survey tracts (Curry 1983). This initial reconnaissance of the ICC corridor identified survey tracts comprising areas of potential based on a lack of heavy suburban development. The initial reconnaissance considered the 32-km (21-mi) corridor and another 72 km (45 mi) of proposed alternative alignments. The area of site 18MO609 was not surveyed. Ten archaeological sites were identified from 29 survey tracts. The closest tract to site 18MO609 and the current ICC alignment was Tract 10, which is located due east within the Fairland Branch channel. No sites were identified within this tract and it was determined that ongoing construction had completely disturbed its area.

A reconnaissance was performed by the Maryland Geological Survey for the expansion of US 29 in Montgomery and Howard counties (Ballweber 1988). The reconnaissance focused on alignments for new interchanges, upgrades to intersections, and added access roads. A total of 20 test loci were examined and five sites were identified. Two of these sites, 18MO272 and 18MO273, are located approximately 0.75 and 0.85 mi (1.21 and 1.37 km), respectively, south of site 18MO609. Both are prehistoric lithic scatters located within alternatives that were not selected for the roadway expansion. These sites were therefore not evaluated for their NRHP potential. Site 18MO274, located more than 1 mi (1.61 km) north of the current ICC alignment, was a prehistoric temporary campsite considered potentially eligible for NRHP listing.

An Anacostia River Basin restoration project for Montgomery and Prince George's counties prompted a Phase I and subsequent Phase II investigation along Paint Branch southwest of site 18MO609. U.S. Army Corps of Engineers archaeologists performed this linear survey of the stream channel south of Fairland Road to the point where Paint Branch is directed under US 29 (Baumgardt 1994). One site (18MO271), a prehistoric lithic scatter, was identified during this survey. This site is located more than 2 mi (3.22 km) south of the project area.

A Phase I survey at the intersection of Briggs Chaney Road and US 29 was conducted in 1996 (Sheehan et al. 1996). The survey encountered modern-era construction and household debris, and truncated and eroded soils and fill from past road construction. No archaeological sites were identified during this survey.

In 1997, Greiner, Inc. (now URS), conducted a Phase Ib archaeological identification and sampling survey of the ICC alignment from I-270 to US 1 for the SHA (Tull et al. 1997). The Phase Ib consisted of two components addressing resources and potential resources for those areas of the planned corridor between I-270 near Rockville and I-95/US 1 near Laurel. The first component involved identifying and evaluating deposits and features for standing historic structures (Spero et al. 1996). The second involved using a field sampling strategy to provide a basis for a predictive model for more detailed investigations of the selected alternative for the ICC. The sampling strategy included a field survey of 20 percent of the areas determined to have high archaeological potential and 10 percent of the areas determined to have low archaeological potential. Nine sites were identified, all of which were located in high potential areas. The predictive model developed as a result indicated that the area of site 18MO609 had high potential for archaeological resources.

Between 2003 and 2004, Berger conducted a Phase I archaeological survey for SHA of two corridors under consideration for the ICC (Bedell et al. 2004). This survey covered 81.7 ha (202 ac) and included the common alignments of both corridor options at the eastern and western ends

of the ICC and those areas of the corridors previously identified as having high probability for archaeological resources.

Berger conducted an additional Phase I survey in 2005 (Bedell and LeeDecker 2005). Site 18MO609 was identified during this survey. Berger archaeologists excavated 207 shovel test pits (STPs) within their testing areas 56, 57, and 60. Three discrete prehistoric loci (A, B, and C) were identified from 65 STPs. In total, 207 prehistoric artifacts were recovered, which included projectile point/knives, tools, cores, debitage, and fire-cracked rock. Several diagnostic projectile points were recovered, including a Dry Brook point, a bifurcated point, and either a Morrow Mountain or Piscataway point. The prehistoric components represented temporary camps dating to the Middle Archaic to Early Woodland Periods. Historic artifacts were noted on the ground surface near Locus C (Survey Area 60) in what appeared to be a bottle dump. A sample was collected from surface contexts. In total, 40 historic artifacts were recovered during the Phase I survey. Historic artifacts included ceramics (pearlware, whiteware, yellowware, porcelain, and stoneware), bottles (liquor and mineral water), and other domestic artifacts. The majority of these artifacts appeared to date to the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Berger noted an unmortared fieldstone foundation in the vicinity of the artifacts. No testing was conducted in or around the foundation to assess its age or the integrity of deposits. Based on the artifacts and foundation, the historic component of Locus C was thought to date to the twentieth century and was not considered potentially significant. The prehistoric components, however, were recommended for Phase II evaluation to assess their eligibility for the NRHP.

5.0 RESEARCH DESIGN

This section describes the objectives, methods, and expectations for the Phase II evaluation study and Phase III data recovery investigations. URS prepared a Data Recovery Plan prior to the Phase III field investigations, which is included in Appendix B.

5.1 OBJECTIVES

The main goals of the Phase II evaluation were to identify prehistoric and historic activity areas, determine the presence and nature of any associated artifacts and cultural features, and gather further data to evaluate the significance and eligibility of the site for listing in the NRHP. Upon completion of the Phase II evaluation, the site was determined eligible and a Phase III Data Recovery Plan was compiled. The main goal of the Phase III data recovery investigations was to mitigate adverse effects to the site through retrieval and analysis of the maximum amount of information necessary to address research topics regarding the site's use and occupation.

To accomplish the goals of the Phase II and III investigations, URS conducted background research, field excavation, and laboratory analysis. As noted previously, the Phase III investigations focused solely on the historic component of the site—specifically the Jackson homestead area of Locus C. In addition, several relevant research questions were developed to guide the Phase III data recovery investigations. These are discussed in detail below.

5.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The historic component at site 18MO609 falls within the following historic contexts: Agricultural/Industrial Transition (A.D. 1815–1870) and Industrial/Urban Dominance (A.D. 1870–1930). Data recovered during the Phase II evaluation indicate the historic component had the potential to address a variety of research questions related to post-Civil War African American lifeways in rural Montgomery County. Four broad research themes, each with specific research questions, were developed as part of the data recovery investigations. These are detailed below.

5.2.1 SOCIOCULTURAL/SOCIOECONOMIC THEME

In an effort to provide important information on the lifeways of the site's occupants, URS developed a number of research questions to guide the investigations. These questions focused on learning more about the family (adults and children), their ethnicity (specifically related to African American lifeways and practices), gender (specifically related to the period when it was owned or when the household was headed by females), religious practices, and social and economic stature. Key questions included:

- How did Malinda Adams Jackson make a living? Does the number of clothing-related artifacts suggest that she was a seamstress, dressmaker, or milliner?
- Was the former house a slave dwelling that became a freed person's dwelling?
- Is gender visible in the archaeological record of the site? If so, how and to what extent?
- Are the known children at the site archaeologically represented? If so, how and to what extent?

- If personal artifacts are submitted for nuclear DNA (nDNA) or mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) testing, what can we learn from the information derived from the results (e.g., maternal lineage or gender of individuals)?
- Based on artifact and faunal analysis, what were the occupants' class and social status?
- Given the direct indications of ethnicity at the site (e.g., historic records, crystals), what additional data can we add to the existing literature on African Americans who held on to African-based religious practices and beliefs?

5.2.2 COMMUNITY/SPATIAL PATTERN THEME

Community and spatial pattern questions focused on trying to determine if different occupations, activity areas, and homestead buildings were evident in the archaeological record at the Jackson homestead. These questions included:

- Since Malinda Adams Jackson owned the property for a period of time in the nineteenth century, can we differentiate her occupation from those of her descendants?
- Can we determine whether the site was originally occupied by Malinda during slavery?
- Can we determine the historic site layout (e.g., location of outbuildings and features in association with the house foundation)?
- Are activity areas within the house evident in the archaeological record?
- Can we determine if and how the site is associated with plantations in the area?
- If outbuildings are identified, what was their function?
- Are there indications of activity areas within the house and yard areas?

5.2.3 CONSUMER PATTERN THEME

Given the quantity and quality of the artifact assemblage, URS also focused research questions on determining how the family purchased its goods, where it purchased them, and if there were ethnic preferences visible in the archaeological record. These questions included:

- Is there indication of consumer behavior preferences?
- Were the Jacksons purchasing goods produced in Europe, across America, or locally?
- Is there evidence of foodway patterns and preferences?
- How were the site's occupants participating in the local economy?

5.2.4 REGIONAL THEME

Research questions also focused on putting the site into a regional context to determine if it reflected general trends of the periods and how it compared to similar sites in the region. These questions included:

- How does the site reflect the general trends of the Agricultural/Industrial Transition (A.D. 1815–1870) and Industrial/Urban Dominance (A.D. 1870–1930) periods in the region?

- How does this compare to contemporaneous sites in the region?
- What construction methods were used at the site and do they reflect regional trends for the period?
- What information can be deduced about the size, construction materials, and uses of the structures? Do the architectural data fit within regional patterns?

5.3 BACKGROUND RESEARCH METHODS

URS conducted extensive documentary and contextual research of the history of the site and its environs. Research was directed toward the ownership and occupation of the site, and the historical characteristics of the associated communities. Primary resources consulted included Montgomery County land records (deeds and plats), probate records (wills, inventories, and accounts), and tax assessments. URS also examined historic maps, insurance records, Federal census records, agricultural schedules, and slave schedules. These records are housed at the Montgomery County Courthouse, the Montgomery County Historical Society, and the Maryland Hall of Records in Annapolis. Research was conducted at numerous libraries, such as the Enoch Pratt Library in Baltimore. URS also consulted secondary resources at the Montgomery County Historical Society such, as general histories of Montgomery County and publications on African American history and sociology in the county.

5.4 FIELD METHODS

The Phase II evaluation included the manual excavation of STPs and 1 x 1 m (3.28 x 3.28 ft) test units (TUs). STPs were excavated at 10-m (32.8-ft) intervals in order to identify artifact concentrations and refine the site boundaries. TUs were judgmentally placed to investigate artifact concentrations or building foundations associated with the historic occupation. Shovel testing initially was confined to the prehistoric components in the three loci (A, B, and C) identified by Berger (Bedell and LeeDecker 2005). The Phase II field investigations were expanded to include the historic component in Locus C based on field observations and results of initial shovel testing.

Due to the large size of the site (approximately 4.5 ha [11 acres]) and distance between loci, three separate grids were established. Once loci boundaries were re-established and refined during shovel testing, TUs were excavated to evaluate the vertical integrity of the site, investigate artifact concentrations found during shovel testing, and identify potential cultural features. Each TU was assigned coordinates based on location within the testing grid. Soils in TUs were excavated in 10-cm (4-inch [in]) arbitrary levels within natural stratigraphic layers.

The Phase III data recovery focused on the historic component in Locus C known as the Jackson homestead. This area was approximately 0.14 ha (0.34 acre) and included a house foundation, two other structural features, and yard areas. Phase III investigations consisted of a ground-penetrating radar (GPR) survey and hand excavation of TUs. Based on consultation with the MHT, SHA, and ICC Corridor Partners, it was determined that 100 percent of the house interior and a sample of the house exterior and yard areas would be excavated. Because historic research and archaeological evidence indicated the site was occupied by African Americans and that there were artifacts associated with West African-derived spiritual practices (e.g., quartz crystals),

field methods also included dismantling the house foundation and chimney to determine if there were any other artifacts associated with such practices.

A grid oriented 20 degrees west of north was established over Locus C during the Phase II evaluation. This grid was continued across the site during the Phase III excavation; however, a separate grid oriented true north and along the axes of the house foundation and the open pit was established to facilitate excavation. All TUs and features were hand excavated (i.e., shovel shaved or troweled) according to either natural or cultural strata. During the Phase II study, excavations continued at least 10 cm (4 in) into subsoil to ensure culturally sterile deposits had been encountered. During the Phase III investigations, the Phase II data were used as a guide to determine how deep the TUs should be excavated with only a sample of TUs excavated 10 cm (4 in) into subsoil. Excavated soils were screened through 6.35 mm (¼-in) hardware cloth to ensure uniform recovery of cultural materials. Artifacts were placed in bags labeled with the provenience, date, and excavators' initials.

Field data for the Phase II and III investigations was recorded on standard forms and in general field notes. A site map depicting the location of STPs, TUs, features, and areas of disturbance was prepared. Photographs of archaeological features, soil layers, and general site conditions were taken. All soil from STPs and TU excavations was screened through 6.35 mm (¼-in) hardware cloth for uniform artifact recovery. Archaeological field methods were conducted in accordance with SHA (1992), NPS (1983), and State (Shaffer and Cole 1994) guidelines.

5.4.1 FEATURE EXCAVATION

With the exception of large features, all cultural features were mapped, bisected, profiled, and photographed. Feature 1 (Structure B), a cellar filled with modern trash, was partially excavated with a backhoe, and then was sampled with TUs at levels expected to be less affected by modern disturbance. All features associated with the house foundation (Structure A) were excavated in their entirety. Due to its size, the Structure A area was gridded into TUs; Features 2 (burn layers), 3 (fieldstone foundation), and 5 (cellar) were excavated and artifacts were provenienced according to their TU designation. At least one wall profile of each TU was drawn and photographed; more wall profiles were drawn of TUs that displayed information useful to interpreting the site. Features were mapped, bisected, and profiled, where possible. Feature 13 (Structure C) consists of fieldstone piers visible on the ground surface; this area was gridded and sampled with TUs. No flotation samples were collected from Structure C, as there were no subsurface features identified. Flotation samples were taken from Structure A feature contexts and other feature contexts, as appropriate. Documentation of features included mapping and photographing in both plan and profile views, and narrative notes on feature forms describing the features' shapes and dimensions, contents/inclusions, soil textures and colors, elevations, artifacts, samples, and interpretation/feature types.

5.4.2 GEOPHYSICAL SURVEY

Other than the cellar and house foundation, no cultural features were identified at the site during the Phase I and II field studies, and as such, geophysical survey methods were used to locate and delineate potentially buried cultural features. For 18MO609, it was determined that a GPR survey would be most useful in mapping and locating subsurface features such as privies, foundations, graves, or pits.

The geophysical investigation was conducted using the Sensors & Software, Inc. Noggin Smart Cart system with a 250 MHz scanning antenna. Surveying with GPR involves transmitting relatively high-frequency electromagnetic pulses into the subsurface using a transducer antenna, and recording the subsequent signal from reflected and refracted electromagnetic energy using a receiving antenna. The electromagnetic pulses, or radar waves are influenced by many factors in the subsurface, the most important being the dielectric constant of the soil. The dielectric constant is the ratio of the speed of light in a vacuum (0.3m/ns) to the velocity of the GPR wave, quantity squared. Therefore, changes in dielectric constant correspond to changes in electromagnetic wave propagation velocity. When the GPR transmission wavelength is short in comparison to the thickness of stratigraphic units, the radar waves are reflected at the interfaces of each unit break (dielectric contrast); these are referred to as “anomaly reflectors.”

GPR is useful in mapping and locating subsurface features and stratigraphy under a variety of conditions. The method is useful in many types of archaeological applications, including locating and mapping buried foundations, privies, burials, wells, and builder’s trenches. The effectiveness of GPR surveying at a given site is directly related to the dielectric properties of the subsurface materials. The effective survey depth can be limited by subsurface materials characterized by high conductivity and dielectric constants. These materials include clay, metal, and metallic minerals, all of which absorb radar energy instead of reflecting waves back to the surface receiver. In general, the depth of radar penetration at a given site is inversely proportional to the radar frequency used, so a high frequency, such as 250 MHz, will yield high-resolution imagery but relatively low penetration (3 m [9.84 ft]). The ground surface must be relatively smooth for data collection in order to ensure proper coupling of the antenna with the ground surface. Proper coupling ensures that reflections between the bottom of the antenna and the ground surface are not accentuated and mistaken for subsurface reflections.

The GPR data was analyzed line by line, noting any potential stratigraphic breaks that could be indicative of walls or pit features. A table of X, Y, and Z positions (referencing a local site grid system) was included in the analysis. The GPR data was analyzed and any anomalies detected were investigated to determine if the anomalies represent cultural features. Anomalies were tested either with STPs or TUs, depending on the size of the anomaly. If anomalies were determined to be cultural features, they were assigned feature numbers and treated as discussed above in the Feature Excavation section.

5.5 LABORATORY METHODS

Artifacts were transported to the URS archaeological laboratory in Gaithersburg, Maryland. They were cleaned, cataloged, and analyzed according to the following MHT’s (2005) *Standards and Guidelines for Archeological Investigations in Maryland—Collections and Conservation Standards, Technical Update No. 1*. The objectives of laboratory processing and analysis are to determine, to the extent possible, the date, function, cultural affiliation, and significance of the archaeological sites evaluated, as well as to prepare the artifacts for curation. URS will deliver the artifacts and associated documents and maps to the Maryland Archaeological Conservation Laboratory, Jefferson Patterson Park and Museum, St. Leonard, Maryland for curation.

Most artifacts were gently washed using tap water and a soft toothbrush. Delicate or unstable materials, such as decayed metal and organic material, were carefully dry-brushed with a soft toothbrush. Stable metal artifacts were washed and air dried. After they had dried, URS

analyzed, cataloged, and re-bagged the artifacts in 4-millimeter (4-mil) plastic zip-lock bags. Artifacts were labeled and bagged according to provenience and type. Artifacts were given acid-free paper labels with full provenience information, including the state site number, catalog number, STP or unit number, stratum, and date. All artifact information was entered into an Access Database (Appendices L through O). Generally, artifacts larger than 12.7 mm (½ in) square were labeled; however, a representative sample was labeled from artifact classes present in large numbers (i.e., debitage or window glass). Artifacts were labeled with the site number and lot number according to MHT guidelines. Permanent labels were written with a rapidograph over an undercoat of B72 Acryloid solution. When the ink dried, an overcoat of B72 was used to seal the label. The artifacts and accompanying acid-free labels were placed in 4-mil, perforated polyethylene zip-lock bags. The site number and bag number were written on the bags with permanent black marker, and then the bags were placed in archival-quality Hollinger boxes for curation.

5.5.1 PREHISTORIC LITHIC ARTIFACTS

No prehistoric ceramic artifacts were recovered during the Phase II or III investigations; therefore, the analysis focused on lithic artifacts. The following information was recorded for lithics: count, weight, material type, group, class, and, as applicable, subclass. Weight was recorded to the nearest hundredth of a gram (g), using a digital Sartorius scale calibrated to 800.00 g (28.22 ounce [oz]). A three-tiered system of classification is used for prehistoric lithics. The broadest level of classification is the group. Potential prehistoric lithic artifact groups include core/tested material, debitage, flaked stone tool, fire-cracked rock, ground/battered stone, and non-modified cultural. Depending on the level of archaeological investigation, lithic groups can be broken down into classes and subclasses. For example, biface and scraper are lithic classes of the group flaked stone tool; early, middle, and late stages are subclasses of the biface class; and end-scraper, side-scraper, and thumbnail scraper are subclasses of the scraper class.

Depending on the completeness or condition of an artifact, additional information was collected, such as thermal alteration, cortex type, and cortex percent. Thermal alteration, as used herein, is not necessarily intentional heat treatment per se, but has to do with lithics exhibiting evidence of being heated (e.g., luster or color change) or exposed to fire (e.g., potlidded, crazed, or burned).

A greater amount of cortex is indicative of an earlier stage of reduction, and a lack of cortex indicates later stages. The amount of cortex present on debitage is generally related to the manufacturing process, but percent cortex can be misleading as a sole source of proxy data (Sullivan and Rozen 1985). Studies have, however, demonstrated its usefulness for differentiating general reduction stages (e.g., Ahler 1989; Bradbury and Carr 1995). Relative cortex retention is also useful as a general indicator of distance from acquisition source (e.g., Sappington 1984). Percent cortex was estimated (0, less than 50, or greater than/equal to 50 percent). When possible, the type of cortex was recorded. Cortex in the form of a rounded surface rind (e.g., from fluvial transport) was classified as smoothed. Angular remnant residual or parent material lacking evidence of fluvial transport was classified as residual/matrix. Cortex in the form of a heavily weathered exterior surface as yet unflaked was classified as weathering rind.

5.5.1.1 Identification of Raw Material Types

URS identified the following material types among the lithics: chert, metarhyolite, orthoquartzite, quartz, quartzite, and siltstone (Appendix J). Stone material identification was based primarily on macroscopic observation; when necessary, a hand lens (10x) or stereomicroscope (10-40x) was used to aid determination. Stone material definitions rely on those outlined on Chesterman and Lowe (2007), Folk (1980), Luedtke (1992), Pettijohn et al. (1972), Raymond (2002), and Wicander and Monroe (1993).

5.5.1.2 Cores and Tested Material

Tested material and cores form during reductive freehand or bipolar processes, in which smaller pieces of lithic material are detached from a larger source for the purpose of producing useable flakes. Flake detachment is evidenced by negative flake scars and, sometimes, remnant striking platforms. Cores exhibit a pattern of flake removal and, typically, a minimum of four negative flake scars. Pieces of material with no flaking pattern and, typically, fewer than four flake scars are considered tested material, not cores. Given the dynamic nature of cores in the lithic reduction continuum, they were sorted into classes based on flake removal direction(s), including unidirectional, bidirectional, and multidirectional cores. Unidirectional cores exhibit flake detachment in one direction from a single striking platform (Andrefsky 2004). Bidirectional cores demonstrate flake detachment in two directions. Multidirectional cores exhibit flake detachment from three or more directions.

5.5.1.3 Flaked Stone Tools and Diagnostic Artifacts

Artifacts classified as flaked stone tools are the result of reductive bipolar, knapping, or pressure flaking processes; flaked stone tools exhibit invasive or edge modification or use-wear. Flaked stone tools were organized into classes and subclasses based on overall design and shape. Only those flaked stone tool types identified in the site 18MO609 assemblage are defined below.

5.5.1.3.1 *Bifaces*

Bifaces were placed into subclasses relative to a biface reduction stage, or the overall extent of flaking and modification exhibited by the biface. Early stage bifaces are flakes, cobbles, or chunks of stone having a few flakes bifacially removed and square to partially sinuous margins; faces still retain cortex or original flake scar surfaces. Middle-stage bifaces exhibit invasive flake scars that extend to at least the center of the biface; the flake pattern is continuous on both faces and along all margins. Late-stage bifaces have undergone shaping and exhibit a regularized topography and straighter margins; faces exhibit evidence of secondary thinning and margin-straightening, which partially obliterates prior invasive flake scars.

5.5.1.3.2 *Perforators*

Perforators are various types of pointed tools designed to create holes or grooves in materials (Kooyman 2000). Subclasses include drills and graters. Drills generally have a thick, long, narrow, bifacially worked bit, and may or may not be hafted. Graters have a small, sharp projection(s), typically created by unifacial retouch of a flake or blade (Goodyear 1995). Other tool forms (e.g., scrapers, spokeshaves) sometimes contain a grater point, or spur.

5.5.1.3.3 *Projectile Point/Knife*

A PPK is a highly formalized late-stage biface having distally converging lateral margins that meet at an acute angle (i.e., the point) and some form of hafting modification at the opposing end (e.g., stem, notches). The term PPK is used herein, as opposed to merely “projectile point,” as microwear studies have identified PPKs primarily functioning as both projectiles and knives, although a number of other functions have been identified in some instances (e.g., Odell 1981). Diagnostic PPK type identifications were made when possible. Interpretations of morphology and temporal affiliation follow nomenclature by Coe (2006), Dent (1995), Fogelman (1992), Hranicky (1994), Justice (1995), and Ritchie (1997).

5.5.1.3.4 *Retouched/Utilized Debitage*

Debitage exhibiting use or marginal retouch were classified as either utilized or retouched. Utilization creates a regular, but not necessarily continuous, pattern of edge damage attributable to tool use. Retouch is a deliberate pattern of consecutive scalar flake scars along one or more margins; retouch flake scars are larger than those created from just use (microflakes) and generally do not extend more than 5–8 mm (0.2–0.31 in) from the margin (Odell 2003:108). The subclass retouched/utilized flake was assigned to flakes exhibiting at least one working edge.

5.5.1.4 Debitage

Some scholars have representeddebitage aggregate analysis as an alternative to the analysis of individual flakes. The effects of variation (e.g., stone material composition, geometry of the form being reduced, skill of the knapper), as well as assemblage mixing (i.e., cultural material deposition from more than one reduction event) inherent in archaeologically derived assemblages, suggest that aggregate methods, such as mass analysis, be used as a supplement to, rather than a substitute for, other analytical techniques (Andrefsky 2007; Bradbury and Carr 1995, 2004, 2009). The methods used to examine the 18MO609debitage incorporate proxy data from multiple lines of evidence, as advocated by Bradbury and Carr (2004, 2009). Data collected includes general morphology, percent and type of cortex, and size grade. Debitage classes are based on percentage of body cortex as follows: primary cortex (greater than or equal to 50 percent overall cortex), secondary cortex (less than 50 percent overall cortex), and non-cortex. Debitage subclasses are based on general morphology or completeness. Possible subclasses include complete/mostly complete flake, flake fragment, debris/shatter, blade/microblade, bipolar flake, and indeterminate.

5.5.1.4.1 *Mass Analysis*

Mass analysis, advocated by Ahler (1989) and others as a simpler, pragmatic alternative to the analysis of individual flakes, generates data for an entire sample ofdebitage, according to a defined set of size increments designed to examine reduction stages based on size and weight distributions. The foundation for mass analysis is based on three trends observed amongdebitage from experimental replication studies; as reduction progresses: (1) there is progressive size reduction, (2) there is progressive cortex removal, and (3) load application variation produces corresponding changes in the resultantdebitage (e.g., change in placement of striking on the platform, or hard hammer versus soft hammer percussion; Ahler 1989). Experimentally derived datasets also demonstrate that debris/shatter is most prevalent during early stages of reduction (e.g., Bradbury and Carr 2004; Mauldin and Amick 1989; Prentiss and Romanski 1989).

Seventeen size grades were used for the mass analysis (Table 13). Size grades begin at less than 9.5 mm (0.375 in; size grade G-01) and end at 105–111 mm (4.375 in; size grade G-17); size grades increase in 6.35-mm (0.25-in) increments. These size intervals were derived during lithic replication experiments of Snaggy Ridge Quarry metarhyolite (Lowthert et al. 2005), and correspond closely to those used in published studies of experimentally produced debitage made of cryptocrystalline material (i.e., chert) by Ahler (1989) and Stahle and Dunn (1982, 1984). The intervals are roughly equivalent to the diagonals of squares that progressively increase in 6.35-mm (0.25-in) increments, the major difference being that the screen sizes used by Ahler (1989) increase geometrically as opposed to linearly, as did those used in this study and by Stahle and Dunn (1982, 1984). Sieves were not used; each debitage specimen was examined individually, as suggested by Patterson (1990).

Table 13. Debitage Size Grades

Size Grade	Range (in)	Mid Point (in)	Mid Point (mm)
G-01	<0.375	0.25	4.77
G-02	0.375–0.625	0.50	12.70
G-03	0.625–0.875	0.75	19.05
G-04	0.875–1.125	1.00	25.40
G-05	1.125–1.375	1.25	31.75
G-06	1.375–1.625	1.50	38.10
G-07	1.625–1.875	1.75	44.45
G-08	1.875–2.125	2.00	50.80
G-09	2.125–2.375	2.25	57.15
G-10	2.375–2.625	2.50	63.50
G-11	2.625–2.875	2.75	69.85
G-12	2.875–3.125	3.00	76.20
G-13	3.125–3.375	3.25	82.55
G-14	3.375–3.625	3.50	88.90
G-15	3.625–3.875	3.75	95.25
G-16	3.875–4.125	4.00	101.60
G-17	4.125–4.375	4.25	107.95

5.5.1.4.2 Interpreting Debitage Distribution Data

Based on relative differences in concentration curves, Polglase (1988) used the Gini Index to mathematically measure the amount a concentration curve deviates from the diagonal axis, which represents an even distribution of flake size and weight. Specifically, the Gini Index measures the proportion of the total area under the diagonal line within the area between the diagonal and the distribution curve. This proportion is calculated using the following formula:

$$\text{Gini Index} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_{i-1}}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_{i-1} y_i}, \text{ where}$$

x_i is the cumulative proportion of count by size grade,
 y_i is the cumulative proportion of weight by size grade,
 and
 n is the number of size intervals.

The Gini Index ranges from 0.0 to 1.0; a perfectly equal distribution has a one-to-one relationship. Gini analyses are used to help understand and distinguish lithic reduction strategies from debitage recovered from prehistoric sites, using count and weight distribution data from size increments. This method provides both a visual depiction of the distribution data (i.e., the distribution curve) and an empirical measure of the deviation (i.e., the Gini Index). The degree to which the curves deviated from the diagonal axis (i.e., the linear relationship) corresponds to progressively earlier stages of lithic reduction. The calculation works best with a minimum sample size in the range of 30 to 40 specimens.

From experimental production of PPKs using Peoria chert, Stahle and Dunn (1982, 1984) established that debitage characterized relative to one of four stages of reduction exhibit characteristic debitage size curves. Hard hammer flake blank production (Stage A) produced a steep concentration curve and a Gini Index of 0.8947. The concentration curves become progressively less steep for reduction stages that follow. The Gini Index for hard and soft hammer biface edging and thinning (Stage B) was 0.7790; the Gini Index for soft hammer secondary biface thinning (Stage C) was 0.6578. Final biface shaping by soft hammer and pressure-flaking (Stage D) produced a gentle concentration curve and a Gini Index of 0.5434 (Table 14). Calculation of Gini values was subsequently applied to experimentally produced debitage from biface manufacture using metarhyolite samples collected from the Snaggy Ridge Quarry in Pennsylvania (Lowthert et al. 2005).

Retention of debitage in the larger size-grades tends to produce high Gini Indices. These are typical of core preparation or reduction and early stage biface reduction (Stages A and B). Retention of debitage in the smaller size-grades tends to produce low Gini Indices, which are more characteristic of middle and late biface reduction (Stages C and D). Metarhyolite debitage tends to be large, blocky, and, therefore, heavier, than chert debitage, yielding Gini Indices that are slightly larger than those of chert (Table 14).

Table 14. Experimentally Derived Gini Indices

Material	References	Gini Index	Lithic Reduction Stage
Chert	Maymon et al. 1996; Stahle and Dunn 1982, 1984	0.8947	Stage A—Core preparation
		0.7790	Stage B—Early stage biface reduction
		0.6578	Stage C—Middle stage biface reduction and thinning
		0.5434	Stage D—Final biface shaping
Metarhyolite	Lowthert et al. 2005	0.9696, 0.9853 Avg = 0.9774	Stage A—Core preparation
		0.6861, 0.9403 Avg = 0.8132	Stage B—Early stage biface reduction
		0.9127	Stage C—Middle stage biface reduction and thinning
		0.6610, 0.6634 Avg = 0.6622	Stage D—Final biface shaping
Averages both materials		0.9499	Stage A—Core preparation
		0.8018	Stage B—Early stage biface reduction
		0.7852	Stage C—Middle stage biface reduction and thinning
		0.6226	Stage D—Final biface shaping

Archaeological debitage is typically mixed, or represents more than one reduction event; whereas, the experimentally derived Gini Index values come from discrete reduction events. The experimental Gini Index values are averaged together for different combinations of reduction

scenarios (Table 15). These averages are based on the four stages of reduction discussed previously. This provides another means of comparison of experimental debitage Gini Index values against those from archaeological site debitage.

Table 15. Averaged Experimentally Derived Gini Indices

Lithic Reduction Stage Combinations	Average Gini Index	
	Chert ¹ only	Chert ¹ and Metarhyolite ²
Hard hammer flake blank production (Stage A); and Hard and soft hammer biface edging and thinning (Stage B)	0.8368	0.8758
Hard and soft hammer biface edging and thinning (Stage B); and Soft hammer secondary biface thinning (Stage C)	0.7184	0.7935
Soft hammer secondary biface thinning (Stage C); and Final biface shaping by soft hammer and pressure-flaking (Stage D)	0.6006	0.7039
Hard hammer flake blank production (Stage A); Hard and soft hammer biface edging and thinning (Stage B); and Soft hammer secondary biface thinning (Stage C)	0.7772	0.8456
Hard and soft hammer biface edging and thinning (Stage B); Soft hammer secondary biface thinning (Stage C); and Final biface shaping by soft hammer and pressure-flaking (Stage D)	0.6601	0.7365
All four stages (A, B, C, and D)	0.7187	0.7899

¹Calculated from Stahle and Dunn (1982, 1984) data; ²Calculated from Lowthert et al. (2005) data

5.5.1.5 Ground or Battered Stone

Ground or battered stone are those manufactured through mechanisms of abrasion, polish, or impaction, or, are themselves used to grind, abrade, polish, or impact (Adams 2002). Grinding use creates polished, planar, or rounded surfaces (e.g., handstone, abrader); whereas, impaction use creates pecked, pitted, or fractured surfaces (e.g., hammerstone). Texture, or the expression of a material's natural granularity, is an important criterion in ground stone material selection. For example, coarse-grained rock may be chosen for an abrader because its texture is rough enough to remove material from the surface of another item. Overall hardness, size, and weight are also important. For example, a handstone should not be larger than the width of the milling slab on which it will be used.

Ground/battered stone were sorted into classes based on morphology (e.g., axe, hammerstone). As necessary, classes were further subdivided into subclasses. For example, full grooved is a subclass of the class axe. When applicable, use surface locations were noted in comments. Use surfaces were identified based on tactile and visual inspection. Visual observation was made using a hand lens (10x) or low powered microscope (10–40x) with an acute-angled light.

5.5.2 HISTORIC ARTIFACT ANALYSIS

All historic artifacts from the Phase II and III investigations were analyzed according to URS Gaithersburg archaeology laboratory standards of analysis. Most of the artifacts were identifiable as to material, form, and function. Some required research to determine their function or dates of manufacture. Reprints from catalogs and periodicals were especially helpful in identifying numerous artifacts within the activities, architecture, clothing, furniture, kitchen, and personal groups. These resources included: the *1897 Sears Roebuck & Co. Catalogue* (Sears

2007 [1897]); *1895 Montgomery Ward & Co. Catalogue* (Montgomery Ward 2008 [1895]); *Bloomington's Illustrated 1886 Catalog* (Bloomington Brothers 1988); and *Victorian Fashions: A Pictorial Archive* (Grafton 1999). In addition, numerous Internet resources were helpful, such as the Historic Bottle Web site (Lindsey 2010), Intermountain Antiquities Computer System Users Guide for Buttons (IMACS 2001), and *Hoodoo in Theory and Practice* (Yronwode 2010). This section discusses general analysis methods for historic artifacts, as well as methods for the ceramic vessel analysis.

5.5.2.1 Artifact Classification Scheme

The historic and modern artifacts were catalogued following South's (1977:92-102) class and group classification scheme. Since South's scheme was developed for eighteenth century sites, it does not take into account the variety of artifact forms and functions evident in the early twentieth century site 18MO609 artifact assemblage. Therefore, a modified version was implemented for the Phase III analysis. Artifacts were divided into groups and sub-groups based on form and function as discussed below.

All artifacts had the same minimal attributes recorded: lot number (corresponds to provenience); artifact number (sequential numbers arbitrarily assigned within a lot); count; material (i.e., the main material composition of the artifact); and form (i.e., the object name reflecting intended use). Given the fragmentary nature of archaeological artifacts, and the often burned condition of this assemblage, determining the original object name was difficult; for much of the collection, artifacts were simply called "fragment." Identical, or nearly identical, artifacts within a provenience were grouped together under the same catalog number. (Note: catalog number = lot number plus artifact number.) For example, within a single lot number (i.e., all from the same provenience), all the window glass fragments were given the same artifact number. Whenever possible, mendable artifacts were grouped together.

5.5.2.1.1 Activities

The activities group is a wide-ranging category that includes artifacts used to perform a variety of domestic activities. Sub-groups are as follows:

- Construction (e.g., hammer, chisel, saw)
- Farm (e.g., hoe)
- Laundry (e.g., washboard)
- Locks (e.g., padlock)
- Miscellaneous (e.g., cap, chain, strap)
- Music (e.g., harmonica)
- Sewing (e.g., straight pin, scissors, sewing machine part)
- Stable and barn (e.g., harness, buckle, shoe)
- Storage (e.g., barrel hoop, paint can)
- Toys (e.g., doll, marble, domino)
- Other (e.g., whistle, token)

All artifacts in the activities group had the following attributes recorded: count; material (e.g., iron, porcelain); and form (e.g., hammer, harmonica). For ceramic artifacts, the attributes of decorative technique (e.g., painted) and color were recorded, and for glass artifacts, color was recorded. When it was available, additional information was recorded.

5.5.2.1.2 *Architectural*

The architectural group consists of artifacts that represent construction materials, both decorative and functional, used in a building, as well as architectural elements or permanent fixtures within the building. Sub-groups are as follows:

- Building materials (e.g., brick, mortar, foundation stone)
- Door parts (e.g., locks, hinges, latches)
- Finishing materials (e.g., plaster, asphalt roofing shingles)
- Nails
- Spikes
- Window glass
- Other (e.g., ceramic chimney pot, hasp)

All artifacts in the architectural group had the following attributes recorded: count; material (e.g., brick, iron, glass); and form (e.g., cut nail, door latch). Where possible, burned nails were recorded. Complete nails and spikes were sized in pennyweights.

5.5.2.1.3 *Arms*

The arms group includes firearms, ammunition, and related items (e.g., bullet molds). The sub-groups used for site 18MO609 were gun parts (e.g., gun hammer, flintlock) and ammunition (e.g., shell casing, percussion cap). All artifacts had the following recorded: count, material (e.g., lead alloy); and form (e.g., bullet). Additional information, such as caliber size and maker's marks, was also collected where possible.

5.5.2.1.4 *Clothing*

The clothing group includes artifacts associated with garments, both outerwear and underwear; any part of clothing was included, from a fragment of cloth to a single bead or button. Sub-groups include:

- Beads
- Buckles
- Buttons
- Corsets (e.g., busk, fastener)
- Cuff links
- Fabric
- Fasteners (e.g., hook, eye, D-ring, snap, strap adjuster)
- Shoes
- Studs (i.e., collar stud)
- Other (e.g., grommet, aglet, sequin)

All the artifacts in the clothing group had the following attributes recorded: count; material (e.g., glass, copper alloy, bone); and form (e.g., bead, button). All glass artifacts had color recorded. The buttons were described according to their manufacturing technique (e.g., 1-piece, 2-piece, prosser). Where possible, additional information such as decorative elements were recorded.

5.5.2.1.5 *Furniture*

The furniture group includes parts of furniture, hardware, and other functional or decorative items used to furnish a room. Sub-groups are as follows:

- Clocks
- Hardware (e.g., drawer pull, key hole surround, furniture leg)
- Knickknacks (e.g., tile, picture frame, figurine, vase)
- Lighting (e.g., lamp glass, lamp burner, candle holder)
- Mirrors
- Pie safe
- Stoves
- Trunks (e.g., storage trunk)
- Other (e.g., knob, ring)

All artifacts in the furniture group had the following attributes recorded: count; material (e.g., iron, glass, porcelain); and form (e.g., drawer pull, clock part). For ceramic artifacts, decorative technique (e.g., overglaze painted) and color were recorded. The pie safe sub-group was comprised of pieces of a pierced metal panel, likely belonging to a pie safe or other piece of storage furniture. The knickknacks sub-group included small decorative objects found in the home; many of these artifacts are fragmentary and difficult to identify.

5.5.2.1.6 *Kitchen*

The kitchen group includes artifacts used primarily in the kitchen for preparing, serving, or eating food or other consumables (e.g., beverages). Sub-groups are as follows:

- Ceramic (e.g., whiteware, stoneware, porcelain)
- Bottles and jars (e.g., liquor bottle, soda bottle, lid liner, stopper)
- Food containers (e.g., food can)
- Glass fragments (unidentifiable form)
- Glassware (e.g., bowl, pitcher, stemware, table glass)
- Kitchenware (e.g., basin, corkscrew, pot, tea kettle, tongs)
- Tableware (e.g., knife, fork, spoon)

The ceramics sub-group includes identified vessels, such as plates, cups, and bowls, as well as individual sherds. Generally, the larger the sherd, the more likely that a vessel form was identified; rims and bases were also more likely to be identifiable than body sherds. The vessels were further subdivided into functional categories: storage (e.g., bottle, jar), preparation (e.g., batter bowl), serving (e.g., plate, platter), and tea service (e.g., cup, saucer, sugar bowl). The attributes recorded for all ceramic artifacts included count material (e.g., whiteware), form (e.g., plate), segment (e.g., rim, base), decorative technique (e.g., transfer printed, decal), and decoration color. Maker's mark information or vessel dimensions were recorded where possible.

The bottles and jars sub-group includes glass containers and closures, such as lid liners and stoppers. The glass containers were either complete vessels or vessel fragments that were substantial enough to discern the vessel form, manufacturing technique, or other diagnostic attributes (e.g. embossed panels). All artifacts in the bottles/jars sub-group had the following attributes recorded: count; material; form (e.g., soda bottle, lid liner); segment (for containers;

e.g., finish, base); color (for glass artifacts); and manufacturing technique (for containers; e.g., blown-in-mold). Maker's mark information or vessel dimensions were recorded where possible. The containers were subdivided into functional categories: alcohol (e.g., beer bottle, wine bottle), soda and mineral water, food (e.g., baking powder bottles, canning jar), household (e.g., disinfectant bottle), and unidentified.

The glassware sub-group includes a variety of glass serving vessels. Tumblers were included in this sub-group because, even though they were commercial containers for jelly, peanut butter, etc., they were intended to be re-used as drinking glasses. The attributes recorded included count, material, form (e.g., bowl, tumbler), segment (e.g., rim, base), and color. Vessel dimensions and decorative technique (e.g., etched) were recorded where possible.

Glass fragments were artifacts that could not be attributed to any specific vessel form. Typically, these were small body fragments, possibly of bottles, jars, tumblers, drinking glasses, or other table glass forms. The attributes recorded included: count; material; form (e.g., fragment); and color.

The food containers sub-group includes metal food can fragments and food can keys. The attributes recorded included: count; material; and form. Although it is difficult to positively identify the former contents of a rusty can, it is assumed that certain shapes (e.g., rectangular with rounded corners) were likely to have held preserved meat or fish. Cylindrical cans, which could have held food or non-food products, were recorded in the activities group.

The kitchenware sub-group includes a variety of metal objects associated with food preparation or general household chores, such as a corkscrew, teakettle, and tongs. The attributes recorded included: count, material, and form.

The tableware sub-group includes eating and serving utensils, such as forks, spoons, and knives. The attributes recorded include: count; material (e.g., copper alloy and bone); and form (e.g., spoon, fork). Maker's marks and engravings were recorded where possible.

5.5.2.1.7 *Miscellaneous*

The miscellaneous group was a catch-all group for artifacts of unidentifiable form or function. This group was not divided into sub-groups. Artifacts in this group included corroded iron fragments, slag, and other unidentifiable ceramic, metal, and glass fragments. Count, material, and form were recorded for these artifacts.

5.5.2.1.8 *Personal*

The personal group includes a variety of artifacts typically associated with one person, used or carried by one person, or associated with individual care and hygiene. Sub-groups are as follows:

- Bells
- Coins
- Eyeglasses
- Jewelry (e.g., earrings, pin, beads, watch fob)
- Keys
- Knives (e.g., pocket knife)
- Luggage

- Medical (e.g., glass vial, thermometer)
- Medical bottles
- Purses
- Stationery (e.g., pencil, inkwell, paper fastener)
- Toiletries (e.g., comb, toothbrush, chamber pot, perfume bottle)
- Other (e.g., grommet, ferrule, lid)

All artifacts in the personal group had the following attributes recorded: count; material (e.g., copper alloy, glass, stoneware); and form (e.g., chamber pot, toothbrush). For ceramic and glass vessels, segment (e.g., rim, base, complete) and, where appropriate, vessel dimensions were recorded. Glass color was also recorded. Other information, such as stamped dates on coins and maker's marks on bottles, was also collected as available.

The medicine bottles sub-group includes glass containers for patent, or proprietary, medicines. These vessels were separate from the bottles and jars sub-group because they were not intended for food or beverages; of course, any of these bottles could have been re-used for any liquid. The attributes recorded included: count, material, form (e.g., medicine bottle), segment (e.g., finish, base), color, and manufacturing technique (e.g., blown-in-mold). Maker's mark information or vessel dimensions were recorded where possible.

5.5.2.1.9 *Religious*

The religious group includes artifacts with an identified religious or spiritual association. Some of these artifacts were objects intended primarily for religious use, such as a quartz crystal or miraculous medal. Others were objects that may have had a mundane function, but were also known to have a concurrent, or subsequent, religious use. For example, a bottle of Hoyt's Cologne would have contained a product intended to create a pleasant personal aroma, but Hoyt's Cologne was also used in African American folk rituals to bring good luck, especially for card players and gamblers (Yronwode 2010). Likewise, a pierced coin would have been legal tender at one point, but, in the context of this site, its role as a protective amulet is more significant. Other artifacts, such as wheel-shaped objects or ceramic doll parts, may also have held religious or spiritual associations. Since the meaning behind these types of mundane objects is not always clear, they are discussed in their appropriate functional groups (e.g., doll parts are discussed in the toys sub-group). The potential spiritual associations of mundane artifacts are noted in the Laboratory Results section as appropriate (e.g., the furniture group discusses clock parts and their functional uses, but also references the possible use of wheel-shaped objects in African American folk rituals).

The following attributes were recorded for artifacts in the religious group: count; material (e.g., quartz, glass); and form (e.g., perfume bottle, coin). For the glass vessels, segment (e.g., complete), manufacturing technique (e.g., blown-in-mold), and color were recorded. Other information, such as stamped dates on coins and maker's marks on bottles, was also collected.

5.5.2.1.10 *Tobacco*

The tobacco group includes artifacts used for smoking and related activities. Sub-groups are as follows:

- Ball clay pipes
- Reed-style pipes

- Tobacco tags
- Other (e.g., plastic pipe mouthpiece)

All artifacts in the tobacco group had the following attributes recorded: count; material (e.g., ball clay, stoneware); and form (e.g., pipe stem, tobacco tag). Ball clay pipe stem bore diameters were measured using drill bits sized 1.6 mm (4/64 in) through 3.6 mm (9/64 in). Additional information, such as maker's marks, was also collected.

5.5.2.1.11 Ceramic Minimum Vessel Analysis

A ceramic minimum vessel analysis was conducted on the 7,279 sherds in the Jackson homestead assemblage. Overall sherd counts and distribution data can provide information about site formation processes, while identifying and quantifying the vessels can illustrate how the ceramics were used (Voss and Allen 2007). The methodology used for the assemblage is described below.

The main ware types in the collection were whiteware, white granite, porcelain, and stoneware. Based on the similarities in these wares, especially when burned, cross-mending was attempted between ware types. Because approximately 80 percent of the sherds were undecorated, decorative technique was not a significant factor. Of course, some of the undecorated sherds were found to mend with decorated sherds, as the decorative techniques rarely covered the entire vessel and burn damage had, in some cases, obliterated any evidence of surface decoration. Vessel form was noted when the sherds were catalogued, so separating cups, plates, and other vessels streamlined the mending process. Typically, only larger sherds were catalogued with a vessel form as it was difficult to identify a vessel from small fragments, especially body fragments. The unidentified sherds were compared with all the vessels of that ware type.

All the sherds were examined and compared in order to identify mends. The most productive method for this task was to start with rims or bases, and work toward the interior of the vessel. Working within ware types and decorative techniques was the first step; comparisons with other wares were necessary for this assemblage. Thorough cross-mending ensured that similar vessels, such as a burned whiteware saucer and a burned white granite saucer, were closely inspected.

For each ware type and vessel form, all the sherds were subjectively assessed and sherds that likely represented a single vessel were grouped together. Generally, all sherds within a unique vessel physically mended together. However some sherds, rather than physically mend, were considered to match according to decorative technique, profile, breakage patterns, and other characteristics unique to the vessel.

The grouping of sherds into unique vessels was rigorously conservative. For example, stoneware jugs and jars were identified by their rims. Stoneware bases, which may have matched any jug or jar, were not included. In cases where there were multiple examples of identical vessels, such as a set of decal-decorated dinner plates, only vessels that were complete enough to positively exclude all other vessels were included (i.e., more than 50 percent of the vessel). Vessel parts, (even large portions) that could not clearly be identified as matching or mending with a known vessel, or forming enough to be a separate vessel, were not included in the count.

While the Jackson homestead assemblage consists of factory-made ceramic vessels, there is some variability in paste, firing, and glaze within individual vessels. These factors, as well as the physical changes caused by burning, were considered when making vessel assignments. If there

was any possibility that a sherd might belong to multiple vessels, it was not included in the analysis.

Each unique vessel had the following attributes recorded: ware type (e.g., whiteware, porcelain); vessel form (e.g., plate, saucer); segment (e.g., rim, base); dimensions (e.g., 10-inch diameter); decorative technique (e.g., decal); color; maker's mark (if present); and completeness (e.g., 50 percent). Additional information, such as pattern name or physical condition, was also recorded. The analysis of the vessels identified several matching sets of identical vessels. The catalog numbers of each sherd included in a vessel was also recorded.

The methods used to catalog the ceramic assemblage allowed multiple, similar artifacts within a given provenience to be grouped together under one catalog number. For example, all the undecorated whiteware body sherds from one lot might be catalogued together. If, after the minimum vessel analysis, one of those sherds was assigned to a unique vessel, it was given a new catalog number (essentially, being re-catalogued). In this way, each vessel can be described as containing a suite of catalog numbers, and a catalog number can be linked to only one vessel. A total of 154 individual vessels belonging to the kitchen, personal, and architectural groups were identified using the above methods (Appendix E).

5.5.3 FAUNAL ANALYSIS

Analysis of the faunal remains from site 18MO609 was conducted by R. Jeannine Windham of New South Associates, Inc., in Stone Mountain, Georgia. It should be noted that only animal remains were recovered during the investigation; no human remains were identified. A summary of the zooarchaeological methods is included below; the full report is included in Appendix F.

Faunal remains from all excavation contexts were submitted for analysis, and included both excavated and floated remains from feature and non-feature contexts. Analysis for taxonomic identification and taphonomy was conducted on remains 2 mm (0.079 in) or greater in size; for those remains smaller than 2 mm (0.079 in), no attributes other than weight were recorded.

All taxa were identified to the lowest taxonomic level possible (i.e., family, genus, or species level). Faunal remains were identified using comparative collections housed at New South Associates or at the Zooarchaeological Laboratory at the Georgia Museum of Natural History in Athens, Georgia. Reference texts (e.g., Olsen 1968, 1973) were also used as an aid to identification. As appropriate, faunal remains were quantified using Number of Identified Specimens (NISP) and Minimum Number of Individuals (MNI). Attributes recorded for each specimen included sex and age (where possible), as well as primary and secondary modifications. All attributes were recorded using accepted zooarchaeological procedures (e.g., Reitz and Wing 1999); data was entered into a specially designed database for later analysis.

Primary modifications included butchery and thermal alteration, while secondary modifications include erosion, root etching, and carnivore/rodent gnawing (Appendix F:15-16). A discussion of modifications is excerpted from Appendix F below:

- *Thermal alteration* refers to the degree of heat exposure as divided into three categories, including unmodified, burned, and calcined (Lyman 1994). These categories are based on the color exhibited by bone exposed to differential heating. Burned bone is brown to black in color, and includes superficial and fully carbonized specimens. Calcined bone is white to blue in color, and has lost

all organic components. Burned bone results from exposure to low or short duration heating events, such as those produced for the purposes of warmth or roasting. Calcined bone results from high or long duration heating events that may not be related to the specific cooking technologies.

- *Butchery* method was recorded whenever observed, including marks from a knife (cut), an axe (hacked/chopped), saw, and spiral fracture (torque fracture and twist). As a saw was used to butcher numerous elements represented within the assemblage, evidence of these markings were compared to reference samples for saw identification (see Windham 2003). When possible, butchered elements were identified as to possible cut or portion of meat (e.g., picnic ham, roast, loin). These data can reflect socioeconomic status, ethnicity, and cultural trends. Meat cut and portion were identified from standard retail cut charts for the given species (all domestic mammals, see Ashbrook 1955).
- *Secondary modification* was also noted and reflects noncultural variables observed. For this study, these include rodent and carnivore gnawing, erosion, and root etching. Gnawing evidence was measured by its presence or absence, while evidence of erosion and root etching were based on subjective observations (e.g., eroded, severe erosion, root etch, sever root etch).
- *Animal gnaw marks* were recorded if observed on a given specimen. Generally, gnaw marks can be attributed to a context that was open or redeposited after exposure. Rodents and carnivores gnaw on bones in specific patterns. Evidence of rodent gnawing includes a pattern of grooves left by two small incisor teeth, often along the shaft portion of an element. Carnivore gnawing differs in that the remaining marks do not exhibit grooves and the gnawing is typically on the epiphysis portion of longbones.
- *Erosion and root etching* are complex variables that can reflect a variety of depositional issues. Eroded specimens are often comparatively “chalky” and may show cracking of the surface due to a freeze and thaw. Behrensmeyer (1978) conducted a classic study of erosion in Africa, but these more specific measurements may not be comparable to more temperate zones, such as Maryland; therefore, erosion was noted if present or severe. Root etching is also a subjective measure, and appears as small-incised “squiggly” lines on the surface of bone. Lyman (1994) provided a good overview of the subjectivity of this evidence. Within this study, root etching is noted if present, as patterning of this variable can, but does not always, reflect exposure at the humus layer.

5.5.4 FLOTATION AND ARCHAEOBOTANICAL ANALYSIS

The primary goal of flotation is to recover floral and faunal remains, as well as small artifacts, that would otherwise be lost through traditional excavation methods (i.e., using 6.35-mm [¼-in] hardware cloth to screen excavated soils). The main goal of the site 18MO609 flotation was to recover subsistence data, primarily botanical food remains, which would help answer research questions. One of the challenges with the assemblage was handling the abundance of charred wood created when the house burned. The methods used for flotation, sorting, and identification are detailed below.

5.5.4.1 Flotation

Five-liter (1.32-gallon [ga]) volumetric flotation samples were taken from feature and other contexts. In total, 45 flotation samples were collected from the house area. For the burn layers (Feature 2), 16 5-liter (1.32-ga) samples were collected from 13 TUs. Additional 5-liter (1.32 ga) samples were collected from within the house as appropriate, e.g., from select natural strata underlying the burn layer (n=5), and from other features located within the house, such as Feature 4 (n=7), Feature 8 (n=1), and Feature (n=10). Smaller grab samples (n=6) were taken from the Feature 3 foundation around artifacts that appeared to be in situ, such as a grooved axe that was built into the foundation wall.

Flotation was conducted using manual system similar to that described in Pearsall (1989:20-23). Flotation samples were measured in liters and processed 2 liters (0.53 ga) at a time. An 11.4-liter (3-ga) plastic bucket was filled three-quarters full of water, and the 2-liter (0.53-ga) sample matrix added to the bucket of water. The matrix was gently agitated to encourage the macroplant and other small remains to float to the surface. This light fraction was slowly poured out of the bucket into a colander lined with a fine-weave synthetic cloth square (georgette or chiffon). The bucket was topped off with water, the matrix agitated again, and the light fraction poured off. This procedure was repeated (usually five or six times) until there was no remaining light fraction. The sediment left in the bottom of the bucket, i.e., the heavy fraction, was poured into a separate colander lined with cloth. The bucket was then refilled with water, and the remaining part of the flotation sample was processed as described above. Once the entire sample was floated, the light and heavy fractions were rinsed with clean water to remove accumulated sediments. The ends of the cloth squares were gathered and tied with a rubber band to form bundles. Tags were affixed to the rubber band and labeled with the site number, feature number, sample number, and light or heavy fraction. The bundles were placed on 6.35-mm (¼-in) mesh screen to facilitate drying.

5.5.4.2 Sorting and Identification

Once the bundles were dry, the samples were sorted. Heavy fractions were sorted by laboratory technicians, who removed all artifacts, faunal, and botanical material, package them separately, and set them aside for additional analysis and cataloguing. Heavy fractions were split into size grades to facilitate sorting using 6.35- and 2.00-mm (0.25- and 0.079-in) geological sieves. Size grading allows for more efficient sorting because it is easier to sort and identify similar-sized materials (Pearsall 1989:110). Sorting was conducted with a magnifying lamp, with all cultural material removed from the 6.35- and 2.00-mm (0.25- and 0.079-in) splits; technicians scanned the less than 2.00-mm (0.079-in) split and removed faunal material and any botanical material that looked like seeds or nutshell. Due to the extremely high quantity of charred wood from the Feature 2 samples, no wood smaller than 2.00 mm (0.079 in) was removed from the heavy fractions.

The faunal material was sent to New South Associates, Inc., for analysis and the botanical material was set aside for analysis by the URS archaeobotanist. All other artifacts were removed for cataloguing and integrated with the rest of the assemblage.

Before being sorted by the archaeobotanist, light fractions were weighed and their weight was recorded on a standardized form. Light fractions were weighed to the nearest 0.01 g (0.0004 oz), then divided into four size grades to facilitate sorting, using 2- and 1-mm (0.08- and 0.04-in) and

500-micrometer (μm ; 0.02-in) sieves and a catch pan for the less than 500- μm (0.02-in) split. Equipment used in the analysis included a trinocular, stereo-zoom microscope, fiber optic lamp, geological sieves, forceps, small paintbrushes, and dental picks. Light fractions were sorted under low (10-40x) magnification. Both charred and non-charred macroplant remains were removed, sorted by taxon, counted, and weighed. For many of the seeds, weights were less than the minimum (0.01 g) recorded by the electronic balance. In these instances, a weight of 0.01 g (0.0004 oz) was used since it was not expected to bias the analysis.

All taxa were identified to the lowest taxonomic level possible (i.e., family, genus, or species). Taxa that could not be identified to genus or species with 100 percent confidence were preceded with “cf.” following Pearsall (1989:149). Macroplant remains categorized as “unidentified” include specimens that could not be identified with certainty, such as: seed fragments or those seeds lacking a seed coat (testa); distorted or degraded specimens; seeds with no correlates in reference sources or the comparative collection; and any wood, nut, or seed remains that did not retain diagnostic morphological traits. Modern reference comparative collections were used to identify macroplant remains; reference texts (Hoadley 1990; Martin and Barkley 1961; Montgomery 1977; Panshin and de Zeeuw 1970; Young and Young 1992) and online databases (e.g., USDA, NRCS 2010) were also consulted to aid in identification. All plant nomenclature follows USDA, NRCS (2010) conventions.

Macroplant remains were classified into five main groups – seed, nut, wood, miscellaneous, and unidentified. *Seed* includes the broad category of reproductive parts (e.g., achene or caryopsis), as well as the “true” seed (i.e., includes the fertilized ovule, endosperm or cotyledon, and testa; Harris and Harris 2001). Seeds were further classified into six subgroups: crop (e.g., wheat); fleshy fruit (e.g., blackberry); herbaceous – edible/medicinal (e.g., purslane); herbaceous – medicinal (e.g., jimsonweed); herbaceous – weed/grass/sedge (e.g., goosegrass); shrub/tree (e.g., tuliptree); and unidentified. *Nut* includes only those hard-shelled, one-seeded fruits, such as hickory and other tree nuts.

The *wood* category includes the xylem portion of a tree (i.e., sapwood and heartwood), as this contains the diagnostic traits for determining taxonomic affiliation. The bark, cambium, phloem, and pith do not possess distinctive characteristics that would allow them to be placed within a taxonomic group. Since there was an enormous quantity of charred wood recovered from the 18MO609 flotation samples, a sub-sampling strategy was employed to allow for characterization of the wood assemblage without having to analyze every wood fragment. For each flotation sample, a minimum of 20 fragments of wood were chosen for identification. With samples that contained less than 20 fragments, all fragments larger than 2.00 mm (0.08 in) were examined and an attempt made to identify them. A variety of shapes and sizes were selected for identification to allow for differential burning and fragmentation of different species of wood. If fragments were selected that were unidentifiable, additional pieces were selected until 20 fragments were identified.

Miscellaneous includes plant parts, such as stems, twigs, bark, or cone fragments. *Unidentified* is a broad group of charred remains that includes amorphous char and unidentifiable plant parts. Amorphous char includes extractives (organic components, e.g., gum, resin, oils, alkaloids) that typically form between 2 and 30 percent of wood volume (Core et al. 1979:30, 175; Panshin and de Zeeuw 1970:72). The unidentifiable plant parts could represent wood, bark, stems, leaves, or

other plant parts; however, the objects were so extensively charred that their original character was obscured and they could not be reliably identified.

5.5.5 DNA ANALYSIS

The data recovery plan outlined deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) studies to be conducted on a selection of artifacts from the Phase III excavations. The Paleo-DNA laboratory at Lakehead University, Thunder Bay, Ontario, Canada conducted DNA analysis of 10 artifacts collected during the data recovery investigations. The detailed DNA report is provided in Appendix H. This section includes a summary of DNA and its importance, followed by a summary of the goals and methods for the data recovery investigations.

5.5.5.1 Background

DNA is a nucleic acid containing the genetic instructions used in the development of all cells in the human body. The information encoded within DNA comes in the form of an organizationized sequence of four types of molecules called bases. The sequences of these bases encode information used in the construction and maintenance of cells within the body. While 99.9 percent of the human DNA sequence is the same in every individual, the remaining 0.1 percent is unique to each individual, resulting in a distinct DNA profile. Two forms of DNA are present in human cells, nDNA and mtDNA (Rudin 2002).

nDNA is present in the nucleus of every cell in the human body in 23 pairs of chromosomes. These chromosomes are comprised of numerous coiled sequences of DNA known as genes. Each chromosomal pair is comprised of one chromosome from each parent. The sum total of an individual's genes comprises the genome, or the entirety of an individual's hereditary information. The expression of these inherited instructions, or genotype, results in an individual's physical characteristics, or phenotype, such hair, eye, and skin color. nDNA therefore provides information on an individual's physical characteristics as well as their ancestry. mtDNA is found within the mitochondria present in each human cell, with 100 to 10,000 separate copies of mtDNA per cell. mtDNA encodes for the construction of proteins within the mitochondria. Unlike nDNA, mtDNA is only transmitted through the maternal line, as only the female egg's mtDNA is passed on to the offspring (Cann et al. 1987).

The analysis of nDNA recovered from artifacts can provide valuable information, such as the number of individuals to handle or use the artifact, based on the number of unique DNA profiles present, as well as information on the sex and ancestral heritage of each individual. Although a significant amount of information can be obtained through the analysis of nDNA, there are limiting factors. nDNA is susceptible to degradation due to environmental factors, resulting in it having a relatively short shelf life in most conditions. It is also more difficult to sample, as it is only present in the single nucleus of each cell (Schablitsky 2006).

In this regard, mtDNA is most often easier to sample, as it is present in the hundreds of mitochondria found within each cell. Although mtDNA profiles cannot supply information on an individual's sex or physical characteristics, they do supply information related to an individual's ancestry through the maternal line. mtDNA profiles from populations across the globe have been grouped into distinct haplotypes, based on similarities in mtDNA profiles, which are interpreted as indicating common ancestry. These haplotypes have been grouped into haplogroups, which have been shown to correspond to geographically distinct populations.

Variation in mtDNA profiles between populations is interpreted as being the result of mutations occurring within the mtDNA. These mutations are thought to take place at a relatively set rate through time, allowing for the date at which two populations split from a common ancestral population to be estimated (Cann et al. 1987).

5.5.5.2 Goals and Methods

The goals of the genetic analysis were to recover DNA from artifacts to determine the number of individuals present on each sample, the gender of each individual, and their ethnic background. Artifacts considered suitable for analysis included objects that would have been stuck in the mouth (e.g., pipe stems, harmonicas, or toothbrushes) or objects that pierced the skin (e.g., needles).

A field sampling protocol for procuring artifacts for DNA analysis was established following Dixon (2006), Schablitsky (2006), and Schablitsky et al. (2006). A sterile sampling kit was kept on site that contained paper envelopes and bags, disposable plastic forceps, nitrile gloves, pencils, and Sharpies. To the extent possible, sterile sampling and storage procedures were followed. When an artifact potentially suitable for DNA analysis was discovered, the sampling kit was retrieved for the excavator, who put on nitrile gloves and used forceps to retrieve the artifact from the ground and place it into a paper envelope labeled with provenience information using a Sharpie. The gloves and forceps were disposed of after the sample was collected; a new set was used for each artifact. The paper envelopes were placed in the storage tent (which was unheated) until the end of the day, when the artifacts were transported back to the laboratory and placed in the freezer until they could be sent to the DNA laboratory.

Appendix H describes the laboratory methods used to analyze the artifact samples for DNA. The methods included testing for nDNA and mtDNA. The analytical procedures are summarized below (Appendix H, page 2):

- Extraction and purification of DNA
- Detection and quantification of nDNA
- Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) analysis using mtDNA primers and nDNA amplification kits
- Visualization of PCR product using gel electrophoresis
- Direct sequencing of PCR analysis of amplified product
- Cloning of PCR products and sequencing of a select number of clones
- Separation of sequence product or fragment analysis using capillary electrophoresis
- Analysis of data, if any

5.5.6 CONSERVATION

Methods employed by archaeological conservators have been standardized and subsequently updated over the course of 30 years. In total, 50 artifacts were conserved from the Jackson homestead assemblage (Appendix I). The methods used to conserve the Jackson homestead artifacts are detailed below.

5.5.6.1 Conservation Ethics

To ensure the highest quality attainable, URS conservation procedures are guided by a strict set of ethics established by the International Institute for Conservation (IIC). Specifically, the IIC ethical guidelines are:

A. Respect for Integrity of Object

All professional actions of the conservator are governed by unswerving respect for the aesthetic, historic, and physical integrity of the object.

B. Competence and Facilities

It is the conservator's responsibility to undertake the investigation or treatment of a historic or artistic work only within the limits of his professional competence and facilities.

C. Single Standard

With every historic or artistic work he undertakes to conserve, regardless of his opinion of its value or quality, the conservator should adhere to the highest and most exacting standard of treatment. Although circumstances may limit the extent of treatment, the quality of the treatment should never be governed by the quality or value of the object. While special techniques may be required during treatment of large groups of objects, such as archival and natural history material, these procedures should be consistent with the conservator's respect for the integrity of the objects.

D. Suitability of Treatment

The conservator should not perform or recommend any treatment that is not appropriate to the preservation or best interests of the historic or artistic work. The necessity and quality of the treatment should be more important to the professional than his remuneration.

E. Principle of Reversibility

The conservator is guided by and endeavors to apply the 'principle of reversibility' in his treatments. He should avoid the use of materials that may become so intractable that their future removal could endanger the physical safety of the objects. He also should avoid the use of techniques, the results of which cannot be undone if that should become desirable.

F. Limitations on Aesthetic Reintegration

In compensating for damage or loss, a conservator may supply little or much restoration, according to a firm previous understanding with the owner or custodian and the artist, if living. It is equally clear that he cannot ethically carry compensation to a point of modifying the known character of the original.

G. Continued Self-Education

It is the responsibility of every conservator to remain abreast of current knowledge in his field and to continue to develop his skills so that he may give the best treatment circumstances permit.

H. Auxiliary Personnel

The conservator has an obligation to protect and preserve the historic and artistic works under his care at all times by supervising and regulating the work of all auxiliary

personnel, trainees, and volunteers under his professional direction. A conservator should not contract or engage himself to clients as a supervisor of insufficiently trained personnel unless he can arrange to be present to direct the work (Hamilton 1998:3).

5.5.6.2 Five-Step Conservation Process

Archaeological conservation is not limited to the mechanical or chemical treatments that result in stabilization. Each of the artifacts treated during the Jackson homestead conservation project underwent a standard five-step process. This process ensured that no further deterioration occurs after recovery or acquisition, the object received treatment relevant to existing needs, no archaeological information was lost during the conservation process, and the treated object was stored in an environment that ensures continued stability.

The first stage of this process was the creation of a safe pre-treatment storage environment. Objects interred in an archaeological context gradually reach chemical equilibrium with the matrix that surrounds them. Once excavated, this balance is disrupted and many material types begin to degrade at an accelerated rate. This deterioration can be prevented by controlling the pre-treatment storage environment for each object. This was done by the introduction of chemicals that inhibit further deterioration.

The second step in the archaeological conservation process was the creation of a conservation needs assessment for the assemblage. The conservation needs assessment included a detailed description of each item, outlines the conservation issues of each artifact, provides a treatment regimen tailored to individual needs, and includes pre-treatment photographs.

The physical treatment of the artifact was the third step. Conservation treatments were designed for each object; the recommended action was based on material type, object condition, ethical concerns, and available materials and technologies. The goal of these treatments is to stabilize condition and preserve aesthetic. Conservation actions were recorded each day on a treatment form. This record included the proposed treatment originally designed for the object, and it followed the artifact through the conservation procedure so any alterations in the treatment regimen were recorded. This record is submitted to the curator or storage facility upon completion of the artifact. Archaeological conservators are also responsible for the recordation of any information revealed during treatment (e.g., dates on coins, maker's marks, or techniques of manufacture). The observations were also noted on the treatment record form.

Post-treatment documentation followed physical treatment. This step included photography, a re-evaluation of condition, illustrations, and final thoughts and observations on the completed conservation effort. Information recorded during this effort can be of particular value to SHA curators responsible for evaluating the condition of stored or displayed objects on a yearly basis.

5.6 EXPECTED RESULTS

The Phase I survey of site 18MO609 resulted in the identification of three loci of prehistoric activity (Bedell and LeeDecker 2005). Three PPKs were recovered during the survey, including one Dry Brook point (Late Archaic), one bifurcate point (Early Archaic), and one problematic point that was either a Morrow Mountain (Middle Archaic) or Piscataway type (Late Archaic/Early Woodland). Stone tools, cores, fire-cracked rock, and debitage also were recovered. Bedell and LeeDecker (2005:22) noted that:

The most common prehistoric site type along the ICC corridor seems to be camp sites around the sources of small streams, adjacent to the ridge lines where colonial roads ran and Indian paths may have run before them. The Fairland Branch Site exemplifies this pattern of landscape use. Because it contains diagnostic artifacts and a variety of tools, as well as intact (unplowed) areas, the Fairland Branch Site has the greatest potential of any site identified so far to contribute to our understanding of this phenomenon.

Based on the moderate density of prehistoric artifacts and the potential for prehistoric cultural features, the Phase II evaluation was expected to yield information concerning subsistence, settlement, and resource use during the Early Archaic through Early Woodland Periods.

The results of the Phase II evaluation indicated the prehistoric components represent a series of short-term resource procurement camps dating from the Middle Archaic through the Late Woodland Periods, or from roughly 6000 B.C. to A.D. 200. Prehistoric artifacts were recovered at low densities from across the approximately 4.45 ha (11-acre) project area, and were recovered from deflated or plowed contexts. The paucity of diagnostic artifacts, lack of features, and questionable context severely limit the research potential of the prehistoric component. Therefore, the prehistoric components of 18MO609 were recommended not eligible for the NRHP because of the disturbed stratigraphy, and lack of features and diagnostic artifacts.

The Phase I report indicated the historic component of the site was not significant and no further work was recommended. The Phase II evaluation, however, included investigation of the historic component because the nature of the foundation and other features was poorly understood. It was anticipated that additional artifacts and features would be identified that would allow for tighter dating of the component and add to the understanding of the occupation.

The results of the Phase II evaluation indicate the historic component dates from the nineteenth century to the early twentieth century. The historic component consists of a fieldstone house foundation, a possible root cellar, and subsurface sheet refuse. Historic documents indicate the property was owned and occupied by an African American family, the Jacksons, between approximately 1870 and 1917, and that the site was probably a slave quarter from the 1820s until Emancipation. Archaeological and indirect historical evidence indicate the house burned ca. 1915. The archaeological deposits in the foundation area consist of a 10- to 20-cm (0.328- to 0.656-ft) thick burn layer containing architectural and domestic artifacts.

Based on the results of the Phase II evaluation, the historic component, known as the Jackson homestead, was recommended eligible for the NRHP for its potential to yield information important to understanding history (NRHP Criterion D). Additional excavations of the intact house, cellar, and yard deposits were expected to yield information regarding the Jackson family, as well as about post-Civil War African American lifeways in rural Montgomery County, Maryland.

6.0 RESULTS OF PHASE II EVALUATION

Based upon the results of the Phase I survey (Figure 28), Phase II investigations of site 18MO609 were focused on three loci (A, B, and C). Phase II included the excavation of 211 STPs and 19 TUs (Figure 29). Several historic cultural features were identified, as were a dense concentration of historic artifacts and light concentrations of prehistoric artifacts. In total, 3,796 artifacts (326 prehistoric and 3,470 historic) were recovered during the Phase II evaluation (Table 16). STPs were excavated within the three loci (A, B, and C) at 10-m (32.8-ft) intervals to define site and locus boundaries and provided data for placement of TUs. Shovel testing in Locus C was expanded outside of the locus boundary defined by Berger to include the historic component of the site (Bedell and LeeDecker 2005). Boundaries for all three loci were revised based on the results of the Phase II study.

Table 16. Phase II Summary

Locus	Provenience	Artifact Count	
		Prehistoric	Historic
A	Surface	1	
	STPs (n=125)	28	1
	TU 12		
	TU 13	13	
	TU 14	1	
	TU 15	6	
	TU 16	4	
	TU 17	11	
	TU 18	4	
Subtotal Locus A		68	
B	STPs (n=29)	26	
	TU 9	12	
	TU 10	11	
	TU 11	37	1
	TU 19	16	
Subtotal Locus B		102	1
C	Surface		2
	STPs (n=86)	37	473
	TU 1	48	9
	TU 2	71	5
	TU 3		
	TU 4		72
	TU 5		284
	TU 6		335
	TU 7		1,222
TU 8		1,066	
Subtotal Locus C		156	3,468
Total		326	3,470

The discussion that follows is divided by locus; within each locus section, the previous Phase I results are summarized, followed with details of the Phase II field and laboratory results. The section concludes with the evaluation of the site's prehistoric and historic components for NRHP eligibility.

6.1 LOCUS A

Locus A was approximately 0.8 ha (2 acres) in size and is located on the west side of US 29 (Figure 29). The area was wooded and contained a stream channel and drainage gully. There are several dirt roads running roughly northwest-southeast and there are several areas that have a surface scatter of modern domestic trash (e.g., car parts, plastic containers, beer bottles, and appliances; Figure 30). Berger identified the foundation remains of a twentieth century domestic structure and associated well house along Old Columbia Pike (Bedell and LeeDecker 2005). The structure ruins were located approximately 76.2-m (250-ft) northwest of the site 18MO609 boundary. It is likely the surface trash deposits identified within Locus A are related to the structure remains.

6.1.1 PHASE I SUMMARY

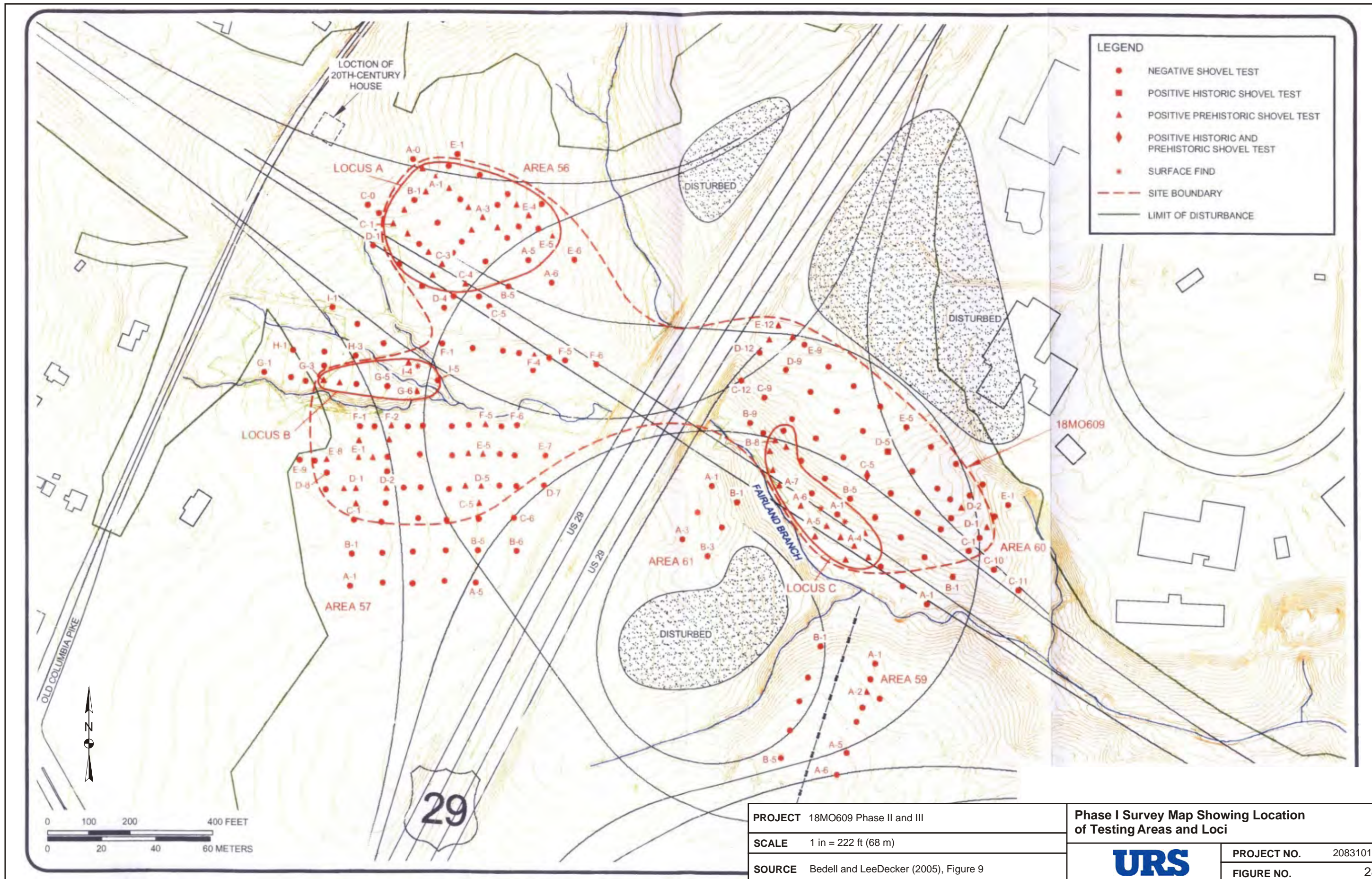
The Phase I survey of Area 56 included the excavation of 58 STPs placed at 10- and 20-m (32.8- and 65.6-ft) intervals (Figure 28). Locus A was defined within Area 56 based on the locations of prehistoric artifacts. Phase I testing produced 55 artifacts (51 debitage, three bifaces, and one fire-cracked rock). Berger noted that the artifacts appeared to have been recovered from plowed contexts (Bedell and LeeDecker 2005). No cultural features were identified during the Phase I survey.

6.1.2 PHASE II FIELD RESULTS

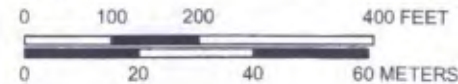
The Phase II grid was established over Locus A, noting, wherever possible, the locations of Phase I STPs. In total, 125 STPs were excavated at 10-m (32.8-ft) intervals; 23 of these were positive for prehistoric artifacts (n=28). One surface find (quartz projectile point) was located at N1146 E1055. Modern bottle glass was noted in several STPs in the vicinity of the trash dump; these were noted on the STP forms and discarded in the field. Portions of the site may have been plowed historically; however, subsequent pedological development suggests the locus has not been plowed in perhaps 100 years or more.

Soil stratigraphy was fairly uniform across Locus A, and generally consisted of a dark grayish brown (10YR 4/2) sandy loam A Horizon overlying a yellowish brown (10YR 5/4) sandy loam E Horizon, which in turn was overlying a strong brown (7.5YR 5/6) Bt Horizon. Figures 31-33 shows representative STP and TU profiles for Locus A. The A and E Horizons contained from 0 to 10 percent gravels. Variations in stratigraphy were noted based on topography, proximity to stream channels, and cultural disturbances. The E Horizon in this locus may represent an old plowzone that has leached out due to the sandy nature of the soils.


Seven TUs (12–18) were excavated in the areas of prehistoric artifact concentrations identified during shovel testing (Figure 29). The TUs were excavated to explore artifact concentrations and identify potential subsurface cultural features. With the exception of one TU, stratigraphy was similar to that observed in the STPs – i.e., fairly shallow and with A-E-Bt Horizon sequence (Figure 32). The exception was TU 17, located in the northwestern portion of Locus A. Its profile shows plow scars and a thick Ap Horizon (Figure 33). It is possible this portion of Locus A was part of a larger agricultural field; it is also possible the stratigraphy in this TU represented a smaller tilled area, such as garden, associated with the twentieth century house located northwest of the site.

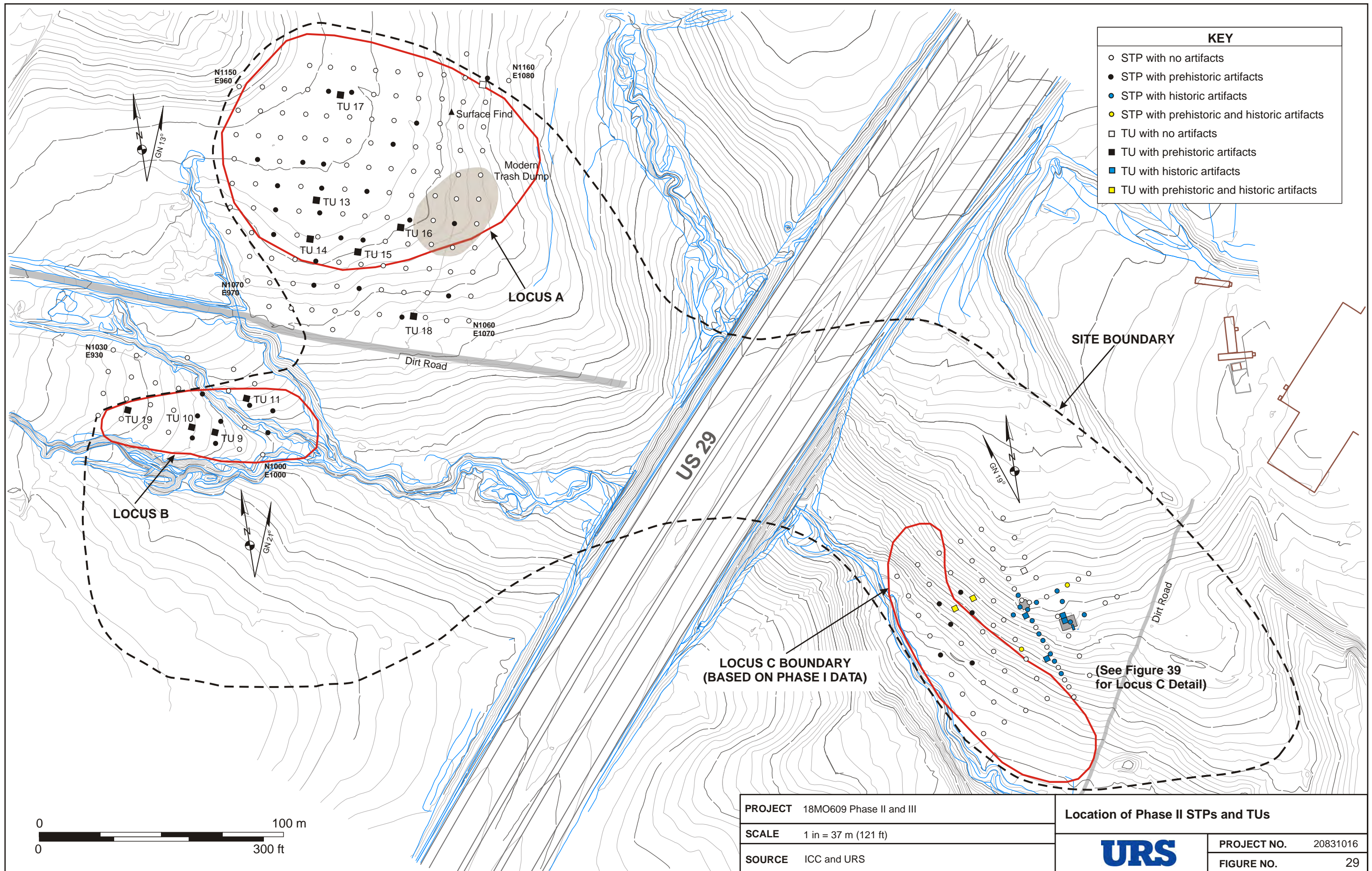


LEGEND	
●	NEGATIVE SHOVEL TEST
■	POSITIVE HISTORIC SHOVEL TEST
▲	POSITIVE PREHISTORIC SHOVEL TEST
◆	POSITIVE HISTORIC AND PREHISTORIC SHOVEL TEST
●	SURFACE FIND
- - -	SITE BOUNDARY
—	LIMIT OF DISTURBANCE



29

PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III	Phase I Survey Map Showing Location of Testing Areas and Loci	
SCALE	1 in = 222 ft (68 m)		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE	Bedell and LeeDecker (2005), Figure 9		FIGURE NO. 28





PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

Locus A Overview, Looking West

SCALE N/A

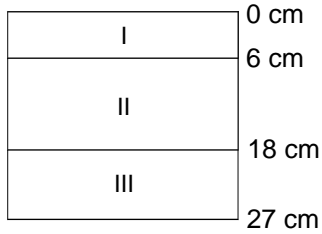


PROJECT NO. 20831016

SOURCE URS

FIGURE NO. 30

STP N1070 E1020

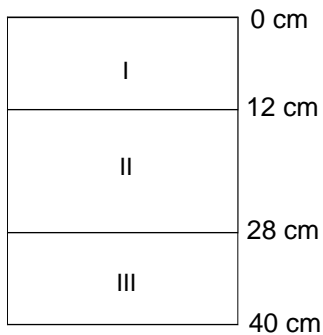


I = A Horizon
10YR 4/2 Dark Grayish Brown
Sandy Loam

II = E Horizon
10YR 5/4 Yellowish Brown
Sandy Loam

III = Bt Horizon
7.5YR 5/6 Strong Brown
Sandy Clay Loam

STP N1130 E1000

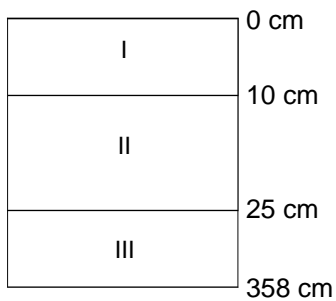


I = A Horizon
10YR 4/2 Dark Grayish Brown
Sandy Loam

II = E Horizon
10YR 5/6 Yellowish Brown
Sandy Loam

III = Bt Horizon
7.5YR 5/8 Strong Brown
Sandy Clay Loam

STP N1170 E1070



I = A Horizon
10YR 4/2 Dark Grayish Brown
Sandy Loam

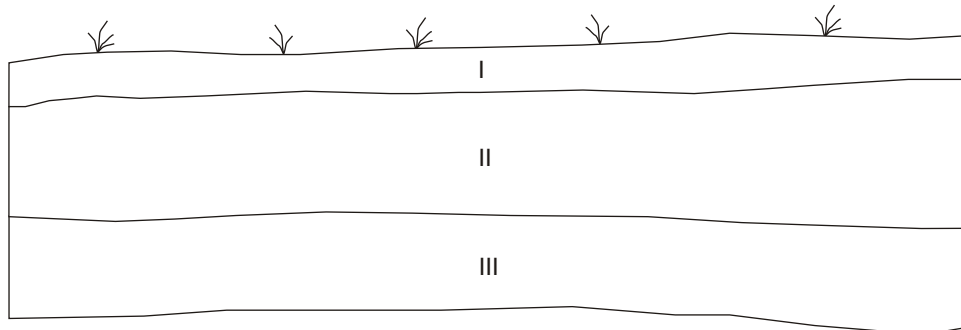
II = E Horizon
7.5YR 5/6 Strong Brown
Sandy Loam

III = Bt Horizon
7.5YR 4/6 Strong Brown
Sandy Clay Loam



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Locus A Representative STP Profiles	
SCALE 1 inch = 25 cm (9.8 in)		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 31

North Wall Profile



I - A Horizon, 10YR 4/3 Brown Sandy Loam

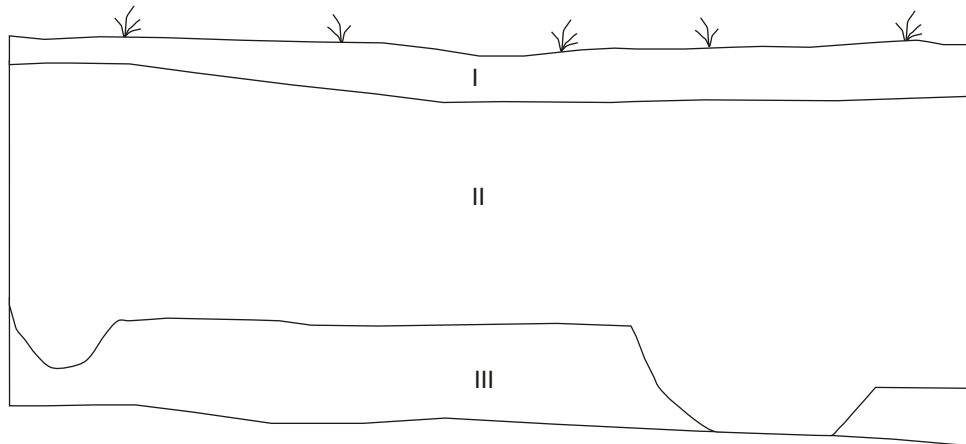
II - E Horizon, 10YR 5/3 Brown Sandy Loam

III - Bt Horizon, 10YR 5/4 Yellowish Brown Sandy Clay Loam



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Locus A, TU 15 North Wall Profile	
SCALE As shown			PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS			FIGURE NO. 32

North Wall Profile




I - A Horizon, 10YR 3/3 Dark Brown Silt Loam

II - Ap Horizon, 10YR 5/4 Brown Sandy Loam

III - Bt Horizon, 7.5YR 5/8 Strong Brown Clay Loam



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Locus A, TU 17 North Wall Profile	
SCALE As shown			PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS			FIGURE NO. 33

In total, 39 artifacts were recovered from six TUs; none were recovered from TU 12. All artifacts were recovered from the A and E Horizons. No prehistoric cultural features were identified in Locus A during the Phase II study.

6.1.3 PHASE II LABORATORY RESULTS

Sixty-eight prehistoric artifacts were identified from Locus A (Table 17; Appendix L). In addition, one unidentified bivalve fragment was recovered. Its temporal affiliation is unclear. It could be associated with historic or modern activity in the area. It does not appear to be prehistoric in age, given the unlikelihood that unburned organic remains would have survived in the acidic soils.

The prehistoric lithics include a core (n=1), tested material (n=1), debitage (n=63), bifaces (n=2), and a PPK (n=1). These are sparsely scattered across the locus. Quartz is the predominant material represented by count (86.8 percent) and by weight (94.2 percent). Other materials represented among Locus A lithics include metarhyolite and quartzite.

Table 17. Locus A Prehistoric Artifact Summary

Group	Class	Subclass	Total
Core/Tested Material	Tested Material	n/a	1
	Multidirectional Core	n/a	1
Core/Tested Material Total			2
Debitage	Non-Cortex	Complete/Mostly Complete Flake	10
		Debris/Shatter	8
		Flake Fragment	30
	Primary Cortex	Complete/Mostly Complete Flake	1
		Debris/Shatter	2
	Secondary Cortex	Complete/Mostly Complete Flake	7
		Debris/Shatter	2
		Flake Fragment	3
	Debitage Total		
Flaked Stone Tool	Biface	Early Stage	1
		Late Stage	1
	PPK	Triangular	1
Flaked Stone Tool Total			3
Total			68

6.1.3.1 Cores and Tested Material

One quartz core and one quartz-tested material were identified from Locus A. The core is multidirectional and retains less than 50 percent cortex in the form of a weathering rind. The tested material is a cobble-size (i.e., 6.4–25.6 cm [0.21–0.84 ft]) tabular slab. It also retains less than 50 percent cortex in the form of a weathering rind. The very large size of the multidirectional core and tested material suggest that quartz was being tested and reduced on-site at Locus A. The greater weight of the tested material over the core is direct evidence that testing represents the initial evaluation of stone material at Locus A and precedes core reduction. The cortex type indicates that quartz was being acquired from sources at which weathered-out material (e.g., weathered vein exposures, talus) could be easily collected.

6.1.3.2 Flaked Stone Tools and Diagnostic Artifacts

One early stage biface, one late stage biface fragment, and one triangular PPK were identified from Locus A; all are made of quartz (Figure 34). The early stage biface retains less than 50 percent smoothed cortex. The late stage biface fragment lacks cortex. Although the sample size is very small, this does suggest a progressive cortex removal from early through late stages of biface reduction. The cortex type indicates that quartz was procured from secondarily deposited fluvial sources (e.g., stream bedload, point bar). The Late Woodland Period (ca. A.D. 900–1600) triangular PPK, recovered from the ground surface, is a complete specimen that lacks cortex.

6.1.3.3 Debitage

Sixty-three debitage were identified from Locus A (Table 18). The debitage are characterized as being predominantly non-cortex (n=48). As percent cortex is useful as a general indicator of biface reduction stage, the abundance of non-cortex debitage suggests later stages of biface reduction (e.g., middle and late stages) may have dominated lithic activities at Locus A. Among cortex-bearing classes, smoothed cortex (i.e., water-worn) is abundant; weathering rind cortex was also observed. Both cortex types indicate that stone materials were being procured from secondarily deposited fluvial sources (e.g., stream bedload, point bar) as well as weathered out sources (e.g., weathered vein exposures, talus). Flakes (n=18) and flake fragments (n=33) dominate the debitage sub-assembly (Table 19). The paucity of debris/shatter (n=12) suggests that core reduction was a secondary lithic activity at this locus.

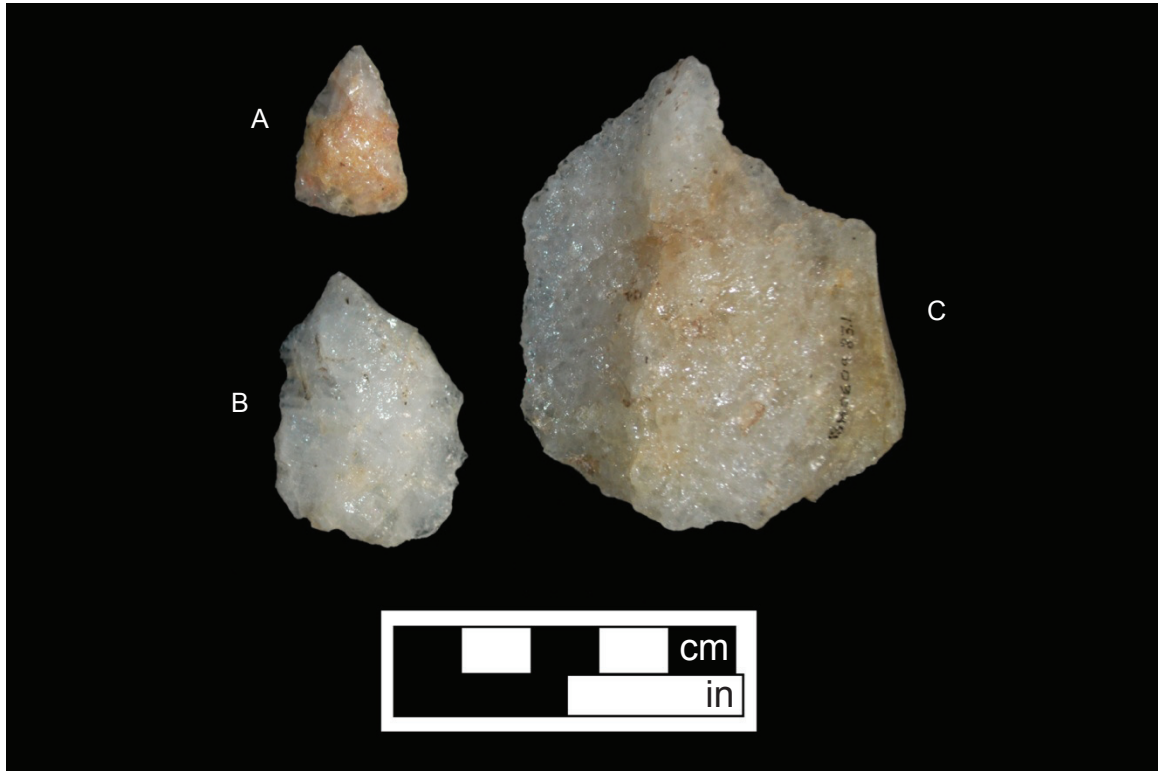
Table 18. Locus A Debitage Cortex Types

Class	Cortex Type	Count
Non-Cortex	n/a	48
Primary Cortex	Smoothed	3
Secondary Cortex	Smoothed	8
	Weathering Rind	4
Total		63

Table 19. Locus A Debitage Morphology

Subclass	Primary Cortex	Secondary Cortex	Non-Cortex	Grand Total
Complete/Mostly Complete Flake	1	7	10	18
Debris/Shatter	2	2	8	12
Flake Fragment		3	30	33
Total	3	12	48	63

Mean debitage and flake weights were calculated; mean flake weight is a means of assessing the variation in load application within a debitage sample. For example, hard hammer percussion tends to produce flakes that are larger in size, and therefore heavier than those produced using a soft hammer or pressure-flaker. The overall mean flake weight for Locus A is 2.5 g (0.088 oz). This falls within the range of mean flake weights associated with secondary reduction sites (generally 1.5–2.6 g [0.053–0.091 oz]), which characteristically demonstrate a mixture of core reduction and bifacial tool production (e.g., Brumbach 1987; Formica et al. 2010; Hornum et al. 2000; Polglase et al. 1990). By material, mean debitage weights range from 1.7– 11.8 g (0.059–0.42 oz); mean weights for whole flakes range from 2.4–3.3 g (0.085–0.11 oz; Table 20).



- A. Triangular PPK
- B. Late Stage Biface Fragment
- C. Early Stage Biface

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Locus A Prehistoric Tools	
SCALE	N/A	URS	PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE	URS		FIGURE NO. 34

Table 20. Locus A Debitage by Material Type

Material	Total Count*	Total Weight (g)*	Mean Weight Entire Debitage Sample (g)	Mean Weight Whole Flakes (g)
Metarhyolite	4 (1.3%)	6.7 (0.3%)	1.7	–
Quartz	54 (17.4%)	192.4 (7.5%)	3.6	2.4
Quartzite	5 (1.6%)	58.9 (2.3%)	11.8	3.3

*Percentages (in parentheses) are weighted based on total count (n=311) and weight (2,571.8 g) of entire prehistoric-context debitage sample

In terms of stone materials represented among the Locus A debitage, quartz debitage was most abundant by count (n=54, 17.4 percent) and by weight (192.4 g [6.72 oz], 7.5 percent). Both quartz and metarhyolite debitage have a stronger representation by count than by weight. The greater percent count than weight for quartz debitage at this locus could be indicative of initial processing and reduction taking place elsewhere at the site, because quartz is a locally available material. However, for metarhyolite debitage, this is likely indicative of initial processing and reduction taking place off-site. Given that metarhyolite is an extra-local material, finished (or nearly finished) bifaces (i.e., PPKs) made of metarhyolite were likely transported to the site for use. The greater percent weight than count for quartzite debitage is most consistent with local material acquisition followed by initial lithic reduction on-site; however, given the lack of quartzite cores and unfinished bifaces, this is more likely representative of prefabricated forms being transported to the site.

6.1.3.4 Mass Analysis and Gini Indices

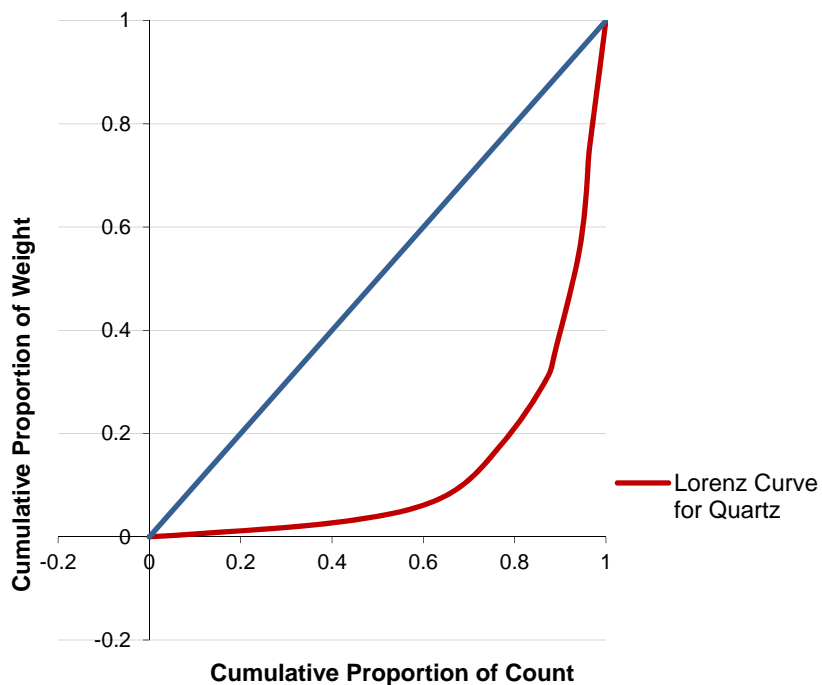
In terms of size distribution, only size grades G-01 through G-10 were represented among the Locus A debitage (Table 21). Counts generally clustered between size grades G-02 and G-03. Counts of quartz debitage showed a normal distribution that became irregular before tapering off after size grade G-10. The sample sizes of debitage made of other materials at Locus A are too small to discern general distributions.

A distribution curve based on overall cumulative proportions of count and weight was plotted for Locus A quartz debitage (Chart 4); only quartz debitage met the minimum sample size necessary for Gini Index calculations. The Gini Index calculated for Locus A quartz debitage was 0.7307. Based on the experimentally derived data from core reduction and biface replication studies, the quartz debitage Gini Index was most similar to a combination of early, middle, and late stages of biface reduction (Stages B, C, and D) for both chert and metarhyolite (0.7365; Table 15). This finding was consistent with inferences from data interpretation of other quartz debitage proxies.

Table 21. Locus A Mass Analysis Data

Size Grade		Metarhyolite	Quartz	Quartzite	Total
G-01	Count		1		1
	Weight (g)		0.1		0.1
G-02	Count	1	22		23
	Weight (g)	0.2	5.6		5.8
G-03	Count	2	12		14
	Weight (g)	0.6	9.5		10.1
G-04	Count		7	2	9
	Weight (g)		20.6	3.9	24.5
G-05	Count	1	5	1	7
	Weight (g)	5.9	23.1	3.9	32.9
G-06	Count		1		1
	Weight (g)		10.3		10.3
G-07	Count		3	1	4
	Weight (g)		40.0	21.7	61.7
G-08	Count		1		1
	Weight (g)		34.5		34.5
G-09	Count			1	1
	Weight (g)			29.4	29.4
G-10	Count		2		2
	Weight (g)		48.7		48.7
Total Count		4	54	5	63
Total Weight (g)		6.7	192.4	58.9	258.0

Chart 4. Locus A Quartz Debitage Distribution by Weight



6.1.3.5 Thermally Altered Materials

Nearly one-tenth of the flaked stone artifacts recovered from Locus A were thermally altered (n=6; Table 22). Thermal alteration was mainly observed as a reddish discoloration and sometimes an improved texture. As this is evidence of being intentionally heated, as opposed to merely exposed to fire (e.g., crazing), it appears that controlled heat treatment of stone material may have been an intentional step in lithic reduction.

Table 22. Locus A Thermally Altered Flaked Stone

Group	Class	Thermally Altered		Total
		No	Yes	
Core/Tested Material	Tested Material	1		1
	Multidirectional Core		1	1
Debitage	Non-Cortex	48		48
	Primary Cortex	1	2	3
	Secondary Cortex	10	2	12
Flaked Stone Tool	Biface	2		2
	PPK		1	1
Total		62	6	68

The multidirectional core, triangular PPK, and 6.4 percent of thedebitage exhibit thermal alteration consistent with what is expected from intentional heat treatment of quartz (e.g., Maymon et al. 1996). Heat-treated specimens were present in only cortex-bearing classes ofdebitage. Heat treatment appeared to be most common among primary cortexdebitage; however, this could be skewed due to the very small sample size ofdebitage recovered from this part of the site. Of the stone material types from which Locus A flaked stone artifacts were manufactured, evidence of heat treatment was more common among quartzitedebitage (Table 23). Although this is a noticeable difference over the other materials, the sample size of quartzitelithics is small.

Table 23. Locus A Thermally Altered Flaked Stone by Material Type

Material	Thermally Altered		Total
	No	Yes	
Metarhyolite	4		4
Quartz	55	4	59
Quartzite	3	2	5
Total	62	6	68

6.1.4 LOCUS A LITHIC ANALYSIS SUMMARY

Primary on-site lithic activities focused on early, middle, and late stage biface reduction; core reduction was secondary at Locus A. The on-site lithic trajectory for quartz, a ubiquitous and locally available material, includes a combination of hard and soft hammer biface edging and thinning, soft hammer secondary biface thinning, final biface shaping by soft hammer and pressure-flaking, and edge rejuvenation/maintenance. The recovery of quartz tested material and a core from Locus A is evidence that core reduction was taking place; however, this was not a significant part of lithic activities at this particular locus. Unfinished and finished prefabricated forms made of quartz (e.g., flake blanks, preforms, PPKs) were brought to Locus A for further

reduction, use, and/or maintenance. The on-site lithic trajectory for quartzite, also a local material, is probably similar to quartz at this locus. The on-site lithic trajectory for metarhyolite at Locus A is likely only final biface shaping by soft hammer and pressure-flaking and/or edge rejuvenation/maintenance. The presence of only finished bifaces (i.e., PPKs) and a lack of cores and unfinished bifaces made of metarhyolite, an extra-local material, suggest that prefabricated forms arrived on-site as finished (or nearly finished) PPKs. This is confirmed by the debitage data.

6.2 LOCUS B

Locus B is approximately 0.4 ha (1 acre) in size, located on the west side of US 29 and south of Locus A (Figure 29). The locus is situated on two wooded narrow ridges between three intermittent streams that merge to form Fairland Branch (Figure 35). Large quartz boulders were noted on the ground surface. This area does not appear to have been plowed.

6.2.1 PHASE I SUMMARY

The Phase I survey of Area 57 included the excavation of 76 STPs placed at 10- and 20-m (32.8- and 65.6-ft) intervals (Figure 28). Phase I testing of Area 57 produced 76 artifacts, most of which constituted a thin scatter of quartz and quartzite debitage (Bedell and LeeDecker 2005). Locus B was defined within Area 57 based on 45 debitage and one tool fragment. Berger noted a quartz boulder on the ground surface that appeared to have been used as an anvil stone (Bedell and LeeDecker 2005). This possible artifact was not relocated during the Phase II evaluation.

6.2.2 PHASE II FIELD RESULTS

The Phase II grid was established over Locus B, noting, wherever possible, the locations of Phase I STPs. In total, 29 STPs were excavated at 10-m (32.8-ft) intervals; eight of these were positive for prehistoric artifacts (n=26).

Soil stratigraphy was somewhat variable across Locus B; this relates to the intermittent streams and a variety of natural and fluvial processes affecting site soil development. Soil color appeared to have been most variable. Generally, however, the A Horizon consisted of a very dark grayish brown (10YR 3/2) sandy loam overlying an E Horizon of either brown (10YR 5/3) or light olive brown (2.5Y5/4) sandy loam. The E Horizon overlaid a light brownish gray (10YR 6/2) or pinkish gray (7.5YR 7/2) sandy clay loam Bt Horizon. Figure 36 shows representative STP profiles for Locus B. All Horizons contained from 5–15 percent gravels. Minor variations in soil texture and color were noted based on topography, proximity to stream channels, and cultural disturbances. The soil profiles in Locus B were shallow. Cyclical flooding of Fairland Branch likely resulted in erosion of soils and possibly deflation of cultural materials that were too large to be transported by flood waters on these intermittent streams.

Four TUs (9–11 and 19) were excavated in the areas of prehistoric artifact concentrations identified during shovel testing. The TUs were excavated to explore artifact concentrations and identify potential subsurface cultural features. The stratigraphy recorded for the TUs diverged from that recorded in the STPs. This is likely due to the weather and ground conditions (i.e., low light and cold, frozen ground conditions at the beginning of January) versus any culturally meaningful differences. Figure 37 shows a representative profile for the TUs. It consists of a very dark grayish brown (10YR 3/2) sandy loam A Horizon overlying a very pale brown (10YR



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

Locus B Overview, Looking West

SCALE N/A

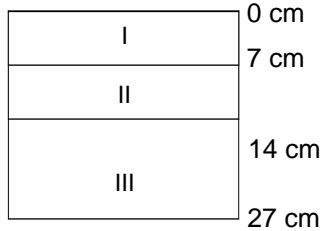
URS

PROJECT NO. 20831016

SOURCE URS

FIGURE NO. 35

STP N1000 E990

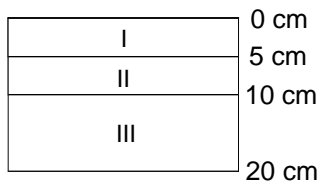


I = A Horizon
10YR 4/2 Dark Grayish Brown
Sandy Loam

II = E Horizon
10YR 5/3 Brown
Sandy Loam

III = Bt Horizon
10YR 6/2 Light Brownish Gray
Sandy Clay Loam

STP N1020 E940



I = A Horizon
10YR 3/2 Very Dark Grayish Brown
Sandy Loam

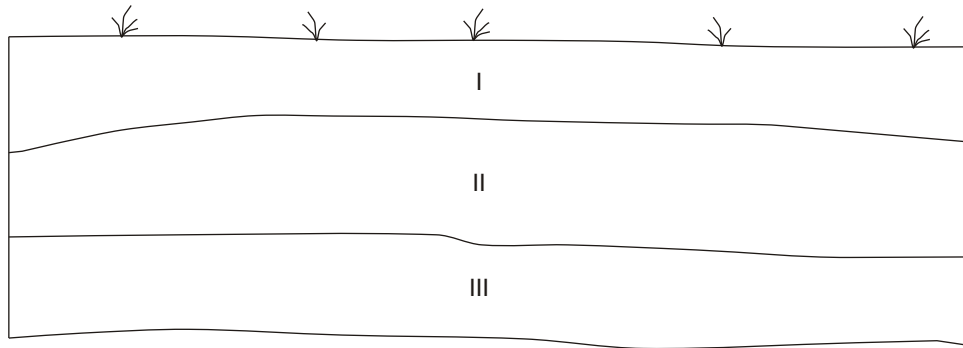
II = E Horizon
10YR 5/3 Brown
Sandy Loam

III = Bt Horizon
7.5YR 7/2 Light Gray
Sandy Clay Loam



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Locus B Representative STP Profiles	
SCALE 1 inch = 25 cm (9.8 in)		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 36

West Wall Profile



I - 10YR 3/2 Very Dark Grayish Brown Silt Loam

II - 10Y 7/4 Very Pale Brown Sandy Loam

III - 10YR 6/6 Brownish Yellow Sandy Clay Loam



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Locus B, TU 10 West Wall Profile	
SCALE As shown			PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS			FIGURE NO. 37

7/4) sandy loam E Horizon, which in turn overlaid a brownish yellow (10YR 6/6) sandy clay loam Bt Horizon. The E and Bt Horizons exhibit redoximorphic features which indicate periods of prolonged wetness.

In total, 77 artifacts were recovered from the four TUs. Artifacts were recovered from the A and E Horizons. No prehistoric or historic cultural features were identified and no diagnostic artifacts were recovered from Locus B during the Phase II study.

6.2.3 PHASE II LABORATORY RESULTS

In total, 103 artifacts (102 prehistoric artifacts and one historic artifact) were recovered during the Phase II evaluation. The historic artifact is a post-1950 copper gun shell casing that was recovered from the A Horizon in TU 19.

In total, 102 lithics were identified from prehistoric contexts at Locus B (Table 24; Appendix L). These included cores (n=5), debitage (n=91), bifaces (n=2), a PPK (n=1), and retouched/utilized flakes (n=3). These were sparsely scattered along the east aspect of the slope between the stream confluences. Quartz was the predominant material represented by count (93.1 percent) and by weight (96.1 percent) at Locus B. Additional materials represented among Locus B lithics included metarhyolite, orthoquartzite, and quartzite. The Locus B lithic scatter was more tightly clustered than in Locus A. Quartz was numerous and present throughout the horizontal and vertical distribution of Locus B lithics. Metarhyolite, orthoquartzite, and quartzite lithics at Locus B were limited to Stratum II.

Table 24. Locus B Prehistoric Artifact Summary

Group	Class	Subclass	Total
Core/Tested Material	Multidirectional Core		5
Core/Tested Material Total			5
Debitage	Indeterminate	Debris/Shatter	1
		Complete/Mostly Complete Flake	18
	Non-Cortex	Debris/Shatter	7
		Flake Fragment	28
		Complete/Mostly Complete Flake	3
	Primary Cortex	Debris/Shatter	8
		Flake Fragment	7
		Complete/Mostly Complete Flake	7
	Secondary Cortex	Debris/Shatter	7
		Flake Fragment	5
Debitage Total			91
Flaked Stone Tool	Biface	Early Stage	1
		Middle Stage	1
	PPK	Unidentified Stemmed	1
	Retouched/Utilized Debitage	Retouched/Utilized Flake	3
Flaked Stone Tool Total			6
Total			102

6.2.3.1 Cores

Four cores and one core fragment were identified from prehistoric contexts at Locus B (Table 25); all are multidirectional and made of quartz. Two of the cores retained less than 50 percent cortex: one has smoothed cortex (weight= 226.3 g [0.50 lb]), and one has a weathering rind (weight=76.1 g [2.72 oz]). The other two cores lack cortex (weights=102.9 and 130.3 g [3.68 and 4.64 oz]). The Locus B cores are smaller than the Locus A core (also made of quartz). The cortex types indicate that quartz was being acquired from both fluvial and weathered out sources.

Table 25. Locus B Cores

Class	Cortex %	Cortex Type	Total
Multidirectional Core	0	n/a	2
	<50	Smoothed	2
		Weathering Rind	1
Total			5

The core fragment retained less than 50 percent smoothed cortex. The core fragment was recovered from TU 11 in conjunction with another core also having smoothed cortex and a number of bipolar debris/shatter. Two of the associated bipolar debris/shatter were very large in size (size grade G-16) and also had a similar smoothed cortex rind. The core fragment refits with one of the smaller bipolar debris/shatter along one edge. This suggests bipolar technology was used as an initial means of breaking up very large quartz cobbles. Relatively speaking, the resultant debris would have been smaller, and therefore, easier to handle. If the resultant debris was reduced via freehand percussion, this would leave behind varying sizes of bipolar debris/shatter in association with varying degrees of freehand cores and their hard-hammer debitage. This scenario would certainly explain the overlapping range of weights between cores (76.1–226.3 g [2.72–8.0 oz]) and debitage (0.1–233.0 g [0.0032–8.16 oz]) at Locus B.


6.2.3.2 Flaked Stone Tools and Diagnostic Artifacts

Six quartz flaked stone tools from prehistoric contexts at Locus B (Table 26; Figure 38). These included an early stage biface, middle stage biface, unidentified stemmed PPK, and three retouched/utilized debitage. The PPK was a mostly complete stemmed form; unfortunately, diagnostic type identification was not possible due to the locations of breakage. All three of the retouched/utilized debitage were retouched/utilized flakes.

Table 26. Locus B Flaked Stone Tools

Class	Cortex %	Cortex Type	Total
Biface	0	n/a	1
	<50	Smoothed	1
PPK	0	n/a	1
Retouched/Utilized Debitage	0	n/a	2
	<50	Smoothed	1
Total			6



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Locus B Prehistoric Tools	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 38

6.2.3.3 Debitage

A total of 91 debitage was identified at Locus B (Table 27). Nearly 41 percent of the Locus B debitage retains cortex. As percent cortex is useful as a general indicator of biface reduction stage, the large quantity of cortex-bearing debitage suggests early stages of reduction (i.e., core reduction and early stage biface reduction) may have dominated lithic activities at Locus B. Among cortex-bearing classes primary and secondary cortex, smoothed (i.e., water-worn) cortex type is abundant; weathering rind cortex type was also observed. Both cortex types indicate that stone materials were being procured from secondarily deposited fluvial sources (e.g., stream bedload, point bar), as well as weathered out sources (e.g., weathered vein exposures, talus).

Table 27. Locus B Debitage Cortex Types

Class	Cortex Type	Count	Total	Percent
Indeterminate	n/a	1	1	1.1
Non-Cortex	n/a	53	53	58.2
Primary Cortex	Smoothed	17	18	19.8
	Weathering Rind	1		
Secondary Cortex	Smoothed	15	19	20.9
	Weathering Rind	4		
Total		91	91	100.0

Flakes (n=28) and flake fragments (n=40) comprise nearly 75 percent of the debitage sub-assembly (total n=68; Table 28). The majority of these are non-cortex. Debris/shatter (n=23) accounted for nearly 25 percent; the majority of the debris/shatter were cortex bearing. The greater quantity of cortex-bearing debris/shatter at Locus B points toward core reduction possibly being a primary on-site lithic activity at this part of the site.

Table 28. Locus B Debitage Morphology

Subclass	Primary Cortex	Secondary Cortex	Non-Cortex	Indeterminate	Total
Complete/Mostly Complete Flake	3	7	18		28
Debris/Shatter	8	7	7	1	23
Flake Fragment	7	5	28		40
Total	18	19	53	1	91

Mean debitage and flake weights were calculated by material. As mentioned previously, mean flake weight is a means of assessing the variation in load application within a debitage sample. The overall mean flake weight for Locus B was 15.3 g (0.544 oz), which is very high. Archaeologically derived data indicate average flake weights greater than 3.0 g (0.107 oz) are typically associated with quarry and primary reduction sites (e.g., Brumbach 1987; Gramly 1982; Maymon et al. 1996). By material, mean debitage weights ranged from 13.2–16.9 g (0.47–0.57 oz); mean weights for whole flakes range from 3.8–16.7 g (0.133–0.592 oz; Table 29).

Table 29. Locus B Debitage by Material Type

Material	Total Count*	Total Weight* (g)	Mean Weight Entire Debitage Sample (g)	Mean Weight Whole Flakes (g)
Metarhyolite	1 (0.3%)	0.6 (0.0%)	–	–
Orthoquartzite	1 (0.3%)	21.2 (0.8%)	–	–
Quartz	84 (27.0%)	1,422.8 (55.3%)	16.9	16.7
Quartzite	5 (1.6%)	65.9 (2.6%)	13.2	3.8

* Percentages (in parentheses) are weighted based on total count (n=311) and weight (2,571.8 g) of entire prehistoric-contextdebitage sample

In terms of stone materials represented among the Locus Bdebitage, quartzdebitage was most abundant by count (n=84 [27.0 percent]) and by weight (1,422.6 g [50.24 oz] [55.3 percent]). Locus B quartzdebitage had a greater percent weight than count, which is most consistent with local material acquisition followed by initial lithic reduction on-site. Locus B could be the area where initial processing and core reduction took place.

Quartzitedebitage also had a stronger representation by weight than by count. The greater percent weight than count and the high mean flake weight (3.8 g [0.134 oz]) of quartzitedebitage is most consistent with initial reduction taking place elsewhere or off-site. The lack of quartzite cores and unfinished bifaces supports this interpretation. The sample size of orthoquartzite and metarhyolitedebitage is too small for interpretation.

6.2.3.4 Mass Analysis and Gini Indices

In terms of size distribution, size grades G-02 through G-14 and G-16 were represented among the Locus Bdebitage (Table 30). Counts generally clustered between size grades G-03 and G-06. Counts of Locus B quartzdebitage showed a somewhat irregular distribution. The sample sizes ofdebitage made of other materials at Locus B were too small to discern general distributions.

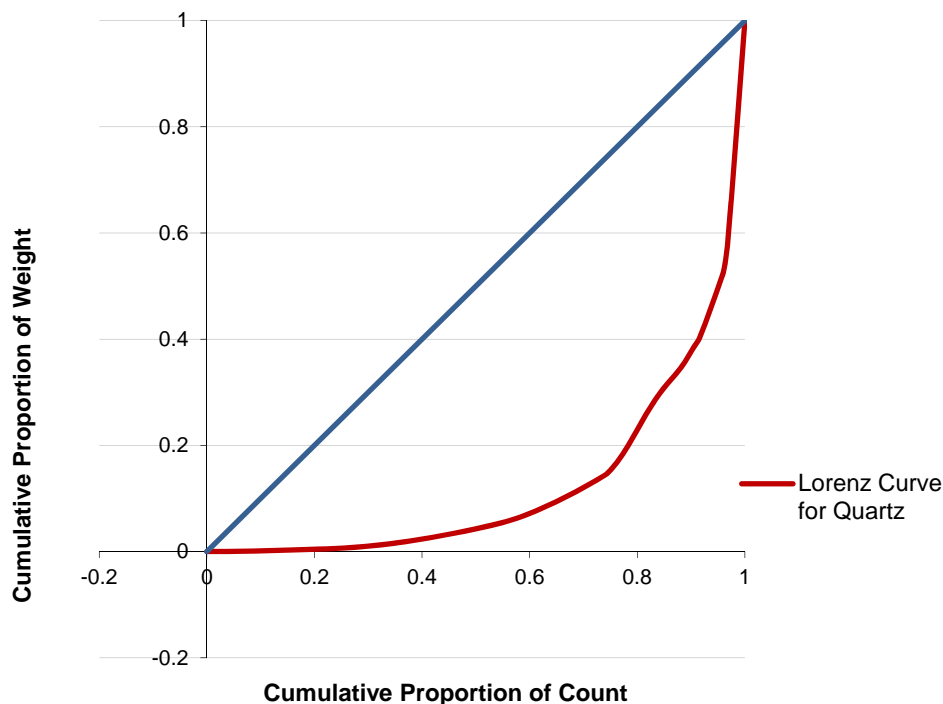
A distribution curve based on overall cumulative proportions of count and weight was plotted for Locus B quartzdebitage (Chart 5); only quartzdebitage met the minimum sample size necessary for Gini Index calculations. The Gini Index calculated for Locus B quartzdebitage was 0.7498; this was slightly greater than that for Locus A quartzdebitage (0.7307). Based on the experimentally derived data from core reduction and biface replication studies, the quartzdebitage Gini Index is most similar to 1) a combination of core preparation and early and middle stage biface reduction (Stages A, B, and C) for chert only (0.7772; Table 15), and 2) a combination of early, middle, and late stages of biface reduction (Stages B, C, and D) for both chert and metarhyolite (0.7365; Table 15). A combination of core preparation and early and middle stage biface reduction is most consistent with inferences from data interpretation of other quartzdebitage proxies.

Table 30. Locus B Mass Analysis Data

Size Grade		Meta-rhyolite	Ortho-quartzite	Quartz	Quartzite	Total*
G-02	Count			7		7
	Weight* (g)			1.3		1.3
G-03	Count	1		17		18
	Weight* (g)	0.6		11.3		11.8
G-04	Count			13		13
	Weight* (g)			31.4		31.4
G-05	Count			12	3	15
	Weight* (g)			48.8	11.6	60.4
G-06	Count			11		11
	Weight* (g)			90.2		90.2
G-07	Count			4		4
	Weight* (g)			55.2		55.2
G-08	Count			6		6
	Weight* (g)			168.3		168.3
G-09	Count		1	4	1	6
	Weight* (g)		21.2	86.0	14.6	121.7
G-10	Count			2		2
	Weight* (g)			54.8		54.8
G-11	Count			1	1	2
	Weight* (g)			28.4	39.8	68.2
G-12	Count			3		3
	Weight* (g)			140.7		140.7
G-13	Count			1		1
	Weight* (g)			63.7		63.7
G-14	Count			1		1
	Weight* (g)			186.6		186.6
G-16	Count			2		2
	Weight* (g)			456.2		456.2
Total Count		1	1	84	5	91
Total Weight* (g)		0.6	21.2	1,422.8	65.9	1,510.5

*Weights presented in table may not add up to total weights due to rounding

Chart 5. Locus B Quartz Debitage Distribution by Weight



6.2.3.5 Thermally Altered Material

Approximately one-tenth of the flaked stone artifacts recovered from Locus B are thermally altered (n=10; Table 31). Thermal alteration was mainly observed as a reddish discoloration and sometimes an improved texture. Given that this is evidence of being intentionally heated, rather than mere exposure to fire (e.g., crazing), it appears that controlled heat treatment of stone material may have been an intentional step in lithic reduction.

Table 31. Locus B Thermally Altered Flaked Stone

Group	Class	Thermally Altered		Total
		No	Yes	
Core/Tested Material	Multidirectional Core	5		5
Debitage	Indeterminate	1		1
	Non-Cortex	48	5	53
	Primary Cortex	15	3	18
	Secondary Cortex	18	1	19
Flaked Stone Tool	Biface	1	1	2
	PPK	1		1
	Retouched/Utilized Debitage	3		3
Total		92	10	102

The middle stage biface and 9.9 percent of the Locus Bdebitage exhibited thermal alteration consistent with what is expected from intentional heat treatment (e.g., Maymon et al. 1996). Heat-treated specimens were present in all three classes ofdebitage. Heat treatment appears to

be more prevalent among primary cortex debitage (20 percent) than secondary or non-cortex debitage. Of the material types from which Locus B flaked stone artifacts were manufactured, evidence of heat treatment was more common among debitage made of orthoquartzite and quartzite (Table 32). This was a noticeable difference over the other materials.

Table 32. Locus B Thermally Altered Flaked Stone by Material Type

Material	Thermally Altered		Total
	No	Yes	
Metarhyolite	1		1
Orthoquartzite		1	1
Quartz	88	7	95
Quartzite	3	2	5
Total	92	10	102

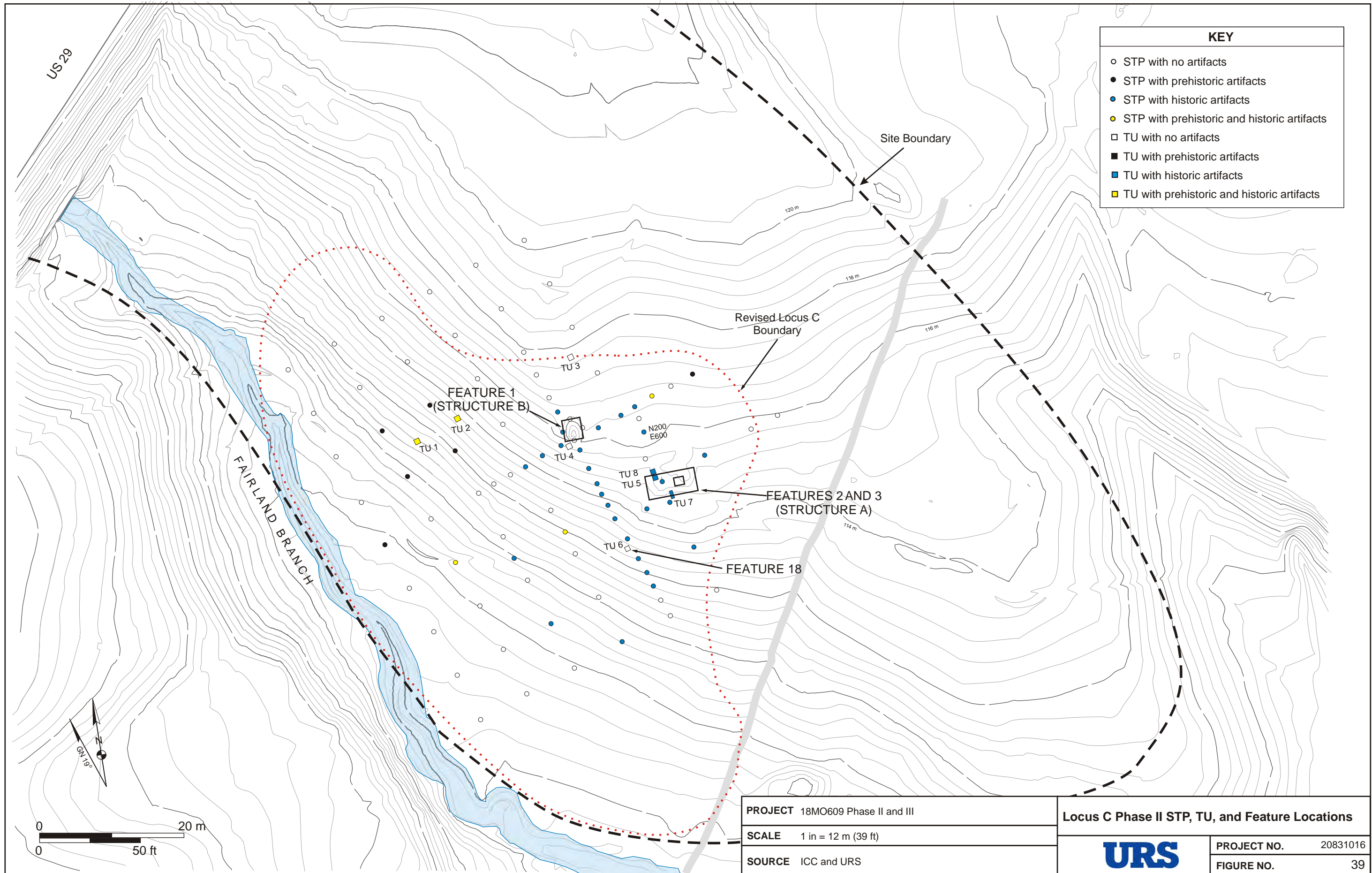
6.2.4 LOCUS B LITHIC ANALYSIS SUMMARY

At Locus B, primary on-site lithic activities for quartz centered on core preparation and early and middle stage biface reduction; late stages of tool manufacture were secondary. The on-site lithic trajectory at Locus B for quartz, a ubiquitous and locally available material, included a combination of hard hammer flake blank production, hard and soft hammer biface edging and thinning, and soft hammer secondary biface thinning. This was supplemented with as-needed final biface shaping by soft hammer and pressure-flaking and edge rejuvenation/maintenance. The presence of quartz cores at Locus B, in conjunction with very large debitage, a strong representation of debris/shatter among the debitage, and a significant amount of cortex-bearing debitage, suggest that Locus B functioned as a primary reduction area at the site. There was also evidence that bipolar technology was used as an initial means of breaking up very large quartz cobbles.

The Locus B on-site lithic trajectory for quartzite, a local material, was almost certainly a combination of hard and soft hammer biface edging and thinning, soft hammer secondary biface thinning, final biface shaping by soft hammer and pressure-flaking, and edge rejuvenation/maintenance. Lithic data were consistent with unfinished and finished prefabricated forms being transported to the site. These unfinished forms then underwent thinning and final shaping on-site. The sample sizes of orthoquartzite and metarhyolite debitage were too small to assess on-site lithic activities at Locus B.

6.3 LOCUS C

Locus C was approximately 0.7 ha (1.7 ac) in size, and is located on the east side of US 29 (Figures 29 and 39), with Fairland Branch bordering its western side. It was located on a northwest-southeast trending ridge and floodplain in a wooded area, and was crisscrossed by several dirt roads and all-terrain vehicle (ATV)/pedestrian trails (Figures 40 and 41). A scatter of historic and modern trash was noted along the western slope and ridge. A poured concrete barn foundation was located southeast of Locus C, and appears to be associated with mid- to late twentieth century use of the property.



KEY	
○	STP with no artifacts
●	STP with prehistoric artifacts
●	STP with historic artifacts
●	STP with prehistoric and historic artifacts
□	TU with no artifacts
■	TU with prehistoric artifacts
■	TU with historic artifacts
■	TU with prehistoric and historic artifacts

PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III
SCALE	1 in = 12 m (39 ft)
SOURCE	ICC and URS

Locus C Phase II STP, TU, and Feature Locations	
PROJECT NO.	20831016
FIGURE NO.	39





Figure 40. Locus C, View of Slope and Floodplain, Looking South



Figure 41. Locus C, Fairland Branch, Looking West

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Locus C Overview	
SCALE	N/A	URS	PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE	URS		FIGURE NO. 40 and 41

6.3.1 PHASE I SUMMARY

The Phase I survey of Area 60 included the excavation of 67 STPs placed at 10- and 20-m (32.8- and 65.6-ft) intervals (Figure 28). Locus C was defined within Area 60 based on the locations of prehistoric artifacts along the floodplain of Fairland Branch. Phase I testing produced 126 artifacts (85 prehistoric and 41 historic; Table 33). The three projectile points recovered during the Phase I survey include one rhyolite Dry Brook, one quartz Morrow Mountain or Piscataway, and one quartz bifurcate point. Two of these, the Dry Brook and Morrow Mountain/Piscataway, were recovered from the ground surface along ATV trails.

Table 33. Phase I Artifact Summary

Group		Form	Count
Prehistoric	Tool	Projectile Point	3
		Biface	1
	Core	Multidirectional	1
	Debitage	Flake	69
		Block/Shatter	11
Prehistoric Total			85
Historic	Kitchen	Pearlware	2
		Whiteware	12
		Yellowware	5
		Stoneware	4
		Porcelain	1
		Glass Bottle	9
		Glass Jar	1
	Architecture	Roofing Nail	1
		Unidentified Nail	1
		Window Glass	1
	Personal	Glass Button	1
		Clothing Rivet	1
		Porcelain Doll Leg	1
		Accordion Reed Plate	1
Historic Total			41
Total			126

Berger noted an unmortared fieldstone foundation located near the crest of the ridge and a dump located approximately 25 m (82 ft) south of the foundation (Bedell and LeeDecker 2005). The foundation and historic artifacts were thought to relate to a ca. 1900 to 1920 domestic site that was not considered potentially significant because of its recent date and apparent disturbance. No prehistoric cultural features were identified during the Phase I survey.

6.3.2 PHASE II FIELD RESULTS

The Phase II grid was established over Locus C, noting, wherever possible, the locations of Phase I STPs. The initial goal of the Phase II effort was to evaluate the prehistoric component of Locus C. A pedestrian walkover of the area of the fieldstone foundation revealed a second feature (trash-filled pit) and a high concentration of historic artifacts on the ground surface. The

Phase II was expanded to include the historic features and artifact concentrations. In total, 86 STPs were excavated at 10-m (32.8-ft) intervals; six of these were positive for prehistoric artifacts, 35 were positive for historic artifacts, and three were positive for prehistoric and historic artifacts.

Soil stratigraphy differed across Locus C due to changes in topography, landform changes, proximity to water, and anthropogenic factors (i.e., historic occupation of the area). A typical soil profile on the ridge top consisted of a very dark grayish brown (10YR 3/2) silt loam A Horizon overlying a dark yellowish brown (10YR 4/4) silt loam E Horizon which in turn overlaid a brown (7.5YR 4/4) silty clay loam Bt Horizon (Figure 42). Across the ridge top, the E Horizon contained 5 percent gravel. The Bt Horizon contained varying amounts of schist channers (i.e., thin, flat schist fragments up to 15 cm [5.9 in] in length).

Soils on the slope were more variable in color and depths of the horizons, presumably because of differential erosion and anthropogenic factors. A typical profile, however, consisted of a dark brown (10YR 3/3) sandy loam A Horizon overlying a yellowish brown (10YR 5/6) sandy clay loam E Horizon, which in turn overlaid a strong brown (7.5YR 4/6) sandy clay loam Bt Horizon (Figure 42). Floodplain soils are even more variable and appear to have been influenced by localized hydrologic conditions. Some of the profiles appear to have gleyed B Horizons, while others appear to have weakly developed B Horizons. A typical soil profile, however, consists of a very dark grayish brown (10YR 3/2) silt loam A Horizon overlying a brown (10YR 4/3) silty clay loam Bw1 Horizon, which overlies a pale brown (10YR 6/3) silty clay loam Bw2 Horizon (Figure 42).

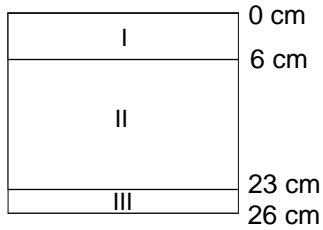
The data gathered from the historic features, as well as artifact concentrations noted for both the prehistoric and historic components, determined placement of TUs. Eight TUs (1–8) were excavated in Locus C (Figure 39). TUs 1 and 2 were excavated in the areas of prehistoric artifact concentrations identified during shovel testing, TU 3 was excavated on the ridge top, and TUs 4 through 8 were excavated in areas of historic artifact concentrations.

6.3.2.1 Prehistoric Component

TUs 1 and 2 were located on the slope where a concentration of prehistoric artifacts was identified during shovel testing. Excavation of the TUs allowed for more accurate characterization of the stratigraphy, which, as shown in the TU 2 profile (Figure 43), consisted of four strata. The A Horizon was a very dark grayish brown (10YR 3/2) gravelly sandy loam overlying a dark yellowish brown (10YR 4/4) sandy loam E Horizon. Underlying the E Horizon was a yellowish brown (10YR 5/4) sandy clay loam Bt1 Horizon and a strong brown (7.5YR 5/6) sandy clay loam Bt2 Horizon. All horizons contained gravel and schist fragments. Saprolite was noted in the Bt2 Horizon. TU 3 was located at the top of the ridge and had a very similar stratigraphic profile as TUs 1 and 2. TU 3 contained a higher percentage of gravel and cobbles than TUs 1 and 2, and a higher amount of schist than the other two TUs.

In total, 133 artifacts (119 prehistoric and 14 historic) were recovered from TUs 1 and 2; TU 3 contained no artifacts. Prehistoric and historic artifacts were recovered from Strata I and II, and the upper portion of Stratum III in both TUs 1 and 2. The mixing of the prehistoric and historic artifacts likely was the result of both erosion (i.e., the TUs are on a slope) and bioturbation (i.e., tree roots and rodent burrows). No prehistoric cultural features were identified in the prehistoric component.

**STP N240 E600
(on ridgetop)**

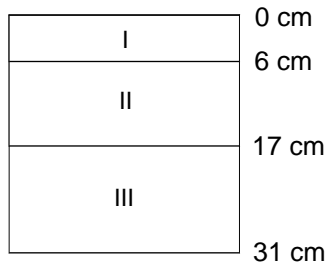


I = A Horizon
10YR 3/2 Very Dark Grayish Brown
Sandy Loam

II = E Horizon
10YR 4/4 Dark Yellowish Brown
Sandy Loam with Large Rocks

III = Bt Horizon
7.5YR 4/4 Brown
Sandy Loam with Schist Channers

**STP N185 E580
(on slope)**

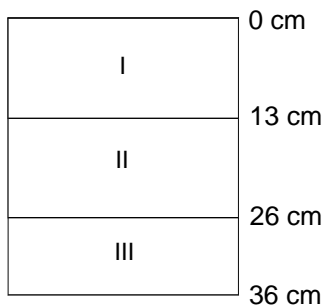


I = A Horizon
10YR 3/3 Dark Brown
Sandy Loam

II = E Horizon
10YR 5/6 Yellowish Brown
Sandy Clay Loam

III = Bt Horizon
7.5YR 4/6 Strong Brown
Sandy Clay Loam

**STP N210 E550
(on floodplain)**



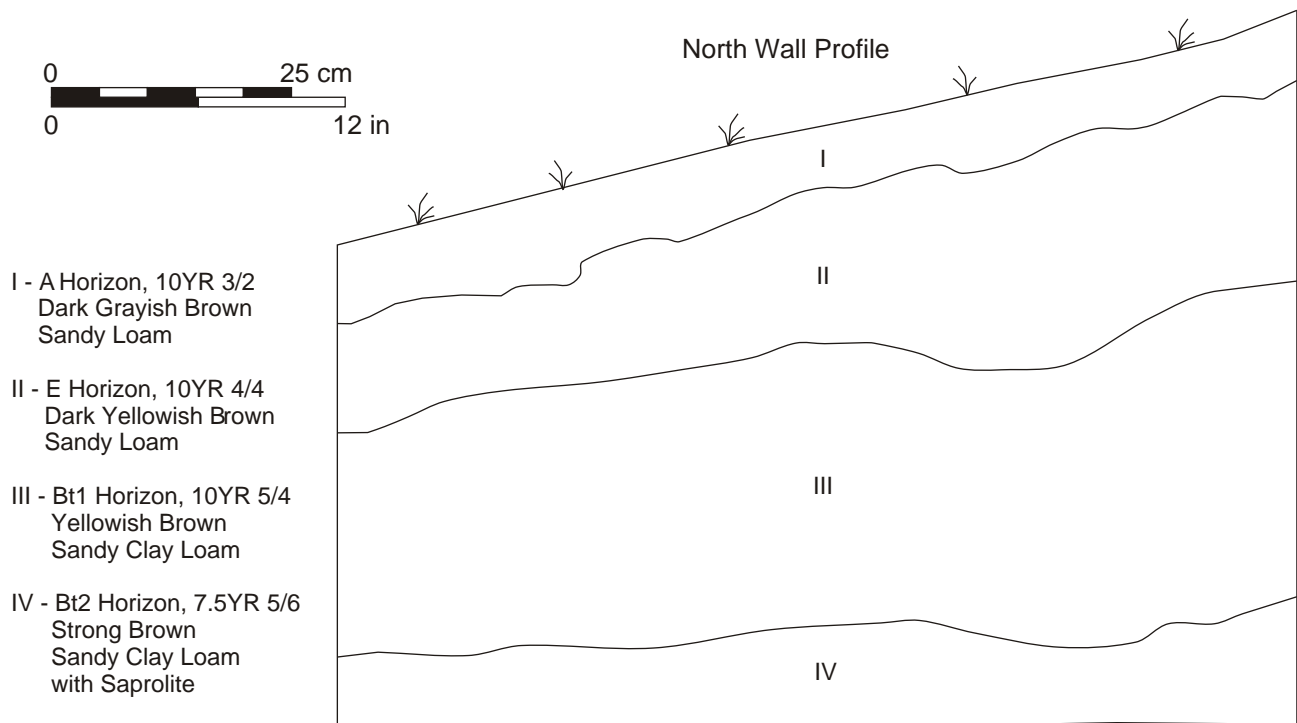
I = A Horizon
10YR 3/2 Very Dark Grayish Brown
Silt Loam

II = E Horizon
10YR 4/3 Brown
Silty Clay Loam

III = Bt Horizon
10YR 6/3 Pale Brown
Silty Clay Loam



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Locus C Representative STP Profiles	
SCALE 1 inch = 25 cm (9.8 in)		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 42



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Locus C, TU 2 North Wall Profile	
SCALE As shown			PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS			FIGURE NO. 43

6.3.2.2 Historic Component

TUs 4 through 8 were located in the historic component of Locus C (Figure 39). The following discussion is organized by feature and associated TUs.

6.3.2.2.1 Feature 1

Four STPs were excavated around Feature 1, a large, rectangular pit filled with modern trash and historic artifacts (Figure 44). The STPs were excavated around the periphery of the feature to determine if a foundation was present. None was identified; however, a concentration of historic artifacts (n=89) was noted in the STP excavated on the southern boundary of the pit. TU 4 was placed on the south side of Feature 1 to investigate the artifact concentration. The stratigraphy consisted of a very dark gray (10YR 3/1) silt loam midden overlying a brown (7.5YR 5/4) silty clay loam Bt Horizon which overlaid a brown (7.5YR 5/4) clay loam C Horizon (Figure 45). The Bt Horizon contained 15 percent gravels and cobbles and the C Horizon contained 30 percent schist channers. Of the 72 historic artifacts recovered from TU 4, all but one was from the midden (one was recovered from the Bt Horizon); kitchen and architectural artifacts suggested Feature 1 was the cellar of a domestic structure with an associated midden.

6.3.2.2.2 Features 2 and 3

A single STP was excavated in the interior of the stone foundation. Domestic artifacts (n=187), many of which were burned, were recovered. In addition, a large amount of charcoal fragments, black soil, and ash indicated that the deposits represented a house that burned. This burn layer was labeled Feature 2 and the foundation itself was labeled Feature 3. Feature 3 was a mortared fieldstone foundation of gneiss, schist, and quartz rock (Figure 46).

TUs 5, 7, and 8 were located along the house foundation. TUs 5 and 8 were placed along the north foundation wall and TU 7 was placed along what was perceived to be the south wall of the building. The stratigraphy was similar for the three TUs (Figure 47). Feature 2, the burn layer, extended beyond the confines of the foundation. The feature had two layers; the upper layer (Layer A) consisted of black (10YR 2/1) silt loam and charcoal and contained a very large quantity of domestic and architectural artifacts. The bottom layer (Layer B) differed slightly in color between the interior and exterior of the house. The interior Layer B consisted of dark yellowish brown (10YR 3/4) sandy clay loam and the exterior Layer B consisted of a brown (7.5YR 4/4) silty clay loam. Layer B contained charcoal and burned mortar. An E Horizon directly underlay Feature 2, Layer B on the building interior and consisted of a brown (10YR 4/3) sandy clay loam overlying a brown (7.5 YR 4/4) sandy clay loam Bt Horizon. No E Horizon was present on the house exterior.

6.3.2.2.3 Feature 18 Midden

TU 6 was located southwest of the house on a slope where an artifact concentration was noted during shovel testing. The stratigraphy consisted of a very dark grayish brown (10YR 3/2) silt loam A Horizon overlying a dark grayish brown (10YR 4/2) silty clay loam E Horizon, which in turn overlaid a strong brown (7.5YR 4/6) silty clay loam Bt Horizon with 5 percent schist channers (Figure 48). In total, 335 historic artifacts were recovered from Strata I and II. Roughly 90 percent of the artifacts were from the kitchen group, indicating this area functioned as a midden. In addition, some of the artifacts were burned, suggesting this area was used post-fire to discard unwanted/unsalvageable items.



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

Locus C, Feature 1, Looking West

SCALE N/A

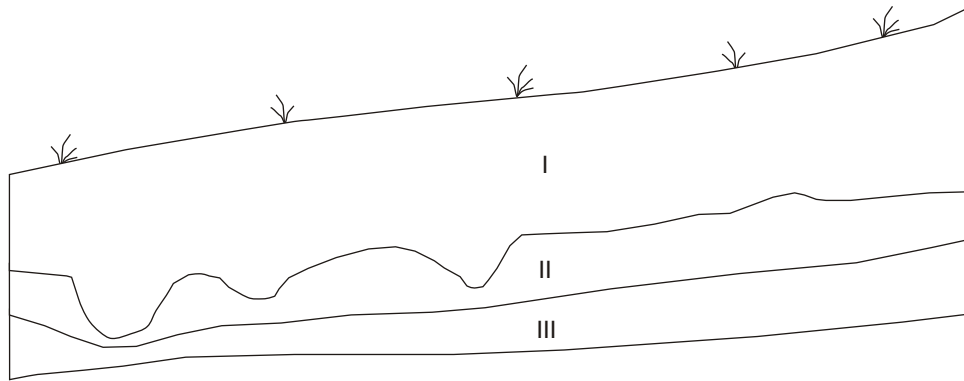


PROJECT NO. 20831016

SOURCE URS

FIGURE NO. 44

North Wall Profile



I - Midden/Fill, 10YR 3/1 Very Dark Gray Silt Loam

II - Bt Horizon, 7.5YR 5/4 Brown Silty Clay Loam with 15% Gravel and Cobbles

III - C Horizon, 7.5YR 5/4 Brown Clay Loam with 30% Schist Channers



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Locus C, TU 4 North Wall Profile	
SCALE As shown			PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS			FIGURE NO. 45



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

Locus C, Features 2 and 3, Looking West

SCALE N/A

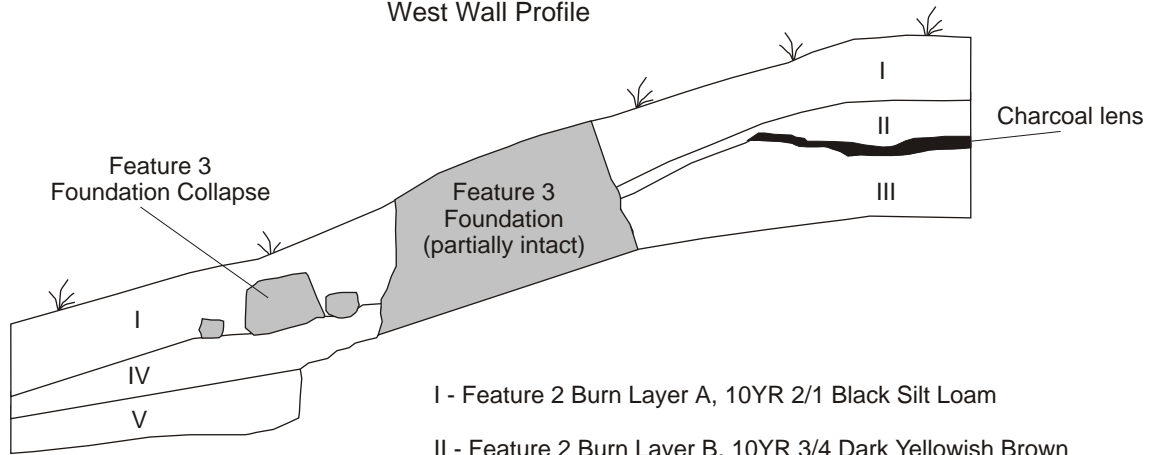


PROJECT NO. 20831016

SOURCE URS

FIGURE NO. 46

West Wall Profile

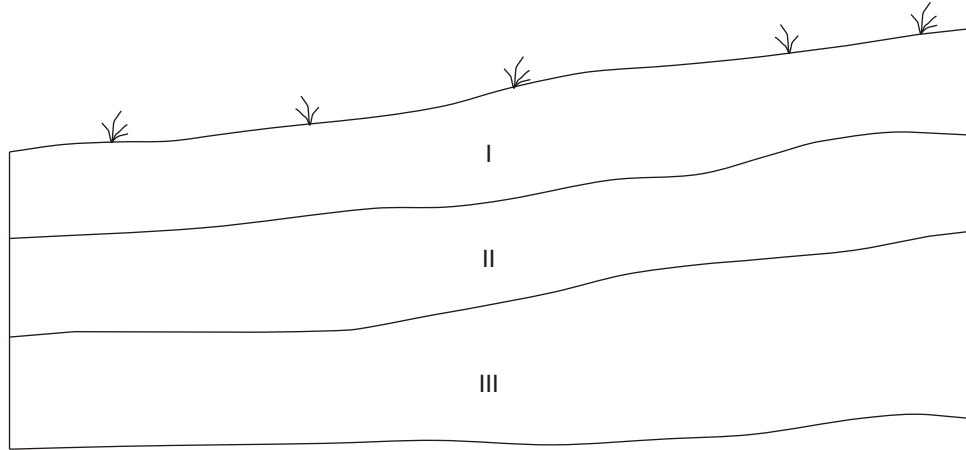


- I - Feature 2 Burn Layer A, 10YR 2/1 Black Silt Loam
- II - Feature 2 Burn Layer B, 10YR 3/4 Dark Yellowish Brown Sandy Clay Loam with charcoal and mortar/plaster
- III - E Horizon, 10YR 3/4 Dark Yellowish Brown Sandy Clay Loam
- IV - Feature 2 Burn Layer B, 7.5YR 4/4 Brown Silty Clay Loam with charcoal and mortar
- V - Bt Horizon, 7.5YR 4/4 Brown Sandy Clay Loam



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Locus C, TU 7 West Wall Profile	
SCALE As shown			PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS			FIGURE NO. 47

North Wall Profile



I - 10YR 3/2 Very Dark Brown Silt Loam

II - 10YR 4/2 Dark Grayish Brown Silty Clay Loam

III - 7.5YR 4/6 Strong Brown Silty Clay Loam with Schist Channers



PROJECT 18M0609 Phase II and III		Locus C, Feature 18, TU 6 North Wall Profile	
SCALE As shown			PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS			FIGURE NO. 48

6.3.3 PHASE II LABORATORY RESULTS

In total, 156 prehistoric and 3,468 historic artifacts were recovered from Locus C. The subsections that follow detail the results of the prehistoric lithic analysis. A detailed discussion of the Phase II historic artifacts is included in the Phase III Laboratory Results chapter.

6.3.3.1 Prehistoric Artifacts

In total, 156 quartz artifacts were identified from Locus C (Table 34; Appendix L). These artifacts included cores (n=7), debitage (n=143), and tools (n=6). Prehistoric lithics were sparsely scattered across the southern part of Locus C; a concentration of cores, flaked stone tools, and debitage was present in the northwestern portion of Locus C on the slope down to Fairland Branch (at N210–220 E560–570).

Table 34. Locus C Prehistoric Artifact Summary

Group	Class	Subclass	Total
Core/Tested Material	Bidirectional Core	n/a	1
	Multidirectional Core	n/a	6
Core/Tested Material Total			7
Debitage	Non-Cortex	Bipolar Flake	1
		Complete/Mostly Complete Flake	29
		Debris/Shatter	15
		Flake Fragment	55
	Primary Cortex	Complete/Mostly Complete Flake	2
		Debris/Shatter	2
		Flake Fragment	5
	Secondary Cortex	Bipolar Flake	1
		Complete/Mostly Complete Flake	14
		Debris/Shatter	6
Flake Fragment		13	
Debitage Total			143
Flaked Stone Tool	Biface	Early Stage	1
	Perforator	Graver	1
	PPK	Indeterminate Type	1
	Retouched/Utilized Debitage	Retouched/Utilized Flake	3
Flaked Stone Tool Total			6
Total			156

6.3.3.1.1 Cores

Four cores and three core fragments were identified from prehistoric contexts at Locus C (Table 35); all are made of quartz. All four of the cores and two of the core fragments were multidirectional; one of the core fragments was bidirectional. All of the core fragments retained less than 50 percent cortex: two had smoothed cortex, and one had a weathering rind. Two of the multidirectional cores retained less than 50 percent cortex: one had smoothed cortex (weight= 42.4 g [1.49 oz]), and one had a weathering rind (weight=68.3 g [2.4 oz]). The other two lack cortex (weights=50.1 and 66.9 g [1.76 and 2.24 oz]). The cortex types indicate that quartz was being acquired from both fluvial and weathered out sources.

Table 35. Locus C Cores

Class	Cortex %	Cortex Type	Total
Bidirectional Core	<50	Smoothed	1
Multidirectional Core	0	n/a	3
	<50	Smoothed	1
		Weathering Rind	2
Total			7

All of the Locus C cores weigh significantly less than the Loci A and B cores. One explanation for the small core size at Locus C could simply be that the manufacture of tools is a reductive process; cores from which debitage were detached progressively become smaller over time. Another could be that previously exhausted cores, broken tools, and debitage discarded on the landscape were collected, recycled, and reduced, in essence again becoming cores themselves. Although the Locus C cores are the smallest at the site, their weights are still greater than the weight range associated with quartz debitage at Locus C (debitage weight range=0.1–39.3 g [0.0035-1.386 oz; mean=5.3 g [0.187 oz]). This offers additional support of a lithic trajectory in which locally available quartz was being procured, tested, and reduced on-site. It also raises the question of on-site lithic recycling and how this can be disguised in the archaeological record.

6.3.3.1.2 Flaked Stone Tools and Diagnostic Artifacts


Six quartz flaked stone tools were identified from prehistoric contexts at Locus C (Table 36; Figure 49). The early stage biface retained less than 50 percent smoothed cortex. The perforator was a graver that lacked cortex. The PPK fragment was a cortex-free tip; type identification was not possible. All three of the retouched/utilized debitage were flakes. One retained greater than or equal to 50 percent smoothed cortex, one retained less than 50 percent smoothed cortex, and one was cortex-free.

Table 36. Locus C Flaked Stone Tools

Class	Cortex %	Cortex Type	Total
Biface	<50	Smoothed	1
Perforator	0	n/a	1
PPK	0	n/a	1
Retouched/Utilized Debitage	0	n/a	1
	<50	Smoothed	1
	≥50	Smoothed	1
Total			6



A., B., and C. Retouched/Utilized Debitage
 D. Biface
 E. PPK Tip
 F. Perforator

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Locus C Prehistoric Tools	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 49

6.3.3.1.3 Debitage

A total of 143 debitage was identified from prehistoric contexts at Locus C (Table 37); all were made of quartz. Locus C debitage were characterized as being predominantly non-cortex (69.9 percent). The abundance of non-cortex debitage implies later stages of biface reduction may have dominated lithic activities at Locus C. Among cortex-bearing classes primary and secondary cortex, cortex types smoothed (i.e., water-worn) and weathering rind are nearly equivalent in their representation. The presence of both cortex types indicates that stone materials were procured from secondarily deposited fluvial sources (e.g., stream bedload, point bar), as well as weathered out sources (e.g., weathered vein exposures, talus).

Table 37. Locus C Debitage Cortex Types

Class	Cortex Type	Count	Percent
Non-Cortex	n/a	100	69.9
Primary Cortex	Smoothed	3	6.3
	Weathering Rind	6	
Secondary Cortex	Smoothed	16	23.8
	Weathering Rind	18	
Total		143	100.0

Flakes (n=45) and flake fragments (n=73) dominated the debitage sub-assembly, comprising 82.5 percent (total n=118; Table 38). The majority of these were non-cortex. Debris/shatter were not as well represented (16.1 percent; n=23); the amount of debris/shatter was most consistent with what is expected for occasional core reduction taking place on-site (e.g., at Locus A); most of the debris/shatter also lacked cortex. Two bipolar flakes were identified; although indicative of bipolar technology at the site, their insignificant representation indicates bipolar technology was not a key reduction technology practiced by the site's inhabitants.

Table 38. Locus C Debitage Morphology

Subclass	Primary Cortex	Secondary Cortex	Non-Cortex	Total
Bipolar Flake		1	1	2
Complete/Mostly Complete Flake	2	14	29	45
Debris/Shatter	2	6	15	23
Flake Fragment	5	13	55	73
Total	9	34	100	143

Mean debitage and mean flake weights were calculated. As previously mentioned, mean flake weight is a way of assessing the variation in load application within a debitage sample. The overall mean flake weight for Locus C was 4.6 g (0.162 oz). Archaeologically derived data from the eastern United States indicate average flake weights greater than 3.0 g (0.106 oz) are typically associated with quarry and primary reduction sites (e.g., Brumbach 1987; Gramly 1982; Maymon et al. 1996). The mean debitage weight was 5.4 g (0.190 oz; Table 39). Locus C quartz debitage had a greater percent count (n=143 [46.0 percent]) than weight (767.3 g [27.07 oz] [29.8 percent]).

Table 39. Locus C Debitage by Material Type

Material	Total Count*	Total Weight (g)*	Mean Weight Entire Debitage Sample (g)	Mean Weight Whole Flakes (g)
Quartz	143 (46.0%)	767.3 (29.8%)	5.4	4.6

*Percentages (in parentheses) are weighted based on total count (n=311) and weight (2,571.8 g) of entire prehistoric-context debitage sample

6.3.3.1.4 Mass Analysis and Gini Indices

In terms of size distribution, size grades G-02 through G-10 were represented among the Locus C quartz debitage from prehistoric contexts (Table 40). Counts of Locus C quartz debitage showed a relatively normal distribution. A distribution curve based on overall cumulative proportions of count and weight was plotted for Locus C quartz debitage (Chart 6), which met the minimum sample size necessary for Gini Index calculations.

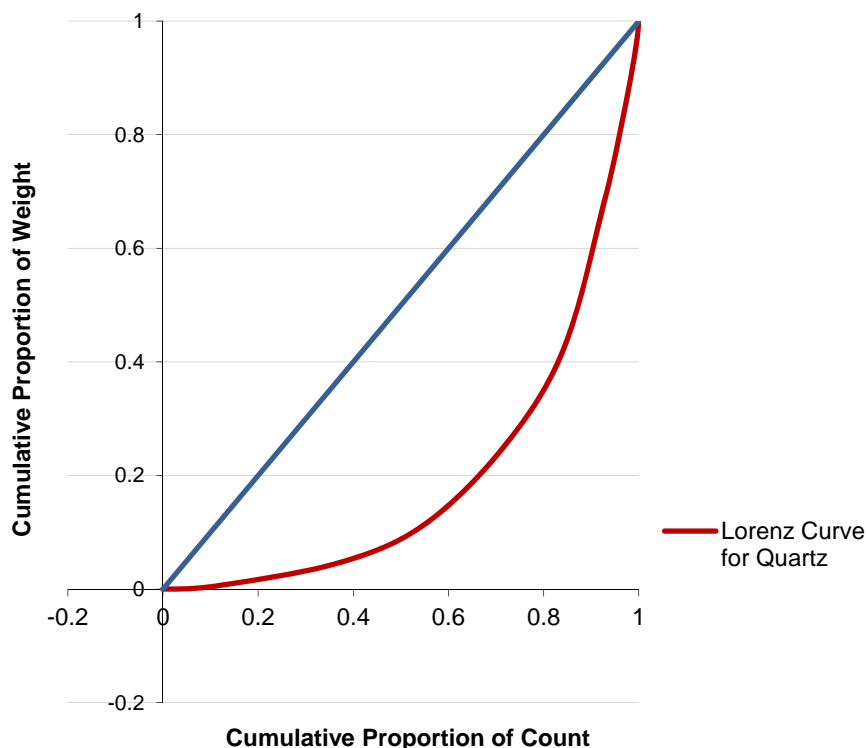
Table 40. Locus C Mass Analysis Data

Size Grade		Quartz
G-02	Count	15
	Weight (g)	3.7
G-03	Count	37
	Weight (g)	20.8
G-04	Count	26
	Weight (g)	51.0
G-05	Count	24
	Weight (g)	104.4
G-06	Count	18
	Weight (g)	129.8
G-07	Count	12
	Weight (g)	192.1
G-08	Count	6
	Weight (g)	119.5
G-09	Count	4
	Weight (g)	96.8
G-10	Count	1
	Weight (g)	39.2
Total Count		143
Total Weight (g)		757.3

The Gini Index calculated for Locus C quartz debitage was 0.5977; this was noticeably less than Loci A and B quartz debitage Gini Indices (0.7307 and 0.7498, respectively). Based on the experimentally derived data from core reduction and biface replication studies, the quartz debitage Gini Index at Locus C was most similar to a combination of middle and late stage biface reduction (Stages C and D) for chert only (0.6006; Table 15); however, this finding contradicts interpretation of other Locus C quartz proxy data. Locus C quartz debitage data are quite similar to Locus A quartz debitage data. At Locus A, the finding was a combination of early, middle, and late stages of biface reduction (Stages B, C, and D). Shared characteristics

between Loci A and C included: 1) a predominance of cortex-free debitage; 2) an abundance of flakes and flake fragments, as opposed to debris/shatter; and 3) a greater percent count than weight.

Chart 6. Locus C Quartz Debitage Distribution by Weight



There was a difference in mean flake weight between Loci A and C. The mean flake weight for Locus C quartz was 4.6 g (0.162 oz); this was much greater than the mean flake weight for Locus A quartz (2.5 g [0.088 oz]). Granted, Locus C yielded the greatest number of cores; however, all of the Locus C cores weighed significantly less than the Loci A and B cores. Repeated preparation/reduction of smaller sized cores at this particular local would certainly affect the debitage distribution data. Because the cores started off smaller in size, the debitage detached from them are also smaller in size. An abundance of hard hammer percussion, which is typical of both core preparation/reduction and early stage biface reduction, over soft hammer percussion, which is typical of middle and late stage biface reduction, could certainly produce a high mean flake weight. Hard hammer debitage tended to be much thicker, and therefore, weighed more as demonstrated experimentally (e.g., Ahler 1989). Based on the evidence, the Locus C quartz debitage were most consistent with Locus A; therefore, Locus C quartz debitage represented a combination of early, middle, and late stage biface reduction that was supplemented by occasional core reduction. This was not reflected by the distribution curve or the Gini Index.

The Locus C finding supports Bradbury and Franklin's (2000) conclusion that the initial geometry of the form being reduced affects the ability of any one experimental debitage dataset to correctly classify another more than do differences in the stone material type. In this particular case, the initial geometry of at least one of the forms being reduced at Locus C was a much smaller core.

6.3.3.1.5 *Thermally Altered Materials*

None of the Locus C flaked stone artifacts recovered from prehistoric contexts is thermally altered. This is different from Loci A and B, where heat treatment appeared to be part of lithic reduction activities.

6.3.3.1.6 *Lithic Analysis Summary*

Primary on-site lithic activities at Locus C pertaining to quartz focused on early, middle, and late stage biface reduction; core reduction was a secondary activity at Locus C. The on-site lithic trajectory at Locus C for quartz, a ubiquitous and locally available material, included a combination of hard and soft hammer biface edging and thinning, soft hammer secondary biface thinning, final biface shaping by soft hammer and pressure-flaking, and edge rejuvenation/maintenance. The recovery of a number of small quartz cores was direct evidence that core reduction was taking place at Locus C; however, it was not a principal lithic activity at this particular locus. Unfinished and finished prefabricated forms made of quartz were brought to Locus C for further reduction, use, and/or maintenance.

6.3.3.2 Locus A, B, and C Prehistoric Artifact Summary

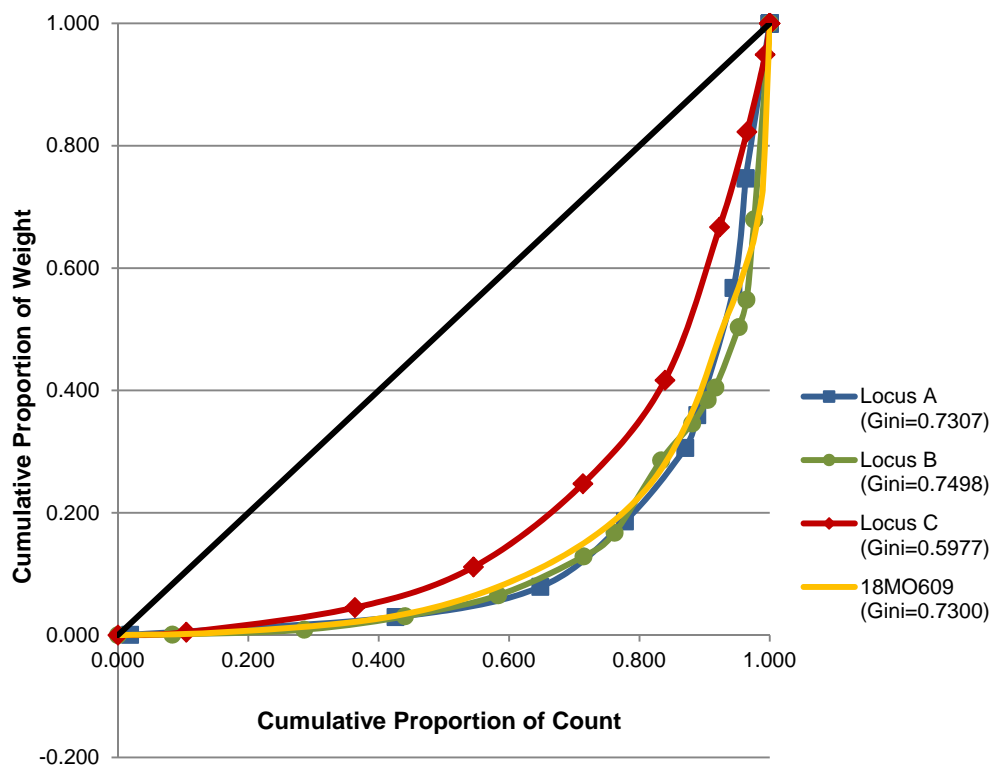
The overall mean flake weight for site 18MO609 was 7.4 g (0.261 oz). Arguably, without separating loci-specific lithic data, such a high mean flake weight would limit interpretation of site function as only a primary reduction site. Certainly, archaeologically derived mean flake weights greater than 3.0 g (0.106 oz) have been frequently interpreted as quarry and primary reduction sites. However, there was evidence of clearly defined lithic activity loci within the site. Loci A and C both functioned as secondary reduction areas and Locus B as a primary reduction area.

Similarly, the overall Gini Index for quartz debitage is 0.7300 (Chart 7). The Gini Index for Locus A was 0.7307, for Locus B was 0.7498, and for Locus C was 0.5977. Comparison of the distribution curves from the different site loci graphically illustrated relative differences between them. Were a Gini Index calculated for only the overall total of quartz debitage at the site, loci-specific lithic activities would have been poorly defined and possibly overlooked (e.g., at Locus C).

Portions of 18MO609 functioned as either primary reduction or secondary reduction areas that were used intermittently prior to historic occupation at the site. Phase II diagnostic artifacts associate the site's prehistoric components with the Late Woodland Period. Two on-site lithic trajectories were identified for quartz. These include the following:

1. hard hammer flake blank production, hard and soft hammer biface edging and thinning, and soft hammer secondary biface thinning, supplemented with infrequent final biface shaping by soft hammer and pressure-flaking and edge rejuvenation/maintenance; and
2. hard and soft hammer biface edging and thinning, soft hammer secondary biface thinning, final biface shaping by soft hammer and pressure-flaking, and edge rejuvenation/maintenance, supplemented by occasional core reduction

Chart 7. Phase II Overall Site Quartz Debitage Distribution by Weight



The earliest stages of lithic reduction occurred at Locus B (mean flake weight=15.3 g [0.245 oz]). Locus B lithic activities focused on core preparation and early and middle stage biface reduction. Although there was evidence of late stages of tool manufacture, this was an infrequent, secondary activity at Locus B. Bipolar technology was used as an initial means of breaking up very large quartz cobbles that were then reduced using freehand techniques.

Middle and late stages of lithic reduction occurred at Loci A and C; these loci functioned as secondary reduction areas (mean flake weights=2.5 and 4.6 g [0.088 and 0.162 oz], respectively). Loci A and C lithic activities focused on early, middle, and late stage biface reduction. Although there is evidence for core preparation/reduction at both loci, this was an occasional, secondary lithic activity. One interpretation of this finding is that flake blanks were produced on-site at Locus B; these then underwent thinning and final shaping at Loci A or C. A second interpretation of this finding is that unfinished and finished, or nearly finished, bifaces (PPKs) were transported to the site from additional primary reduction areas located off-site. There is also evidence that bipolar technology was used as a means of recycling smaller, exhausted material at Locus C.

Worth noting is the high mean flake weight for Locus C (4.6 g [0.162 oz]). This is unusually high for a secondary reduction area. Other debitage proxy data points toward Locus C being a secondary reduction area, as opposed to a primary reduction area, in terms of lithic activities. This reiterates the need for multiple lines of evidence for debitage analysis. Lithic analysis results reiterate that aggregate methods, such as mass analysis, be used as a supplement to, rather than a substitute for, other analytical debitage analysis techniques.

A probable on-site lithic trajectory was identified for quartzite, which is also a local material. This lithic trajectory consists of hard and soft hammer biface edging and thinning, soft hammer secondary biface thinning, final biface shaping by soft hammer and pressure-flaking, and edge rejuvenation/maintenance. Although quartzite is considered a local material, the debitage data indicate primary reduction of quartzite took place off-site. Most likely, both unfinished (e.g., flake blanks, preforms) and finished, or nearly finished, bifaces (PPKs) were transported to the site. This focus appears to be the same across the site.

A probable on-site lithic trajectory was also identified for extra-local material metarhyolite. This lithic trajectory consists of only final biface shaping by soft hammer and pressure-flaking and edge rejuvenation/maintenance. The presence of only finished bifaces (PPKs) and a lack of cores and unfinished bifaces suggest that prefabricated forms made of extra-local materials arrived on-site as finished or nearly finished bifaces (PPKs). This focus was probably the same across the site.

6.3.3.3 Historic Artifacts

In total, 3,468 historic artifacts were recovered from Locus C (Table 41; Appendices M, N, and O). The architectural group comprised roughly 45 percent of the assemblage, followed by the kitchen group at roughly 28 percent and the miscellaneous group at 11 percent. The remaining groups constitute 16 percent of the assemblage. While the architectural group dominates the historic artifact assemblage, a wide variety of artifacts were present that represent a full range of domestic activities at the site.

Table 41. Historic Artifact Summary

Group	Count	Percentage
Activities	83	2.39
Architectural	1,561	45.01
Arms	7	0.20
Clothing	95	2.74
Faunal	36	1.04
Floral	99	2.85
Furniture	157	4.53
Kitchen	1,005	28.98
Miscellaneous	382	11.01
Personal	36	1.04
Religious	3	0.09
Tobacco	3	0.09
Possible Prehistoric Debitage/Foundation Spall	1	0.03
Total	3,468	100.00

In addition to the historic artifacts, two prehistoric artifacts were recovered from Feature 2. These included a quartz flake and a Bare Island PPK (Late Archaic Period). Both exhibited evidence of thermal alteration that resulted from the house fire. Based on its association with other artifacts, the PPK will be discussed further in the Religious Group section below. The flake was considered an incidental inclusion. Its origin was unclear; because of the burned state

it could be a spall off one of the quartz foundation stones (i.e., possibly not prehistoric). Due to the problematic nature of this artifact, it will not be discussed further as part of the historic assemblage.

6.3.3.3.1 Activities Group

The activities group includes 83 artifacts related to assorted domestic tasks (Table 42). The artifacts in this group are divided into the following sub-groups: construction, miscellaneous hardware, music, sewing, stable and barn, storage items, and toys. The miscellaneous hardware sub-group includes a variety of items associated with tools, machines, or general farm or household activities.

Table 42. Activities Group Artifacts

Sub-group	Material	Form	Count
Construction tools	Iron	Adjustable monkey wrench	1
		Hammer	1
Miscellaneous hardware	Ceramic	Threaded tube	1
	Copper alloy	Cap	1
		Gear	1
		Rivet	1
		Strip	1
	Iron	Fastener (e.g., bolt, rivet, screw, washer)	27
		Fittings (e.g., angle iron, L-bracket)	4
		Lid	5
		Other (e.g., disc, rod, wire)	14
		Possible handle	1
	Railroad spike	1	
Rubber	Tube	1	
Music	Copper alloy	Harmonica part	2
Sewing	Copper alloy	Safety pin	1
	White metal	Safety pin	1
Stable and barn	Copper alloy	Buckle	1
	Iron	Possible buckle	2
Storage items	Iron	Can fragment	9
Toys	Ceramic	Marble	1
	Glass	Marble	1
	Iron	Toy truck	1
	Porcelain	Doll part	4
Total			83

6.3.3.3.2 Architectural Group

The architectural group includes artifacts associated with the building's fabric and construction, as well as architectural elements or permanent fixtures within the building (Table 43). The Locus C assemblage includes 20 brick fragments, three stoneware fragments from a possible

chimney pot, one ceramic doorknob fragment, 35 fragments of mortar or plaster, two tile fragments, one cut spike, and 757 pieces of window glass. The nails collected include 522 cut nails, 121 wire nails, and 103 unidentified nails. Cut nails were commonly available in Northeastern cities by 1800 and were in common use until 1920. Wire nails were patented in America in 1877 and are still in use today (Edwards and Wells 1993:18). The relative proportions of cut and wire nails recovered are consistent with a late nineteenth to early twentieth century date for the deposit. The vast majority (n=1498) of the architectural group artifacts were recovered from Feature 2; 18 were recovered from the Feature 1 area and the remaining artifacts were recovered in low densities across Locus C.

Table 43. Architectural Group Artifacts

Sub-group	Material	Form	Count
Brick	Brick	Fragment	20
Ceramic	Stoneware	Possible chimney pot	3
Door parts	Agateware	Doorknob	1
Mortar/plaster	Mortar	Fragment	25
	Plaster	Fragment	4
	Possible plaster	Fragment	6
Nails	Iron	Cut nail	522
		Wire nail	117
		Unidentified nail	103
Spikes	Iron	Cut spike	1
Window glass	Glass	Window	757
Other	Ceramic	Tile	1
	Glass	Tile	1
Total			1,561

6.3.3.3.3 Arms Group

The arms group includes six copper alloy shell casings (three shotgun, two .22 caliber, and one unidentified) and one lead alloy bullet (.38 caliber with copper alloy casing). The ammunition has a broad range of manufacturing dates, starting ca. 1850 and continuing to the present (Table 44). The .38-caliber bullet, .22 shell casings, shotgun shell casing, and unidentified shell casing were all recovered from Feature 2 contexts. The remaining two shotgun shell casings were recovered from STP N190 E560 and TU 6. The artifacts recovered from Feature 2 are likely related to the historic occupation, while the shell casing recovered from the STP (located on the floodplain) and artifacts from TU 6 may represent historic or modern activity.

Table 44. Caliber and Maker's Marks Date Ranges

Caliber	Mark	Date Range	Count
.22	Unmarked	1857–present	2
.38	Unmarked	1877–present	1
Shotgun cartridge	Unmarked	1850–present	3

Sources: Austin 1992; Barnes 2009; Farrar 2006; Miller 2000; Remington Arms Company 2010; Sandler 2006; Winchester Ammunition 2010

6.3.3.3.4 *Clothing Group*

In addition to 71 buttons, the clothing group includes three copper alloy buckles, one strap adjuster, seven grommets, 12 shoe parts, and one glass stud (Table 45). Approximately half of the buttons (n=35) are porcelain Prosser buttons; the remaining are bone, copper alloy, glass, iron, possible Bakelite, possible hard rubber, and unidentified metal. The majority of the clothing artifacts (n=79) are from Feature 2; the 10 leather and copper alloy shoe parts and a buckle are from an STP (N197 E590) located immediately south of Feature 1. The remaining six artifacts were recovered from non-feature contexts.

Table 45. Clothing Group Artifacts

Sub-group	Material	Form	Count
Buckles	Copper alloy	Buckle	3
Buttons	Bone	Button	3
	Copper alloy	Button	5
	Glass	Button	2
	Iron	Button	7
	Porcelain	Button	35
	Possible Bakelite	Button	1
	Possible hard rubber	Button	1
	Shell	Button	16
	Unidentified metal	Button	1
Studs	Glass	Stud	1
Fasteners	Iron	Strap adjuster	1
Shoes	Leather	Possible shoe part	1
		Shoe part	1
	Leather and copper alloy	Shoe part	10
Other	Copper alloy	Grommet	7
Total			95

6.3.3.3.5 *Kitchen Group*

The kitchen group includes a variety of artifacts associated with food storage, preparation, and serving (Table 46). The assemblage includes 582 glass fragments and 417 ceramic fragments; in addition, one possible iron teakettle spout, one iron jar lid, one cork bottle stopper, one bone utensil handle fragment, and two spoons were recovered.

Table 46. Kitchen Group Artifacts

Sub-group	Material	Form	Count
Ceramic	Refined earthenwares		249
	Coarse earthenwares		1
	Porcelain		23
	Stonewares		73
	Unidentified ceramic		71
Kitchenware	Iron	Possible teakettle spout	1

Sub-group	Material	Form	Count
Tableware	Bone	Utensil handle	1
	Possible silver plate	Spoon	1
	Unidentified metal	Spoon	1
Glassware	Glass	Table glass	3
		Tumbler	14
Bottles/jars	Glass	Bottle	29
		Jar	7
		Lid liner	2
	Iron	Jar lid	1
	Cork	Stopper	1
Medicine bottles	Glass	Medicine bottle	3
Glass fragments	Glass	Fragment	524
Total			1,005

6.3.3.3.5.1 Ceramics

The ceramic sub-group includes 417 fragments from a variety of wares, representing a variety of forms (Table 47). The unidentified ceramics are so heavily damaged from burning that they could not be assigned to a ware group with confidence. Of the identifiable ware fragments (n=304), whiteware comprises the majority of the ceramic assemblage at 48 percent, followed by stoneware at 24 percent, and white granite at 12.8 percent; the remaining identifiable wares comprise 15.2 percent of the kitchen ceramic sub-group.

Table 47. Kitchen Ceramic Sub-group Summary

Material	Form	Count
Nottingham	Unidentified vessel	1
Creamware	Fragment	8
	Unidentified vessel	1
Whiteware	Bowl	10
	Cup	1
	Fragment	89
	Plate	17
	Saucer	29
White granite	Baker	3
	Bowl	15
	Cup	1
	Fragment	8
	Plate	11
	Platter	1
Whiteware/White granite	Fragment	37
Yellowware	Fragment	10
Rockingham	Fragment	3
Porcelain	Cup	3

Material	Form	Count
Porcelain	Fragment	8
	Plate	9
	Possible pitcher	1
	Saucer	2
Stoneware	Batter bowl	12
	Crock	10
	Fragment	36
	Jug	12
	Possible jug	3
Refined earthenware	Bowl	1
	Fragment	3
Coarse earthenware	Jar	1
Unidentified ceramic	Bowl	4
	Fragment	67
Total		417

Manufacturing dates span the eighteenth through twentieth centuries (Table 48). The earliest wares, creamware (n=9) and Nottingham (n=1), are small fragments present in very low numbers. These ceramics date from the site's use as a slave quarter before the Civil War. The majority of the diagnostic ceramics are whiteware (n=146) that dates to the nineteenth or twentieth centuries. Rockingham (n=3), white granite (n=39), domestic stoneware (n=39), and yellowware (n=10) were manufactured in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Ceramics with a decal decoration (porcelain, n=7, and whiteware, n=13) were manufactured in the twentieth century. The vast majority of the ceramics reflect the site's use in the mid-nineteenth through early twentieth centuries, ending ca. 1915, when the house burned.

Table 48. Manufacturing Dates for Ceramic Wares

Ware	Date Range*	Count
Nottingham	1683–1810	1
Stoneware, gray paste, painted blue decoration	1705–1930	10
Creamware	1762–1820	9
Porcelain	18 th century–present	16
Stoneware, buff or gray paste with Albany slip	1805–1920	29
Whiteware	1820–present	124
Whiteware with blue transfer printed decoration	1820–present	7
Whiteware with painted decoration (chrome colors)	1830–present	4
Rockingham	1830–1940	3
Yellowware	1830–1940	10
White granite	1842–1930	39
Porcelain with decal decoration	1908–present	7
Whiteware with decal decoration	1908–present	13

*Source: Miller 2000

The Locus C assemblage includes a variety of identified ceramic vessel forms (Table 49). Food storage vessels include 10 stoneware crock fragments, one coarse earthenware jar fragment, 12 stoneware jug fragments, and three stoneware possible jug fragments. Food preparation vessels include three white granite baker fragments and 12 stoneware batter bowl fragments. Serving vessels include 33 bowl fragments in unidentified ceramic, refined earthenware, white granite, and whiteware; these sherds represent at least four individual vessels. Five cup fragments in porcelain, white granite, and whiteware were identified. The 37 plate fragments include porcelain, white granite, and whiteware; these sherds represent at least four individual vessels. One fragment of a white granite platter and one fragment of a possible porcelain pitcher were also recovered. A total of 31 saucer fragments in porcelain and whiteware were collected; the porcelain sherds represent at least two individual vessels.

Table 49. Ceramic Vessel Forms

Form	Ware	Count*	Comment
Baker	White granite	3	
Batter bowl	Stoneware	12	
Bowl	Ceramic	4	
	Refined earthenware	1	
	White granite	15	From at least two vessels
	Whiteware	10	From at least two vessels
Crock	Stoneware	10	
Cup	Porcelain	3	
	White granite	1	
	Whiteware	1	
Jar	Coarse earthenware	1	
Jug	Stoneware	12	
Plate	Porcelain	9	
	White granite	11	From at least two vessels
	Whiteware	17	From at least two vessels
Platter	White granite	1	
Possible jug	Stoneware	3	
Possible pitcher	Porcelain	1	
Saucer	Porcelain	2	From at least two vessels
	Whiteware	29	
Unidentified vessel	Creamware	1	
	Nottingham	1	

*Represents sherd count, not vessel count

The assemblage includes a porcelain plate base with an identifiable maker's mark. The transfer printed mark includes the text, "SEMI-VITREOUS PORCELAIN / K.T. & K. CO.", with an eagle and monogram. It was used by the Knowles, Taylor & Knowles pottery of East Liverpool, Ohio, between 1872 and 1904 (Lehner 1988:238). Other maker's marks include: one whiteware plate fragment marked with a wreath; one white granite plate fragment marked, "ROYAL IRONSTONE CHINA"; one white granite plate fragment marked, "...N & SEDDON"; and one

unidentified ceramic fragment stamped, “HOTEL.” These marks were either too fragmentary or too generic to identify the maker and dates of manufacture.

6.3.3.3.5.2 Glass

Three sub-groups of glass and associated artifacts were used: glassware; bottles and jars; and glass fragments (Table 46). The glassware sub-group includes table glass and glass tumblers. The table glass includes three fragments with molded designs; the artifacts were too small to identify their forms. The 14 tumbler fragments were likely “commercial containers sold originally filled with contents such as peanut butter, jelly, mustard, and so on” and re-used as a tumbler or drinking glass (Jones and Sullivan 1985:143).

The bottles and jars sub-group includes glass bottles and jars, lid liners, lids, and stoppers. Of the 29 glass bottles, 11 were blown-in-mold and 18 were automatic machine-made. The blown-in-mold bottles likely dated to the late nineteenth or early twentieth century. The automatic machine-made bottle glass fragments recovered were manufactured after 1903 (Miller 2000:8). Of these, 12 fragments mended to form a bottle base embossed with, “FEDERAL LAW FORBIDS SALE OR RE-USE OF THIS BOTTLE”, that can be dated to between 1933 and 1964 (Miller 2000:8). This bottle base dates after the period of abandonment (ca. 1915) and may represent incidental trash discard by landowners or other persons. The seven jar fragments are automatic machine-made glass dating after 1903 (Miller 2000:8); the two lid liners also likely date to the twentieth century. One iron jar lid and one cork bottle stopper fragment were also identified but are not temporally diagnostic. The glass fragments sub-group includes artifacts too small or fragmentary to be positively identified as bottles, jars, or drinking glasses. No manufacturing information or temporally diagnostic attributes were obtained from these artifacts (n=524).

The glass assemblage presents a range of colors (Table 50). The color of glass is not a definitive dating indicator because any color could have been made at any time. Glass color can be used as a supporting indicator, however, because certain colors were more commonly manufactured during certain periods. For example, olive glass generally dates to the eighteenth to mid-nineteenth century, aquamarine (aqua) glass to the nineteenth to early twentieth century, and brown and green glass to the mid-nineteenth century to the present (Lindsey 2010). Colorless glass was most commonly manufactured during the twentieth century. Solarized glass (glass decolorized with manganese dioxide and turned amethyst or purple by UV light) dates from the 1880s until the end of World War I (Lindsey 2010). The predominance of colorless glass, along with the range of colors of other glass, is indicative of a late nineteenth to early twentieth century assemblage.

Table 50. Kitchen Glass Color

Color	Count
Amber	11
Aqua	113
Black	2
Blue	2
Bright green	21
Brown	57
Colorless	292

Color	Count
Colorless, solarized	49
Green	6
Light green	19
Olive green	2
Teal	1
White	3
Unknown	4
Total	582

6.3.3.3.6 Faunal Group

Locus C faunal remains include 34 bone fragments and two teeth fragments (Table 51; Appendix M). These include domesticated species, such as chicken (n=4) and hog or pig (n=3), as well as wild species, such as rabbit (n=2). The remaining specimens (n=27) are unidentified bird, mammal, and vertebrate remains. The unidentified remains could represent food waste or incidental inclusion.

Table 51. Faunal Group Artifacts

Material	Common Name	Scientific Name	Count
Bone	Chicken	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	4
	Hog or pig	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	2
	Unidentified bird	n/a	6
	Unidentified large mammal	n/a	7
	Unidentified medium- large mammal	n/a	4
	Unidentified rabbit	n/a	2
	Unidentified small mammal	n/a	1
	Unidentified vertebrate	n/a	8
Tooth	Hog or pig	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	2
Total			36

6.3.3.3.7 Floral Group

The floral group includes nutshell (n=8) and wood (n=91) fragments that were recovered from excavated contexts (i.e., not from flotation). All represent species native to the Eastern United States (Table 52; Appendix N). With the exception of the oak, all specimens are charred. The black walnut (n=5) and hickory (n=3) nutshell represent food remains. The American chestnut (n=81) appears to represent structural elements of the house. The pine could represent either structural elements (e.g., flooring) or furniture remains. The oak and basswood likely represent furniture or other wooden household objects.

Table 52. Floral Group Artifacts

Material	Common Name	Scientific Name	Count
Nutshell	Black walnut	<i>Juglans nigra</i>	5
	Hickory	<i>Carya</i> sp.	3
Wood	American chestnut	<i>Castanea dentata</i>	81
	Pine	<i>Pinus</i> sp.	7
	cf. Basswood	cf. <i>Tilia americana</i>	1
	Oak - white oak group	<i>Quercus</i> sp. (Leucobalanus group)	1
	Pine family	Pinaceae	1
Total			99

6.3.3.3.8 Furniture Group

The furniture group includes a variety of items used or displayed within the house (Table 53). In total, 157 artifacts are assigned to this group. Of note are the 72 fragments of punched or pierced pie safe panels. The fragments were made from an unidentified metal, possibly an iron alloy. They appear to be from a single piece of furniture, as they exhibit the same punched or pierced decoration. Five cast iron stove part fragments (three damper fragments, a leg, and a pipe ring) were identified, as were six iron possible stove parts and five pieces of mica that may have been part of a stove door. The knickknacks include one bisque fragment and one possible figurine fragment.

Table 53. Furniture Group Artifacts

Sub-group	Material	Form	Count
Clocks	Iron	Clock key	1
Hardware	Iron	Hinge	2
	Iron	Possible caster	1
Knickknacks	Porcelain	Fragment	2
Lighting	Glass	Lamp chimney	4
	Glass	Lighting	59
Pie safe	Unidentified metal	Pie safe panel fragment	72
Stove	Iron	Possible stove part	6
	Iron	Stove part	5
	Mica	Possible stove part	5
Total			157

6.3.3.3.9 Miscellaneous Group

The miscellaneous group includes artifacts that, due to their fragmentary or burned condition, are unidentifiable in terms of original use or function (Table 54). The 20 glass conglomerates are melted glass fused with other materials, such as mortar, ceramics, or iron nails.

Table 54. Miscellaneous Group Artifacts

Material	Form	Count
Copper alloy	Fragment	8
Glass	Conglomerate	20
	Fragment	180
Iron	Fragment	164
Lead alloy	Fragment	1
Plastic	Fragment	1
Possible caulking	Fragment	1
Slate	Fragment	5
Unidentified material	Fragment	1
White metal	Fragment	1
Total		382

6.3.3.3.10 Personal Group

Thirty-nine artifacts were assigned to the personal group (Table 55). Seven of the 12 pennies had legible dates: 1881, 1888, 1890, 1900, 1903 (n=2), and 1907. The nickel was minted between 1884 and 1913, the dimes are dated 1892 and 1900, and the quarter is dated 1903. The medicine bottles include three blown-in-mold base fragments that likely date to the late nineteenth or early twentieth century. No maker's marks are present.

Table 55. Personal Group Artifacts

Sub-group	Material	Form	Count
Coins	Copper alloy	Penny	12
	Nickel alloy	Nickel	1
	Silver alloy	Dime	2
	Silver alloy	Quarter	1
Eyeglasses	Glass	Eyeglass lens	3
Jewelry	Ceramic	Bead	1
	Glass	Cabochon	1
	Possible garnet	Bead	1
	White metal	Watch case face	2
Keys	Copper alloy	Key	1
Medical Bottles	Glass	Bottles	3
Medical	Glass	Vial	2
Other	Copper alloy	Ferrule	1
Stationery	Copper alloy or white metal	Pencil ferrule	2
	Slate	Pencil	2
Toiletries	Possible celluloid	Hair barrette	2
	Stoneware	Chamber pot	1
	White granite	Ointment jar	1
Total			39

6.3.3.3.11 Religious Group

Three artifacts were assigned to this group, including a quartz crystal, quartz projectile point, and Christian medallion. The quartz crystal and projectile point were recovered from Feature 2 in TU 5 (located on the interior north foundation wall). These artifacts were recovered near the north wall from separate 10-cm (0.33-ft) levels. Artifacts such as these are well documented across the Mid-Atlantic and Southeast in association with African American contexts, at both antebellum sites and post-Emancipation sites. They are indicative of West African-derived spiritual practices.

The other artifact was an Infant of Prague medallion recovered from Feature 2 on the south side of the house foundation. This medallion was a devotional medal worn by practitioners of the Catholic faith. Its importance to the site's inhabitants is unknown, as their religious affiliation appears to have been either Methodist Episcopal or Baptist.

6.3.3.3.12 Tobacco Group

The tobacco group includes one ball clay pipe bowl fragment and two ball clay pipe stem fragments. Neither stem had a measurable bore diameter; one stem fragment had incised lines.

6.3.3.4 Feature Artifacts and Artifact Distribution

Roughly 80 percent of the historic artifacts recovered during the Phase II study were from Feature 2 (Table 56). The remaining artifacts were from the Feature 1 area (5 percent), TU 6/artifact dump area (11 percent), and from general or non-feature contexts (4 percent) across Locus C.

Table 56. Historic Artifact Counts by Context

Artifact Group	Fea. 2/ House	Fea. 1 Area	TU 6 Area	Other*	Total
Architectural	1,498	18	24	21	1,561
Kitchen	447	100	348	110	1,005
Faunal	34			2	36
Floral	99				99
Furniture	112	31	10	4	157
Clothing	81	11	2	1	95
Personal	29	4	2	1	36
Religious	3				3
Activities	72	5	3	3	83
Tobacco	3				3
Arms	5		1	1	7
Miscellaneous	375	1	3	3	382
Total	2,758	170	393	146	3,467

*Includes STP and TU contexts scattered across Locus C

6.4 SITE 18MO609 EVALUATION

The goals of the Phase II evaluation were to assess the prehistoric and historic components of the site for their eligibility for listing on the NRHP and to define the specific criteria of eligibility, as applicable. To accomplish these goals, the following tasks were completed: vertical and horizontal site boundaries were defined; the cultural affiliation and function of the different

components were identified; and the integrity and significance of the deposits were evaluated. All work was conducted in accordance with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966 as amended, (16 U.S.C. 470a), the National Environmental Policy Act of 1969 (Public Law 91-190), and the Maryland Historical Trust Act of 1985 (State Finance and Procurement Article 5A-325 and 5A-326 of the Annotated Code of Maryland).

The archaeological resources were evaluated in relation to the significance criteria established by the NRHP. The purpose of the NRHP is to list properties that are “significant in American history, architecture, archeology and culture” (NHPA Section 101 [a][1]). Typically, archaeological sites are determined eligible based on Criterion (d), though other criteria may apply as well. Per the NRHP criteria for evaluation:

The quality of significance in American history, architecture, archeology, engineering, and culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association and

- (a) that are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or
- (b) that are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or
- (c) that embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction, or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or
- (d) that have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history (36 CFR Part 60.4).

The site was comprised of three loci (A, B, and C). Loci A and B contain prehistoric components, and Locus C contains both prehistoric and historic components. Evaluation of each component follows.

6.4.1 PREHISTORIC COMPONENT

The prehistoric components of site 18MO609 represent a series of short-term resource procurement camps dating from the Middle Archaic (6000–3500 B.C.) through the Late Woodland (A.D. 900–1600) Periods. The site is approximately 4.5 ha (11 ac) in size. Its location along Fairland Branch and the presence of quartz cobbles and boulders on the ground surface provided water, food, and lithic resources that would have attracted prehistoric groups.

In total, 218 prehistoric artifacts, including PPKs, tools, cores, debitage, and fire-cracked rock (FCR), were recovered from the Phase I survey. During the Phase II evaluation, 326 prehistoric artifacts, including PPKs, tools, cores, and debitage were recovered. Diagnostic artifacts include one PPK dating to either the Middle Archaic or Early Woodland Period (Morrow Mountain or Piscataway type), one Dry Brook phase PPK dating to the Late/Transitional Archaic Period, and one triangular PPK dating to the Late Woodland Period. No FCR or prehistoric ceramics were recovered during the Phase II study. In addition, no prehistoric features were identified during either the Phase I or II studies.

The prehistoric artifacts were recovered in low densities from excavated contexts across the three loci. Artifacts were recovered from A and E Horizons; in some portions of the site (e.g., Locus A), the E Horizon may represent an old plowzone. In others areas of the site (e.g., Loci B and C), the soils appear deflated or eroded. Differentiating the temporal components from excavated contexts was not possible due to the lack of stratified, datable deposits. The diagnostic artifacts identified during both the Phase I and II studies were recovered from the ground surface, further indicating that plowing and soil deflation had occurred.

Results of the lithic analysis show all stages of lithic reduction and biface production occurred on the site; however, differentiating which of these activities was associated with the different temporal components was not possible due to the lack of vertical integrity and paucity of diagnostic artifacts.

The first three NRHP eligibility criteria were not applicable to the prehistoric components of site 18MO609. The paucity of diagnostic artifacts, lack of features, and lack of vertical integrity severely limited the research potential of the prehistoric components. It was unlikely that additional archaeological investigation would yield information important to prehistory (Criterion (d)). As a result, the prehistoric components did not contribute to the eligibility of the site.

6.4.2 HISTORIC COMPONENT

The historic component was confined to Locus C and dates from the nineteenth century to the early twentieth century. The Phase I survey noted a disturbed foundation and bottle dump. In total, 41 artifacts were collected during the Phase I survey. The Phase II evaluation resulted in identification of the fieldstone house foundation (Feature 3) and associated burn layers (Feature 2), a possible cellar (Feature 1), and subsurface sheet refuse/artifact concentrations. In total, 3,466 historic artifacts were recovered during the Phase II study. In addition, two prehistoric artifacts were recovered from Feature 2; one of these was a quartz projectile point recovered with a quartz crystal, which are indicators of African American occupation and West African-derived spiritual practices.

Historic documents indicate the property was owned and occupied by an African American woman, Malinda Adams Jackson, or her children between approximately 1869 and 1917 (Ancestry.com 2010; MSA, MC Land Records, Liber EBP6, 367, 1869). Malinda Jackson and her children very likely occupied the site while they were enslaved to the Zachariah Downs family. As a result, occupation of the site could go back to the first quarter of the nineteenth century.

Archaeological and indirect historical evidence indicate the house burned ca. 1915. The archaeological deposits in the foundation area consist of a 10- to 20-cm (0.33- to 0.66-ft) thick burn layer (Feature 2), containing architectural, kitchen, household, and a large quantity of personal items (e.g., buttons and coins). The variety and kind of artifacts indicate the house burned while still occupied by the descendants of Malinda Jackson, as discussed in the Chapter 3 Historic Context.

Additional excavations of the intact house, cellar, and yard deposits were expected to yield information regarding the Jackson family, as well as information about post-Civil War African American lifeways in rural Montgomery County, Maryland. There was also the potential for the

site to provide data on gender issues related to the 1870s occupation by Malinda Jackson. The historic component falls within the agriculture theme outlined in the Maryland Comprehensive Historic Preservation Plan (Weissman 1986). In addition, the historic component falls within the following Maryland historic contexts: Agricultural/Industrial Transition (A.D. 1815–1870) and Industrial/Urban Dominance (A.D. 1870–1930). The artifact assemblage appears to primarily date from ca. 1870 to 1915, and falls mostly within the Industrial/Urban Dominance context.

The data derived from the artifacts, their spatial relationships, and the historic records indicate site 18MO609 has the potential to contribute important information on the local and regional history of rural central Maryland (Criterion (d)). The site is, therefore, recommended as eligible for inclusion on the NRHP. Based on the plans for ICC construction, 18MO609 would be adversely impacted by construction of the interchange with US 29 (Figure 3). Construction of the interchange would require extensive cutting and filling, subsurface excavation, and massive ground clearance. Based on the current plans, it is estimated that 100 percent of the site would be disturbed or destroyed by the proposed construction. The excavation of a sample of these data, attendant analyses, and presentation of the results of such mitigative data recovery was a desirable treatment option for this historic property. As a result, Phase III data recovery was recommended as the best option to mitigate the adverse effects caused by construction of the ICC. A Data Recovery Plan was prepared and submitted to the SHA and MHT for approval. The plan was approved prior to Phase III field investigations.

7.0 RESULTS OF THE PHASE III FIELD INVESTIGATIONS

SHA determined, in consultation with MHT, that site 18MO609 was eligible for listing on the NRHP. Based on the Phase II evaluation, the prehistoric components of the site were not considered significant and did not contribute to the eligibility of the site. The historic component of the site, however, was considered significant and eligible to the NRHP under Criterion d, with its significance deriving from its information potential.

Construction plans for the ICC included an interchange at the site's location (Figure 3). The construction would cause adverse effects to the site and, since avoidance was not possible, a Phase III data recovery was determined to be an appropriate treatment for the site. The Phase III investigations focused on the historic component at Locus C, known as the Jackson homestead. The Jackson homestead is approximately 0.17 ha (0.4 acre) in size. Phase III investigations focused on the house foundation (Structure A), possible cellar (Structure B), small domestic structure (Structure C) and, to a lesser degree, yard areas (Figures 50 through 55). The Data Recovery Plan specified excavation of TUs to investigate cultural features and yard areas, and a geophysical survey of the yard areas around Structure A to identify potentially buried cultural features (Appendix B).

The Data Recovery Plan specified that no more than 30 TUs be excavated within the yard areas. The plan also included excavating 100 percent of the house (Structure A, Features 2 and 3). It was estimated that no more than 65 TUs would be excavated. Changes to the plan during the course of the investigation were necessary to account for unanticipated finds. As a result, 118 TUs and 23 STPs were excavated during Phase III investigations.

Two unanticipated discoveries during the Phase III investigations necessitated altering the data recovery plan to include additional excavation. First, based on the results of the Phase II evaluation, Structure A was believed to be a single-pen structure with a chimney on its east side. Initial Phase III excavation revealed a second room on the east side of the structure which was determined to be the original single-pen slave cabin and associated cellar. The estimated 20 TUs that were planned to cover 100 percent of the interior of the structure were amended to 37, and additional TUs were excavated on the exterior of the structure (n=23) to account for the enlarged structure size. In total, 60 TUs were excavated to investigate Structure A.

The second discovery was located approximately 60 m (197 ft) north of the house and consisted of stone piers visible on the ground surface. This feature appeared to be the remains of a small domestic structure (Structure C, Feature 13) that was not identified during the Phase I survey and was outside the Phase II study area. The Data Recovery Plan was amended to include excavating 19 STPs to fill in the grid between the house and Structure C, and 18 TUs to investigate the Structure C area. An additional four STPs were excavated to the east and south of Structure C to fill out the grid, and to ensure that there were no additional features overlooked during the Phase I and II investigations.

The excavation of additional TUs in the Structures A and C areas was offset by a reduction in the number of TUs necessary to investigate the possible cellar (Structure B, Feature 1). The data recovery plan specified excavation of no more than eight TUs for the Feature 1 area; however, as little meaningful data was gathered from the disturbed deposits identified during initial excavation, the number of TUs was reduced. Four Phase III TUs were excavated in the Structure

B area; three within the feature itself and one in the artifact concentration adjacent to its south side.

Including the Phase II data, 118 TUs and 59 STPs were excavated in the Locus C historic component (Figure 50). Table 57 summarizes the Phase II and III excavations for the three structures and yard areas. The following discussion of the Phase III results incorporates the Phase II data to provide a comprehensive overview of the archaeology.

Table 57. Summary of Phase II and III Excavations for the Jackson Homestead

Area	Ph. II		Ph. III	
	STPs	TUs	STPs	TUs
Structure A, main house	1	3		57
Structure B, possible domestic cellar	5	1		4
Structure C, small domestic structure			14	18
North yard	16	1	5	17
South yard	7	1		6
East yard	3		4	6
West yard	4			4
Other*	13	2		
Total	49	8	23	112

*Note: includes areas where artifacts were displaced due to slopewash

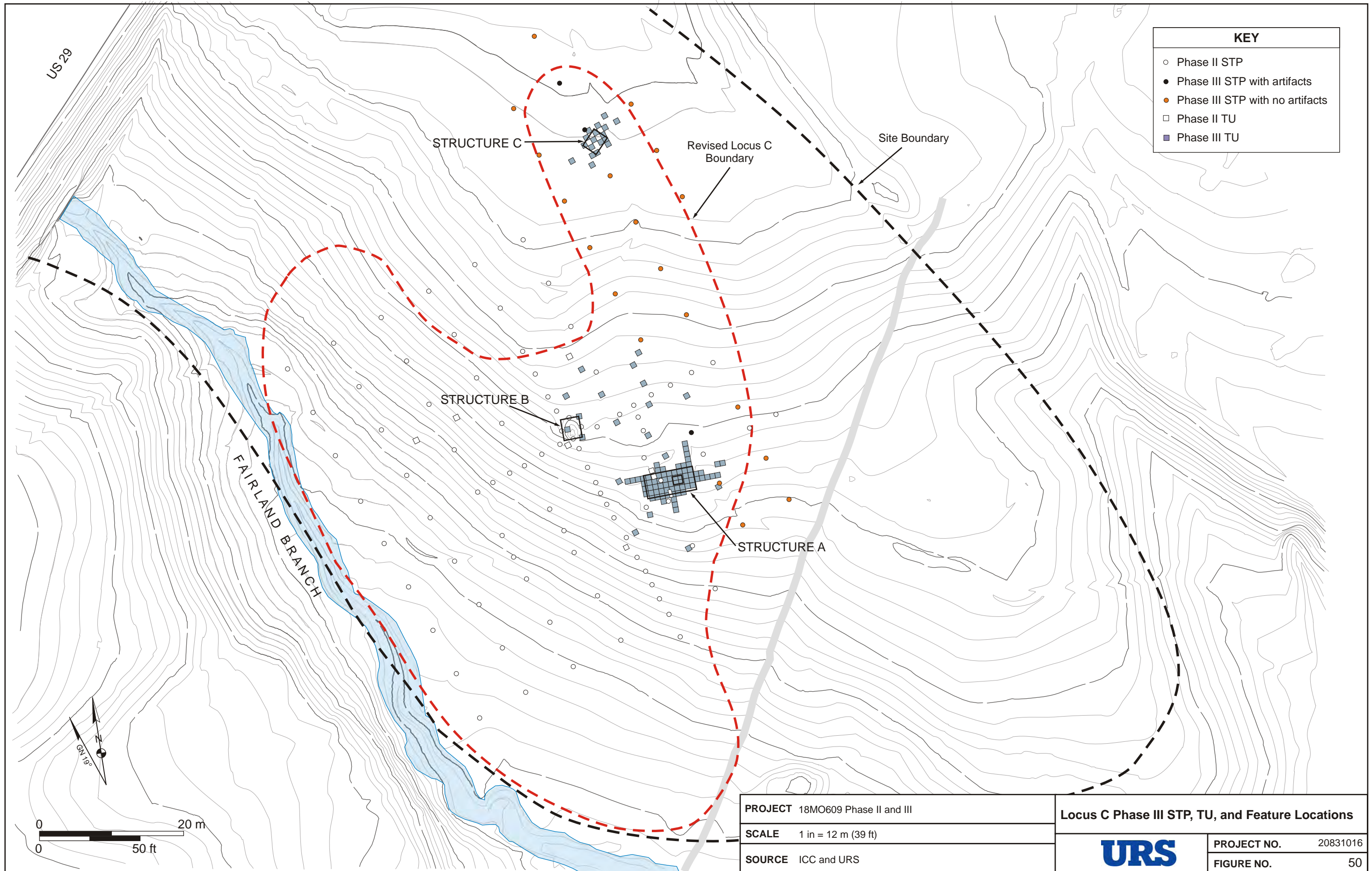
7.1 RESULTS OF THE GEOPHYSICAL SURVEY

A grid was established across the areas of Structures A and B. The grid measured 40 x 20 m (131.2 x 65.6 ft) with 1-m (3.28-ft) transects spacing, which yielded 800 linear m (lm; 2,624.67 linear ft [lf]) of survey (Figure 56). Depth to the anomaly reflector (i.e., subsurface anomaly detected by the GPR) is measured in cm.

The ground was cleared of any large rocks, stumps, or deadfall that would cause ground coupling issues with the GPR antenna. Several animal burrows were noted and mapped, so any voids recorded would not be misinterpreted as potential anomalies. Large trees or stumps were noted and mapped, so bioturbation associated with their roots could be accounted for in the survey data. Each survey transect was carefully walked to ensure complete survey coverage and good ground coupling with the antenna (Figures 57 and 58).

The survey transects ran in an east-west orientation, beginning at the N210 E590 corner and moving bidirectional to the southeastern corner located at N170 E610. The area of active excavation (i.e., the western portion of Structure A) was not surveyed with the GPR due to the TUs and back dirt piles blocking the survey transects.

The northwestern portion of the block was dominated by Structure B, which had several small to medium trees growing along its edge. Minor bioturbation was recorded with typical reflector depths (root zone) between 26 cm (10 in) for the smaller trees to up to 52 cm (20 in) for the larger trees. The northeastern portion of the survey follows the tree line and, as a result, was dominated by root zone bioturbation. This area of disturbance measured approximately 15 x 6 m (49 x 20 ft), with average reflector depths of 30 to 40 cm (11.8 to 15.7 in).



KEY	
○	Phase II STP
●	Phase III STP with artifacts
●	Phase III STP with no artifacts
□	Phase II TU
■	Phase III TU

PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III
SCALE	1 in = 12 m (39 ft)
SOURCE	ICC and URS


Locus C Phase III STP, TU, and Feature Locations	
URS	PROJECT NO. 20831016
	FIGURE NO. 50



Figure 51. Structure A Excavation Overview Facing Southeast



Figure 52. Structure A Excavation Overview Facing Southwest

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Project Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 51 and 52



**Figure 53. Structure A Overview Facing Northwest
(Feature 4 chimney rubble in foreground)**




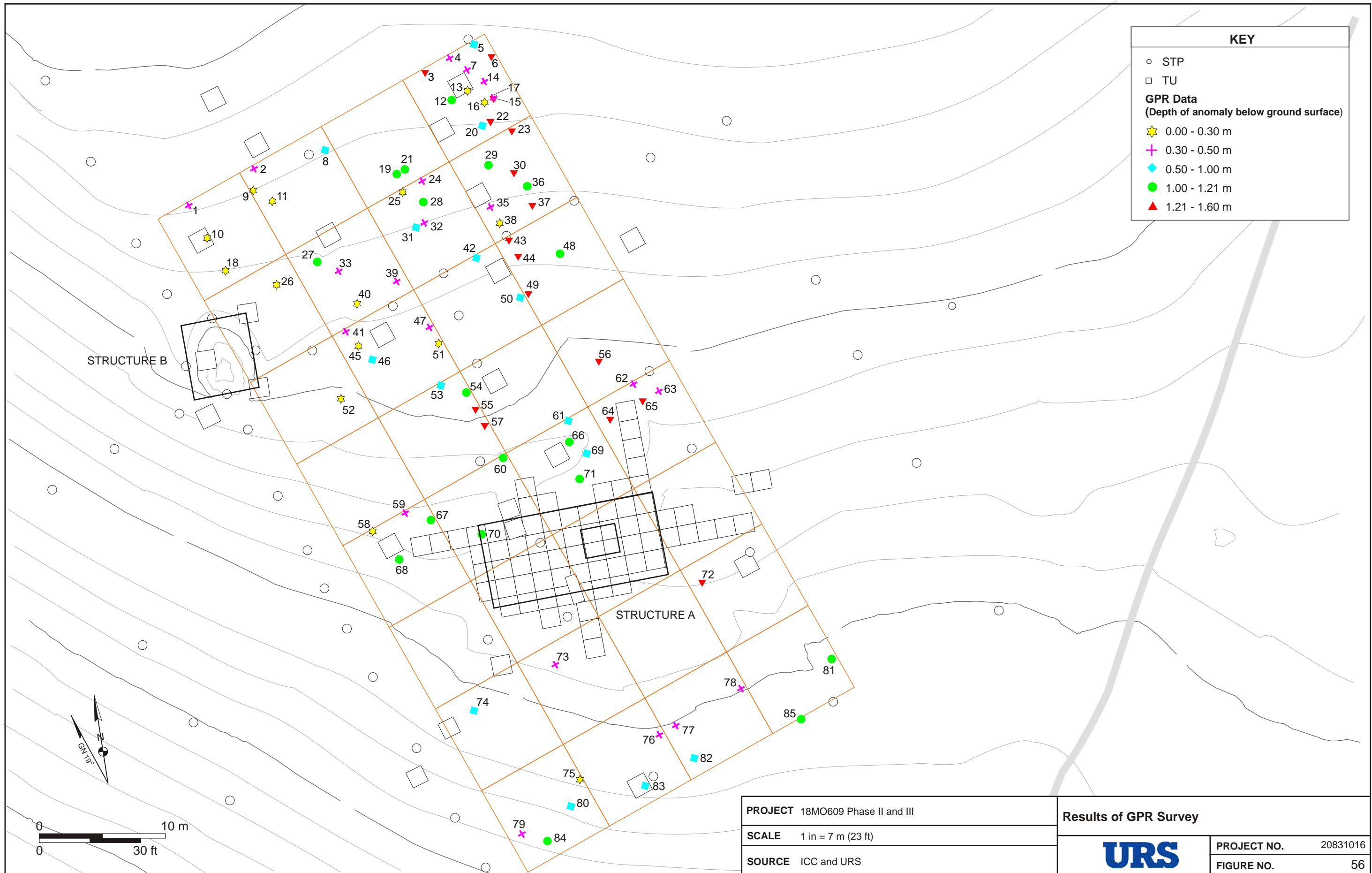
**Figure 54. Structure B Excavation Overview Facing Northwest
(note modern garbage removed from Feature 1 in center of photograph)**

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Project Photographs	
SCALE N/A		
SOURCE URS	FIGURE NO. 53 and 54	



Figure 55. Structure C Excavation Overview Facing North

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Project Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 55



KEY	
○	STP
□	TU
GPR Data (Depth of anomaly below ground surface)	
★	0.00 - 0.30 m
✦	0.30 - 0.50 m
◆	0.50 - 1.00 m
●	1.00 - 1.21 m
▲	1.21 - 1.60 m

PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III
SCALE	1 in = 7 m (23 ft)
SOURCE	ICC and URS


Results of GPR Survey	
URS	PROJECT NO. 20831016
	FIGURE NO. 56



Figure 57. GPR Survey Overview Facing South



Figure 58. GPR Survey Overview Facing Northeast
(note Structure A excavation in foreground)

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Project Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 57 and 58

In the vicinity of N195 E600, near the center of the study block, there was an area of animal burrows measuring 3 x 4 m (9.84 x 13.12 ft), at depths of 50 to 60 cm (1.64 to 1.97 ft). A large woodchuck burrow was recorded at this location, with the resultant voids and reflectors. The area between N190 E605 and N190 E610 had a number of buried reflectors from 56 to 71 cm (1.84 to 2.33 ft) that were thought to be moderately deeply buried tree roots and associated bioturbation. This pattern of moderately deep reflectors in association with larger older growth trees was recorded across the site, and is noted on other sites investigated via GPR.

The southern border of the study block followed a natural tree line that consisted of medium to large trees with moderately deep reflectors (76–83 cm [2.49–2.72 ft]) that were thought to be associated with root disturbance. This portion of the study block also sloped down to the south along a natural drainage, where soil creep and down slope movement of eroded soils (i.e., mass wasting) may have contributed to the depth of burial of the recorded reflector.

Particular attention was given to the GPR data adjacent to Structure A in hopes of recording voids or surfaces associated with outbuildings, wells, privies, or pathways. The GPR survey identified six areas of reflectors or disturbances that upon investigations appeared to be associated with natural processes such as tree root bioturbation, animal burrowing, and some slight mass wasting.

No buried cultural features were recorded during the GPR survey. This suggests that outbuildings may have been of an impermanent nature and did not leave archaeological traces. It is also possible that features, such as a privy, were located outside the area of investigation.

7.2 YARD AREA EXCAVATIONS

Thirty-five TUs and 36 STPs were excavated in yard areas; these did not include TUs excavated around the immediate exterior of Structure A (Figure 59). Fourteen of the TUs were excavated as trenches extending from the house. The TUs contained few prehistoric artifacts; the quantity of historic artifacts varied according to proximity to the features (Table 58). Five TUs contained no artifacts. The yard areas were labeled north, south, east, and west, based on their orientation to Structure A, the main house.

The areas north and east of the house were on gently sloping terrain that shows relatively little disturbance and more stable soil development. Areas west and south of the house, however, were located on steeper slopes that had been affected by erosion and showed truncated profiles.

A summary of the data for each yard area follows. A discussion of the spatial distribution of artifacts from the yard areas appears in the Interpretations chapter later in this report.

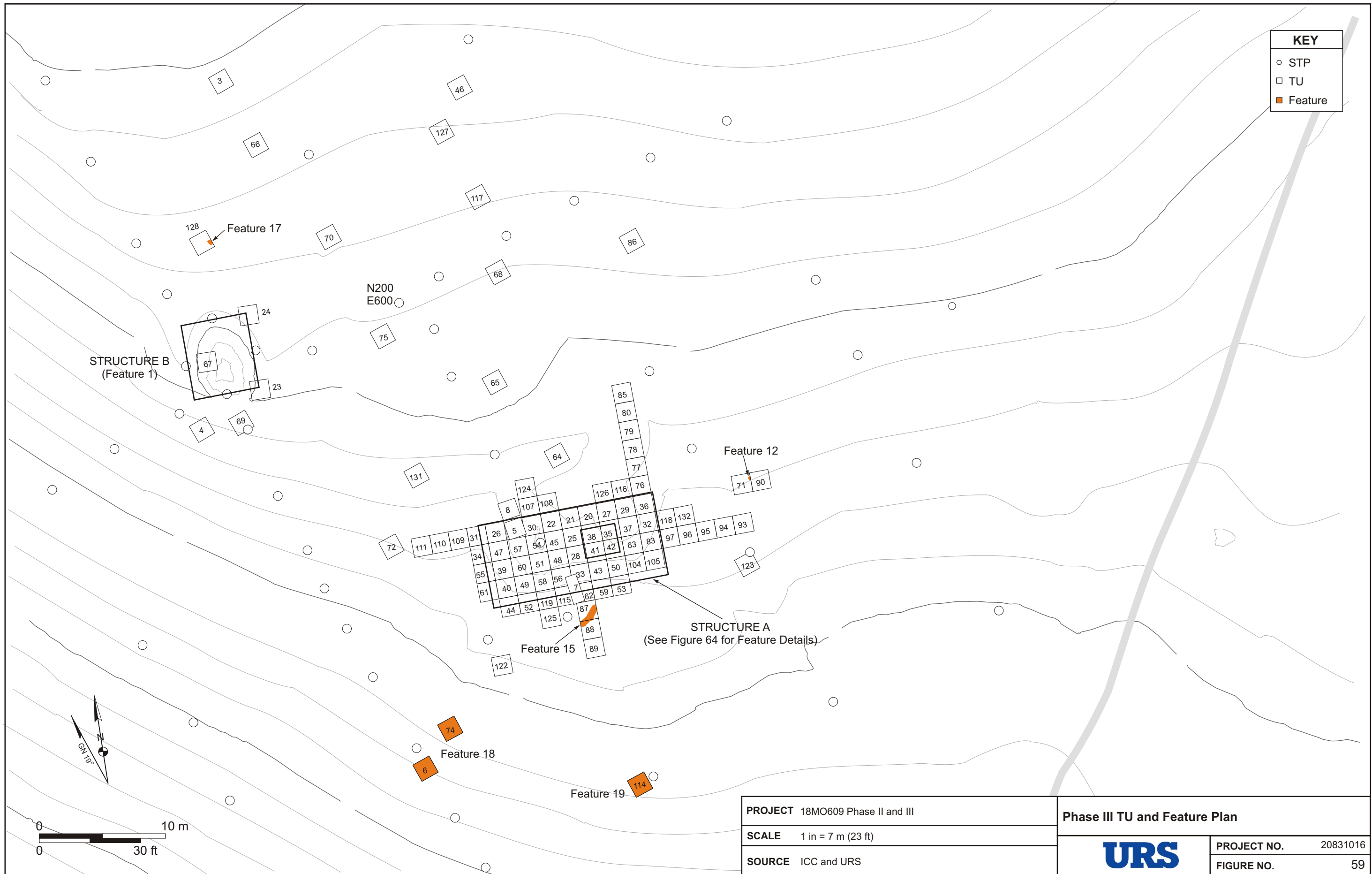


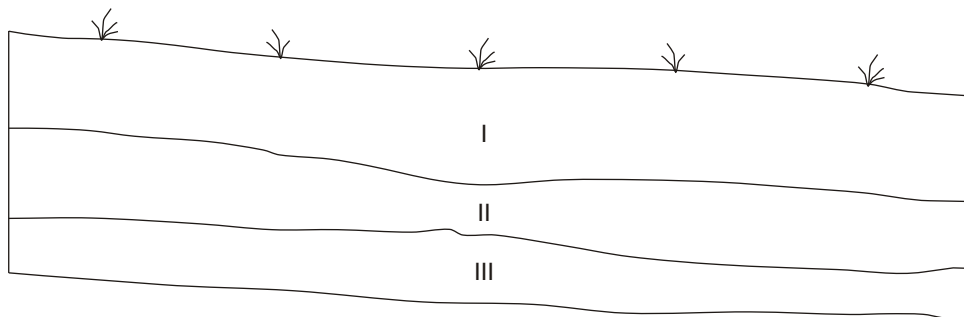
Table 58. Yard Area TU Summary

Location	TU	Artifact Count	
		Prehistoric	Historic
North Yard	3		
	46	1	1
	64		25
	65		90
	66		11
	68		101
	70	1	41
	75		18
	77		224
	78		132
	79		71
	80		39
	85		39
	86		16
	117		68
	127		22
	128		
131		17	
North Yard Total	18	2	915
South Yard	6		335
	74		626
	88		137
	89		63
	114		346
	122		125
South Yard Total	6	0	1,632
East Yard	71	1	240
	90		236
	93		263
	94	1	305
	95		336
	123	1	309
East Yard Total	6	3	1,689
West Yard	72		23
	109		226
	110		14
	111		16
West Yard Total	4	0	279

7.2.1 NORTH YARD

The north yard sloped gently to the southwest and was originally thought to be the rear yard of the house (Figure 59). Eighteen TUs were excavated in this area and were placed to investigate GPR anomalies. Soils were fairly uniform across the area, with minor variations in color and texture within soil horizons. Soils generally consisted of a dark brown (10YR 3/3) loam to silt loam A Horizon overlying a dark brown (10YR 4/4) silt loam to sandy loam E Horizon, which in turn overlaid a dark yellowish brown (10YR 4/6) silty clay loam Bt Horizon (Figure 60). The Bt Horizon contained 3 to 5 percent angular quartz gravel. Artifacts recovered from the north yard formed a low-density scatter, with clusters around Structures A and B. Only one noncultural feature (Feature 17, a rodent burrow) was identified in the north yard.

North Wall Profile



KEY	
I	A Horizon, 10YR 3/3 Dark Brown Loam
II	E Horizon, 10YR 4/4 Dark Yellowish Brown Silt Loam
III	Bt Horizon, 10YR 4/6 Dark Yellowish Brown Clay Loam



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		North Yard, TU 70 North Wall Profile	
SCALE As shown			PROJECT NO. 20831022
SOURCE URS			FIGURE NO. 60

7.2.2 EAST YARD

Six TUs were excavated in the east yard (Figure 59). Three of the TUs were excavated as a trench extending off the east side of Structure A. East yard soils were similar to the north yard. The A Horizon was a sandy loam or loam, the E Horizon was a sandy loam, and the Bt Horizon was a clay loam to sandy clay loam (Figure 61). The Bt Horizon contained 3 to 5 percent angular quartz gravel.

One feature (Feature 12 posthole and postmold) was identified in the east yard. The east yard artifact densities were relatively high and reflected yard refuse deposits during the occupation, as well as post-fire scatter.

7.2.3 SOUTH YARD

Seven TUs were excavated in the south yard (Figure 59). Three were excavated as a trench extending off the south wall of the house. In the south yard, soil profiles consist of a dark brown (10YR 3/3) silt loam A Horizon overlying a brown (10YR 4/3) silt loam E Horizon, which in turn overlaid a strong brown (7.5YR 5/6) clay loam BC Horizon (Figure 62). The BC Horizon contained up to 30 percent schist channers in the south yard.

Three features (Features 15, 18, and 19) were identified in the south yard. Feature 15 was a drainage trench and Features 18 and 19 were midden deposits. Artifact densities for the south yard were moderate to high, and highest in the areas of the midden features (Features 18 and 19). In addition to dense midden deposits associated with house occupation, a post-fire scatter of artifacts was observed.

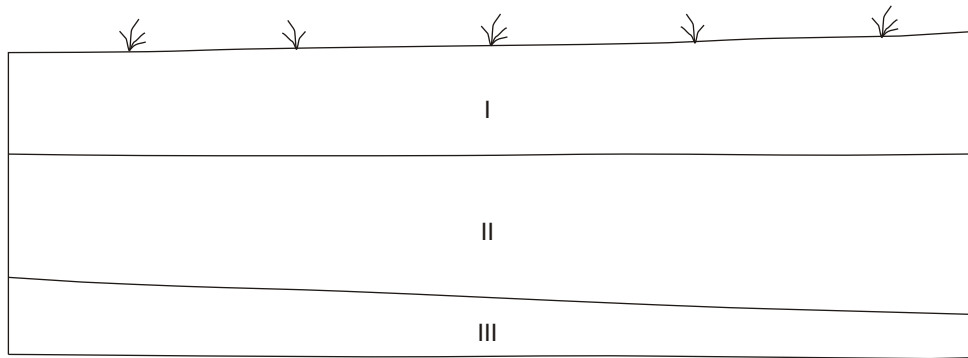
7.2.4 WEST YARD

Four TUs were excavated in the west yard; three were excavated as a trench extending off the west wall of Feature 3 (Figure 59). Soil profiles in the west and south yards tended to show truncated profiles because these areas were more sloped and therefore more eroded. In the west yard, soil profiles generally exhibited a very dark brown (10YR 2/2) loam A Horizon overlying a yellowish red (5YR 5/6) clay loam BC Horizon (Figure 63). In this and similar profiles, the BC Horizon contained 35 percent schist channers and overlaid saprolite deposits (decaying micaceous schist). No cultural features were identified in the west yard.

7.2.5 SLOPEWASH


Seven STPs and two TUs (TUs 1 and 2) excavated in the sloped area west of the Jackson homestead produced historic artifacts related to the Jackson occupation (Figure 50). These artifacts were recovered with prehistoric artifacts, and were translocated through colluvial activity, erosion, and, possibly, human intervention, and were therefore no longer in their primary context. In total, 31 artifacts were recovered from these contexts. The majority of the kitchen group artifacts are whiteware (n=7) or glass fragments (n=10). The miscellaneous group consists of one glass fragment that was burned to the point of being unidentifiable.

North Wall Profile

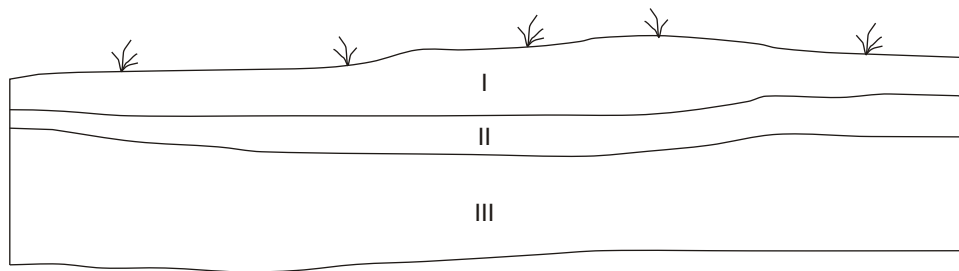


KEY	
I	A Horizon, 10YR 4/3 Brown Sandy Loam
II	E Horizon, 10YR 4/4 Dark Yellowish Brown Sandy Clay Loam
III	Bt Horizon, 10YR 4/6 Dark Yellowish Brown Clay Loam



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		East Yard, TU 90 North Wall Profile	
SCALE	As shown		PROJECT NO. 20831022
SOURCE	URS		FIGURE NO. 61

North Wall Profile

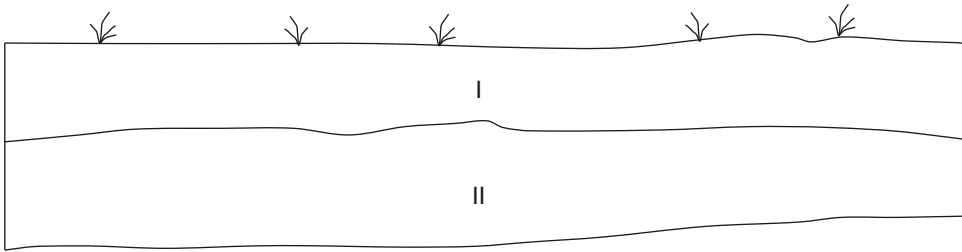


KEY	
I	A1 Horizon, 10YR 3/3 Dark Brown Silt Loam
II	A2 Horizon, 10YR 4/3 Brown Silt Loam
III	Bt Horizon, 7.5YR 5/6 Strong Brown Clay Loam




PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		South Yard, TU 122 North Wall Profile	
SCALE As shown			PROJECT NO. 20831022
SOURCE URS			FIGURE NO. 62

North Wall Profile



KEY	
I	A Horizon, 10YR 2/2 Very Dark Brown Loam
II	C Horizon, 5YR 5/6 Yellowish Red Clay Loam



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		West Yard, TU 72 North Wall Profile	
SCALE As shown			PROJECT NO. 20831022
SOURCE URS			FIGURE NO. 63

7.3 FEATURES

Nineteen features were identified in Locus C during the Phase II and III investigations (Table 59; Figures 50 and 59). Structure A was the Feature 3 main house foundation and associated features, Structure B was the possible domestic cellar located west of Structure A, and Structure C was the small domestic structure located 60 m (197.0 ft) north of Structure A. The following discussion is organized as follows: Structure A, Structure B, Structure C, and yard area features.

Table 59. Feature Summary

Feature	Structure/ Area	Interpretation	Dimensions*	Associations
1	Structure B	Possible domestic cellar	4.00 x 3.15 x ~2.00	
2	Structure A	Burn layer from house fire	~12.00 x ~7.00 x 0.43	Features 7, 9, 10
3	Structure A	House foundation—mortared fieldstone	9.00 x 4.00 x ~ 0.30	Features 2, 4–11, 15, 16
4	Structure A	Chimney	1.70 x 1.60 x 0.35	
5	Structure A	Cellar	3.25 x 2.00 x 1.30	
6	Structure A	Builder's trench	0.95 x 0.08 x 0.19	Feature 4
7	Structure A	Unknown	0.71 x 0.33 x 0.03	Feature 2
8	Structure A	Fireplace ash deposit	1.18 x 0.70 x 0.09	Feature 4
9	Structure A	Possible post	0.20 x 0.20 x 0.05	Feature 2
10	Structure A	Ash and artifact concentration	1.00 x 0.50 x 0.15	Feature 2
11	Structure A	Builder's trench	1.63 x 0.17 x 0.20	Feature 3
12a	East yard	Postmold	0.25 x 0.25 x 0.60	Feature 12b, Structure A
12b	East yard	Posthole	0.37 x 0.37 x 0.60	Feature 12a, Structure A
13	Structure C	Small domestic structure: fieldstone piers, doorstep	6.00 x 3.25 x surface	Feature 14
14	Structure C	Brick pile	2.4 x 2.4 x 0.15	Feature 13
15	South yard	Possible drainage trench	Unknown x 0.50 x 0.42	Structure A
16	Structure A	Possible builder's trench	Unknown	Feature 4
17	North yard	Rodent burrow	n/a	n/a
18	South yard	Midden	Unknown	Structure A
19	South yard	Midden	Unknown	Structure A

*Dimensions are maximum length x width x depth, in meters

7.3.1 STRUCTURE A, MAIN HOUSE

Structure A is the burned primary residence at the Jackson homestead. Eleven features comprise this house and are described below. The house was excavated using a total of 60 TUs located either within the interior of the house or directly adjacent to an exterior wall of the house (Figures 59 and 64). A summary of the features follows along with a brief summary of the

artifacts recovered from each feature; detailed artifact tables for each feature are located in Appendix D. A full discussion of artifacts appears in the Results of Laboratory Investigations section.

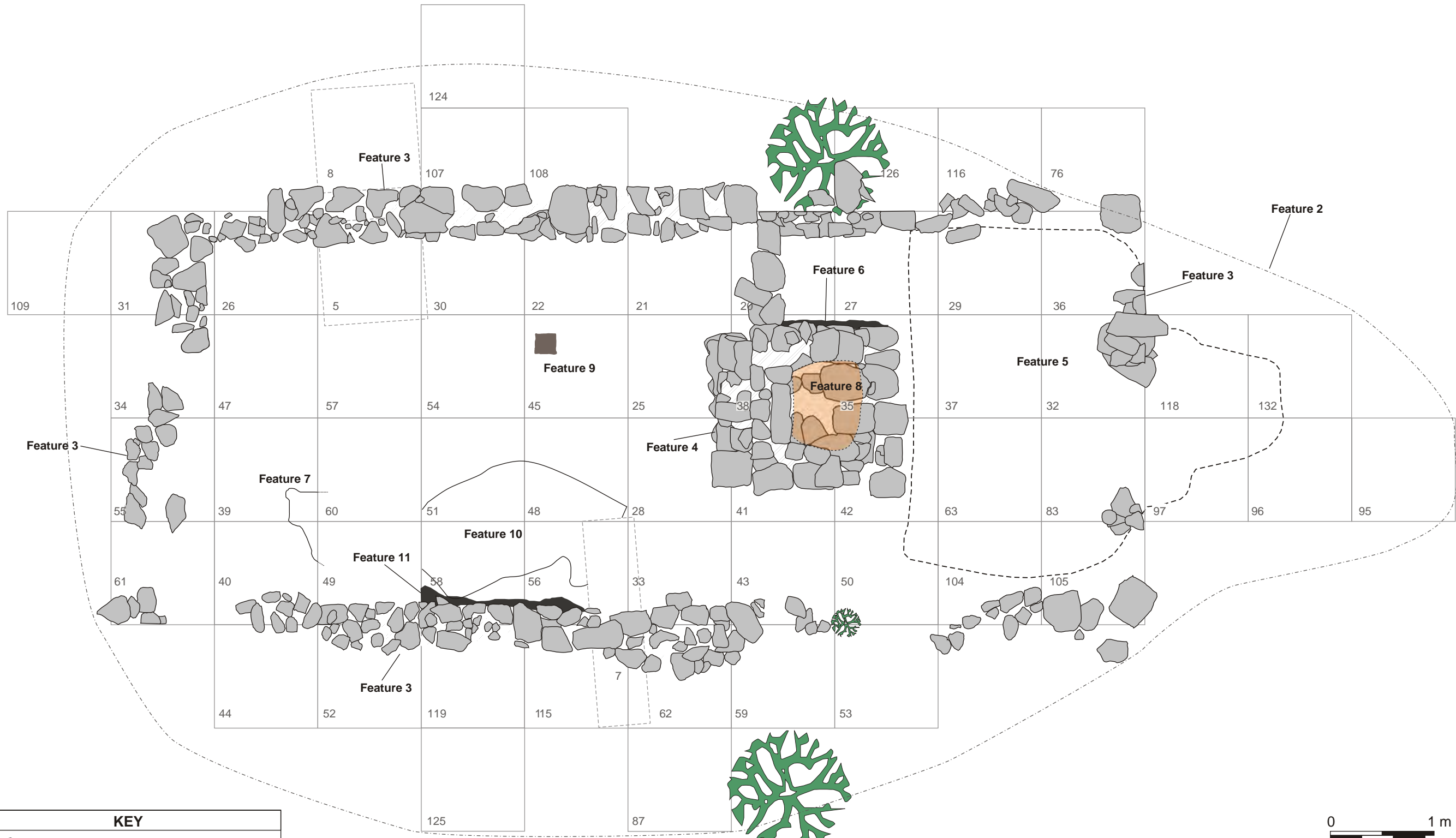
7.3.1.1 Feature 3, Foundation

Feature 3 was the house foundation that measured 4 x 9 m (13 x 30 ft); it was located on the edge of the ridge overlooking Fairland Branch (Figure 64). The foundation was mortared fieldstone constructed from schist, gneiss, and quartz rock, which were gathered locally. An interior chimney (Feature 4) separated the plan into two cells, or rooms. The evidence suggests the house was built in two episodes, with an original single-pen structure on the east side and a later addition to the west. Based on the archaeological data, the two rooms served different purposes: the earlier single-pen served as the kitchen, and the addition served as a multi-purpose living and work area. Although the floor plan does not fit the traditional hall-and-parlor style, the functional use of the spaces conforms to how this style of dwelling was used; therefore, the two cells were designated kitchen and parlor. The floor plan and layout will be discussed further in the Interpretations section.

Several tuliptrees (*Liriodendron tulipifera*) were located across the site; two of these were located adjacent to the north foundation wall and approximately 1.5 m (4.92 ft) south of the south foundation. The tuliptree is a fast-growing tree, attaining 15.24 m (50 ft) in height within a 20-year span. The trees near the foundation were over 30.5 m (100 ft) high, and were between 50–80 years old. They had large, extensive, well-developed root systems; roots from the tree along the north wall had intruded into the foundation, growing under it and sometimes through it, causing some displacement of stone.

At the time of the Phase III data recovery, the foundation was in various stages of disrepair (Figures 65 and 66). The foundation on the east side of the structure (the single pen) was in poor condition with 90 percent of the stone displaced or missing altogether. A short section on the north kitchen wall opposite the chimney was relatively intact. The foundation on the parlor addition was 95 percent intact along the north wall. Only a short section along the west wall was intact near its intersection with the north wall; the remaining west wall had collapsed and fallen outward. Along the south wall, a long section of the interior wall appeared intact, while the outer portion was largely collapsed outward. The southwest corner of the foundation was missing. The north wall was two courses high and the south wall was at least four courses high.

Artifacts were recovered during the foundation dismantling; some of these were located directly below the foundation stones in the E or Bt Horizons, and others were from Feature 2 matrix that had gotten mixed with stone in the areas where the foundation had collapsed or become displaced. While some of these artifacts, such as a porcelain doll's arm and a marble, may be evidence for West African-derived spiritual practices, the integrity of the context (i.e., their location in Feature 2 matrix between displaced foundation stones) is questionable and precludes definitive interpretation as ritual objects. There was one artifact that was definitively located within Feature 3 and is indicative of West African-derived spiritual practices. This artifact, a prehistoric groundstone axe, was built into the south foundation wall (Figure 67). Artifacts recovered from beneath the foundation stones may represent yard trash deposited before the parlor addition was constructed. Table 60 summarizes the artifacts recovered from underneath the Feature 3 foundation stones; a detailed table of artifacts is in Appendix D. The Stratum II artifact groups mirror the artifact assemblage from Feature 2.



KEY	
	Rock
	Cellar, Feature 5
	Approximate Boundary of Feature 2
	Mortar
	Phase II TU
	Phase III TU
	Tuliptree



PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III	Structure A Plan View Showing Features		
SCALE	1 inch = 1 m (3.3 ft)			
SOURCE	URS		PROJECT NO.	20831016
			FIGURE NO.	64



Figure 65. Structure A, Feature 3 (Parlor) Facing East



Figure 66. Structure A, Feature 3 (Single Pen) Facing Northwest


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Project Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 65 and 66



Figure 67. Structure A, Feature 3 Showing Axe In Situ Facing North


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Project Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 67

Table 60. Stratum II Artifacts Directly Underneath Feature 3

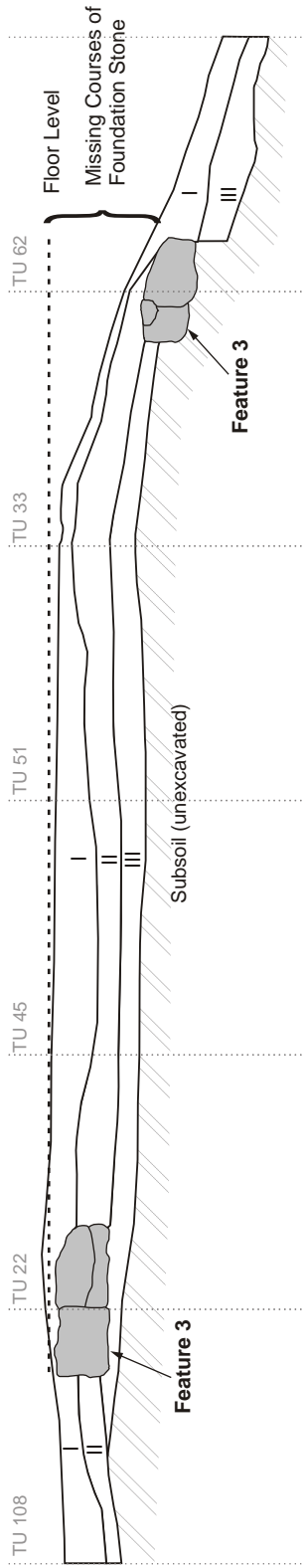
Group	Sub-group	Count
Activities	Miscellaneous hardware	1
Architectural	Nails	18
	Window glass	2
Clothing	Buttons	3
	Other	1
Debitage		1
Faunal	Bone	29
	Eggshell	4
	Shell	2
	Tooth	2
Floral	Seed	49
	Nutshell	7
	Wood	97
Furniture	Hardware	1
Kitchen	Ceramic	1
Miscellaneous		13
Personal	Jewelry	1
	Knives	1
Total		233

7.3.1.2 Feature 2, Burn Layers

Feature 2 was the residuum from the house fire. Its size was variable, measuring approximately 12 x 7 m (39.4 x 23.0 ft) and extending between 0.25 and 1.5 m (0.82 and 4.92 ft) beyond the Feature 3 foundation (Figures 64 and 68). The feature's thickness varied between 0.07 and 0.43 m (0.23 and 1.41 ft), with the thickest portion located in the southwest corner of the house. Feature 2 consisted of two layers: an upper layer (Layer A) that was dense with charred organic material (mostly wood), and a lower layer (Layer B) that primarily consisted of ash, and mortar or plaster (Figures 69 and 70). Layer A was a highly organic and ashy matrix that was a black (10YR 2/1) silt loam. Layer B was a mixture of very dark brown (10YR 2/2) and very dark grayish brown (10YR 3/2) sandy loam. Underlying the Feature 2 deposits on the interior of the structure was a dark yellowish brown (10YR 4/4) sandy clay loam E Horizon. Natural strata underlying Feature 2 on the exterior structure varied based on the side of the structure and matched the soil descriptions for the yard areas (described previously).

Feature 2 represents the collapse and deposition of burning plaster walls, wood framing, flooring, and the roof. The occupants' personal belongings (e.g., clothing, dishes, and furniture) were trapped between the burning structural elements and became part of the archaeological record. Layer A represents the wood structure, as well as furniture, flooring, and other artifacts that burned and collapsed; this layer includes artifacts from both the lower and upper stories of the house. Layer B, with its high ash content, appears to primarily represent structural elements, as well as interior house furnishings and objects that were completely consumed by the fire and reduced to ash. Both Layers A and B contained a dense concentration of artifacts; it should be noted that ceramic artifact cross-mends were obtained between the two layers.

Composite East Wall Profile



KEY

- I Feature 2 Layer A, 10YR 2/1 Black Silt Loam
- II Feature 2 Layer B, 10YR 3/2 Very Dark Grayish Brown Sandy Loam
- III E Horizon, 10YR 4/6 Dark Yellowish Brown Sandy Clay Loam
- Rock, Feature 3 Foundation



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

SCALE 1 inch = 0.75 m (2.5 ft)

SOURCE URS

Structure A Cross Section, Composite East Wall Profile, Features 2 and 3



PROJECT NO. 20831016


FIGURE NO. 68



Figure 69. Structure A, TU 22 Profile Facing East



Figure 70. Structure A, TU 51 Facing South

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Project Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 69 and 70

The archaeological deposits formed from the concatenation of what was likely a 1½ to 2-story structure into a thin layer of burned wood and ash. It is unknown whether the structure was completely destroyed by the fire. The west side of the structure showed extensive burning and fire damage, while the east side showed less fire damage. The implications of this are discussed further in the Interpretations section. Natural processes (e.g., settling, erosion, and exposure to the elements) and possibly post-fire salvage (by the site's occupants and others) have likely mixed the deposits and precluded determining the vertical location of artifacts within the house (i.e., it is not possible to determine which objects were located on the first versus the second floor).

The Feature 2 deposits on the kitchen side of the structure (i.e., the single pen) are not as thick or dense with charred organic material as on the parlor side. In addition, these deposits overlay the Feature 5 cellar, which appears to have been infilled during the fire, subsequent structure degradation and post-depositional settling, and, later, minor twentieth century trash disposal. Some of the Feature 5 infilling also may have been the result of salvage efforts by the family. The overlaying of Feature 2 over the Feature 5 deposits suggests continued degradation or collapse of burned structural elements that were not completely destroyed by the fire. Indeed, there is evidence to suggest the kitchen did not burn as extensively as the parlor. This will be discussed in detail in the Interpretations chapter.

In total, 70,579 artifacts were recovered from Feature 2 (Table 61). Artifacts from all groups were present, and many, but not all, were burned. The artifacts are discussed in detail in the Results of Laboratory Investigations section. Artifacts were recovered from the strata underlying Feature 2, both on the interior and exterior of the house. On the interior of the parlor, a natural E Horizon underlay Feature 2. On the exterior of the house the strata underlying Feature 2 varied. The west and south sides of the house were affected by erosion more than the north and east sides, and Feature 2 overlaid BC or C Horizons. On the north side of the structure, soils appear to be more intact, and Feature 2 overlaid the E Horizon. Feature 2 on the north side of the kitchen was a thin layer that was not distinguishable from the A Horizon during excavation; artifacts from this thin layer were included with the artifacts from the A Horizon. Four TUs on the east side of the house were located at the Feature 5 cellar bulkhead entrance where Feature 2 overlaid fill and Feature 5; the fill from this side of the house is discussed in the Feature 5 section below.

Table 61. Feature 2 Artifact Summary

Group	Sub-group	Count		
		Layer A	Layer B	Total
Activities	Construction tools	10	5	15
	Laundry	23		23
	Locks	1	1	2
	Miscellaneous hardware	837	219	1,056
	Music	5	2	7
	Sewing	53	28	81
	Stable and barn	21	6	27
	Storage items	289	63	352
	Toys	66	18	84
	Other	1		1
Architectural	Building materials	147	75	222

Group	Sub-group	Count		
		Layer A	Layer B	Total
Architectural	Door parts	14	7	21
	Finishing materials	80	16	96
	Nails	8,788	3,857	12,645
	Spikes	6	10	16
	Window	2,568	2,218	4,786
	Other	56	14	70
Arms	Ammunition	74	46	120
	Gun parts	3		3
Clothing	Beads	21	36	57
	Buckles	30	8	38
	Buttons	622	349	971
	Corsets	9	7	16
	Cuff links	2	1	3
	Fabric	2		2
	Fasteners	52	17	69
	Shoes	91	12	103
	Studs	22	12	34
	Other	131	19	150
Faunal	Bone	1,321	971	2,292
	Cellulose	2		2
	Eggshell	714	1,116	1,830
	Insect	1	7	8
	Shell	395	19	414
	Tooth	46	36	82
Floral	Nuts	282	159	441
	Seed	13,247	589	13,836
	Wood	7,629	2,768	10,397
	Miscellaneous	3		3
	Unidentified	204	115	319
Furniture	Clocks	16	41	57
	Hardware	51	19	70
	Knickknacks	58	5	63
	Lighting	328	237	565
	Mirrors	7	8	15
	Pie safe	142	71	213
Furniture	Stove	26	4	30
	Trunks	1	1	2
	Other	3	1	4
Kitchen	Bottles and jars	398	67	465
	Ceramic	3,222	1,035	4,257
	Food containers	8	3	11
	Glassware	109	50	159
	Kitchenware	7	14	21
	Tableware	57	27	84
	Glass fragments	3,370	928	4,298
Miscellaneous	n/a	6,651	2,298	8,949
Personal	Bells	3	1	4

Group	Sub-group	Count		
		Layer A	Layer B	Total
Personal	Coins	64	37	101
	Eyeglasses	16	7	23
	Jewelry	50	32	82
	Keys	8	2	10
	Knives	6	5	11
	Medical	3	2	5
	Medicine bottles	5	4	9
	Purses	5	1	6
	Stationery	22	14	36
	Toiletries	54	36	90
	Other	3	1	4
Religious	n/a	12	27	39
Tobacco	Ball clay pipes	22	4	26
	Reed-style pipes	12	2	14
	Tobacco tags	117	44	161
	Other	1		1
Total		52,725	17,854	70,579

In total, 983 artifacts were recovered from the E Horizon in the house interior, and 161 artifacts were recovered from soil strata underlying Feature 2 on the north, south, and west sides of the structure (Table 62). The large quantity of faunal and floral remains from the house interior E Horizon is a product of sampling through flotation; no flotation samples were collected from non-feature contexts on the house exterior.

The artifacts from the E and BC/C Horizons likely originated from several sources: some may represent yard scatter from before the parlor addition was built; some may represent objects that fell through cracks in the floorboards and into the soil; and others may have been intentionally placed as part West African-derived spiritual practices. The majority, however, appear to have been deposited when the house burned, suggesting there is some disturbance at least to the upper portions of the E and BC/C Horizons. The artifacts from the A and E Horizons from three TUs at the northeast corner of the structure appear to represent artifacts that were deposited after the house fire and were mixed with yard trash deposited before the fire.

Table 62. Summary of Artifacts from Soil Strata Below Feature 2

Group	Sub-group	Count			Total
		House Interior	House Exterior		
		E Horizon	E Horizon	BC/C Horizon	
Activities	Miscellaneous hardware	12	8	3	23
	Sewing	1			1
	Toys	1			1
Architectural	Building materials	3			3
	Finishing materials			1	1
	Nails	65	33	14	112
	Window	34	33	6	73
	Other	1			1
Arms	Ammunition	4			4

Group	Sub-group	Count			Total
		House Interior	House Exterior		
		E Horizon	E Horizon	BC/C Horizon	
Clothing	Beads	1			1
	Buckles	1	1		2
	Buttons	25	3	1	29
Clothing	Cuff links		1		1
	Fasteners	1			1
	Shoes		1		1
	Studs	2			2
	Other	2			2
Debitage		2			2
Faunal	Bone	43	2		45
	Cellulose			1	1
	Eggshell	52			52
	Shell	1			1
	Tooth	1			1
Floral	Nutshell	2			2
	Seed	373			373
	Wood	219			219
	Unidentified	15			15
Furniture	Clocks	1			1
	Hardware	2			2
	Lighting	2	1	1	4
	Mirrors	3			3
	Stove	2			2
Kitchen	Ceramic	15	1	7	23
	Glassware	2	1		3
	Glass fragments	35	9	15	59
Miscellaneous		53	7	10	70
Personal	Coins	2			2
	Knives	1			1
	Medicine bottles		1		1
	Toiletries	1			1
Religious		1			1
Tobacco	Ball clay pipes	1			1
	Reed-style pipes	1			1
Total		983	102	59	1,144


7.3.1.3 Feature 4, Chimney and Fireplace

Feature 4 was the chimney and fireplace located in the kitchen/original single-pen cabin (Figures 64 and 71–74). The chimney was constructed of mortared fieldstone (similar to the Feature 3 foundation) and appeared to have been capped with a brick chimney stack. Fieldstone rubble was evident on the ground surface and mounded over the chimney location and scattered onto the eastern portion of the structure. Brick rubble was present in the top stratum in the TUs in the eastern portion of the structure. The brick debris extended 3 to 4 m (9.84 to 13.12 ft) east and about 2 m (6.56 ft) north and south of the chimney location.

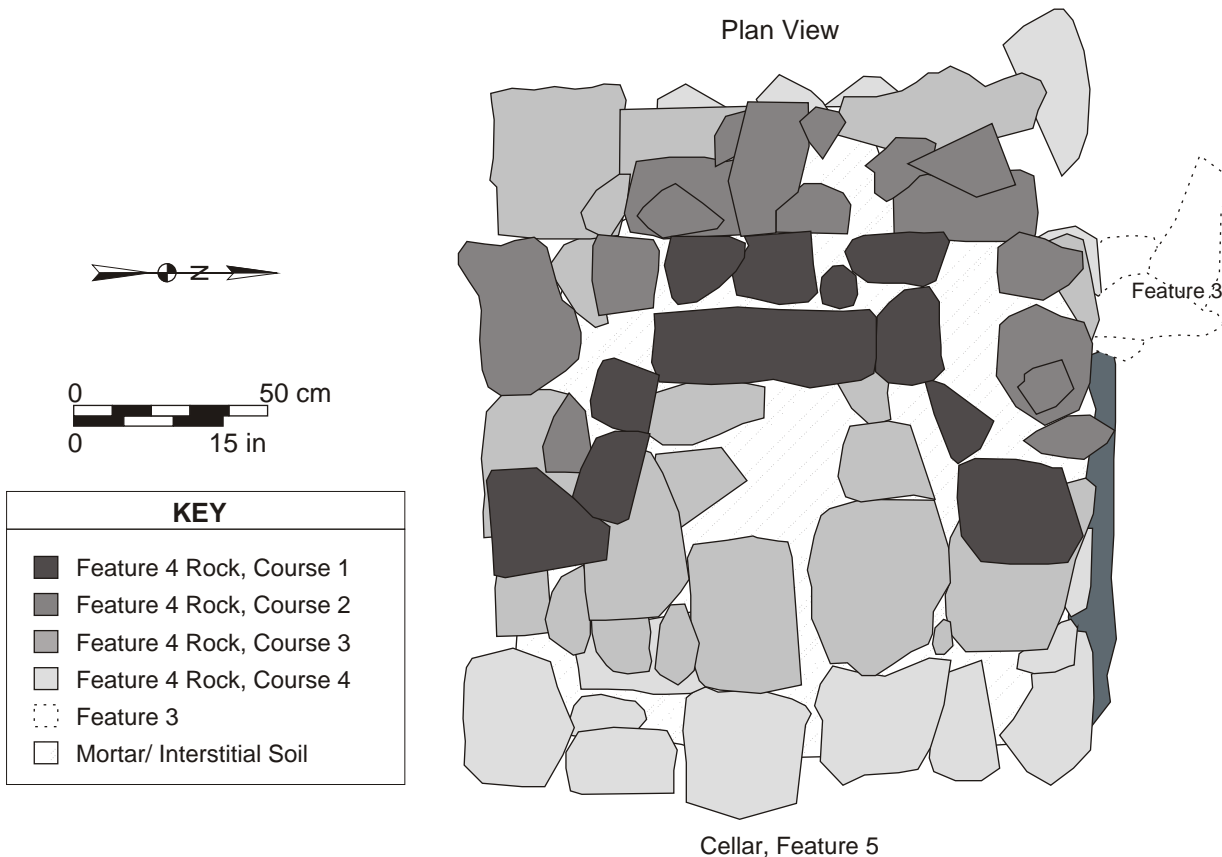
Underneath the rubble the chimney base and fireplace were intact. The roughly square chimney base measured 1.6 x 1.7 m (5.25 x 5.58 ft). The chimney base was constructed in four courses with a quartz gravel pad as an underlayment. There was no fireplace in the parlor.



Figure 71. Feature 4 Chimney During Excavation, Looking East

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Project Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 71

Plan View

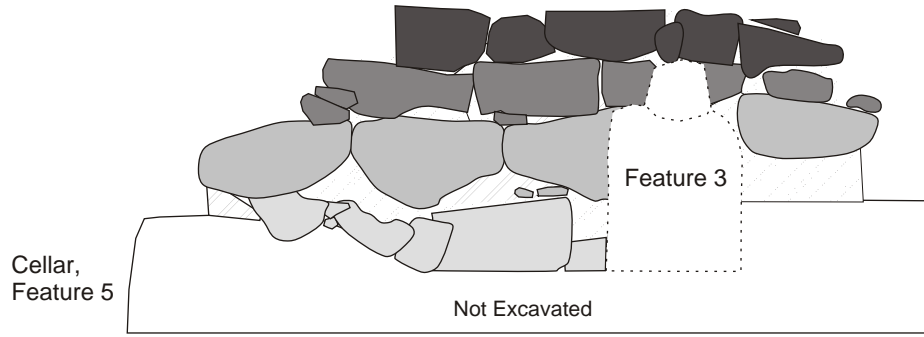


Cellar, Feature 5



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Feature 4 Plan View	
SCALE As shown			PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS			FIGURE NO. 72

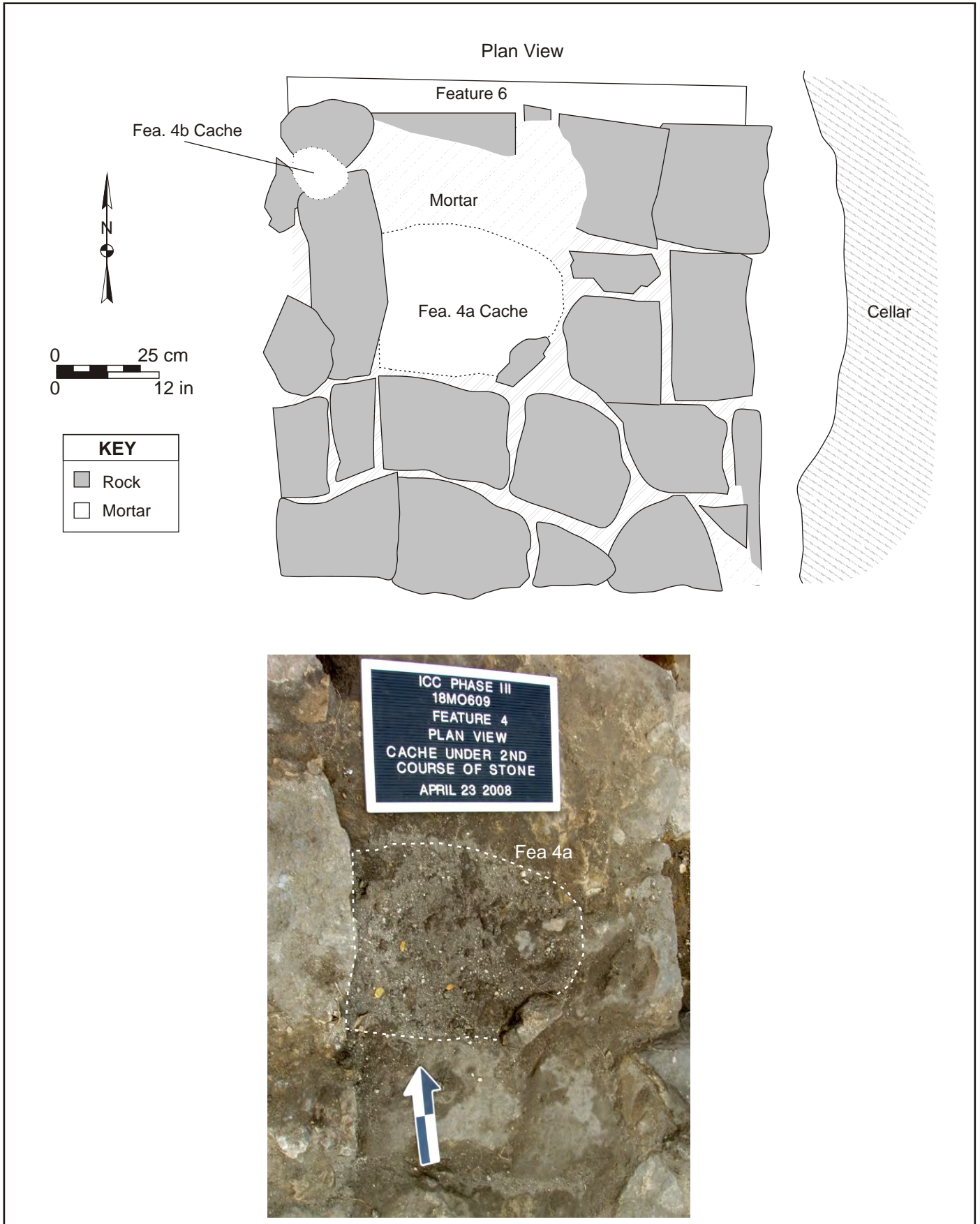
North Wall Profile



KEY	
	Feature 4 Rock, Course 1
	Feature 4 Rock, Course 2
	Feature 4 Rock, Course 3
	Feature 4 Rock, Course 4
	Feature 3
	Mortar/ Interstitial Soil
	Bt Horizon/ Not Excavated



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Feature 4 Profile	
SCALE	As shown		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE	URS		FIGURE NO. 73



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Features 4a and 4b	
SCALE As shown		URS	PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS			FIGURE NO. 74

A deposit of ash and artifacts (Feature 8) was located in the fireplace. A builder's trench (Feature 6) was identified along the northeastern portion of the chimney base. These features are described in detail below.

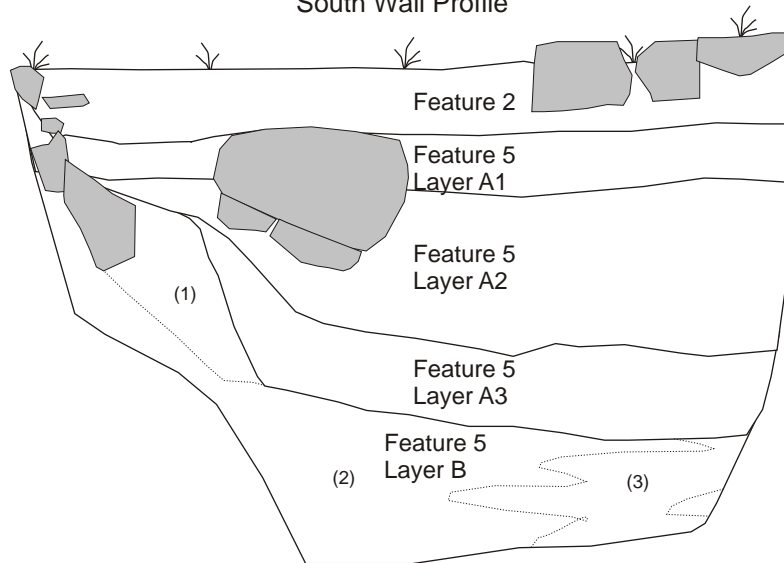
The chimney base was dismantled to determine if artifacts were present that could date the original structure, as well as to identify potential artifacts associated with West African-derived spiritual practices. The mortar holding the stones in place was degraded and in some areas missing completely. This created gaps between the stones along the margins of the chimney base that allowed sediment and small artifacts to filter down. In addition, the gaps created were attractive to insects, small rodents (i.e., mice), and small snakes, which may have caused displacement of artifacts. The artifact evidence suggests there was movement from the ground surface down into the chimney base; the archaeobotanical evidence is particularly compelling in this regard, as hundreds of tuliptree seeds were recovered from Feature 4. In addition, the taxa that are present throughout Features 2 and 5 (e.g., American chestnut wood fragments) further suggest movement of material downward. These data do not preclude in situ artifacts; however, interpretations must consider the possibility that artifacts have moved through bioturbation and weathering.

A variety of artifacts were recovered from the individual courses of stone including one cache in the center of one of the courses (Feature 4a) and another cache (Feature 4b) from the northwest corner of the chimney base (Table 63; Figures 74 and 75). The artifacts will be discussed in the Results of Laboratory Investigations and Interpretations sections. While some of the artifacts may represent incidental placement through weathering and bioturbation, many appear to represent intentionally placed artifacts relating to West African-derived folk ritual practices. This will be discussed further in the Interpretations section.

Table 63. Summary of Feature 4 Artifacts

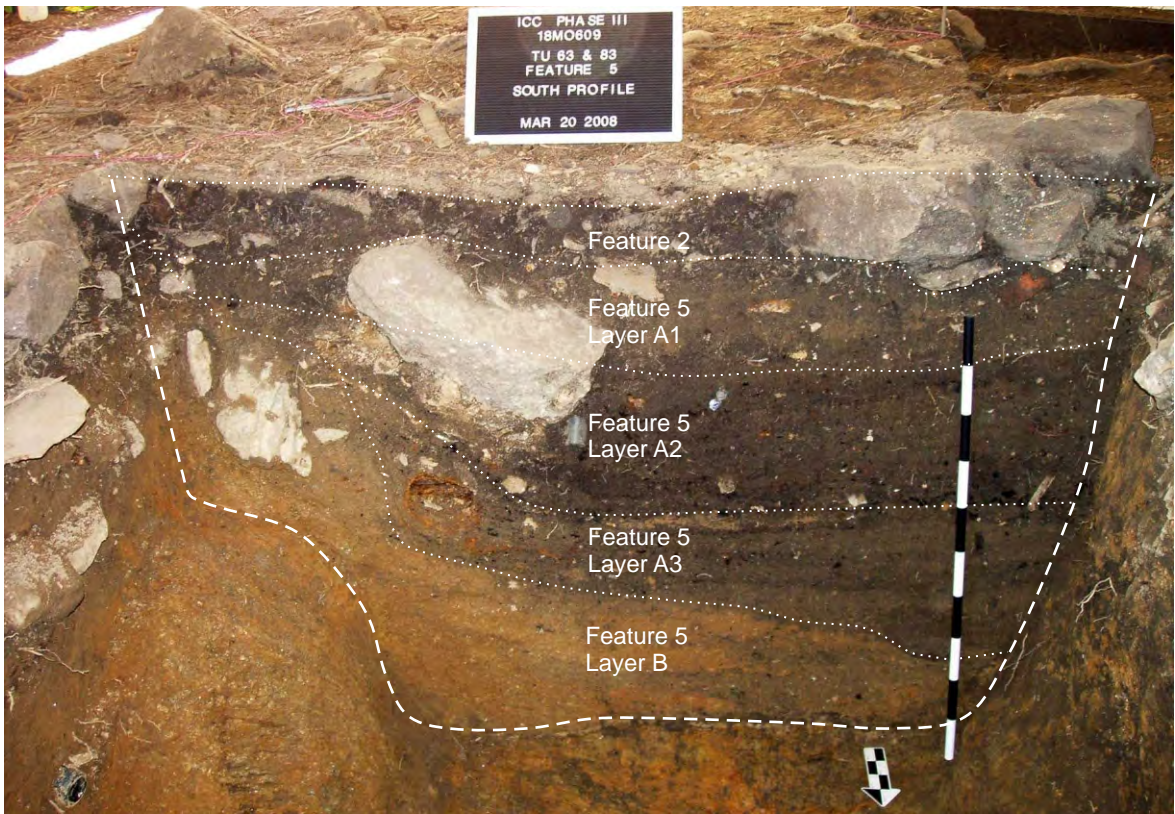
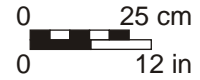
Group	Count							
	Course 1	Course 2	Course 3	Course 4	Fea. 4a Cache	Fea. 4b Cache	Gravel Pad	Total
Activities		108	3		5	1		117
Architectural	4	20	3		5	1		33
Arms	1	1			1			3
Clothing	1	15	1		2	1		20
Faunal	316	2,035	633	236	714	324		4,258
Floral	2,989	1,647	745	103	1,040	10,865	32	17,421
Furniture								0
Kitchen	4	11			1			16
Miscellaneous	17	9	16		39	14		95
Personal		2	1	1				4
Tobacco		1						1
Total	3,332	3,849	1,402	340	1,807	11,206	32	21,968

South Wall Profile



KEY

	Rock
Feature 2	10YR 2/1 Black Silt Loam
Feature 5, Layer A1	10YR 3/2 Very Dark Grayish Brown Silt Loam
Feature 5, Layer A2	10YR 2/2 Very Dark Brown Silt Loam
Feature 5, Layer A3	10YR 3/3 Dark Brown Silt Loam
Feature 5, Layer B(1)	10YR 4/6 Dark Yellowish Brown Silty Clay Loam
(2)	5YR 4/6 Yellowish Red Silty Clay Loam
(3)	7.5YR 4/4 Brown Silty Clay Loam



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

Structure A, Feature 5 South Wall Profile

SCALE As shown

PROJECT NO. 20831016

SOURCE URS

FIGURE NO. 75

7.3.1.4 Feature 5, Cellar

The cellar was located beneath the original single-pen cabin and measured 3.25 x 2 m (10.66 x 6.56 ft; Figure 64). The cellar was 1.3 m (4.27 ft) deep and was accessed through an exterior bulkhead on the east side of the house. There is no evidence the cellar walls or floors were lined; natural silting-in was visible from the east wall. The cellar appears to have been in active use at the time of the fire. Excavation of the cellar was accomplished with 12 TUs. The Feature 5 fill layers do not contain the high amount of charred wood, ash, and mortar that characterizes Feature 2. This suggests the kitchen side did not burn to the same extent as the parlor side. Although the sequence of infilling is unclear, it appears the cellar was infilled during the fire, with later infilling episodes occurring shortly after the fire, during salvage efforts. It is not clear if the upper floor caught fire and collapsed onto the kitchen floor, causing it to collapse, or if the first floor caught fire first and collapsed, with the upper flooring collapsing later, either during or after the fire. The mixed Feature 5 deposits preclude determination of the sequence of events during the fire.

Two main layers were identified; Layer A was the upper dark soils that contain charcoal, brick, fieldstone, and artifacts. Layer B was the lower layer that contains artifacts. The feature matrix in Layers A and B showed much variability in both texture and color (Figure 75). Layer B appeared to represent a mix of natural and cultural infill. The soils in this layer were the same soil texture and color as the surrounding subsoil and the artifacts were contemporaneous with Layer A.

Layer A was excavated in several levels according to changes in soil texture and color to identify any functional or temporal differences in the deposits. Analysis of the deposits demonstrated that artifacts from all layers are contemporaneous which indicates a single period of deposition, likely shortly after the house burned. There were several pieces of evidence that suggested Feature 5 was infilled in one event:

- Large artifacts, such as the 0.84-m (2.76-ft) long cast iron stove base plate, were located in several layers
- Brick and large fieldstones from the chimney and foundation were recovered throughout Layer A
- Artifacts throughout Layers A and B are not stratified (i.e., there do not appear to be earlier artifacts at the bottom of the feature)
- Ceramic vessel mends come from all layers of Feature 5, and some cross-mend with sherds recovered from Feature 2 in the parlor addition as well as other non-feature contexts

In total, 54,801 artifacts were recovered from Feature 5 (Table 64). Burned artifacts were recovered from every layer of the cellar; however, the majority of the artifacts appear to be unburned, indicating the fire was less intense in the kitchen.

It is unknown if the cellar was accessible from inside the house. There is no evidence of a foundation or other structural support for the exterior bulkhead. The cellar wall at the bulkhead entrance appears to have been fortified with fieldstone piers to support the house. Access to the cellar through the bulkhead was likely via a staircase, although no staircase remains were identified.

Table 64. Summary of Feature 5 Artifacts

Group	Sub-group	Count			
		Layer A	Layer B	Layers A&B*	Total
Activities	Construction tools	17	3		20
	Farm tools	2			2
	Laundry	3			3
	Locks	3			3
	Miscellaneous hardware	455	39		494
	Music	64	5		69
	Sewing	50	1		51
	Stable and barn	18	18		36
	Storage items	202	30		232
	Toys	54	2		56
	Other	1			1
Architectural	Building materials	23	9		32
	Door parts	3			3
	Finishing materials	28			28
	Nails	3,393	134		3,527
	Spikes	10	1		11
	Window	3,395	289		3,684
	Other	4			4
Arms	Ammunition	99	5		104
Clothing	Beads	21			21
	Buckles	22	2		24
	Buttons	867	77		944
	Corsets	46	2		48
	Cuff links	3			3
	Fabric	204	10		214
	Fasteners	32	1		33
	Shoes	621	72		693
	Studs	22			22
	Other	60	1		61
Faunal	Bone	3,281	70		3,351
	Bone/tooth		2		2
	Eggshell	2,006	15		2,021
	Insect	1			1
	Shell	100	39		139
	Tooth	90	5		95
Floral	Nutshell	28	2		30
	Seed	4,660	40		4,700
	Wood	17,935	530		18,465
	Unidentified	1,493	47		1,540
Furniture	Clocks	13			13
	Hardware	36	2		38
	Knickknacks	13	1		14
	Lighting	561	35		596
	Mirrors	126	6		132
	Stove	11	1	1	13

Group	Sub-group	Count			
		Layer A	Layer B	Layers A&B*	Total
Furniture	Other	3	1		4
Kitchen	Bottles and jars	536	159		695
	Ceramic	1,235	224		1,459
	Food containers	35			35
	Glassware	285	12		297
	Kitchenware	19	7		26
	Tableware	30	2		32
	Glass fragments	5,409	273		5,682
Miscellaneous		3,828	629		4,457
Personal	Coins	17			17
	Eyeglasses	3			3
	Jewelry	45	1		46
	Keys	4	1		5
	Knives	2			2
	Medical	2	9		11
	Medicine bottles	73	55		128
	Purses	6			6
	Stationery	73	5		78
	Toiletries	29	8		37
	Other	3			3
Religious		9	1		10
Tobacco	Ball clay pipes	142	23		165
	Reed-style pipes	25	3		28
	Tobacco tags	2			2
Total		51,891	2,909	1	54,801

*This artifact is a cast iron stove base plate that measures 0.84 x 0.43 m (2.76 x 1.41 ft)

Five TUs were excavated to define the bulkhead area (Figure 64). Feature 2 soils overlay the deposits in this area. Underlying Feature 2 was a series of very thin fill layers (less than 2 cm [0.8 in] thick); some of the layers were sterile and some contained artifacts. These fill layers were amorphously shaped and overlapped one another; some partially overlaid the Feature 5 cellar deposits. The artifacts from these fill layers were contemporaneous with the Feature 2 and Feature 5 artifacts. The origins of the fill are unclear, but they may relate to salvage efforts or cleanup of the homestead after the fire. One scenario is that, after the fire, the family returned to the property to salvage personal belongings. As part of their efforts, perhaps the cellar was filled in to make the area safe. The east yard appears to have had at least one outbuilding, so this area may have been used for staging and general property cleanup. After the cellar was filled in, additional cleanup resulted in the deposition of thin fill layers that contained debris and artifacts from the house. Once the property was abandoned, continued decay and collapse of any standing burned structural elements created a thin layer of Feature 2 in this area. In total, 603 artifacts were recovered from the fill episodes around the bulkhead (Table 65). The architectural group includes 131 window glass fragments and the kitchen group includes 163 glass fragments.

Table 65. Summary of Fill Artifacts around Feature 5 Bulkhead

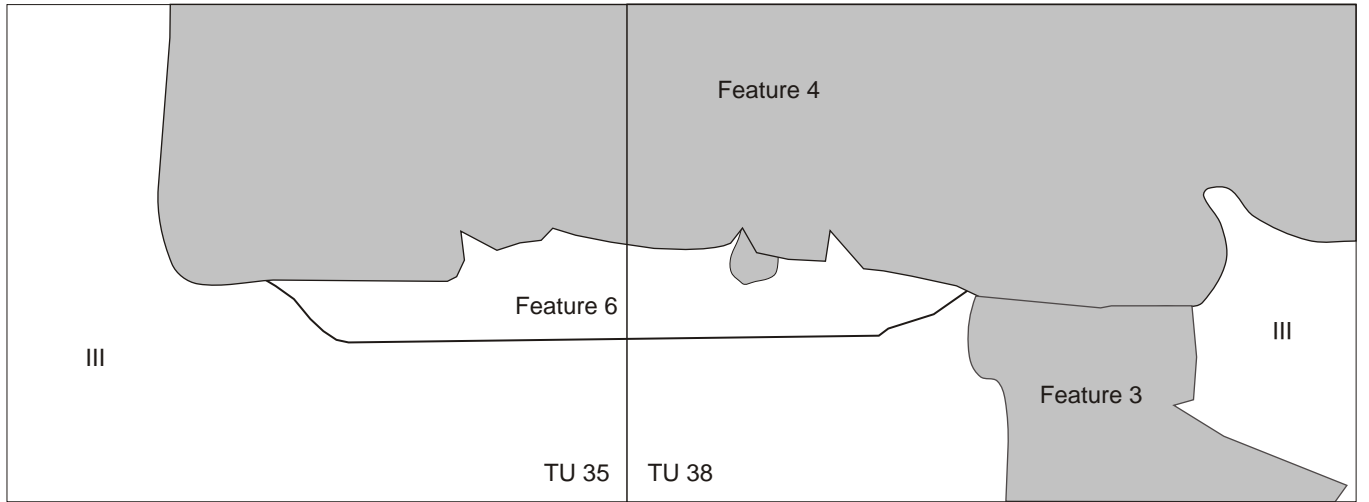
Group	Sub-group	Count
Activities	Miscellaneous hardware	5
	Stable and barn	1
	Storage items	1
	Toys	2
Architectural	Building materials	23
	Nails	76
	Window	131
Arms	Ammunition	1
Clothing	Buttons	4
	Studs	1
Faunal	Bone	2
	Tooth	1
Floral	Wood	1
Furniture	Hardware	1
	Lighting	1
	Mirrors	2
	Stove	1
Kitchen	Bottles/jars	13
	Ceramic	83
	Glassware	9
	Tableware	1
	Glass fragments	163
Miscellaneous		75
Personal	Coins	1
	Medicine bottles	1
Personal	Stationery	2
Prehistoric Debitage		1
Total		603



7.3.1.5 Feature 6, Builder's Trench

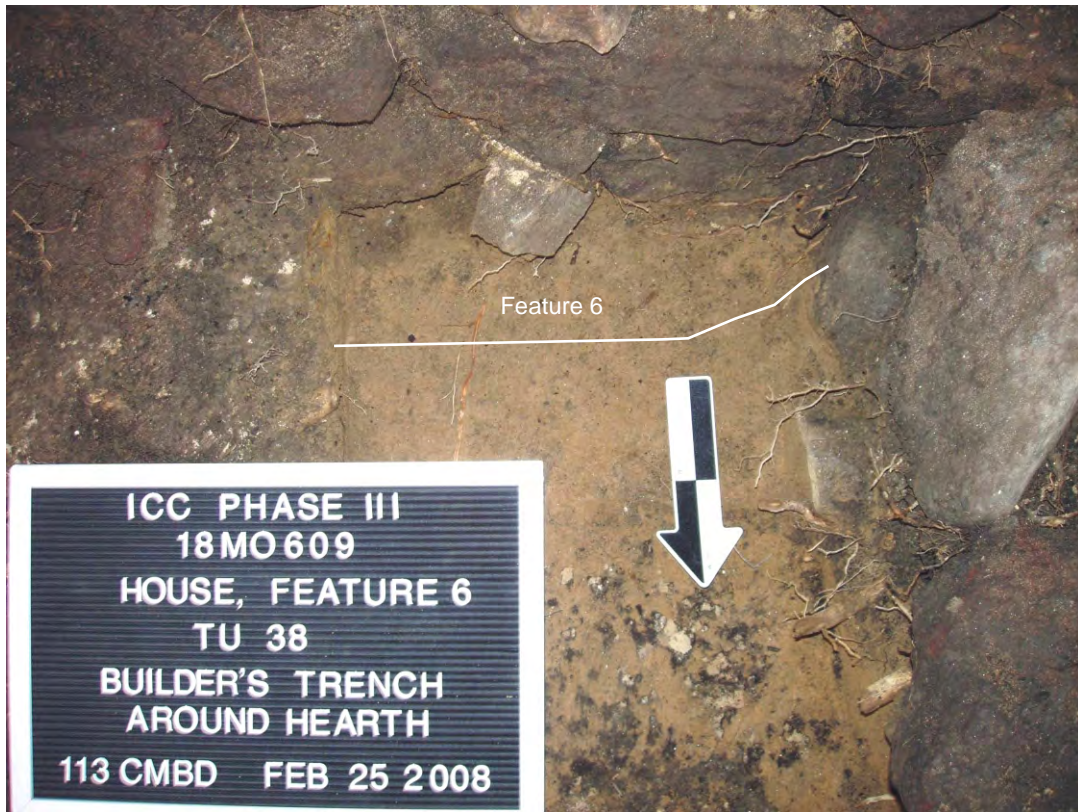
Feature 6 was a narrow builder's trench located on the north side of the Feature 4 chimney (Figures 64 and 76). The trench was 0.95 x 0.08 m (3.15 x 0.26 ft) in size and was 0.19 m (0.62 ft) thick. The feature matrix was a dark yellowish brown (10YR 4/4) clay loam. Feature 6 contained a single nail fragment recovered from the base of the feature; the nail fragment was corroded and in three pieces.

7.3.1.6 Feature 7, Unknown Function


Feature 7 was a shallow amorphous stain visible at the base of Feature 2 (Figures 64 and 77). This irregularly shaped feature was approximately 0.71 x 0.33 m (2.33 x 1.08 ft) and was 0.03 m (0.098 ft) thick. The color of Feature 7 was only slightly darker, brown (7.5YR 4/4) clay loam, than the subsoil, strong brown (7.5YR 5/6) clay loam, and its outline was only partially defined. No artifacts were recovered from the feature. Its function is unknown, though it may represent an isolated concentration of structural debris.

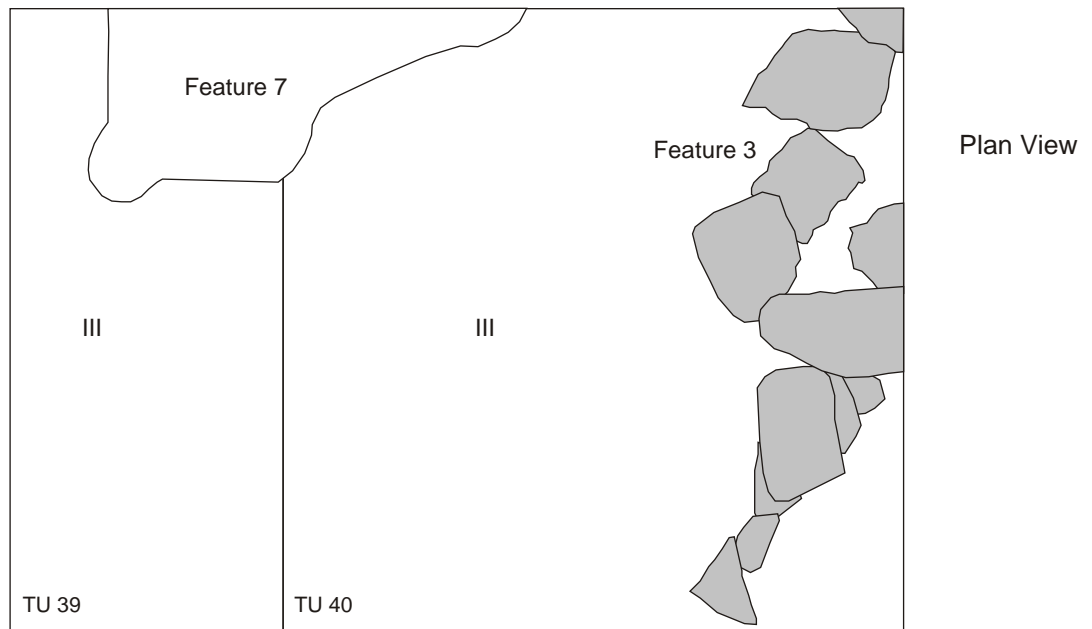



KEY	
	Feature 6 10YR 4/4 Dark Yellowish Brown Clay Loam
	III, Bt Horizon 7.5YR 5/6 Strong Brown Clay Loam
	Rock

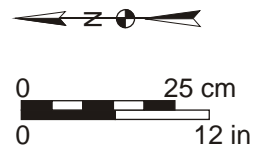



ICC PHASE III
 18MO609
 HOUSE, FEATURE 6
 TU 38
 BUILDER'S TRENCH
 AROUND HEARTH
 113 CMBD FEB 25 2008

PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III	Feature 6 Plan View, Test Units 35 and 38	
SCALE	As shown		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE	URS		FIGURE NO. 76



KEY	
	Rock
III, Bt Horizon	7.5YR 5/6 Strong Brown Clay Loam
Feature 7	7.5YR 4/4 Brown Clay Loam



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Feature 7 Plan View, TUs 39 and 40	
SCALE As shown			PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS			FIGURE NO. 77

7.3.1.7 Feature 8, Cooking Hearth

Feature 8 was a sandy, ashy deposit located in the firebox of Feature 4 (Figures 64 and 78). The deposit measured 1.18 x 0.70 m (3.87 x 2.30 ft) and was 0.09 m (0.30 ft) thick. The feature contained two distinct layers; the first (Layer A) was a dark brown (7.5YR 3/2) and black (10YR 2/1) sandy loam with ash and mortar, and the second layer (Layer B) was a red (2.5YR 5/6) sand. In total, 1,101 artifacts were recovered from Feature 8 (Table 66). The majority of the floral remains are amorphous char (n=914), which would be expected in a fireplace context.

Table 66. Summary of Feature 8 Artifacts

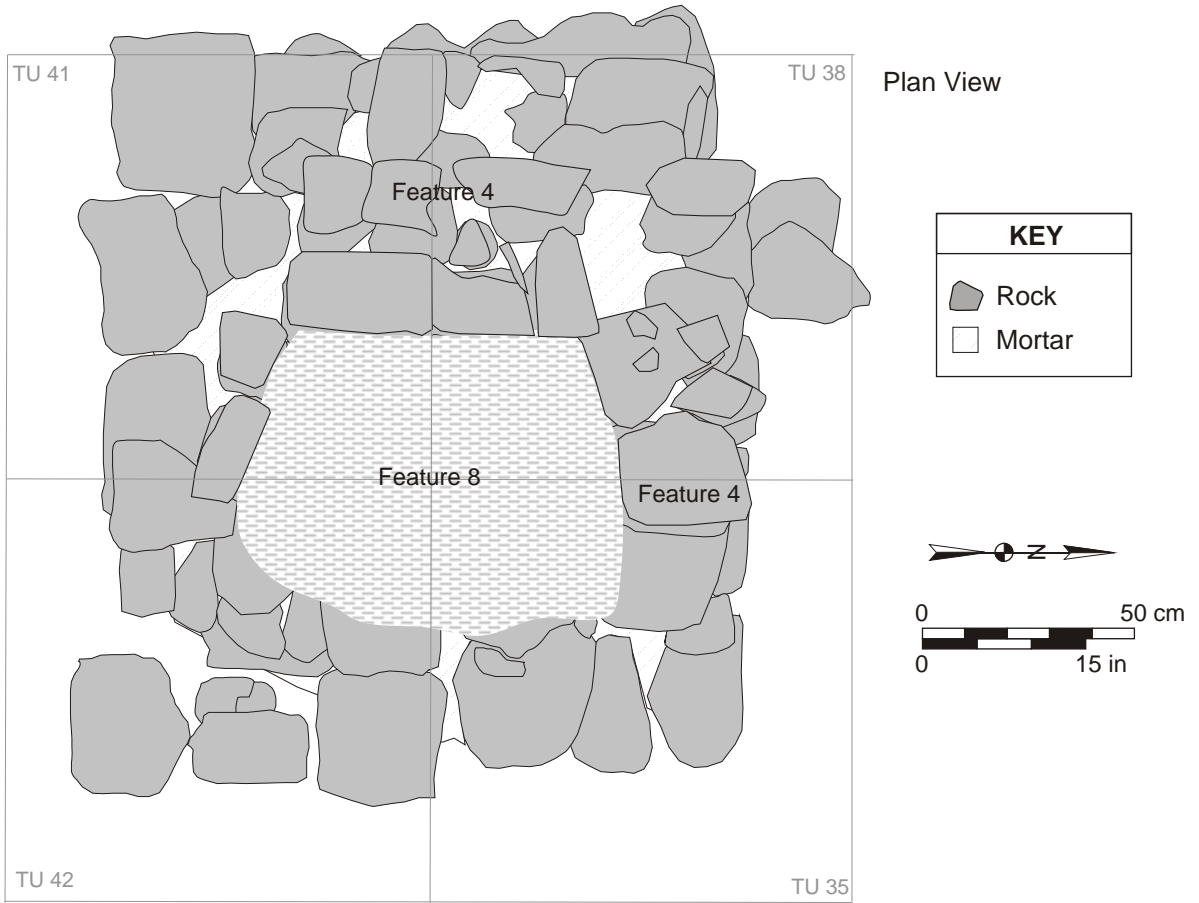
Group	Sub-group	Count		
		Layer A	Layer B	Total
Architectural	Building materials	2		2
	Nails	5	8	13
Faunal	Bone	13		13
	Eggshell	11		11
Floral	Seed	98		98
	Wood	26		26
	Unidentified	928		928
Furniture	Lighting		1	1
Kitchen	Ceramic	3		3
	Glass fragments	1	1	2
Miscellaneous		3		3
Tobacco	Ball clay pipes	1		1
Total		1,091	10	1,101

7.3.1.8 Feature 9, Possible Furniture Remains

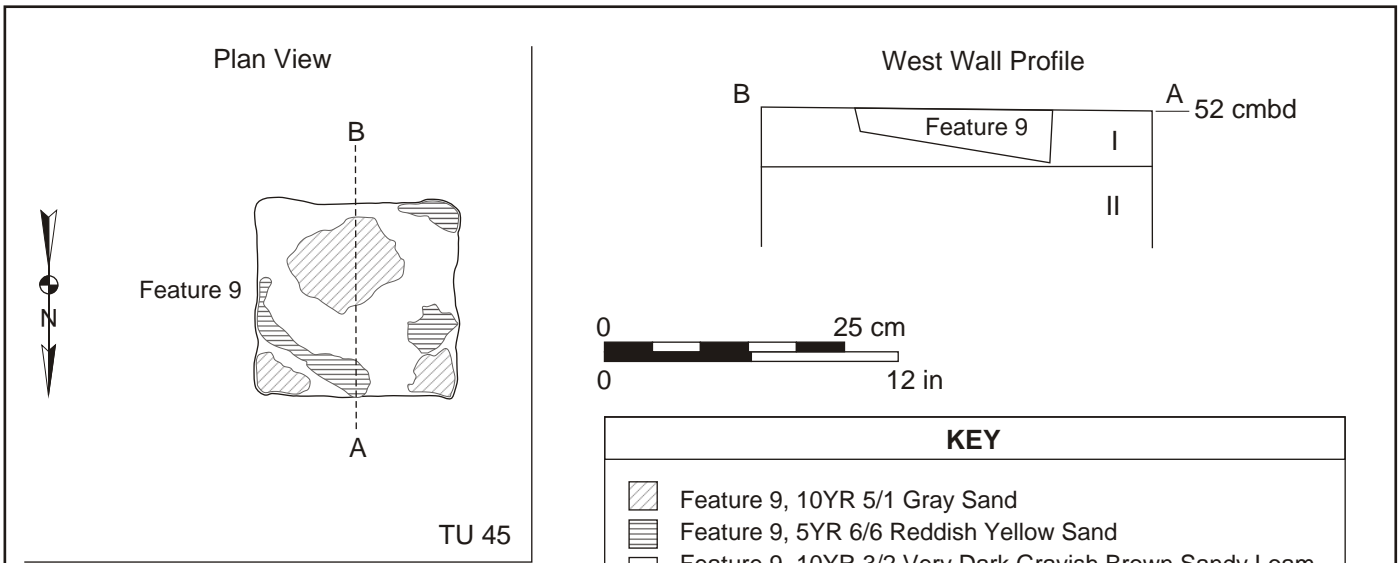
Feature 9 was a roughly rectangular shallow stain located within Feature 2 Layer A (Figures 64 and 79). The dimensions of the feature were 0.2 x 0.2 m (0.66 x 0.66 ft) with a thickness of 0.05 m (0.16 ft). The matrix was a sandy loam with mortar and ash; Munsell colors included very dark grayish brown (10YR 3/2), gray (10YR 5/1), and reddish yellow (5YR 6/6). Fifty-four artifacts were recovered from the feature; the majority of these were either a conglomerate of burned seed beads or unidentifiable metal fragments (Table 67). The location of this feature and its shape may indicate it was perhaps the remnants of a piece of furniture, such as a storage box.

Table 67. Summary of Feature 9 Artifacts

Group	Sub-group	Count
Architectural	Nails	4
Clothing	Beads	11
	Buttons	4
Faunal	Bone	9
Furniture	Knickknacks	6
Kitchen	Glass fragments	1
Miscellaneous	n/a	17
Personal	Stationery	2
Total		54



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Feature 8 Plan View, Test Units 35, 38, 41, and 42	
SCALE As shown			PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS			FIGURE NO. 78



KEY	
	Feature 9, 10YR 5/1 Gray Sand
	Feature 9, 5YR 6/6 Reddish Yellow Sand
	Feature 9, 10YR 3/2 Very Dark Grayish Brown Sandy Loam
I	Feature 2 Layer A, 10YR 3/2 Very Dark Grayish Brown Sandy Loam
II	Feature 2 Layer B, 10YR 3/2 Very Dark Grayish Brown Sandy Loam with Mortar



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Feature 9 Plan View and Profile, TU 45	
SCALE	As shown		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE	URS		FIGURE NO. 79

7.3.1.9 Feature 10, Furniture Remains

Feature 10 was an amorphous-shaped stain located at the base of Feature 2 in TUs 48, 51, 56, and 58 (Figures 64, 80, and 81). The feature measured approximately 1 x 0.5 m (3.28 x 1.64 ft) and was 0.15 m (0.49 ft) in thickness. The feature matrix was a dark brown (7.5YR 3/2) and brown (7.5YR 4/4) sandy loam. Feature 10 contained a dense concentration of brick, mortar, and a variety of artifacts (Table 68). In total, 2,828 artifacts were recovered from the feature and most of these were burned. The large artifact count for the miscellaneous group represents glass and metal fragments that were burned to the point of being unidentifiable. Of interest are the 122 fragments of pierced or punched metal fragments that appear to be panels from a pie safe. Feature 10 may indicate an area where furniture, such as a pie safe, was located.

Table 68. Summary of Feature 10 Artifacts

Group	Sub-group	Count
Activities	Construction tools	1
	Miscellaneous hardware	51
	Sewing	4
	Storage items	7
	Toys	1
Architectural	Building materials	20
	Nails	319
	Window	14
Arms	Ammunition	12
Clothing	Buckles	1
	Buttons	28
	Fasteners	1
	Shoes	2
	Other	2
Faunal	Bone	53
	Eggshell	122
	Insect	34
	Shell	2
	Tooth	2
Floral	Nutshell	98
	Seed	383
	Wood	471
	Miscellaneous	2
	Unidentified	23
Furniture	Clocks	2
	Hardware	4
	Lighting	15
	Mirrors	4
	Pie safe	122
	Stove	1
Kitchen	Bottles/jars	16
	Ceramic	251
	Glassware	3
	Tableware	4
	Glass fragments	94

Group	Sub-group	Count
Miscellaneous	n/a	635
Personal	Eyeglasses	4
	Jewelry	1
	Medicine bottles	1
	Stationery	1
	Toiletries	16
Tobacco	Tobacco tags	1
Total		2,828

7.3.1.10 Feature 11, Builder's Trench

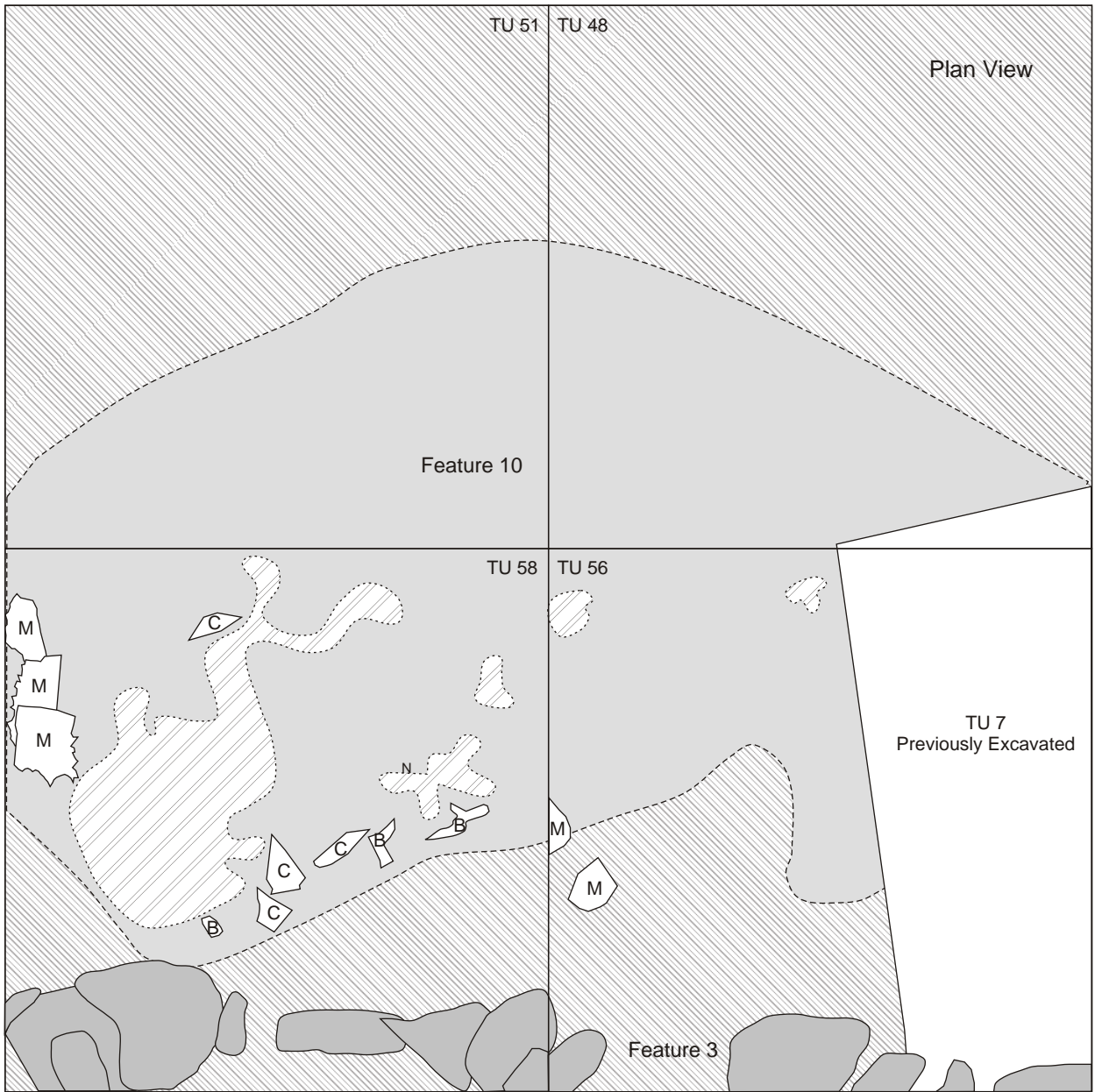
Feature 11 was a builder's trench associated with Feature 3 foundation and was located along the south interior wall of the house (Figures 64 and 82). The feature measured 1.63 x 0.17 m (5.35 x 0.56 ft) and was 0.175 m (0.574 ft) thick. The matrix was a very dark brown (7.5YR 2.5/2) sandy loam. Seventeen artifacts were recovered from Feature 11 (Table 69). The architectural group includes four cut nails. The artifacts are consistent with artifacts recovered from Feature 2; it is possible some of the artifacts were introduced into Feature 11 post-fire.

Table 69. Summary of Feature 11 Artifacts

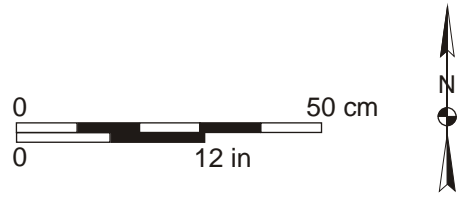
Group	Sub-group	Count
Activities	Construction tools	1
	Miscellaneous hardware	1
Architectural	Nails	4
Clothing	Buttons	4
	Fasteners	1
Faunal	Bone	1
	Tooth	1
Kitchen	Bottles/jars	1
	Ceramic	1
	Glass fragments	1
Tobacco	Tobacco tags	1
Total		17

7.3.1.11 Feature 16, Possible Builder's Trench

Feature 16 was a possible builder's trench associated with the Feature 4 chimney base (Figures 64 and 83). The feature was observed in profile on the south face of Feature 4 as a very dark grayish brown (10YR 3/2) silt loam. The feature was not visible on the north side of the chimney. When the chimney was dismantled and excavated, Feature 16 was not visible or distinct from the Feature 4 matrix. No artifacts were collected from Feature 16. It is possible the feature represents rodent or tree root disturbance (a large root was identified adjacent to the feature on the south face of the chimney).

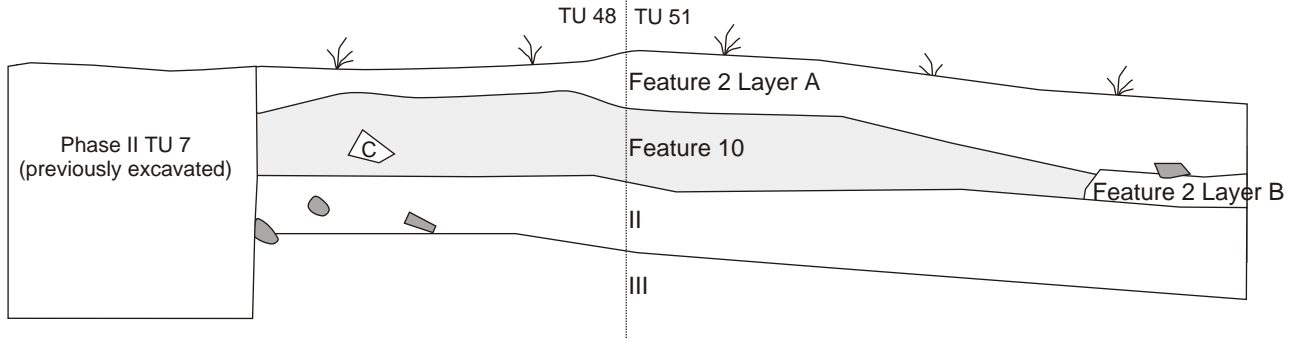


KEY	
	Feature 2 Layer B 10YR 3/1 Very Dark Grayish Brown Sandy Loam
	Feature 10 7.5YR 3/2 Dark Brown Sandy Loam with Dense Mortar and Architectural Debris
	Stone
	Mortar
	B Bottle
	C Ceramic
	M Sheet Metal
	N Nail



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Feature 10 Plan View, TUs 51, 48, 58, and 56	
SCALE As Shown			PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS			FIGURE NO. 80

South Wall Profile



KEY

Feature 2 Layer A	10YR 2/2 Very Dark Brown Sandy Loam
Feature 2 Layer B	10YR 3/2 Very Dark Grayish Brown Sandy Loam
Feature 10	7.5YR 3/2 Dark Brown Sandy Loam with Mortar and Architectural Debris
II, E Horizon	7.5YR 4/4 Brown Sandy Clay Loam
III, Bt Horizon	7.5YR 5/6 Strong Brown Clay Loam (not excavated)
C	Ceramic
	Rock



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

Feature 10 South Wall Profile, TUs 48 and 51

SCALE As Shown

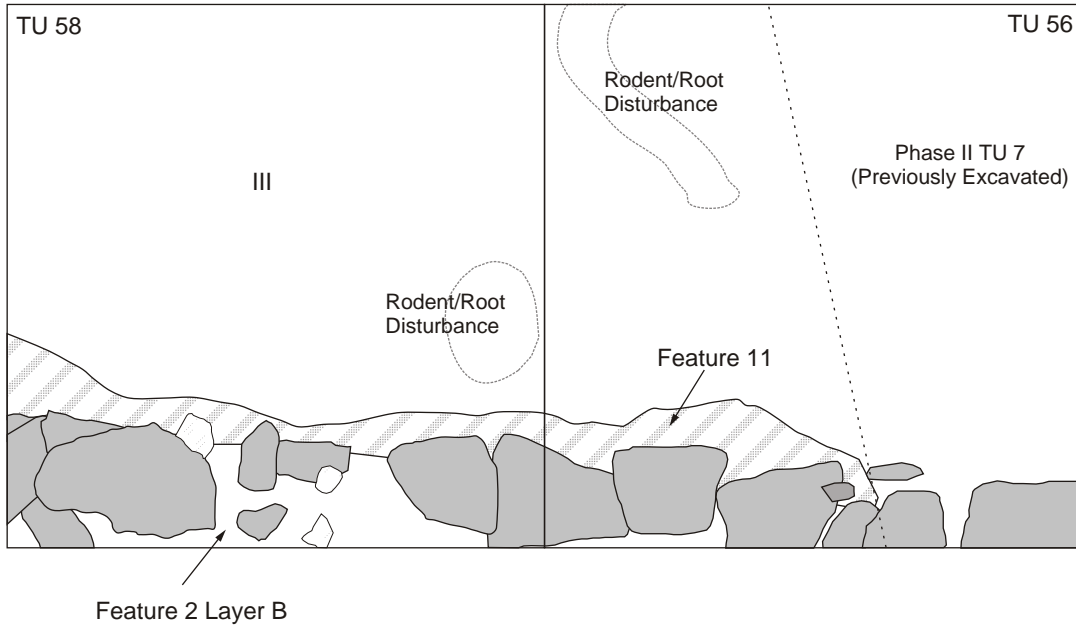
URS

PROJECT NO. 20831016

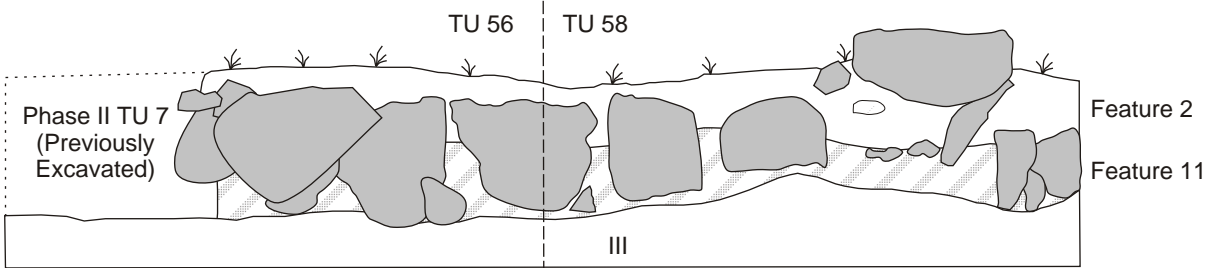
SOURCE URS

FIGURE NO. 81

Plan View



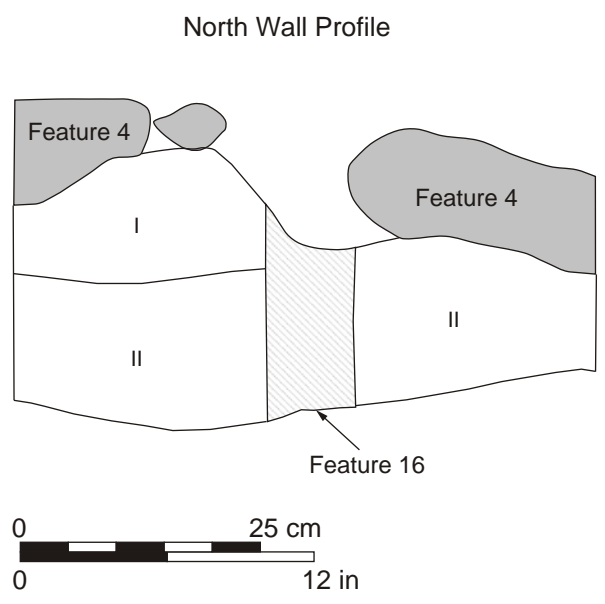
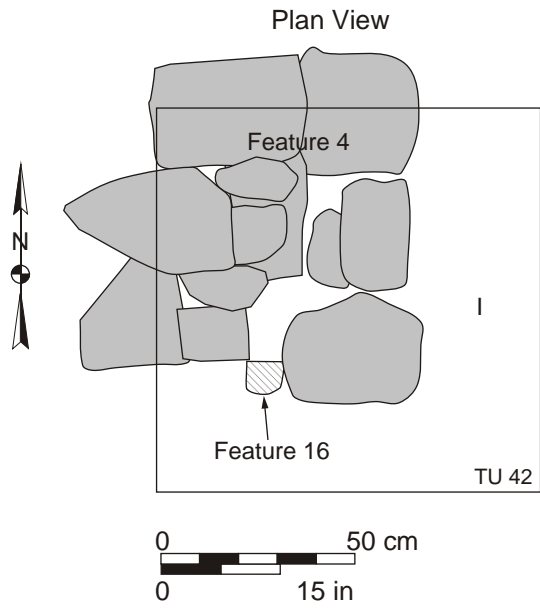
South Wall Profile



KEY	
Feature 2 Layer B	10YR 3/2 Very Dark Grayish Brown Sandy Loam
Feature 11	7.5YR 2.5/2 Very Dark Brown Sandy Loam
III, Bt Horizon	7.5YR 4/4 Brown Sandy Clay Loam (not excavated)
	Feature 3 Foundation Wall
	Mortar Fragment



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Feature 11 Plan View and Profile, Test Units 56 and 58	
SCALE 1 inch = 36 cm (14 in)		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 82



KEY	
	Feature 16 10YR 3/2 Very Dark Grayish Brown Silt Loam
I	Feature 4 7.5YR 3/1 Very Dark Gray with 10YR 2/1 Black Sandy Loam with Mortar and Brick
II	Feature 4 Fill 7.5YR 5/4 Brown Compact Silt Loam with 50% Quartz Gravel (pad for chimney)
	Rock



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Feature 16 Plan View and Profile, Test Unit 42	
SCALE As shown			PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS			FIGURE NO. 83

7.3.2 STRUCTURE B, POSSIBLE DOMESTIC STRUCTURE

Structure B was located at the edge of the ridge northwest of Structure A (Figure 50). Structure B consists of a single feature (Feature 1); an artifact concentration is associated with the feature. Both are discussed below.

7.3.2.1 Feature 1, Possible Domestic Cellar

Feature 1 (Structure B) was identified during the Phase II investigations of 18MO609 Locus C (Figure 59). The feature consisted of a large pit measuring roughly 4 x 3 m (13.1 x 9.8 ft) and was approximately 1.2 m (3.93 ft) deep. It was clear that once it outlived its original purpose, Feature 1 was used as a trash dump. The pit was filled with ca. 1940s-1990s trash, including plastic bleach bottles, Log Cabin maple syrup bottles, Donald Duck frozen concentrate orange juice cans, aluminum pie plates, Ponds cold cream jars, motor oil cans, a kitchen sink, and a variety of other glass jars and household debris (Figure 84). A backhoe was used to remove this late twentieth century debris so that excavations in the interior of the pit could be conducted. These modern artifacts were not retained.


Four STPs and three TUs were excavated to investigate this feature (Figure 85). The STPs and two of the TUs (TUs 23 and 24) were excavated along the margin of Feature 1; TU 67 was excavated at its base. No foundation or other structural remains were identified in the excavations.

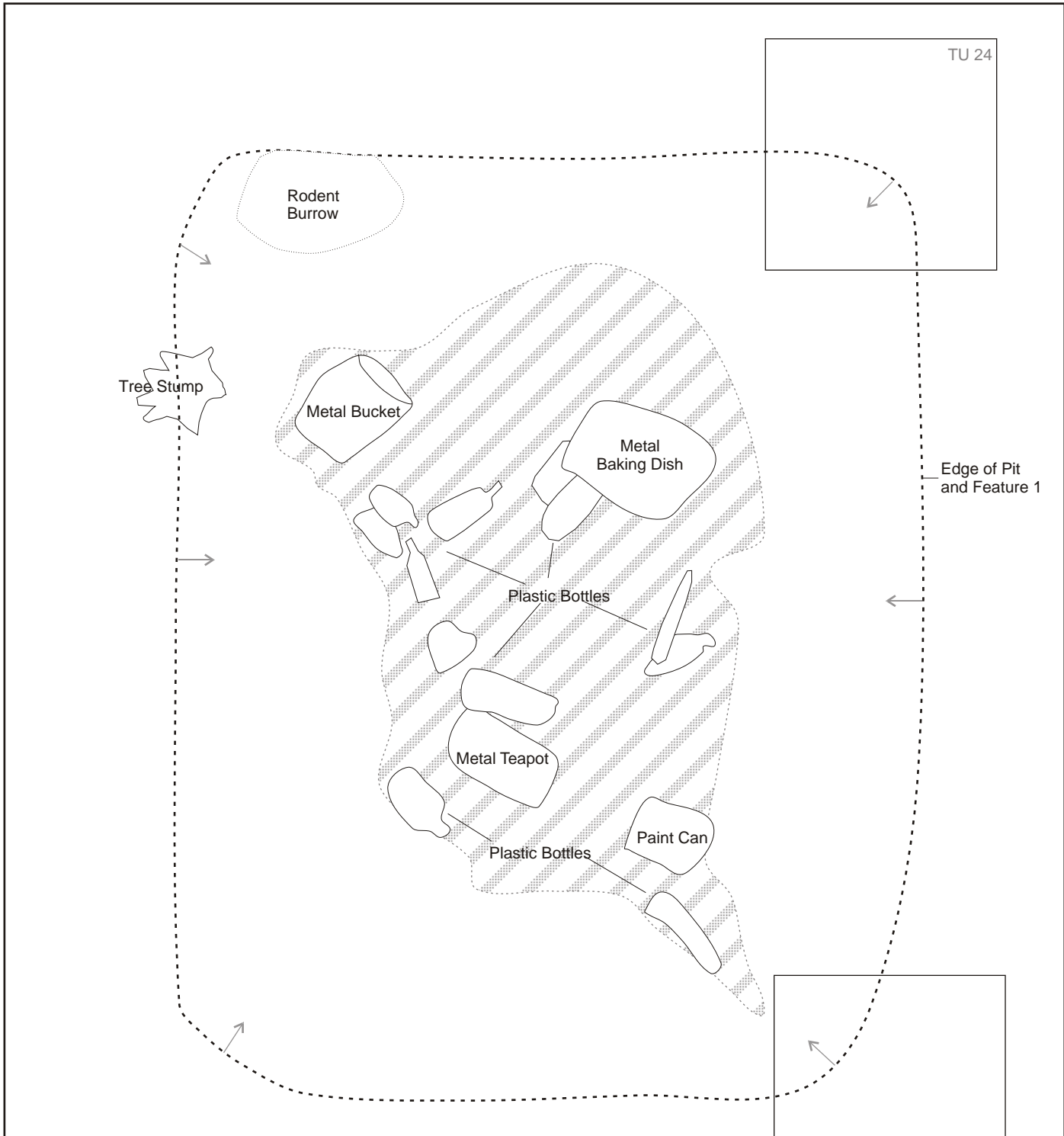
Soils documented through excavation conformed to natural soil profiles documented elsewhere on site. The soils in TUs 23 and 24 consisted of a brown (10YR 4/3) silt loam A Horizon overlying a strong brown (7.5YR 4/6) clay loam B Horizon (Figure 86). The B Horizon overlaid a strong brown (7.5YR 5/8) sandy clay loam BC Horizon that contained 30 percent schist channers. Soils along the western and southern margins of Feature 1 were slightly mounded, suggesting they represented spoils piles from excavating the pit. This is obvious in the west profile for TU 23, which shows a fill layer representing redeposited soil from the pit. The development of an A Horizon over this layer may indicate the pit was excavated during the Jackson occupation (versus after 1940), as some time would have needed to elapse for the A Horizon to form. TU 67 had fill layers on top of BC Horizon soils (Figure 87).




In total, 353 artifacts were recovered from Structure B, which includes Feature 1 and its associated artifacts (Table 70). One glass fragment was recovered from the STP on the west side of the feature. The kitchen group artifacts include 170 glass fragments, probably from bottles and jars. Thirteen plastic fragments were also recovered from TU 67. While there are no foundations or other structural remains, the artifacts from Feature 1 suggest it was likely a nineteenth century cellar for a domestic structure or, possibly, an outbuilding.



Figure 84. Structure B, Feature 1, Facing North


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Project Photographs	
SCALE As Shown		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 84

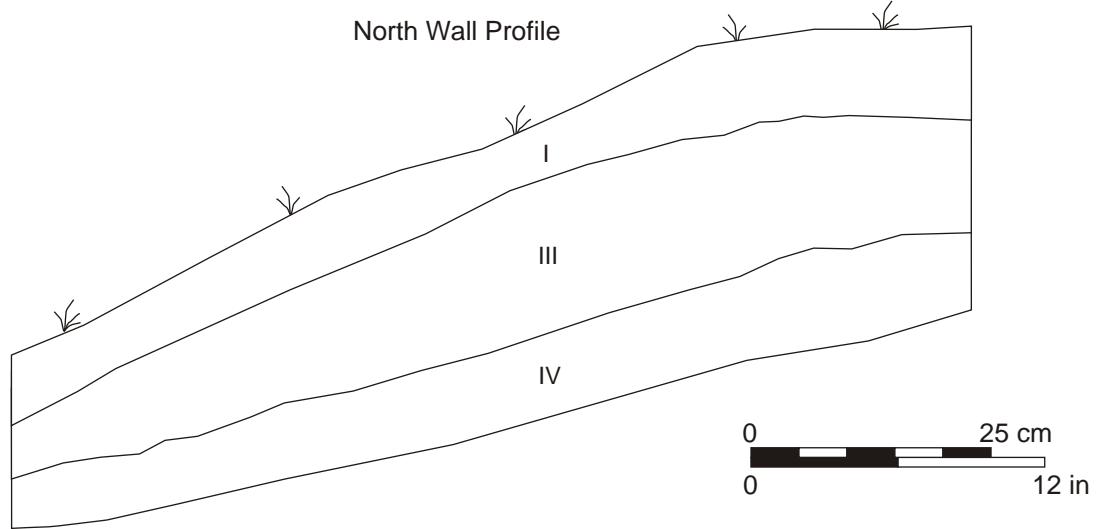


KEY	
	Miscellaneous Metal, Plastic, and Paper Debris
	Edge of Pit Feature
	Showing Downward Slope



PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III
SCALE	1 inch = 0.63 m (2 ft)
SOURCE	URS

Structure B, Feature 1 Plan View	
	PROJECT NO. 20831016
	FIGURE NO. 85

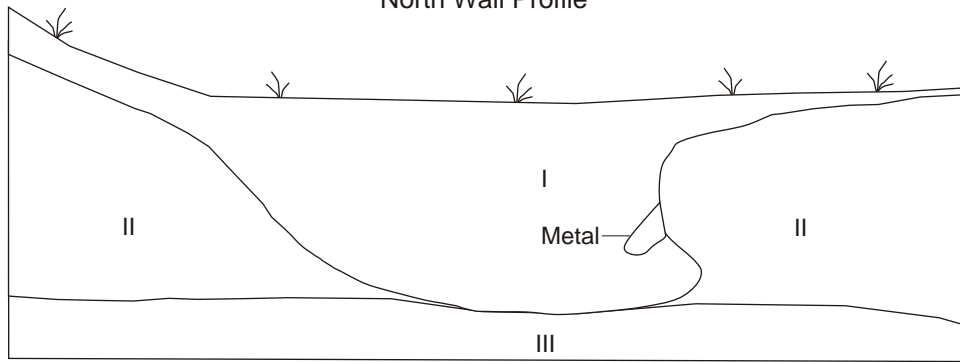


KEY	
I	A Horizon, 10YR 4/3 Brown Silt Loam
II	Fill, 7.5YR 5/8 Strong Brown Clay Loam (not present in this wall profile)
III	Bt Horizon, 7.5YR 4/6 Strong Brown Clay Loam
IV	C Horizon, 7.5YR 5/8 Strong Brown Sandy Clay Loam with 30% Schist Channers (not excavated)



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Structure B, TU 23 North Wall Profile	
SCALE As shown			PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS			FIGURE NO. 86

North Wall Profile



KEY	
I	Fill, 7.5YR 4/4 Brown Clay Loam
II	Fill, 7.5YR 5/6 Strong Brown Clay Loam
III	C Horizon, Saprolite (not excavated)




PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Structure B, TU 67 North Wall Profile	
SCALE As shown			PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS			FIGURE NO. 87

Table 70. Summary of Artifacts from Feature 1, Structure B

Group	Sub-group	Count
Activities	Construction tools	2
	Farm tools	1
	Miscellaneous hardware	6
	Sewing	1
	Storage items	13
Architectural	Building materials	2
	Nails	3
	Window	33
Clothing	Buttons	5
	Fasteners	1
	Shoes	1
Debitage	n/a	1
Floral	Wood	3
Furniture	Knickknacks	1
	Lighting	1
Kitchen	Bottles/jars	48
	Ceramic	2
	Food containers	1
	Kitchenware	3
	Glass fragments	170
Miscellaneous	n/a	44
Personal	Jewelry	1
	Luggage	7
	Medicine bottles	1
	Toiletries	2
Total		353

7.3.2.2 Artifact Concentration

A concentration of historic artifacts was identified south of Feature 1 and may represent structure demolition debris or trash discard. Two STPs and two TUs (TUs 4 and 69) were excavated in this area (Figure 59).

One of the STPs, located on the south side of Feature 1, contained 89 artifacts. TUs 4 and 69 were excavated in this area to explore the artifact concentration found in the STP. The other STP contained a single glass fragment.

TU 4, excavated during the Phase II evaluation, was located on the slope near the southwest corner of Feature 1. The top layer of the profile consisted of a very dark gray (10YR 3/1) silt loam with five percent gravel; this appeared to represent a midden deposit. This layer was underlain by a brown (7.5YR 5/4) silty clay loam Bt Horizon with 15 percent gravel and cobbles which overlaid a brown (7.5YR 5/4) clay loam C Horizon with 30 percent schist channers (Figure 45). TU 69 was located 2 m (6.56 ft) east of TU 4. Its profile for TU 69 consisted of a very dark grayish brown (10YR 3/2) loam that appeared to represent midden or fill. Underlying the top layer was a brown (10YR 4/3) sandy clay loam A Horizon that overlaid a strong brown (7.5YR 5/6) clay loam C Horizon with 30 percent schist channers (Figure 88).

In total, 174 artifacts were recovered from the artifact concentration located on the south side of Feature 1 (Table 71). Several artifact groups show relatively high counts. The majority of the kitchen group artifacts are glass fragments; whiteware, porcelain, and stoneware fragments are also present. The clothing group in STP N197 E590 is represented by 10 pieces of a leather shoe, and the furniture group includes 10 lighting glass fragments. The architectural group includes window glass, cut nails, and wire nails. The range of artifact groups suggests a domestic function for the feature.

Table 71. Summary of Artifacts from Artifact Concentration Associated with Feature 1

Group	Sub-group	Count
Activities	Miscellaneous hardware	5
	Stable and barn	2
Architectural	Building materials	1
	Nails	9
	Window	10
Clothing	Buckles	1
	Shoes	10
Floral	Wood	5
Furniture	Knickknacks	1
	Lighting	26
	Stove	4
Kitchen	Bottles/jars	6
	Ceramic	10
	Glass fragments	79
Miscellaneous	n/a	1
Personal	Jewelry	2
	Toiletries	2
Total		174

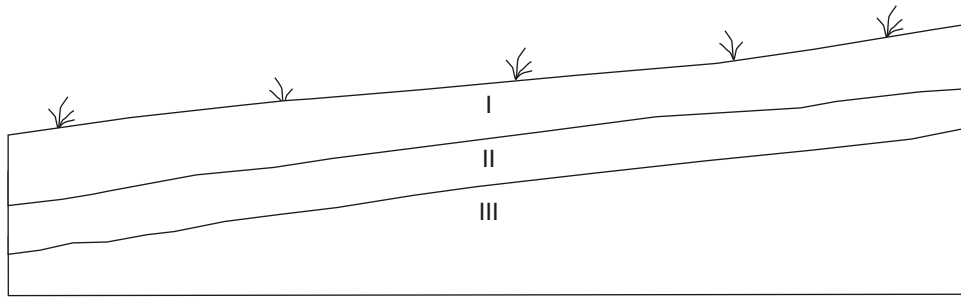
7.3.3 STRUCTURE C, SMALL DOMESTIC STRUCTURE

Structure C was located on the ridge top approximately 60 m (197 ft) north of Structure A (Figures 50 and 89). Two features comprised the structure: Feature 13, stone piers and steps to the structure, and Feature 14, a brick pile.

7.3.3.1 Feature 13, Stone Piers and Steps

Feature 13 consisted of four fieldstone piers, associated quartz gravel pads, and fieldstone steps (Figure 90). One of the fieldstone piers, located on the northeast corner of the structure, was displaced approximately 1 m (3.28 ft) from its original location on a quartz pad. The southeast quartz pad and fieldstone pier was disturbed with the pier displaced slightly. The northwest and southwest piers appeared to be only slightly disturbed. The piers/pads form the base of a rectangular structure measuring roughly 3.8 x 3.1 m (12.5 x 10.1 ft). The pads were placed on subsoil (Bt Horizon).

North Wall Profile



KEY


- I Midden/Fill, 10YR 3/2 Very Dark Grayish Brown Loam
- II A Horizon, 10YR 4/3 Brown Sandy Clay Loam
- III C Horizon, 7.5YR 5/6 Strong Brown Clay Loam with 30% Schist Channers (not excavated)










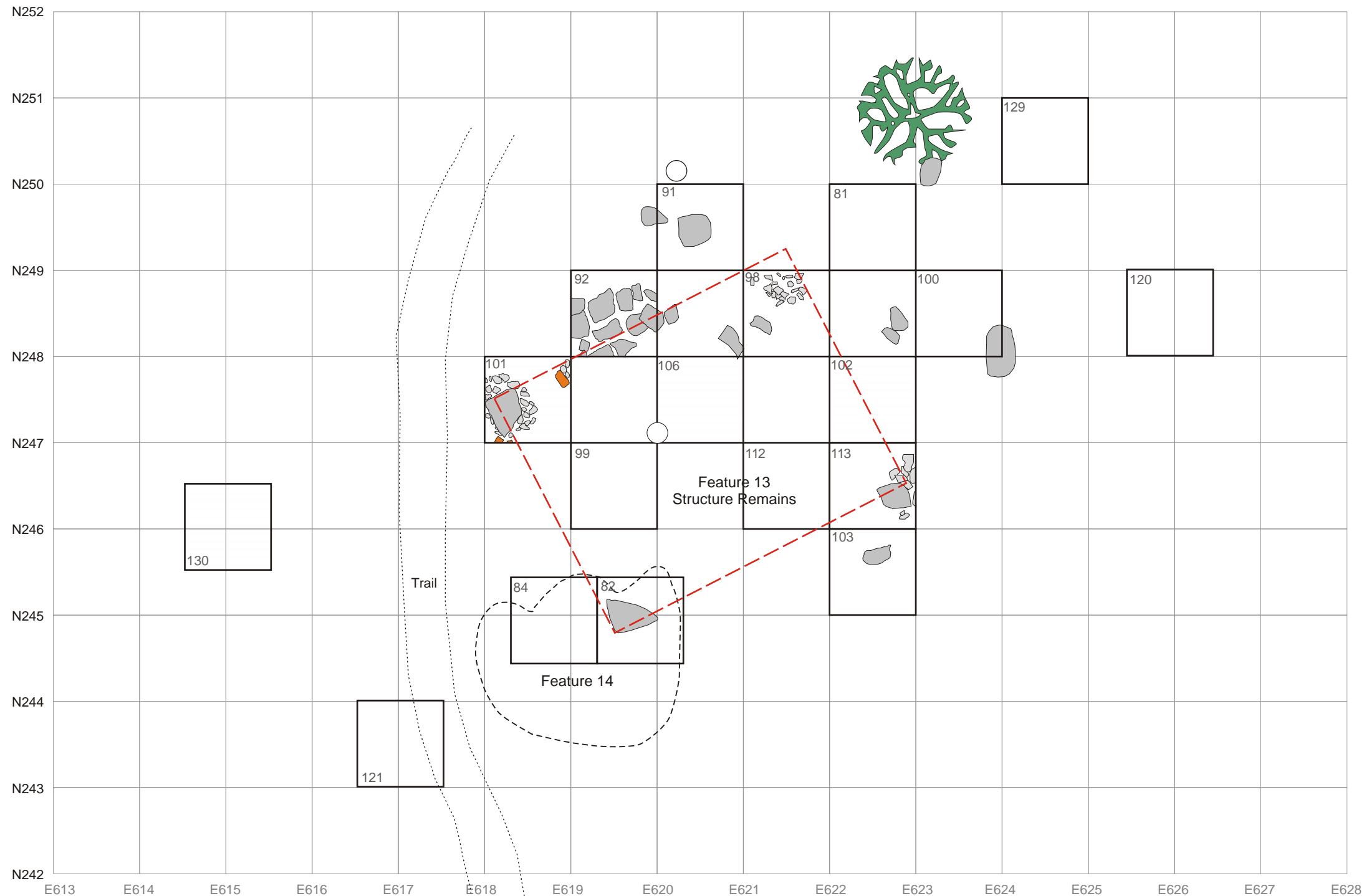
PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Structure B Yard, TU 69 North Wall Profile	
SCALE As shown			PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS			FIGURE NO. 88




Figure 89. Structure C Overview Facing Northeast

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Project Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 89

KEY	
	Rock
	Approximate Building Outline
	Feature 14
	Brick
	Test Unit
	Shovel Test Pit
	Tree



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Structure C Plan View	
SCALE 1 inch = 1.4 m (4.6 ft)		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 90

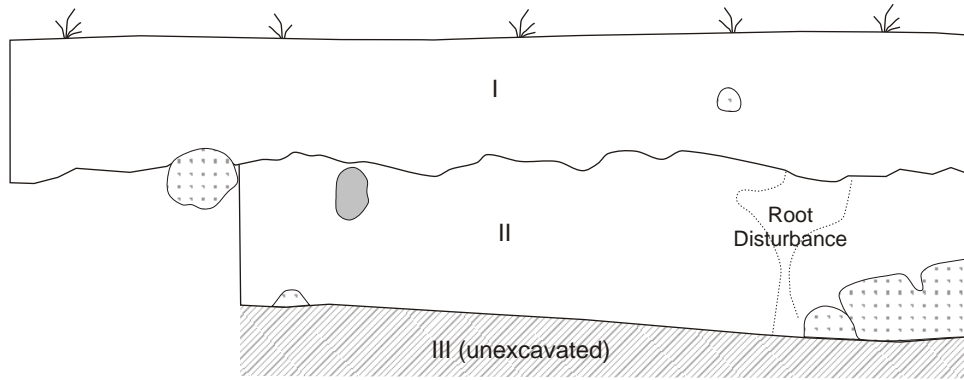
The 10-m (32.8-ft) testing grid was extended to the Structure C area. Two STPs north of Feature 13 produced artifacts; the artifacts included four wire nails, two window glass fragments, and one kitchen glass fragment. The two window glass fragments are likely from the structure, but because they were located more than 10 m (32.81 ft) north of the structure, they are not included as part of the structure assemblage. Eighteen TUs were excavated in the Feature 13 area to define its boundaries and determine if any subsurface features existed. Stratigraphy consisted of three soil horizons (Figure 91). The A Horizon consisted of a very dark grayish brown (10YR 3/2) silty clay loam. This horizon overlaid an E Horizon consisting of a yellowish brown (10YR 5/4) clay loam, which in turn overlaid a yellowish brown (10YR 5/8) clay loam Bt Horizon.

In total, 693 artifacts were recovered from the A and E Horizons around Feature 13 and Structure C (Table 72). The artifacts from the architectural group include 282 window glass fragments and 108 wire nails. These artifacts, along with brick fragments, a door hinge, and roofing shingles, provide support for a structure at this location. The relatively low quantities of domestic artifacts suggest the structure had a short-term or impermanent function. Census records indicate the Jacksons had boarders during the early twentieth century; Structure C may have functioned as a small house for the boarders' sleeping quarters. The low quantity of kitchen artifacts may support this, as it suggests the boarders took their meals in the main house.

Table 72. Summary of Feature 13, Structure C, Artifacts

Group	Sub-group	Count
Activities	Miscellaneous hardware	11
	Sewing	1
	Stable and barn	1
	Toys	1
Architectural	Building materials	16
	Door parts	1
	Finishing materials	50
	Nails	189
	Spikes	3
	Window	280
Arms	Ammunition	3
Clothing	Buttons	2
	Shoes	2
Debitage	n/a	3
Faunal	Shell	2
Floral	Wood	3
Furniture	Lighting	16
	Stove	6
Kitchen	Bottles/jars	9
	Ceramic	9
	Glassware	10
	Glass fragments	38
Miscellaneous	n/a	28
Personal	Medicine bottles	1
	Toiletries	8
Total		693

South Wall Profile



KEY	
I	A Horizon, 10YR 3/2 Very Dark Grayish Brown Sandy Loam
II	E Horizon, 10YR 5/4 Yellowish Brown Clay Loam
III	Bt Horizon, 10YR5/8 Yellowish Brown Clay Loam (unexcavated)
○	Root
●	Rock



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Structure C, TU 81 South Wall Profile	
SCALE As shown		URS	PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS			FIGURE NO. 91

7.3.3.2 Feature 14, Brick Pile

Feature 14 was located at the southwest corner of Structure C (Figure 90) and consisted of a surface pile of bricks that partially overlaid the southwest fieldstone pier associated with Feature 13. Feature 14 measured 2.4 x 2.4 m (7.9 ft x 7.9 ft) and was 0.15 m (0.49 ft) high. Two TUs were placed on the north side of the brick pile to bisect the feature and investigate the deposits. Excavation confirmed Feature 14 was a disarticulated pile confined to the surface. Other than brick, no artifacts were recovered from the feature. The bricks were in various conditions; some were broken and some had exfoliating faces. The bricks do not appear to be associated with a fireplace; none had mortar attached to them or exhibited fire-darkened faces.

The function and origin of Feature 14 are unclear. It is possible the brick was part of a structural feature associated with Feature 13. It is also possible the brick is associated with Structure A down the hill, and was salvaged from the main house after the fire. A third possibility is the brick is associated with landowners after the Jackson occupation and was placed in its location for some unknown purpose.

7.3.4 YARD FEATURES

Five features were identified in the yard areas: one in the east yard, one in the north yard, and three in the south yard. The features include one posthole and postmold (Feature 12), one drainage trench (Feature 15), two midden deposits (Features 18 and 19), and one noncultural feature (a rodent burrow, Feature 17). These are described below.

7.3.4.1 Feature 12, Posthole and Postmold

Feature 12 is a postmold (Feature 12a) and a posthole (Feature 12b) located in the east yard approximately 5 m (16.4 ft) from Structure A (Figure 59). Feature 12a measured 0.25 x 0.25 m (0.82 x 0.82 ft) in footprint and was 0.60 m (1.97 ft) deep (Figure 92). The matrix was a dark yellowish brown (10YR 4/4) sandy clay loam. Feature 12b measured 0.37 x 0.37 m (1.21 x 1.21 ft) and was 0.45 m (1.48 ft) deep. The matrix was a brown (7.5YR 4/4) sandy clay loam. The posthole contained fieldstone chinking. Bisection of the feature showed a squared bottom postmold and an irregularly shaped posthole.

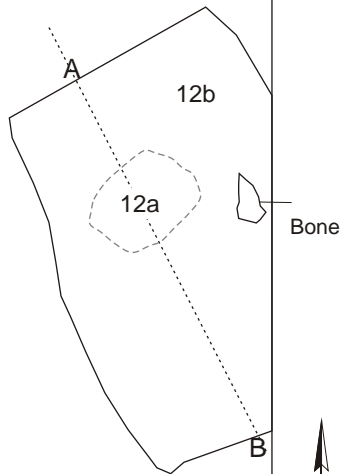
In total, 23 artifacts were recovered from Feature 12 (Table 73). Architectural artifacts include bricks and two unidentifiable nails. One pearlware fragment was recovered from Feature 12b. Other than the pearlware, no diagnostic artifacts were recovered from Feature 12.

Table 73. Summary of Feature 12 Artifacts

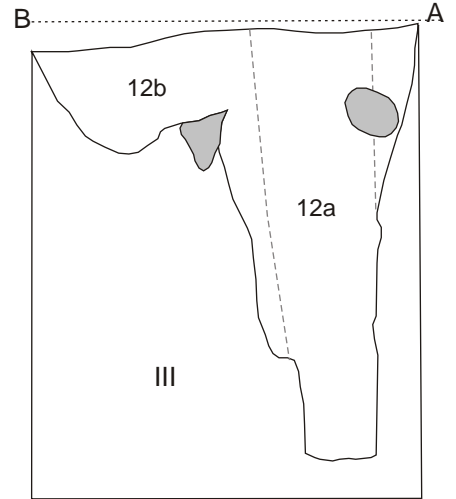
Group	Sub-group	Count	
		Feature 12a Postmold	Feature 12b Posthole
Architectural	Building materials	1	4
	Nails	2	
Faunal	Bone		1
Kitchen	Ceramic		1
	Glass fragments	1	3
Miscellaneous	n/a		9
Prehistoric Debitage	n/a		1
Total		4	19

TU 71

Plan View



Southwest Wall Profile



KEY

- Feature 12a, Postmold 110YR4/4 Dark Yellowish Brown Sandy Clay Loam
- Feature 12b, Post Hole 7.5YR4/4 Brown Sandy Clay Loam
- III, Bt Horizon 10YR4/6 Dark Yellowish Brown Clay Loam (not excavated)
- Rock



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

SCALE As shown

SOURCE URS

Feature 12 Plan View and Profile, Test Unit 71



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 92

Artifacts recovered from the A Horizon above Feature 12 were contemporaneous with Structure A. It appears Feature 12 represents the post to an early lean-to or outbuilding off the cellar. The feature appears to be associated with Structure A and could date to the earlier single-pen occupation, based on the pearlware sherd recovered from Feature 12b.

7.3.4.2 Feature 15, Drainage Trench

Feature 15 was located in the south yard near the house and appears to be a drainage trench (Figures 59 and 93). The feature was identified in two TUs (TUs 87 and 88) running in a northeast-southwest direction. The feature was not fully excavated so its length is unknown; its width measured 0.5 m (1.64 ft) and it was 0.4 m (1.31 ft) deep. The northeast corner of the feature appeared to indicate the trench turned and ran in a more easterly direction parallel to the house. Bisection of the feature showed an irregular basin shape. The feature matrix consisted of a brown (7.5YR 4/4) sandy clay loam.

In total, 26 artifacts were recovered from Feature 15 (Table 74). The architectural group includes 18 window glass fragments. No diagnostic artifacts were recovered from the feature. Feature 15 may have functioned to drain water away from the house foundation and cellar.

Table 74. Summary of Feature 15 Artifacts

Group	Sub-group	Count
Architectural	Window	18
Arms	Ammunition	1
Clothing	Buttons	1
Kitchen	Ceramic	1
	Glass fragments	3
Miscellaneous	n/a	2
Total		26

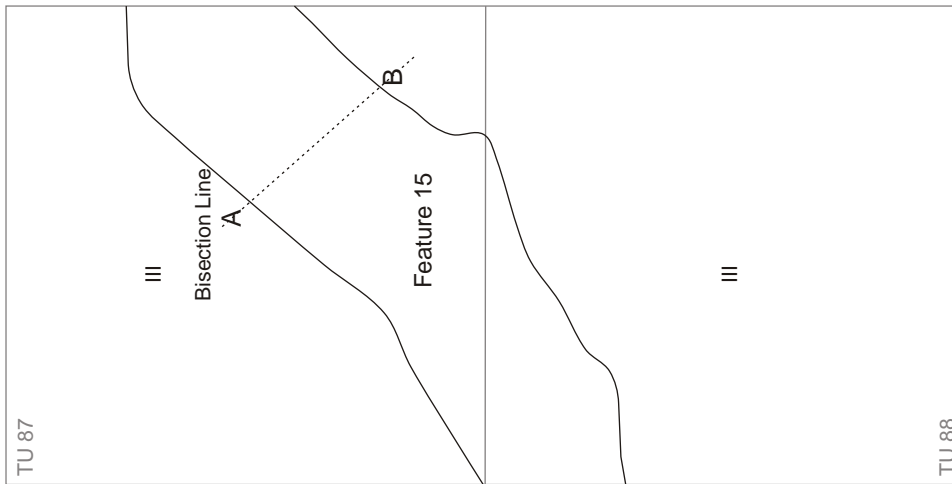
7.3.4.3 Feature 17, Rodent Burrow

Feature 17 was located in the north yard in TU 128 (Figures 59 and 94). It measured 0.28 x 0.22 m (0.92 x 0.72 ft) and appeared to be a posthole. The matrix was a brown (7.5YR 4/4) silty clay loam and was loosely compacted and filled with roots. Bisection showed the feature to be approximately 0.45 m (1.48 ft) deep; at the base several offshoots were noted running to the north and west of the feature. No artifacts were recovered from the feature. Feature 17 is interpreted as a rodent burrow and is noncultural.

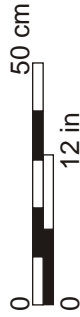
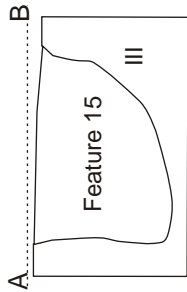
7.3.4.4 Feature 18, Midden

Feature 18 was a midden deposit located in the south yard (Figure 59). One STP and two TUs were excavated in this area to investigate the feature. The full horizontal dimensions of the feature are unknown. Because of its location on a slope, the feature thickness ranged from 0.26–0.37 m (0.85–1.21 ft) thick. The feature matrix consisted of two organic layers overlying subsoil (Figure 95). Layer A, the upper layer, consisted of a very dark grayish brown (10YR 3/2) sandy clay loam, and Layer B, the lower layer, consisted of a dark brown (10YR 3/3) sandy clay loam. The subsoil was a brown (7.5YR 4/4) clay loam BC Horizon.

Plan View



Northeast Wall Profile



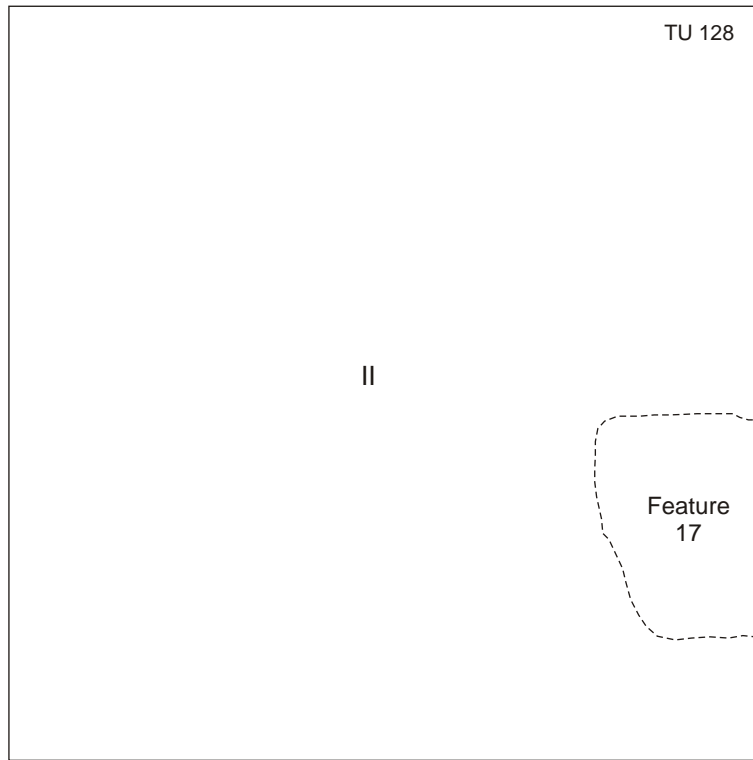
KEY	
Feature 15	7.5YR 4/4 Brown Sandy Clay Loam
III, C Horizon	5YR 4/6 Red Clay Loam (not excavated)



PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III	Feature 15 Plan View and Profile, TUs 87 and 88	
SCALE	As shown	PROJECT NO.	20831016
SOURCE	URS	FIGURE NO.	93



Plan View

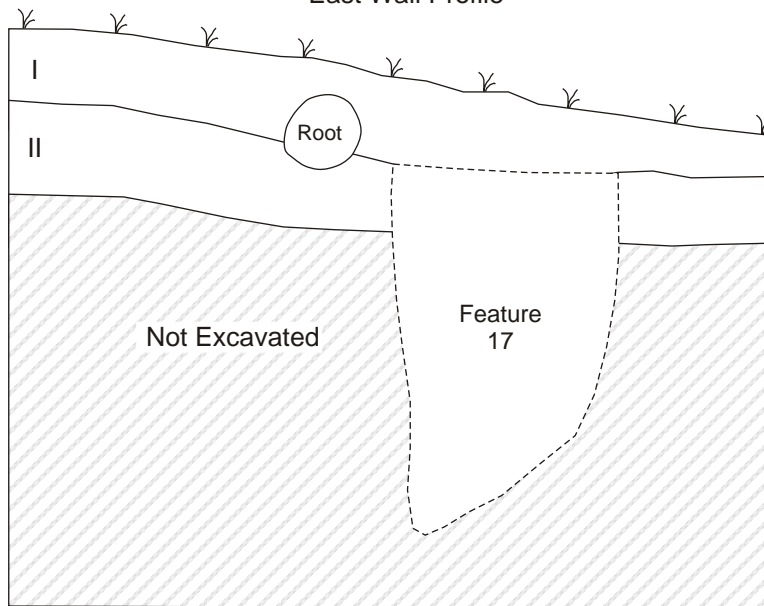


KEY

I, A Horizon	10YR 3/3 Dark Brown Silt Loam
II, Bt Horizon	10YR 4/6 Dark Yellowish Brown Silty Clay Loam
Feature 17	7.5YR 4/4 Brown Silty Clay Loam



East Wall Profile



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

SCALE 1 inch = 25 cm (9.8 in)

SOURCE URS

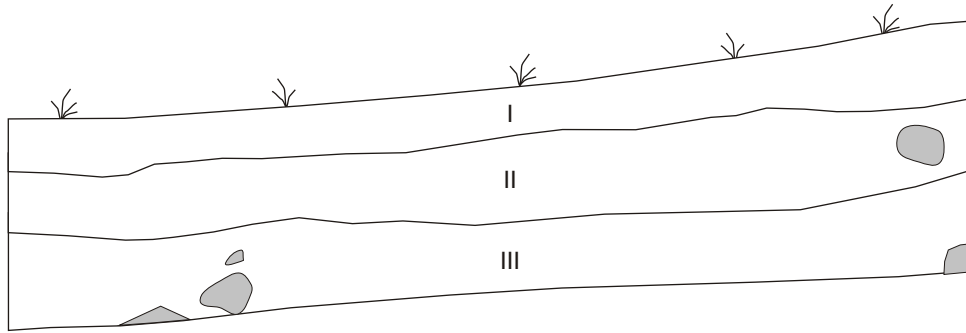
Feature 17 Plan View and Profile, Test Unit 128



PROJECT NO. 20831016


FIGURE NO. 94

West Wall Profile



KEY	
I	A Horizon, 10YR 3/2 Very Dark Grayish Brown Sandy Clay Loam
II	E Horizon, 10YR 3/3 Dark Brown Sandy Clay Loam
III	Bt Horizon, 7.5YR 4/4 Brown Clay Loam with Gravel
■	Rock



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		South Yard, TU 74 West Wall Profile	
SCALE As shown			PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS			FIGURE NO. 95

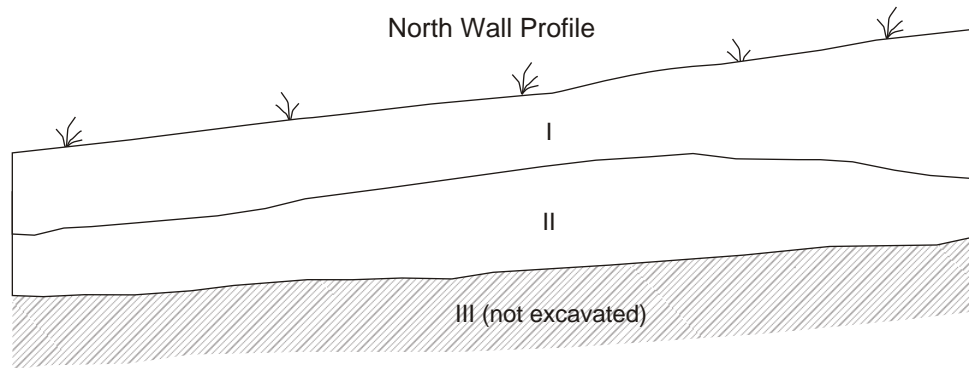
In total, 1,011 artifacts were recovered from Feature 18 (Table 75). The kitchen group constituted 84 percent of the Feature 18 assemblage; the majority of this group consisted of 598 kitchen glass fragments. The large quantity of kitchen artifacts suggests this area was used as a midden during the occupation by the Jackson family. Burned artifacts were recovered from both feature layers, indicating this area was used post-fire to dispose of trash.

Table 75. Summary of Feature 18 Artifacts

Group	Sub-group	Count		
		Layer A	Layer B	Total
Activities	Miscellaneous hardware	4	1	5
	Music		2	2
	Toys	2	1	3
Architectural	Building materials	4	1	5
	Finishing materials	1		1
	Nails	4	4	8
	Window	48	29	77
	Other	1		1
Arms	Ammunition	2	2	4
Clothing	Buttons	4	2	6
	Shoes	2		2
Faunal	Bone		1	1
Furniture	Hardware	1		1
	Knickknacks	1	1	2
	Lighting	7	12	19
	Stove	1		1
Kitchen	Bottles/jars	29	9	38
	Ceramic	130	58	188
	Glassware	17	5	22
	Glass fragments	409	189	598
Miscellaneous	n/a	6	15	21
Personal	Coins		1	1
	Medical	1		1
	Medicine bottles	1	1	2
	Other	1		1
Tobacco	Ball clay pipes		1	1
Total		676	335	1,011

7.3.4.5 Feature 19, Midden

Feature 19 was a midden deposit located in the south yard (Figure 59). This feature was investigated with one TU (TU 114). One STP located approximately 0.5 m (1.64 ft) southeast of the feature produced only seven artifacts and was not considered part of the feature. The horizontal dimensions of the feature are unknown. The feature consisted of two thin layers dense with artifacts (Figure 96). Layer A, the upper layer, was 0.08 m (0.262 ft) thick and consisted of a black (10YR 2/1) loam. Layer B, the lower layer, was 0.1 m (0.328 ft) thick and consisted of a mottled very dark grayish brown (10YR 3/2) and dark yellowish brown (10YR 4/4) clay loam.



KEY	
I, Feature 19 Layer A	10YR 2/1 Black Loam with 5% Gravel
II, Feature 19 Layer B	10YR 3/2 Very Dark Grayish Brown Mottled with 10YR 4/4 Dark Yellowish Brown Clay Loam with 10% Gravel and Schist
III, C Horizon	7.5YR 4/6 Strong Brown Clay Loam with 30% Schist Channers (not excavated)



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		South Yard, TU 114 North Wall Profile	
SCALE As shown			PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS			FIGURE NO. 96

In total, 346 artifacts were recovered from Feature 19 (Table 76). The majority of the artifacts consists of kitchen glass fragments (n=112), whiteware (n=59), and window glass (n=53). The large quantity of kitchen artifacts suggests this area was used as a midden during the occupation by the Jackson family. Burned artifacts were recovered from both feature layers, indicating this area was used post-fire to dispose of trash.

Table 76. Summary of Feature 19 Artifacts

Group	Sub-group	Count		
		Layer A	Layer B	Total
Activities	Storage items		2	2
	Toys	3		3
Architectural	Building materials	1	1	2
	Nails	10	3	13
	Window	40	13	53
Arms	Ammunition	1	1	2
Clothing	Shoes	3		3
Faunal	Bone	6	4	10
	Tooth	3	1	4
Furniture	Mirrors	2		2
Kitchen	Bottles/jars	5		5
	Ceramic	66	34	100
	Glassware	1	2	3
	Tableware	1		1
	Glass fragments	88	24	112
Miscellaneous	n/a	6	21	27
Personal	Medicine bottles	2		2
Tobacco	Ball clay pipes	1		1
	Reed-style pipes	1		1
Total		240	106	346

8.0 LABORATORY RESULTS

Artifacts were recovered from both feature and non-feature contexts at site 18MO609, though the vast majority were from feature contexts associated with Structure A, the main house. Of the 160,833 artifacts recovered, 342 were prehistoric and 160,491 were historic. This chapter presents a summary of the prehistoric assemblage, followed by the historic assemblage, spatial analysis, burned artifact discussion, DNA analysis, and artifact conservation.

8.1 PREHISTORIC ASSEMBLAGE

Sixteen artifacts were recovered from prehistoric contexts during the Phase III investigations of Locus C. The 326 prehistoric artifacts recovered during the Phase II were discussed in detail in Chapter 6. The low number of artifacts recovered during the Phase III did not contribute to the overall interpretation of the prehistoric component so were not subjected to detailed analysis and are only briefly summarized here. The Phase III prehistoric assemblage includes 11 complete/mostly complete flakes, three flake fragments, and two debris/shatter. Raw materials include quartz, chert, metarhyolite, and quartzite. The 16 debitage provide additional data indicating prehistoric activities were focused on early, middle, and late stage biface reduction.

Fourteen prehistoric artifacts were recovered from historic contexts in Structure A (Features 2 and 5). These were not analyzed as part of the prehistoric assemblage as it is unclear what the nature of their relationship to the prehistoric occupation of the site was (e.g., did they originate on the site or were they transported there during the historic period). Also, as is discussed later in this chapter, these artifacts are part of the historic assemblage and appear to represent evidence of African American folk rituals. A summary of the artifacts is presented here for informational purposes. The 14 artifacts include nine PPKs, one biface, three debitage, and one full-grooved axe. The nine PPKs were recovered from Features 2 and 5 of the house; these are summarized in Table 77. The full-grooved axe was recovered from the Feature 3 house foundation.

Table 77. Diagnostic PPK Types Recovered from Features 2 and 5

Cultural Period	Diagnostic Type	Date Range	Material	Count
Early Archaic	Kirk Stemmed	6900–6000 B.C.	Quartz	1
Middle & Late Archaic	Otter Creek	4500–2000 B.C.	Quartz	1
	Brewerton Side Notched	3000–1700 B.C.	Quartz	1
Late Archaic/Transitional	Bare Island	1800–1200 B.C.	Quartz	1
Transitional/Early Woodland	Vernon	1200–800 B.C.	Quartz	1
Middle & Late Woodland	Lowe Cluster (Chesser)	A.D. 300–700	Metarhyolite	1
			Quartz	1
	Jack's Reef Corner Notched	A.D. 750–1000	Chert	1
Unknown	Unidentified Stemmed	Unknown	Quartzite	1

8.2 HISTORIC ASSEMBLAGE

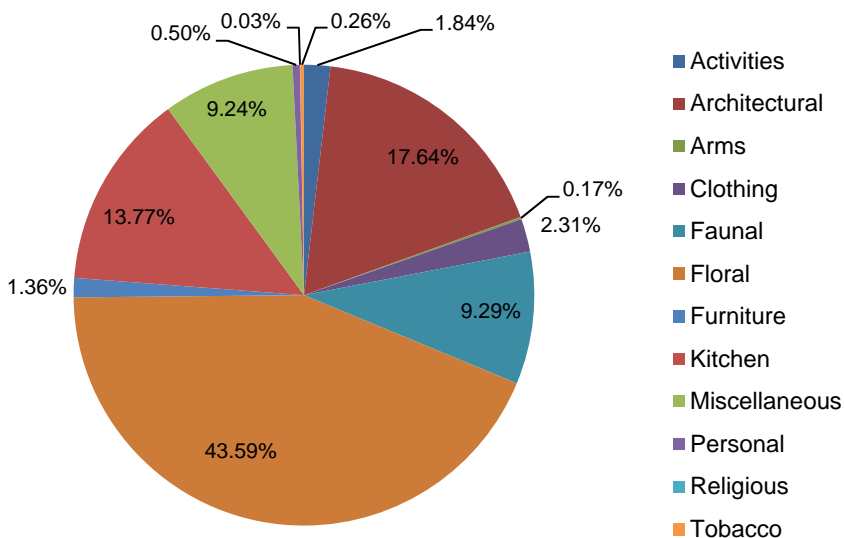
The Jackson homestead assemblage is a remarkably complete collection of nineteenth and early twentieth century domestic material culture. In particular, this site provides an extraordinary snapshot of African American life in the first quarter of the twentieth century. The historic assemblage encompasses domestic functions as well as activities related to a working farm.

The 160,489 historic artifacts and ecofacts (i.e., faunal and floral objects) recovered from the Jackson homestead site were classified into 12 functional groups (Table 78, Chart 8, Appendices L, M, and N). The floral group comprises almost 44 percent of the assemblage, reflecting the great number of small ecofacts recovered during flotation. The architectural group comprises almost 18 percent of the assemblage, followed by the kitchen group at almost 14 percent, and the miscellaneous and faunal groups at 9 percent each. The remaining groups combined constitute 6 percent of the assemblage.

Table 78. Historic Artifact and Ecofact Summary

Group	Count	Percentage
Activities	2,959	1.84
Architectural	28,316	17.64
Arms	273	0.17
Clothing	3,705	2.31
Faunal	14,908	9.29
Floral	69,955	43.59
Furniture	2,181	1.36
Kitchen	22,098	13.77
Miscellaneous	14,822	9.24
Personal	799	0.50
Religious	50	0.03
Tobacco	423	0.26
Total	160,489	100.00

Chart 8. Historic Artifact Assemblage



The historic artifact and ecofact assemblages are discussed separately below, followed by a discussion of the burned artifact assemblage. The ecofacts were separated from the overall assemblage analysis, as the inherent biases due to flotation sampling and the presence of non-

cultural specimens (e.g., rodents and tuliptree seeds) dominated the artifact counts and percentages. This had the result of masking patterns within the faunal and floral data, as well as skewing the artifact data to over-represent noncultural ecofacts.

8.2.1 HISTORIC ARTIFACTS

Historic artifacts (i.e., all classes except faunal and floral) were divided into functional groups based roughly on South's (1977) artifact classifications (Table 79), which were modified and expanded to accommodate nineteenth and early twentieth century patterns of use (Appendix O). Artifacts were divided into groups and sub-groups based on material, form, and function. These groupings provide a framework for recognizing patterns of domestic activity, and enable intra- and inter-site comparisons. Artifacts that have potential dual purposes (e.g., functional and ritual), such as wheel-shaped objects or ceramic doll parts, are discussed in their respective functional groups with a brief discussion of their potential religious/spiritual use.

The following sections provide details on the artifact assemblage from the Jackson homestead, including a discussion of each artifact group. Artifact distribution plots were generated for each of the three main contexts: Structure A, Structure B/yard, and Structure C. These are discussed in the spatial analysis section at the end of this chapter.

Table 79. Historic Artifact Summary

Group	Count	Percentage
Activities	2,959	3.91
Architectural	28,316	37.44
Arms	273	0.36
Clothing	3,705	4.90
Furniture	2,181	2.88
Kitchen	22,098	29.22
Miscellaneous	14,822	19.60
Personal	799	1.06
Religious	50	0.07
Tobacco	423	0.56
Total	75,626	100.00

8.2.1.1 Activities

This group includes a variety of artifacts associated with domestic activities that occurred on site. The 2,959 artifacts in this group comprise 3.9 percent of the historic artifacts. The items were divided into the following sub-groups: construction, farm, laundry, locks, miscellaneous, music, sewing, stable and barn, storage, toys, and other (Table 80).

Table 80. Activities Group Summary

Sub-Group	Count
Construction	39
Farm	3
Laundry	27

Sub-Group	Count
Locks	5
Miscellaneous	1,799
Music	80
Sewing	146
Stable and barn	70
Storage	625
Toys	163
Other	2
Total	2,959

8.2.1.1.1 Construction and Farm Tools

This sub-group includes a variety of identified tools and tool parts that would have been used for general purposes, such as home repairs, woodwork, and wood chopping (Table 81). All the tools are iron, although the compass saw retains part of its wooden handle. According to the 1880 U.S. Census (Ancestry.com 2010), John T. Adams and numerous residents in the immediate vicinity were employed as woodchoppers. Files for sharpening tools would have been common in a woodchopper's toolkit, which could account for the large quantity of files found at the site. Farm tools consist of two iron hoe blades and one iron prong hoe. The hoes could have been stored in or near the house for use in a flower or kitchen garden, or could relate to African American folk rituals (Derr 2007b; Fennell 2007; Samford 2007).

Table 81. Construction and Farm Tools Sub-groups

Form	Count
Ax head	2
Hatchet blade	1
Draw knife	1
Hack saw	1
Compass saw	1
Saw blade	4
File or possible file: 10 triangular and 6 flat	16
Chisel or possible chisel	4
Hammer or possible hammer	4
Adjustable monkey wrench	1
Wrench handle	1
Possible screwdriver or drill fragment	1
Circular clamp	1
Clamp	1
Total	39

8.2.1.1.2 Laundry

This sub-group consists of artifacts associated with the washing and maintenance of clothing. Twenty-six fragments of a wood and white metal (possibly galvanized tin) washboard and one almost complete flat iron were recovered. Washboard fragments were recovered from both parlor and kitchen contexts, suggesting laundry activities were performed in both rooms.

Alternatively, the equipment may have only been stored in the parlor, as it is more likely that laundry was done in the kitchen or outside of the house. The assemblage does not indicate whether laundry was done solely for the family or whether the family was taking in laundry from other households.

8.2.1.1.3 Locks

The locks sub-group includes four iron padlocks and one iron lock part. One of the padlocks is pentagonal. These may have been associated with storage trunks, cabinets, or sheds.

8.2.1.1.4 Miscellaneous Hardware

The miscellaneous hardware sub-group includes a variety of items associated with tools, machines, or general farm or household activities (Table 82). Unlike the tools included in the sub-groups discussed above, these artifacts represent unidentifiable items or pieces of tools and machines (e.g., spring or tube). Most of these items are iron, although copper alloy, ceramic, lead alloy, paint, plastic, rubber, unidentified metal, and white metal materials are present.

Table 82. Miscellaneous Hardware Sub-group

Form	Count
Angle iron	1
Barbed wire	9
Bracket	7
Cap or lid	222
Chain link	17
Collar	5
Fastener (e.g., eye hook, D-ring, alligator clip, bolt, rivet, screw, tack, grommet)	465
Fence staple	35
Fittings (e.g., flange, hose clamp, support brace, pipe fitting, gasket, seal, crimp, universal joint)	20
Handle or rod	47
Hook	11
Knob	1
Latch	3
Magnet	1
Mechanical components (e.g., lever, valve, gear, cog, crank handle, pulley)	32
Metal bar, strap, or fragment	149
Other Metal items (e.g., frame, loop, coil, spring)	83
Paint chip	7
Peg	1
Pipe or tube	7
Possible can, pan, or pail fragment	26
Possible pin back	1
Possible plug	1
Possible tool part consisting of thin copper alloy triangles with nails that pivot on a central spoke	1
Pull handle	1
Railroad spike	4
Spike or stake	3
Weight	1
Wire	400
Wire mesh (possible window screen)	238
Total	1,799

Copper alloy artifacts include machine parts, caps, chains, fittings, handles, gears, rivets, tubes, and other items. Three copper alloy gears or sprockets may have been part of clocks. One ceramic threaded tube was found. Lead alloy items include a block, disc, and handle. The one plastic screw appears modern and intrusive to the site. Rubber items include washers, tubes, and a cap. White metal items include a hose clamp, collar, chain link, cap, washer, and other items similar to the copper alloy artifacts.

While many of these artifacts clearly served a mundane household purpose, some of the sharp iron objects, such as the railroad spikes, may have related to African American folk rituals (Yronwode 2010). Railroad spikes are often associated with rituals to secure a home; tenants or homeowners used them at the corners of the home or property to prevent foreclosure by a mortgage company or sale by eminent domain, or to “to stop greedy family members from trying to sell off the old home place for quick cash” (Yronwode 2010).

Wheel-shaped objects, such as gears and cogs, may also have served a ritual purpose. Some (e.g., Derr 2007a, 2007b) have noted the possible connection between wheel-shaped items and the West African folk character “Anansi.” Anansi, portrayed as a spider in the West African pantheon, is known for his creativity, wisdom, and intelligence (Asante and Mazama 2009:44). The graphical representation of Anansi is a spider web that resembles a seven-spoked wheel. Asante and Mazama (2009:44) note that Anansi “can be a trickster, that is, a personality who teaches moral, ethical, political, or social values based on his ability to lead a person to the truth through example, puzzles, and the least expected turns and twists of fate.” Thus, gears or cogs may have acted as symbolic representations of Anansi.

Some of the wire mesh was recovered from within the Feature 4 chimney base and may be associated with a practical or a spiritual use. Mesh, lattice, and netting was presumed to be used as a net to capture spirits (Leone 2010). In many cases, the ritual use of these mundane objects can only be surmised from their contexts, as is discussed further in the Interpretations section.

8.2.1.1.5 *Music*

This category includes fragments of several musical instruments (Table 83; Figure 97). Numerous harmonica parts (n=76), such as reed plates, cover plates, reeds, and wooden spacers or combs were recovered. The assemblage also includes a tuning peg from a stringed instrument (such as a violin or banjo), an iron mouth harp, and a rocking lever that may have been part of a woodwind instrument. Harmonicas, mouth harps, woodwind instruments, fiddles, and banjos were common instruments in late nineteenth to early twentieth century folk music.

Harmonicas became widely available in the United States in the late 1850s and became a symbol of the poor working classes. During his Senate campaign in 1858, Abraham Lincoln carried one with him as the “poor man’s equivalent” of the brass band that frequently played for Stephen Douglas (Chelminski 1995). The 1897 Sears catalog offered 24 varieties of harmonicas, ranging from \$0.08 to \$0.80. The cost of the best harmonica was equivalent to purchasing two 2.268-kg (5-lb) bags of flour, a dozen eggs, or two half gallons of milk (Chelminski 1995).

Every harmonica has one interior plate for inhaled notes (“draw”) and another plate for exhaled notes (“blow”). A diatonic plate typically has 10 holes, one for each reed, that surround the comb, a wooden spacer that directs the air through the reeds or reed plates. The reed plates are enclosed by convex covers, allowing air to pass through the reeds and sound the notes (Riggs 2008). The eight complete 10-hole plates recovered from the Jackson homestead are likely from

diatonic harmonicas. The two complete 12-hole plates may be from either diatonic or chromatic harmonicas. Based on the number and types of reed plates found, there are a minimum of nine harmonicas in the assemblage.

Table 83. Music Sub-group

Form	Material	Component	Count
Harmonica part	Copper alloy	Cover plate "The Pioneer" in script	1
		Cover plate marked "Silver Reeds"	10
		Cover plate	1
		Reed plate fragment	13
		Reed	14
		Fragment	1
	Copper alloy and wood	Two reed plates with spacer and one cover plate	1
		Two interior plates and comb with eight wooden spacers	1
		Comb spacer and part of plate with reeds	1
		Fragment	5
	Unidentified metal	Fragment	6
	White metal	Plate	4
		Fragment	7
Wood	Spacer	11	
Mouth harp	Iron	Complete	1
Musical instrument	Copper alloy and iron	3-inch long tube fitting with pivot key and partial stops	1
Rocking lever	Copper alloy		1
Tuning peg	Possible ebony	Possible violin	1
Total			80

Each harmonica is tuned to a particular key, so most people who play along with other instruments require several differently keyed harmonicas (Weiser 2008). Depending on usage, the average lifespan of a harmonica is about 5 years. This could explain the large number of harmonicas at the Jackson homestead. Although many harmonica fragments were recovered, they may represent one lifelong player rather than many.

8.2.1.1.6 Sewing

The sewing sub-group includes a variety of artifacts associated with the creation, repair, and maintenance of clothing, shoes, and other household fabrics (Table 84; Figure 98). The assemblage includes two mendable fragments of a bone sewing tool stamped "SUPER..." which may be a seam ripper. Sixty straight pins were recovered including four with machine-applied heads that date from the mid-nineteenth century to the present. Two of the straight pins have glass heads. Five of the straight pins are part of the Feature 4a ritual cache and are also discussed in the religious group. A majority of the 34 safety pins are copper alloy (n=28). Safety pins were patented in the United States in 1849. One needle, four fragments of scissors (at least two pairs), and 20 thimbles were also recovered. Pins, scissors, thimbles, and needles also are common artifacts in folk ritual caches. The cast iron sewing machine parts appear to have come from a treadle sewing machine, which was in common use in the mid- to late-nineteenth century. The shoe last would have been used for making and repairing shoes (Figure 99).



Figure 97. Music Sub-group

A. rocking lever; B. tube with rocking lever; C. mouth harp; D. tuning peg; E. harmonica cover plate; F. harmonica (nearly complete); G. harmonica reed plate; H. harmonica comb fragment; I. harmonica reed plate


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 97



Figure 98. Sewing Sub-group

A.-D. thimbles; E.-G. safety pins; H.-J. straight pins; K. straight pin with white glass head; L. double-eye iron needle, possibly for leather working; M. scissors



Figure 99. Shoe Last


PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs		
SCALE	N/A			
SOURCE	URS		PROJECT NO.	20831016
			FIGURE NO.	98 and 99

Table 84. Sewing Sub-group

Form	Material	Count
Sewing machine part	Iron	23
Spool	Wood	1
Needle	Iron	1
Possible sewing tool	Bone	2
Safety pin	Copper alloy	28
	Iron	4
	White metal	2
Scissors	Iron	4
Straight pin	Copper alloy	47
	Iron	10
	White metal	3
Thimble	Copper alloy	9
	Iron	1
	Unidentified metal	2
	White metal	8
Shoe last	Iron	1
Total		146

8.2.1.1.7 *Stable and Barn*


The barn and stable category includes items likely associated with farm animal care and use (Table 85; Figure 100). While these artifacts were typically used in agricultural outbuildings, such as a stable or barn, many of them were recovered from within the house. Harness repair could have occurred in the house, and some items may have had other, non-animal husbandry uses (e.g., horseshoe decorations for good luck, jingle bells for a baby's rattle, a cow bell used as a dinner bell). All these artifacts are consistent with the nineteenth through early twentieth century occupation of the site.

Table 85. Stable and Barn Sub-group

Form	Material	Count
Harness buckle, rectangular	Copper alloy	1
	Iron	19
Harness buckle, D-shaped	Copper alloy	1
	Iron	11
Possible harness hardware	Iron	5
	White metal	1
Possible snaffle bit	Iron	1
Stirrup	Iron	2
Ox shoe	Iron	2
Horseshoe	Iron	5
Horseshoe nail	Iron	2
Cow bell	Copper alloy	1
Harness or jingle bell	Copper alloy	2
Possible burlap sack	Fabric	17
Total		70



Figure 100. Barn and Stable Sub-group
 A. horseshoe; B. stirrup; C. ox shoe; D. buckle; E. possible harness hardware;
 F. harness bell; G. Horseshoe nail; H.–J. buckles

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 100

A number of these artifacts, such as the horseshoes, also may have served folk ritual purposes. Two of the horseshoes were recovered from the kitchen and one was recovered from the parlor. These may have served as good luck charms in the house. Horseshoes are typically hung on walls with the ends pointing up to hold in good luck; less common are horseshoes positioned with the ends pointing down, symbolizing the flow of good luck.

8.2.1.1.8 Storage Items

Most of the storage items are iron can fragments (n=621). These may have been food storage cans, but could also have contained oils, solvents, or other liquids. Eight of the fragments are identifiable as paint cans. In addition, one iron barrel, two unidentified metal can fragments, and one white metal can fragment were present in the assemblage.

8.2.1.1.9 Toys

This sub-group includes a variety of children's toys and artifacts associated with leisure and games (Table 86; Figure 101). A majority of the 163 toy artifacts are porcelain doll parts (n=94), such as the arms, legs, or heads of cloth-bodied dolls. Marbles and toy dishes were also found in relatively high quantities. Some of the toys exhibit partial or complete burning. Toys were found in both the parlor and kitchen contexts of the house. Toys were often used in folk rituals (Sorensen-Mutchie 2009; Wilkie 1997). Discerning ritual versus play use can be difficult and is typically dependent on identifying ritual contexts, as is discussed in the Interpretations section.


Table 86. Toys Sub-group

Form	Material	Count
Die	Bone	3
Doll part	Glass	1
	Porcelain or bisque	94
Domino	Wood	3
Jack	Iron	1
Marble	Ceramic	18
	Glass	8
	Stone	9
Toy gun fragment	Iron	2
Toy horse	Iron	1
Toy truck	Iron	1
Toy jockey	Lead alloy	1
Bicycle fragment	Iron	2
Toy part	Unidentified material and metal	1
Toy saucer	Porcelain	6
Toy sugar bowl	Porcelain	1
Toy teacup	Porcelain	10
	Whiteware	1
Total		163



Figure 101. Toys Sub-group

A. doll leg; B. doll arm; C. and D. Frozen Charlotte dolls; E. doll head;
 F. African American doll head (1894); G. and H. burned bone dice; I. bone die; J. jockey;
 K. burned wooden domino; L.–N. ceramic marbles; O. toy pistol; P. jack; Q. glass marble;
 R. ceramic marble; S. stone marble; T. teacup and saucer;
 U. and V. teacups; W. sugar bowl

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 101

Ninety-five doll parts included: one glass eyeball, two almost complete Frozen Charlotte dolls, 10 unidentified doll parts, 13 doll arm fragments, 20 doll leg fragments, and 49 doll head fragments (Table 87; Figure 102). Frozen Charlotte dolls were manufactured from ca. 1850 until 1920, and were most popular in the late nineteenth to early twentieth centuries. The remaining doll fragments were primarily from cloth dolls that had ceramic heads, legs, and arms.

Table 87. Doll Summary

Description	Element	Count
Cloth-bodied doll	Arm	9
	Foot with shoe or slipper	1
	Hand	4
	Head, bisque or porcelain	18
	Head, curly hair	9
	Head, bisque, curly hair, eye, and eyebrow	2
	Leg	17
	Limb (arm or leg)	2
Frozen Charlotte	Almost complete	2
Specialty doll	Glass eyeball, ~3/8-in diameter	1
	Head, bisque, "1894/AMS/ODE[P]/Germany," Armand Marseille manufacture, fragments mend	3
	Head, painted bisque (African American), with pierced ear, painted black brows and eyelashes, holes for glass eyes, open back and hole above ear to attach wig, molded label on back of head: "5./5.," fragments mend	17
Unknown type	Fragment, bisque	5
	Fragment, porcelain	5
Total		95


One doll head exhibits the mark of Armand Marseille, a German manufacturer who made dolls from ca. 1885 to 1930 (Van Patten 2010). Another doll head had a painted brown face. African American dolls may not have been readily available through popular catalogs in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, but may have been available at local merchant shops. The African American doll suggests the family sought out toys that reflected their ethnicity.

The porcelain arms and legs include one set of matching arms and five sets of legs. One leg fragment appears to be wearing a slipper, possibly indicating a pre-1875 manufacture date, but the other legs show a boot or heeled shoe, suggesting a late nineteenth or early twentieth century date (King 1987:298). The large number of dolls reflects the increase of mass marketing and production near the turn of the twentieth century, which led to a reduction in the cost of dolls. The Bloomingdales' *Illustrated 1886 Catalog* offered dolls up to \$12.00 each; the 1895 Montgomery Ward catalog offered them up to \$3.50 each.

Dolls or doll parts were also used in African American folk rituals. In African culture, not only do dolls serve as child's toys, but they also serve as ritual or religious objects for adults (e.g., Cameron and Ross 1996; Peek and Yankah 2004). In African American folk rituals, dolls are used for a variety of ritual purposes; types of dolls used include Frozen Charlottes, cloth dolls, ceramic dolls, and other handmade dolls from organic materials such as sticks and herbs (Association of Independent Readers & Rootworkers [AIRR] 2012a, 2012b).



Figure 102. Doll Parts

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 102

Dolls and doll parts have been documented in association with ritual caches at archaeological sites in the region, such as the Brice House in Annapolis, Maryland (Cochran 1999; Harmon and Neuwirth 2000). It is probable that at least some of the dolls or doll parts recovered from the site were used in ritualistic ways, although specific ways remain unclear due to the absence of intact caches containing these artifacts.

AIRR (2012a, 2012b) outline several ways in which dolls are used in hoodoo rootwork practices. Dolls were used to represent either a person upon which “a magical spell is to be cast or for whom spiritual work is to be performed.” Objects used in association with these practices include roots, herbs, personal belongings, photographs, minerals, and other items (AIRR 2012b). While the doll parts from the Jackson homestead may represent complete dolls used in such a way, it is also possible that the individual doll parts were preferred for other reasons, such as their white color (e.g., Schablitsky 2009).

The toy assemblage also includes three dice and one jack. Of the 35 marbles from the site, 18 are ceramic, eight are glass, and nine are stone. Mass production of ceramic and glass marbles began in the United States in the 1890s (Baumann 2004), and machine-made glass marbles appeared around 1902 (American Toy Marble Museum 2008). Cast iron toys, such as the horse and truck, were mass produced toward the end of the nineteenth century (Smithsonian National Museum of American History 2011) and remained popular until World War II (Antique-antiques.com 2011). The bicycle fragments include an iron wheel and an iron pedal. While toys are generally associated with children, adults in the household likely used several items in gaming as well, including dice, dominoes, and marbles.

8.2.1.1.10 *Other*

This category includes a possible whistle fragment that resembles a duck call featured in a late nineteenth century catalog (Sears 2007:552 [1897]), and a token. The token is white metal and features an unrecognizable head on the obverse and “GOOD FOR / 5 cent / ...TRADE” on the reverse.

8.2.1.2 Architectural

The architectural group comprises 37.44 percent of the historic artifacts, with 28,316 artifacts associated with the building’s fabric and construction, as well as architectural elements or permanent fixtures within the building (Table 88). More than half of the architectural artifacts (61 percent) are nails and spikes (Figures 103 and 104), and another 36 percent are window glass fragments. It should be noted that the structural wood from the house is discussed within the ecofacts assemblage later in this chapter.

The manufacturing date ranges for architectural materials suggest the house was built in the early to mid-nineteenth century (detailed in the sub-sections that follow). As discussed in the Phase III Field Results chapter, the extant foundation indicates two phases of construction – a single-pen structure (kitchen) that was probably built in the 1830s or 1840s and a late nineteenth century addition (parlor). Ethnographic and archaeological evidence indicate the kitchen was likely of log construction (e.g., McDaniel 1982 for ethnographic evidence). Although there is no direct evidence, historic records and ethnographic evidence suggest the single-pen structure likely served as a slave quarter on the Downs Plantation. The parlor addition was likely balloon frame construction that was a popular building technique between the mid-nineteenth and mid-

twentieth centuries (Dunn 1988:197; McAlester and McAlester 1989:36-38). Ethnographic evidence, as well as the use of American chestnut as the primary building material (as will be discussed in the ecofacts section of this chapter), indicates a very late nineteenth or even early twentieth century date for the parlor addition.

Table 88. Architectural Group Summary

Sub-Group	Form	Count
Building materials	Brick	203
	Mortar	171
	Foundation stone	2
	Concrete	5
Door parts	Doorknob, agateware	1
	Doorknob, copper alloy	1
	Doorknob, porcelain	9
	Door latch	2
	Door lock	1
	Door hinge	13
Finishing materials	Plaster or possible plaster	63
	Flashing	2
	Asphalt roofing	51
	Aluminum siding	3
	Ceramic tile	17
	Glass tile	1
	Possible caulking	45
	Possible grout	2
Nails	Wrought nail	2
	Wrought or cut nail	2
	Cut nail	10,785
	Wire nail	2,920
	Nail	3,642
Spikes	Cut spike	17
	Wire spike	10
	Spike	5
Window	Window glass	10,265
	Possible sash weight, lead alloy	1
Other	Ceramic drain tile	6
	Chimney pot, gray salt-glazed stoneware	61
	Gate latch	1
	Hasp	2
	Hinge	1
	Strap hinge	4
Total		28,316

8.2.1.2.1 Building Materials

Building materials consist of brick, mortar, stone, and concrete. Although these materials were only sampled in the field, they still represent a small portion of the architectural assemblage in comparison to other sub-groups, such as nails and window glass. One fragment of mortar and



Figure 103. Nails Sub-group
 A. handwrought nail; B.–F. cut nails; G and H. wire nails



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 103



Figure 104. Spikes Sub-group

A.-E., and G. wire spikes;

F. cut spike

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 104

one fragment of foundation stone from the Feature 4a ritual cache are discussed in the religious group as well. There were insufficient quantities of brick to suggest it was used for anything other than the chimney. The house foundation was constructed of mortared fieldstone. The small quantity of concrete suggests it was not used as a primary building material.

8.2.1.2.3 *Door Parts*

The quantity of doorknobs, including one agate doorknob dating to the late nineteenth century, suggests that at least three doors were present within the house (assuming each door had two knobs); however, 13 door hinges were recovered, suggesting the presence of at least four or five doors. In addition, two door latches and one door lock were recovered. The distribution analysis, discussed in the Interpretations section, provides possible quantities and locations for the doors.

8.2.1.2.4 *Finishing Materials*

Finishing materials are non-structural artifacts, generally from the surfaces of the structure, such as the roof and walls. This sub-group consists of aluminum flashing and siding, asphalt roofing, ceramic tile, glass tile, plaster, possible caulking, and possible grout. Mid- to late twentieth century materials, including aluminum flashing (n=2) and siding (n=3), were found in small numbers and represent post-occupation refuse not associated with the site. Asphalt roofing materials were widely available after 1893 (Advameg, Inc. 2010). One fragment of possible tarpaper is part of the Feature 4a ritual cache and is discussed in the religious group as well. This sub-group generally dates from the late nineteenth through twentieth centuries.

8.2.1.2.5 *Nails and Spikes*

The assemblage at Jackson homestead includes wrought, cut, and wire nails, as well as cut and wire spikes. Cut nails represent 62 percent of the total nail assemblage and 79 percent of the identifiable nails. Cut nails were introduced in the 1790s and were readily available by 1800; however, they did not begin to replace wrought nails as the primary construction fastener until ca. 1815 (Noël Hume 1970). Cut nails were in common use until 1920. Wire nails, which represent 21 percent of the identifiable nails, were patented in the United States in 1877 and are still in use today (Edwards and Wells 1993:18).

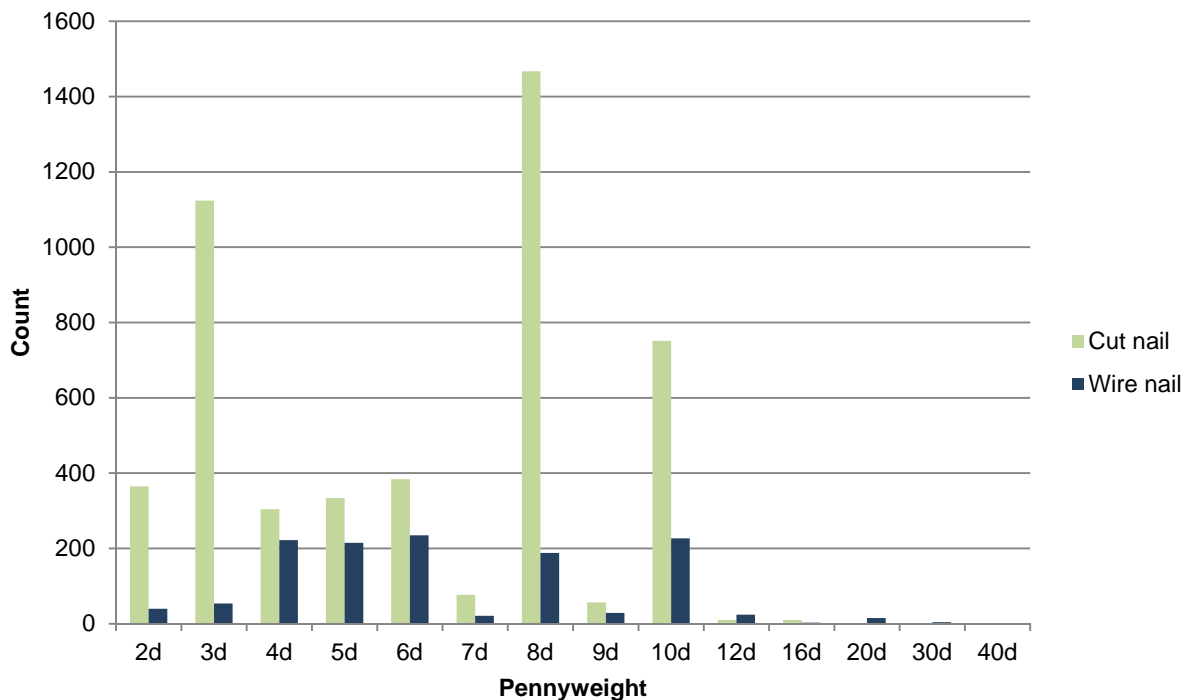
The nails are generally in very poor condition (e.g., burned, broken, or corroded), which limits the identification of nail types, sizes, and manufacturing techniques (Table 89). The majority of the nails (n=10,981; 63.29 percent) are fragmentary and could not be assigned a functional type. These fragments include two wrought, two wrought or cut, 5,800 cut, 1,538 wire, and 3,639 unidentifiable nails.

Most of the identifiable nail types are common nails (n=6,228). Both cut and wire examples were recovered; the sizes ranged from 2d to 40d (Chart 9). Common nails are used in general construction and are suitable for most carpentry tasks. The 8d and 10d cut common nails (n=1,483 and 751) may represent the nails used to toenail studs to wall plates or fasten other structural elements of the Jackson family's house. The 3d common nails (n=1,163) could have been used to attach lathe strips to studs or for other light carpentry tasks. Of note are 63 cut nails, sized 2d to 8d, which exhibit a split shank. It is not known if this damage pattern is a result of a manufacturing weakness in the nails, some particular use of the nails, or the house fire.

Table 89. Nail Summary

Type	Manufacturing Technique	Size													Total		
		Frag.	2d	3d	4d	5d	6d	7d	8d	9d	10d	12d	16d	20d		30d	40d
Common	Cut nail		365	1,124	304	334	384	77	1,467	57	751	10	10	2	2	1	4,888
	Cut nail – split		6	39		1			16								62
	Wire nail		40	54	222	215	235	21	188	29	227	24	3	15	4		1,277
Roofing	Nail										1						1
	Wire nail	2	101														103
Finishing	Cut nail					1	3	17	3	2	7	1	1				35
	Wire nail			1		1					1						3
Duplex	Wire nail	1															1
	Cut nail																103
Common	Cut nail		365	1,124	304	334	384	77	1,467	57	751	10	10	2	2	1	4,888
	Cut nail – split		6	39		1			16								62
Untyped	Wrought nail	2															2
	Wrought or cut nail	2															2
Total	Cut nail																5,800
	Wire nail																1,538
	Nail																3,639
		10,984	512	1,218	526	551	623	115	1,674	88	987	35	14	17	6	1	17,351

Chart 9. Common Nails



Wire roofing nails, 2d nails with a broad head, account for 103 of the identifiable nails. The short shank and broad head are used for attaching shingles or other roofing material.

The assemblage includes 38 cut or wire finishing nails (nails with a head that is only slightly larger than the shank). It is possible that some of these finishing nails are actually casing nails (slightly heavier than finishing nails) or brads (smaller and lighter than finishing nails), but the nails are too corroded to make this distinction. Finishing nails are used for attaching trim and other light carpentry tasks. The small head allows the nail to be countersunk and disguised with wood putty or other finishing material.

A single wire duplex nail fragment was recovered. This nail, also known as a scaffolding nail, is suitable for temporary construction. The nail is partially hammered into the wood (to the depth of a collar), leaving a small portion of the shank and the head exposed for easier removal.

The predominance of cut nails in the assemblage corroborates the historic records that indicate the house was on the property prior to 1860 (i.e., when it served as a slave cabin). The cut nails also suggest that the parlor addition of the house was built prior to the end of the nineteenth century. As mentioned, other evidence suggests a very late nineteenth construction date for the parlor addition. The presence of wire nails, as well as asphalt shingle fragments, indicates that the house continued to be modified and maintained into the early twentieth century.

Cut and wire spikes were also found on the site in small quantities. Cut spikes were also in use from 1790 through 1920. Wire spikes date from 1877 to the present. These fasteners were used for more heavy-duty construction.

Nails were also a part of folk ritual caches; both their material (i.e., iron) and their sharpness were meaningful in West African-derived folk rituals (Brown 2001; Leone 2005, Samford 2007).

Typically, nails were valued for their protective qualities, but they were also used as a symbolic expression of strength. In some cases, nails were driven into pictures as part of malevolent image magic against others (Fennell 2010).

8.2.1.2.6 Windows

In total, 10,265 fragments of window glass were recovered, including approximately one-third that was burned. While it is difficult to determine the size or number of windows solely based on the quantity of fragments, the large number of fragments indicates that multiple windows were present. One possible lead sash weight suggests the windows were double-hung. The distribution analysis, discussed in the Interpretations section, provides possible quantities and locations for the windows. Four window glass fragments were incised and may relate to folk ritual practices. As a result, they are discussed within the religious group below. One unmarked fragment from the Feature 4a cache also is discussed in the religious group.

8.2.1.2.7 Other

This sub-group includes ceramic drain tile, a chimney pot, a gate latch, hasps, and hinges. A small quantity of ceramic drain tile was recovered and may represent portions of a drain spout. One domestic salt-glazed stoneware chimney pot (V-10) was recovered (Figure 105). The function of the chimney pot is to improve fireplace draft, though they are also used as architectural accents for a house (ChimneyPot.com 2010).

The gate latch suggests the house area may have been fenced, though the latch may have been used on a household door. Hinges may have come from entry, closet, or cabinet doors, or furniture.

8.2.1.3 Arms


The arms group includes firearm ammunition and gun parts (Table 90). The 273 arms artifacts represent 0.36 percent of the historic artifacts and include three gun parts, four bullets, 12 percussion caps, 52 buckshot, and 202 shell casings.

Table 90. Arms Group Summary

Sub-Group	Material	Form	Count
Ammunition	Aluminum	Shell casing	1
	Copper alloy	Percussion cap	12
		Shell casing	197
	Copper alloy and white metal	Shell casing	2
	Lead alloy	Buckshot	52
		Bullet	4
	Plastic	Shell casing	1
	Unidentified metal	Shell casing	1
Gun parts	Iron	Flintlock	1
		Gun hammer	1
		Possible gun part	1
Total			273



Figure 105. Chimney Pot (V-9)

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 105

Percussion caps were first used in the early nineteenth century; they were in popular use until the late 1850s to mid-1860s when cartridge-style guns came into common use (Sawyer 1920). It is possible the Jacksons continued to use percussion firearms well after this style of gun fell out of general use. The cartridges and bullets include shotgun shells and a range of small caliber ammunition (Table 91). Overall, the assemblage includes examples from the late nineteenth century through the present. Some of the artifacts exhibit maker's marks. Specific periods of manufacture for brand name ammunition is difficult due to the history of corporate mergers and acquisitions among the various manufacturers; new entities often continued to use the old names for marketing purposes (Farrar 2006). Some of these shell casings could be the product of recent hunting activity in the project area. The paucity of shell casings may indicate firearms were not widely used until later in the nineteenth to early in the twentieth centuries. One buckshot from the Feature 4a cache is also discussed as part of the religious group.

Table 91. Caliber and Maker's Marks Date Ranges

Caliber	Mark	Date Range	Count
.20	Unmarked		15
	"US"	1869–1936	2
.22	Unmarked	1857–present	44
	"H"	1857–present	3
	"U"	1867–present	2
.25	Unmarked		9
	"P"	1887–1960s	1
	"US"	1869–1936	1
.30	Unmarked		3
	"US"	1869–1936	1
.32	Unmarked		19
	"U"	Post–1867	1
	"US"	1869–1936	1
	"P"	1887–1960s	1
	Smith and Wesson mark	Post–1867	2
.33	Unmarked		3
	"U"	Post–1867	3
.35	Unmarked		2
.38	Unmarked	1877–present	2
	Smith and Wesson mark	1877–present	3
.44	Unmarked		6
Shotgun cartridge	Unmarked	1850–present	32
	New Club mark	Introduced 1891–1905	14
	Nitro Club mark	1922–1934	4
	"PETERS / No 12 / REFEREE"	1887–1960s	1
	Winchester mark	Post–1866	9
	"30-30 WIN / R-P"	Post–1934	3
	"AUSTIN / No 12 / CT'GE CO."	1895 and 1907	1
"POINTER / 12 12 / C.C. CO."	Post–1904	1	
Total			189

Sources: Austin 1992; Barnes 2009; Farrar 2006; Miller 2000; Remington Arms Company 2010; Standler 2006; Winchester Ammunition 2010

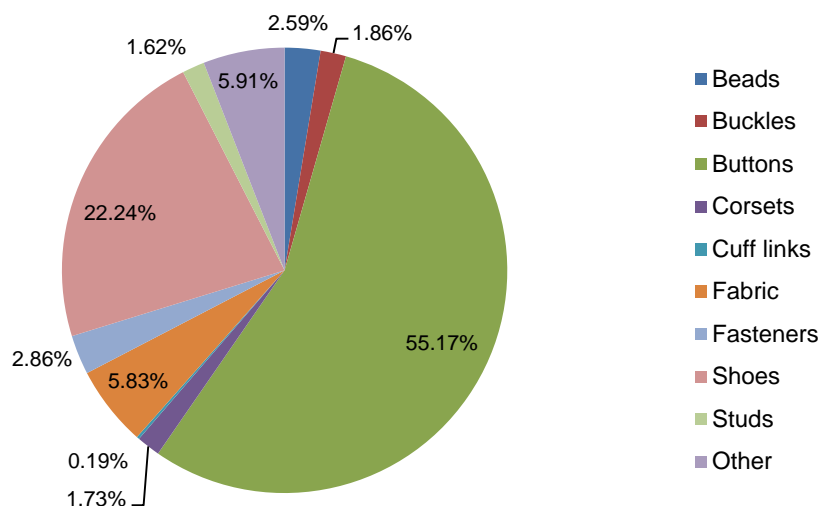
8.2.1.4 Clothing

The clothing group’s 3,705 artifacts represent 4.90 percent of the historic artifacts. It is likely that much of the Jackson family’s clothing burned in the fire, leaving mostly the non-textile remnants of garments. These remnants provide clues about the clothing and undergarments worn by the family (Table 92; Chart 10). While most of the artifacts in the clothing assemblage are hardware associated with fastening or decoration, 216 fragments of fabric were also recovered. Clothing of this period was made from wool, cotton, linen, or flannel, with different fabrics worn depending on the season (Burman 2003). Both outer and undergarments used copious quantities of buttons and fasteners, not only for function (sizing, adjustment, and wearability), but also for decoration (Bloomingdale Brothers 1988; Cunningham 1990; Grafton 1999; Mullins 1999).

Table 92. Clothing Group Summary

Sub-Group	Count
Beads	96
Buckles	69
Buttons	2,044
Corsets	64
Cuff links	7
Fabric	216
Fasteners	106
Shoes	824
Studs	60
Other	219
Total	3,705

Chart 10. Clothing Assemblage



Portions of undergarments, including Prosser buttons, corset busk and clasp fragments, garter and stocking clips, strap adjusters, and garment adjusters, were recovered from the site. Women’s undergarments generally consisted of chemises, corsets, drawers, stockings or hose,

garters, and petticoats (Cunnington and Cunnington 1992; Sears 2007 [1897]). Girl's undergarments were similar to women's undergarments, with the exception of corsets. Men and boys' undergarments consisted of stockings or socks, worn with or without garters, union suits, and underwear separates (Cunnington and Cunnington 1992). Union suits buttoned down the front of the chest and had three buttons on the back to keep the rear flap closed. Two-piece undergarments consisted of a tunic-like top with buttons on the shoulders that allowed for size adjustment (Sears 2007 [1897]). Children's undervests, also called children's corsets, were non-shaping undergarments that served to support and protect the body. These garments were often adjustable and usually had built in stocking holders (Johnson 1998).

Men's outer garments included pants, overalls, shirts, suits, coats, hats, and gloves (Sears 2007 [1897]). Women's outer garments included dresses, shirtwaists, suits, aprons, wraps, capes, hats, gloves, and coats (Cunnington 1990). Men and women's dresswear was similar in form (excluding overalls and aprons), but made of finer materials or embellished with more elaborate trim. Women also had numerous accessories (e.g., purses, shoes) that could have been plain for everyday use or decorated for dress use (e.g., beaded purses; Bloomingdale Brothers 1988; Cunnington 1990). The clothing group is divided into the following sub-groups: beads, buckles, buttons, corsets, cuff links, fabric, fasteners, shoes, studs, and other, as discussed below.

8.2.1.4.1 *Beads*

The majority (98 percent, n=93) of the beads in the clothing group are glass seed beads (Table 93) that are approximately 2 mm (0.8 in) in diameter, and either round or hexagonal in cross-section. Those hexagonal in form are dark in color, many with traces of silvering; many were also burned. The round beads are either black or milky white. Seed beads were sewn onto clothing or accessories (e.g. purses, shoes, parasols) as decoration. Three fragments of copper alloy bullion with iridescent sequins, presumably used for the same function, were included in this sub-group. Shoes "were often embellished with embroidery or metallic thread and glass or jet beading on the toes — often the only part peeking out from a voluminous skirt. Evening boots were often made from soft kid or satin, with rows of beaded straps embellishing the shin" (Bellis 2010b). One glass bead from the Feature 4a cache is also discussed in the religious group.

Table 93. Beads Sub-group


Material	Form	Count
Glass	Seed bead, round	52
	Seed bead, hexagonal	41
Copper alloy	Bullion and sequins	3
Total		96

8.2.1.4.2 *Buckles*

The buckles sub-group includes one iron buckle and suspender clasp, 28 copper alloy buckles, and 41 iron buckles (Figure 106). Multiple styles are represented in the assemblage, including crimp, bar and tongue, garter, belt, and double-framed rectangular and oval. These were used by both men and women on belts, hats, collars, and other clothing items. The majority of the buckles are either undecorated or too corroded to observe decoration. Both copper alloy and iron buckles are represented among the embellished buckles, and no one style is prevalent. Of note



Figure 106. Buckles Sub-group

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 106

are a large copper alloy rectangular belt buckle with a pair of overlapping feathers spanning its face (Figure 107), copper alloy double-framed oval buckle with a Greek key style decoration (Figure 108), white metal plated crimp style buckle with floral decoration (Figure 109), and iron crimp style buckle with a corded end and embossed lettering, “IRONMAN” (Figure 110). Men’s leather belts with buckles were sold in the 1895 Montgomery Ward catalog for \$0.25 to \$0.60 each. Women’s web belts were sold for \$0.25 to \$0.95 each.

8.2.1.4.3 Buttons

In total, 2,044 buttons and button fragments were recovered. While large quantities of buttons are often associated with laundress or seamstress occupations, the quantity of buttons found on the site is not surprising, given the number of family members present, the quantity of buttons found on clothing in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, and the length of occupation at the Jackson homestead. Perhaps most importantly, the button assemblage does not primarily represent lost or discarded buttons, but instead corresponds to clothing that burned during the house fire. The buttons include a wide variety of styles and materials (Table 94). The date range for the assemblage is consistent with the occupation of the site from the nineteenth through early twentieth centuries.

Table 94. Buttons Sub-group

Material	Style										Count	
	Indeterminate type	Prosser	Prosser decorated	Rivet style	Rivet style decorated	Sew-through	Sew-through decorated	Shanked	Shanked decorated	Whistle style		Whistle style decorated
Bakelite						11	3	1	1			16
Bone	16					44						60
Ceramic						1						1
Copper alloy	10			28	26	18	16	27	43			168
Glass	3					1	7	33	76		3	123
Hard rubber	4					24	17	3	4			52
Iron	44			32	2	68	3	43	9			201
Porcelain	3	929	101					6			1	1,040
Plastic	1											1
Shell	63					229	2	5	5			304
Unidentified						4			1	1	1	7
Unidentified metal	29			3	1	22	2	6	5			68
White metal	1					1		1				3
Total	174	929	101	63	29	423	50	125	144	1	5	2,044

The majority of buttons are small porcelain two- and four-hole Prossers (n=1030, 50.4 percent) of varying diameters (Figure 111, Chart 11). Prosser buttons, which are made of highly compressed heated ceramic having an appearance of opaque pressed glass, date from 1840. The most common varieties are black, white, or calico. The backs have a pebbled or orange-peel surface (Sprague 1983:167–172).



Figure 107. Copper Alloy Rectangular Belt Style Buckles


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 107



Figure 108. Copper Alloy Double Framed Oval Buckle with Greek Key Decoration



Figure 109. White Metal Crimp Style Buckle with Floral Decoration



PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE	N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE	URS		FIGURE NO. 108 and 109



Figure 110. Iron Crimp Style Buckle with Embossed "IRONMAN" Lettering

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 110

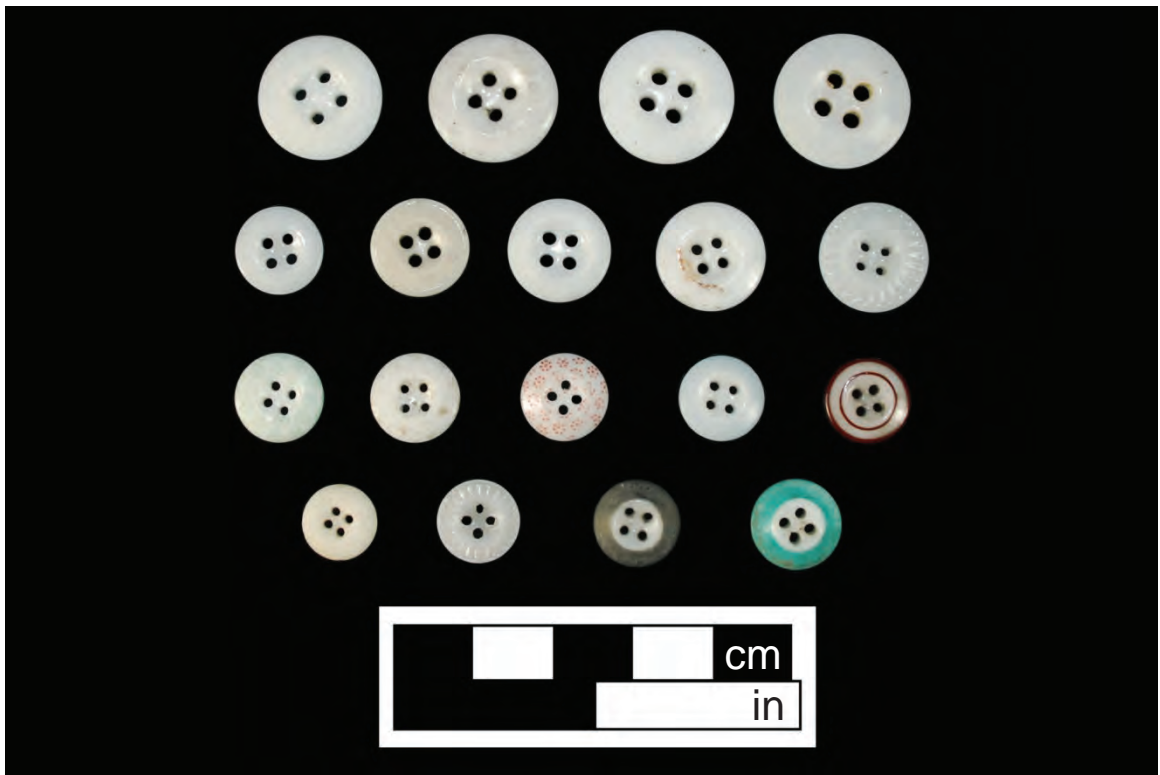


Figure 111. Prosser Buttons



Figure 112. Copper Alloy Buttons


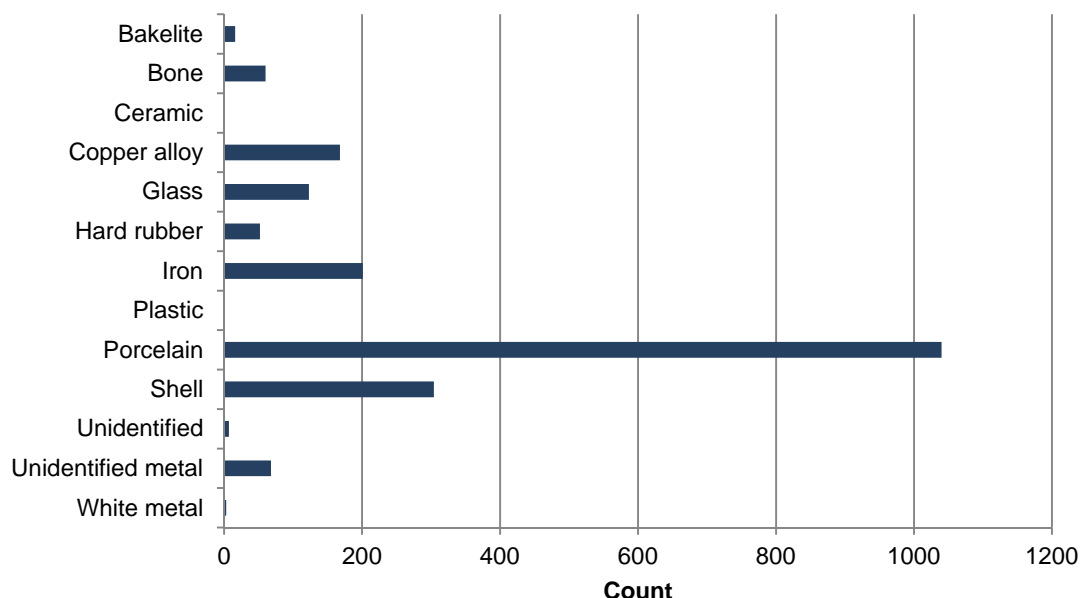
PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 111 and 112

Chart 11. Button Materials



Metal and metal composite buttons comprise 21.5 percent (n=440) of the button assemblage. Copper alloy (n=168) and iron (n=201) are predominant, with a variety of forms, including sew-through, one-, two-, three-piece, and rivet style (Figure 112). Copper alloy, mainly brass, buttons were first manufactured in the United States in large numbers around 1800. They were initially one-piece buttons; two-piece buttons were developed around 1830 for both men's fashion as well as military uniform components (Luscomb 1967:56).

Shell (n=304,) and bone (n=60) buttons represent 14.9 and 2.9 percent respectively (Figures 113 and 114). Mainly sew-through and ranging from one to five holes, bone and shell buttons are largely utilitarian in nature and have a long history of use; however, bone buttons generally predate 1850, while shell buttons came into commercial production in the United States around 1855 (IMACS User's Guide 2001:4). Other materials represented in the button assemblage include ceramic (n=1), plastic (n=1), Bakelite (n=16), and hard rubber (n=52). Of note are 17 hard rubber buttons of various forms, all with embossed lettering indicating Goodyear's 1851 patent used by the Novelty Rubber Company.

Other notable buttons are one- and two-piece molded black glass examples (n=123, 6 percent, Figures 115 and 116). Traces of silver and gold luster on the molded face are the predominant decoration on both styles. Black glass buttons of these types were first introduced around 1840 and continued in production into the mid-twentieth century (Osborne 1997:66). Among this sub-assemblage, distinct sets can be identified (Table 95); a set has been defined as a grouping of three or more of the same type of button.

Seven distinctly military styled buttons are also present in the assemblage (Figure 117). Among these are three copper alloy, three-piece, domed forms embossed on the face with the State seal of Maryland. These can be attributed to the Maryland militia ca. 1860 (Tice 1997:310). Also of military issue is one four-hole sew-through hard rubber U.S. Navy button with an embossed anchor. The remaining three are two-piece, copper alloy buttons that display military-inspired



Figure 113. Shell Buttons



Figure 114. Bone Buttons

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

Artifact Photographs

SCALE N/A

URS

PROJECT NO. 20831016

SOURCE URS

FIGURE NO. 113 and 114



Figure 115. Glass Buttons



Figure 116. Molded Glass Buttons



PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE	N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE	URS		FIGURE NO. 115 and 116



Figure 117. Military Style Buttons

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 117

styling, two with a raised eagle design and one with an anchor. The anchor button is similar to an example found in a Sears catalog (2007:332 [1897]). As noted in the historic context, John T. Adams, Malinda Adams Jackson's oldest son, may have been a mariner. Whether these buttons reflect military or mariner use could not be confirmed, as they simply may reflect styles of the times.

Buttons were used in African American folk rituals and were commonly part of spiritual caches (Brown 2001; Leone 2005). Their shape (i.e., circular) and color (i.e., white or black) also frequently held special meaning. One incised button also clearly served a folk ritual function, as discussed in the religious artifact section.

Table 95. Molded Glass Button Sets

Description	Count
Lozenge-shaped, with incised paisley decoration in center surrounded by "c"-like decorations; traces of gold luster; one-piece; self shank (Figure 116)	3
Ovoid-shaped, with series of incised lines running perpendicular down center and almond-shaped panels on either side; traces of gold luster; one-piece; self shank	3
Raised triangle overlapping faceted, raised dots and textured background; one-piece; self shank	3
Small raised triangle in center, with raised dot next to each side, surrounded by larger triangle with three lines radiating out from each corner to edge; one-piece; self shank	4
Raised six-point star in center, surrounded by ring of eight faceted, raised dots; two-piece; omega-type copper alloy shank	5
Raised squares forming cross-like decoration over entire button, textured background; two-piece; omega-type copper alloy shank	3
Octagonal-shaped, with faceted decoration on top, imprinted "X"-like decoration with traces of gold paint above, below, to left, and to right of hole on top (four total); whistle style	3
Ovoid-shaped, buckle design with silver luster traces; two-piece; copper alloy shank	3

8.2.1.4.4 Corsets


This sub-group includes the hardware fragments associated with corsets (Table 96; Figure 118). A busk was the iron strip that provided reinforcement for the front of the corset; the copper alloy fasteners (studs and slots that function like hooks and eyes) were attached to the busk. One busk fragment may have had cloth attached. Corset use waxed and waned during the nineteenth century, with resurgence in the 1870s; by the end of the nineteenth century, the use of corsets had declined (Cunnington 1990; Maples 2010).

Table 96. Corsets Sub-group

Material	Form	Count
Copper alloy	Corset busk	9
	Corset busk fastener	1
	Possible corset busk fastener	1
Iron	Corset busk	8
	Possible corset busk	1
Iron and copper alloy	Corset busk	44
Total		64



Figure 118. Corsets Sub-group

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 118

Corsets worn at the Jackson homestead fastened in the front, as evidenced by the bifid corset busk pieces, a fastening device consisting of hooks and studs that allowed the corset to be closed in the front (Johnson 1998). Front-fastened corsets were the predominant style by the late nineteenth century. The 1895 Montgomery Ward catalog offered corsets from \$0.49 to \$2.85 each.

8.2.1.4.5 Fabric

In total, 216 textile specimens were recovered (Table 97). Natural fibers such as wool, cotton, and silk have been identified in the assemblage as well as copper alloy metallic fibers. No distinct, whole clothing parts could be identified. Most are small, dry swatches of fabric of varying weaves; some of the tighter weave fragments still hold stitch marks. Twelve fragments were found in association with leather, which suggest they may have been from shoes or outerwear, such as lined coats or jackets.

Table 97. Fabric Sub-group

Material	Form	Count
Fabric and leather	Fragment	12
Fabric	Fragment	184
	Ribbon	2
Fabric and copper alloy	Fragment	17
Fabric and iron	Fragment	1
Total		216

Seventeen examples of decorative uniform trim with copper alloy fibers were identified and one fabric fragment with a possible iron rivet attached was recovered. Again, this suggests that either a Jackson homestead resident was in the military or that the family had access to military surplus items. Non-military clothing styles also occasionally feature military styling. For example, the 1897 Sears (2007:291 [1897]) catalog contained examples of women's capes with military-inspired chevron designs.

8.2.1.4.6 Fasteners

The fasteners sub-group includes a variety of clothing-related artifacts made of copper alloy, iron, or white metal (Table 98; Figure 119). Artifacts include a wide array of fasteners types, such as a hat pin, suspender clasps, D-rings, snaps, and eyes and hooks, associated with both men's and women's clothing. Some items, such as suspender clasps, may be more likely associated with men's clothing, while others, such as the hatpin, were likely used by women.

Table 98. Fasteners Sub-group

Form	Material	Count
Bar clip	Copper alloy	4
	Iron	2
Bar tack	Copper alloy	2
	Iron	2
Clothing eye	Copper alloy	4
	Iron	8
Clothing fastener	Copper alloy	10

Form	Material	Count
Clothing fastener	Iron	1
	Iron and copper alloy	1
	Iron, copper alloy, possible plastic	1
Clothing hook	Copper alloy	10
	Iron	10
D-ring	Copper alloy	1
D-ring	Iron	4
Fastener	Copper alloy	4
	Iron	2
Garter fastener	Iron	3
Possible decorative clasp	Copper alloy	1
Possible hat pin	Copper alloy	1
Possible strap keeper	Iron	3
Rivet	Copper alloy	3
Snap	Copper alloy	10
	Iron	1
Strap adjuster	Copper alloy	5
	Iron	6
Strap adjuster and possible fastener	Iron	1
Suspender buckle	Copper alloy	1
Suspender clasp	Iron	5
Total		106

8.2.1.4.7 Shoes

In total, 824 shoe or boot parts were recovered (Table 99; Figure 120). The assemblage includes copper alloy grommets and hooks, iron shoe tacks, leather lacing strips often with metal tacks or grommets, and leather heels, soles, and uppers, often with tacks or grommets. Some shoe part fragments have possible rubber components; fabric and thread were also identified within the assemblage. Rubber shoe heels were patented in 1899 (Bellis 2010b).

Shoes were constructed from a variety of materials, including leather mixed with colored canvas or gabardine, and were sometimes decorated with “removable buckles in cut steel, silver filigree, diamanté, or marcasite” (Bellis 2010b). Shoes styles, however, likely did not change significantly throughout much of the Jackson homestead occupation. Utilitarian footwear, such as lace-up boots, was of similar styles for both men and women. Boots, commonly used by both genders, were practical for daily household and farm tasks. Dress shoes for church and special occasions were widely available for both men and women. The 1895 Montgomery Ward and 1897 Sears catalogs offered 17 and 20 pages of utilitarian and dress shoes, respectively. Prices were generally from \$1.00 to \$3.00, though a few were more or less expensive. Despite the high quantity of shoe parts, it is unlikely that residents of the Jackson homestead had more than two or three pairs of shoes each. Instead, the quantity reflects the fragmentary nature of the assemblage, the large number of family members and boarders, and occupation of house for approximately 90 years.



Figure 119. Fasteners

A.–F. hooks; G.–I. eyes; J. snap; K. snap with “PAT SEP 8 85”; L. rivet; M. snap;
 N. suspender buckle; O. and P. strap adjuster; Q. bar tack with “PATENTED 1890”; R. possible hat pin

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A	URS	PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 119

Table 99. Shoes Sub-group

Form	Material	Count
Button hook	Iron	3
Grommet	Copper alloy	4
Heel, sole, and upper	Iron	1
	Leather	19
	Leather and iron	181
	Leather and metal	112
	Leather, iron, and copper alloy	21
	Leather, thread, and copper alloy	14
	Leather, iron, copper alloy, and possibly rubber	94
Hook	Copper alloy	2
Lacing strip	Leather	9
	Leather and copper alloy	165
	Leather and metal	115
Possible shoe part	Copper alloy	1
	Fabric	5
	Leather	20
Tack	Iron	52
	Copper alloy	6
Total		824

8.2.1.4.8 Cuff Links, Studs, and Other Clothing

Seven undecorated copper alloy cuff links, the majority with traces of white metal plating and one with possible silver plating, were recovered (Figure 121). The predominant style of cuff link is the lever back, though one lever top cuff link is present.

Sixty studs or stud fragments were collected (Figure 122). Studs were used in an ornamental way (i.e., worn in a shirt front, collar, or wristband). The assemblage includes one copper alloy and glass, one possible Bakelite, one possible celluloid, one possible plastic, one shell, two metal, three bone, five copper alloy, and 45 glass studs.

The other sub-group includes small clothing-related artifacts that do not fit easily into any other sub-group. The assemblage includes one copper alloy aglet (a terminal fitting for a fabric cord), one possible aglet, one bone grommet, two iron grommets, 10 possible shell button inlay fragments, and 204 copper alloy grommets. The grommets could be part of lacing strips on shoes, corsets, or other articles of clothing. One grommet from the Feature 4a cache is also discussed in the religious group.



Figure 120. Shoes Sub-group
 A. leather lace-up, ankle-high boot fragment;
 B. button hook; C. shoe heel; D. shoe nails; E. grommet

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		
SOURCE URS	URS	PROJECT NO. 20831016
		FIGURE NO. 120



Figure 121. Cuff Links

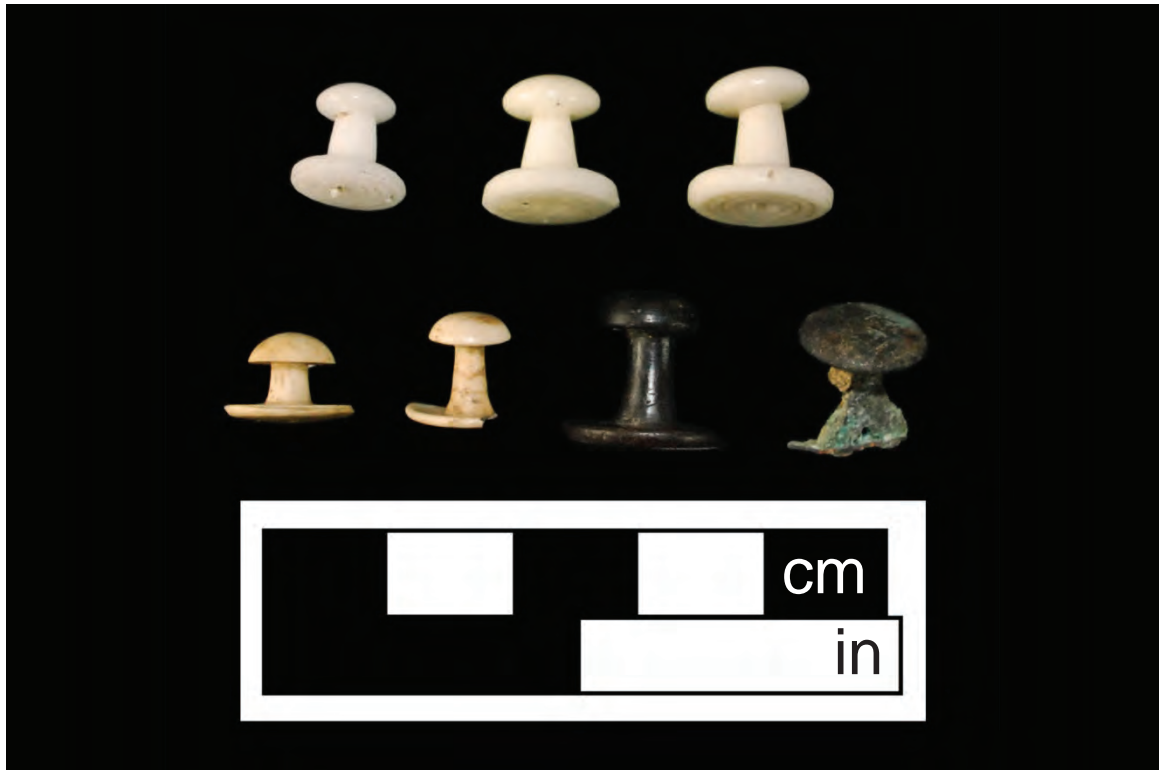



Figure 122. Studs

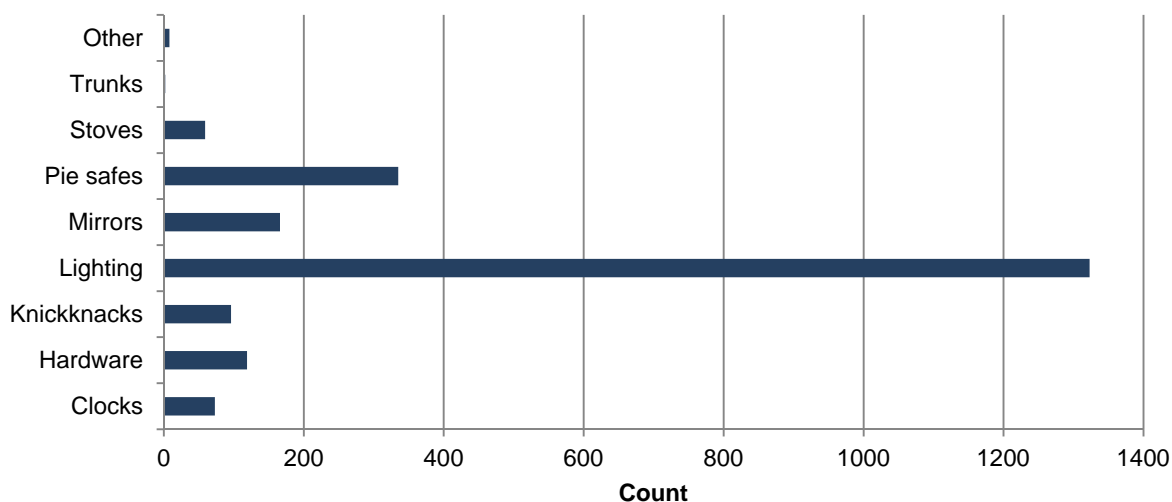
PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 121 and 122

8.2.1.5 Furniture

The furniture group includes 2,181 artifacts associated with domestic furnishings, lighting, and decorative accessories (Table 100; Chart 12). These items represent 2.88 percent of the historic artifacts. The furniture items were divided into the following sub-groups: clocks, hardware, knickknacks, lighting, mirrors, pie safes, stoves, trunks, and other.

Table 100. Furniture Group Summary

Sub-group	Count
Clocks	73
Hardware	119
Knickknacks	96
Lighting	1,323
Mirrors	166
Pie safes	335
Stoves	59
Trunks	2
Other	8
Total	2,181

Chart 12. Furniture Assemblage

8.2.1.5.1 Hardware

The hardware sub-group includes 119 artifacts likely associated with domestic furniture (Table 101). The wood or fabric parts of the furniture were destroyed in the fire or are unrecognizable in their fragmentary state. The remaining metal or porcelain artifacts in this sub-group are only recognizable as furniture parts and, as a result, the specific types of furniture could not be identified. Many items are highly decorated, reflecting a late Victorian style. One hardware artifact featuring a deer with antlers and another featuring birds on a branch may reflect the influence of the naturalistic decoration typical of the late Victorian and subsequent Art Nouveau era. This assemblage suggests a wide range of types, including case and upholstered furniture.

Table 101. Furniture Hardware Sub-group

Form	Material	Count
Button or knob	Copper alloy	1
Catch	Copper alloy	3
Chest lock	Iron	3
Drawer pull	Copper alloy	2
	Iron	2
Escutcheon	Copper alloy	1
	Iron	1
Face plate	Copper alloy	1
	Iron	2
	White metal	1
Furniture caster	Iron	2
Furniture hardware	Copper alloy	21
	Iron	12
	Lead alloy	1
Furniture hardware	Possible silver alloy	1
Furniture spring	Iron	14
	Unidentified metal	2
Furniture tack	Copper alloy	8
Hinge	Copper alloy	3
	Iron	23
Hook	Iron	2
Hook and eye	Iron	1
Key hole surround	Copper alloy	3
Knob	Porcelain	7
Possible furniture leg	Iron	1
Possible lock plate	White metal	1
Total		119

8.2.1.5.2 Pie Safe

While the original form of most furniture parts could not be determined, 335 fragments of punched sheet metal (and associated artifacts) suggest a pie safe was located in the parlor (Figure 123). The tin pieces were too fragmentary to discern a decorative punch pattern. Pie safes, introduced in the nineteenth century by Pennsylvania Germans, stored baked goods, flour, and other foodstuffs prior to the invention of ice boxes and refrigerators (eHOW.com 2010). They varied in size and shape, but consistently had punched tin panels for ventilation, and drawers and shelves for food storage (eHOW.com 2010). The artifact distributions in the Interpretations section provide a more detailed discussion of the pie safe and its likely contents. The 1895 Montgomery Ward and 1897 Sears catalogs did not offer punched tin pie safes, though Sears did offer sideboards that were similar in function for \$8.50 to \$25.00. Both firms offered special furniture catalogs with a wider variety of styles. Pie safes were likely sold in these furniture catalogs.

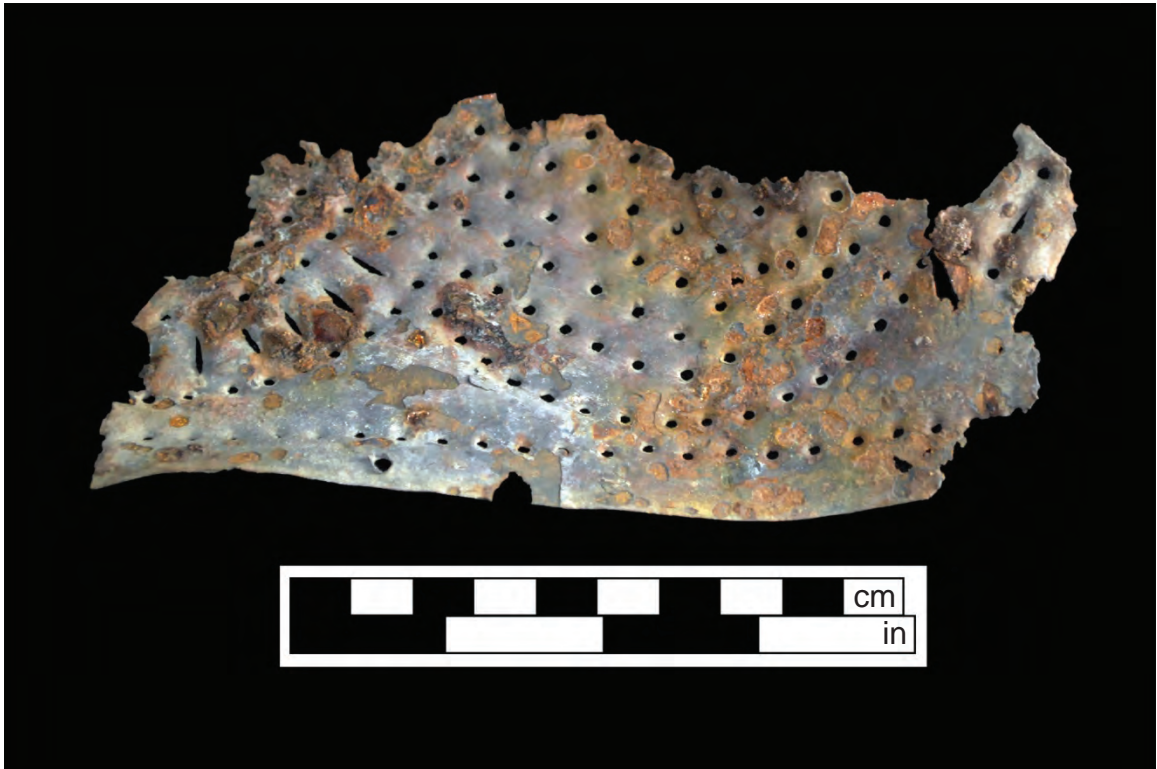



Figure 123. Pie Safe Fragment

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 123

8.2.1.5.3 Stove

Fifty-three large pieces of cast iron were likely parts of stoves (Figure 124). A rectangular base plate, measuring 83.8 cm x 43.2 cm (33 in x 17 in), was recovered, as were a damper, grill fragment, leg, lid, and three door fragments. One copper alloy fragment may also be part of a stove and five mica fragments may be from a stove door window. Cast iron stoves, introduced in the eighteenth century, became standard during the second half of the nineteenth century. The artifact distributions suggest there were stoves in both the kitchen and parlor. The parlor stove, however, likely served primarily as a heating source. The 1897 Sears catalog offered cook stoves ranging in price from \$9.54 to \$48 and heating stoves ranging from \$2.58 to \$16.20.

8.2.1.5.4 Trunks

The trunks sub-group includes two iron fragments of a circular lock mechanism. While these are the only artifacts in the assemblage identified as trunk parts, some of the unidentified iron straps included in the activities group may also be part of a steamer trunk. Clothing, linens, and various household items may have been stored in trunks.

8.2.1.5.5 Lighting

This sub-group includes 1,323 artifacts associated with household lighting (Table 102; Figure 125). These artifacts appear to be from oil or kerosene lanterns; no evidence was found for electrical lighting. Kerosene lanterns were developed in the 1800s, after petroleum drilling expanded, and were in common use in households into the early twentieth century.

Table 102. Lighting Sub-group

Form	Material	Count
Candle holder	Glass	1
Lamp burner	Copper alloy	7
Lamp chimney	Glass	52
Lamp font	Glass	4
Lamp or lantern part	White metal	5
Lamp part	Copper alloy	51
	Glass	23
	White metal	4
Lighting	Glass	1,175
Possible lampshade	Glass	1
Total		1,323

The majority of the artifacts (n=1,175) are glass fragments that could be from lamp chimneys, lampshades, or globes. The 52 lamp chimney fragments include rim or base fragments; many of the rims are crimped. One fragment is embossed “DAISY” and is likely a pattern name. The lamp parts include wick tubes, deflectors, an air distribution plate, and thumb wheels (Figure 126). One of the thumb wheels is marked “PAT.JUL.21.65.DEC.10.67”; however, no information is available for this 1860s patent. The burners suggest the house had at least seven lamps. Lamps and lanterns were widely available after the mid-nineteenth century. The 1897 Sears catalog contained five pages of lamps, ranging in price from \$1.20 for simple designs to \$13.50 for highly decorated versions. Not surprisingly, the lighting assemblage suggests that the Jackson family purchased the less expensive lamps.

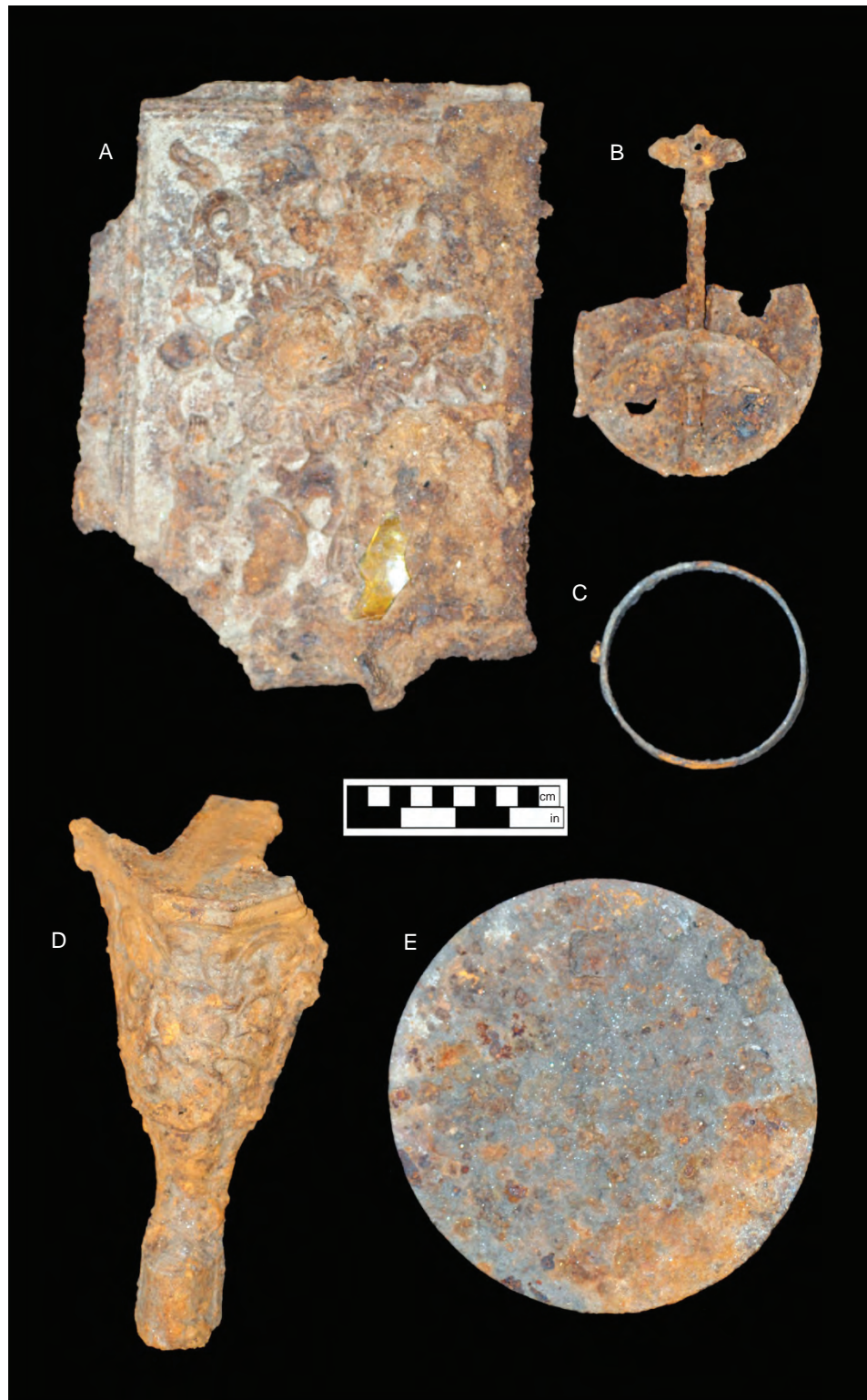


Figure 124. Stove Sub-group
 A. stove door; B. damper; C. pipe ring; D. leg; E. lid


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 124



Figure 125. Lighting Sub-group

A. Lamp font; B. possible shade; C. candle holder; D. and E. lamp chimney



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 125



Figure 126. Lamp Parts

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 126

8.2.1.5.6 *Clocks, Knickknacks and Mirrors*

The 73 clock parts include four fragments of glass (three with circular edges and one with gilded decoration), five clock keys, and 64 clock parts (e.g., gears; Figure 127). The knickknacks sub-group includes 96 artifacts, representing small decorative objects found in the home (Table 103). The small decorative profile of President Grover Cleveland, who served from 1885 to 1889 and from 1893 to 1897, is made from pressed metal and appears to be part of a match safe (Figures 128 and 129). The complete form of most figurines could not be distinguished, though one figurine is of a girl in a bonnet. Four of the ceramic tiles feature a molded pastoral scene. One picture frame includes a floral Victorian decoration surrounding an oval cut-out. The pressed metal sheets may represent pieces of decorative items or, more likely, ceiling tiles; one fragment has mortar adhered to the back. The assemblage also includes 166 mirror fragments that, while functional, may also have African American folk ritual associations, as has been documented at sites in the South (e.g., Brown 2001; Wilkie 1995).

Table 103. Knickknacks Sub-group

Form	Material	Count
Decorative bust of President Grover Cleveland	Copper alloy and white metal	1
Decorative impressed sheet metal	Iron	31
	Copper alloy	6
Decorative tile	Unidentified material	1
Figurine	Porcelain	14
Flower pot	Redware	1
Fragment	Bisque	1
Frame	Copper alloy	3
Photograph matte	Copper alloy	2
Possible vase or candle holder	Porcelain	9
Tile	Ceramic	26
Vase	Porcelain	1
Total		96

8.2.1.5.7 *Other*

The other sub-group includes a variety of artifacts that appear to be related to domestic furniture, possibly lamps or clocks, but that were otherwise unidentifiable (Table 104).

Table 104. Other Furniture Sub-group

Form	Material	Count
Adjustment knob	Iron	1
Attachment plate	Iron	1
Decorative spacer	Glass	1
End bracket	Iron	1
Lid	Copper alloy	1
Possible furniture decoration	Glass	1
Ring (not jewelry)	Copper alloy	1
Unidentified	Iron	1
Total		8



Figure 127. Clock Parts

A. and E. clock glass; B. unidentified clock part; C. and D. gears;
 F., G., H., and I. unidentified clock parts;
 J. Possible clock part;
 K. and M. keys; L. pendulum or counter-weight


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 127



Figure 128. Grover Cleveland Match Safe Fragment



Figure 129. Historic Image of Grover Cleveland

Source: LOC 2011

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

Artifact Photographs

SCALE N/A

URS

PROJECT NO. 20831016

SOURCE URS

FIGURE NO. 128 and 129

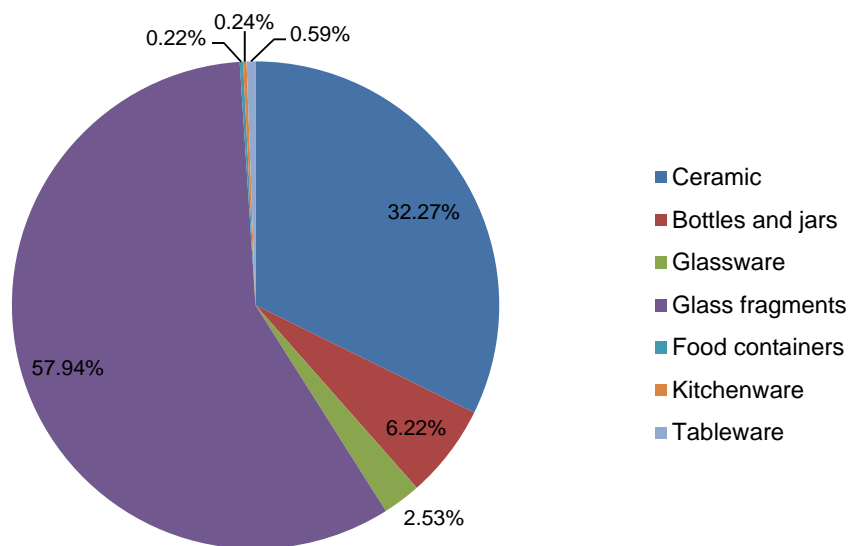
8.2.1.6 Kitchen

The kitchen group includes a variety of artifacts associated with food storage, preparation, and serving (Table 105; Chart 13). These items represent 29.22 percent of the historic artifacts, and include 7,132 ceramic fragments and 14,691 glass fragments. The remaining 275 artifacts are metal, bone, or cork fragments. The kitchen group assemblage was divided into the following sub-groups: ceramic, bottles and jars, medicine bottles, glassware, glass fragments, food containers, kitchenware, and tableware.

Table 105. Kitchen Group Summary

Form	Count
Ceramic	7,132
Bottles and jars	1,374
Glassware	558
Glass fragments	12,804
Food containers	48
Kitchenware	52
Tableware	130
Total	22,098

Chart 13. Kitchen Assemblage



8.2.1.6.1 Ceramic

The ceramic sub-group includes 7,132 fragments from a variety of wares, with manufacturing dates from the late eighteenth, nineteenth, and early twentieth centuries (Table 106; Chart 14). The earliest fragments, English brown stoneware (n=1), Nottingham (n=1), creamware (n=11), and pearlware (n=21), are small fragments that were recovered in relatively low numbers. The majority of the diagnostic ceramics are whiteware (n=2,461) dating to the nineteenth or twentieth century. Yellowware (n=75), Rockingham (n=101), domestic stoneware (n=496), and white

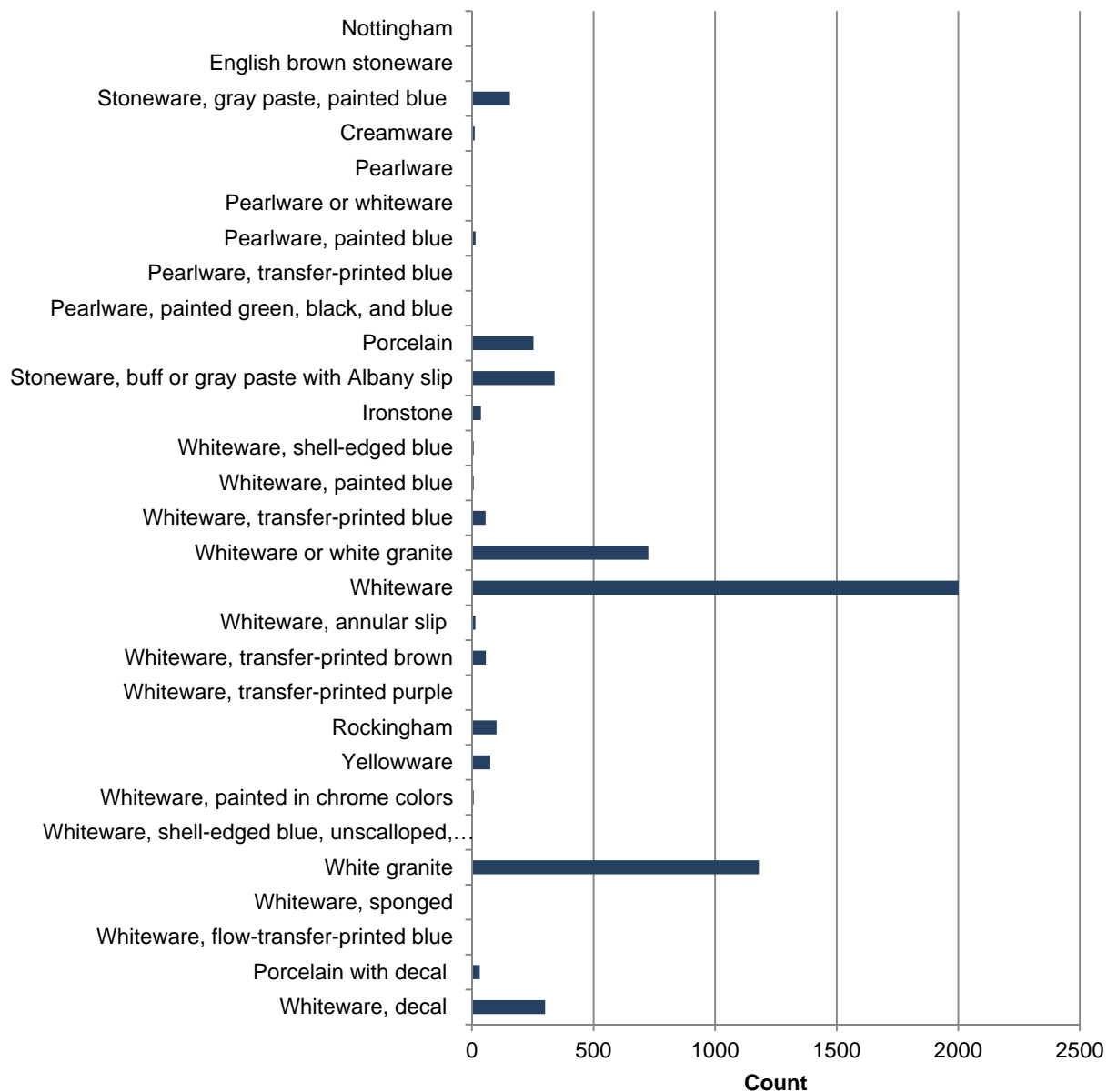
granite (n=1,180) were ceramics manufactured in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Ceramics with a decal decoration (i.e., ironstone, n=7; porcelain, n=32; and whiteware, n=302) were manufactured in the twentieth century. Numerous non-diagnostic ceramics were also recovered, including: hardpaste earthenware (n=13), redware (n=28) and other coarse earthenwares (32), stoneware (n=1,163), and unidentified ceramics (n=501). Overall, the ceramic assemblage indicates a nineteenth through early twentieth century domestic occupation, with the majority dating to the mid-nineteenth to early twentieth centuries. The ceramics reflect both antebellum and post-Civil War occupation of the site.

Table 106. Diagnostic Ceramics

Form	Date Range*	Count
Nottingham	1683–1810	1
English brown stoneware	c.1690–1775	1
Stoneware, gray paste, painted blue	1705–1930	156
Creamware	1762–1820	11
Pearlware	1775–1835	4
Pearlware or whiteware	1775–present	1
Pearlware, painted blue	1779–1830	15
Pearlware, transfer-printed blue	1783–1830	1
Pearlware, painted green, black, and blue	1795–1830	1
Porcelain	18 th century–present	253
Stoneware, buff or gray paste with Albany slip	1805–1920	340
Ironstone	1813–1900	37
Whiteware, shell-edged blue	1820–1860	7
Whiteware, painted blue	1820–present	7
Whiteware, transfer-printed blue	1820–present	56
Whiteware or white granite	1820–present	725
Whiteware	1820–present	2,001
Whiteware, annular slip	1820–20 th century	14
Whiteware, transfer-printed brown	1828–present	57
Whiteware, transfer-printed purple	1828–present	3
Rockingham	1830–1940	101
Yellowware	1830–1940	75
Whiteware, painted in chrome colors	1830–present	7
Whiteware, shell-edged blue, unscaloped, impressed repetitive pattern	1841–1857	2
White granite	1842–1930	1,180
Whiteware, sponged	1845–1930	3
Whiteware, flow-transfer-printed blue	1845–20 th century	3
Porcelain with decal	1908–present	32
Whiteware, decal	1908–present	301
Total		5,395

*Source: Miller 2000; South 1977; Sussman 1997

Chart 14. Ceramic Wares



The mean ceramic date for this assemblage was calculated as 1866.58. A mean ceramic date formula is best applied to seventeenth and eighteenth century assemblages, and typically assumes symmetrical manufacturing distribution over time, little or no lag time from manufacture to distribution to use to discard, and uniform acquisition and discard rates (J. Brandon 2005). If 1785 (when the area was first patented by Zachariah Downs) is input as the earliest date in the formula and 1920 (based on the ca. 1915 date of the fire) is input as “present,” the mean ceramic date negligibly changes to 1867.01. Both of these mean ceramic dates are artificially early due to the wide range of manufacturing dates for types such as whiteware. Also, later decorative techniques, such as decal, may be underrepresented, as only portions of those forms were decorated and are therefore dateable (i.e., a large number of undecorated whiteware sherds may have been part of later decal forms).

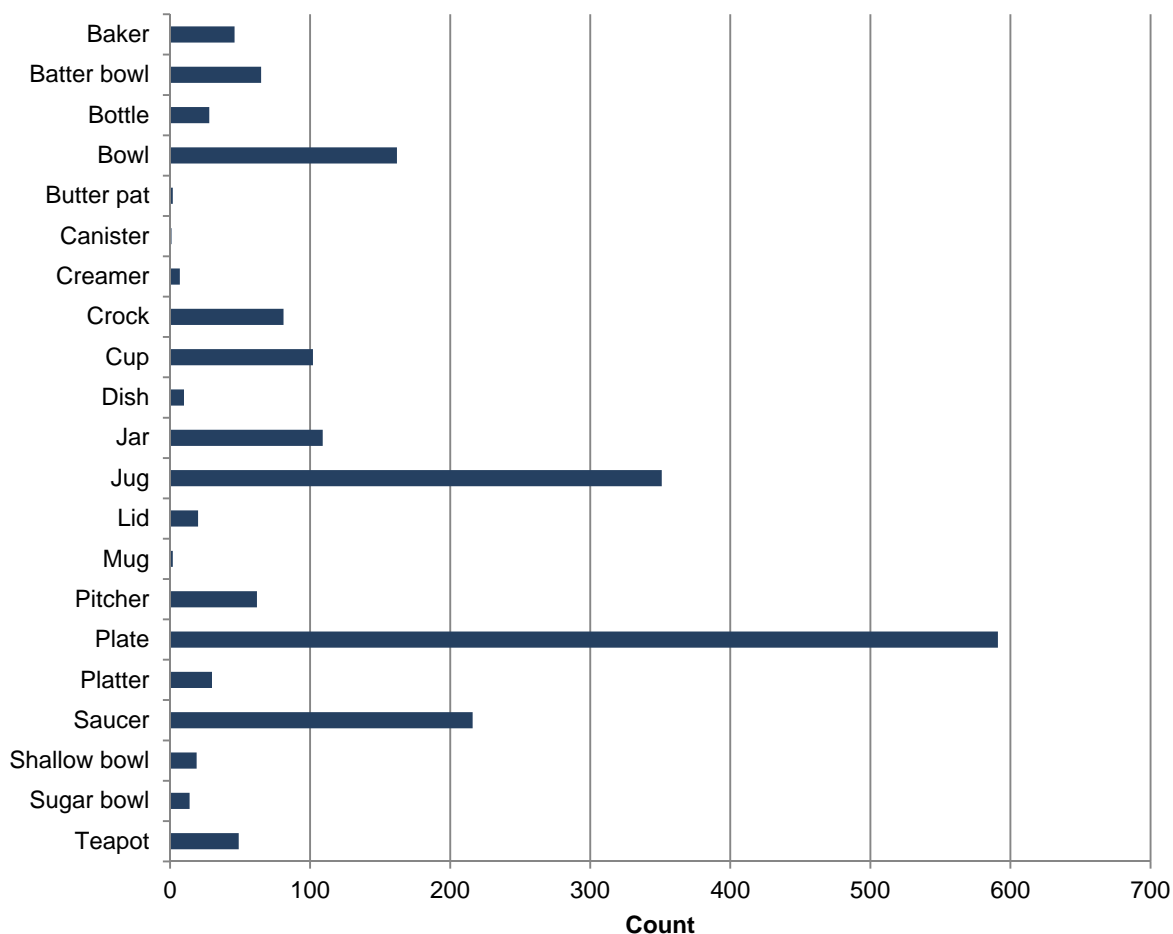
A wide variety of forms were identified within the ceramic assemblage including: baker, batter bowl, bottle, bowl, butter pat, creamer, crock, cup, dish, jar, jug, lid, mug, pitcher, plate, platter, saucer, sugar bowl, and teapot (Table 107; Chart 15). In total, 1,967 sherds have an identifiable form and represent the full range of kitchen preparation, cooking, serving, and storage activities. Food preparation forms account for only 3.56 percent, while food storage forms account for 28.98 percent and serving forms (including teawares) account for 67.46 percent. It should be noted that some forms might have served dual purposes (e.g., a bowl used for preparation was likely also used for service). As a result, the preparation category may be artificially low. The predominant forms are plates (30.05 percent), jugs (17.84 percent), saucers (10.98 percent), and bowls (7.98 percent). While the ceramic forms do not suggest a reliance on soups, stews, and other one-pot meals, the faunal and floral data indicate otherwise, as will be discussed later.

The dichotomy between ceramic forms and food remains suggests the Jackson family adopted some aspects of Victorian gentility (e.g., full place settings) while retaining traditional foodways that were focused on stews or one-dish meals (Ferguson 1992; Katz-Hyman and Rice 2011). Archaeological evidence indicates that “enslaved and overseer’s faunal remains normally were processed with cleavers for ‘one-pot’ or communal meals, such as stews and gumbo. Linked to this processing difference, the enslaved households also had a statistically higher frequency of bowls than flatware when compared with the planter assemblage, which had more plates than bowls” (Katz-Hyman and Rice 2011:208). Ferguson (1992:106) notes that this contrasting structure persists throughout the nineteenth century.

Table 107. Ceramic Forms

Form	Material	Count	Percentage
Food preparation	Batter bowl	65	3.30
	Bowl	5	0.25
Food storage	Bottle	28	1.42
	Canister	1	0.05
	Crock	81	4.12
	Jar	109	5.54
	Jug	351	17.84
Serving	Baker	46	2.34
	Bowl	157	7.98
	Butter pat	2	0.10
	Dish	10	0.51
	Mug	2	0.10
	Pitcher	62	3.15
	Plate	591	30.05
	Platter	30	1.53
	Shallow bowl	19	0.97
Serving (tea)	Creamer	7	0.36
	Cup	102	5.19
	Lid	20	1.02
	Saucer	216	10.98
	Sugar bowl	14	0.71
	Teapot	49	2.49
Total		1,967	100.00

Chart 15. Ceramic Forms



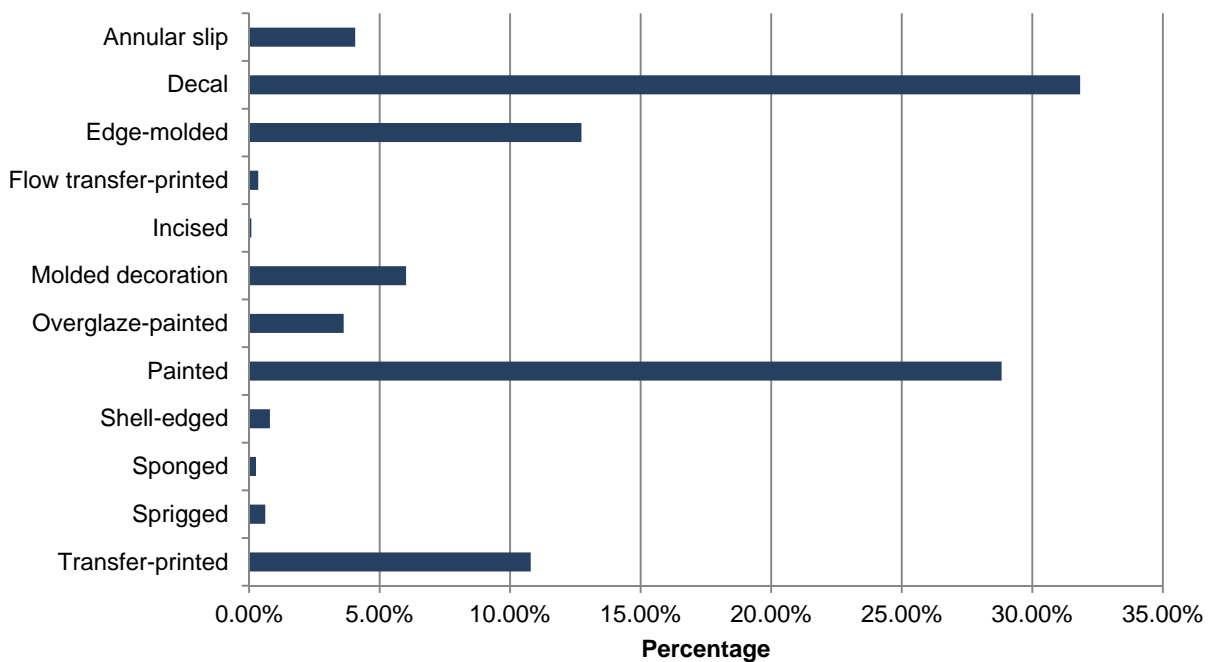
A wide variety of decorative techniques were noted in the assemblage, including: annular, decal, edge-molded, flow, incised, painted, sponged, and transfer-printed (Table 108; Figure 130). The assemblage reflects typical mid-nineteenth to early twentieth century styles. A number of the later wares exhibit multiple decorative styles typical of the late Victorian era.

Taken as a whole, the most common decorative technique is decal (32.01 percent combined), followed by edge-molded (25.38 percent combined), painted (20.60 percent combined), and transfer-printed (10.78 percent combined; Chart 16). Molded decorations that are not edge wares (6.01 percent) and annular decorations (4.07 percent) are less common. Other decorative techniques are each less than 1 percent. The high percentage of decal decorations, which post-date 1908, reflects the period of occupation at the time of the house fire, ca. 1915. Forms, sizes, decorative patterns, manufacturing flaws, and matching sets are discussed further in the minimum vessel analysis below.

Table 108. Ceramic Decorations

Material	Count	Percentage
Annular slip	46	4.07
Decal	201	17.77
Decal and overglaze painted	1	0.09
Edge-molded	144	12.73
Edge-molded and decal	94	8.31
Edge-molded and overglaze-painted	2	0.18
Edge-molded and painted	132	11.67
Edge-molded, painted, and decal	61	5.39
Flow transfer-printed	2	0.18
Flow transfer-printed and possible decal	2	0.18
Incised	1	0.09
Molded decoration	68	6.01
Overglaze-painted	38	3.36
Painted	194	17.15
Painted and decal	3	0.27
Painted and overglaze-painted	1	0.09
Shell-edged	9	0.80
Sponged	3	0.27
Sprigged	7	0.62
Transfer-printed	118	10.43
Transfer-printed and painted	4	0.35
Total	1,131	100.00

Chart 16. Ceramic Decorations



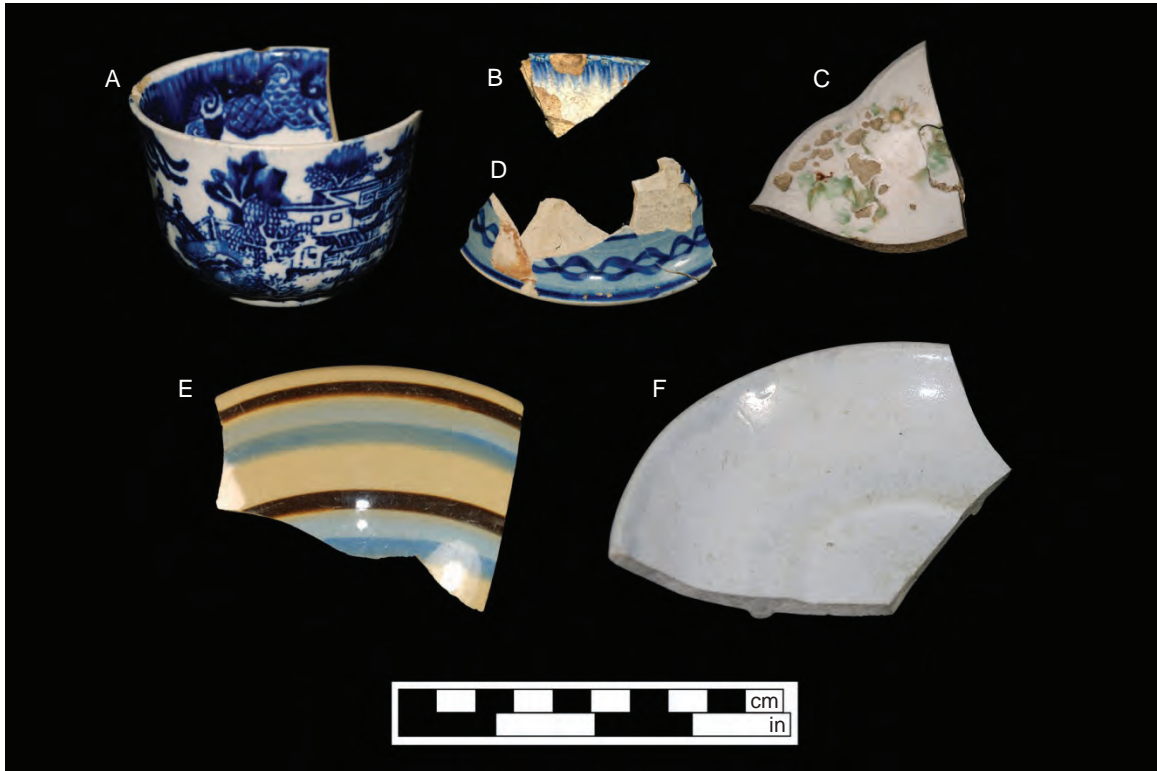


Figure 130. Ceramic Decorative Techniques

- A. whiteware cup, blue transfer printed Willow pattern;
- B. whiteware plate, blue shell edge decoration;
- C. whiteware plate, edge molded and green decal;
- D. pearlware lid, blue painted decoration;
- E. yellowware bowl, annular slip decoration;
- F. white granite saucer, edge molded decoration

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Artifact Photographs	
SCALE	N/A	URS	PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE	URS		FIGURE NO. 130

8.2.1.6.2 Ceramic Minimum Vessel Counts

Minimum vessel analysis was performed on the ceramic assemblage and resulted in the identification of 146 kitchen forms which were given a unique number (e.g., V-1 for vessel 1; Appendix E). In total, 143 of these vessels were grouped into functional categories: food storage, food preparation, serving, and tea service (Table 109). An additional three vessels are represented by unique ware types: one creamware rim sherd (V-152), one Nottingham stoneware rim sherd (V-154), and one English brown stoneware body sherd (V-155). The V-10 chimney pot is discussed in the architecture group and seven vessels (e.g., the V-9 chamber pot) are discussed in the personal group.

Table 109. Kitchen Ceramic Vessels

Form	Count
Food storage	24
Food preparation	5
Serving	64
Tea service	50
Unknown	3
Total	146

The majority of the vessels were likely in the house at the time of the fire, ca. 1915. As will be discussed, some of the vessels were clearly of an earlier date and may be curated vessels (i.e., heirlooms or hand-me-downs). It is also possible that a few vessels are fragments from the earliest occupations of the house (e.g., fragments of old broken vessels in the cellar, under the floor boards, or under the later addition to the house). Four vessels (V-44, V-87, V-103, and V-152) are attributed to yard contexts. One creamware vessel (V-152) recovered from the yard could date to the earliest pre-Emancipation occupations of the site. The other yard vessels may have been part of discarded trash from any time in the nineteenth or early twentieth centuries. One porcelain cup (V-44) was recovered from the yard near Structure B and may be associated with occupation of that residence. One whiteware bowl (V-103) was recovered from the midden in the south yard and one white granite plate (V-87) was recovered from the surface of the north yard. The distribution of vessels is discussed in the Interpretations section.

8.2.1.6.2.1 Food Storage

The food storage vessels include five bottles, one crock, three jars, and 15 jugs (Table 110). The stoneware bottles are German mineral or spring water bottles (V-20 through V-24); one bottle is almost complete and the others are rim and shoulder fragments. The bottles are gray or buff paste stoneware, with a salt glaze. One of the mineral water bottles (V-21) has a stamped maker's mark that is likely "Taunus Brunnen / J. Friedrich Grasskarben" in a circular medallion. Another bottle (V-22) is marked "Apollinares-Brunnen" with an anchor in a circular medallion (Figure 131). Apollinares started advertising in English in 1879 and is still in business. Most of its production in the early twentieth century was for export to England and the United States. A 1901 advertisement shows a stamped stoneware bottle with a printed paper label (Figure 132). The other mineral water bottles exhibit partial stamped marks.

Jars are storage vessels with a relatively wide mouth and little to no neck. The assemblage includes one redware jar (V-32, Figure 133), one stoneware jar (V-18), and one coarse

earthenware jar (V-33). All of the jars are utilitarian vessels intended for foodstuffs or for processing various pickled foods, such as cucumbers or pigs feet (Greer 1999:83). Jugs are designed as a storage vessel for liquids (such as liquor, water, or milk), with a relatively small mouth, which is usually designed for closure with a stopper, and a strap handle attached to the neck or shoulder. The single redware jug (V-31) in the assemblage is complete except for the handle (Figure 134).

Table 110. Food Storage Vessels

Form	Ware Type	Size/Capacity	Vessel No.
Bottle	Stoneware	30.48 cm (12 in) tall	V-20
		Indeterminate	V-21
			V-22
			V-23
			V-24
Crock	Stoneware	Indeterminate	V-14
Jar	Coarse earthenware	Indeterminate	V-33
	Redware	1.89-l (0.5-gal.) capacity	V-32
	Stoneware, gray paste, salt glaze	Indeterminate	V-18
Jug	Redware	~15.24 cm (~6 in) tall	V-031
	Stoneware	1.89-l (0.5-gal.) capacity	V-6
		3.79-l (1-gal.) capacity	V-7
			V-11
			V-15
			V-16
			V-27
			V-19
		Indeterminate	V-8
			V-17
			V-26
			V-28
			V-29
		V-30	
Yellowware	Indeterminate	V-2	

The assemblage includes an almost complete stoneware jug of buff paste and salt glaze (V-19, Figure 135). A yellowware jug (V-2), with annular slipped decoration, is comprised of two matching sherds, and a rim and handle fragment. Four of the jugs are buff paste stoneware with Bristol glaze and Albany-type slip, and a tooled (jiggered) shoulder (V-8, V-15, V-16, and V-17, Figure 136). Another seven vessels are gray or buff paste with a salt glaze (V-6, V-7, V-11, and V-27 through V-30). One jug is buff paste stoneware with Albany-type slip on the interior (V-26). These jugs may have contained water, mineral water, liquors, vinegar, oils, or syrups (Greer 1999:75). The stoneware crock has a gray paste, salt glaze, and painted blue decoration (V-14). The term, crock, is used for a general storage vessel that does not exhibit the morphological characteristics that would identify it as a jar or jug. In this case, only the base of the vessel is present.



Figure 131. Stoneware Bottle (V-22)



Figure 132. 1901 Apollinaris Advertisement
Source: Apollinaris 2008


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SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 131 and 132



Figure 133. Redware Jar (V-32)


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 133



Figure 134. Redware Jug (V-31)


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 134



Figure 135. Stoneware Jug (V-19)



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 135



Figure 136. Stoneware Jug (V-15)

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 136

8.2.1.6.2.2 Food Preparation

Food preparation vessels include two bakers, two batter bowls, and one bowl (Table 111). Bakers are shallow bowls with everted rims intended for cooking casseroles. The almost complete white granite baker is oval (V-48, Figure 137). The whiteware baker takes a lid and has flared handles molded from the rim (V-49).

Table 111. Food Preparation Vessels

Form	Ware Type	Size/Capacity	Vessel No.
Baker	White granite	~29.85 cm (~11.75 in) long	V-48
	Whiteware	Indeterminate	V-49
Batter bowl	Stoneware, gray paste, salt glaze	24.77 cm (9.75 in) diameter	V-5
	Stoneware, gray paste, salt glaze	27.94 cm (11 in) diameter	V-12
Bowl	Yellowware	15.24 cm (6 in) diameter	V-1

The batter bowls are gray paste stoneware with salt glaze and painted blue decoration. The smaller bowl is almost complete (V-5, Figure 138). The larger bowl, also almost complete, has two lug handles (V-12). Both batter bowls have a small spout, formed from the rim, to allow pouring of mixed liquids, such as pancake batter.

The yellowware bowl is represented by a single rim sherd with annular slip decoration (V-1). This vessel likely functioned as a mixing bowl. Similar yellowware bowls were offered in the 1895 Montgomery Ward catalog in prices ranging from \$0.04 to \$1.00 for bowls sized 0.24 liter (0.5 pints [pt]) to 9.46 liters (10 quarts [qt]). The catalog noted that “the larger size of yellow bowls will be found very useful as mixing bowls” (Montgomery Ward 2008:537[1895]).

8.2.1.6.2.3 Serving

Serving vessels include 13 bowls, two shallow bowls, one butter pat, one mug, two pitchers, 43 plates, and two platters (Table 112). These vessels would have been used on the table, some for everyday use and some for special occasions.

Two ironstone bowls have decal decoration. One vessel, with a scalloped rim, clearly shows a decal of pink roses (V-96); the other vessel was heavily burned, but may also have had a pink rose motif (V-95). An almost complete porcelain bowl has a multi-color decal decoration (V-38, Figure 139). Two of the white granite bowls have straight rims (V-54 and V-97); one has a scalloped rim and ribbed body (V-98). The seven whiteware bowls include the following decorative techniques: low-relief flutes on exterior (V-53), external molded decoration and internal pink rose decal (V-52), scroll-like edge-molded design with green and yellow decal (V-55), edge-molded and painted blue (V-101 and V-103), and edge-molded, painted blue, and floral garland decal (V-102 and V-107).

The 1919 *Baltimore Price Reducer*, a regional wholesaler’s catalog that supplied local general stores, offered semi-porcelain salad or berry bowls with floral decoration (possibly decal) in prices ranging from \$2.25 to \$10.50 per dozen (Schenning 2009a). These large examples, 21.59 cm (8.5 in) to 26.04 cm (10.25 in) in diameter, were highly decorated and would have retailed at more than \$0.18 to \$0.88 each. White granite bowls of 0.95 liters (1 qt) capacity were available from the 1897 Sears catalog for \$0.10; transfer-printed bowls of the same size ranged in price from \$0.14 to \$0.25.



Figure 137. White Granite Baker (V-48)



Figure 138. Batter Bowl (V-5)


PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE	N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE	URS		FIGURE NO. 137 and 138

Table 112. Serving Vessels

Form	Ware Type	Size/Capacity	Vessel No.	
Bowl	Ironstone	17.78 cm (7 in) diameter	V-095	
		~20.32 cm (~8 in) diameter	V-096	
	Porcelain	13.97 cm (5.5 in) diameter	V-038	
	White granite	<15.24 cm (<6 in) diameter	V-54	
			V-97	
			V-98	
	Whiteware	~10.16 cm (~4 in) diameter	V-053	
			16.51 cm (6.5 in) diameter	V-101
			17.78 cm (7 in) diameter	V-102
			V-103	
			20.32 cm (8 in) diameter	V-107
			22.86 cm (9 in) diameter	V-052
Indeterminate	V-055			
Butter pat	Whiteware	8.89 cm (3.25 in) diameter	V-142	
Mug	White granite	~0.4 liters (~2 cups) capacity	V-140	
Pitcher	White granite	1.89 liters (~0.5 gal) capacity	V-146	
		Indeterminate	V-147	
Plate	Ironstone	Indeterminate	V-63	
	Porcelain	Muffin	V-46	
	White granite	Muffin	V-108	
			V-85	
			V-86	
		Twiffler	V-89	
			V-92	
			V-78	
			V-79	
			V-80	
			V-82	
		Dinner	V-84	
			V-88	
			V-90	
			V-91	
			V-93	
			V-151	
	Indeterminate	V-81		
		V-87		
	Whiteware	Muffin	V-57	
			V-124	
			V-125	
			V-129	
Twiffler		V-71		
Dinner		V-59		
		V-60		
		V-61		
		V-65		

Form	Ware Type	Size/Capacity	Vessel No.
Plate	Whiteware	Dinner	V-66
			V-67
			V-68
			V-69
			V-70
			V-72
			V-75
			V-94
		Indeterminate	V-99
			V-62
			V-73
			V-74
			V-76
			V-100
Platter	White granite	26.67 cm (10.5 in) long	V-56
		Indeterminate	V-83
Shallow bowl	Whiteware	Indeterminate	V-058

Note: muffin = 17.78 cm (7 in) or less, twiffler = 20.32 cm (8 in), dinner = 22.86 cm (9 in) or more in diameter

The two shallow bowls are whiteware with pink floral decal decoration. One bowl has a scalloped rim and gently fluted body (V-77); the other bowl is oval and edge-molded (V-58). These vessels could have been shallow serving dishes or underplates for gravy or sauce boats. The butter pat is whiteware with a blue sheet-transfer-printed floral decoration (V-142, Figure 140). The 1897 Sears catalog offered individual butter pats in prices ranging from \$0.34 to \$0.50, although none were offered with the slightly old-fashioned floral sheet-transfer-printed decoration. The butter pat was recovered from within the house and may be a curated vessel, as the decoration's peak production dates typically range from 1829 to 1843 (Samford 2007).

The white granite mug has straight sides and a slightly everted lip (V-140). One white granite pitcher has a low-relief molded decoration (V-146, Figure Vessel 141). The other pitcher is represented by a single rim sherd with a handle (V-147). Mugs were available from the Montgomery Ward catalog for \$0.10 to \$0.15; white granite pitchers, 1.89 liters (2 qt) in size, ranged in price from \$0.28 to \$0.58.

The 43 plates in the assemblage include ironstone, porcelain, white granite, and whiteware examples. The sizes range from 13.97 cm (5.5 in) to 25.40 cm (10 in) in diameter. Plates with a diameter of 17.78 cm (7 in) or less are muffins, twifflers are 20.32 cm (8 in) in diameter, and dinner plates are 22.86 cm (9 in) or greater. Because so many of the plates are fragmentary, precise measurements were not always possible. For analytical purposes, measured diameters were rounded down to the nearest inch; thus, a 21.59-cm (8.5-in) diameter plate is classified as a twiffler. As a general trend in ceramic manufacture, the actual size of specific plate types increased over time. Potters circumvented industry price fixing lists by offering larger wares for the same price to appeal to their buyers (Miller and Earls 2008). A 1919 wholesaler's catalog described most vessels with a trade size and an "actual size;" a Homer Laughlin semi-porcelain plate, listed as 15.25 cm (6 in) is actually 20.96 cm (8.25 in) in diameter (Schenning 2009a:18).



Figure 139. Porcelain Bowl (V-38)

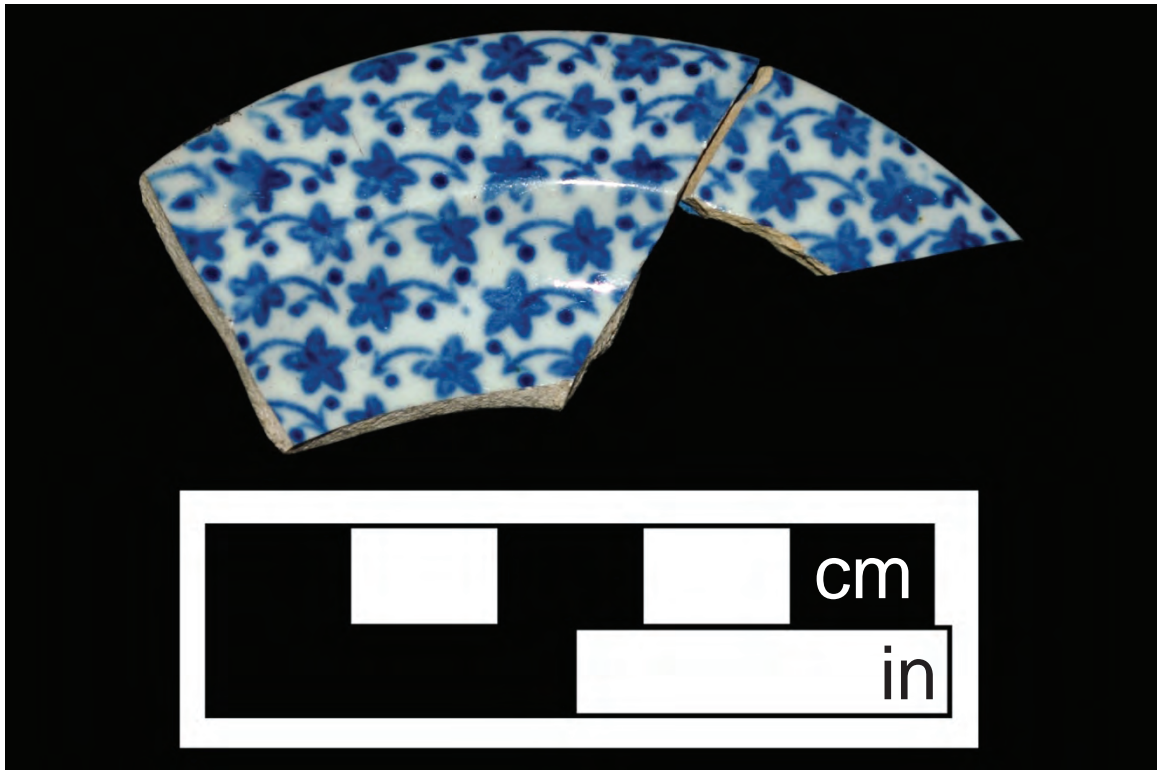


Figure 140. Whiteware Butter Pat (V-142)



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SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 139 and 140



Figure 141. White Granite Pitcher (V-146)

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 141

A single ironstone plate is a 12-sided vessel with transfer-printed and overglaze-painted decoration (V-63, Figure 142). The design includes on the marley, or brim, a classical motif featuring an urn on a fenced platform with leaves and flowers and, in the center of the vessel, additional leaves and flowers. The transfer print is brown, and selected elements of the printed design are “colored in” with blue, pink, green, or yellow. The porcelain plate has a scalloped rim and black floral decal decoration (V-46).

The 17 white granite plates include two dinner plates with an edge-molded design of arches and leaves (V-78 and V-151, Figure 143). The smallest plate (V-108) is a 13.97-cm (5.5-in) muffin with a plain rim that may have been used a breakfast or luncheon plate. The assemblage includes four twifflers (V-85, V-86, V-89, and V-92) and eight dinner plates (V-79, V-80, V-82, V-84, V-88, V-90, V-91, and V-93) with plain rims. Two additional white granite plates had plain rims, but could not be measured (V-81 and V-87). The 1895 Montgomery Ward catalog offered white granite plates with a plain rim in a variety of sizes; each plate size was followed by a description of the actual dimensions of the plate. A 12.7-cm (5-in) plate (actual size 17.15 cm [6.75 in]) was priced at \$0.77 per dozen (\$0.06 each), a 15.24-cm (6-in) plate (actual size 20.32 cm [8 in]) was \$0.96 per dozen (\$0.08 each), and a 17.78-cm (7-in) plate (actual size 22.86 cm [9 in]) was \$1.12 per dozen (\$0.09 each).

The 24 whiteware plates include four muffins (V-57, V-124, V-125, and V-129), one twiffler (V-71), 13 dinner plates (V-59 through V-61, V-65 through V-70, V-72, V-75, V-94, and V-99), and six plate fragments (V-62, V-73, V-74, V-76, V-100, and V-148) that could not be measured. The muffins and twiffler are edge-molded vessels with decal decoration, generally of a floral motif (Figure 144). A 1919 wholesaler’s catalog offered decorated semi-porcelain (likely decal) plates in these options: 10.16 cm (4 in; actual size 15.24 cm [6 in]) at \$1.13 per dozen; 12.7 cm (5 in; actual size 17.78 cm [7 in]) at \$1.27 per dozen; and 15.24 cm (6 in; actual size 21.59 cm [8.5 in]) at \$1.97 per dozen (Schenning 2009a). Retail prices would have been, respectively, more than \$0.09, \$0.11, and \$0.16 each.

The whiteware dinner plates include one undecorated plate with a plain rim (V-75); it was heavily burned and any decoration is obscured. The remaining whiteware dinner plates are all decorated and include: one with an edge-molded decoration (V-94); seven with edge-molded, and pink and green floral decal decoration (V-65 through V-70, and V-72); one with edge-molded, blue painted decoration and a fugitive floral garland decal decoration (V-99); and three with brown transfer-printed decoration (V-59 through V-61). One vessel has a floral motif (V-59). Two are printed in the ‘Verona’ pattern (V-60 and V-61).

The plate fragments of indeterminate size include one with an edge-molded decoration (V-73) and one edge-molded with a blue painted decoration (V-100). Two vessels have decal decoration; one is burned and has a fugitive floral motif (V-74), and the other has green, orange, and fugitive floral or vegetable motif (V-76). Both plates are represented by base portions. One vessel is represented by a single sherd of blue shell-edge whiteware (V-148, Figure 145). The plate has an unscalloped rim and impressed repetitive pattern, and dates between 1841 and 1857 (Miller 2000:3). The assemblage also includes one plate fragment with a brown transfer-printed decoration in the ‘Verona’ pattern (V-62).

The 1895 Montgomery Ward catalog offered 20.32 cm (8 in) semi-porcelain plates (likely with a greater actual diameter) with an edge-molded decoration for \$1.12 per dozen (\$0.09 each). Edge-molded and decal-decorated semi-porcelain dinner plates (20.32 cm [8 in] trade size, 24.77



Figure 142. Ironstone Plate (V-63)



Figure 143. White Granite Plate (V-78)



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 142 and 143



Figure 144. Whiteware Muffin Plate (V-124)

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 144

cm [9.75 in] actual size) were available through a 1919 wholesaler’s catalog for \$2.01 per dozen; retail prices would have been greater than \$0.17 each (Schenning 2009a). The two platters are white granite oval vessels. One is an almost complete 26.67 cm (10.5 in) platter with a low-relief edge-molded arch motif (V-56, Figure 146). The other platter has a plain rim (V-83). The 1895 Montgomery Ward catalog offered plain rim white granite platters of 20.32 cm (8 in; 26.67 cm [10.5 in] actual size) for \$1.73 per dozen (\$0.14 each).

8.2.1.6.2.4 Tea Service

Serving vessels associated with tea service include two creamers, 14 cups, 28 saucers, two sugar bowls, and two teapots (Table 113). Some of these items, particularly the porcelain vessels, may have been used in the context of special occasions or formal dining, though others, such as the creamer and sugar bowl, may also have served everyday purposes.

Table 113. Tea Service Vessels

Form	Ware Type	Size/Capacity	Vessel No.
Creamer	Ironstone	~0.47 liters (~1 pint) capacity	V-145
	Porcelain	Indeterminate	V-45
Cup	Porcelain	n/a	V-42
			V-43
			V-44
	White granite	n/a	V-132
			V-134
			V-136
			V-137
	Whiteware	n/a	V-130
			V-131
			V-133
			V-135
			V-138
			V-139
			V-141
Possible saucer	Porcelain	Indeterminate	V-41
Saucer	Porcelain	14.61 cm (5.75 in) diameter	V-36
		14.61 cm (5.75 in) diameter	V-37
		15.2 cm (6 in) diameter	V-34
	Porcelain	15.2 cm (6 in) diameter	V-39
		16.21 cm (6.38 in) diameter	V-35
		>15.2 cm (>6 in) diameter	V-40
	White granite	15.2 cm (6 in) diameter	V-110
			V-112
			V-113
			V-114
			V-115
			V-116
			V-121
>15.2 cm (>6 in) diameter	V-109		
Indeterminate	V-106		

Form	Ware Type	Size/Capacity	Vessel No.
Saucer	White granite	Indeterminate	V-117
			V-118
			V-122
	Whiteware	>15.2 cm (>6 in) diameter	V-64
			V-104
			V-105
			V-111
			V-123
			V-119
		Indeterminate	V-120
			V-126
			V-127
			V-128
			V-149
Sugar bowl	Ironstone	10.16 cm (4 in) diameter	V-149
	White granite		V-150
Teapot	Rockingham	0.94 liters (~1 qt) capacity	V-4
		1.42 liters (~3 pt) capacity	V-3

One almost complete ironstone creamer and one partial porcelain creamer were recovered. The ironstone creamer is eight-sided and 12.7 cm (5 in) tall (V-145, Figure 147). It has blue sprig-molded decoration in a grape motif. The 1895 Montgomery Ward catalog sold creamers for \$0.15 to \$0.85 each. The porcelain creamer includes rim and base fragments with yellow and fugitive decal decoration (V-45). A 1919 wholesaler's catalog listed semi-porcelain with a decal decoration for \$2.81 per dozen, or more than \$0.23 each at retail price (Schenning 2009a).

Of the 14 cups, three are porcelain tea cups; one has a yellow decal decoration and a painted gold line at the rim (V-42), the second has molded decoration along the base and green decal decoration (V-43), and the third has a very small diameter and may have been a demitasse cup (V-44). The five white granite cups include three straight-sided vessels with plain rims (V-132, V-133, and V-134; Figure 148), and two straight-sided cups with molded handles with a circular cut-out (V-136 and V-137). The six whiteware cups include three undecorated vessels with straight sides and plain rims (V-135, V-138, and V-139). One has a pink and green floral decal decoration (V-130), one has a globular shape and green foliate decal decoration (V-131), and one has a blue transfer-printed decoration in the common Willow pattern (V-141, Figure 149).

The 28 saucers in the assemblage range in size between 14.61 cm (5.75 in) and 16.51 cm (6.5 in) in diameter. Each has a central cup well. The six porcelain saucers include one vessel with a plain rim (V-35) and one burned vessel with a possible painted gold line at the rim (V-34). Two saucers have painted gold lines at the rims and around the cup wells (V-36 and V-37, Figure 150) and two have an edge-molded decoration (V-39 and V-40). The 12 white granite saucers include one vessel with a slightly ribbed body (V-117) and one vessel with an edge-molded decoration (V-122). The remaining 10 saucers each have a plain rim (V-106, V-109, V-110, V-112 through V-118, V-121, and V-122). The 10 whiteware saucers include two undecorated vessels with plain rims (V-119 and V-120). Three saucers have edge-molded decorations (V-111, V-123, and V-128). One vessel is edge-molded with a fugitive decal decoration (V-126). Three saucers are edge-molded, painted blue and decorated with a gold or fugitive floral garland decal (V-104, V-

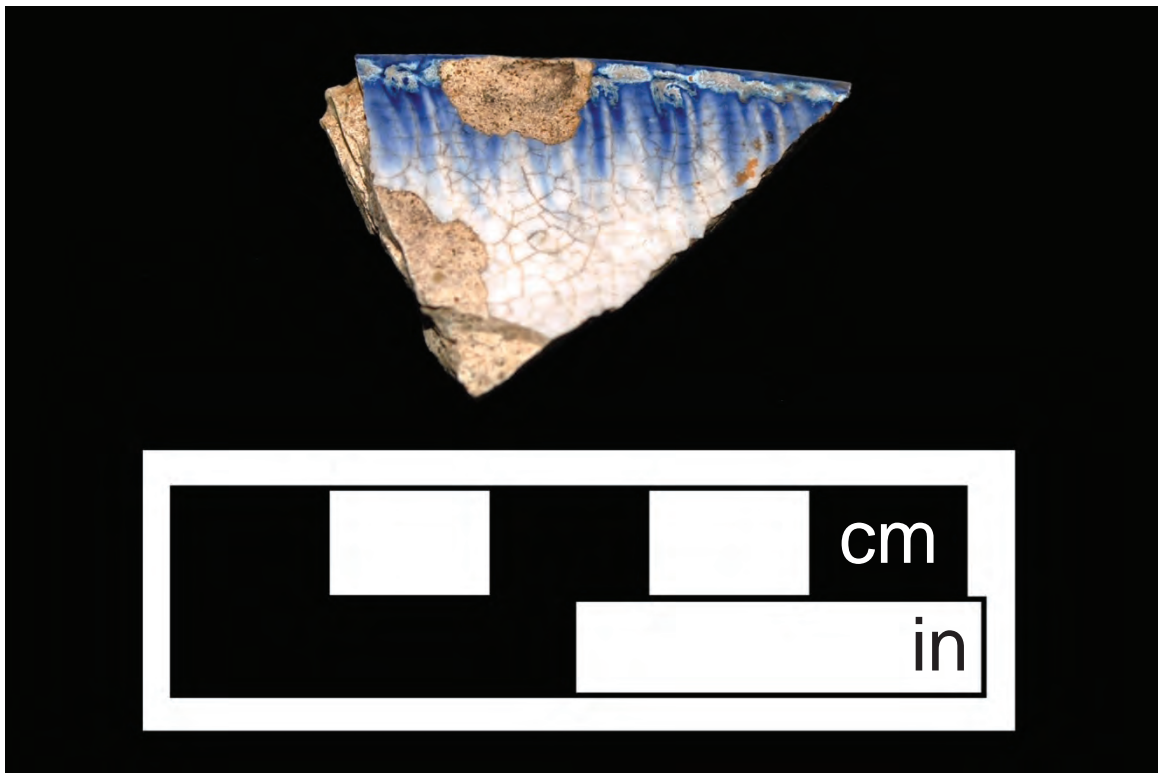


Figure 145. Blue Shell Edge Whiteware Plate (V-148)



Figure 146. White Granite Platter (V-56)


PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE	N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE	URS		FIGURE NO. 145 and 146



Figure 147. Ironstone Creamer (V-145)


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 147



Figure 148. White Granite Cup (V-132)


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 148



Figure 149. Whiteware Cup in Blue Willow Pattern (V-141)



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 149



Figure 150. Porcelain Saucer (V-37)



Figure 151. Whiteware Saucer (V-104)

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 150 and 151

105, and V-127, Figure 151). One saucer has a brown transfer-printed floral decoration (V-64). The possible saucer is a porcelain vessel with green decal decoration (V-41). It resembles a saucer but does not have a cup well.

Cups and saucers were sold as sets in the 1895 Montgomery Ward catalog for prices ranging from \$1.26 to \$4.40 per dozen (\$0.11 to \$0.37 each). The 1897 Sears catalog offered cups and saucers, also in sets, for a similar price. The catalogs did not offer standard cups and saucers as individual items for sale, though souvenir or after-dinner cups and saucers (themed or more highly decorated ones) were offered as individual sets for up to \$0.45 each.

The two sugar bowls, one white granite and one ironstone, are rim portions of eight-sided vessels; no lids to the bowls were recovered. The white granite vessel was burned (V-150) and the ironstone vessel has a green decal decoration (V-149, Figure 152). Sugar bowls were also widely available through catalogs, with the 1895 Montgomery Ward catalog offering individual sugar bowls for \$0.33 to \$1.47. A 1919 wholesaler's catalog offered sugar bowls for similar prices.

Two Rockingham teapots, one approximately 1.42 liters (3 pt) and one approximately 2.84 liters (3 qt), were recovered; both were in the Rebekah at the Well pattern. The pattern reflects a biblical reference (from the Book of Genesis) to Rebekah offering water to Eliezer and his camels (Figure 153). This motif can be interpreted as a representation of good hospitality. The 1895 Montgomery Ward catalog offered these individual Rebekah at the Well teapots for \$0.30 and \$0.45, respectively. The Butler Brother's 1906 wholesaler's catalog offered the teapots for \$1.20 to \$1.30 per dozen (they were sold at retail for more than \$0.10 or \$0.11; Schenning 2009b). The 1919 wholesaler's catalog did not offer teapots with this motif, suggesting it was no longer in fashion (Schenning 2009a).

8.2.1.6.2.5 Matching Sets

The majority of the ceramic assemblage does not reflect the use of matching sets of dishes. Dishes may have been purchased individually through catalogs, or at local general stores or second-hand shops. Some vessels, however, do suggest limited acquisition of matching or near matching sets, including several vessels with identical patterns (Table 114). These include matching plates and matching plates and saucers from the same dining service. Some of these vessels may have been purchased as a set; others may have been purchased separately to add onto an existing set or to create a new set. Both matching sets and individual forms were widely available, and allowed for flexibility in building and restocking dining sets.

Two matching white granite dinner plates have an edge-molded pattern of arches and stylized leaves (V-78 and V-151). Three identical whiteware dinner plates are brown transfer-printed in the 'Verona' pattern (V-60, V-61, and V-62, Figure 154). Two distinctive cup styles were identified: whiteware with a blocky base (V-138 and V-139, Figure 155) and white granite with a handle formed with a circular cut-out (V-136 and V-137, Figure 156).

Matching patterns were also noted on different forms, indicating that all or part of a set may have been purchased by the family. Four whiteware vessels are edge-molded, blue painted, and decorated with floral garland decal (Figure 157). These included one dinner plate (V-99) and three 15.24 cm (6 in) saucers (V-104, V-105, and V-127). This combination of decorative techniques – edge-molding, edge-painting, and decal – was noted on several sherds in the collection (n=61). These four vessels have identical decorative elements; many of the other



Figure 152. Ironstone Sugar Bowl (V-149)


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 152



Figure 153. Rebekah At The Well Teapot (V-4)

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A	URS	PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 153

vessels or sherds have similar decorations, but are not part of the same ceramic service. The challenge in differentiating between the various edge-molded motifs and multiple overlapping decorations highlights the possibility that the users of these ceramics may have treated these vessels as a nearly matched set. The family may have intended these pieces to be viewed as a formal dining set.

Table 114. Ceramic Sets

Pattern	Ware Type	Form	Vessel No.
Arches or leaves	White granite	Plate, dinner	V-78
			V-151
Blocky base cup	Whiteware	Cup	V-138
			V-139
Blue floral garland	Whiteware	Saucer	V-104
			V-105
			V-127
		Plate, dinner	V-99
Circle-handle cup	White granite	Cup	V-136
			V-137
Plain-rim cup	Whiteware	Cup	V-135
			V-133
Plain-rim saucer	White granite	Saucer	V-110
			V-109
Rose decal type 1	Whiteware	Plate, dinner	V-65
			V-66
			V-67
			V-68
			V-69
			V-70
Rose decal type 2	Whiteware	Saucer	V-126
		Plate, dinner	V-72
'Verona'	Whiteware	Plate, dinner	V-60
			V-61
			V-62

There are also six identical whiteware dinner plates with pink rose decal decoration (V-65 through V-70, Figure 158). In addition, a different pink rose decal decoration was found on one whiteware dinner plate and one saucer (V-72 and V-126). The two decal patterns are slightly different, but may have looked similar enough when in use. The many pink rose decal-decorated sherds that were identified in the assemblage (n=135) suggests that this style was favored in the household and, like the blue decal vessels, may have functioned as a *de facto* set.

In addition, two whiteware cups (V-133 and V-135) and two white granite saucers (V-109 and V-110) have the same plain rim; given the simple style, it is possible that these vessels served as a set, but may not have been purchased together.



Figure 154. Whiteware Dinner Plates in Verona Pattern (V-60 and V-61)


PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs		
SCALE	N/A		PROJECT NO.	20831016
SOURCE	URS		FIGURE NO.	154



Figure 155. Whiteware Cups (V-138 and V-139)



Figure 156. White Granite Cups (V-136 and V-137)


PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE	N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE	URS		FIGURE NO. 155 and 156



Figure 157. Whiteware Vessels, Edge Molded and Blue Painted, with Floral Garland Decal (top: V-104 and V-105, bottom: V-99)



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 157



Figure 158. Whiteware Dinner Plates with Pink Rose Decal Decoration
 (from top, left to right: V-65, V-66, V-67, V-68, V-69, and V-70)

PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs		
SCALE	N/A		PROJECT NO.	20831016
SOURCE	URS		FIGURE NO.	158

8.2.1.6.2.6 *Maker's Marks*

Manufacturer's marks were identified on some of the ceramics (Table 115; Figure 159). Many of the potteries were located in Staffordshire, England, or East Liverpool, Ohio, both major centers of ceramic production in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. The marks indicate beginning production dates from 1864 to 1907, with the majority falling between 1890 and 1900. This is consistent with the occupation of the site at the time of the fire.


Table 115. Ceramic Maker's Marks

Maker's Mark	Location*	Date Range*	Form	Ware Type	Vessel No.
Edwin Bennett Pottery	Baltimore, MD	1897–1907	Baker	White granite	V-48
T & R Boote	Staffordshire, England	Similar to mark registered August 22, 1856	Plate	White granite	V-108
Burgess & Goddard, importers mark	New York City, NY	ca. 1870–1885	Saucer	White granite	V-121
Clementson Brothers		ca. 1865–1916	Plate	White granite	V-88
Cockson & Chetwynd	Staffordshire, England	ca. 1867–1875	Saucer	White granite	V-112
Cockson and Seddon, also unreadable partial stamped mark	Staffordshire, England	Similar to mark dated 1876–1878	Plate	White granite	V-79
W & E Corn	Staffordshire, England	ca. 1864–1904	Plate	Whiteware	V-73
Likely W & E Corn	Staffordshire, England	ca. 1864–1904	Saucer	White granite	V-114
French China Company	Sebring, OH	1900–1931	Plate	Whiteware	n/a
cf. D.F. Haynes & Co.	Baltimore, MD	1881–1914	Plate	White granite	V-82
Johnson Brothers	Staffordshire, England	ca. 1891–1913	Fragment	Possible white granite	n/a
Knowles, Taylor & Knowles	East Liverpool, OH	1872–1904	Plate	Porcelain	n/a
Knowles, Taylor & Knowles	East Liverpool, OH	1890–ca. 1905	Fragment	Whiteware	n/a
Knowles, Taylor & Knowles	East Liverpool, OH	1900–ca. 1920	Saucer	Whiteware	V-123
			Plate	Whiteware	V-65, V-66, V-68, V-69
Knowles, Taylor & Knowles	East Liverpool, OH	1900–ca. 1920	Plate	Earthenware	n/a
Homer Laughlin China Co.	East Liverpool, OH	ca. 1907	Fragment	Whiteware	n/a
Registry mark	England	July 25, 1881, parcel no. 2	Plate	Whiteware	V-59
Likely Taunus Brunnen/J. Friedrich Grasskarben	Germany	Late 1800s–early 1900s	Bottle	Stoneware	V-21
Taylor Smith & Taylor	Chester, WV	1901–ca. 1930	Fragment	Whiteware	n/a
cf. Taylor, Smith, & Taylor mark	Chester, WV	1901–ca. 1930	Fragment	Whiteware	n/a
Taylor Smith & Taylor	Chester, WV	1901–1972	Plate	Whiteware	V-72
Warwick China	Wheeling, WV	ca. 1898–ca. 1910	Saucer	Whiteware	V-111
Wedgwood & Co.	Staffordshire, England	1891–1908	Saucer	White granite	V-110
Likely Wedgwood & Co.	Staffordshire, England	1891–1908	Saucer	White granite	V-109

*Sources: Dieringer and Dieringer 2001; Gates and Ormerod 1982; Kovel and Kovel 1986; Kowalsky and Kowalsky 1999; Lehner 1988; Trojan Horse Antiques 2010



Figure 159. Example Maker's Marks (top left: V-110, top right: V-87, and bottom right: V-111)

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 159

8.2.1.6.2.7 *Manufacturing Flaws*

Sixteen ceramic vessels exhibit some sort of manufacturing flaw (Table 116; Figures 160, 161, and 162). While some of these flaws were not visible when the vessel was in use or were small enough to be insignificant, a number of very obvious defects are apparent. It is possible that the family economized on ceramic vessels by purchasing flawed vessels at a discounted price. Conversely, they may have purchased “seconds” of higher end wares at discounted prices. These discounted vessels were likely purchased at local retailers, as they were not available through the national catalogs.

Table 116. Ceramic Manufacturing Flaws

Form	Ware Type	Manufacturing flaw	Vessel No.
Bowl	Porcelain	Partial or indistinct decal decoration on the exterior and base	V-38
	Whiteware	Small pieces of clay adhered to the vessel under the glaze	V-53
Creamer	Porcelain	Small area of flawed glaze on the base	V-45
Cup	Whiteware	Slight pooling of glaze at rim and base	V-135
	Whiteware	Slight pooling of glaze at base	V-133
Jug	Redware	Slight dent in the body of the vessel near the base	V-31
	Stoneware	Noticeable dent in the body of the vessel	V-6
		Distinctive flat shoulder, possibly from the neck slumping into the vessel cavity	V-29
		Glaze flaw on the interior of the vessel – would not have been visible during use; vessel also has a small glaze flaw on the exterior	V-15
Plate	Whiteware	Torn transfer print – the ‘Verona’ pattern name shows how the tissue paper ripped while being placed on the vessel and the two pieces were not aligned	V-60
		Misshapen or warped rim – this vessel is very burned, but it is unlikely that the fire could have burned hot enough to deform the ceramic vessel, yet leave the glaze generally intact and the pink rose decal decoration still visible	V-57
	White granite	Small pieces of clay or grit adhered to the vessel under the glaze	V-89
Saucer	Porcelain	Partial and indistinct decoration on the exterior	V-34
	Whiteware	Glaze flaw on base of vessel	V-119
	White granite	Very uneven glaze, drip marks on front of saucer, large pool on back	V-116
Teapot	Rockingham	Glaze flaw on the interior of the vessel – would not have been readily visible during use	V-4

8.2.1.6.3 *Bottles and Jars*

The bottles and jars sub-group includes non-medical glass containers, as well as lids, lid liners, and stoppers (Table 117). Of the 1,374 artifacts collected, 99 are complete or almost complete bottles. The remaining container glass fragments were substantial enough to discern the vessel form, manufacturing technique, or other diagnostic attributes.

The glass container manufacturing techniques include automatic machine made bottle and jar fragments, blown-in-mold container fragments, paste- or turn-molded bottle fragments, and Ricketts-type molded bottle fragments (Table 118; Chart 17; Figure 163).



Figure 160. Whiteware Plate with Misshapen Rim (V-57)



Figure 161. White Granite Saucer with Uneven Glaze (V-116)


PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE	N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE	URS		FIGURE NO. 160 and 161



Figure 162. Stoneware Jug with Dent (V-6)


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 162

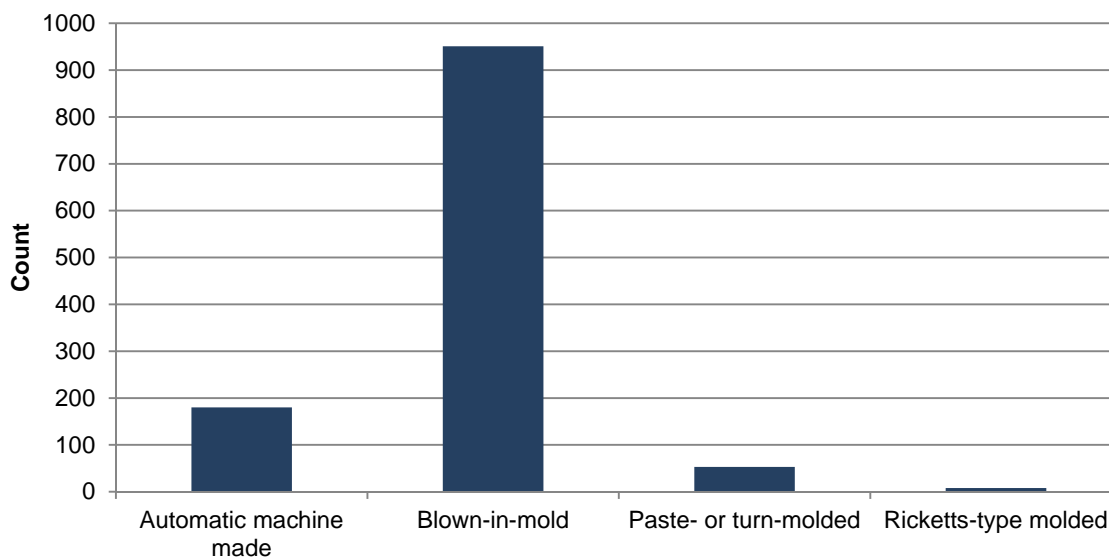
Table 117. Bottles and Jars

Form	Material	Count
Baking powder bottle	Glass	94
Beer bottle	Glass	1
Bottle	Glass	932
Cap liner	Cork	1
Jar	Glass	124
Jar with lid and lid liner	Glass and white metal	3
Jar lid	Aluminum	7
	Glass	3
	Iron	1
	White metal	22
Jug	Glass	1
Lid and lid liner	White metal and glass	4
Lid liner	Glass	127
Liquor bottle	Glass	28
Mineral water bottle	Glass	5
Soda bottle	Glass	6
Stopper	Cork	12
	Iron and rubber	1
Wine bottle	Glass	2
Total		1,374

Table 118. Glass Container Manufacturing Techniques

Manufacturing Technique	Form	Count
Automatic machine made	Baking powder bottle	9
	Bottle	62
	Jar	87
	Liquor bottle	21
	Wine bottle	1
Blown-in-mold	Baking powder bottle	85
	Beer bottle	1
	Bottle	805
	Jar	37
	Jar with lid and lid liner	3
	Jug	1
	Liquor bottle	7
Blown-in-mold	Mineral water bottle	5
	Soda bottle	6
	Wine bottle	1
Paste- or turn-molded	Bottle	53
Ricketts-type molded	Bottle	8
Unidentified	Bottle	4
Total		1,196

Chart 17. Bottle Manufacture Techniques



The blown-in-mold bottle fragments likely date to the nineteenth or early twentieth century. The Ricketts-type molded bottles, made with a dip mold for the body and two matching shoulder or neck halves, were manufactured from the 1820s to the 1920s (Jones and Sullivan 1985:30). Paste- or turn-molded bottles, in which the parison is rotated on the blowpipe and rides on a thin cushion of steam within the mold, were manufactured from the 1870s to the 1920s (Jones and Sullivan 1985:31). The automatic machine made fragments were manufactured after 1903 (Miller 2000:8). The glass container sub-assembly is consistent with the nineteenth through early twentieth century occupation of the site.


While most of the glass container vessels were purchased for their contents, some, such as Mason jars, were purchased empty and filled at home with preserved fruits or vegetables. It is likely that most bottles and containers were reused, occasionally for different purposes. The collection includes bottles and jars divided into the following sub-groups: liquor, wine, or beer, soda or mineral water, food containers, household, and unidentified.

8.2.1.6.3.1 *Liquor, Wine, or Beer*

In total, 31 fragments of alcohol bottles were identified, including one beer bottle, two wine bottles, and 28 fragments of liquor bottles. One complete brown blown-in-mold bottle, with a blob finish and gently sloping shoulders, is embossed “DR. B. BATES / PROPERTY” on the side and “GRAVITATING STOPPER / MADE BY / JOHN MATHEWS / NEW YORK / PAT/ OCT 11 / 1864” on the base (Figure 164). This bottle was produced by Dr. Benjamin Bates, a tonic beer brewer of Baltimore from 1867 or 1868 until the 1880s (Bates 1999). The gravitating stopper was patented in 1864 and consisted of an elongated glass plug with a flared knob and rubber gasket. The plug was held in place by the internal pressure of the carbonated beverage. This type of stopper was used between the late 1860s through the 1880s, although they were offered as late as 1908 (Lindsey 2010). This bottle is from the cellar deposits and further suggests repeated reuse.



Figure 163. Examples of Glass Bottle Manufacturing Techniques. (a = automatic machine molded; b = blown-in-mold; c = paste or turn molded; d = Ricketts-type molded)

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 163

The two wine bottle fragments are both body fragments; one is blown-in-mold and the other is automatic machine made. One fragment is embossed "...Bordeaux Win.../...47-14th St.../...ASHINGTO..." and other is embossed "C.F.../ JOBBE.../ WINES &.../ 1506 7th S.../ WASHINGT..." It is likely that these bottles were purchased at liquor stores in Washington, D.C.

The remaining liquor bottle fragments include nine mendable fragments of an almost complete automatic machine made flask bottle. It is embossed with an Anchor Hocking mark, which was used after 1938 (Toulouse 2001:48). It is also embossed "FEDERAL LAW / FORBIDS SALE OR / REUSE OF THIS BOTTLE." This warning was required on liquor bottles between 1935 and 1964 (Lindsey 2010). Another 12 mendable fragments of a liquor bottle are embossed with the same warning. This bottle was recovered south of the house near the slope and likely reflects casual disposal after the site was abandoned. The assemblage also includes two mendable fragments of a blown-in-mold liquor bottle embossed "...SPECIALTY / ...Oronoco (in script) / RYE / ... J. QUINN."

8.2.1.6.3.2 Soda or Mineral Water

The assemblage includes 11 fragments of four unique soda or mineral water bottles. Five mendable mineral water bottle fragments are embossed "THE SARATOGA / SPOUTING SPRING // SARATOGA SPRINGS / STATE / OF / NEW YORK." Five soda bottle fragments mend into two unique bottles, one aqua and one green. These are blown-in-mold torpedo-shaped bottles embossed "SEE / THAT EACH CORK / IS BRANDED / CANTRELL & COCHRANE" on the heel and "DUBLIN & BELFAST" on the base. The bottles likely contained ginger ale or other soda. Cantrell and Cochrane were in business after 1869 (Beverage Council of Ireland 2006); the torpedo-style bottle was used from the 1870s until the 1910s (Lindsey 2010). The soft drink bottle is a complete blown-in-mold bottle embossed "RETURN TO / McCUEN & YOUNG / ALEXANDRIA / VA" (Figure 165). The bottle retains its Hutchinson stopper, which consists of a rubber gasket held between two metal plates that are attached to a wire spring loop. The internal pressure of the carbonized beverage held the gasket in place. The Hutchinson stopper dates from the mid- to late 1880s to the mid-1910s (Lindsey 2010).

8.2.1.6.3.3 Food Container

This sub-group includes baking powder bottles, a cooking oil bottle, and canning or fruit jars. In total, 94 artifacts were identified as baking powder bottles or bottle fragments (Figure 166). The assemblage includes 40 complete or near complete blown-in-mold baking powder bottles, 10 mendable finish-to-base fragments of a blown-in-mold bottle, and nine mendable finish-to-base fragments of an automatic machine made bottle. The remaining 35 baking powder bottle fragments are from blown-in-mold bottles. Seventy-nine of the fragments exhibit some portion of the name "RUMFORD" embossed on the shoulder. Rumford baking powder, a leavening agent for making bread without yeast, was patented in 1865 and is still produced today (Stradley 2004). One baking powder bottle fragment is embossed "THE POTTER / PARLIN CO" and was manufactured after 1885 (Zumwalt 1980:340). The automatic machine made bottle is marked "DAVIS / ...NG POWDER." The baking powder bottles, a minimum of 42 vessels, represent several years' worth of daily baking. It is also likely that bottles were saved and reused for other purposes.



Figure 164. Dr. B. Bates Tonic Beer Bottle


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 164



Figure 165. McCuen and Young Soda Bottle



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 165



Figure 166. Rumford Baking Powder Bottles

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 166

One fragment of a cooking oil bottle was recovered. The automatic machine made finish fragment still retains its white metal screw-on cap with plastic liner. The cap is printed “WESSON” in green. The first all-vegetable shortenings were developed from cottonseed oil in 1899, and sold by the Wesson Oil and Snowdrift Company in the 1920s (ConAgra Foods, Inc. 2010). Wesson products are still manufactured today. This artifact likely dates to the second half of the twentieth century and is not associated with the domestic occupation of the site, as it was recovered from the modern dumping matrix in Feature 1. Dozens of Wesson bottles, bleach bottles, and orange juice cans were noted in the Feature 1 dump matrix but were not collected.

In total, 127 glass canning or fruit jar fragments were recovered. The jars are likely underrepresented because they were identified primarily by their finishes. The assemblage includes 87 fragments of automatic machine made jars, 37 fragments of blown-in-mold jars, and three mendable fragments of a blown-in-mold jar with a white metal lid and glass lid liner still attached. Also included are four fragments embossed “MASON,” nine mendable fragments embossed “ATLAS / E-Z / SEAL,” dated after 1896 (Toulouse 2005:22), and 12 mendable fragments embossed “ATLAS- / MASON’S / PATENT,” dated ca. 1900 to 1910 (Toulouse 2005:24). Also recovered were three fragments of blown-in-mold jars made in a blow-over container mold; these date to the 1850s to ca. 1920 (Jones and Sullivan 1985:42). Mason jars were sold by the case in both the 1895 Montgomery Ward and 1897 Sears catalogs. In the Sears catalog, the prices ranged from \$3.75 to \$5.50 per case, depending on jar size (resulting in an individual jar price of \$0.05 for a pint jar). Interestingly, the Montgomery Ward catalog did not offer prices and the Sears catalog noted that the prices were subject to change (which was not noted on other goods).

8.2.1.6.3.4 Household

One blown-in-mold glass bottle base is embossed “Platt’s / Chlorides / THE HOUSEHOLD / DISENFECTANT.” No details about the company and product are available, but this bottle, and likely others in the collection, contain a household cleaning product.


8.2.1.6.3.5 Unidentified

Many of the glass containers could not be identified because of their fragmentary nature or because, without embossing, it is difficult to know their contents. Some of the embossed but unidentified bottles include:

- One complete and 11 mendable fragments of blown-in-mold bottles embossed “J.H. Schleuter [in script] / NO-1601-FIFTH ST. N.W. / WASHINGTON, D.C. // REGISTERED.” It is not known what liquid was being bottled at this plant (Williams 2001:38).
- One complete blown-in-mold bottle embossed “The Arlington Bottling Co. / Chas. Jacobsen, Prop. / Washington, D.C. / Registered.” This bottle could have contained beer, as Charles Jacobsen’s uncle owned the Christian Heurich Brewery (Northwestern Bottling Works 2009; Figure 167).
- Seven mendable fragments of a blown-in-mold bottle embossed “BREMEN•H. HEYE•.” This bottle dates to ca. 1840s through 1870s and was likely used for wine, liquor, or bitters (Lockhart et al. 2008).



Figure 167. Arlington Bottling Company Bottle

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 167

- Two mendable fragments of a blown-in-mold bottle embossed “CHAS KR...MER / WASHINGTON, D.C.” in a circle, and an entwined “C” and “K” in the center of the circle.
- Two mendable fragments of a blown-in-mold bottle embossed “P. BABB. / BALTO.” (Figure 168).
- Two mendable fragments of a blown-in-mold bottle embossed “SHARP & D... / BALTIMO...” This was likely a Sharp and Dohme bottle, but the contents are unknown.
- Three mendable fragments of a blown-in-mold bottle embossed “ESTABLIS... / THE DARBY... / BALT...”
- Five mendable fragments of a blown-in-mold bottle embossed “SWSmith [in script] / Philadelphia.” This bottle could have contained liquor or a patent medicine.

A variety of container closures were also recovered, including 29 white metal jar lid fragments, five white metal lids with glass lid liners, and 127 glass lid liner fragments. These lids and lid liners were used for canning or fruit jars. The collection also includes one cork cap liner, 12 cork stoppers, and one iron and rubber stopper.

8.2.1.6.4 Glassware

The glassware sub-group includes 558 fragments of a variety of glass serving vessels (Table 119; Chart 18). Vessel forms include bowls, pitchers, stemware, tumblers, and tray fragments (Figure 169). The remaining 248 glass fragments were identified as table glass, a general term used for glassware used on the table and associated with food and drink (Jones and Sullivan 1985:127). These were generally fragments that could not be attributed to a specific vessel form but, because of their decoration or morphology, were likely part of a glassware vessel.

Table 119. Glassware

Form	Count
Bowl	3
Bowl or pitcher	4
Handle	2
Pitcher	22
Stemware	10
Table glass	248
Tray	2
Tumbler	267
Total	558



Figure 168. P. Babb Bottle


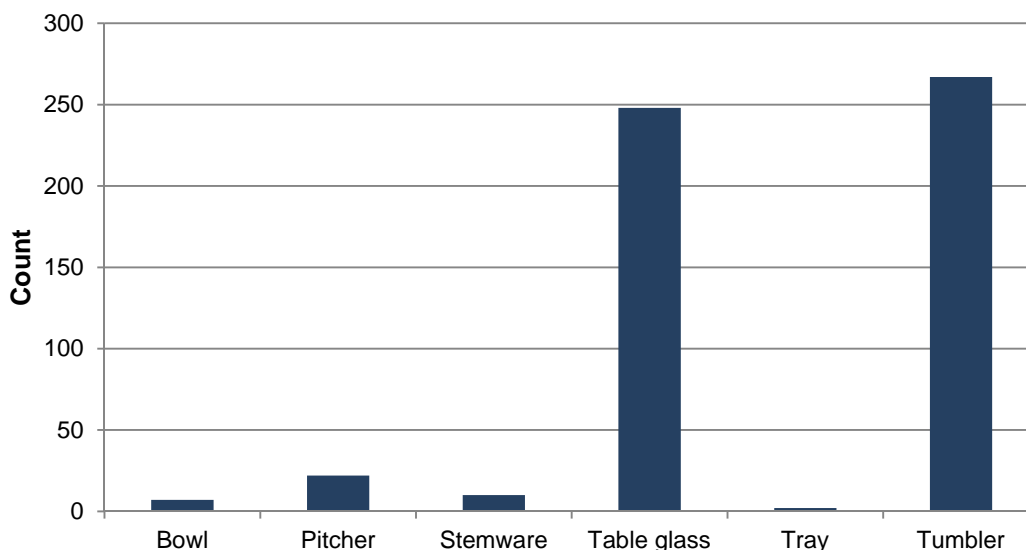
PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 168

Chart 18. Glass Container Forms



In total, 267 fragments of glass tumblers were recovered: 168 rim or near rim fragments, 50 base fragments, 27 body fragments, and 22 rim-to-base fragments. Tumblers are glass containers “sold originally filled with contents such as peanut butter, jelly, mustard, and so on but intended to be re-used as a tumbler” or drinking glass (Jones and Sullivan 1985:143). An anchor closure, identified by a narrow band of shallow, vertical indentations near the rim, is present on 114 of the tumbler fragments. Both the 1895 Montgomery Ward and 1897 Sears catalogs sold plain half-pint tin-top jelly tumblers by the case of six dozen for \$1.95 (resulting in an individual price of \$0.03).

The assemblage includes a small number of decorated glass fragments: one fragment of etched stemware, five table glass fragments with possible decal decoration, and four possible etched tumbler fragments. In total, 180 fragments of press-molded glass were collected, including three bowl fragments with a matching starburst pattern. These artifacts, one 10.16-cm (4-in) diameter fragment and two 20.32-cm (8-in) diameter fragments, are likely part of a set of berry bowls (Figure 170). Two glass tray fragments and one table glass fragment exhibit the same starburst pattern. Berry bowl sets were offered in the 1897 Sears catalog for \$0.30 to \$0.95.

8.2.1.6.5 Glass Fragments

The assemblage includes 12,804 glass fragments that could not be attributed to any specific form or manufacturing technique. Many of these fragments are likely bottles or jars, but they are also possibly tumblers, drinking glasses, or other table glass forms.

The glass fragment assemblage includes a range of colors (Table 120; Chart 19). The color of glass is not a definitive dating indicator because any color could have been made at any time. Glass color can be used as a supporting indicator, however, because certain colors were more commonly manufactured during certain periods (Lindsey 2010). Olive glass generally dates to the eighteenth to mid-nineteenth century, aquamarine glass to the nineteenth to early twentieth century, and brown and green glass to the mid-nineteenth century to the present. Colorless glass was most commonly manufactured during the twentieth century. Solarized glass (glass de-colored with manganese dioxide, and turned amethyst or purple by ultraviolet light) dates from

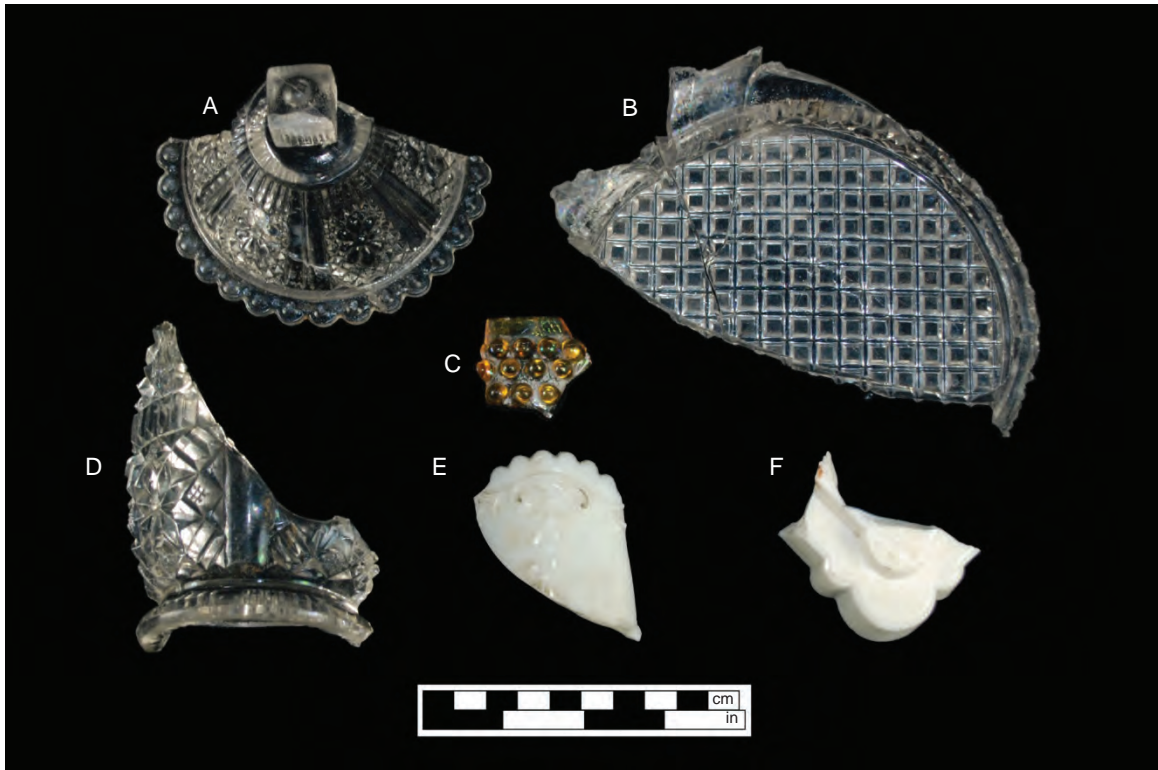


Figure 169. Tableglass

A. possible lid; B. bowl or pitcher base; C. unidentified rim fragment;
 D. pitcher base; E. unidentified rim fragment; F. possible lid or cover



Figure 170. Glass Berry Bowls

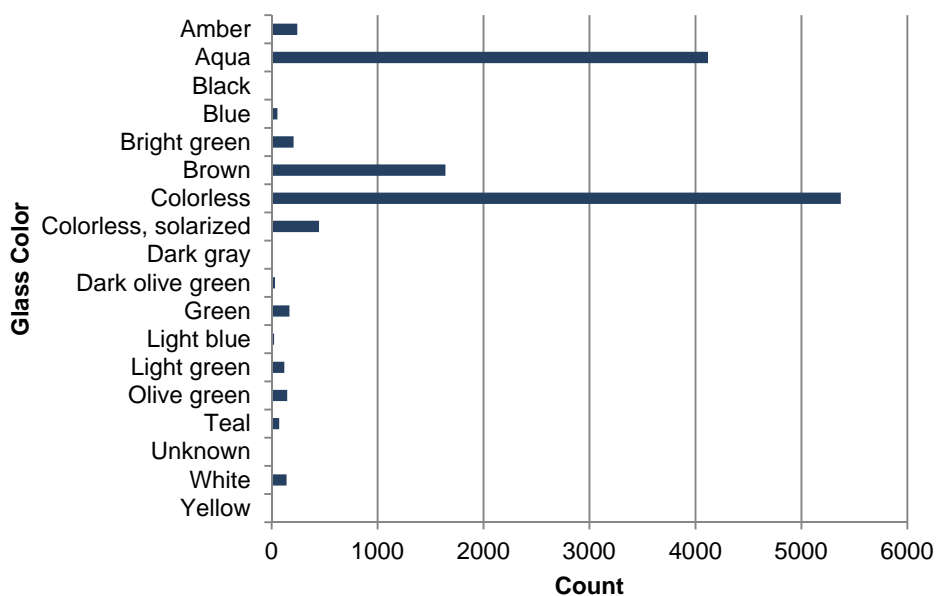
PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A	URS	PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 169 and 170

the 1880s until the end of World War I. According to Lindsey (2010), bright green glass is generally exclusive to the twentieth century. The predominance of colorless (n=5,372), aquamarine (n=4,118), and bright green glass (n=208) is indicative of the late nineteenth to twentieth century occupation of the Jackson homestead. One glass fragment from the Feature 4a cache also is discussed in the religious group.

Table 120. Glass Fragment Colors

Color	Count
Amber	242
Aquamarine	4,118
Black	6
Blue	55
Bright green	208
Brown	1,641
Colorless	5,372
Colorless, solarized	447
Dark gray	2
Dark olive green	33
Green	169
Light blue	23
Light green	120
Olive green	147
Teal	72
Unknown	4
White	141
Yellow	4
Total	12,804

Chart 19. Glass Fragment Colors



8.2.1.6.6 Food Containers

The food containers sub-group includes 48 metal artifacts associated with food storage. The assemblage includes one copper alloy food can key, 14 iron food can keys, and 33 iron food can fragments. These containers could have held preserved meat, fish, fruits, or vegetables.

8.2.1.6.7 Kitchenware

The kitchenware sub-group includes 52 fragments of a variety of metal objects associated with food preparation or general household chores (Table 121). All the artifacts from this sub-assemblage are iron, except for one copper alloy possible shaker lid. While none of the artifacts are temporally diagnostic, all are consistent with the nineteenth through early twentieth century occupation of the site.

Table 121. Kitchenware

Material	Form	Count
Copper alloy	Possible shaker lid	1
Iron	Basin	1
	Corkscrew	2
	Grater fragment	8
	Handle	3
	Knife	4
	Pan	4
	Possible fire iron	2
	Possible pot lid	1
	Possible strainer	1
	Possible tea kettle spout	1
	Pot	1
	Pot fragment	12
	Pot or crucible	7
	Shaker lid	2
Tea kettle	1	
Tongs	1	
Total		52

8.2.1.6.8 Tableware

The tableware sub-group includes 130 fragments of dining utensils, such as forks, spoons, and knives (Table 122; Figures 171, 172, and 173). One of the artifacts is a white metal utensil handle fragment engraved with the initials “JIF” or possibly “JTF,” in script. The name of the person referenced is not known, and it is possible that the family purchased this utensil second-hand. It is also possible that this was purchased because it resembled the initials of John T. Adams (i.e., JTA), who was Malinda Adams Jackson’s son. The collection also contains two matching teaspoons marked “ROYAL.” Four of the iron and bone knives may have been purchased as a set, and the remainder may have been purchased individually to complete the set. Similar to the ceramic dinnerware, some utensils may have been purchased separately, but still used as a set. The 1897 Sears catalog offered a set of six knives and forks in a cross pattern

similar to those in the assemblage for \$1.50. The 1895 Montgomery Ward catalog offered tin teaspoons for \$0.08 to \$0.25 per dozen; tablespoons were sold for \$0.50 to \$0.60 per dozen.

Table 122. Tableware

Material	Form	Count
Fork	Copper alloy	2
	Iron	11
	Iron and bone	1
	Iron and antler	1
	Possible silver plate	1
	Silver alloy	1
Knife	Copper alloy and bone	1
	Iron	3
	Iron and bone	7
Possible utensil	Copper alloy	1
	Iron	2
Spoon	Copper alloy	11
	Copper alloy and plating	2
	Iron	14
	Possible silver plate	1
	Silver alloy	2
	Unidentified metal	4
	White metal	3
Utensil handle	Bone	34
	Copper alloy	2
	Iron	19
	Iron and bone	2
	Unidentified metal	4
	White metal	1
Total		130

8.2.1.7 Miscellaneous

The miscellaneous group includes artifacts that, due to their fragmentary or burned condition, were unidentifiable in terms of original use or function (Table 123). These items represent 19.60 percent of the historic artifacts. The materials include metals (such as aluminum, copper alloy, iron, lead, and white metal), glass, plastic, leather, stone, and wood. The majority are unidentified iron (n=8,172) and glass fragments (n=5,519). Conglomerates of multiple materials were also noted in the assemblage, including 87 fragments of melted glass fused with other materials, such as mortar, ceramics, or iron nails. The largest of these conglomerates weighs 4.08 kg (9 lbs). Thirty-nine miscellaneous artifacts from the Feature 4a cache also are discussed in the religious group.



Figure 171. Forks



Figure 172. Spoons


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 171 and 172



Figure 173. Knives


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 173

Table 123. Miscellaneous Group Summary

Material	Form	Count
Aluminum	Fragment	1
Ceramic	Fragment	3
Clinker	Fragment	6
Copper alloy	Fragment	145
Copper alloy and wood	Fragment	1
Glass	Fragment	5,519
	Conglomerate	87
Graphite	Fragment	2
Hard rubber	Fragment	15
Iron	Fragment	8,172
	Strap	35
	Conglomerate	2
Iron and copper alloy	Fragment	4
Iron and lead alloy	Fragment	1
Iron and unidentified metal	Fragment	62
Iron and white metal	Fragment	31
Lead alloy	Fragment	61
	Tile	1
Lead and plaster	Unidentified	2
Leather	Fragment	60
Marble	Fragment	1
Mica	Fragment	100
Petrified wood	Fragment	1
Plastic	Fragment	54
Porcelain	Tube	2
Possible Bakelite	Fragment	6
Possible caulking	Fragment	1
Possible concrete	Fragment	2
Possible leather	Fragment	5
Possible paper	Fragment	2
Possible plaster	Fragment	3
Possible rubber	Fragment	3
Possible slate	Fragment	8
Quartz	Fragment	3
Quartzite	Fragment	1
Sandstone	Fragment	4
Slag	Fragment	6
Slate	Fragment	153
Unidentified material	Fragment	22
Unidentified metal	Fragment	127
White metal	Foil	5
	Fragment	94
Wood	Fragment	7
	Peg	2
Total		14,822

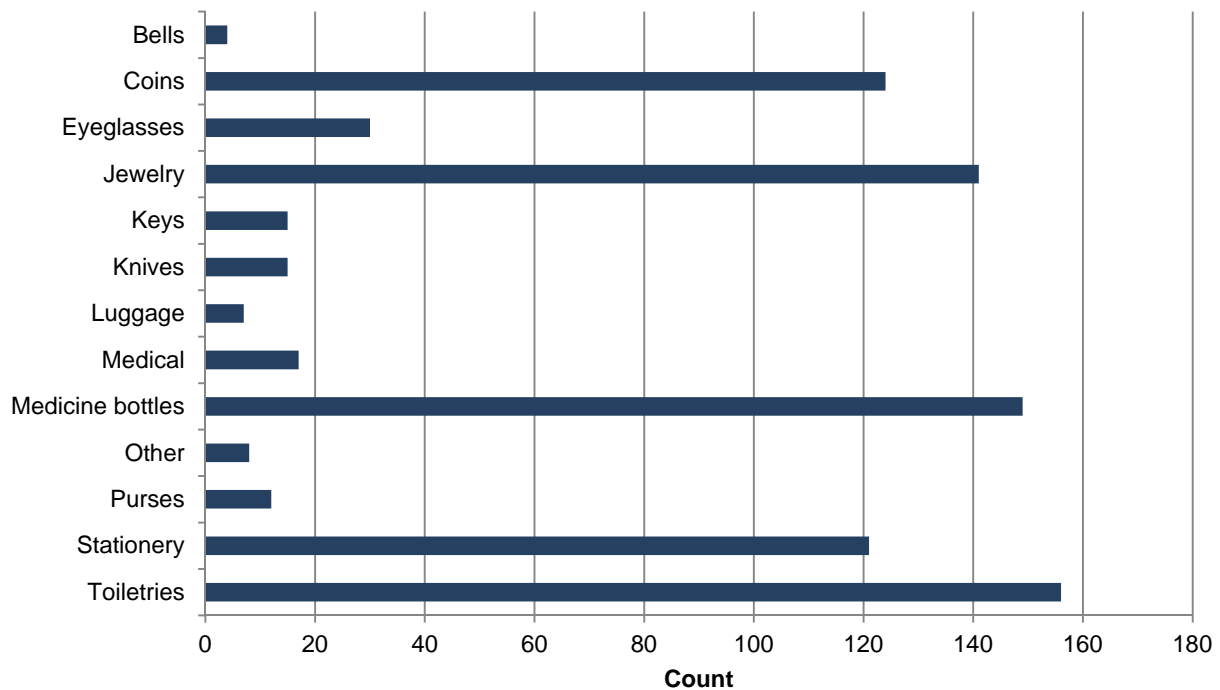
8.2.1.8 Personal

The personal group includes 799 artifacts typically used or carried by one person, or associated with individual care and hygiene. The group represents 1.06 percent of the historic artifacts and was divided into the following sub-groups: bells, coins, eyeglasses, jewelry, keys, knives, luggage, medical, medicine bottles, purses, stationery, toiletries, and other (Table 124; Chart 20).

Table 124. Personal Group Summary

Sub-group	Count
Bells	4
Coins	124
Eyeglasses	30
Jewelry	141
Keys	15
Knives	15
Luggage	7
Medical	17
Medicine bottles	149
Other	8
Purses	12
Stationery	121
Toiletries	156
Total	799

Chart 20. Personal Assemblage



8.2.1.8.1 Bells

One complete copper alloy bell and three copper alloy bell fragments were recovered (Figure 174). Each measures approximately 1.27 cm (0.5 in) in height. They may have served a practical, decorative, or religious function.

8.2.1.8.2 Coins

The coins include a variety of U.S. currency minted from silver alloy, nickel alloy, and copper alloy (Figure 175). The 124 coins include 103 pennies (date range 1816–1909, one 1983), 10 nickels (date range 1884–1913), nine dimes (date range 1876–1905), one quarter (1903), and one unidentified possible coin. The bulk of the coins were minted before 1911, which is consistent with deposition prior to the ca. 1915 fire.

8.2.1.8.3 Eyeglasses

The eyeglasses sub-group includes three frames (one copper alloy, two unidentified metal), eight complete lenses, and 19 lens fragments (Figure 176). All of the lenses are colorless except for one complete green glass lens. The green lens was likely used to reduce glare and eye strain from sunlight or lamplight. Eyeglasses were readily available by catalog. The 1895 Montgomery Ward and the 1897 Sears catalogs had a variety of glasses ranging in price from \$0.10 to \$8.50. While neither catalog contained green lens glasses, colored lens spectacles (smoke or blue) were offered for sale.

8.2.1.8.4 Jewelry

The jewelry sub-group consists of 141 artifacts, including: beads, bracelet fragments, earrings, medallions, rings, pins, and watches (Table 125). The bracelet from the Jackson homestead is a hinged cuff style. Bracelets were sold in a variety of styles, from simple bands with flowers to linked bands with heart locks to more expensive diamond bracelets. Prices in the 1895 Montgomery Ward catalog ranged from \$0.50 to \$15.00, though some more elaborate examples were sold at higher prices. One of the Jackson homestead earrings is a French hook style; similar examples from the 1897 Sears catalog ranged in price from \$0.45 to \$1.95.

The four medallions include one white metal and three copper alloy medallions (two additional medallions are discussed in the religious group.) One copper alloy medallion still retains remnants of a paper insert, possibly a photo. The white metal medallion and one copper alloy medallion may have originally held some kind of insert as well. The remaining medallion is a token from the 1860 presidential campaign. The obverse of the medallion reads “ABRAHAM LINCOLN / FREE SOIL & FREE MEN”; the reverse reads “HANNIBAL HAMLIN / FREE SPEECH” (Figures 177 and 178). It originally featured back-to-back ferrotypes of Abraham Lincoln and his running mate, but iron corrosion has destroyed the images. The presence of this medallion suggests it may have held special significance to the Jackson family either during or after the Civil War. The medallion was recovered from a parlor context, further suggesting that it became an important family heirloom. Another object with a political connection, a Grover Cleveland bust, is discussed in the activities group.

Seven rings were recovered that vary in material from plain metal or Bakelite to one with a glass jewel solitaire. Ring quality and price varied depending on the material and decoration. In the 1895 Montgomery Ward catalog, basic rings varied in price from \$0.25 for a baby ring to \$14.00 for a men’s Masonic ring; diamond rings ranged in price up to \$675.00.



Figure 174. Bells


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 174



Figure 175. Coins

- A. 1875 penny; B. 1888 penny; C. 1890 penny
 D. 1898 penny; E. 1890 penny; F. 1903 penny; G. 1909 penny
 H. 1898 nickel
 I. 1876 dime; J. 1885 dime; K. 1892 dime; L. 1900 dime
 M. 1904 dime; N. 1905 dime; O. 1910 dime; P. 1918 dime

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 175



Figure 176. Eyeglasses

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

Artifact Photographs

SCALE N/A

URS

PROJECT NO. 20831016

SOURCE URS

FIGURE NO. 176

Table 125. Jewelry


Material	Form	Count
Bead	Ceramic	13
	Early plastic	1
	Glass	32
Bracelet	Copper alloy	8
Cabochon	Glass	3
Chain	Copper alloy	11
Charm	Copper alloy	1
Earring	Iron	1
	White metal	1
Jewelry finding	Copper alloy	5
	Possible Bakelite	1
	Possible iron	1
	Possible silver	4
	White metal	1
Jewelry fragment	Copper alloy	10
	Glass	1
	Iron	1
	Porcelain	1
Lens	Glass	1
Medallion	Copper alloy	2
	Copper alloy and paper	1
	White metal	1
Pin (jewelry)	Copper alloy	9
	Copper alloy and glass	5
	Silver and glass or crystal	1
	Iron	1
Pin or earring	Copper alloy and iron	1
Pocket watch casing	Copper alloy	1
Pocket watch cover	Copper alloy	3
	White metal	2
Possible pin cap	Copper alloy	1
Ring (jewelry)	Bakelite	1
	Copper alloy	2
	Copper alloy and glass	1
	Possible silver	1
	Silver	2
Ring or jewelry finding	Copper alloy	2
	Possibly silver	1
Stick pin	Copper alloy and shell	1
Tile, possible inlay	Glass	2
Vest chain	Copper alloy	2
Watch fob	Copper alloy	1
Total		141



Figure 177. 1860 Lincoln-Hamlin Campaign Medallion



Figure 178. Museum Example of 1860 Lincoln-Hamlin Medallion
(Courtesy of the Lincoln Home National Historic Site)

PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs		
SCALE	N/A			
SOURCE	URS		PROJECT NO.	20831016
			FIGURE NO.	177 and 178

A heart-shaped charm (engraved with the initial 'C'; Figure 179), bib or lace pins, and a stick pin (with shell inlay and the initial 'A') were also recovered (Figure 180). Heart-shaped charms were available in catalogs and ranged in price from \$0.39 to \$0.63 each in the 1895 Montgomery Ward catalog. The 'A' pin could have belonged to Mary Jane or Mary Ida Adams, John T. Adams' wife and daughter, respectively (Malinda Adams Jackson's daughter-in-law and granddaughter, respectively). Stick pins were also readily available through catalogs, and ranged in price from \$0.14 to \$11.40. The 1895 Montgomery Ward catalog had a letter stick pin for \$0.15. Bib or lace pins were also common, and ranged in price from \$0.20 to \$12.25 in the 1897 Sears catalog. The bib pins from the Jackson homestead were decorated varieties with glass beads or embossed decorations, and were likely of the less expensive variety.

The pocket watch artifacts include a casing, vest chain segments (one with attached charm), watch fob, and a number of cover fragments (Figure 181). Watches were widely available and varied greatly in price. The 1897 Sears catalog had watches ranging in price from \$0.98 to \$72.85. The assemblage also includes fragments of jewelry, such as a glass lens fragment (possibly part of a locket or watch face), possible pin cap, glass tiles, glass cabochons (convex-shaped inserts), chain segments, and jewelry findings (component parts used for joining or linking, such as catches, posts, or clasps). Personal items were commonly used in folk ritual practices, as they served to represent their owner in a charm or spell. Whether any of these jewelry artifacts served in this manner is unknown.

8.2.1.8.5 Keys

Four copper alloy and 11 iron keys were recovered from the Jackson homestead (Figure 182). Some of these are likely door lock keys, but others could have been used for chest locks or other pieces of furniture.

8.2.1.8.6 Knives

One handle and 14 fragments of pocket knives (one fragment with bone inlay and two fragments with shell inlay) were recovered (Figure 183). One antler handle fragment, possibly belonging to a field knife, was also recovered. Knives were widely available; the 1895 Montgomery Ward catalog contained more than 120 options, including pocket knives for women, boys, and men. The women's pocket knives ranged in price from \$0.75 to \$1.00; boys' knives ranged in price from \$0.07 to \$0.39; and men's knives ranged from \$0.27 to \$1.65. All varieties were also sold at discount by the dozen.

8.2.1.8.7 Luggage

The luggage sub-group includes seven fragments of copper alloy hardware, including latches and oval grommet-style escutcheons. Small pieces of fabric are still remnant in the escutcheons' crimped backs. The letter 'M' is embossed on one of the latches and may be associated with Malinda Adams Jackson, Mary Jane Walker Adams (the wife of John T. Adams), or Mary Jane or Mary Ida Jackson (his daughters).

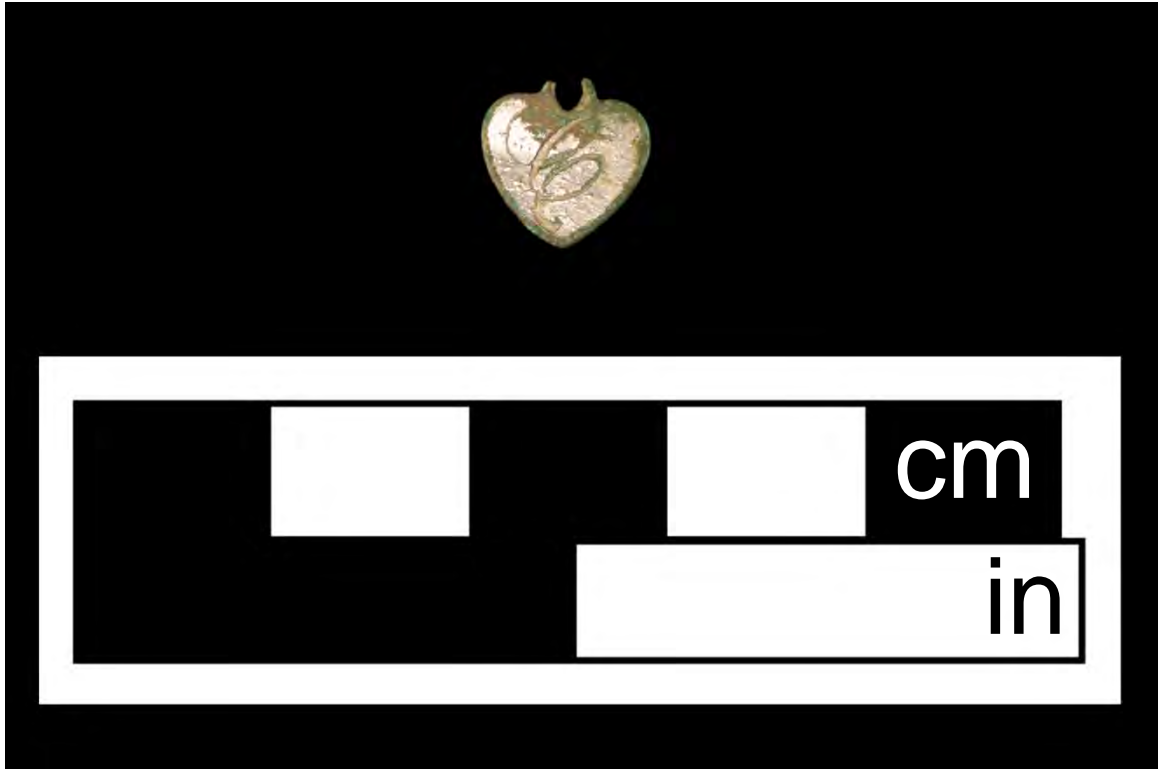



Figure 179. Heart-shaped Charm with Initial “C”

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 179

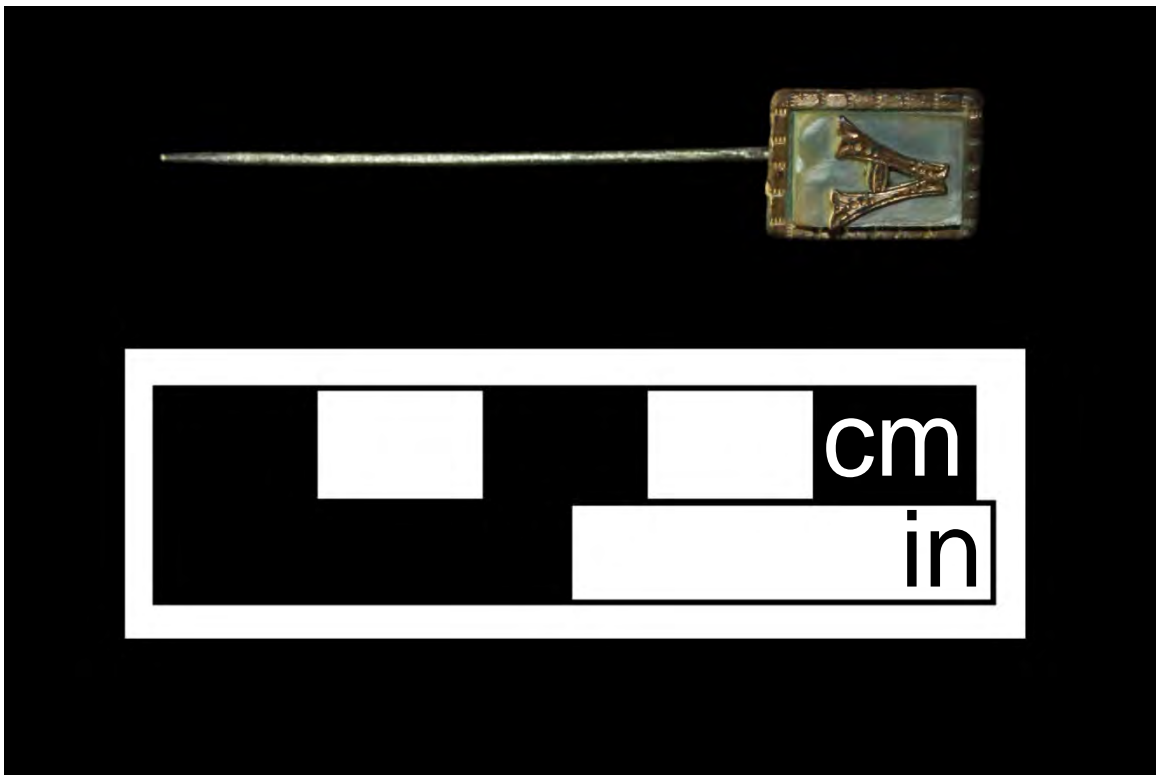


Figure 180. Stick Pin with Initial "A"



Figure 181. Pocket Watch Covers



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 180 and 181



Figure 182. Keys



Figure 183. Pocket knives

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 182 and 183

8.2.1.8.8 Medical

This sub-group includes tubes, vials, and bottles that were used for medicinal purposes. The assemblage includes one glass tube (possibly part of a pipette), two complete glass vials (one with screw-on cap), and 13 glass vial fragments (Figure 184). The assemblage also includes one glass rod fragment, triangular in cross-section, with a white stripe that may be a thermometer. The first medical thermometer was invented in 1867 (Bellis 2010a).

The medicine bottles include 25 complete glass bottles and 124 glass fragments (Figure 185). There is one finish fragment that is possible automatic machine made; the remaining fragments and complete bottles are of blown-in-mold manufacture. The blown-in-mold bottle fragments likely date to the late nineteenth or early twentieth century. The automatic machine made fragment was manufactured after 1903 (Miller 2000:8). The glass medicine bottle assemblage is consistent with the nineteenth through early twentieth century occupation of the site.

Seventy-seven medicine bottle fragments provide clues as to their contents. Many of the proprietary, or patent, medicines of the later nineteenth century consisted of alcohol, sugar, and water; some included narcotics, such as opium. They were marketed as treatments or cures for a variety of symptoms and diseases. The Pure Food and Drug(s) Act of 1906 sought to prevent deceptive and dangerous practices in the manufacture and sale of foods and medicines; as a result, many patent medicines were re-named or re-labeled in the early twentieth century (Fike 1987).

The medicine bottles represent a wide-ranging pattern of consumption, as the assemblage includes proprietary medicines transported from Ohio, Pennsylvania, New York, and as far away as England. Medicines purchased at local druggists in Baltimore, Maryland, dispensed in plain, multi-purpose bottles bearing only the druggists' names, were also recovered. One complete bottle is embossed "THE HERB MEDICINE CO. // LIGHTNING HOT DROPS / NO RELIEF NO PAY! // SPRINGFIELD, O" (Figure 186). This patent medicine was marketed as a cure for aches and pains, or as a general analgesic (Fike 1987:148; Figure 187).

Two cough syrup bottles were identified. One is a single fragment of a bottle embossed "PISO'S CURE // FOR / CONSUMPTION // HAZELTINE & Co," which was likely manufactured sometime after the company's founding in 1869 and before 1906. The key ingredient in this patent medicine was cannabis extract (The Antique Cannabis Book 2010). The other bottle consists of 11 mendable fragments embossed "DR WIST.../ BALSAM.../ WILD CHERR.../ PHILADA /.../ IB." This patent medicine was a cough syrup marketed under the name, Dr. Wistar's.

The assemblage includes three fragments of a bottle embossed "...YRUP OF FIGS // CALIFORNIA FIG SYRUP CO / SAN FRANCISCO, CAL." This product, syrup of figs, was used as a laxative, and was manufactured from 1878 until the 1970s (Fike 1987:225). One complete bottle is embossed "PAINE'S // CELERY COMPOUND" (Figure 188). This product, introduced in 1882 as a nerve tonic, laxative, and diuretic, was made until the 1920s (Fike 1987:85). It was marketed as a "blood purifier" for adolescent girls (*Good Housekeeping* 1894).

Two complete bottles are each embossed "DALBYS // CARMINATIV" (Figure 189). This product was a patent medicine containing opium that was given to children for a wide variety of symptoms. Dalby's Carminative was sold in the United States from 1804 until the 1930s (Fike 1987:160).



Figure 184. Medical Sub-group
 A.-D. vials; E. possible thermometer

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Artifact Photographs	
SCALE	N/A	URS	PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE	URS		FIGURE NO. 184



Figure 185. Medicine Bottles


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 185



Figure 186. Lightning Hot Drops Bottle



A Wild Ride
in the dead of night for
LIGHTNING HOT DROPS.
A sudden attack of
Cholera Morbus.

ALWAYS KEEP
Lightning
Hot Drops
in the house, and save time
and suffering.
Cures all Stomach and Bow-
el Troubles, and Pains of all
kinds.

NEVER FAILS.
50c bottle holds 2 3/4 times as
much as 25c bottle.

To the Trade:

A glance at the prices below will convince you that the

LIGHTNING REMEDIES

pay the dealer as large a per cent of profit as any proprietary article on the market.

THEY GIVE UNIVERSAL SATISFACTION.

Then, why not include some of them in your next order to your jobber?

	PER DOZ.		PER DOZ.
Lightning Blood Elixer (75c.)	\$4.00	Lightning Cough Drops (50c.)	\$4.00
“ K. & L. Remedy (\$1.00)	6.00	“ Hot Drops (25c.)	2.00
“ Sarsaparilla (75c.)	4.00	“ Hot Drops (50c.)	4.00
“ Worm Killer (25c.)	2.00	“ Vegetable Liver Pills (25c.)	1.50
“ Cough Drops (25c.)	2.00	“ H. C. & Poultry Powders (1 c.)80
		(3 dozen in case.)	

HERB MEDICINE CO., - Springfield, Ohio.

Advertising matter is furnished on request through your jobber.

Figure 187. Advertisement for Lightning Hot Drops (Midland Druggist 1903)

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A	URS	PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 186 and 187



Figure 188. Paine's Celery Compound Bottle



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 188



Figure 189. Dalby's Carminative Bottle

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 189

One complete bottle is embossed “FREYS // VERMIFUGE // BALTIMORE” (Figures 190 and 191). E. and S. Frey were wholesale druggists in Baltimore from the 1840s to the 1920s (Rowell 2010). A vermifuge is a medicine that expels intestinal worms.

One complete bottle is embossed “BOYER’S HOOF // LINIMENT” (Figure 192). No other information was available about this veterinary medicine. Twenty-nine mendable fragments of a bottle embossed “Dr TOWNSEND’S // SARSAPARILLA // ALBANY / N.Y.” (Figure 193) were recovered. In 1839, Samuel P. Townsend introduced this patent medicine that contained a compound extract of sarsaparilla. The embossed bottles were discontinued in the 1870s (Fike 1987:220).


Several other medicine bottles in the collection have embossed names of druggists or manufacturers, but the products were not identified. These include:

- One bottle embossed “LEEF BROS / DRUGGISTS / BALTIMORE” and marked “WT & CO”
- One complete bottle embossed “THE STONEBRAKER / CHEMICAL CO. / BALTIMORE.MD.” (Figure 194)
- One complete bottle embossed “PERKINS / APOTHECARY / BALTIMORE” (Figure 195)
- One complete bottle embossed “HOVER / PHIL.A”
- One bottle embossed “...E FOUTZ.../ ...ROPRIETOR.../ BALTIMORE, MD.” The company was founded in 1858 and manufactured and sold preparations for horses, cattle, and poultry (*The Pharmaceutical Era* 1908). They also made proprietary medicines, such as cough syrup, vermifuge, London blood panacea, and liniment (Knapp 2010).
- Two bottles embossed “CHARLES ELLIS / & SON CO / PHILIDA.”
- One complete bottle embossed “GILBERT BROS / & / CO / BALTIMORE” that could be a ‘cream chloroform liniment for man or beast,’ ‘Gilbert’s Laxatol,’ or some other patent medicine. The bottle was likely manufactured between 1896 and 1930 (Fike 1987:60–61).
- Four mendable fragments of a bottle embossed “DR. RO... // PHILAD...”
- Six mendable fragments of a bottle embossed “Wm FOORD / WILMINGTON / DEL”

The precise needs that patent medicines served allowed the Jacksons to develop a sense of agency over their household and their health. For example, the relatively large assemblage of medicinal products represents a wide range of curative tonics and uses. These demonstrate how the Jackson homestead residents cared for themselves and administered health care to their family. Patent medicines were advertised to heal a single ailment (e.g., vermifuge for worms) or a wide range of ailments (e.g., celery root for nerves, as a laxative, diuretic, or for blood ailments). The medicine bottles found at the Jackson homestead represent a wide ranging pattern of consumption, with proprietary medicines imported from Ohio, Pennsylvania, New York, and as far away as England, and medicines purchased at local druggists in Baltimore, Maryland that were dispensed in plain, multi-purpose bottles bearing only the druggists’ names.



Figure 190. Frey's Vermifuge Bottle

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 190

C. W. LOGAN. ESTABLISHED 1833.

E. & S. FREY,
Wholesale Druggists.
 342 W. BALTIMORE STREET,
 BALTIMORE.

—o—

PROPRIETORS OF

FREY'S VERMIFUGE FOR WORMS, the Mother's and Children's Friend.

LOGAN'S BLOOD PURIFIER AND TONIC, for Dyspepsia, Sick Headache and Blood Diseases.

LOGAN'S LIVER STIMULANT, for Torpid Liver, &c.

LOGAN'S COUGH MIXTURE, Excellent—try it.

LOGAN'S RHEUMATIC LINIMENT, One of the best.

LOGAN'S GREAT AMERICAN REMEDY, For Cholera, Diarrhœea. Dysentery and Cramps.

—o—

CHOICE FLAVORING EXTRACTS
 VANILLA AND LEMON.
 UNSURPASSED FOR PURITY AND STRENGTH.

Figure 191. Advertisement for Frey's Vermifuge
 (Source: Charity Organization Society of Baltimore City 1885)


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016	
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 191	



Figure 192. Boyer's Hoof Liniment Bottle



Figure 193. Dr. Townsend's Sarsaparilla Bottle


PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE	N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE	URS		FIGURE NO. 192 and 193



Figure 194. Stonebraker Chemical Company Bottle



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 194



Figure 195. Perkin's Apothecary Bottle

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 195

The dichotomy between national patent brands and locally available pharmacy brands highlights a number of issues. First, it may signify a level of dynamic consumerism in which the Jackson's valued the more economical pharmacy brands while choosing patent brands to accommodate the needs of specific ailments. Second, the dichotomy may signify a choice by the Jacksons to procure the same quality of medication available to white people by purchasing patent medicines. As noted by Mullins (1999) and Wilkie (2003), African Americans could not be certain they were receiving the same quality of product from local pharmacies as white people, and therefore showed a preference for national brands where quality was guaranteed. Third, it is possible the medicine bottle assemblage reflects changes through time at the Jackson household, where more economical, locally available pharmacy cures may have been sought after rather than more expensive patent brands during times of economic hardship.

8.2.1.8.9 Purses

This sub-group includes 12 copper alloy fragments of coin purses or handbags, including: one hinge fragment, one handle fragment, four clasp fragments (one with leather remnants), and six frame fragments (Figure 196). Size was the major indicator by which a clasp was attributed to a purse or a coin purse. Historically, women's purses were small clutch types, with clasps measuring approximately 5.08 to 6.35 cm (2–2.5 in) in length. Only one fragment was attributed to a coin purse, with the frame and clasp measuring only 3.81 cm (1.5 in) in length. In the 1895 Montgomery Ward catalog, ladies handbags were priced from \$0.43 to \$1.25; change purses ranged in price from \$0.04 to \$0.40 each, but were also sold at discount by the dozen.

8.2.1.8.10 Stationery

The stationery assemblage includes: pencil fragments, an inkwell, paperclip, paper fastener, thumbtack, ink bottle fragments, and writing slate fragments (Table 126; Chart 21; Figure 197). Paperclips came into use around the turn of the twentieth century (Bellis 2010c). One of the slates has incised parallel lines to provide guides for learning handwriting that may suggest that some of the children were educated at home; however, the use of writing slates was not limited to children (Casepaper 2011; Swords 2008). Swords (2008:42) notes that writing slates were mass produced by the nineteenth century and were used for a variety of purposes, including education, child's activities (toys, writing, games), directories, scorekeeping in games, and messages.

Advances in papermaking production in the nineteenth century, as well as improvements to the fountain pen, made writing cheaper (Casepaper.com 2011). Mass-produced graphite and wood pencils were readily available by the late nineteenth century (Early Office Museum 2011). In the 1897 Sears, Roebuck catalog 'lead' pencils cost from 3 cents to forty cents per dozen; slate pencils are available at one cent per dozen (Sears 2007 [1897]). This assemblage corroborates the historic data that indicates a number of family members could read and write.



Figure 196. Purses Sub-group



Figure 197. Stoneware Ink Bottle


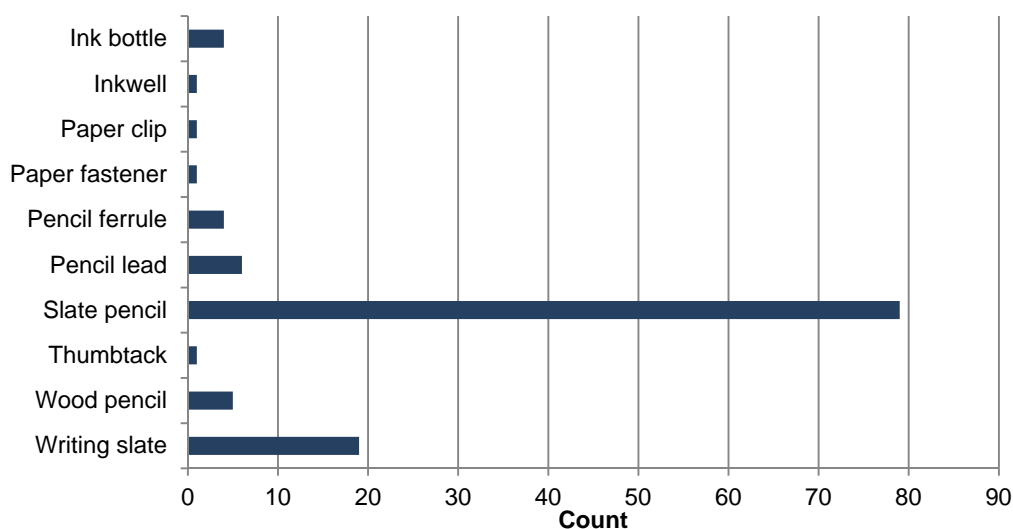
PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 196 and 197

Table 126. Stationery

Form	Material	Count
Ink bottle	Stoneware	4
Inkwell	Glass	1
Paper clip	Aluminum	1
Paper fastener	Copper alloy	1
Pencil	Slate	79
	Wood	2
	Wood, copper alloy, and graphite	3
Pencil ferrule	Copper alloy	3
	White metal	1
Pencil lead	Graphite	6
Thumbtack	Copper alloy	1
Writing slate	Slate	19
Total		121

Chart 21. Stationery Assemblage



8.2.1.8.11 Toiletries

The toiletries sub-group consists of 156 artifacts related to personal hygiene and adornment (Table 127; Chart 22; Figure 198). Ceramic artifacts include bowls or basins, chamber pots, and jars. Two bowl or basin vessels were recovered, one whiteware (V-51) and one white granite (V-50), and both are undecorated. These vessels, each about 33.02 cm (13 in) in diameter, were likely used for washing or shaving. One stoneware chamber pot (90 percent complete, V-9) was identified (Figure 199); it has a gray to buff paste with a Bristol glaze. Two white granite ointment jars were recovered; one is complete and has a matching lid (V-143), the other was intensely burned (V-144). These vessels could have contained lotions or ointments used for cosmetic or medicinal purposes. At least one porcelain pin tray with edge-molding and an overglaze-painted floral design was identified (V-47). Whiteware dates from 1820 to the present, and white granite dates from 1842 to 1930 (Miller 2000). Stoneware and porcelain each have a long period of manufacture that spans the occupation of the site.

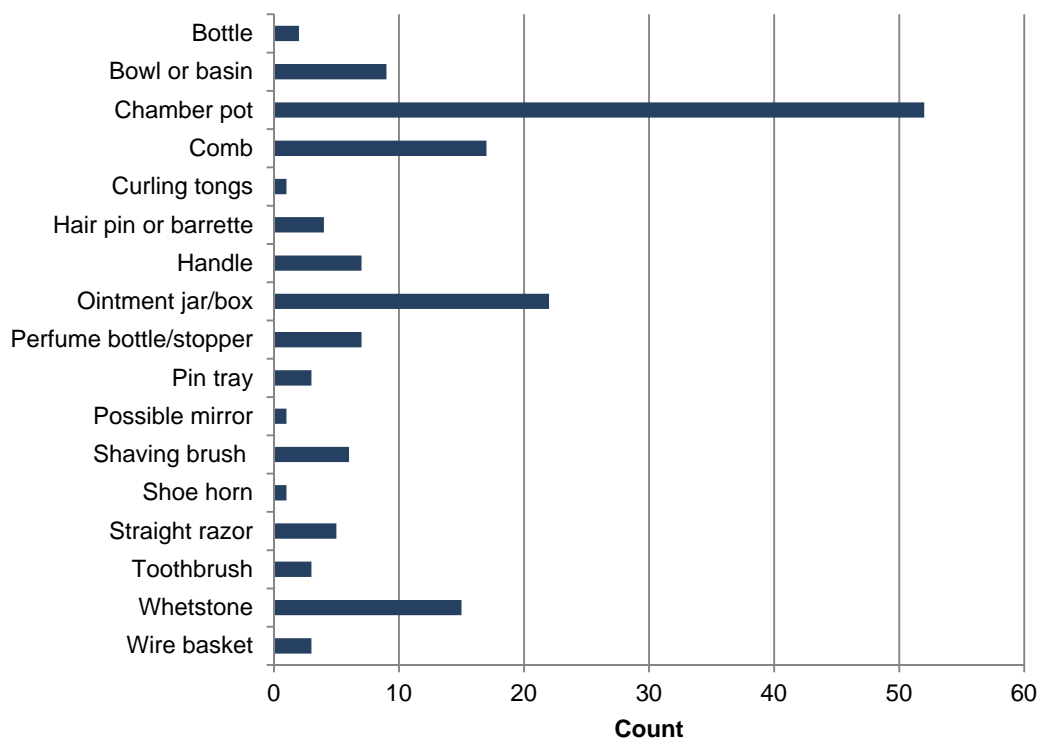
Table 127. Toiletries

Form	Material	Count
Bottle	Glass	2
Bowl or basin	White granite	8
	Whiteware	1
Chamber pot	Stoneware	52
Comb	Bakelite	2
	Celluloid	1
	Early plastic	3
	Hard rubber	3
	Possible Bakelite	4
	Possible celluloid	1
Comb tooth	Bakelite	2
Curling tongs	Iron	1
Hair barrette	Possible celluloid	2
Hair pin	Iron	2
Handle	Bone	7
Jar	Glass	5
Lice comb	Possible Bakelite	1
Ointment box	Copper alloy	1
	Iron	2
Ointment jar	White granite	12
Perfume applicator rod and stopper	Glass and possibly cork	1
Perfume bottle	Glass	4
Perfume bottle stopper	Glass	2
Pin tray	Porcelain	3
Possible mirror	Glass	1
Shaving brush fragment	Bristle and white metal	6
Shoe horn	Iron	1
Straight razor	Iron	5
Toothbrush	Bone	3
Whetstone	Phyllite	1
	Sandstone	6
	Slate	8
Wire basket	Copper alloy	3
Total		156

The glass artifacts in the toiletries sub-group include: one jar, two perfume bottles, and two bottles that may have held perfume, lotion, hair care products, or other toiletries. One perfume bottle base fragment, of blown-in-mold manufacture, is embossed “READS / GRAND / DUCHESS / COLOGNE.” The other perfume bottle is complete, of blown-in-mold manufacture, and has an embossed diamond pattern over the entire vessel (Figure 200). The other bottles include a complete, blown-in-mold bottle with a decorative panel and a bottle finish, in opaque white glass, that may be automatic machine made. Mechanized bottle-making began in the late nineteenth century. The automatic machine made glass jar, also of milk glass, is embossed “VASELINE / CHESEBROUG.../ NEW-YORK,” which likely contained

petroleum jelly. The product was marketed as an ointment for scrapes, burns, and cuts after being patented in 1872 by Robert Chesebrough. It can be used for a variety of additional purposes, such as cosmetics remover, lotion for chapped hands or lips, ointment for diaper rash, hair pomade, or general water repellent. Milk glass was commonly used for cosmetic or toiletry bottles from 1870 to 1920 (Lindsey 2010).

Chart 22. Toiletries Assemblage



Artifacts related to shaving include at least two shaving brushes made with badger hair, straight razors, and whetstones (Figure 201). Badger hair shaving brushes were sold in the 1895 Montgomery Ward catalog for \$0.10 to \$0.50 each. Straight razors were sold in the 1897 Sears catalog for \$0.60 to \$2.00 each. One of the sandstone whetstones was fashioned from a reused prehistoric groundstone celt. It should be noted that the whetstones could have been used to sharpen razors, knives, axes, and any other cutting tool used inside or outside the house.

Additional artifacts in the sub-group include hair care accessories, such as combs and comb fragments, curling tongs or irons, barrettes, pins, and a lice comb. Combs were sold in the 1895 Montgomery Ward catalog for \$0.05 to \$0.35 each; lice combs were sold for \$0.08 to \$0.10 each. Curling tongs were sold in the 1895 Montgomery Ward catalog for \$0.06 to \$0.30 each; a dozen sold for up to \$0.95. In addition, small ointment containers were recovered; two of the ointment jars, approximately 2.54 cm (1 in) in diameter and only 1.91-cm (0.75-in) high, are embossed with the logo for Bucklen's Arnica Salve, a medicated ointment for cuts, bruises, and sores (*Florence Times* 1896). Some of these artifacts likely served a purpose other than that intended by their manufactures and also may have served a ritual function. Petroleum jelly, for example, was often used in folk medicine compounds. Hair from combs was often used as part of personalized charm caches.



Figure 198. Toiletries Sub-group

A. and B. perfume bottles; C. Hoyt's cologne bottle; D. perfume bottle stopper; E. wire basket
 F. and G. toothbrushes; H. straight razor; I. comb; J. whetstone



Figure 199. Stoneware Chamber Pot (V-9)


PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE	N/A		
SOURCE	URS		PROJECT NO. 20831016
			FIGURE NO. 198 and 199




Figure 200. Perfume bottle

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A	URS	PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 200



Figure 201. Shaving-related Artifacts
 A. whetstone; B. straight razor

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 201

8.2.1.8.12 Other

This sub-group includes eight artifacts that were so fragmentary that their original function could not be determined. The assemblage includes: one copper alloy ferrule, possibly part of a pencil or brush; one possible glass fragment from a button or jewelry; four copper alloy crimps or aglets, possibly from shoes, corsets, or other items; and decorative items, such as a copper alloy lions head and a fragment of iron lattice.

8.2.1.9 Religious

The religious group contains 50 artifacts with an identified or possible religious or spiritual association (Table 128; Figure 202). These items comprise 0.07 percent of the historic artifact assemblage. Several of the artifacts in the religious group appear to be associated with African American folk rituals; many of these artifacts had mundane functions, and may have been used in both practical and spiritual capacities simultaneously. Two likely ritual caches, Features 4a and 4b, were also noted and are discussed in the distribution analysis. Numerous other artifacts (e.g., doll parts) with potential ritual meaning were also recovered but are not included in this section due to poor context.

Table 128. Religious Group Summary


Period	Form	Material	Count
Prehistoric	Axe	Siltstone	1
	Biface	Quartz	1
	Cobble	Quartz	1
	Flakes	Chert	1
		Quartz	1
	PPK	Chert	1
		Metarhyolite	1
		Quartz	6
		Quartzite	1
Shatter	Quartz	1	
Subtotal Prehistoric			15
Historic	Button	Hard rubber	1
	Coin	Silver alloy	3
	Crystal	Quartz	23
	Medallion	Possible plastic and shell	1
		White metal	1
	Perfume bottle	Glass	2
Window	Glass	4	
Subtotal Historic			35
Total			50

The majority of the religious group artifacts are fragments of quartz crystals (Chart 23, Figure 203). Crystals have been found on numerous sites in the region (e.g., Derr 2007a, 2007b; Leone and Fry 1999; Neuwirth and Cochran 2000). The assemblage includes six relatively large crystals and 17 small fragments that are degraded by burning during the house fire. A single quartz cobble, 3.81 cm (1.5 in) in diameter and almost perfectly spherical, was also recovered. The reflective properties of quartz, as well as its white and translucent qualities, were associated



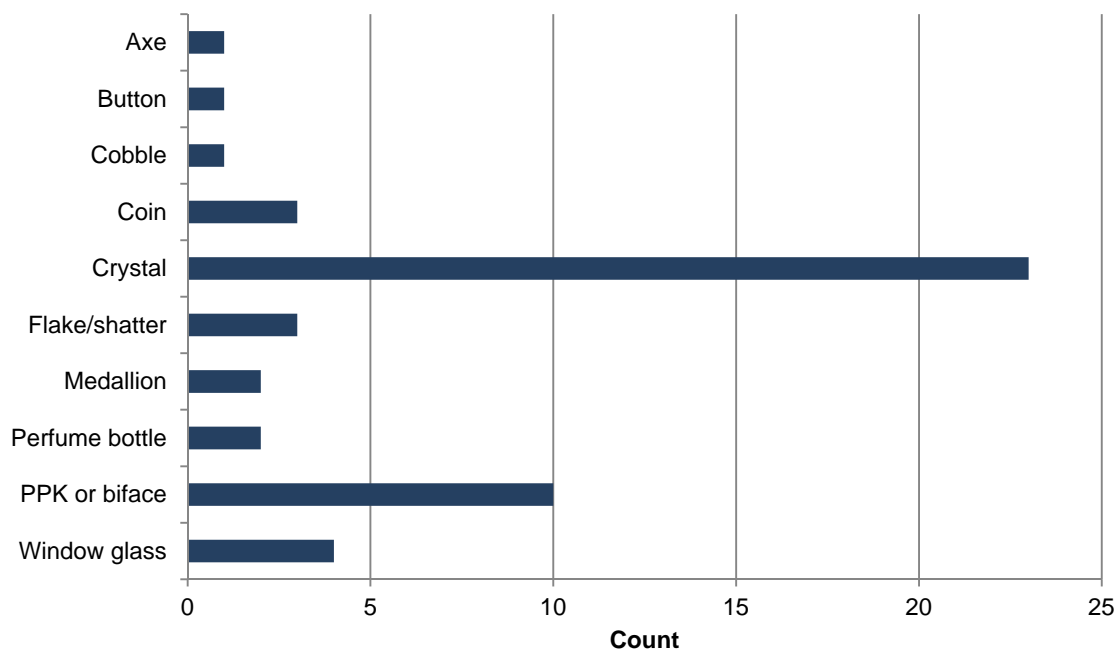
Figure 202. Religious Group

A. quartz PPK; B. quartz cobble; C. siltstone axe
 D. Infant of Prague medallion; E. shield medallion; F. incised hard rubber button;
 G. and H. incised window glass; I.-K. quartz crystals (I. is burned)

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 202

with the boundary between the living and the world of the spirits (Fennell 2007:58; Jones 2000). These crystals are often recovered from entryway and chimney contexts, which, in folk ritual beliefs, are associated with the movement of malevolent and benevolent spirits. The crystals were used as a tool for controlling these spirits (Leone 2005:218).

Chart 23. Religious Assemblage



Fifteen of the religious group artifacts are prehistoric, possibly collected from the prehistoric components of 18MO609. The siltstone axe is full-grooved and black in color. Most of the nine PPKs are complete or almost complete specimens; most are made of quartz and may have been collected for the same religious purposes as the crystals. One PPK is made of white quartz with large crystal inclusions; another is made of a brownish-black fossiliferous chert. In addition, one quartz biface was recovered. The flakes and shatter may have been collected purposefully for religious use, could have been incidental inclusions from earlier prehistoric occupations of the site or, in some cases, could have been spalls from the foundation. Although the exact function of these artifacts is unknown, folk practitioners may have ascribed magical properties to prehistoric artifacts and artifacts of a particular color (Wilkie 1995).

Three pierced silver alloy coins were recovered, including one 1859 three-cent piece and one 1884 half dime (Figure 204). The third coin was a half dime with an illegible date of 18??. Based on the coin iconography, it could have been 1837 to 1853 or 1856 to 1859 (Harper 1999:180–182). These coins were likely worn on a chain or necklace as religious jewelry. All exhibit devotional wear – the details on the coins are obscured due to frequent handling or rubbing by the wearer. Pierced coins were often worn by folk practitioners as a protective amulet. If the coin turned black (oxidized), an enemy had worked magic against you, but the coin had counteracted the spell (Yronwode 2010). David Cohn (1935, cited in Wilkie 1995:144) noted that the date of a coin may reflect the birth year of the person wearing it as a protective amulet.



Figure 203. Quartz Crystals


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 203




Figure 204. Pierced Coins

A. 18?? half dime; B. 1856 three cent piece; C. 1854 half dime



Figure 205. Infant of Prague Medallion

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 204 and 205

The religious group also includes two medallions and a marked button. The Infant of Prague medallion is a Roman Catholic miraculous medal that commemorates a seventeenth century statue of the infant Jesus (Figure 205). As a focus of religious devotion, the statue is credited with graces, blessings, and miraculous healings. While historic records indicate the Jackson family was Protestant, the medallion's Christian iconography may have had folk ritual appeal. Wilkie (1995), among others, has noted a strong relationship between Christianity and African-based religions in the South. She also noted that while certain religious artifacts have strong associations among European-American assemblages, such as rosary beads being associated with Catholicism, these same associations do not hold for African American Protestant groups (Wilkie 1995:142).


A possible plastic medallion is shield-shaped with an inset shell oval. The reverse side has incised marks: the letter "T" appears to the right side of a line bisecting the medallion. Whether this medallion held religious meaning is unclear, though perhaps its shield shape or the shell inset were considered to have protective meanings. As noted by Schablitsky (2012:61) African American folk rituals "are flexible. These rituals constantly evolve and the items used in practice also change due to simple reasons such as the availability of objects, roots, and bones." It is perhaps the shield shape itself, or the shell inlay, that held special meaning over the object's manufacture from plastic. Some researchers (e.g., Brown 2001; Leone 2005; Wilkie 1995, 2000) have noted the presence of shell in ritually associated deposits; however, no references to shield shapes were encountered in the literature. The "T" could relate to Malinda Adams Jackson's son Thomas E. Jackson or to her husband, Thomas Jackson.

The marked hard rubber button is a 2.86-cm (1-1/8-in) diameter, four-hole, sew-through button. It is incised with the letters "A" and "M" on the front face. There is also a more lightly etched "X" on the front face that appears purposeful. The edge of the button is incised in one area with a straight line, possibly an "I," and either a "W" or "M." Another part of the edge is incised with the letters "M A X A," further suggesting the "X" on the front face was purposeful. It is not known if these letters represent the initials of a specific person associated with the site, but there are a number of possibilities, including: Ann Magruder Downs (not very likely), Malinda Adams Jackson (possibly prior to her marriage to Thomas Jackson), Malinda A. Jackson (Mary E. Jackson's daughter), Mary Jane Walker Adams (the wife of John T. Adams), or Mary Jane or Mary Ida Adams (his daughters). Buttons were cosmograms, representing the circle of life connecting the world of the living with that of the dead. The cosmograms are often represented as an "X" on circular artifacts, such as buttons and coins. The arms of the "X" illustrate both motion and completeness, a combination of a horizontal line that divides the two worlds and a vertical line that connects them (Leone 2005). The initials may represent the user (i.e., the person who incised the button) or, more likely, a ritually targeted living or deceased family member. The button was recovered from TU 63, near the kitchen hearth.

The glass artifacts in the religious group include two perfume bottles and four fragments of window glass. The two complete bottles are both embossed in a panel "HOYT'S / 10¢ / COLOGNE" (Figure 206). Both are colorless and held approximately 29.57 ml (1 fluid oz); one bottle is blown-in-mold and the other is possible automatic machine made. Manufactured in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, Hoyt's Cologne was favored by African American ritual practitioners as a product to bring good luck, especially for card players and gamblers (Yronwode 2010). The marked window glass fragments are from TU 37, near the kitchen hearth, and include one fragment with an incised letter "A," one with the letter "X," one with



Figure 206. Hoyt's Cologne Bottle

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 206

deep parallel lines, and one with two parallel lines crossed with a perpendicular line. These letters tie in well with the incised button, and may reflect use by Malinda Adams Jackson, her son, John T. Adams, or his family.

Documenting the use of ritual objects through time at the Jackson homestead is difficult due to the destruction caused by the fire; however, a few conclusions can be drawn. Artifacts like the pierced coins appear to date to the time Malinda Jackson lived in the house, while the majority of the religious group artifacts appear to relate to the late nineteenth through early twentieth century occupation of the house. The axe and perhaps some of the PPKs recovered from the single-pen kitchen likely also date to Malinda's occupation during the antebellum period or immediately after the Civil War. Distributions of the religious group artifacts and their possible interpretations are discussed later in this chapter.

8.2.1.10 Tobacco

This group includes 423 artifacts associated with smoking or chewing tobacco and constitutes 0.56 percent of the historic artifact assemblage (Table 129). The ball clay sub-group includes 102 stem fragments and 110 bowl fragments (Figure 207). Bore diameter was measured for stem fragments where possible (Table 130); a straight-line regression formula was not calculated due to biases for late assemblages. As noted by Noël Hume (1970:300): "its range of acceptable accuracy seems to be restricted to the period c.1680–1760, with the probability of error increasing rapidly as one moves away from that bracket in either direction." Occupation of the site was well beyond the time period to which the Binford-Harrington formula can be applied.

Table 129. Tobacco Group Summary

Sub-group	Material	Form	Count
Ball clay pipes	Ball clay	Pipe bowl	110
		Pipe bowl and stem	23
		Pipe stem	79
Other	Plastic	Pipe mouthpiece	1
Reed-style pipes	Stoneware	Pipe bowl	21
		Pipe bowl and stem	4
		Possible pipe bowl	1
	Terracotta	Pipe bowl	9
		Pipe bowl and stem	7
		Pipe stem	3
Tobacco tags	Iron	Tobacco tag	165
Total			423

Table 130. Stem Bore Diameters

Bore Diameter	Count
2.388 mm (0.094 in)	11
1.98 mm (0.078 in)	59
2.388 mm (0.094 in)	4
2.769 mm (0.109 in)	1
Unmeasurable	20
Total	95



Figure 207. Ball Clay Tobacco Pipes



Figure 208. Reed-style and Terracotta Pipes

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

Artifact Photographs

SCALE N/A

URS

SOURCE URS

PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 207 and 208

Twenty-three of the ball clay fragments exhibit some form of stamped maker's mark; most of these are unidentified or partial marks. Four fragments were marked "T.D" on the rear of the bowl, near the stem. T.D. marked pipes were first made ca. 1775 by Thomas Dormer but, by the nineteenth century, the "T.D." mark was used by many manufacturers (Petruzelli 2010). Another seven pipe fragments may have exhibited a "T.D." mark, but were too fragmentary or eroded to confirm. The assemblage also includes one fragment marked "STUART" and one fragment marked "CLARKSON // GLASGOW." The reed-style pipes include stoneware and terracotta pipes manufactured with very short stems (Figure 208). They are designed to accommodate a replaceable reed or straw-like mouthpiece. The stoneware pipes are gray or buff paste with a salt glaze, and have a molded diagonal ribbing decoration. None of these artifacts exhibit maker's marks. The plastic pipe mouthpiece dates to the twentieth century.

The 165 tobacco tags, used to fasten the paper wrapping around a plug of tobacco, are small disks, about 1.91 cm (0.75 in) in diameter, with two small triangular tangs (Figures 209 and 210). In 1876, a number of tobacco companies began identifying their tobacco by pounding one or more round wooden plugs into each piece before it left the factory (Hyman 2010). This prevented the common practice of counterfeiting tobacco (i.e., substituting poor quality tobacco in high quality containers). Shortly thereafter, wooden plugs were replaced with tin tobacco tags.

Tin tags were made in a variety of shapes and sizes, but circular tags were the most common. Due to their colorful nature and availability, they quickly became collector items, even as early as the 1880s (Hyman 2010). Hyman (2010) notes that more than 12,000 different tags have been cataloged by collectors. In addition, tin tags could be redeemed for products offered in the manufacturer's catalog, much like "green stamps" and other product loyalty programs. Tin tags were inexpensive to produce and typically had a colorful printed logo for advertising. Unfortunately, the tags from the Jackson homestead are too corroded to show any remnants of printing.

It was common for men, women, and older children to smoke or chew tobacco. The affordability of tobacco products, such as smoking pipes, reflects widespread use and demand. The majority of pipes (83 and 94 percent, respectively) in the 1895 Montgomery Ward and 1897 Sears catalogs were priced at less than \$0.50 each, with some as low as \$0.03 or \$0.04 each. Highly decorated pipes, some with their own velvet lined cases, were available to those who could afford them, and prices ranged up to \$4.89 each. Discounts were provided for buying pipes by the dozen, further indicating the ubiquitous use of tobacco.

8.2.2 HISTORIC ECOFACTS

The historic ecofact assemblage is comprised of faunal and floral remains. A summary of the analysis results for both is presented below. The full zooarchaeology report is included in Appendix F and the full archaeobotanical report is included in Appendix G.

8.2.2.1 Faunal Assemblage

The faunal group includes 14,908 zooarchaeological specimens, mostly associated with food remains. These specimens, which represent 9.3 percent of the total assemblage, include fish, amphibians, coral, birds (domestic and wild species), bivalves, snails, insects, mammals (domestic and wild species), reptiles, and unidentified specimens. This section includes a

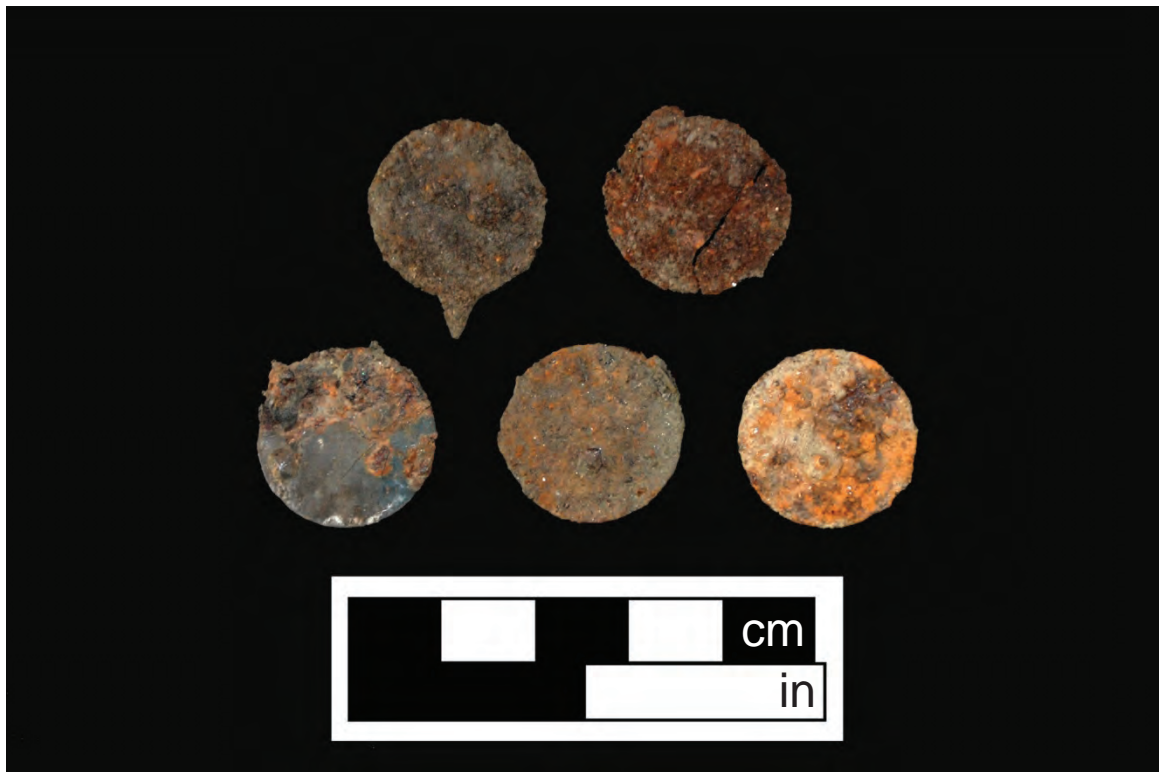


Figure 209. Tobacco Tags



Figure 210. Historic Tobacco Tags

Source: Hyman 2010

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 209 and 210

summary of data from the faunal analysis report (Appendix F), as well as some general conclusions about the assemblage. The quantities noted in the faunal report vary slightly from the final total (i.e., some additional unidentifiable bones were found in during the archaeobotanical sorting).

The assemblage is dominated by bird and unidentified remains (40.45 and 33.18 percent, respectively), with numerous mammal remains as well (11.20 percent; Appendices F and M). A wide variety of animals, including at least 48 taxonomic families, are represented. The assemblage is dominated by wild species (98 percent of specimens); a minimum of 14 rabbits and 18 squirrels were identified. Domestic species were also present, including at least two chickens, two pigs, and one cow.

The majority of faunal specimens, approximately 98 percent, were recovered from Structure A contexts (i.e., Features 2, 3, 4, and 5 within the burned dwelling; Table 131). A significant sample of the specimens represents subsistence remains. Some species (e.g., rats, mice, and shrews) are commensal, entering the archaeological assemblage as they take advantage of the food and shelter that human occupations provide. Others, such as the coral and some of the deliberately placed remains, represent social or ritual activities.

The assemblage includes a variety of native and domestic vertebrates, and several native invertebrates (Chart 24). Native/wild species include a variety of mammals, birds, reptiles, amphibians, fish, mollusks (Unionidae), unidentified gastropods, and coral (see Appendix F, Table 1). Native/wild species account for 98 percent of the specimens recovered at the Jackson homestead. Domestic species include hogs or pigs, cows, horses, and chickens.

While both native/wild and domestic species were undoubtedly consumed at the Jackson homestead, only domestic species exhibit signs of intentional butchery. As will be discussed below, it is likely that some of this butchering was done on-site of animals that were raised by the occupants for consumption.

A total of 144 hog or pig specimens, representing a minimum of two individuals, were recovered at the Jackson homestead. Based on tooth eruption and wear, and epiphyseal fusion rates, one of these individuals is a juvenile, approximately 10 to 14 months of age. The second individual is an adult, possibly over three years in age. The gender of the individuals could not be determined. Most of the skeletal elements are represented, indicating that the animals were raised, slaughtered, and butchered on-site. Butchering evidence indicates that a variety of tools were used to split the carcass, separate larger cuts of meat, and produce smaller cuts, including saws, a cleaver, and a knife. One notable absence in the hog or pig element distribution was the phalanges. Pigs' feet can be prepared in a variety of ways and are not typically discarded as an inedible part of the animal. At least one food preparation technique, the pickling of pigs' feet, can result in a softening of the bones. It is possible that the feet were prepared in a similar manner, the bones were partially consumed, and the resulting fragments unidentifiable to element. The only evidence of burning or calcination on the hog or pig remains was in the burn layer (Feature 2), suggesting that roasting was not a common cooking technique in the house.

Cow is represented by 38 specimens from one individual, approximately three to four years of age. As with the hog or pig, these are from a variety of skeletal elements indicating that this animal was slaughtered and consumed on-site. Beef cuts present include fore shank, sirloin steak or rump roast, ribs, headcheese or tongue, and soup bones. While gender could not be

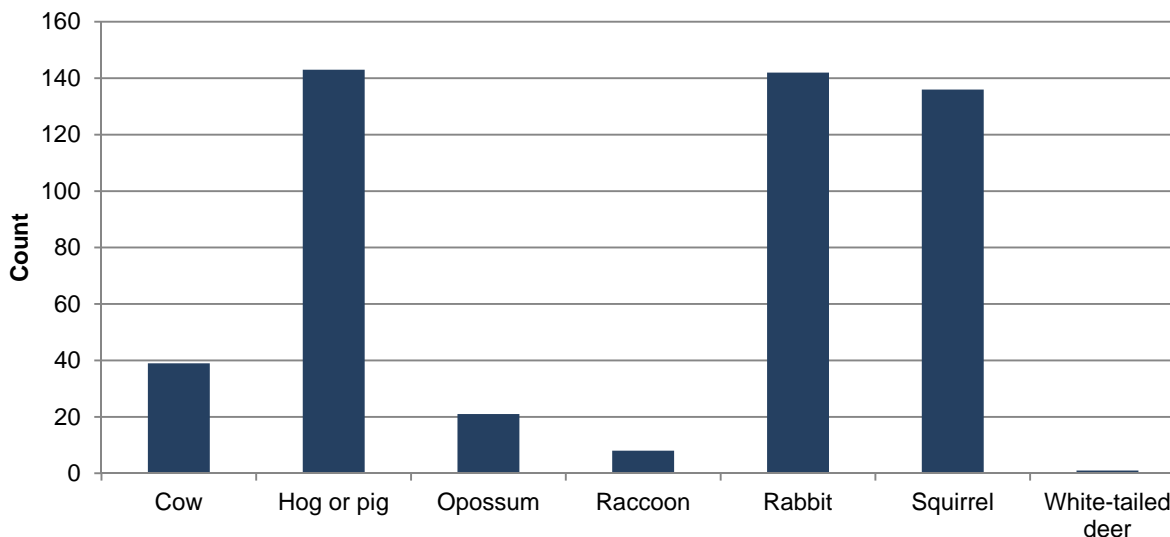
definitively determined, the abundance of cranial elements and the lack of accompanying horn core fragments indicate that this individual may have been a female, who would also have been valued for milk production when living.

Table 131. Structure A Faunal Group

Food	Group	Form	Count	
			Kitchen	Parlor
Food remains	Birds	Bird	812	169
		Eggshells	2,182	1,847
	Mammals	Cow	29	10
		Hog or pig	110	33
		Opossum	14	7
		Raccoon	6	2
		Rabbit	64	78
		Squirrel	96	40
		White-tailed deer	1	
		Large mammal	123	74
		Medium mammal	19	10
		Medium to large mammal	220	137
		Unidentified artiodactyl	3	2
		Unidentified rodent or rabbit	9	13
	Fish	n/a	1,127	43
	Shellfish	n/a	118	13
	Amphibian	Turtle	48	45
Frog or toad		3	2	
Subtotal Food Remains			4,984	2,525
Non-food remains	Birds	Bird	11	5
		Bat		1
	Mammals	Cat	5	3
		Horse	3	2
		Mouse or rat	5	24
		Shrew		2
		Vole		
		Small mammal	64	45
		Small to medium mammal	1	
		Unidentified mammal	6	4
	Unidentified rodent		1	
	Amphibians or reptiles	Yellow-belly slider	1	
		Unidentified		1
Insects	Granary weevil		5	
Non-food remains	Other	Coral		3
		Unidentified univalve	98	325
Subtotal Non-Food Remains			10,162	5,471

Food	Group	Form	Count	
Unidentified	Unidentified	Unidentified bone	24	170
		Unidentified shell	3	
		Unidentified vertebrate	1,067	1,200
Subtotal Unidentified			1,094	1,370
Total Faunal Group			6,272	4,316

Chart 24. Food Remains



Chicken is represented by 39 specimens, representing a minimum of two individuals. As with the other domesticates, the majority of the skeleton was represented indicating, that these animals were slaughtered and butchered on-site. Eggshells were found throughout the deposits, indicating that they were regularly consumed and played a regular role in the diet. Given the small number of chickens present, it is possible that they were kept primarily for egg production and were consumed when they no longer produced eggs.

Native/wild animal remains do not appear to represent a substantial amount of the subsistence remains. Several of the native/wild animals present were deposited as whole animals, with no evidence of dismemberment, butchery, and consumption. With the exception of rabbit and squirrel, many of the vertebrates are represented by a small number of identified specimens. While it is possible that the animals were consumed and their remains discarded elsewhere or their bones consumed by carnivores, it is more likely, given the depositional context of these remains, that they represent ritual activities.

Rabbit and squirrel remains provide an interesting subsample of the assemblage. The remains of 13 or 14 individuals of each species were recovered from Features 2, 4, and 5. In these contexts, squirrel is represented by 151 elements from 13 or 14 individuals, and rabbit is represented by 150 elements from 14 individuals. The rabbit and squirrel remains could be related to ritual activities, but could also be related to more mundane uses, especially since many of the remains were recovered from the same areas as other food remains. An alternate explanation is the rabbit

remains represent animals that were kept in hutches on the porch or near the house that were subsumed into the archaeological assemblage after the house fire.

Faunal specimens were recovered from clearly ritual contexts (e.g., Features 4a and 4b). African American folk ritual practices included burial or disposal in specific places and creation of charms for conjure. These could include animals or portions of animals whose bones would be represented in the archaeological deposits. Specific animals and related by-products were important in folk ritual traditions and African American folklore. Fennell (2010) reported caches containing bird claws, crab claws, burned seashells, bone fragments, and disks, placed within a cosmogram pattern. Each of these elements had different meaning. Bird skulls or feathers represented spirits, given their association with flight and the sky. Claws and teeth represented power and assertiveness of particular spirits. Seashells are reflective and represented water.

Animals could serve multiple purposes in ritual activity, depending on the context of the animal and the activity (Brown 2001; Fennell 2010; Leone 2005; Wilkie 2000). Protection from death and hardship, and the conjuring of good luck or success are just some of the meanings that could be attached to animals and their ritual use. The use of specific animals was highly variable, and open to individual interpretation and use; an animal's meaning and purpose could vary greatly (Fennell 2010; Leone 2005; Wilkie 2000). This adds a level of complexity to the interpretation of the faunal material recovered from the Jackson homestead. In addition, the burning and infill of the structure may have introduced animal remains into the assemblage that were not placed there for ritual purposes or represent subsistence remains.

A high diversity of native/wild birds are represented in the Jackson homestead assemblage. These include bobwhite quail, common flicker, cardinal, great horned owl, mallard duck, red-tailed hawk, robin, turkey, turkey vulture, and unidentified crow or raven, hawk, pheasant or partridge, waterfowl, woodpecker, and duck. Most of these birds are represented by a single bone (e.g., cardinal, common flicker, great horned owl, mallard duck, red-tailed hawk, robin, turkey vulture, unidentified duck), while the rest are represented by fewer than five specimens. The diversity of species, combined with the lack of skeletal representation, suggests that some these birds (or specific parts of the birds) were used for ritual rather than subsistence purposes. Birds such as quail, waterfowl, turkey, and pheasant are game birds that could represent food remains. Birds such as the woodpeckers, owl, hawk, robin, and crow probably don't represent food remains; the woodpeckers and robin do not yield much edible flesh, and the other species are not common game birds. The cardinal, the common flicker, and the red-tailed hawk all have red or reddish feathers and the use of that color may have additional symbolic meaning here. Leone (2005) and Wilkie (1995), among others, note the use of red-colored objects in West African-derived spiritual practices. Conversely, they may simply represent incidental inclusions into the archaeological record.

The native/wild animals represented in the assemblage are interesting and raise a number of interpretive issues. Some of the more complete rodent remains may have been pests that lived under the floorboards of the house, or around its foundation and chimney, where they could have scavenged for food remains. Given the other evidence of other ritual activities, however, it is possible that some of the rodents and the snakes may have been used as part of the ritual protective activities associated with the laying of the foundation or other subsequent ritual activities. It is clearer that the native/wild bird remains probably are not food remains, but hold some ritual meaning or were, in part, incidental inclusions.

This assemblage provides a unique opportunity to examine the role of animals in African American foodways and ritual life as expressed at the Jackson homestead. It should be noted, however, that sampling methods may have biased the data. As noted, the vast majority of the remains came from the house contexts, as this was the primary focus of excavations. Since very few trash deposits were identified in yard contexts, this assemblage is biased as to practices in the home, instead of wider foodways practices throughout the homestead (e.g., meat house or yard cooking). Only 25 faunal specimens were recovered from yard contexts.

Perhaps the most interesting aspect of the faunal assemblage is that it was distributed throughout the house in large quantities, not just in the kitchen. In total, 6,272 specimens were recovered in the kitchen, 4,282 were recovered from the chimney base (many of which were likely ritual in nature), and 4,316 were recovered in the parlor. Only 49 faunal specimens were recovered from other contexts. The large quantity of specimens from the parlor further suggests that it also served as a food preparation area. In looking at the distribution, there were more commonly edible specimens in the kitchen (Table 132). This is biased by the fish counts. In looking at the counts between areas, however, it is clear that more processing of large mammals (e.g., cow, pig or hog, deer) was occurring in the kitchen. Interestingly, more chickens and rabbits were processed in the parlor.

Table 132. House Distribution of Common Meat Sources

Species	Total Count*	Kitchen		Parlor	
		Count	Percent	Count	Percent
Chicken	41	15	36.58	26	63.41
Cow	39	29	74.44	10	25.64
Deer	1	1	100.00	0	0
Fish	1,149	1,127	98.08	22	1.91
Opossum	18	11	61.11	7	38.88
Pig or hog	142	109	76.76	33	23.24
Rabbit	164	73	44.51	91	55.49
Squirrel	136	96	70.59	40	29.41
Turkey	4	2	50.00	2	50.00
Turtle	93	48	51.61	45	48.39
Total	1,787	1,511		276	

* From kitchen and parlor contexts only (i.e., not including chimney, yard, or other contexts).

8.2.2.2 Floral Assemblage

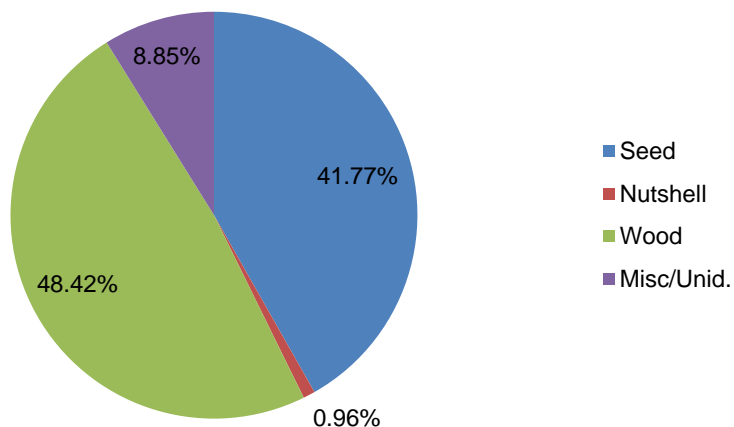
Archaeobotanical analysis was conducted on 151 samples; the bulk of the analysis involved data recovered from the flotation samples. Macroplant remains collected from excavated contexts were included in the analysis; the majority of these were charred wood samples, but also included nutshells and large seeds, such as peach pits. An additional 31 artifacts with wood components were examined to identify the taxa; these are discussed in their appropriate sections in the Historic Artifact Analysis sub-section above. A detailed archaeobotanical report is in Appendix G.

The floral group includes 69,995 remains (68,963 from flotation and 1,032 from excavated contexts) and represents 43.54 percent of the total artifact assemblage (Appendices G and N). Wood fragments comprise 48.42 percent of the assemblage, followed by seed (41.77 percent), miscellaneous/unidentified remains (8.85 percent), and nut (0.96 percent; Table 133; Chart 25). Seventy-eight plant taxa were identified; 20 were identified to the species level, 45 to the genus level, and 13 to the family level. The taxa represent plants that grew in the region and were available locally. The archaeobotanical assemblage includes a variety of food, medicinal, non-food, and structural remains.

Table 133. Floral Group Summary

Sub-Group	Count				Percentage
	Charred	Uncharred	Partially Charred	Total	
Seed	830	28,380	9	29,219	41.77
Nut	599	40	32	671	0.96
Wood	33,777	25	75	33,877	48.42
Miscellaneous/ Unidentified	6,188	0	0	6,188	8.85
Total	41,394	28,445	116	69,955	100.00

Chart 25. Floral Assemblage



The macroplant remains include charred, uncharred, and partially charred specimens, with more than 59 percent of the assemblage comprised of charred remains. Uncharred seeds from archaeological assemblages are generally considered to be modern and intrusive, and therefore are typically discounted from analysis (Keepax 1977; Lopinot and Brussell 1982; Miller 1989; Minnis 1981; Pearsall 1989). In the eastern United States, where soils tend to be acidic, fragile seeds have little chance of surviving unless charred; charring alters the chemical composition of plant remains and renders them less susceptible to decay. On historic sites, however, uncharred seeds can survive, especially when recovered from sealed contexts (e.g., McKnight 2007; Raymer 2006). In the case of the Jackson homestead, the acidity of the soil deposits may have been ameliorated by the volume of charred plant material; wood ash can raise the pH of soil,

making it more neutral or alkaline, thereby creating conditions more conducive to the preservation of uncharred remains. The uncharred seeds from the assemblage represent both cultural and natural sources, and differentiating between the two was problematic for some of the species identified. A few species were recovered from almost every flotation context and represent modern intrusions into the feature matrix, while other species were recovered from fewer contexts but may still represent modern intrusions. The presence of charred, uncharred, and partially charred remains of some species suggests they are contemporaneous with the house occupation and do not represent incidental inclusion.

8.2.2.2.1 Seed

In total 29,219 seeds and were recovered; 59 plant taxa are represented in the seed assemblage (Table 134). The assemblage includes 830 charred, 9 partially charred, and 28,380 uncharred seeds. For convenience, the taxa were grouped according to the following categories: crops; fleshy fruit; herbaceous–edible/medicinal; herbaceous–medicinal; herbaceous–seed/grass/sedge; nuts; shrub/tree; and unidentified. The highest percentages of seeds fall within the fleshy fruit (51.59 percent) and shrub/tree (44.04 percent) sub-groups (Chart 26); the shrub/tree category includes 12,862 tuliptree seeds and samara, most of which are modern and intrusive into the assemblage.

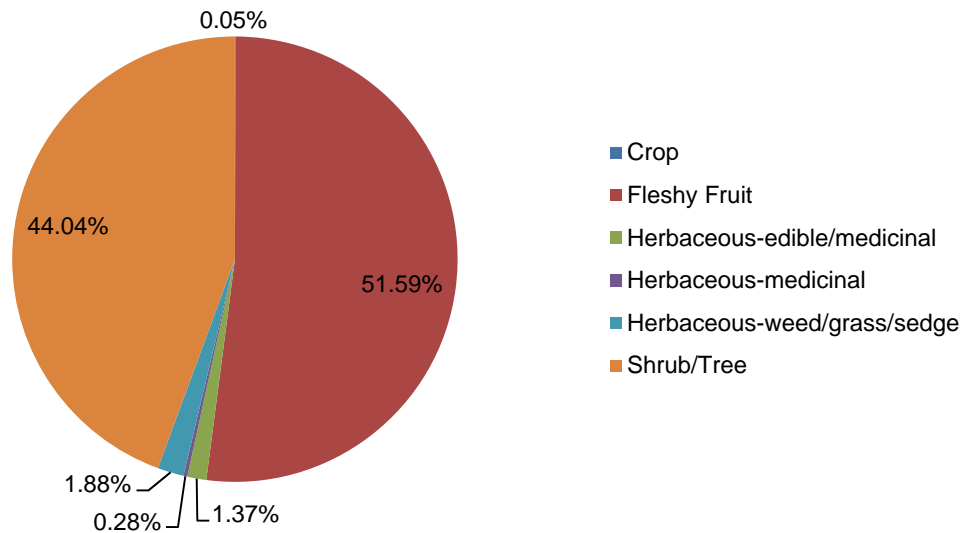
Table 134. Seed Summary

Sub-Group	Taxon	Count	Subtotal Percentage
Crop	Maize cob	2	
	Maize cupule	3	
	Maize kernel	2	
	Wheat	5	
	cf. Gourd family	1	
	cf. Maize	2	
Crop Subtotal		15	0.05
Fleshy Fruit	Blackberry	4,076	
	Blueberry	1	
	Cherry	35	
	Chokeberry	1	
	Chokecherry	1	
	Elderberry	47	
	Grape	240	
	Groundcherry	3	
	Hackberry	1	
	Mulberry	1	
	Peach	12	
	Pear	1	
	Plum	7	
	Strawberry	348	
	Sumac	6	
	cf. Blackberry	2	
cf. Grape	1		
Fleshy Fruit Subtotal		15,074	51.59

Sub-Group	Taxon	Count	Subtotal Percentage
Herbaceous – edible/medicinal	American pokeweed	10,291	
	Bean family	10	
	Chenopodium/amaranth	296	
	Dock/sorrel	3	
	Early yellowrocket	1	
	Garden orache	2	
	Knotweed family	14	
	Knotweed/smartweed	21	
	Lettuce	1	
	Mustard family	1	
	Purslane	29	
	Sunflower	2	
	Woodsorrel	18	
	cf. Pepperweed	1	
cf. Sheep sorrel	1		
Herbaceous – Edible/Medicinal Subtotal		400	1.37
Herbaceous — medicinal	Buttercup	2	
	Catchfly	1	
	Clammyweed	1	
	Honeysuckle	14	
	Jimsonweed	33	
	Nightshade family	25	
	St. Johnswort	2	
	Threeseed mercury	24	
	cf. Honeysuckle	1	
	cf. Ragweed	2	
Herbaceous — Medicinal Subtotal		83	0.28
Herbaceous – weed/grass/sedge	Bristlegrass	8	
	Bulrush	2	
	Canadian milkvetch	2	
	Crowngrass	1	
	Goosegrass	5	
	Grass family	58	
	Green carpetweed	439	
	Hogwort	1	
	Lovegrass	1	
	Panicgrass	2	
	Sedge family	1	
	Spikerush	2	
	cf. Crowngrass	1	
	cf. Grass family	3	
Herbaceous – Weed/Grass/Sedge Subtotal		548	1.88
Shrub/Tree	Dogwood	1	
	Silk tree	2	
	Spicebush	1	
	Tuliptree cone fragment	3	

Sub-Group	Taxon	Count	Subtotal Percentage
Shrub/Tree	Tuliptree samara	2,435	
	Tuliptree seed	10,424	
	cf. Pine Family	2	
Shrub/Tree Subtotal		12,868	44.04
Unidentified Seeds		231	0.79
Seed Total		29,219	100.00

Chart 26. Seed Assemblage



The seed assemblage represents food, medicine, ornamental, ritual, and other uses, as well as seeds that were naturally introduced into the assemblage (Table 135). The plants were harvested from a wide variety of habitats, and include species that would have been gathered in the wild, as well as grown in fields and gardens. Seasonality spans the early spring through the early winter, with different species producing useable parts (e.g., fruit or seeds) at different times of the year. Some of the seed remains represent canned, dried, or otherwise preserved foods and medicines. Some of the foods, such as wheat, could be stored into the winter, while others needed to be consumed right away or preserved in some manner. For example, the berries represent both freshly consumed plants as well as those made into preserves or baked into pies. Appendix G provides a detailed summary of the plants and their potential uses.

Table 135. Plant Use, Seasonality, and Habitat

Common Name	Latin Name	Useable Parts	Use				Seasonality	Habitat
			F	M	O	R		
Nuts								
Beech family	Fagaceae	Nut meat	X	X	X		Summer–autumn	Woodlands, yards
Black walnut	<i>Juglans nigra</i>	Nut meat, oil	X	X			Late summer–autumn	Woodlands, yards
Hickory	<i>Carya</i> spp.	Nut meat	X	X			Late summer–autumn	Woodlands, yards
Crops								
Gourd family	Cucurbitaceae	Fruit, seeds	X	X			Summer–autumn	Fields, disturbed areas, gardens
Maize	<i>Zea mays</i>	Kernel	X	X	X		Early summer–early autumn	Agricultural fields, gardens
Wheat	<i>Triticum aestivum</i>	Kernel	X				Summer	Agricultural fields
Fleshy Fruits								
Blackberry	<i>Rubus</i> spp.	Fruit, leaves, shoots	X	X	X		Summer	Forest edge, disturbed areas, gardens
Blueberry	<i>Vaccinium</i> spp.	Fruit	X	X			Summer	Woodlands, stream banks, bogs, thickets, gardens
Cherry	<i>Prunus</i> spp.	Fruit	X	X	X		Summer	Woodlands, orchards, yards
Chokeberry	<i>Photinia</i> spp.	Fruit	X				Late summer–autumn	Thickets
Chokecherry	<i>Prunus virginiana</i>	Fruit	X	X	X		Summer	Woodlands, open places, yards
Elderberry	<i>Sambucus</i> spp.	Fruit, flowers	X	X	X		Late summer–autumn	Alluvial woods, stream banks, thickets, yards
Grape	<i>Vitis</i> spp.	Fruit, young leaves, sap	X	X			Summer–autumn	Woodlands, disturbed areas, gardens
Groundcherry	<i>Physalis</i> spp.	Fruit	X	X			Late summer–autumn	Fields, woodlands, clearings, disturbed areas
Hackberry	<i>Celtis</i> spp.	Fruit	X	X			Summer–autumn	Woodlands, open places
Mulberry	<i>Morus</i> spp.	Fruit	X	X	X		Summer	Rich and fertile soils, yards
Peach	<i>Prunus persica</i>	Fruit	X	X	X		Summer–autumn	Orchards, yards
Pear	<i>Pyrus</i> spp.	Fruit	X				Autumn	Woodlands, thickets, yards
Plum	<i>Prunus</i> spp.	Fruit	X	X	X		Early summer–autumn	Woodlands, thickets, sandy coastal areas, yards
Strawberry	<i>Fragaria</i> spp.	Fruit	X	X			Late spring–summer	Moist woodlands, fields, gardens
Sumac	<i>Rhus</i> spp.	Fruit	X	X			Summer–autumn	Woodlands, disturbed areas

F=food, M=medicine, O=ornamental, R=ritual

Common Name	Latin Name	Useable Parts	Use				Seasonality	Habitat
			F	M	O	R		
Herbaceous – edible/ medicinal								
American Pokeweed	<i>Phytolacca americana</i>	Early shoots, leaves, fruit	X	X		X	Disturbed areas, fields, gardens	
Bean family*	Fabaceae	Seeds, leaves	X	X			Woodlands, fields, disturbed areas	
Chenopodium/ Amaranth	<i>Chenopodium</i> spp./ <i>Amaranthus</i> spp.	Seeds, leaves	X	X			Disturbed areas, gardens	
Dock/Sorrel	<i>Rumex</i> spp.	Leaves	X	X			Disturbed areas, gardens	
Early Yellowrocket	<i>Barbarea verna</i>	Leaves	X	X			Disturbed areas, gardens	
Garden Orache	<i>Atriplex hortensis</i>	Leaves	X	X			Disturbed areas, gardens	
Knotweed/ Smartweed	<i>Polygonum</i> spp.	Leaves, shoots, seeds	X	X			Disturbed areas, fields, gardens	
Lettuce	<i>Lactuca</i> spp.	Leaves	X	X			Disturbed areas, gardens	
Mustard family*	Brassicaceae	Seeds, leaves, oil	X	X	X		Woodlands, fields, gardens, disturbed areas	
Pepperweed	<i>Lepidium</i> spp.	Leaves, seeds	X	X	X		Disturbed areas, fields, gardens	
Purslane	<i>Portulaca</i> spp.	Seeds, leaves, stems	X	X			Disturbed areas, gardens	
Sunflower	<i>Helianthus</i> spp.	Seeds, flower buds, tubers	X	X	X		Disturbed areas, fields, gardens	
Woodsorrel	<i>Oxalis</i> spp.	Leaves, flowers	X	X	X		Woodlands, disturbed areas	
Herbaceous – medicinal								
Buttercup	<i>Ranunculus</i> spp.	Leaves, stems, roots		X	X		Fields, meadows	
Catchfly	<i>Silene</i> spp.	Young shoots and leaves	X	X	X		Disturbed areas, fields	
Clammyweed	<i>Polanisia dodecandra</i>	Whole plant		X			Sandy areas near water, disturbed areas	
Honeysuckle	<i>Lonicera</i> spp.	Berries, nectar, leaves, flowers	X	X	X		Woodlands, thickets, disturbed areas, yards	
Jimsonweed	<i>Datura stramonium</i>	Seeds, leaves		X	X	X	Disturbed areas, gardens	
Nightshade family*	Solanaceae	Seeds, leaves, fruit	X	X	X		Fields, disturbed areas, gardens	
Ragweed	<i>Ambrosia</i> spp.	Leaves		X			Fields, disturbed areas	
St. Johnswort	<i>Hypericum</i> spp.	Flowers, leaves, seeds		X			Fields, disturbed areas	
Threeseed mercury	<i>Acalypha</i> spp.	Whole plant		X	X		Woodlands, thickets	

F=food, M=medicine, O=ornamental, R=ritual

SECTION EIGHT

Laboratory Results

Common Name	Latin Name	Useable Parts	Use				Seasonality	Habitat
			F	M	O	R		
Herbaceous – weeds/ grasses/ sedges								
Bristlegrass	<i>Setaria</i> spp.							Cultivated fields, disturbed areas
Bulrush	<i>Scirpus</i> spp.							Wetlands, marshes, swamps, bogs, streams, ponds, woodlands, thickets
Canadian milkvetch	<i>Astragalus canadensis</i>							Woodlands, thickets, stream banks, disturbed areas
Crowgrass	<i>Paspalum</i> spp.							Woodlands, fields, wetlands, sandy and rocky soils, coastal areas, stream banks, disturbed areas
Goosegrass	<i>Eleusine</i> spp.							Fields, disturbed areas, yards
Grass family*	Poaceae				X			Wetlands, fields, woodlands, disturbed areas, yards
Green carpetweed	<i>Mollugo verticillata</i>							Cultivated fields, disturbed areas, yards
Hogwort	<i>Croton capitatus</i>							Dry, rocky soils
Lovegrass	<i>Eragrostis</i> spp.							Woodlands, cultivated fields, wetlands, sandy and rocky shores, disturbed areas, yards
Panicgrass	<i>Panicum</i> spp.		X					Woodlands, thickets, open fields, wetlands, coastal areas, disturbed areas, yards
Sedge family*	Cyperaceae				X			Wetlands, fields, woodlands, disturbed areas, yards
Spikerush	<i>Eleocharis</i> spp.				X			Wetlands, marshes, swamps, bogs, streams, ponds
Shrubs/Trees								
Flowering Dogwood	<i>Cornus florida</i>	Root bark, seeds	X	X	X	X		Woodlands, yards
Pine family	Pinaceae				X			Woodlands, yards
Silktree	<i>Albizia julibrissin</i>				X			Yards, disturbed areas
Spicebush	<i>Lindera benzoin</i>	Leaves, berries, bark	X	X	X			Moist areas, yards
Tuliptree	<i>Liriodendron tulipifera</i>	Leaves, bark		X	X			Woodlands, yards

*Note: too many species within the family to enumerate uses; different species used for food, medicine, ornament, or utilitarian objects
F=food, M=medicine, O=ornamental, R=ritual

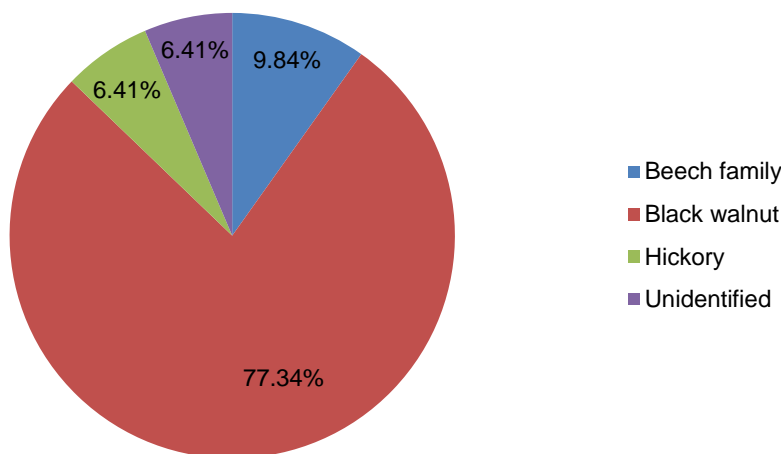
8.2.2.2.2 Nut

In total, 671 nutshell fragments were recovered and include three taxa (Table 136). Roughly 77 percent of the assemblage is black walnut (Chart 27). The assemblage includes 599 charred, 32 partially charred, and 40 uncharred nutshell fragments. The nuts would have been gathered in the late summer into autumn; some would have been processed right away (e.g., black walnut), while others (e.g., hickory) could have been stored in the cellar for later consumption during the winter. Appendix G provides a detailed summary of the plants and their potential uses.

Table 136. Nut Summary

Taxon	Count	Percentage
Beech family	66	9.84
Black walnut	519	77.34
Hickory	43	6.41
Unidentified	43	6.41
Total	671	100.00

Chart 27. Nut Assemblage



8.2.2.2.3 Wood

In total, 33,877 wood fragments were recovered and include 21 taxa (Table 137). The wood assemblage includes 33,777 charred, 75 partially charred, and 25 uncharred fragments. The wood counts in Table 137 primarily represent sample counts. Of the 33,877 total fragments, 33,121 were from flotation contexts and 756 were from excavated contexts. Due to the high volume of wood fragments from the flotation samples, identifications were made on a subsample of 20 fragments for each flotation context (n=1,125 analyzed). For the wood from excavated contexts, identifications were made on the 756 fragments.

There were some differences noted between the two datasets. For example, taxa identified from the excavated, but not flotation, contexts include beech, cedar, cherry, and larch. Beech and

cherry were widely used for furniture and other household items. Cedar was used for many purposes, including storage boxes and fence posts, while larch was often used in building structures because of its strong, decay-resistant properties. Taxa identified from flotation, but not excavated, contexts include black walnut, blackgum, hickory, magnolia family (magnolia or tuliptree), sycamore, and walnut family (hickory or walnut). Hickory and walnut were used in building, as well as furniture and household items; the remaining taxa were primarily used for furniture and household items.

Table 137. Wood Summary

Taxon	Count		Total Count	Total Percentage
	Excavated Contexts	Flotation		
American chestnut	342	528	870	2.57
Basswood	4	2	6	0.02
Beech	1		1	0.00
Black walnut		1	1	0.00
Blackgum		4	4	0.01
Cedar	38		38	0.11
Cherry	3		3	0.01
Common persimmon	1	1	2	0.01
Hickory		1	1	0.01
Larch	1		1	0.01
Magnolia family		1	1	0.01
Maple	15	15	30	0.09
Oak – red oak group	1	8	9	0.03
Oak – white oak group	1	6	7	0.02
Pine	27	11	38	0.11
Pine – southern yellow pine group	91	84	174	0.51
Pine family	116	113	229	0.68
Sycamore		2	2	0.01
Tuliptree	1	1	2	0.01
Walnut family		1	1	0.00
Willow family	48	16	64	0.19
cf. American chestnut		3	3	0.01
cf. Basswood	1		1	0.01
cf. Cherry	2		2	0.01
Conifer	13	39	52	0.15
Deciduous	3		3	0.01
Deciduous – diffuse porous	38	7	45	0.13
Deciduous – ring porous	5	13	18	0.05
Unidentified	4	268	272	0.80
Unanalyzed		31,996	31,996	94.45
Total	756	33,121	33,877	100.03*

*Note: Due to rounding, the total percentage does not add up to 100

Since the wood from excavated contexts produced an uneven bias in the relative proportions of taxa identified, only percentages of identified wood taxa from flotation contexts were calculated (Table 138; Chart 28). American chestnut and pine, including pine family, pine, and southern

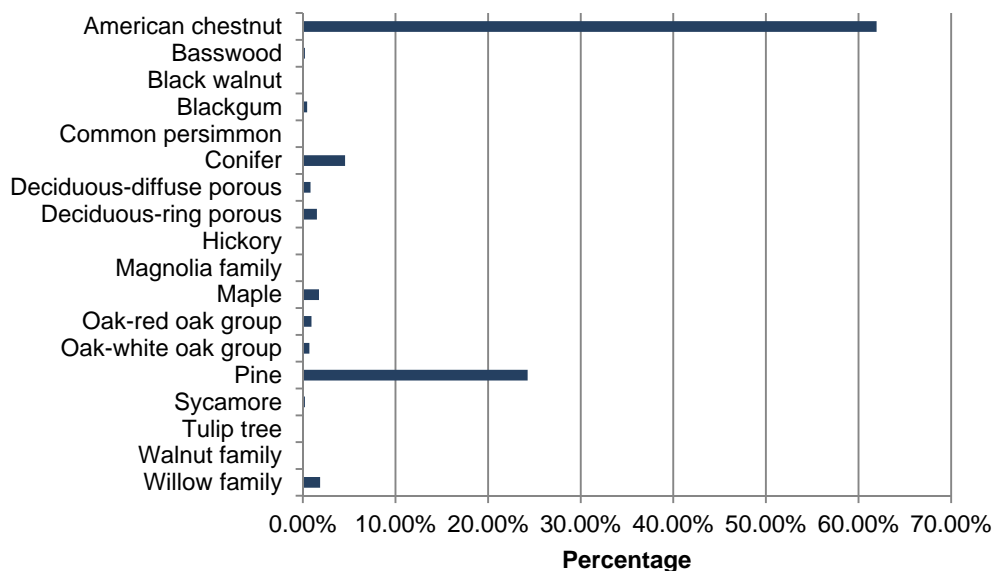
yellow pine, dominate the assemblage at 61.96 and 24.27 percent, respectively. The American chestnut represents structural wood that was used to build the parlor addition. This wood was popular for building during the late nineteenth and into the very early twentieth century. The pine represents a mix of structural elements, such as floorboards, and wood used for furniture, interior finishes, or household objects.

Table 138. Identified Wood Taxa from Flotation

Taxon	Count	Percentage
American chestnut	531	61.96
Basswood	2	0.23
Black walnut	1	0.12
Blackgum	4	0.47
Common persimmon	1	0.12
Hickory	1	0.12
Magnolia family	1	0.12
Maple	15	1.75
Oak – red oak group	8	0.93
Oak – white oak group	6	0.70
Pine	208	24.27
Sycamore	2	0.23
Tuliptree	1	0.12
Walnut family	1	0.12
Willow family	16	1.87
Conifer	39	4.55
Deciduous – diffuse porous	7	0.82
Deciduous – ring porous	13	1.52
Total	857	100.02*

*Note: Due to rounding, the total percentage does not add up to 100

Chart 28. Wood Assemblage



8.2.2.2.4 *Miscellaneous and Unidentified*

A number of miscellaneous and unidentifiable remains were recovered (Table 139). These include a large quantity of amorphous char (n=5,740) associated with the burned structure. The unidentified floral category (n=290) includes plant material that was burned and fused to the extent that the constituent parts were no longer identifiable. This category also includes a small number of remains that were not identifiable due to the lack of modern correlates in the comparative collection and reference texts.

Table 139. Miscellaneous and Unidentified Remains from Flotation

Material	Count
Amorphous char	5,740
Bark	130
Monocot stem	3
Plant stalk or stem	1
Possible bud scale	2
Possible gymnosperm cone scale	1
Twig	21
Unidentified floral	290
Total	6,188

8.2.2.2.5 *Discussion*

The macroplant remains from the Jackson homestead represent structural remains, as well as plants used for food and medicine. The diverse array of taxa indicate the Jacksons were obtaining fruits and vegetables from several sources, including foods grown as crops, grown in gardens, and gathered from the wild. The crops (i.e., wheat and corn) could have been grown on the farm or purchased from local markets. A number of the fruits (e.g., berries) could have been grown in the garden or purchased from the market. Some of the wild plants may have been grown in the garden (e.g., pokeweed), but it is more likely they were gathered from the fields and woods by members of the family.

A number of seed taxa were identified that appear to represent ground conditions before the parlor was built (e.g., carpetweed), plant remains tracked in on footwear, or possibly plants that were used in the home for various purposes (e.g., grass mats). Some of the taxa, such as the silktree, represent ornamental plantings.

Differential burning of the macroplant assemblage was noted; the majority of the wood remains are charred while the majority of the seed remains are not charred. Filtering out the tuliptree seeds and samaras (n=12,862), which primarily are intrusive in the assemblage, results in 44.02 percent being uncharred. The uncharred seeds could represent canned goods or foods stored in a cupboard or pie safe that were somewhat protected from the fire.

The majority of the uncharred seeds are from Features 4 and 5, which are sealed contexts. Feature 4 contains a cache of American pokeweed seeds (n=8,692) in the northwest corner of the chimney base; the number of pokeweed seeds corresponds with the dozens of spikes or racemes found on one bush. This is far too many berries to have been carried in by rodents, such as mice, and the location of the seeds sandwiched between two large fieldstones and mortar is not

suggestive of rodent activity. This cache likely represents an intentionally placed offering relating to West African folk rituals.

Pokeweed was also recovered from Feature 2 in the parlor and the Feature 5 cellar. The seeds are inedible, so would have been removed from any jellies or greens prepared for consumption. The seeds have possible medicinal uses and may have been used in West African-derived spiritual practices. The broad distribution across the parlor and kitchen likely reflects numerous uses of pokeweed for food, medicine, and ritual. It is also possible that some of the pokeweed represents incidental modern inclusions into the assemblage.

The charred and uncharred fleshy fruit seeds include berries, grapes, cherries, peaches, plums, and pear. The blackberry or raspberry category is almost exclusively uncharred seeds from the kitchen (in the Feature 5 cellar), and could represent canned preserves or fresh fruit. Strawberries, peaches, plum, and pear were concentrated in the parlor and could represent fresh fruit or canned items. The strawberry seeds, most of which are charred, likely represent canned preserves or fresh fruit located in the parlor. The peaches, plums, and pear more likely represent fresh fruit whose seeds were casually discarded; it is not likely they represent canned goods, as their seeds would have been removed during the canning process and discarded in bulk. Grapes and cherries were more evenly distributed between the kitchen and parlor. The grapes likely represent fresh fruit, while the cherries could represent fresh fruit or canned goods. Cherries can be canned with or without their pits. Many of these plants have a wide variety of medicinal uses, as summarized in Appendix G.

The nutshell concentration in the parlor could reflect consumption or preparation. Black walnuts must be shelled very soon after they are harvested or the oils in the nut meat turn rancid. The hickory and beech family nuts (likely chestnut or hazelnut) could be stored in their shell for longer without spoiling.

The wood remains indicate the parlor addition was built of American chestnut, while the single-pen log structure was likely built from wood in the pine and elm families. Flooring and other interior finishes were made from pine and hardwoods, such as oak and maple. The wide varieties of wood taxa represent furniture, interior house finishes, and household objects. Wood artifacts that were examined show interesting patterns that are supported in the historic literature: the domino recovered from Feature 2 was made from maple; the wood in the harmonicas appears to have been beech, which is resistant to moisture decay; a sewing spool was made from birch; and pencil fragments were from a conifer, probably cedar, which is still a popular wood for pencils.

One of the questions about the house fire is whether the archaeological evidence provides information regarding the time of the year of the fire. While seasonality for the plant taxa spans the early spring through early winter, a number of taxa may indicate a date for the house fire, including the black walnuts, grapes, maize, peaches, pears, and plums.

Black walnuts ripened in August and September. These would have been collected and processed quickly; otherwise the oils in the nut meats would have turned rancid. The large number of black walnuts recovered from the house (n=519) do not suggest accidental discard over time, as the shell fragments were too large and, in some cases, complete nuts were recovered. These would not have been discarded on the living floor nor would they have fallen through cracks in floorboards.

Grapes ripened in late August through October. While grape seeds are not as large as peach pits, the seeds are sizeable and would not have been casually discarded nor would they have fallen through cracks in the floorboards. Grapes used to make wine or in canning would have the seeds removed; their presence in the archaeological assemblage may reflect this activity or that they were fresh grapes used for consumption.

Maize, or corn, ripened in June through early October. The corn cob and cupule fragments recovered from Feature 2 are charred and probably represent fresh corn that had been prepared for mealtime. Canning corn involves removing the kernels from the cob, so the macroplant remains do not reflect preserved goods. Corn cobs would not have been casually discarded nor would they have fallen through floorboard cracks. The corn could represent dried corn used for ornament, but more likely represents fresh food remains.

Peaches ripened in May through September, pears ripened in September through October, and plums ripened in June through October. Peaches and plums have sizeable pits that were removed before the fruit was cooked, canned, or otherwise preserved. These pits would not have been casually discarded nor would they have fallen through floorboard cracks. Pears also have seeds that would have been removed before the fruit was cooked, canned, or otherwise preserved. The seeds are not as large as peach or plum pits, and could have fallen through cracks in floorboards as a piece of fruit was consumed.

These six taxa overlap in fruit maturity dates between August and September. Given that taxa like the black walnuts cannot be stored over time, fresh fruit has a relatively short shelf-life, the taxa would need to be pitted or seeded before preserving by canning or drying, and they have shells or pits that would not have been discarded on the living floor (accidentally or intentionally), these plants likely represent foods that were being eaten or processed at the time of the fire. This circumstantial evidence suggests that the house burned down sometime in the month of August or September.

8.3 SPATIAL ANALYSIS

Spatial analysis was conducted to examine activity patterns within the site as well as within the household. Distribution plots were generated for each main artifact group and for sub-groups where artifact counts were high enough to generate meaningful patterns. The distributions are based on raw counts of artifacts. Certain artifact groups were excluded from the analysis. For example, prehistoric debitage was excluded, as it does not reflect patterns of historic activity. In addition, most of the miscellaneous group was excluded since most of the artifacts were unidentifiable and did not contribute to understanding spatial patterns. The house (Structure A), small dwelling (Structure C), and yard areas were examined for spatial patterns; the possible domestic cellar, Structure B, was included with the yard area distributions due to the paucity of artifacts from the feature.

8.3.1 STRUCTURE A

Results of historic research and analysis of field and laboratory data suggest Structure A first served as Malinda Adams Jackson's home during slavery. After Emancipation she purchased the property and it became the family home for her descendants for almost 50 years. The house is interpreted as an original single-pen slave cabin with a parlor addition that was built in the late nineteenth century. When the addition was built the single pen served as the kitchen and the

parlor served as a multi-purpose living and work space. The single pen was likely of log construction, while the parlor addition was likely of balloon-frame construction. The house was underlain by fieldstone foundations. It appears the house catastrophically burned by ca. 1915.

The analysis of the spatial distribution of the artifacts provides meaningful data on activity areas within the house, as well as its layout and organization. Key archaeological deposits within the house are: Feature 2, the burn layers; Feature 10, a discrete artifact concentration under Feature 2; Stratum II, a layer underlying Feature 2; and Feature 5, the kitchen cellar. The vast majority of the historic assemblage was recovered from these features and reflects historic occupation of the house (Table 140).

Table 140. Structure A Spatial Analysis Artifacts

Group	Count	
	Kitchen	Parlor
Activities	1,428	1,271
Architectural	10,348	15,199
Arms	126	117
Clothing	2,348	1,225
Faunal	6,269	4,278
Floral	29,900	21,416
Furniture	898	1,081
Kitchen	11,266	6,413
Miscellaneous	5,960	8,119
Personal	364	380
Religious	14	36
Tobacco	213	186
Prehistoric debitage	0	2
Total	69,134	59,723

Stratigraphic analysis of the Feature 2 burn layers was completed to determine if deposits and distributions could be differentiated between the upstairs and downstairs rooms. Unfortunately, the data did not prove useful. The numerous mends between layers suggests that things had eventually settled into a generally cohesive burn layer. Years of exposure to the elements (e.g., rain) likely resulted in a compression of burn deposits. As a result, the distribution data is based on the combined Feature 2 stratigraphic data.

Distribution plots were created using two datasets: one with just the burn layers and another with all contexts, including the cellar. In most cases, more meaningful data was gathered from the combined context plots. In some cases (e.g., window glass), plots from just the Feature 2 data also are provided since the cellar deposits masked patterns.

There are a few other factors that may also have biased the distributional analysis:

- It is likely that post-fire salvage efforts by the family, and possibly later scavenging episodes by later landowners or trespassers, have redistributed artifacts from their original location.

- The southwestern portion of the parlor was most damaged by the fire. This, combined with its location downslope, resulted in an outward collapse of the foundation. Subsequent degradation and erosion also had a minor effect on the redistribution of artifacts and structural debris in this area.
- The dense deposits in Feature 5 reflect not only the quantity and variety of artifacts stored in the cellar prior to the fire, but also the artifacts and structural debris that fell into the cellar from the above two floors. Archaeological evidence suggests that the kitchen did not burn as intensely or completely as the parlor; therefore, remains from above may have fallen into the cellar over a longer period of time as the house further disintegrated. In addition, minor dumping activities in the mid- to late twentieth century may have slightly biased the dataset.

Regardless of these relatively minor post-depositional factors, distinct patterns were observed in the data and distribution plots (Figure 211). The overall distribution of historic artifacts (exclusive of faunal and floral ecofacts groups) shows two main concentrations: the kitchen (densest concentration) and the southwest corner of the parlor. Distribution of individual groups and sub-groups are discussed below; only those distributions that revealed patterns are discussed.

8.3.1.1 Activities Group

The overall distribution of artifacts shows dense concentrations in the kitchen, with lighter concentrations in the parlor; however, analysis of certain sub-groups reveals more detailed patterns. These sub-groups include construction tools, music, sewing, storage items, and toys. The distribution plot for construction tools shows a general concentration in the kitchen, with lighter concentrations in the northwest corner of the kitchen, east parlor, northwest corner of the parlor, and at locations along the west and south walls of the house (Figure 212). The central kitchen concentration indicates tool storage in the cellar. Two saw blade fragments in the northwest corner of the kitchen and a hammer in the northwest parlor indicate tool storage, possibly in a cupboard under the stairs. The east central parlor concentration suggests utilitarian storage at the back of the chimney. The other concentrations could represent tools that were used on a front porch or work area outside the house. Porches were common for rural homesteads and were been multi-purpose areas for work as well as relaxation.

The music sub-group includes harmonicas, a mouth harp, rocking lever, and tuning peg (possibly to a banjo or fiddle). The distribution plot shows a general concentration in the kitchen, with lighter concentrations in the northeast corner and south central parlor areas (Figure 213). Seventy harmonica parts represent a minimum of nine harmonicas. The vast majority of harmonica parts were found in the kitchen; only five parts were found in the parlor and one part was found outside the parlor front door. Musical instruments may have been kept upstairs or downstairs on either side of the house, and the one found just outside the house may have originally been in the upstairs parlor side or on an outside porch. The quantity of harmonicas may reflect use by a number of family members. Conversely, the parts may represent harmonica use by only one family member over a longer period of time. As harmonicas were sold in certain keys, the quantity may also reflect the user's desire to create more diverse musical sounds with different instruments.

The sewing sub-group includes not only items such as pins, scissors, and thimbles, but also sewing machine parts. The distribution plot shows concentrations in the south central kitchen

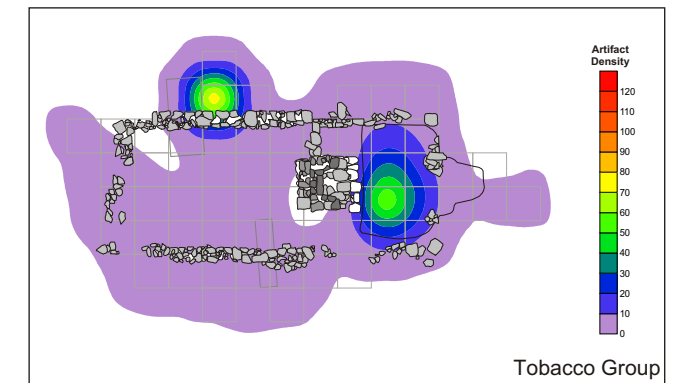
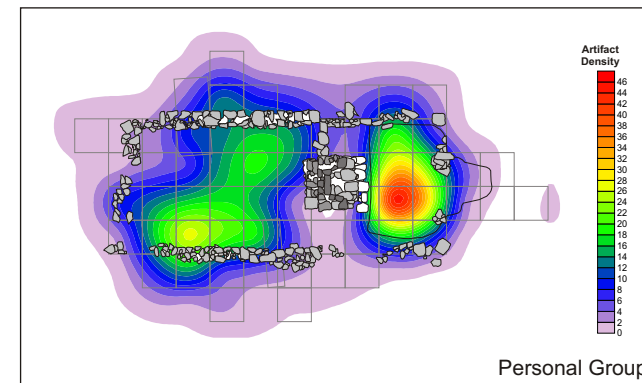
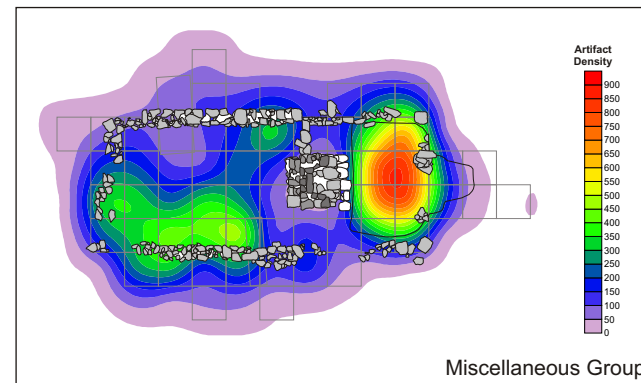
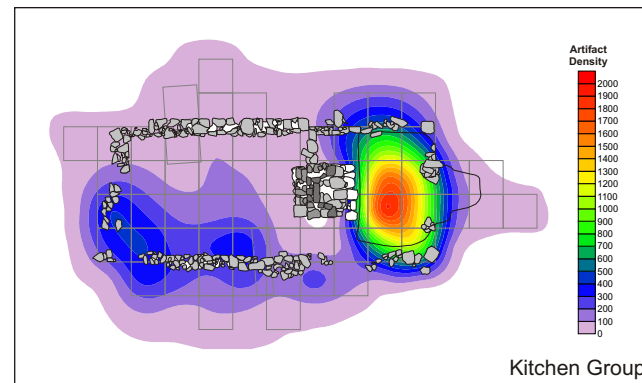
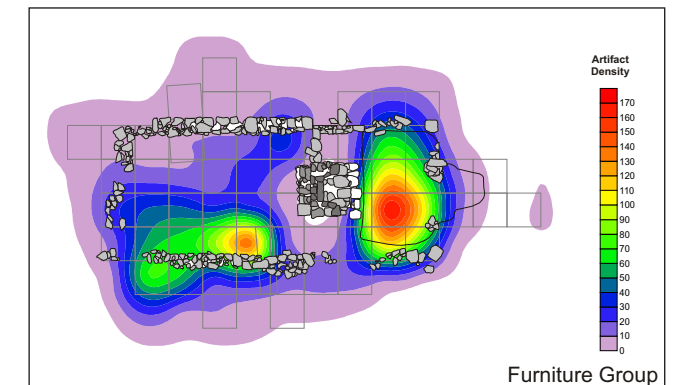
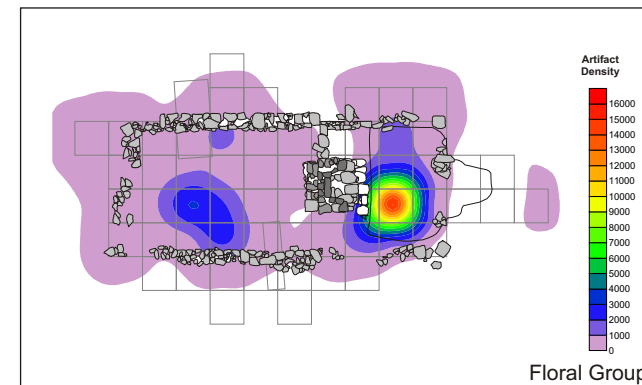
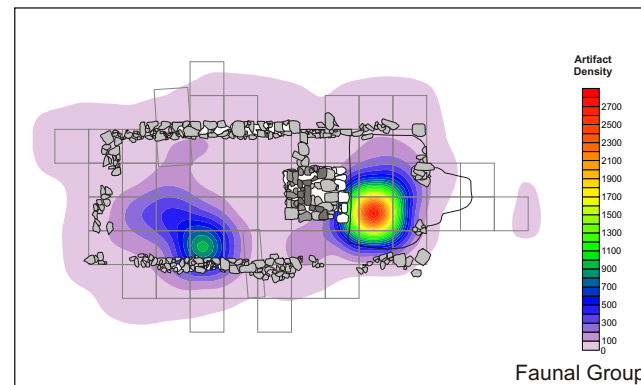
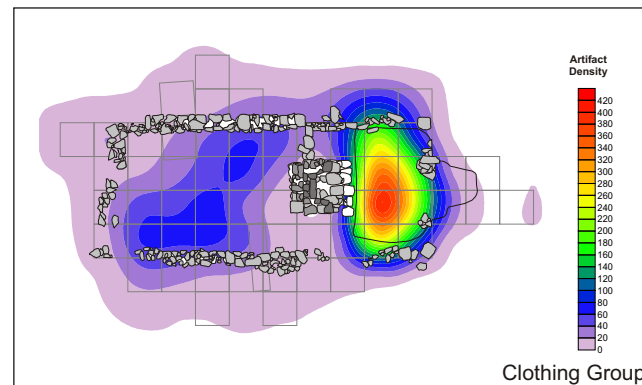
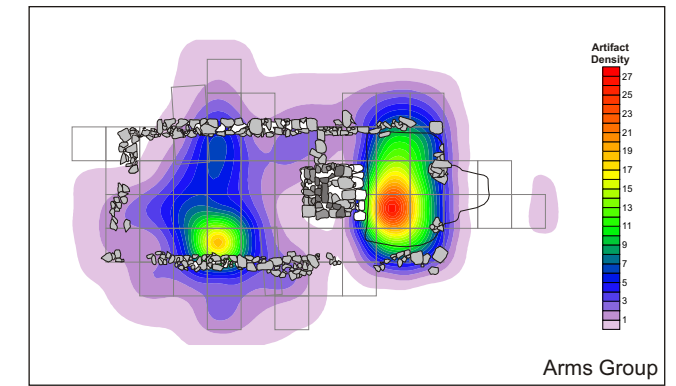
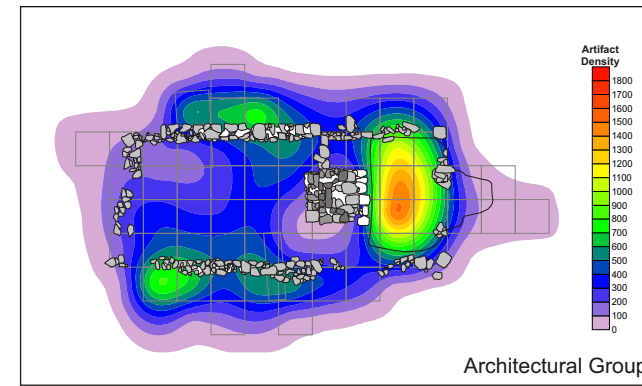
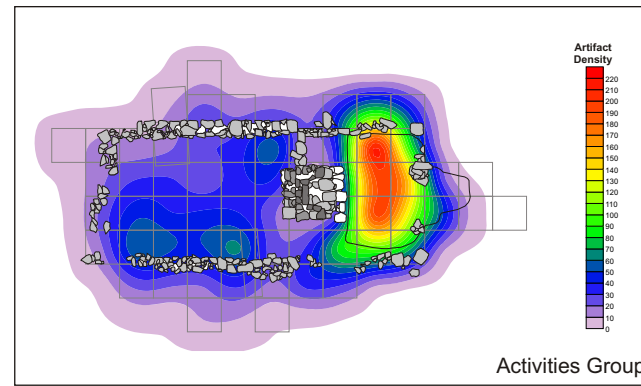
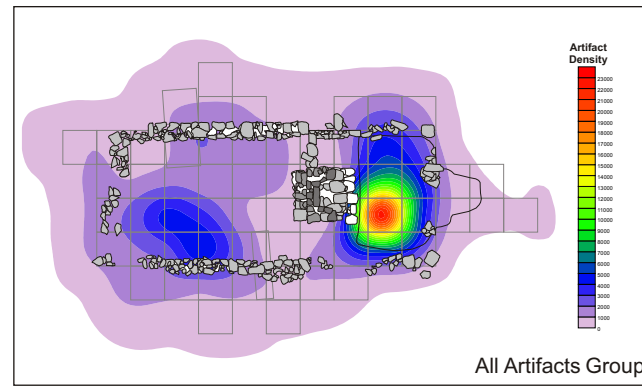
and the north and west walls of the parlor (Figure 214). Sewing implements were located near the kitchen fireplace and could represent a sewing kit or basket for mending clothes. A sewing machine and associated items (e.g., pins, spools, and thimbles) were present on the west wall of the parlor. The lighter concentration from TU 30 on the north wall of the parlor includes pins and safety pins. These could represent a second-story storage location of sewing items, or very possibly a ritual cache located inside the front parlor door (door locations will be discussed in the architectural distributions). It has been well documented that caches were emplaced near doors to help capture spirits. Caches were also common near hearths and chimneys, and the concentration in the kitchen may represent mundane use or spiritual use.


A metal shoe last recovered from TU 22 along the north wall of the parlor would have been used for making or repairing shoes. The shoe last may have been stored in a cupboard along this wall or in the upstairs living space.

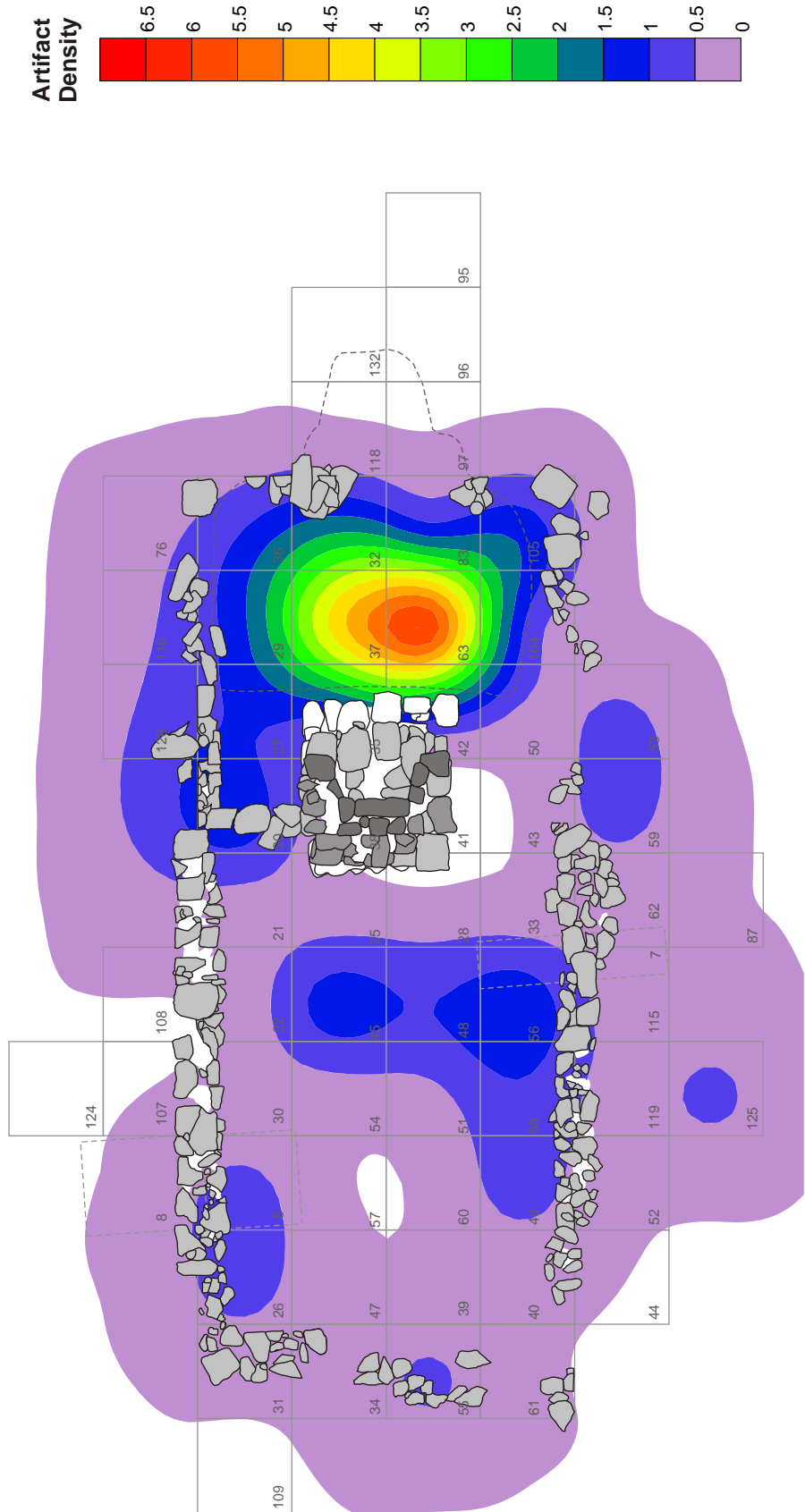
The storage items include one barrel hoop, iron can fragments, and paint cans; the majority of this sub-group is comprised of iron can and possible can fragments (n=583). The storage items distribution shows a dense concentration in the north central portion of the kitchen, and lighter concentrations on the west side of the chimney in the parlor and on the exterior wall south of the chimney (Figure 215). The kitchen distribution likely reflects storage under a staircase, in cupboards, and in the cellar. The parlor distribution suggests either a cupboard or piece of furniture was located on the backside of the chimney and was used to store utilitarian items. The concentration outside the south wall suggests items either were stored on a front porch, or that deposits had shifted or fallen outside of the foundation.

The toys sub-group includes bicycle parts, marbles, dice, a domino, doll parts, ceramic tea sets, and other toy-related artifacts. The distribution plot shows a dense concentration in the kitchen and, to a lesser degree, the southwest corner of the parlor. Lighter concentrations were noted along the north and south central walls of the parlor (Figure 216). The distributions indicate use of toys throughout the house, likely in both upstairs and downstairs locations. Some the concentrations (e.g., northeast corner of the parlor) coincide with the distribution of musical instruments, suggesting articles for leisure activities were kept together, possibly in a corner cupboard.

Toys, such as dolls and marbles, were often used in West African-derived spiritual practices. At least one doll arm and marble were recovered separately from the Feature 3 foundation; however, in both cases, the artifacts were located in the black Feature 2 soil and amid the collapsed foundation wall, so their contexts are questionable. Based on the distribution plots, the quantity of toys (especially doll parts), and the contexts from which the artifacts were recovered (i.e., Features 2 and 5), it is difficult to make interpretations concerning ritually placed objects versus toys used by children for play. Ritual artifacts are discussed in more detail in the Interpretations chapter.



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Structure A Overview of Artifact Distributions	
SCALE 1 in = 5.6 m (18.4 ft)		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE ICC and URS		FIGURE NO. 211



**Structure A, Construction Tools
Sub-Group Distribution**



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

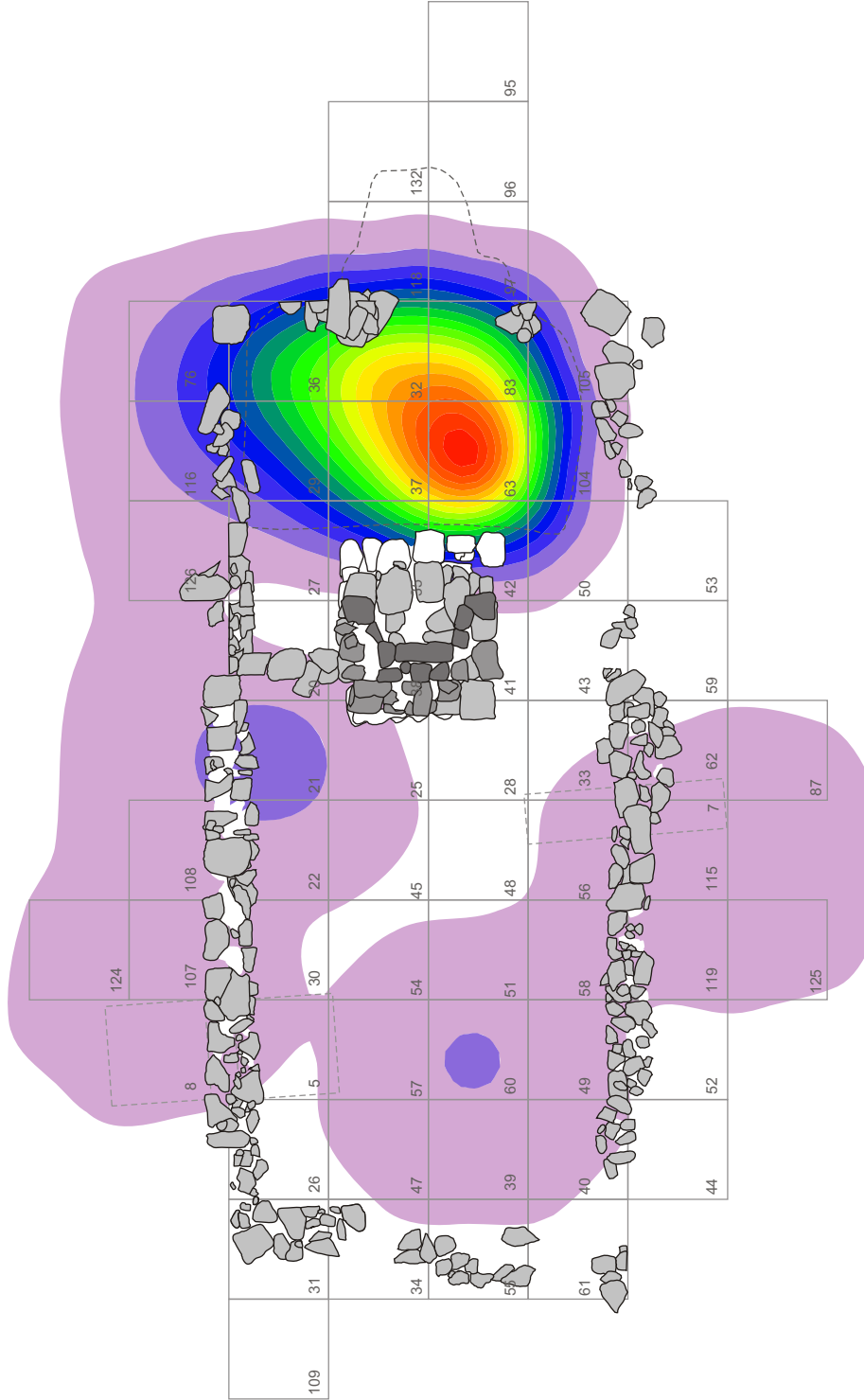
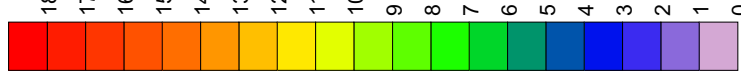
SOURCE URS

PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 212



Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

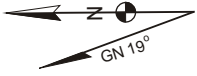
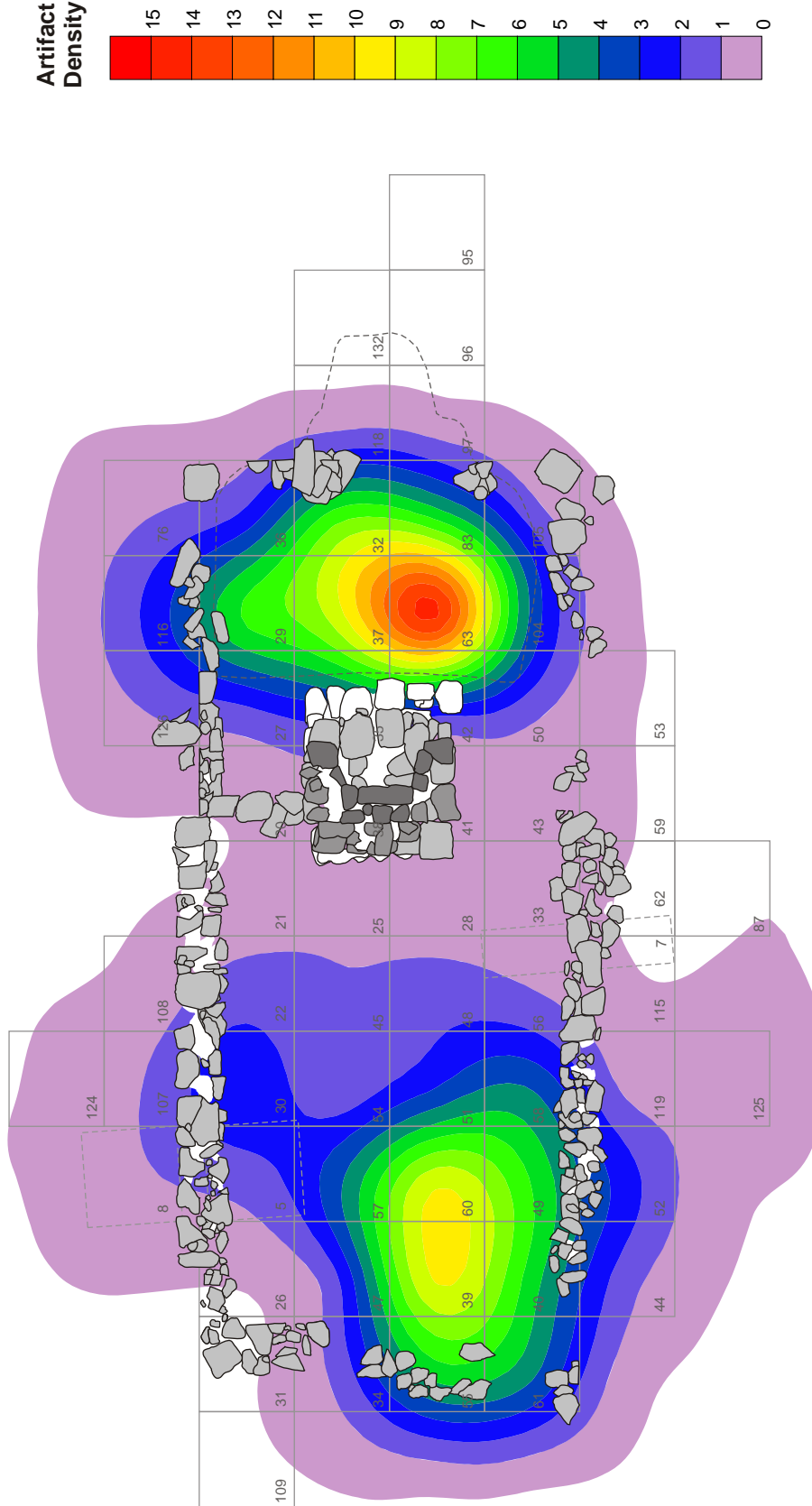
SOURCE URS

Structure A, Music Sub-group Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 213



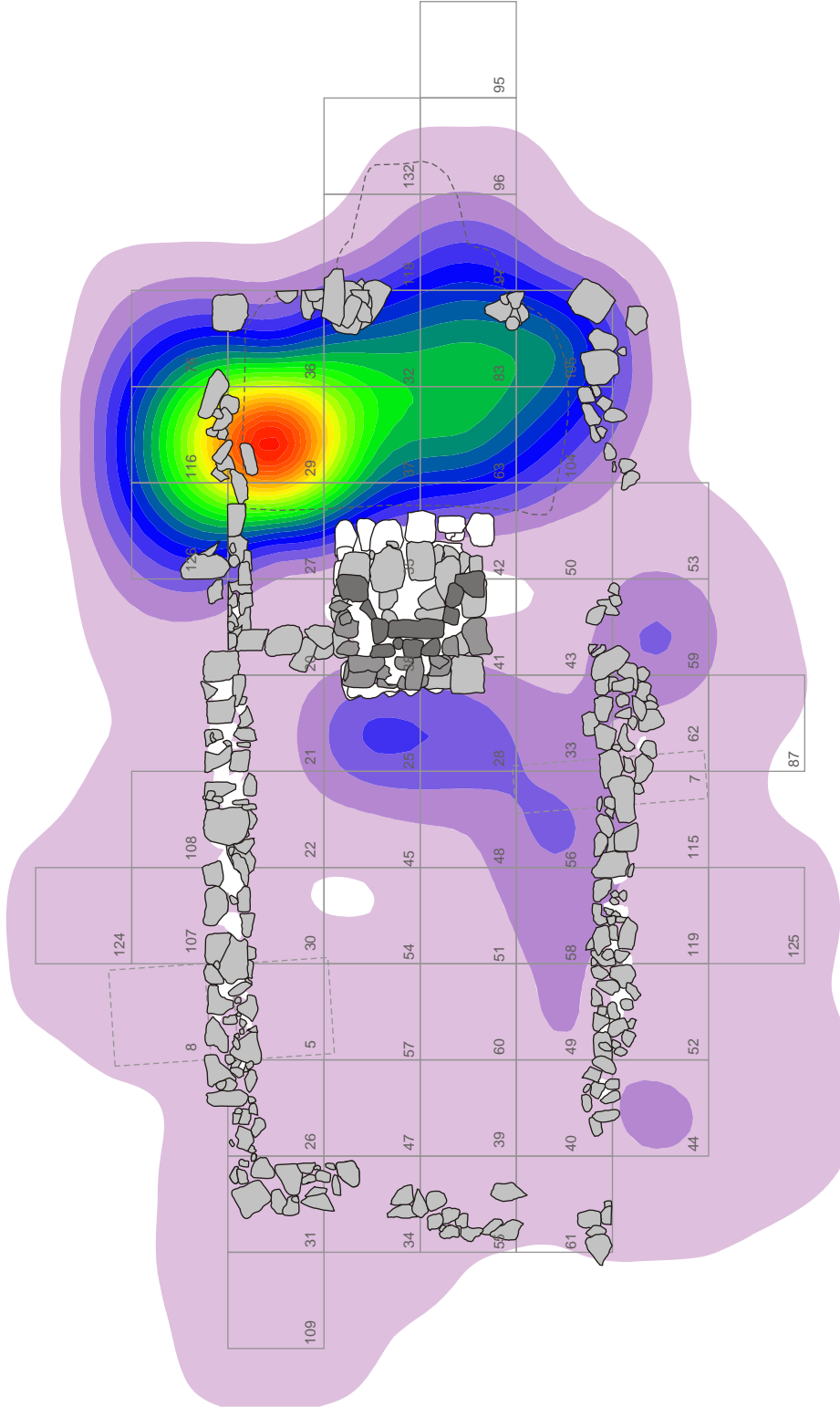
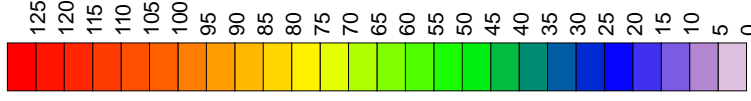
PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II
SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)
SOURCE URS



Structure A, Sewing Sub-group Distribution

PROJECT NO. 20831016
FIGURE NO. 214

**Artifact
Density**



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

SOURCE URS

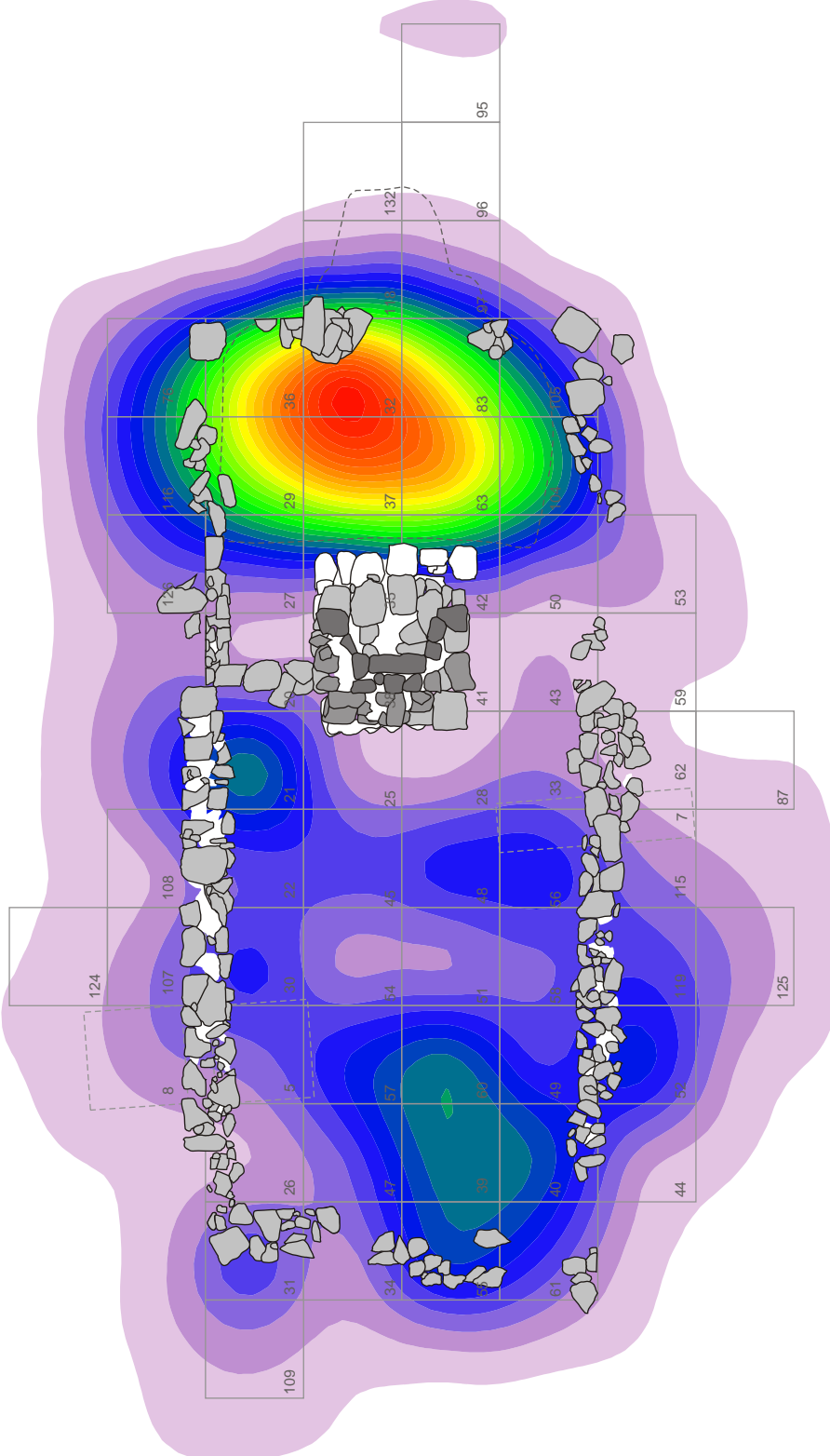
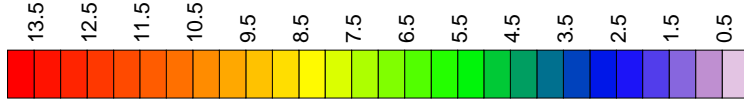
Structure A, Storage Items Sub-group Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 215

Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II
SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)
SOURCE URS



Structure A, Toys Sub-group Distribution

PROJECT NO. 20831016
FIGURE NO. 216

8.3.1.2 Architectural Group

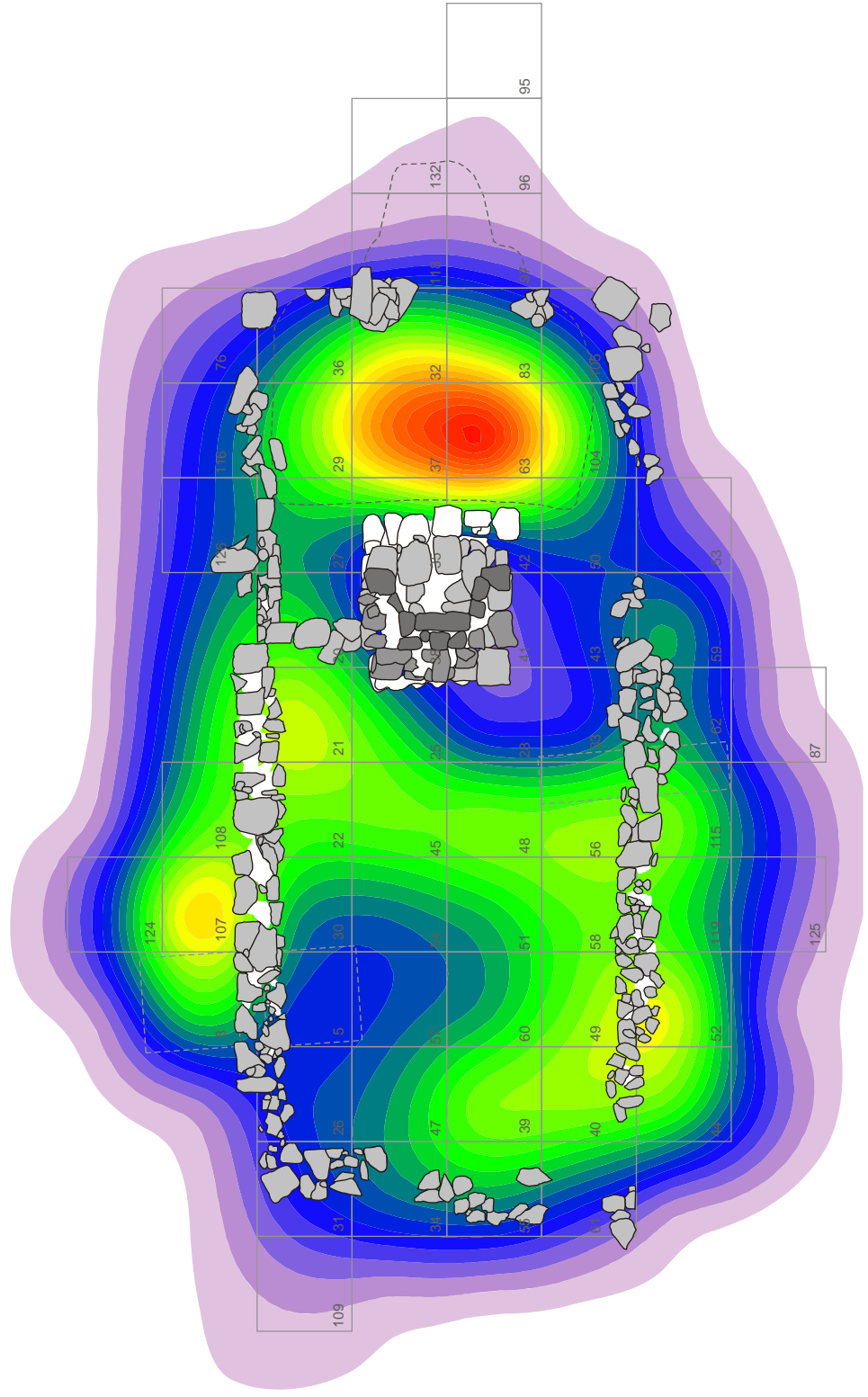
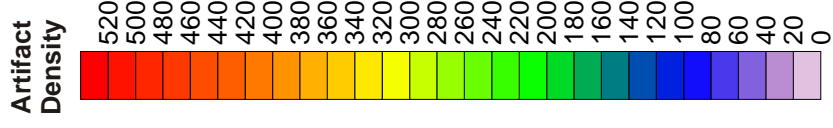
The architectural artifacts were strongly concentrated in the cellar and along the north and south walls of the parlor. Nails, window glass, and door part distributions were examined. Other classes of artifacts, such as the burned wood, mortar, and plaster, were observed from every excavated context and, since their distributions would not reveal meaningful patterns, they were not included in the spatial analysis.

Structure A nails include primarily cut and wire nails; only a very small quantity of wrought nails was recovered (Figures 217 and 218). Cut nails were densely concentrated in the kitchen, while wire nails were more concentrated in the parlor, supporting the conclusion that the kitchen predates the parlor. The nail raw counts, however, show twice as many cut nails from the parlor as the kitchen, raising questions about construction chronology. A common assumption in archaeology is that wire nails quickly replaced cut nails by ca. 1880 which also could indicate a single construction episode. An examination of the 1897 Sears catalog shows that wire nails cost \$1.65 per 100-lb keg, while cut nails cost \$1.60 per 100-lb keg. The continued availability and slightly lower cost of cut nails could have made them more attractive to consumers, especially poorer families like the Jacksons.

The presence of cut and wire nails on both sides of the house, therefore, does not necessarily indicate a single construction episode. In fact, other artifact data strongly indicate otherwise (e.g., creamware in the kitchen cellar deposits). Instead, the use of cut nails in the construction of the parlor may indicate cost-control measures. The presence of wire nails in the kitchen indicates episodes of repair, maintenance, and improvement to the house.

Window glass was recovered from the kitchen and parlor in roughly similar quantities. The distribution plot shows a dense concentration of window glass in the kitchen and more localized concentrations in the parlor (Figure 219). The parlor distributions suggest two windows were located on each of the north and south walls. The plot also indicates the windows were located directly opposite each other, likely for functional reasons (i.e., to create cross-breezes to cool the house during warm weather) as well as aesthetic reasons. A separate distribution was constructed using only Feature 2 data (i.e., removing the cellar data). It shows two smaller concentrations of window glass on the north and south walls of the kitchen (Figure 220). The smaller quantity of glass could indicate these were small windows of the kind typically found in slave quarters in the region. The greater concentration of glass on the parlor side could indicate windows these were windows located in similar locations on the first and second floors.

Door parts were recovered from across the house (Figure 221). Although the quantities were low, the distributions indicate the parlor had opposing doors centrally located on the north and south walls, and the kitchen had a door in the northeast corner. No direct evidence of a doorway on the south kitchen wall was found; historic data indicate a variety of doorway configurations for slave quarters in Maryland and Virginia, with doors on opposite walls being the norm. It is likely that the front doors were along the north wall, with the door(s) on the south leading into the backyard work and midden areas. The northeast and northwest corners of the parlor had one door hinge each, which suggests a door for a cupboard, closet, or staircase. Two door latches were recovered from TUs 33 and 43 on the south wall, suggesting an interior door between the kitchen and parlor. The concentration of door parts in the south-central kitchen includes three hinges and one lock, which may indicate a floor hatch for access to the cellar. Alternatively, these artifacts may suggest there was a door on the upper floor.



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

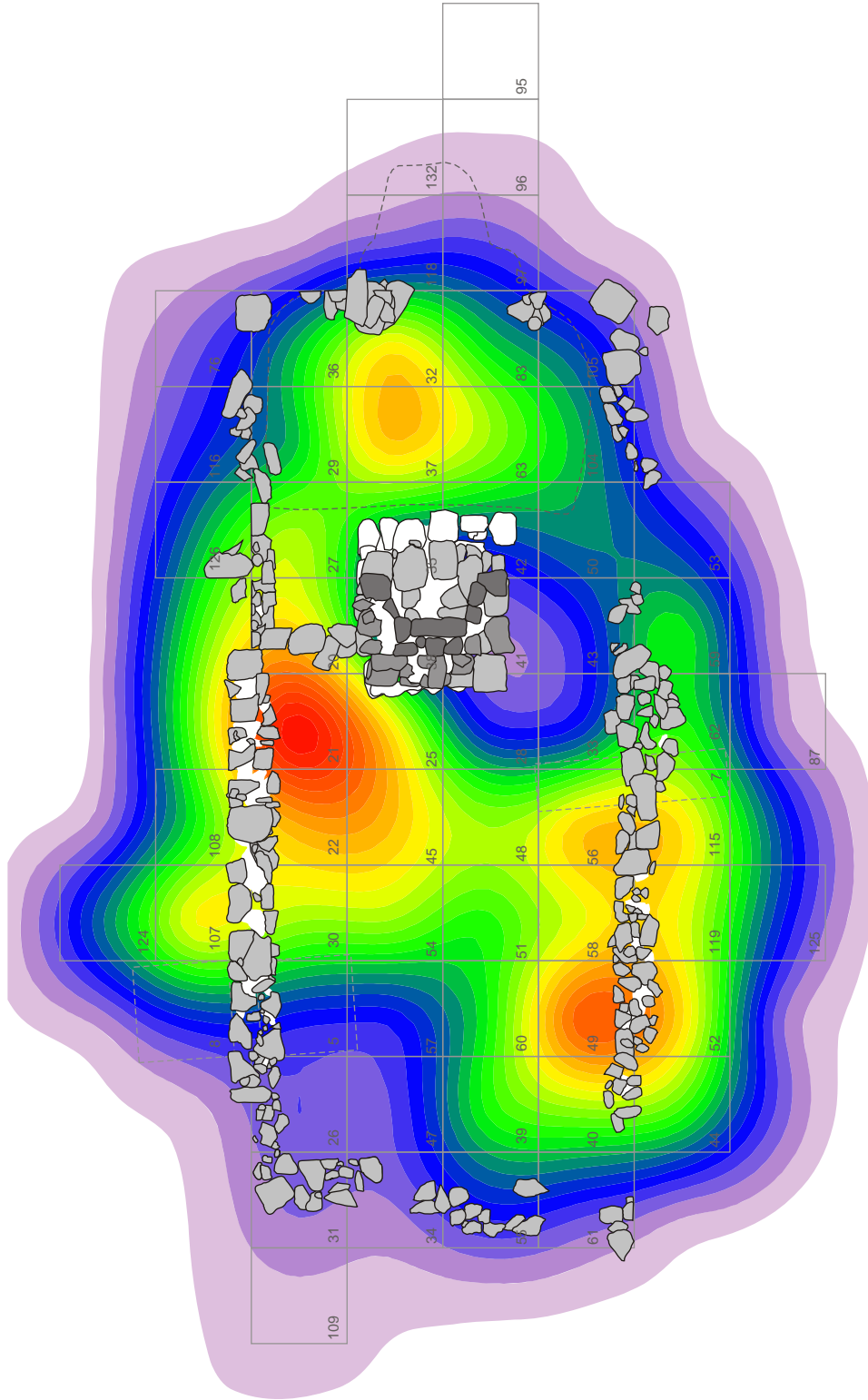
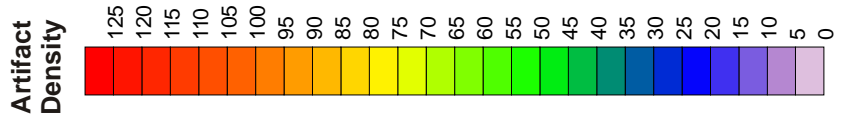
SOURCE URS

Structure A, Cut Nail Sub-group Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 217

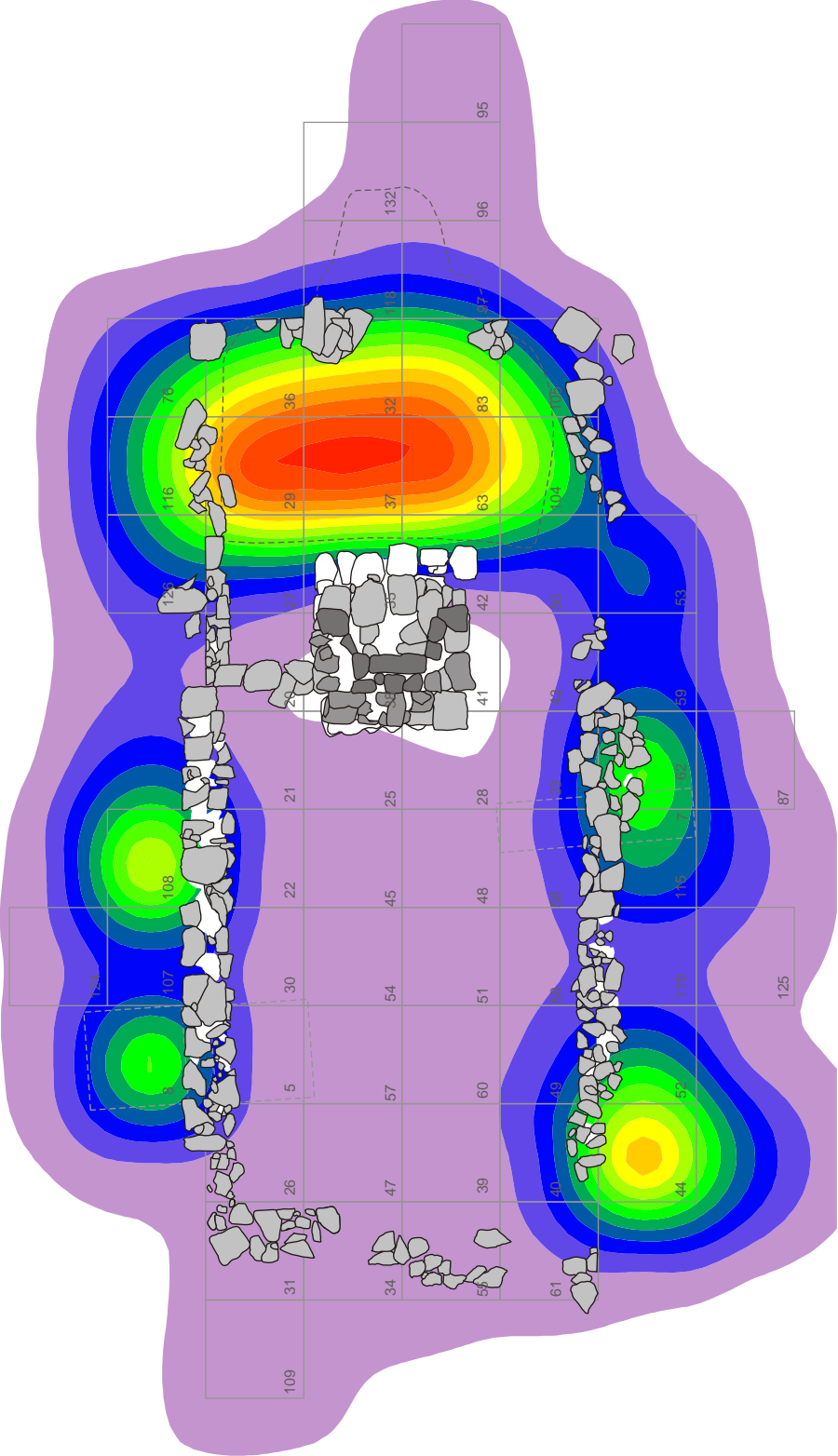
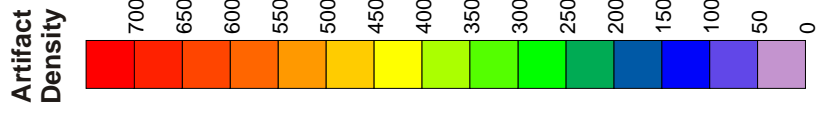


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II
SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)
SOURCE URS

Structure A, Wire Nail Sub-group Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016
FIGURE NO. 218

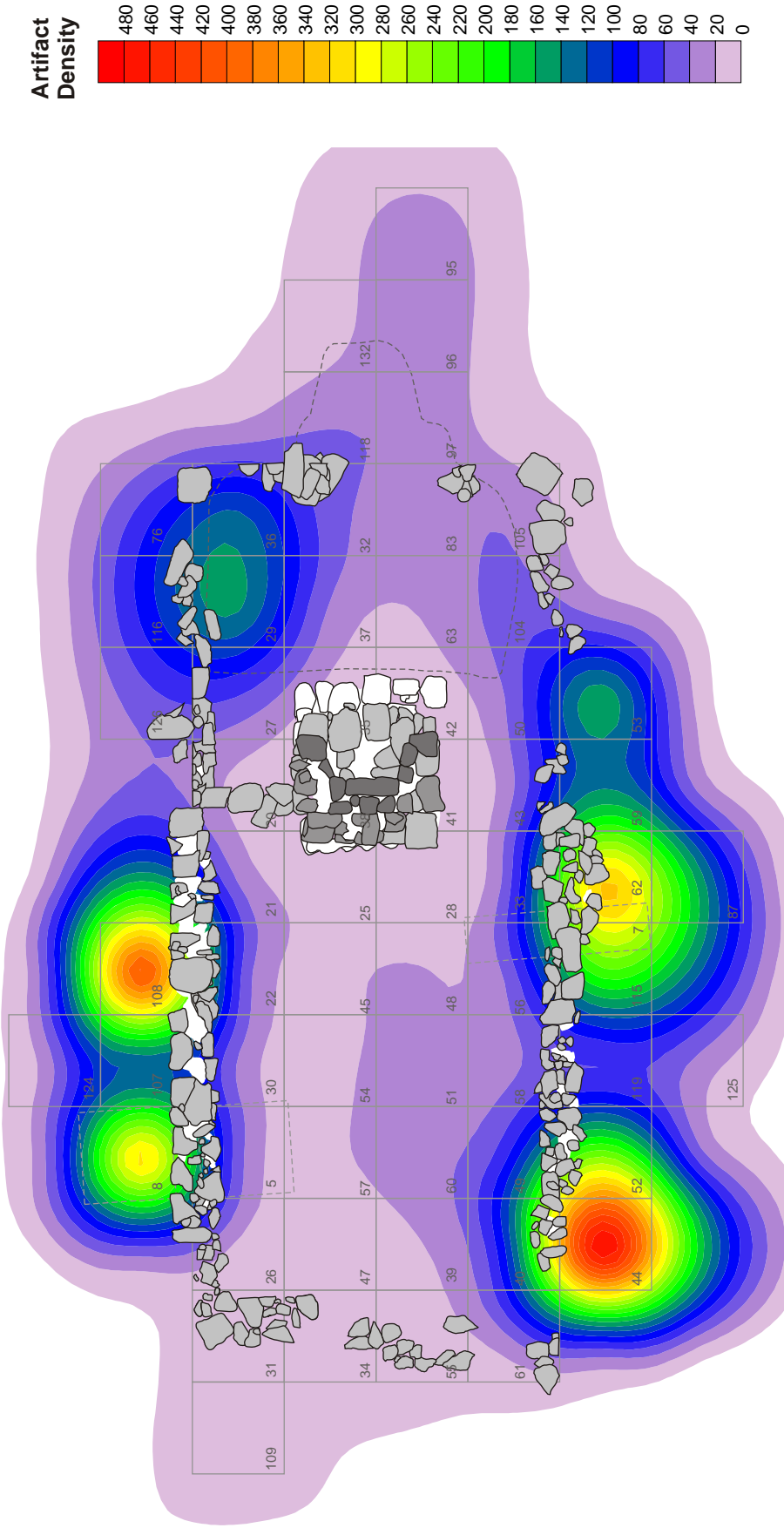


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II
SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)
SOURCE URS



Structure A, Window Glass Sub-group Distribution

PROJECT NO. 20831016
FIGURE NO. 219



**Structure A, Feature 2 Window Sub-group
Distribution**



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

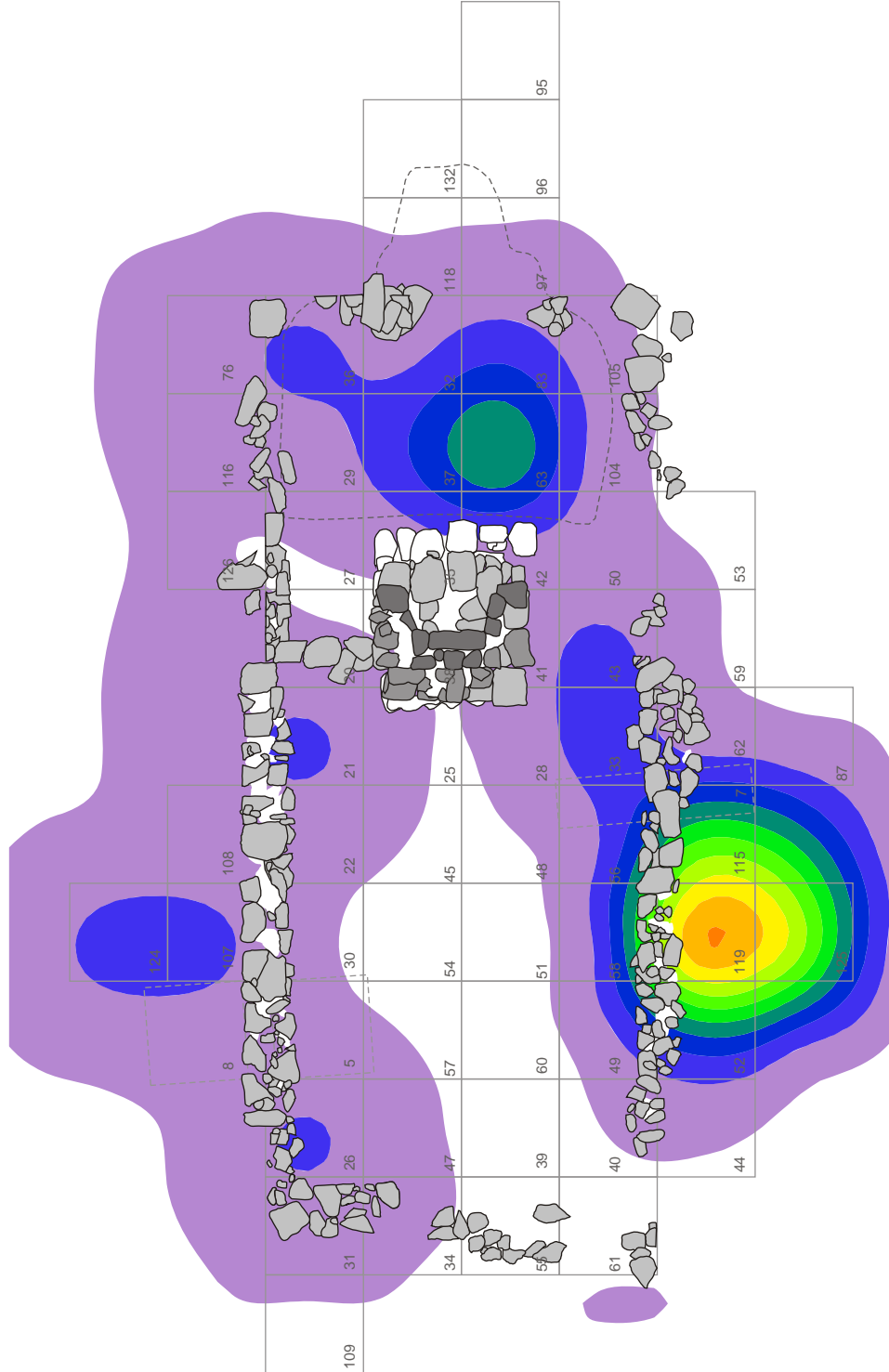
SOURCE URS

PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 220



Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

SOURCE URS

Structure A, Door Parts Sub-group Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 221

8.3.1.3 Arms Group

The distribution plot shows concentrations of arms in the kitchen and along the south wall of the parlor near the back door (Figure 222). A lighter concentration was also noted at the front door of the parlor. Ethnographic and archaeological evidence indicates guns (e.g., muskets, rifles) were often stored above an exterior doorway; it is likely the ammunition was stored close-by as well, perhaps in a cupboard or shelf near the door. The Feature 2 distribution plot shows a concentration in the northeast corner of the kitchen; this may be further evidence of a door in the northeast corner of the kitchen (Figure 223).

8.3.1.4 Clothing Group

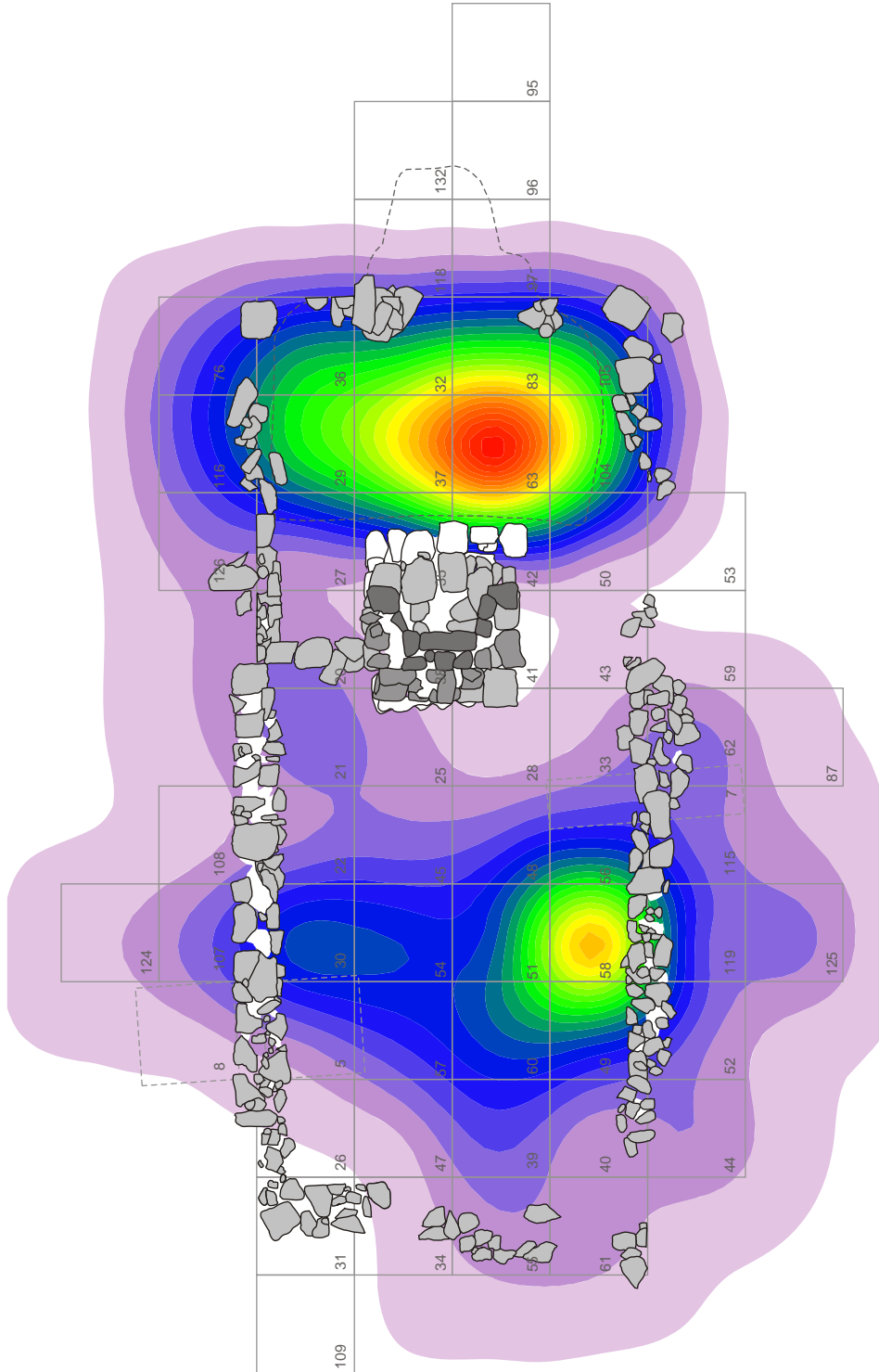
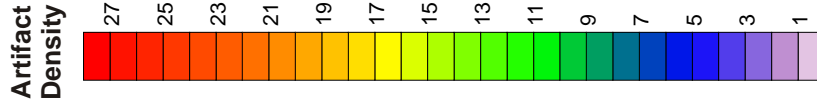
The distribution of clothing artifacts is densely concentrated in the kitchen, and in the southwest and northeast sections of the parlor (Figure 224). These concentrations likely reflect clothing storage areas on the second floor of the house, though clothing may also have been stored in the parlor and cellar. Several clothing sub-groups were examined, including beads, buttons, buckles, studs, corsets, shoes, grommets, and fasteners.

Clothing fasteners were widely distributed across the house, with concentrations in the kitchen and northeast section of the parlor (Figure 225). Fasteners include strap adjusters, rivets, snaps, hook-and-eye closures, suspender clasps, and other items used to fasten or hold shut articles of clothing. Their wide distribution across the house likely reflects second story locations of clothing for both men and women.

The button distribution shows a dense concentration in the kitchen and the southwest corner of the parlor, with a moderate distribution across the southwest and northeast sections of the parlor (Figure 226). The distribution primarily reflects second story locations of clothing; although some post-fire redistribution may have occurred, given the southwest parlor concentration (i.e., most artifact groups show a concentration here). The buttons represent clothing for both men and women.

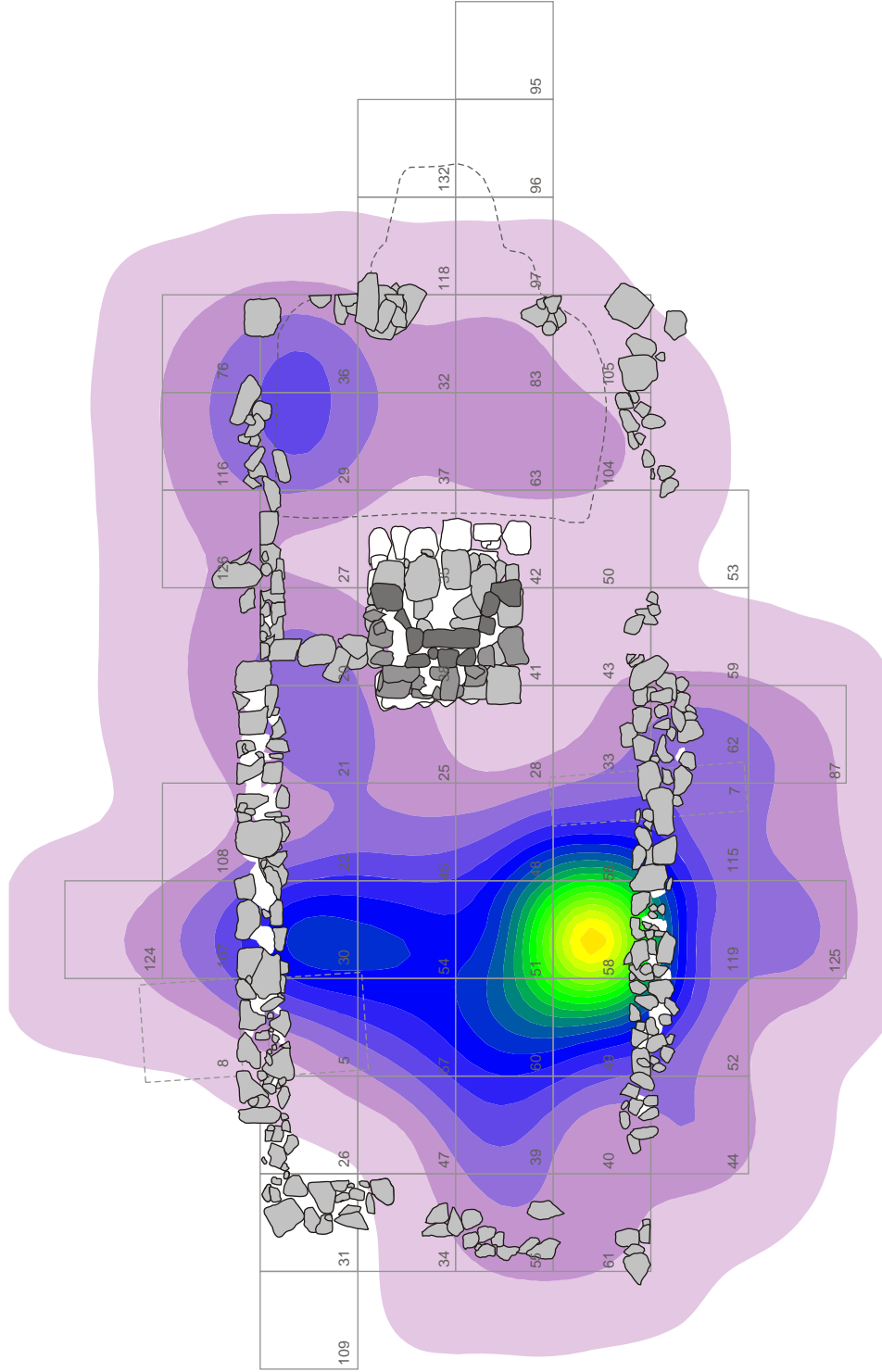
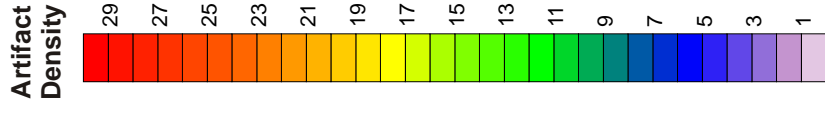
The distribution of shoes again shows a high concentration in the kitchen (Figure 227). This probably reflects second story storage of shoes, as it is not likely shoes would be stored in a cold, damp cellar or in the kitchen where they would be in the way (unless they were put near a fire to dry). A large number of grommets were recovered from the excavations; their distribution shows a high concentration in the central part of the kitchen, with lighter concentrations in the southwest corner of the kitchen and in the parlor (Figure 228). The grommets are probably shoe grommets, although some could be associated with corsets. The distribution of corset parts is also concentrated in the kitchen, especially along the south wall (Figure 229). This could reflect the location of a dresser or wardrobe on the second floor.

Distribution plots were generated for other sub-groups, such as beads, buckles, and studs (Figures 230, 231, and 232). The plots show slightly different concentrations that likely reflect the locations of clothing and storage furniture on the second floor. Beads were concentrated in the south-central kitchen and south wall of the parlor at the south door. Most of the beads were black hexagonal or round seed beads that were likely used to decorate clothing or accessories (e.g., hats, parasols, or purses). Buckles and studs show higher concentrations in the kitchen, and buckles also show concentrations in the northeast corner of the parlor.



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II		Structure A, Arms Group Distribution	
SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)		PROJECT NO. 20831016	
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 222	





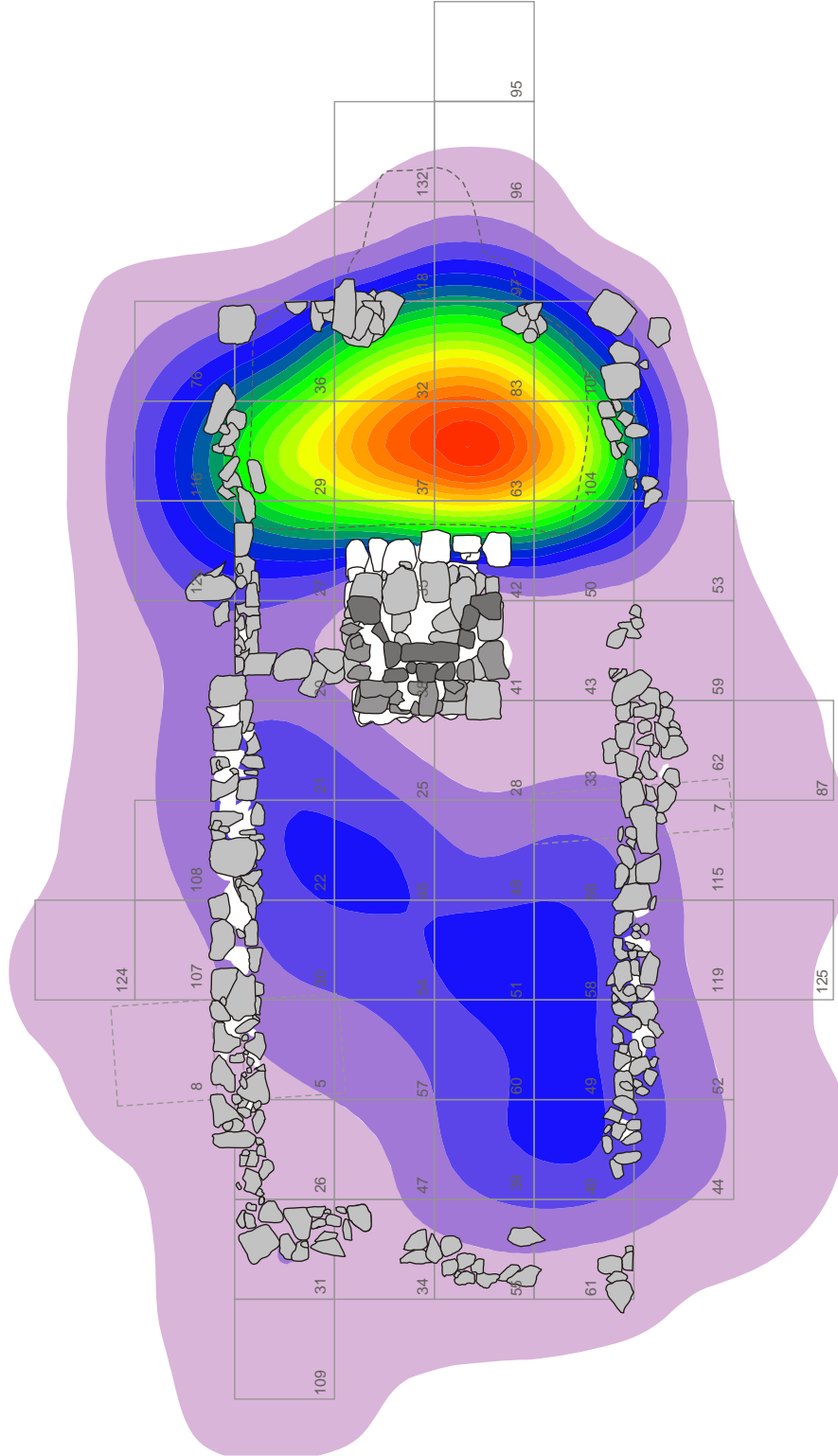
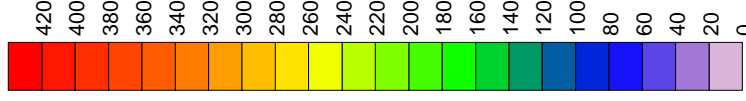
PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II
SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)
SOURCE URS



Structure A, Feature 2 Arms Group Distribution

PROJECT NO. 20831016
FIGURE NO. 223

Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

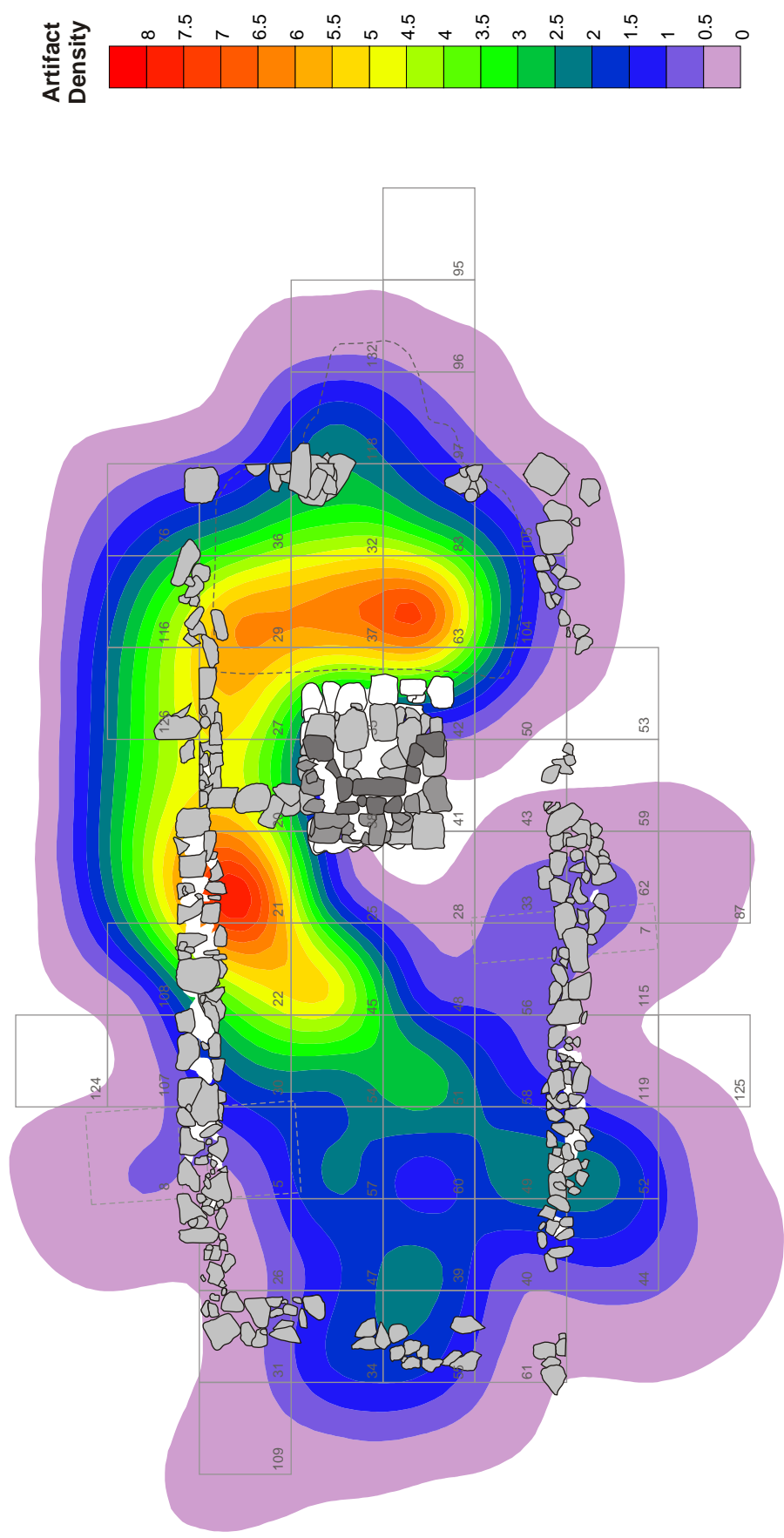
SOURCE URS

Structure A, Clothing Group Distribution



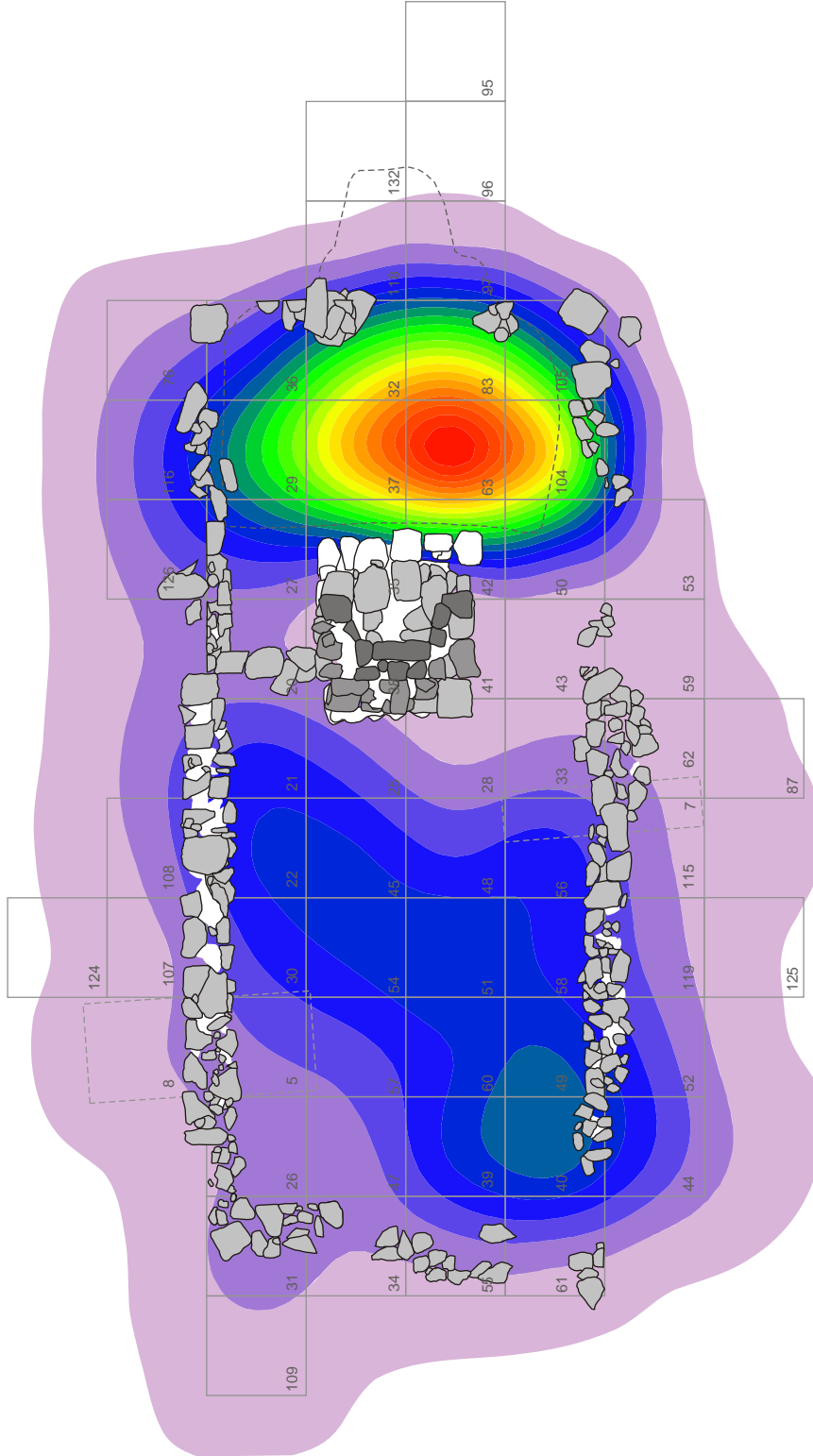
PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 224



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft) SOURCE URS	Structure A, Fastener Sub-Group Distribution	
	URS	
	PROJECT NO. 20831016	FIGURE NO. 225

Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

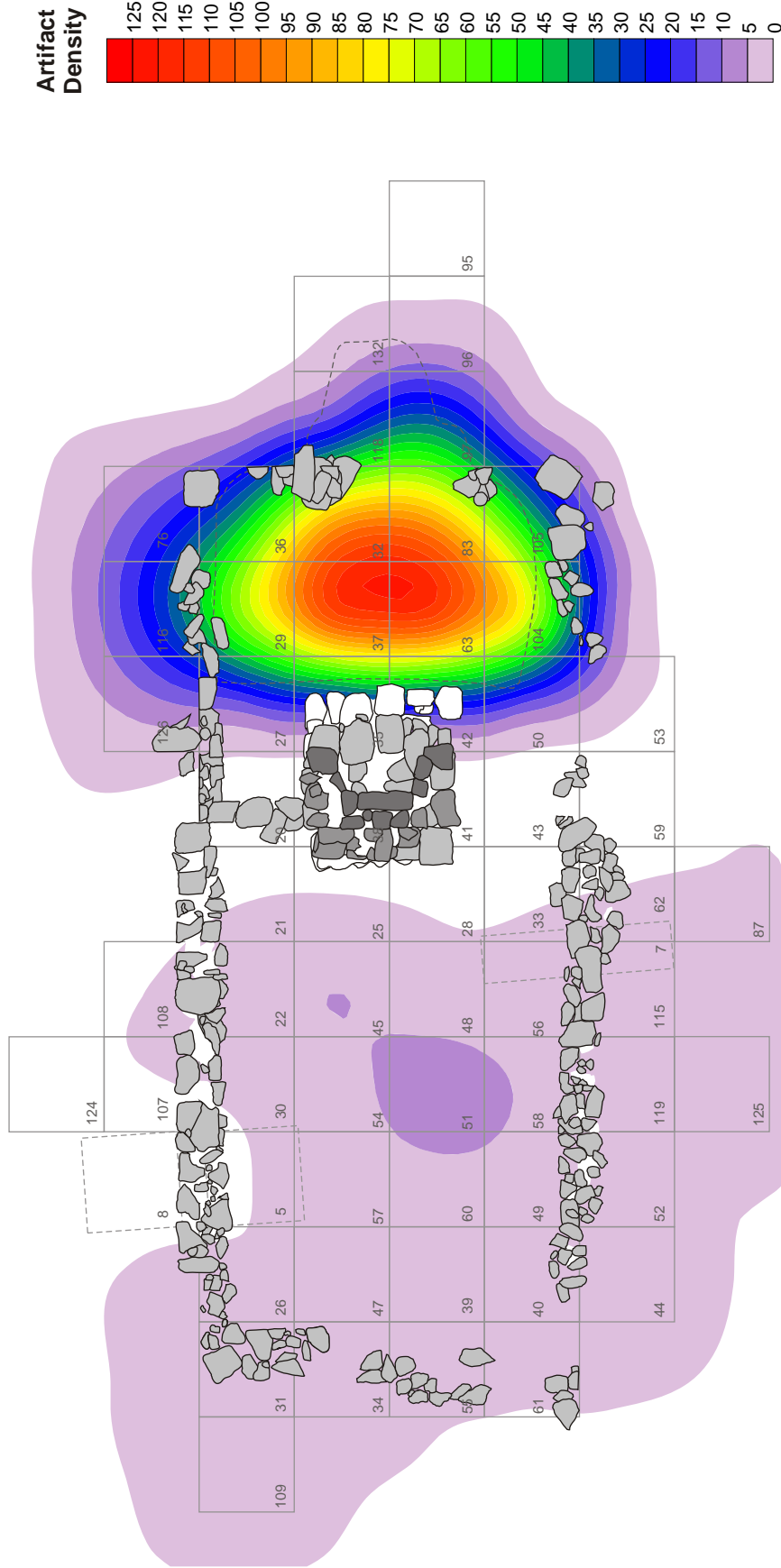
SOURCE URS

Structure A, Button Sub-Group Distribution

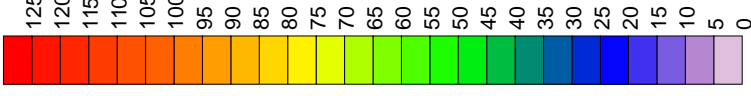


PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 226



Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

SOURCE URS

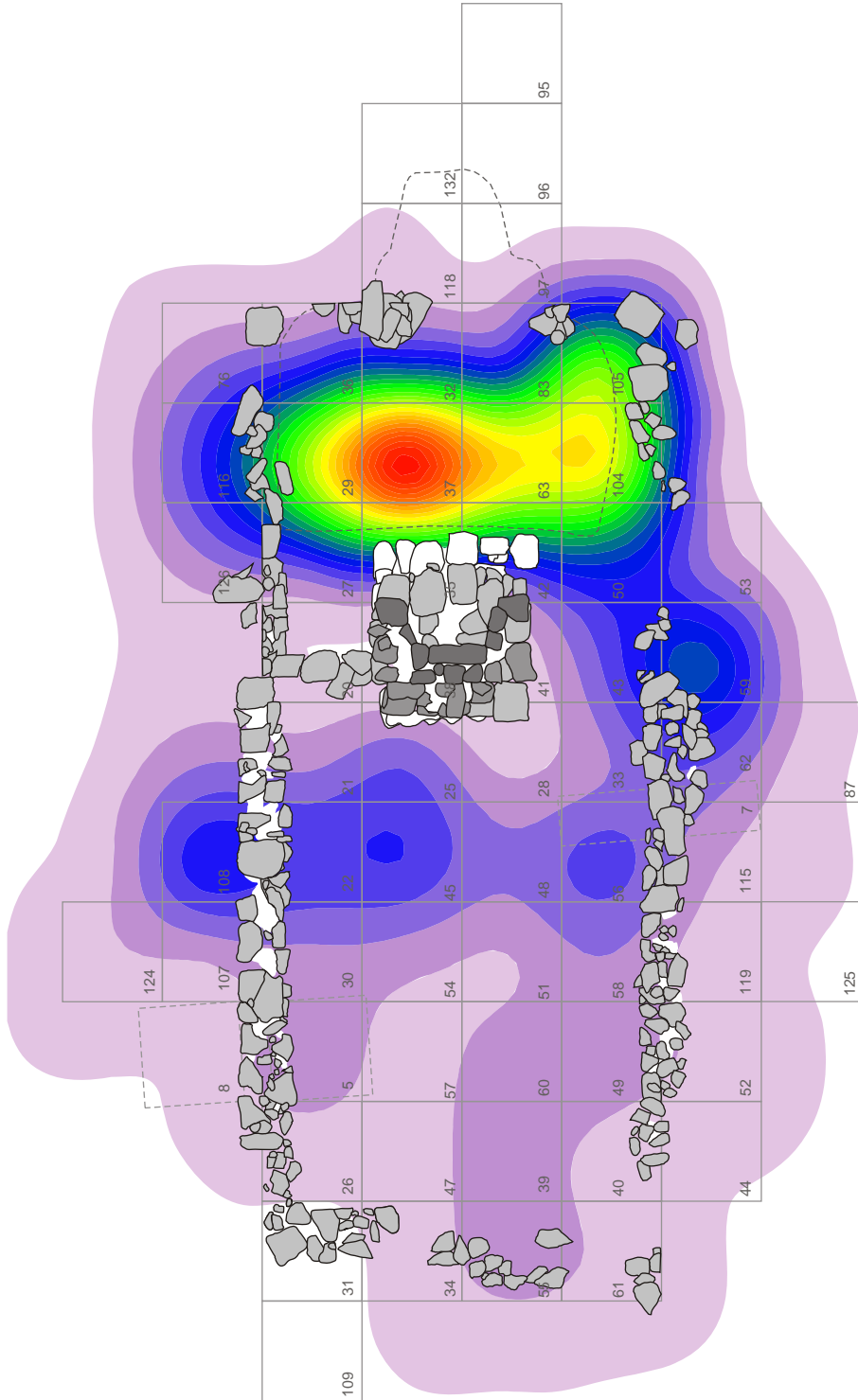
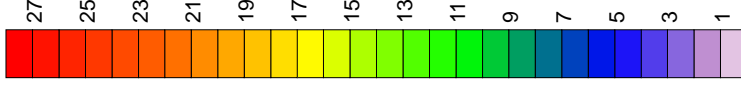
Structure A, Shoes Sub-Group Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 227

Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

SOURCE URS

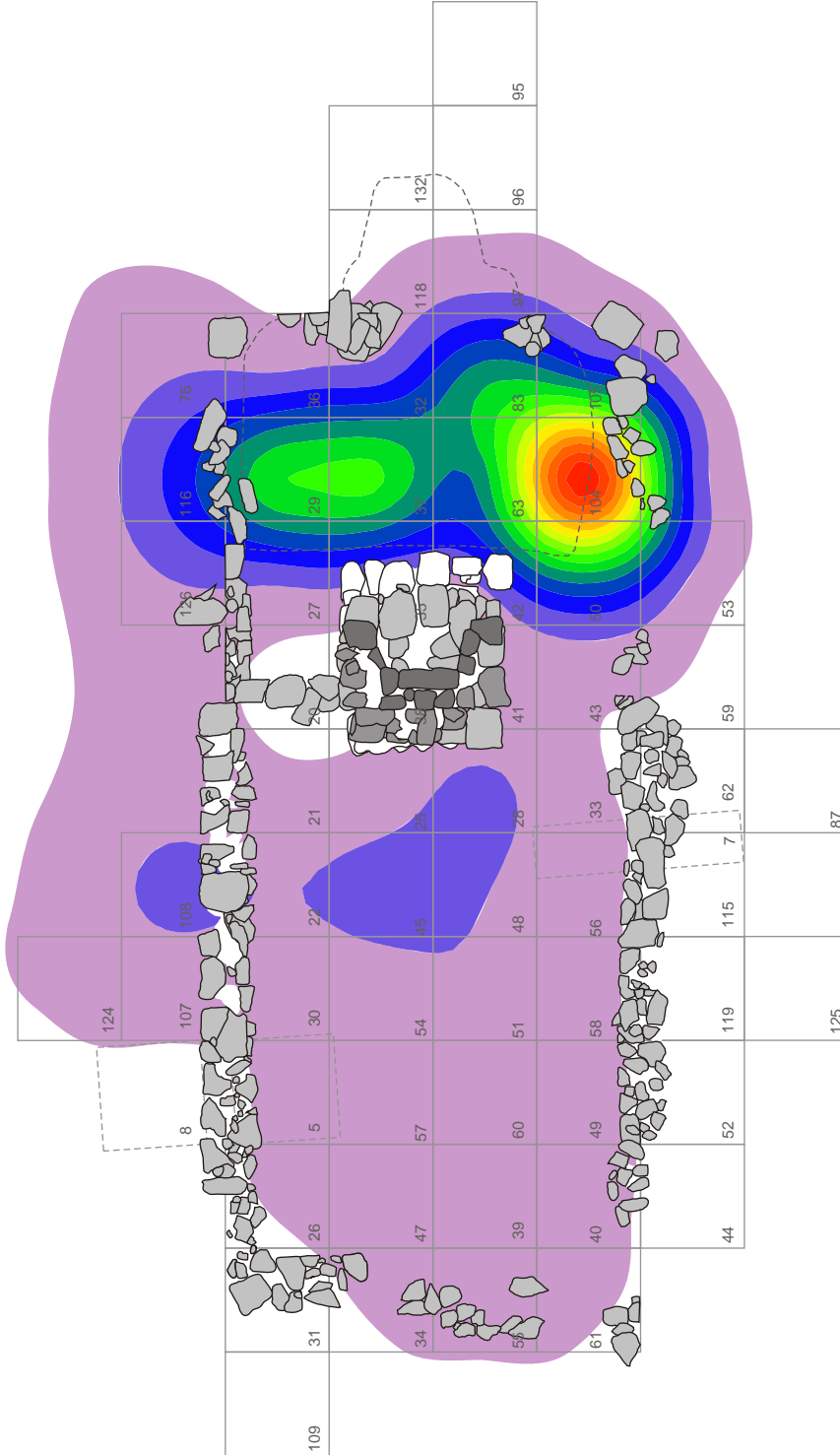
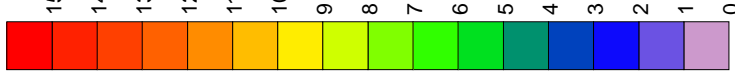
Structure A, Grommet Sub-Group Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 228

Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

SOURCE URS

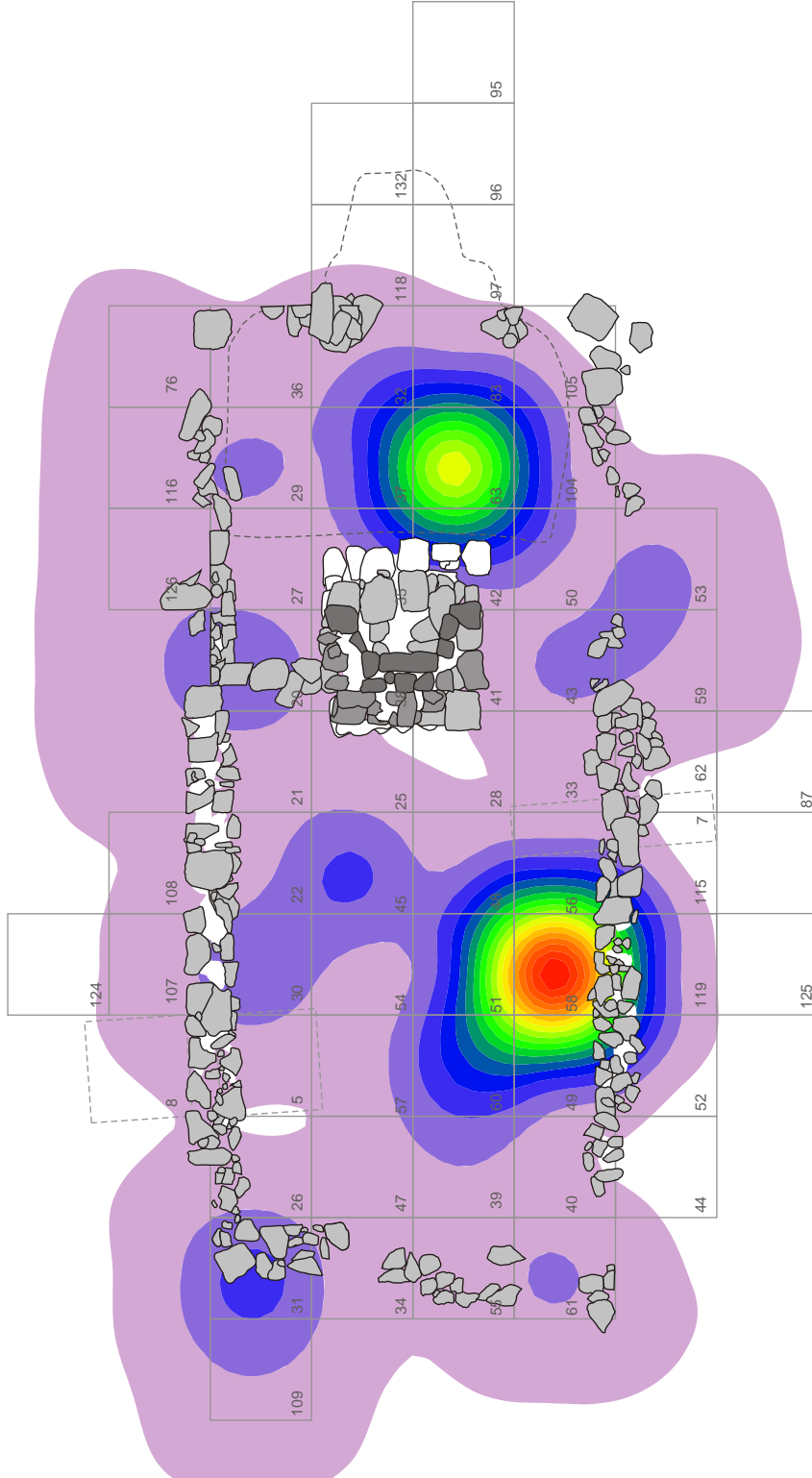
Structure A, Corset Sub-Group Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 229

Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

SOURCE URS

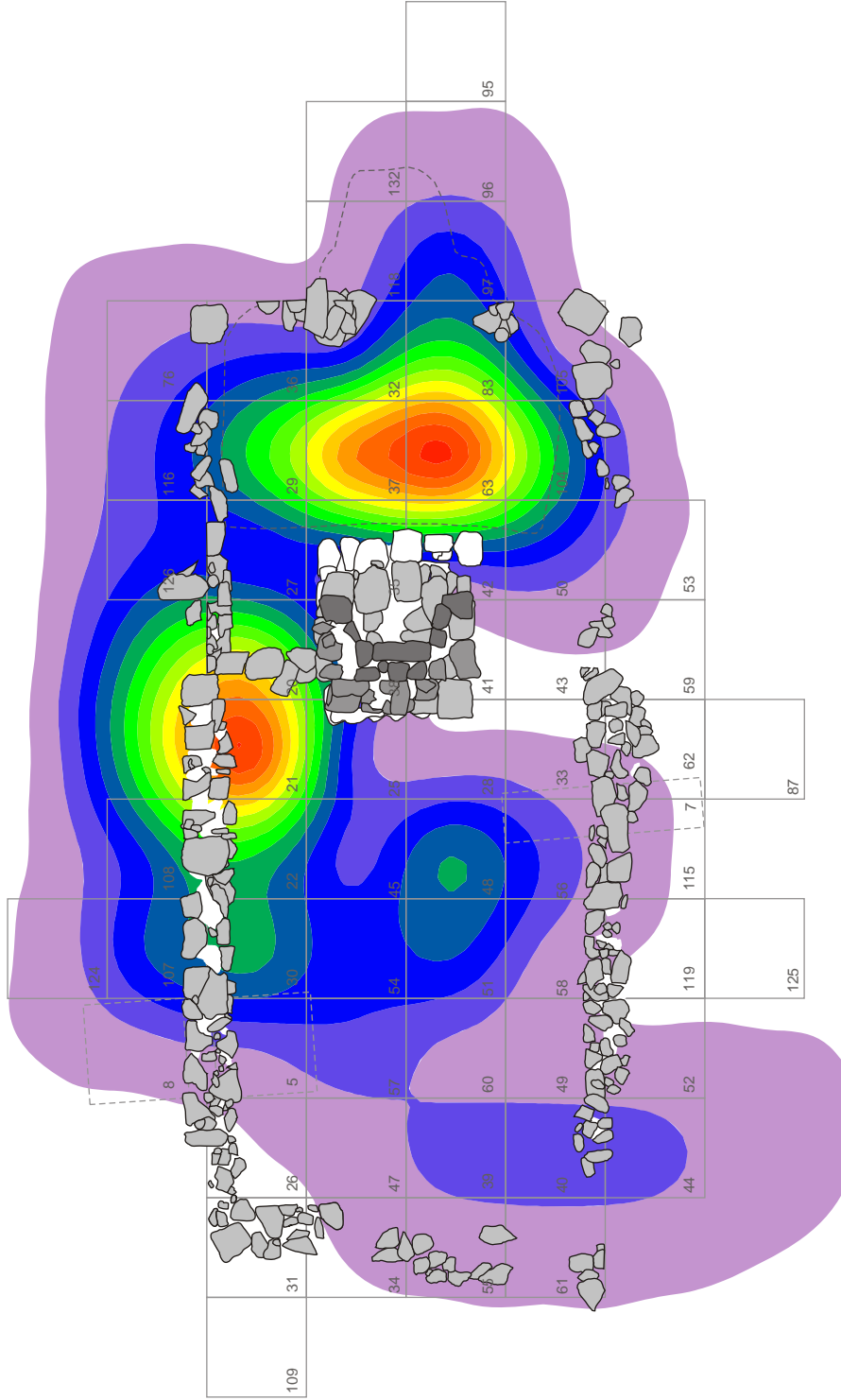
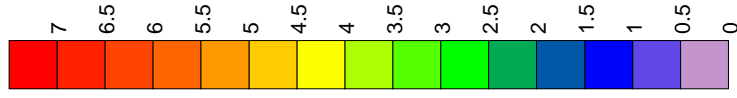
Structure A, Bead Sub-Group Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 230

Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

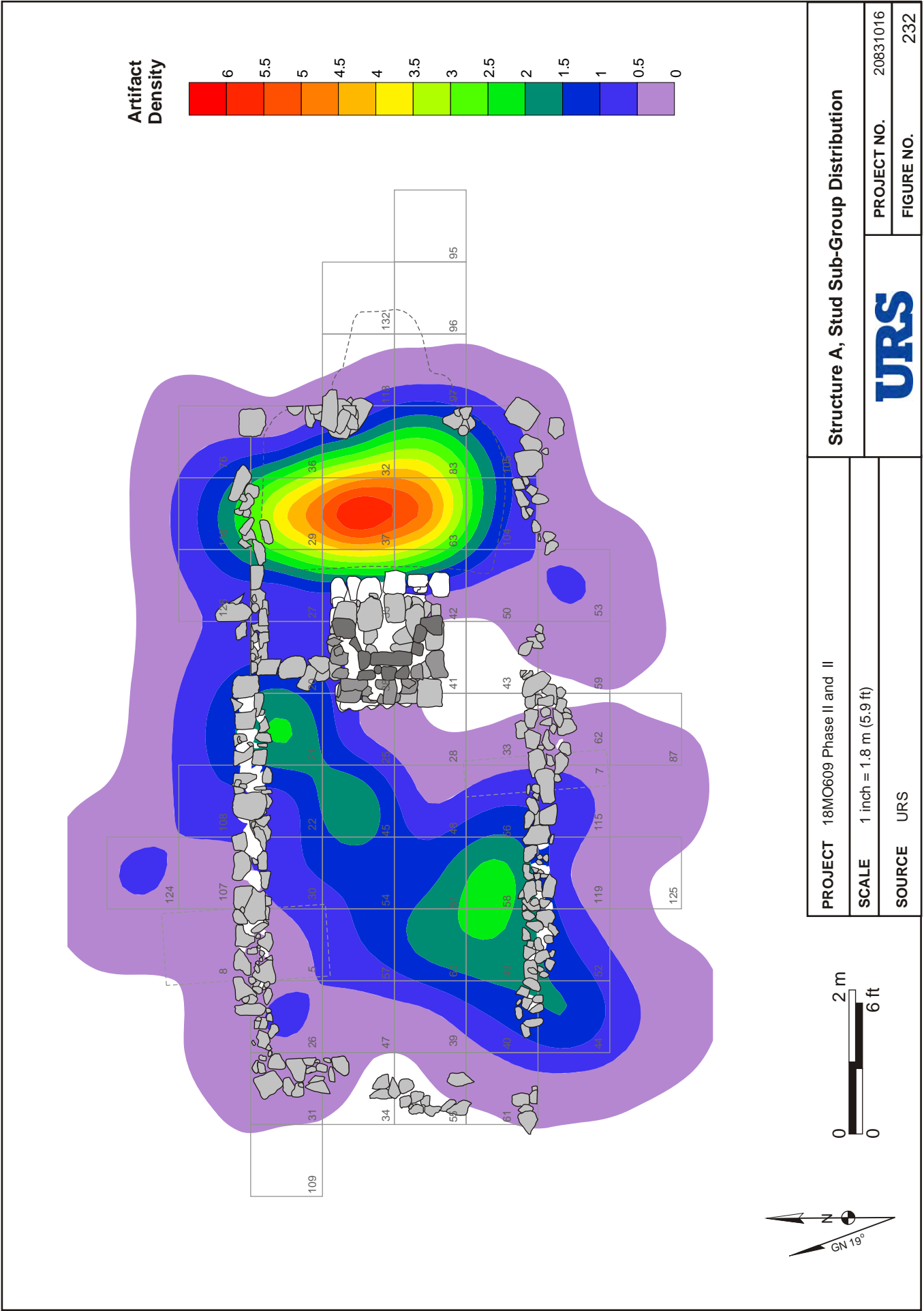
SOURCE URS

Structure A, Buckle Sub-Group Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 231



Other sub-groups did not show strong distributions. The large number of fabric from the kitchen side reflects primarily small fragments recovered from flotation contexts. The fabric was either too small or too degraded to determine if it was from clothing, linens, furniture, or other items.

The distributions of all clothing sub-groups together may show some gender differentiation in the upstairs rooms. While many of the sub-groups include items used by men and women (e.g., buttons), other artifacts, such as corset parts and beads, are primarily associated with women's clothing. The locations of these artifacts on the kitchen side may indicate the women's bedrooms were located above the kitchen, while bedrooms for both men and women were located above the parlor.

8.3.1.5 Faunal Group

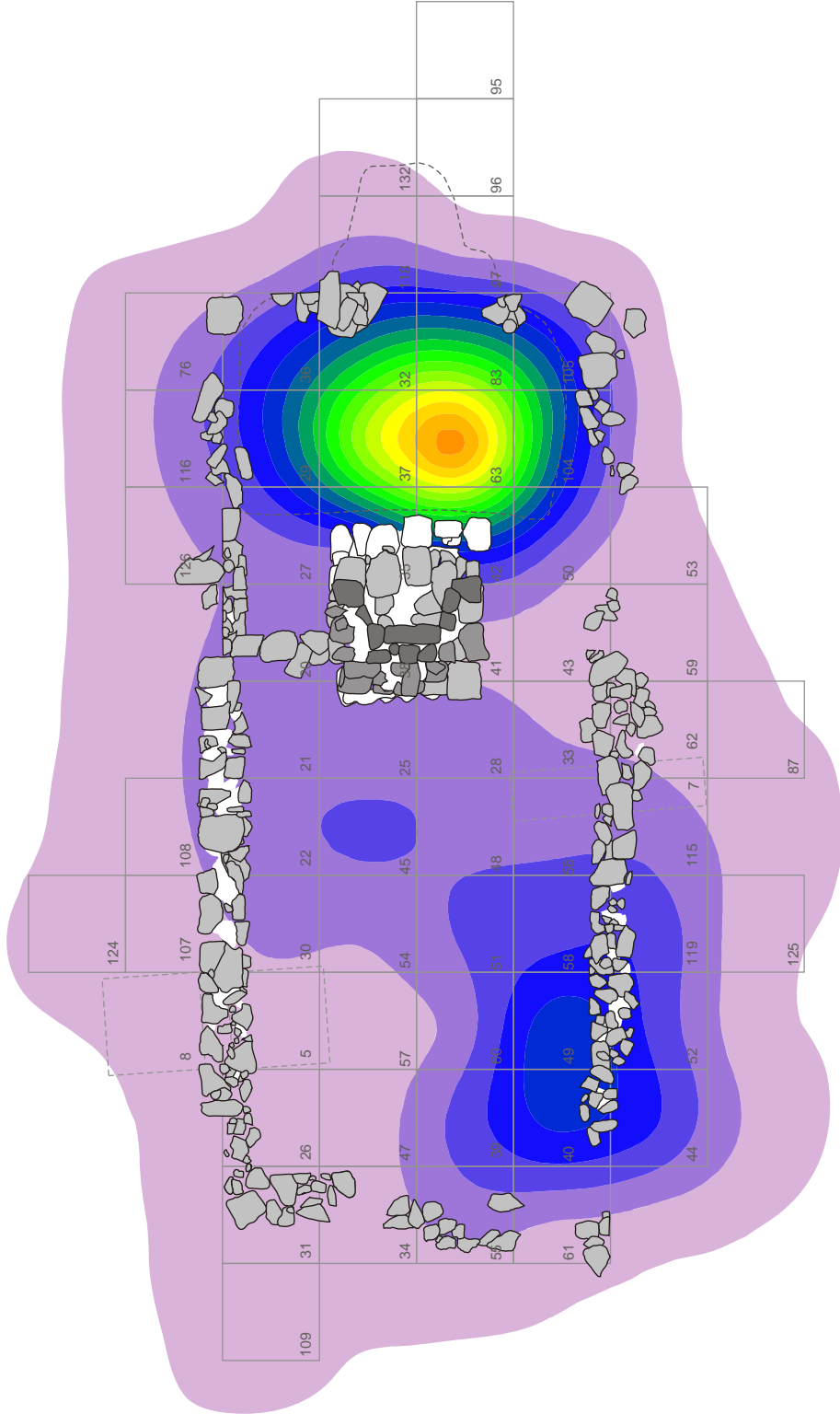
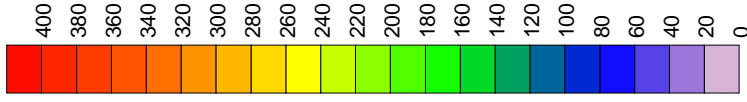
The majority of faunal remains were recovered from flotation. Two distribution plots were generated for the faunal group (Figures 233 and 234). The first is the distribution of faunal remains from excavated contexts that shows concentrations in the kitchen and southwest corner of the parlor (Figure 233). The second plot shows the distribution of faunal remains from both excavated and flotation contexts (Figure 234). This distribution plot is similar to the first, in that it shows concentrations in the kitchen and southwest corner of the parlor. The plot with flotation data reflects the sampling strategy for flotation – the concentration in TU 63 in the kitchen is because every layer was sampled for flotation in this TU, while only a few layers were sampled in surrounding TUs. The faunal remains were separated into food and non-food categories to see if the distribution plots showed any patterning; these plots mirrored the distribution of all faunal data and showed no appreciable patterning.

The concentration in the southwest parlor reflects the sampling strategy (the concentration roughly coincides with TUs sampled for flotation). The concentration may also reflect an interesting pattern. The concentration in TU 58 was near the location of a pie safe (discussed below) and possibly other food storage or preparation areas. The majority of the faunal remains from this context are eggshells (n=1,011). TUs immediately surrounding TU 58 had significantly fewer eggshells (between 100 and 250). This concentration of eggshells could represent a freshly collected basket of eggs that was stored in the parlor.

8.3.1.6 Floral Group

Floral remains include seeds, nutshell, and wood. Not surprisingly, charred wood is ubiquitous and was recovered or noted in every excavation unit; therefore, distribution plots were not generated for the wood category. The distribution plot for floral remains shows concentrations that coincide with the locations where flotation samples were taken, so no patterning in overall floral remains was observed. Likewise, non-food floral remains show no patterning. For the food/medicinal remains, only the fleshy fruit and herbaceous categories (i.e., seeds) contain enough data to generate meaningful distribution plots (Figure 235). While these plots clearly reflect the flotation sampling strategy, they do indicate general patterns that are echoed in other datasets. The seeds are concentrated in the kitchen and south wall of the parlor. The nutshell distribution, however, shows a completely different pattern (Figure 236). The nutshells, which include beech family, black walnut, and hickory, are strongly concentrated in the parlor, with a lighter concentration in the southwest corner of the kitchen near the hearth.

Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

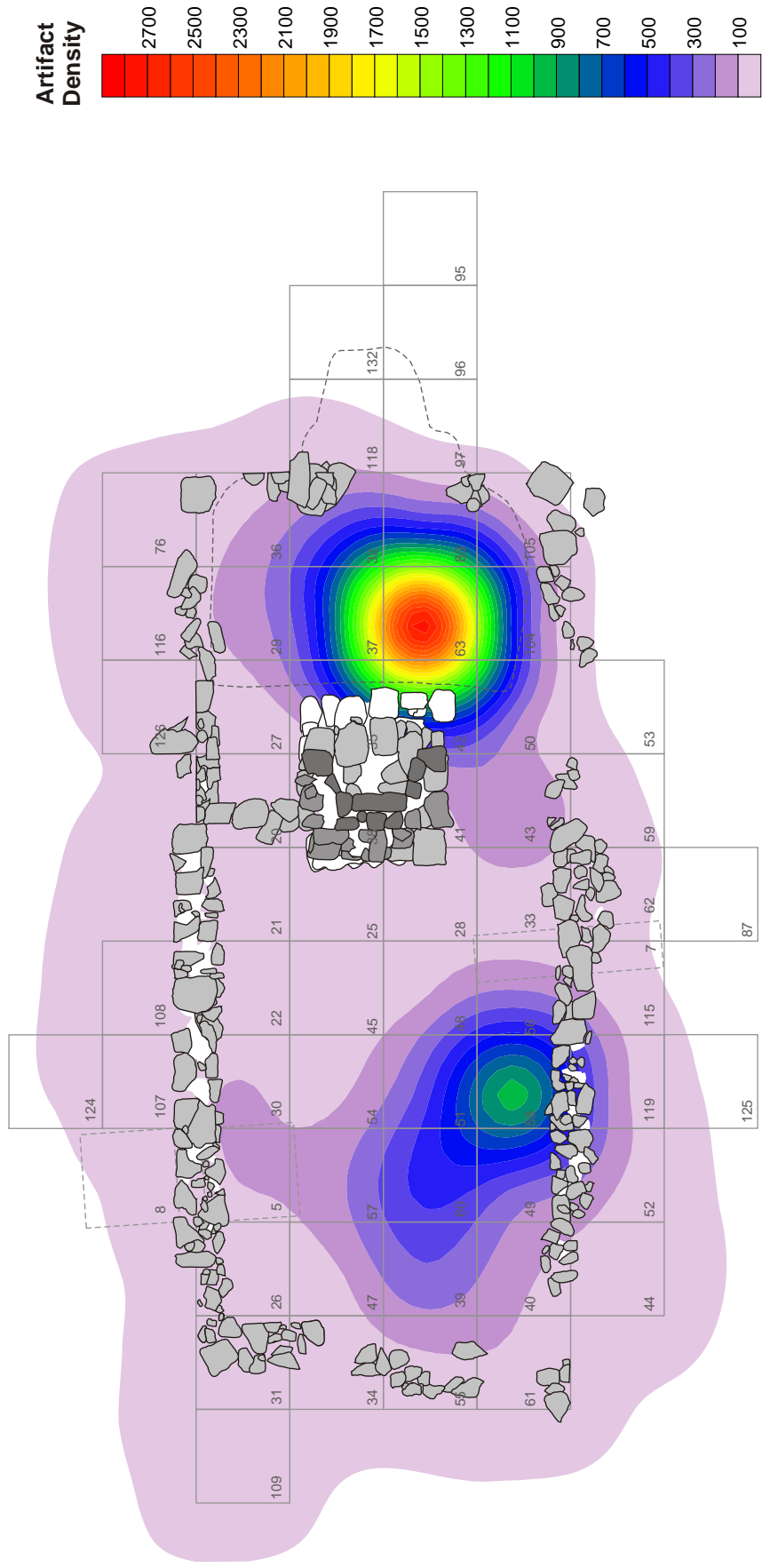
SOURCE URS

**Structure A, Faunal Group Distribution,
Excavated Contexts**



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 233



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

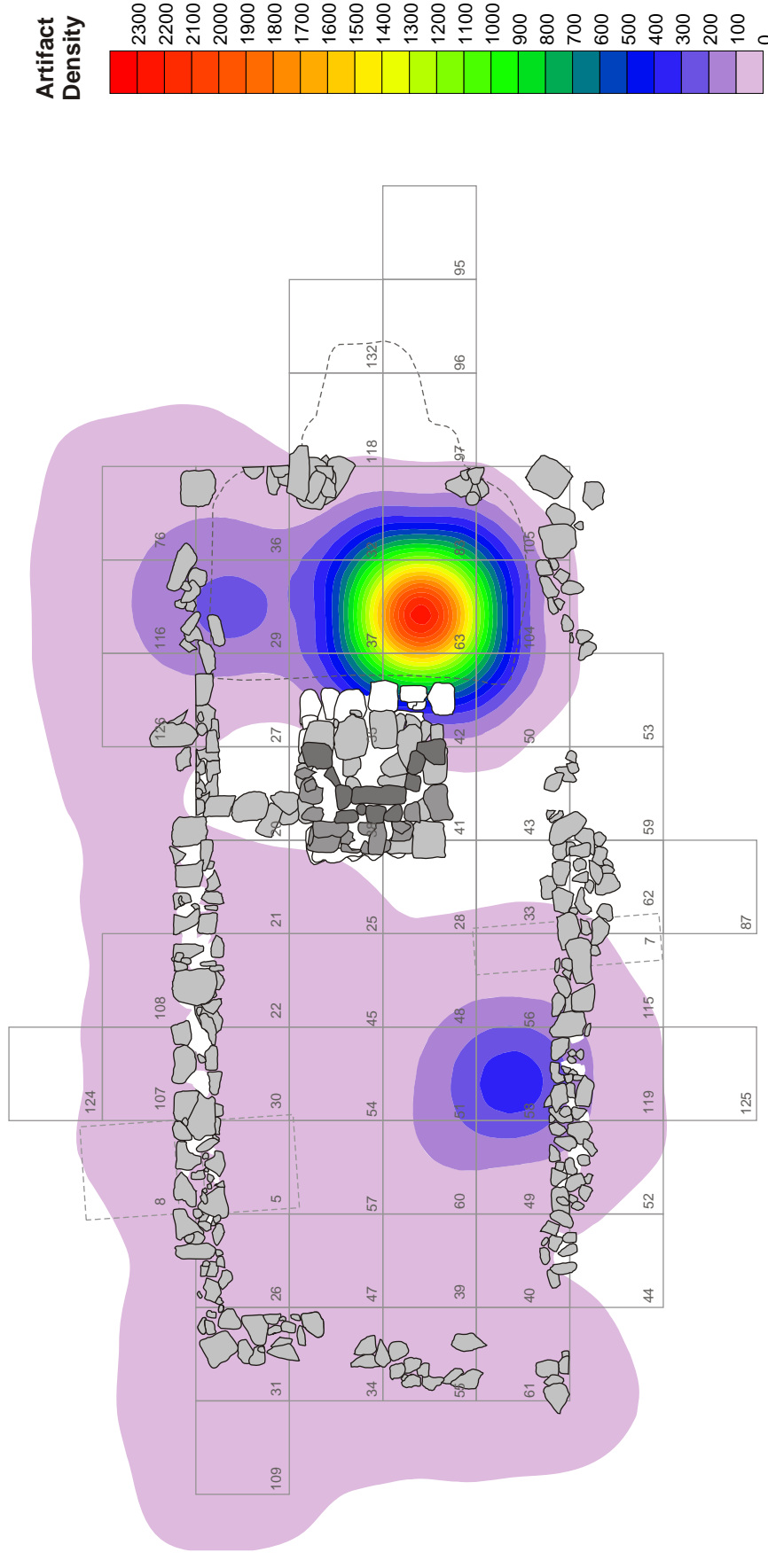
SOURCE URS

**Structure A, Faunal Group Distribution,
Excavated and Flotation Contexts**

PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 234



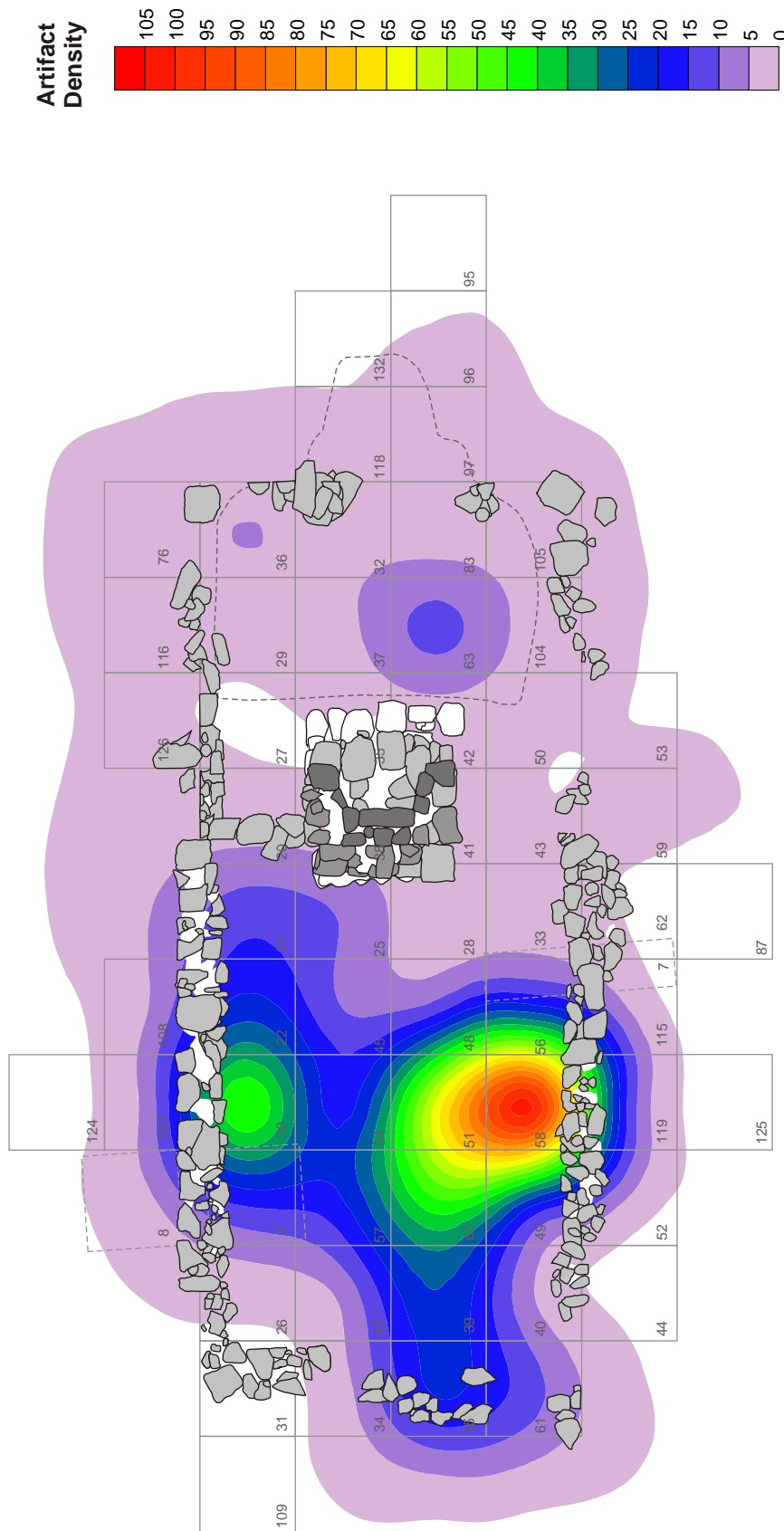


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II
SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)
SOURCE URS

Structure A, Floral Group, Food/Medicinal Seed Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016
FIGURE NO. 235



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II
SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)
SOURCE URS



Structure A, Floral Group, Nut Distribution

PROJECT NO. 20831016
FIGURE NO. 236

These patterns are not surprising; the fleshy fruits include berries, grapes, cherries, peaches, plum, and pear. The blackberry or raspberry category was almost exclusively identified from the kitchen, and could represent canned preserves or fresh fruit. Strawberries, peaches, plum, and pear were concentrated in the parlor and could represent fresh fruit or preserves. The strawberry seeds likely represent canned preserves, while the peaches, plum, and pear more likely represent fresh fruit, as their seeds would have been removed during the canning process. Grapes and cherries were more evenly distributed between the kitchen and parlor. The grapes likely represent fresh fruit, while the cherries could represent fresh fruit or canned goods. Cherries can be canned with or without their pits.

The pokeweed is concentrated in the parlor but is also found in the kitchen. The seeds are inedible, so would have been removed from any jellies or greens prepared for consumption. The seeds have possible medicinal uses and may have been used in West African-derived spiritual practices. The broad distribution across the parlor and kitchen likely reflects numerous uses of this plant.

The nutshell concentration in the parlor could reflect consumption or preparation. Black walnuts must be shelled very soon after they are harvested or the oils in the nut meat turn rancid. The beech family (likely chestnut or hazelnut) and hickory nuts could be stored in their shell for longer without spoiling.

8.3.1.7 Furniture Group

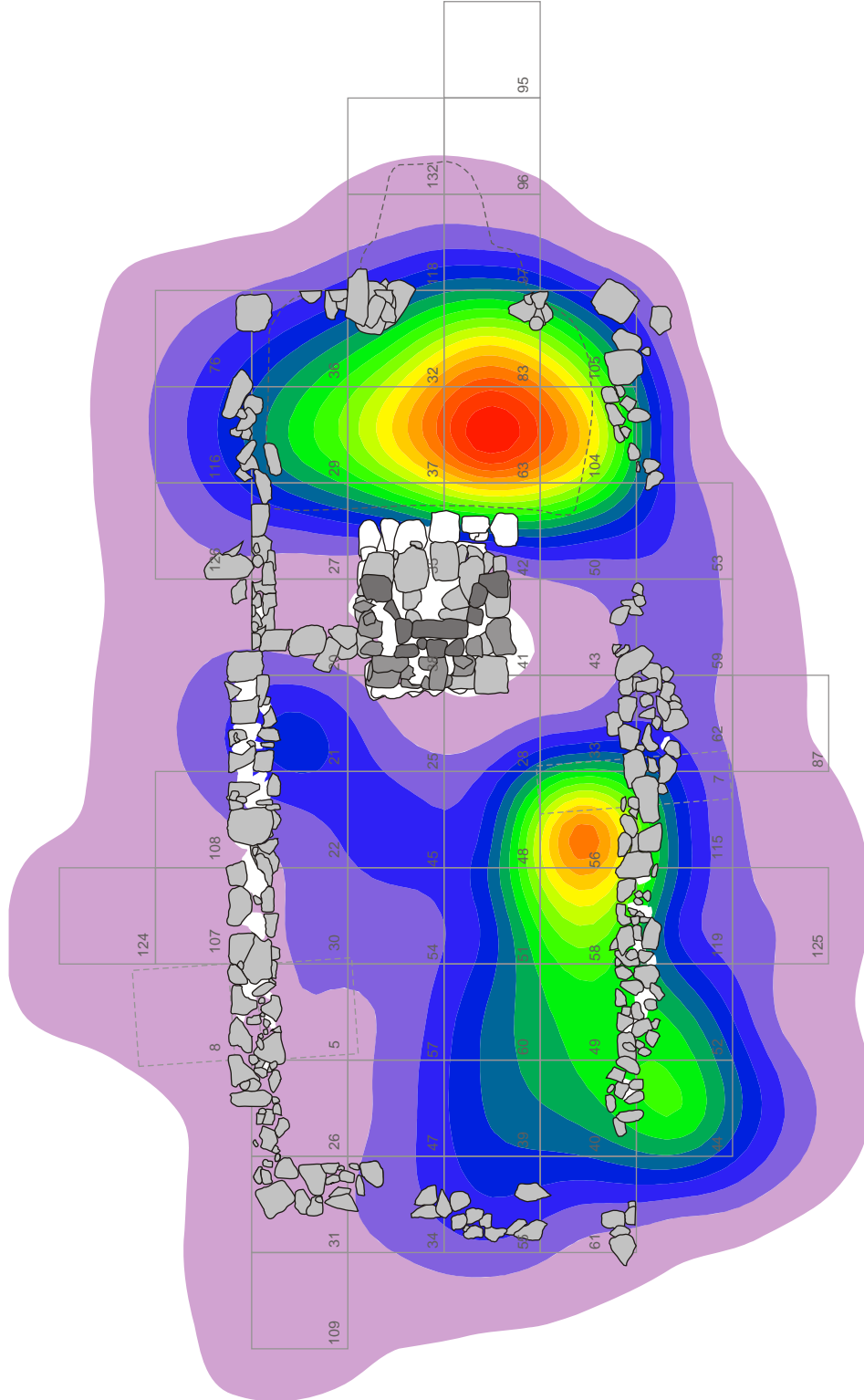
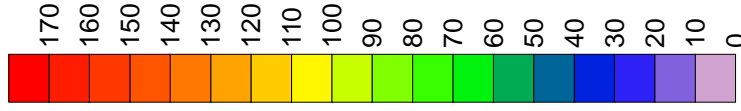
The furniture distribution shows concentrations in the northeast and south walls of the parlor, as well as in the cellar (Figure 237). A low concentration of furniture artifacts was noted in the northwest corner of the parlor, which may be further evidence of a stairway. Furniture hardware (e.g., escutcheons, hinges, key hole surrounds, tacks) was fairly evenly distributed between the kitchen and parlor (Figure 238). In the parlor, furniture hardware was clustered along the north and south walls, suggesting the locations of furniture pieces along these walls on the first and second floors.

Large pieces of furniture noted in the house include two stoves on the north walls in the parlor and kitchen. The parlor stove was located on the west side of the north door in front of a window (a pattern noted in comparative data for the region) and was used for heating. The stove in the kitchen was also located in front of a window and was likely used for cooking. A large cast iron base plate was recovered from this part of the kitchen, which suggests a fairly sizeable stove that likely had an oven for baking. The windows above both stoves would have served as vents for the stove pipes.

A second identifiable large piece of furniture was a pie safe located along the south wall of the parlor (Figure 239). The pie safe is represented by 335 pieces of punched metal that likely formed door panels. Pie safes generally had space for storage, baked goods, and dishes, as well as countertop workspace. There may also have been areas for storage of ingredients, such as flour and spices (similar to a Hoosier).

Smaller furniture pieces noted in the distributions include two clocks (Figure 240). One was located in the northeast corner of the parlor, probably on the first floor. The second clock was located in the kitchen, which, although it is represented by fewer artifacts than the clock in the parlor, indicates a clock was located either on the first or second floor on the kitchen side. The location in the kitchen could also suggest a mantel clock over the fireplace.

Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

SOURCE URS

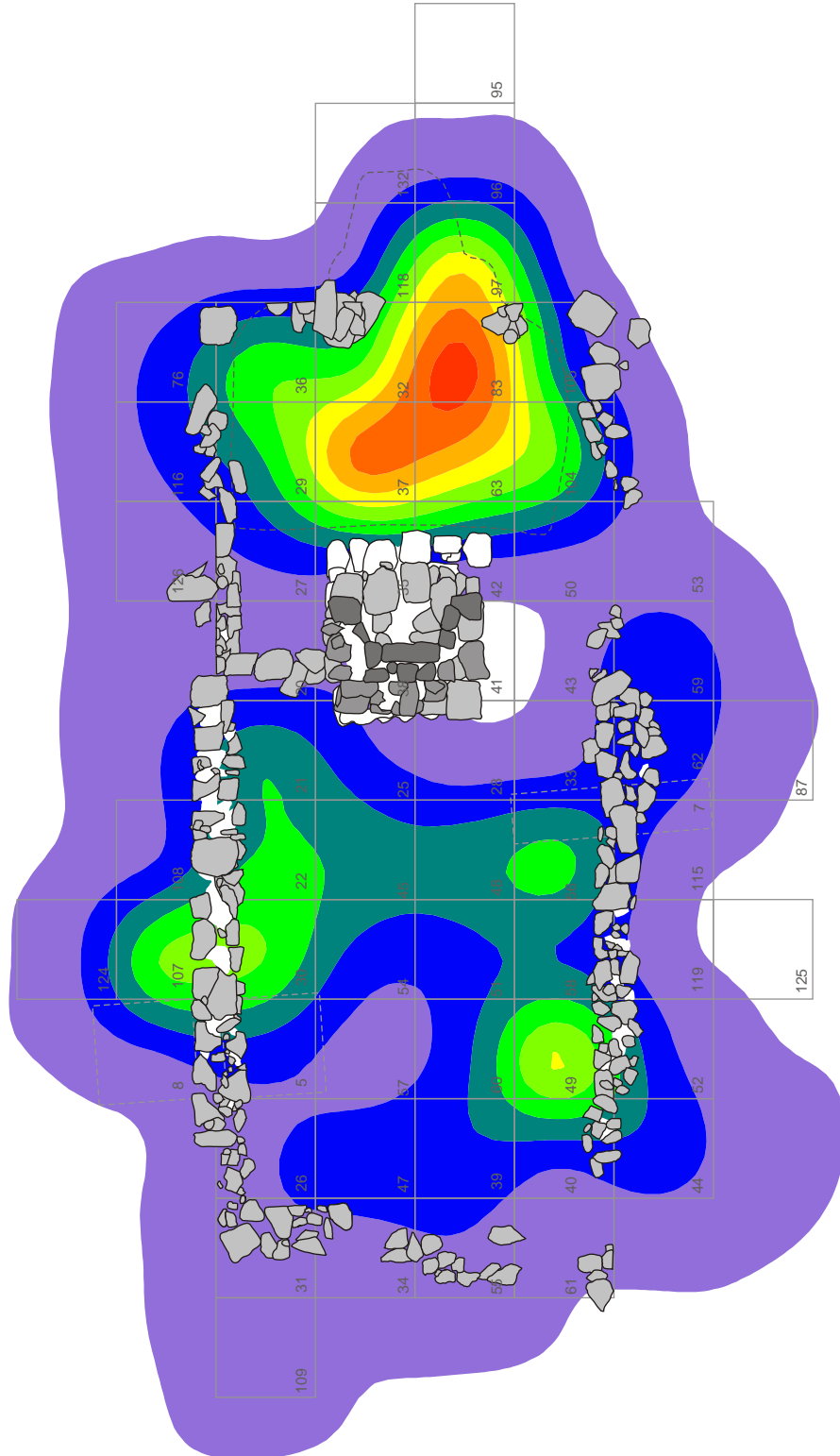
Structure A, Furniture Group Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 237

Artifact Density

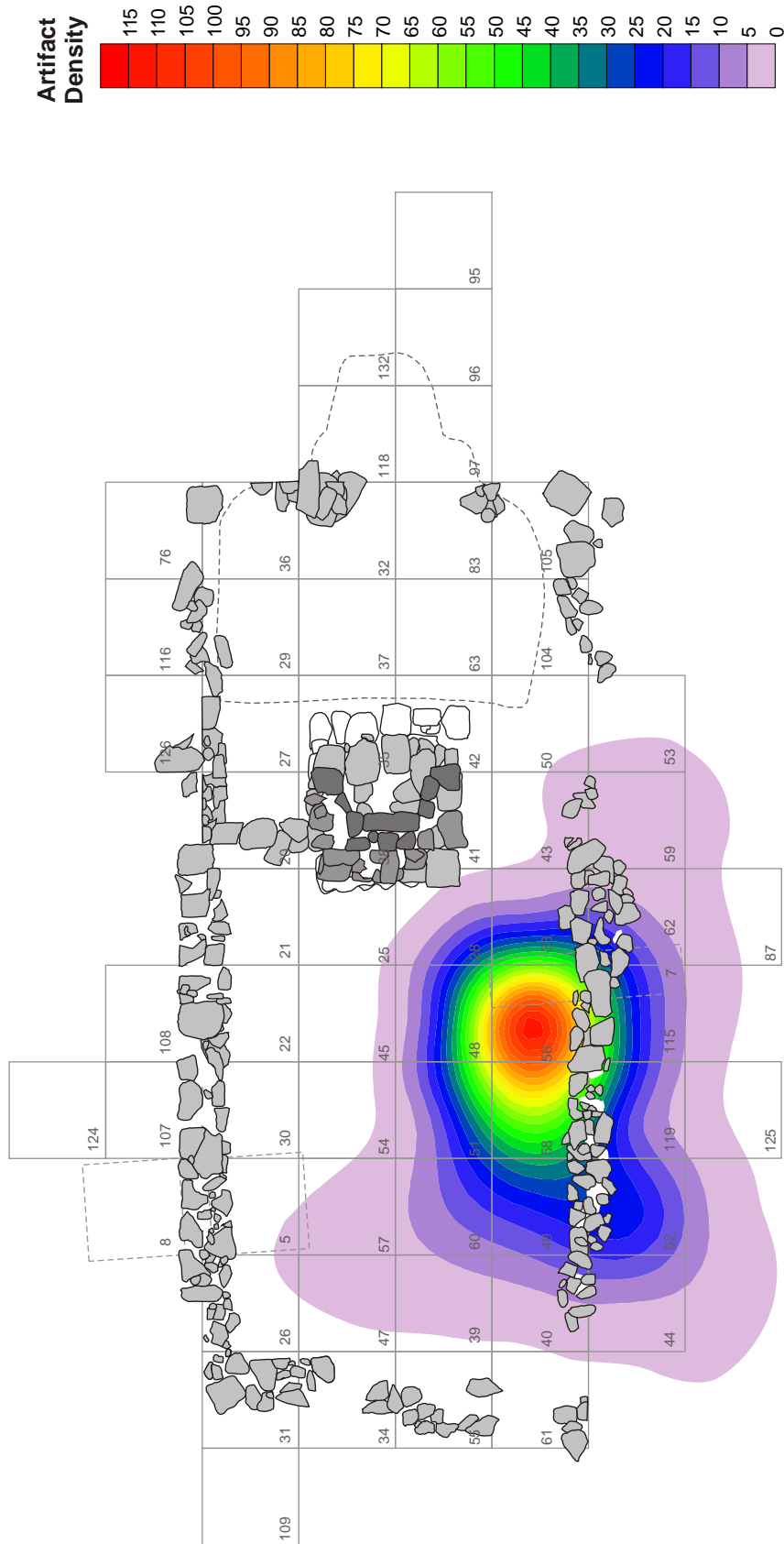


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II
SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)
SOURCE URS

Structure A, Furniture Hardware Sub-Group Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016
FIGURE NO. 238



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

SOURCE URS

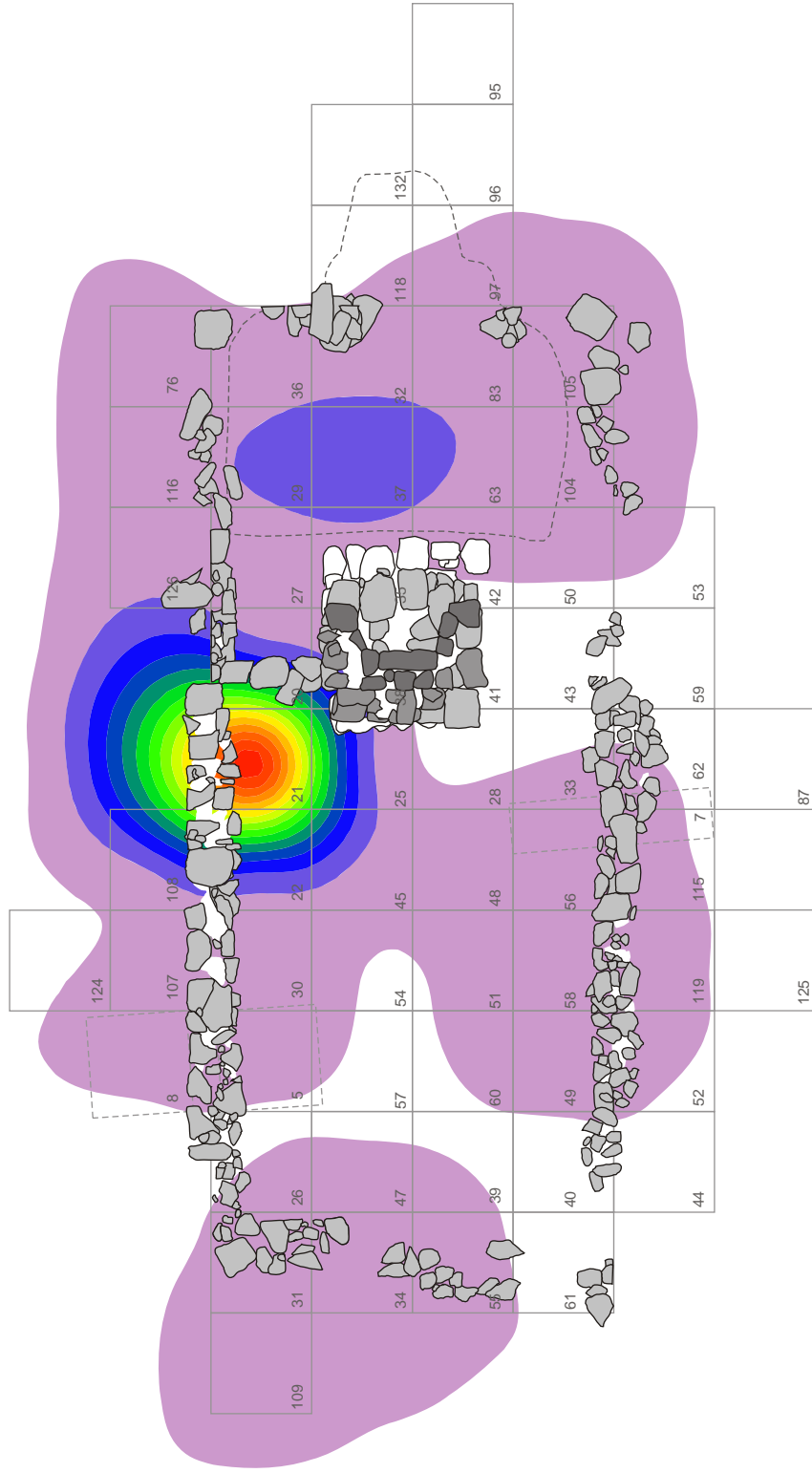
Structure A, Pie Safe Sub-Group Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 239





PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

SOURCE URS

Structure A, Clock Sub-Group Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 240

Mirror fragments were recovered in light concentrations across the parlor and in relatively dense concentrations in the kitchen (Figure 241). A concentration of mirror fragments along the south wall of the parlor may indicate a mirror was mounted on the wall adjacent to the back door, or a mirror was located on the second floor in a bedroom. The dense concentration of mirror fragments in the kitchen may indicate a large floor-length mirror was located in an upstairs bedroom.

Distributions for lighting glass show dense concentrations in the southwest corner of the parlor and in the kitchen (Figure 242). The amount of lighting glass indicates the family used kerosene or oil lamps throughout the house. The dense concentration of lighting glass in the southwest corner of the parlor coincides with the densest concentration of burned artifacts and may have implications for the origin of the house fire (this is discussed in more detail in the Interpretation chapter).

Knickknacks were noted in both kitchen and parlor contexts, and include photographic mattes, vases, figurines, and decorative tile and metal fragments. A possible picture frame and photographic matte were recovered from along the north wall of the parlor, and could indicate pictures that were located on the first or second floors of the parlor. The concentrations of other knickknacks are low, but indicate a variety of decorative objects were located throughout the house.

8.3.1.8 Kitchen Group

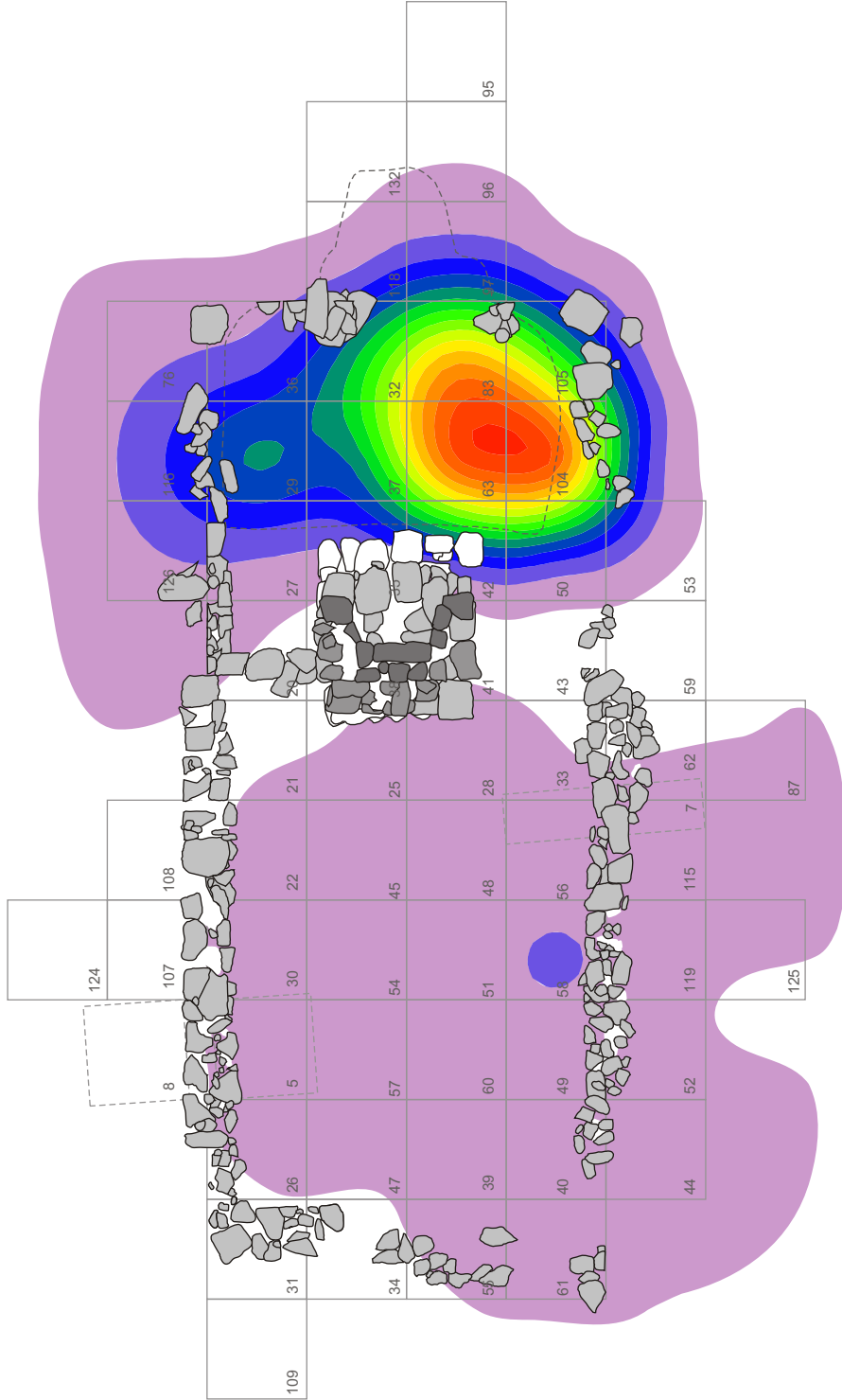
Kitchen artifacts were predominantly concentrated in the cellar, with moderate concentrations along the south wall and southwest corner of the parlor (Figure 243). Ceramic vessels, glass containers, kitchenware, food containers, and tableware distributions were examined. Unidentified glass fragments were observed from every excavated context and, since their distributions would not reveal meaningful patterns, they were not included in the spatial analysis.

8.3.1.8.1 Ceramics

Ceramics were concentrated in the kitchen and cellar contexts, as well as along the south wall, where the pie safe was located, and in the southwest corner of the parlor, where the fire burned most intensely (Figure 244). A variety of ceramic vessel forms were identified in the minimum vessel analysis, including storage, food preparation, serving, and tea service vessels. The distribution patterns of these forms were analyzed for evidence of household activities or organization. Following a discussion of the vessel forms, the distributions of different ceramic ware types is presented.

The storage ceramics were clustered in three areas of the house (Figure 245). The densest concentration was in kitchen cellar, there was a concentration in the northwest corner of kitchen, and a low to moderate concentration along the south wall of the parlor, near where the pie safe was located. The stoneware bottles (n=20, MNV=5) were all recovered from the cellar fill (Feature 5). These bottles originally contained German mineral water, but could have been reused to store any liquid.

The ceramic jars (n=105, MNV=3) include redware and stoneware examples. The jars were most concentrated in the northwest corner of the kitchen in a location presumed to have under-the-stair storage or a cupboard (Figure 246). A moderate concentration was noted in the cellar and one jar was recovered from the pie safe area.



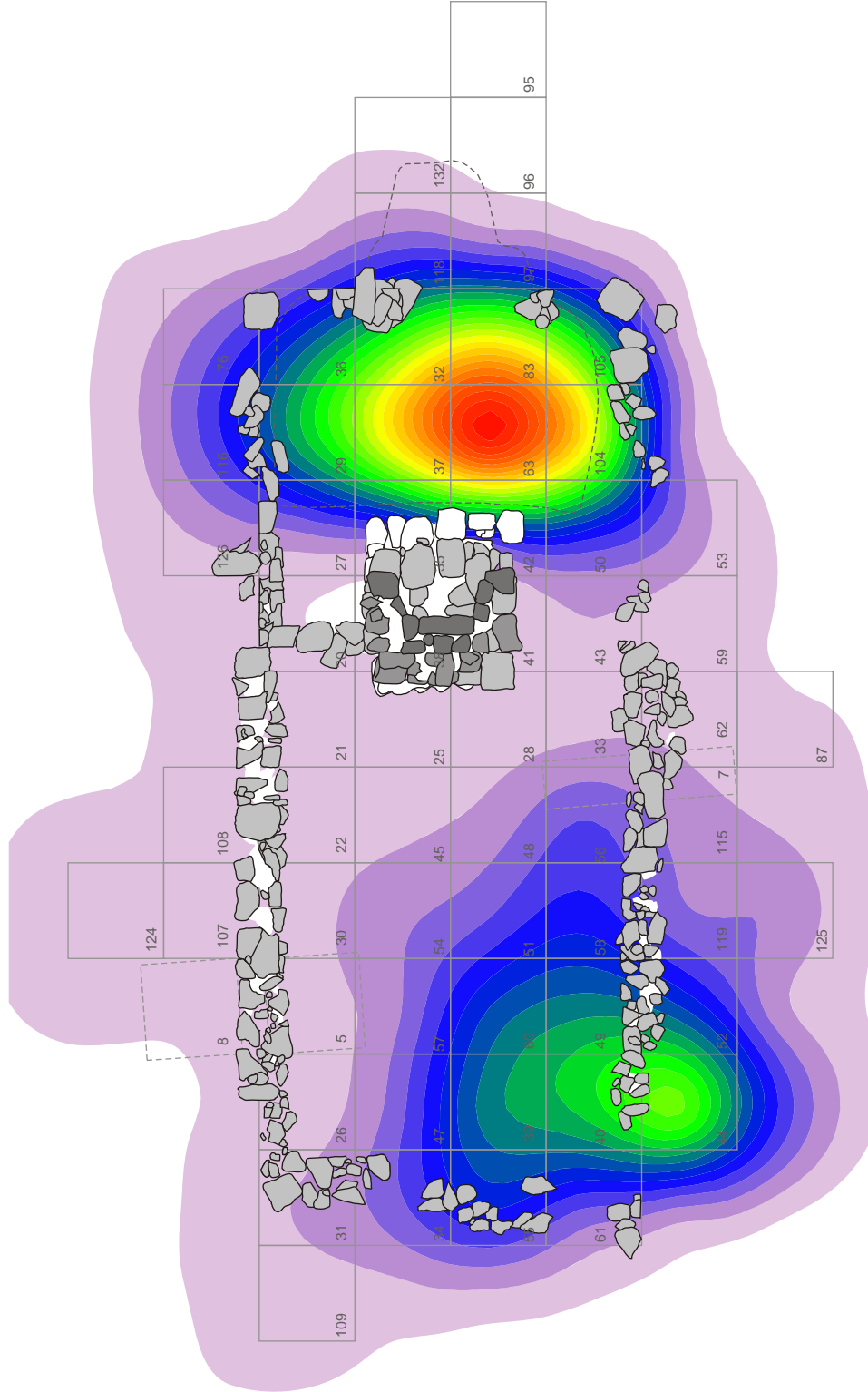
PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II
SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)
SOURCE URS



Structure A, Mirror Sub-Group Distribution

PROJECT NO. 20831016
FIGURE NO. 241

Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

SOURCE URS

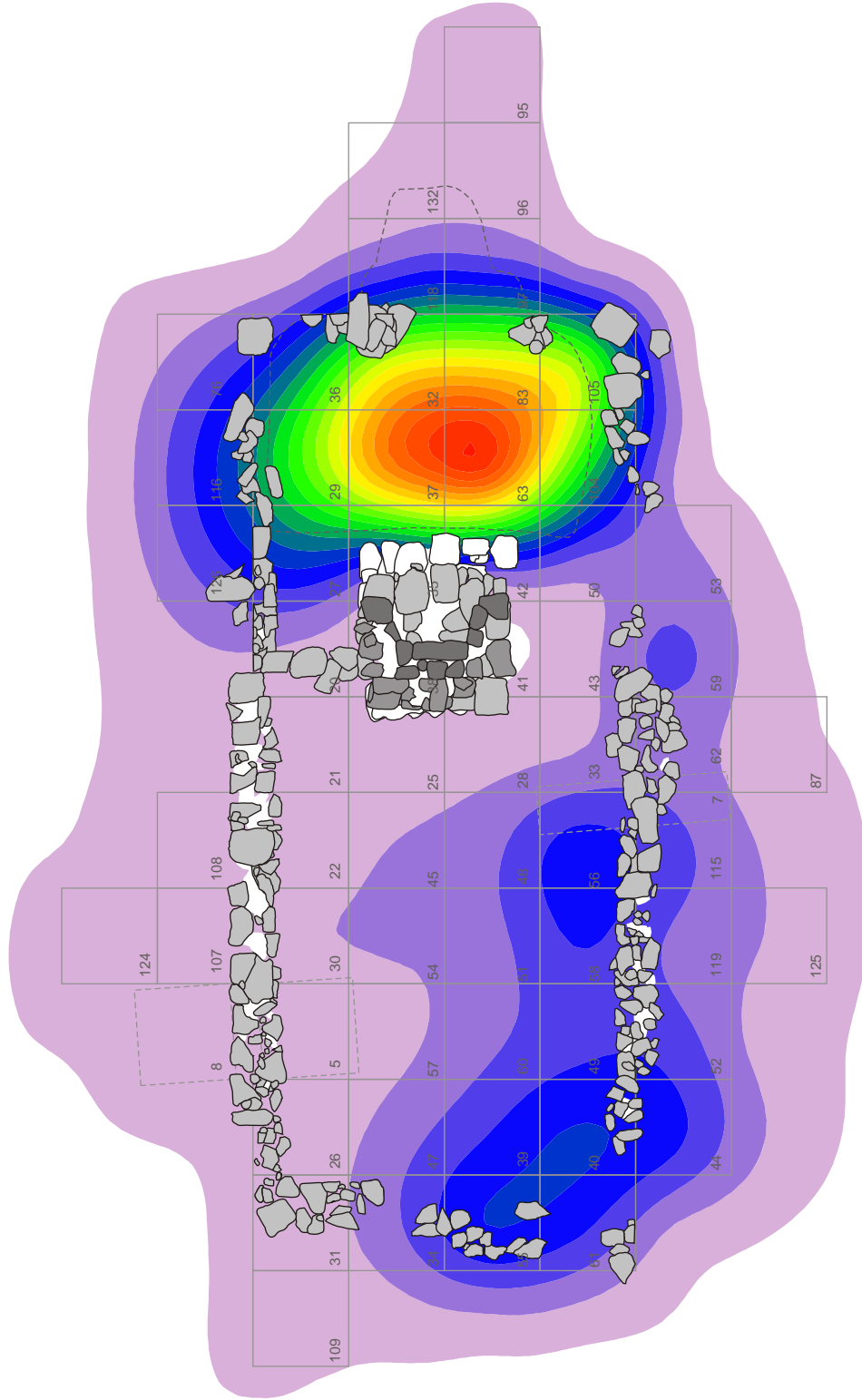
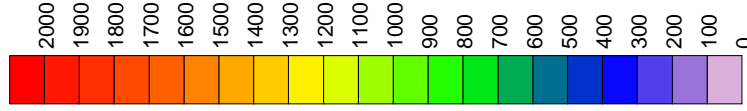
Structure A, Lighting Sub-Group Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 242

Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

SOURCE URS

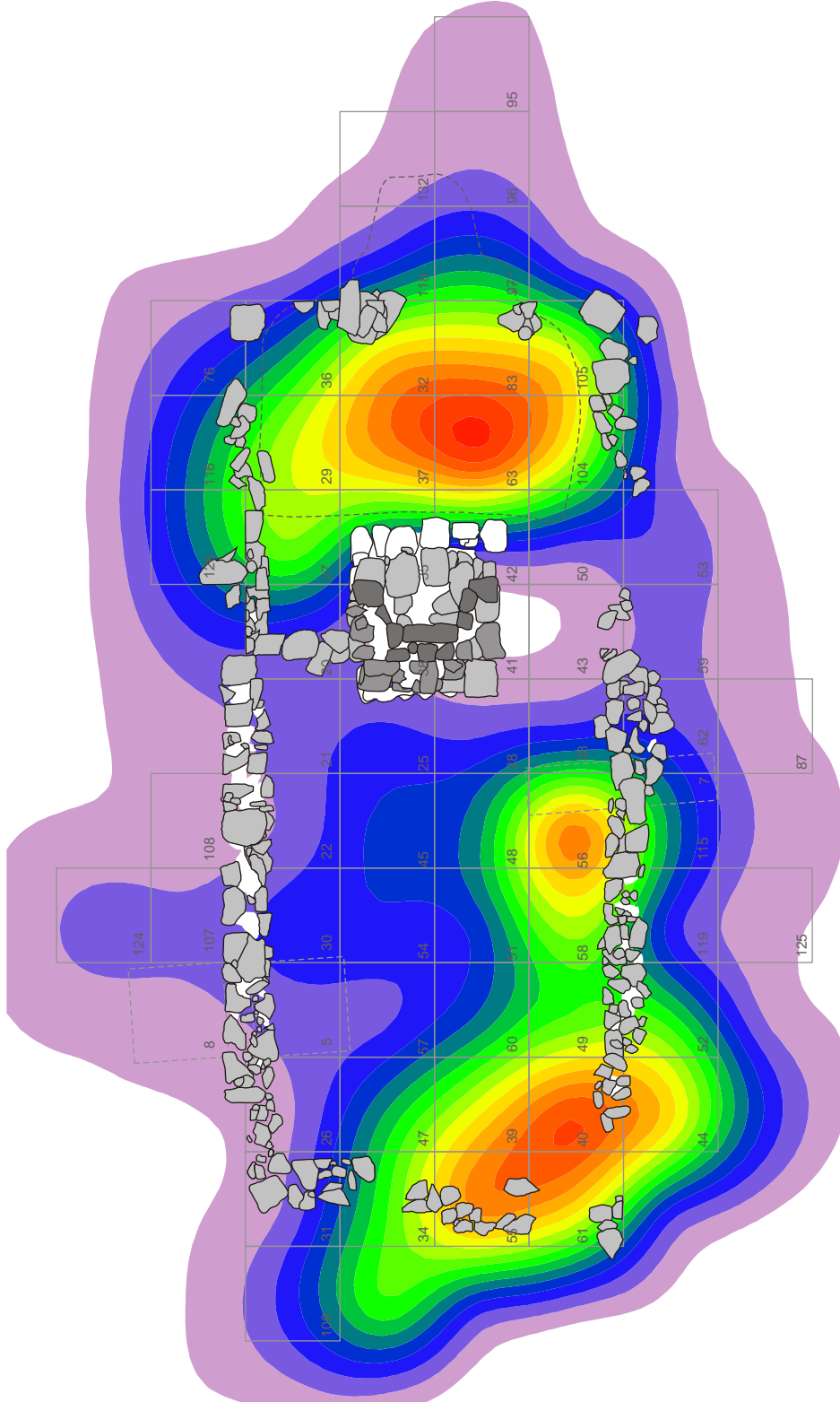
Structure A, Kitchen Group Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 243

Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

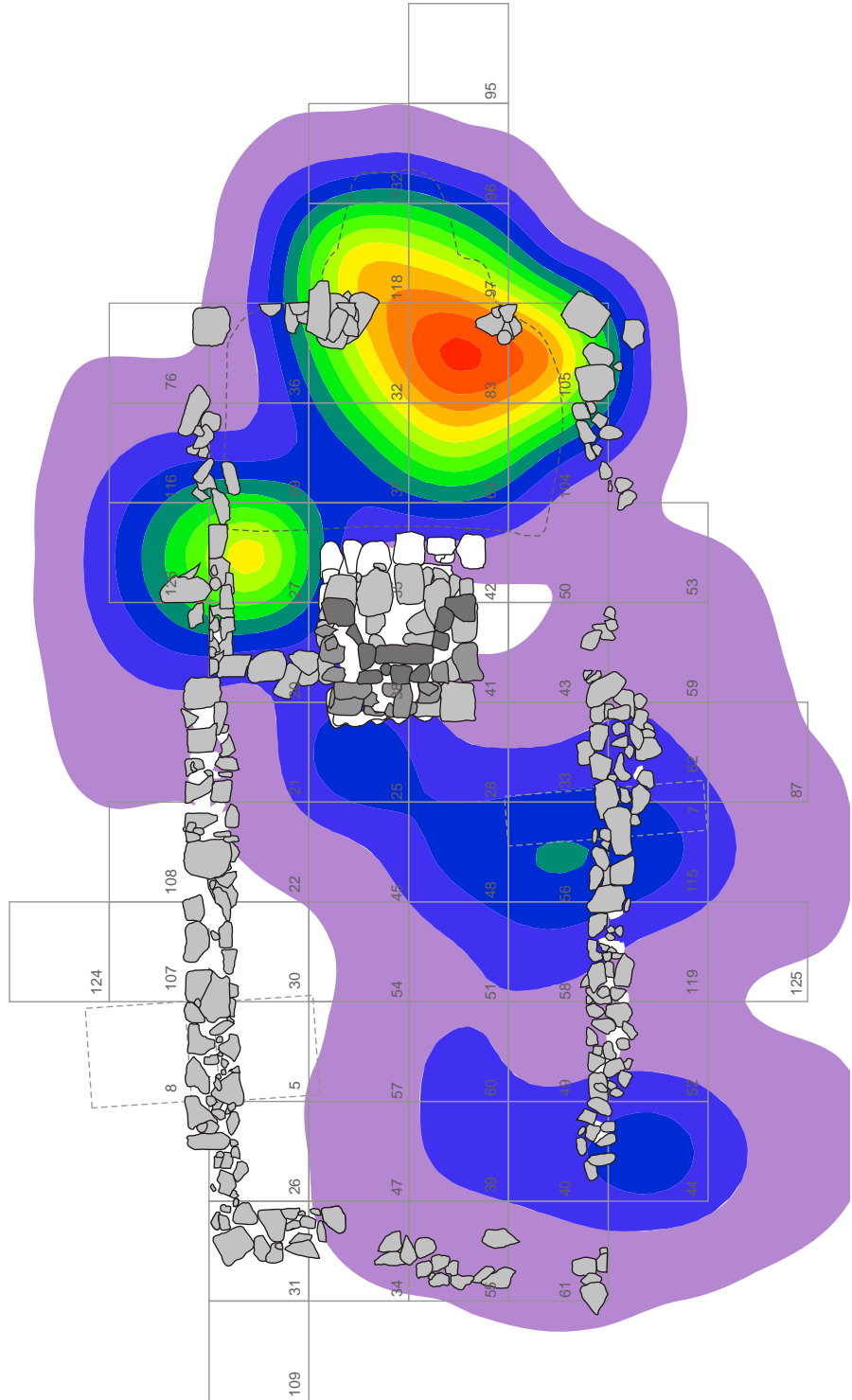
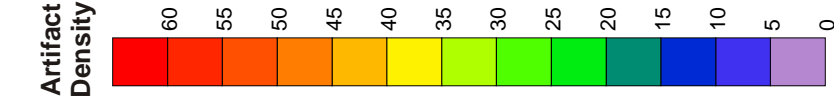
SOURCE URS

Structure A, Ceramics Sub-Group Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 244



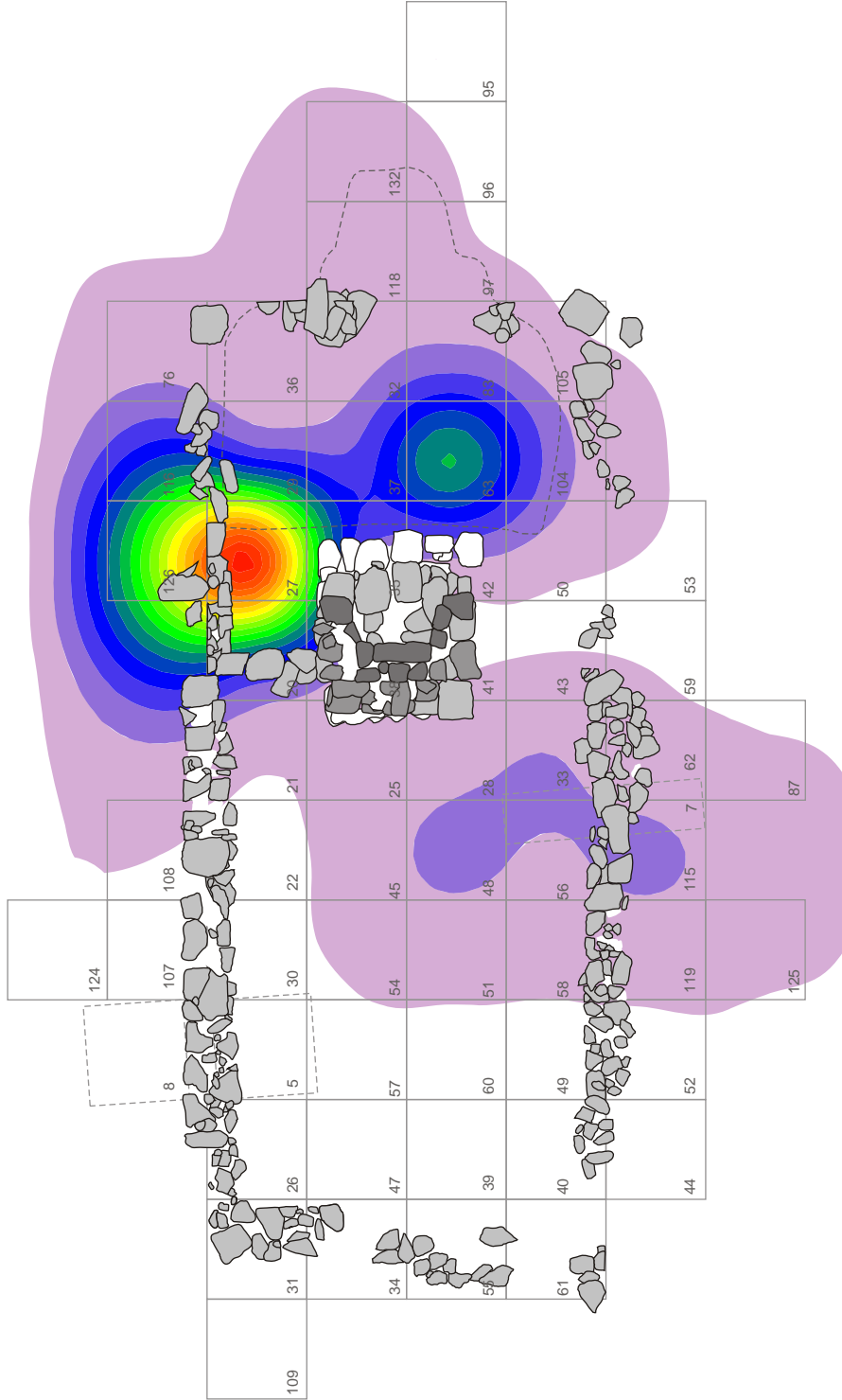
PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II
SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)
SOURCE URS



Structure A, Ceramic Storage Vessel Distribution

PROJECT NO. 20831016
FIGURE NO. 245

Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

SOURCE URS

Structure A, Ceramic Jars Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 246

The ceramic jugs (n=320, MNV=14) and crocks (n=37, MNV=1) were recovered from the kitchen, cellar, and parlor. The jars, jugs, crocks could have contained any number of food products, such as sauerkraut, cucumber pickles, water, mineral water, liquors, vinegar, oils, or syrups. While many of these foodstuffs would benefit from cool storage in the cellar, their distribution within the footprint of the house may reflect daily use as well as long-term storage (i.e., some of these vessels could have been part of an ongoing food processing task or kept at hand for cooking or seasoning the next meal).

The ceramic food preparation vessels include two bakers, two batter bowls, and one bowl. The bakers (n=45; MNV=2) are notable because no sherds were recovered from the kitchen, only from the parlor (Figure 247). The bakers were concentrated along the south wall of the parlor in the pie safe area; a moderate concentration was also noted in the southwest corner of the parlor. The batter bowls (n=65; MNV=2) also showed a strong concentration along the south wall of the parlor at the pie safe area and a weaker concentration in the kitchen. Contrary to the expected distribution of food preparation vessels in the kitchen, these vessels were generally recovered from the parlor. This could reflect the pie safe as a central storage unit, or these vessels could have been part of an ongoing food processing task interrupted by the catastrophic fire.

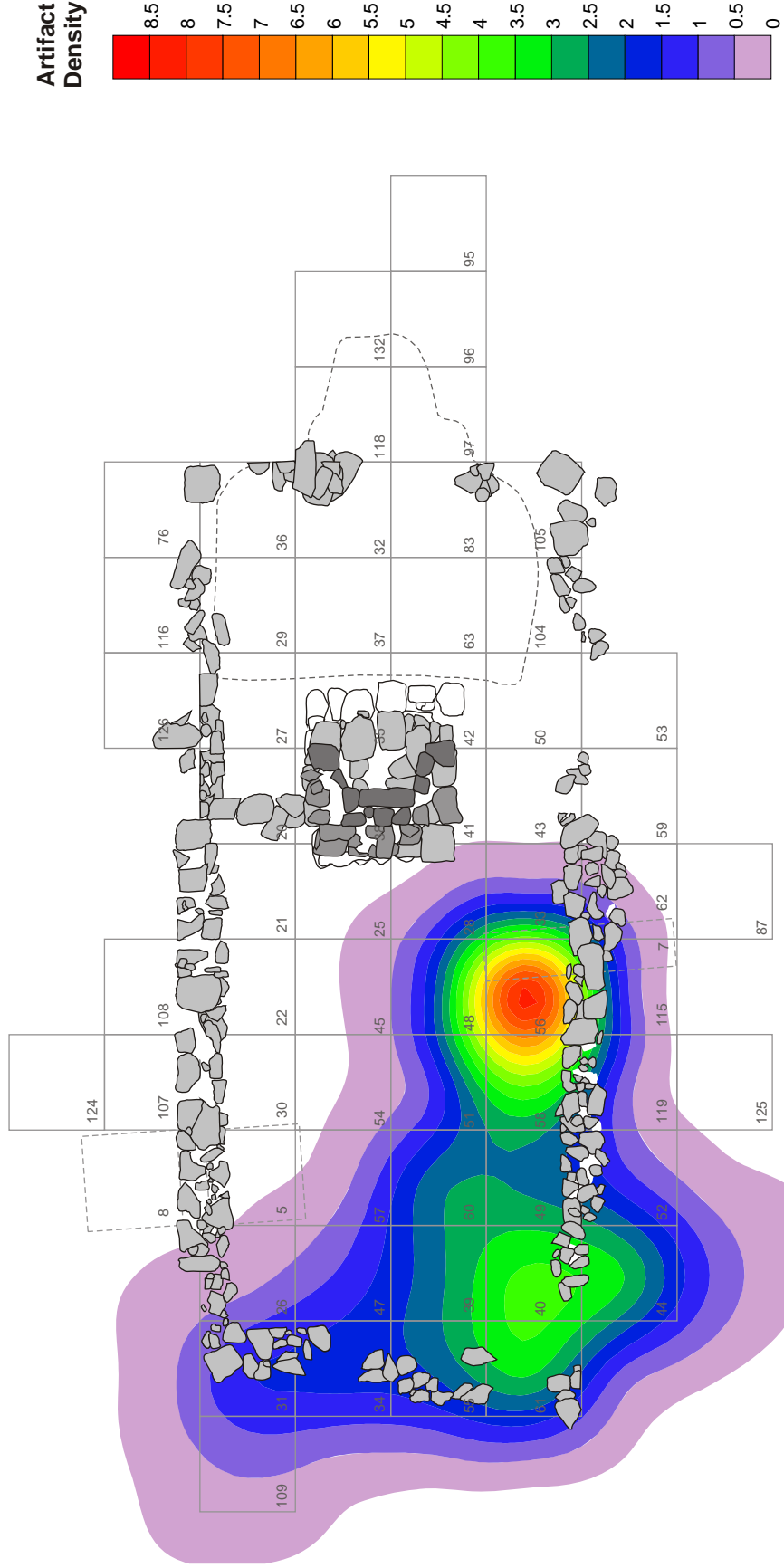
The ceramic serving vessels were recovered from both the parlor and kitchen (Figure 248). The highest concentration was in the southwest corner of the parlor; other concentrations were located along the south wall of the parlor at the pie safe area and in the north central parlor area. The lowest concentrations were noted in the kitchen/cellar. These serving vessels may have been displayed in a hutch or china cabinet. Separate distributions were plotted for each vessel type (e.g., bowls and plates) to determine if patterns were present.

The bowls (n=135, MNV=14) were concentrated along the south wall of the parlor in the pie safe area and in the north central parlor (Figure 249). Lesser concentrations were noted along the west wall of the parlor, outside the front door, and along the north wall of the kitchen. The cluster at the pie safe likely reflects storage, but the concentration in the north central parlor area could represent dishes laid out on a dining table. While these vessels were identified as food-related, some of them could have been used on the second floor, perhaps on a wash stand or bureau.

The plates (n=541, MNV=43) were concentrated in the southwest corner of the parlor; other clusters were noted along the south wall of the parlor at the pie safe area, in the north parlor at the front door, and in the kitchen/cellar. The west wall of the parlor, or possibly the southwest corner, likely contained a piece of furniture, such as a hutch or china cabinet, used for storing or displaying ceramic plates.

The white granite pitchers (n=45, MNV=2) were recovered from the southeast corner of the kitchen/cellar. One pitcher was recovered from the northwest corner of the parlor and one from the northwest kitchen or northeast parlor. While these vessels were identified as beverage containers, they could also have functioned as wash pitchers kept on the second floor on a wash stand. Given the nature of the Feature 2 deposit, it is impossible to determine the vertical placement of these items within the house.

The relatively low numbers of platters (n=30, MNV=2), shallow bowls (n=19, MNV=2), the butter pat (n=2), and the mug (n=2) preclude any conclusions based on their distribution. The ceramic vessels associated with tea service exhibited strong concentrations in the kitchen/cellar,



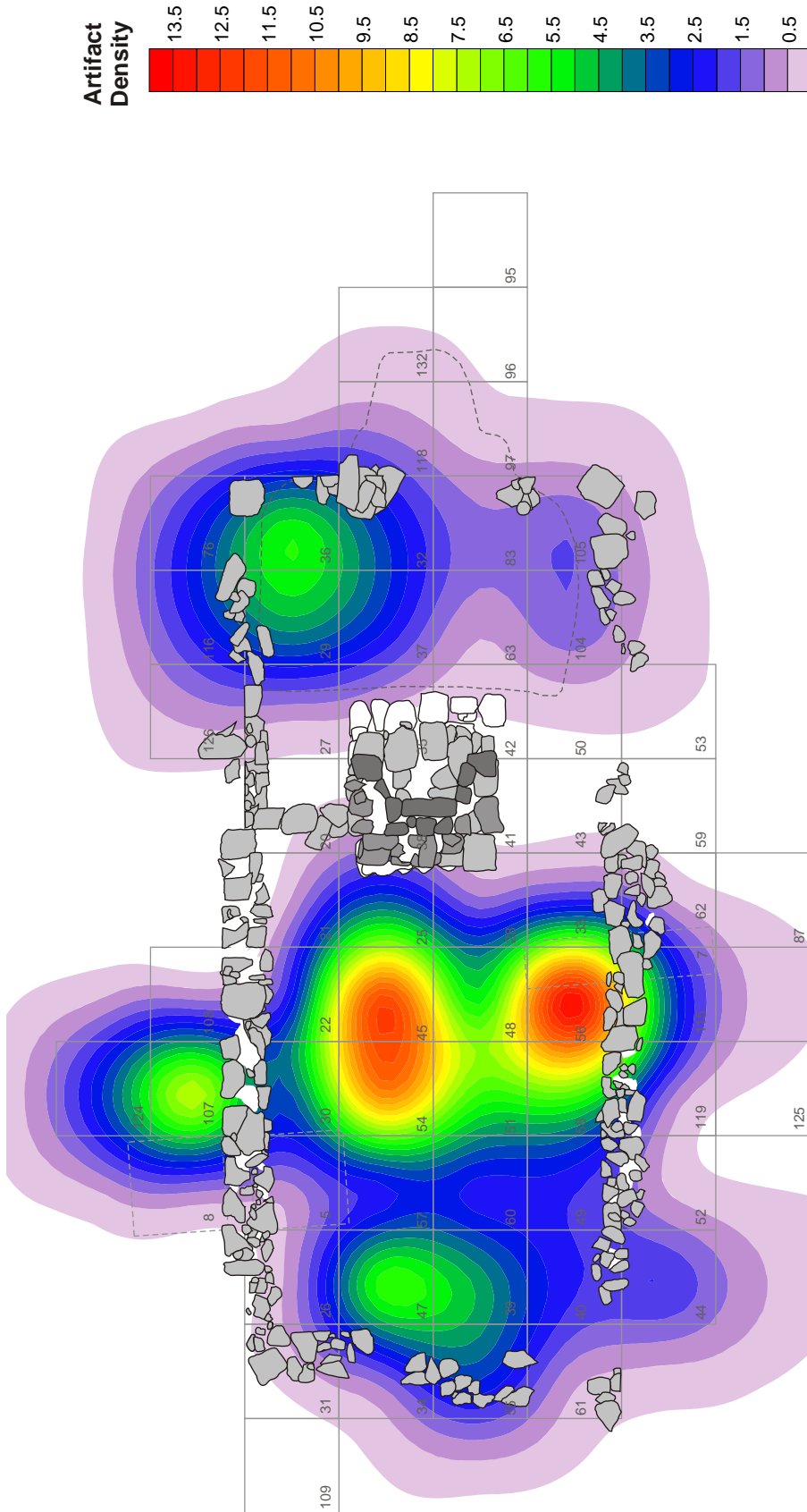
PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II
SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)
SOURCE URS

Structure A, Ceramic Food Preparation Vessel Distribution

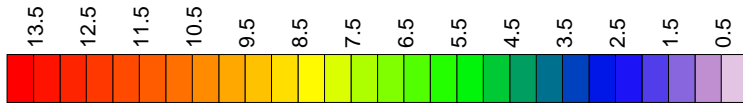


PROJECT NO. 20831016
FIGURE NO. 247





Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II
SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)
SOURCE URS

Structure A, Ceramic Bowls Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016
FIGURE NO. 249

and along the south wall of the parlor at the pie safe area. The cups (n=86, MNV=14), which include examples in whiteware, white granite, and porcelain, exhibited a strong concentration in the kitchen/cellar, and weaker concentrations in the northeast and southwest corners of the parlor (Figure 250). The saucers (n=206, MNV=28), also recovered in whiteware, white granite, and porcelain, were strongly concentrated along the south wall of the parlor at the pie safe area (Figure 251). Less dense clusters were noted in the kitchen/cellar, and along the west wall of the parlor. The different distribution patterns of the cups and saucers may reflect different storage areas for these vessels (perhaps saucers in the pie safe and cups on hooks in a kitchen cupboard). The distribution pattern could also suggest different usage of the cups and saucers (some cups could have been used as measuring cups; some saucers could have been used as candle holders or pin trays). The possibilities for expedient use within the daily activities of the household are almost limitless, and may encompass many functions beyond formal tea or coffee consumption.

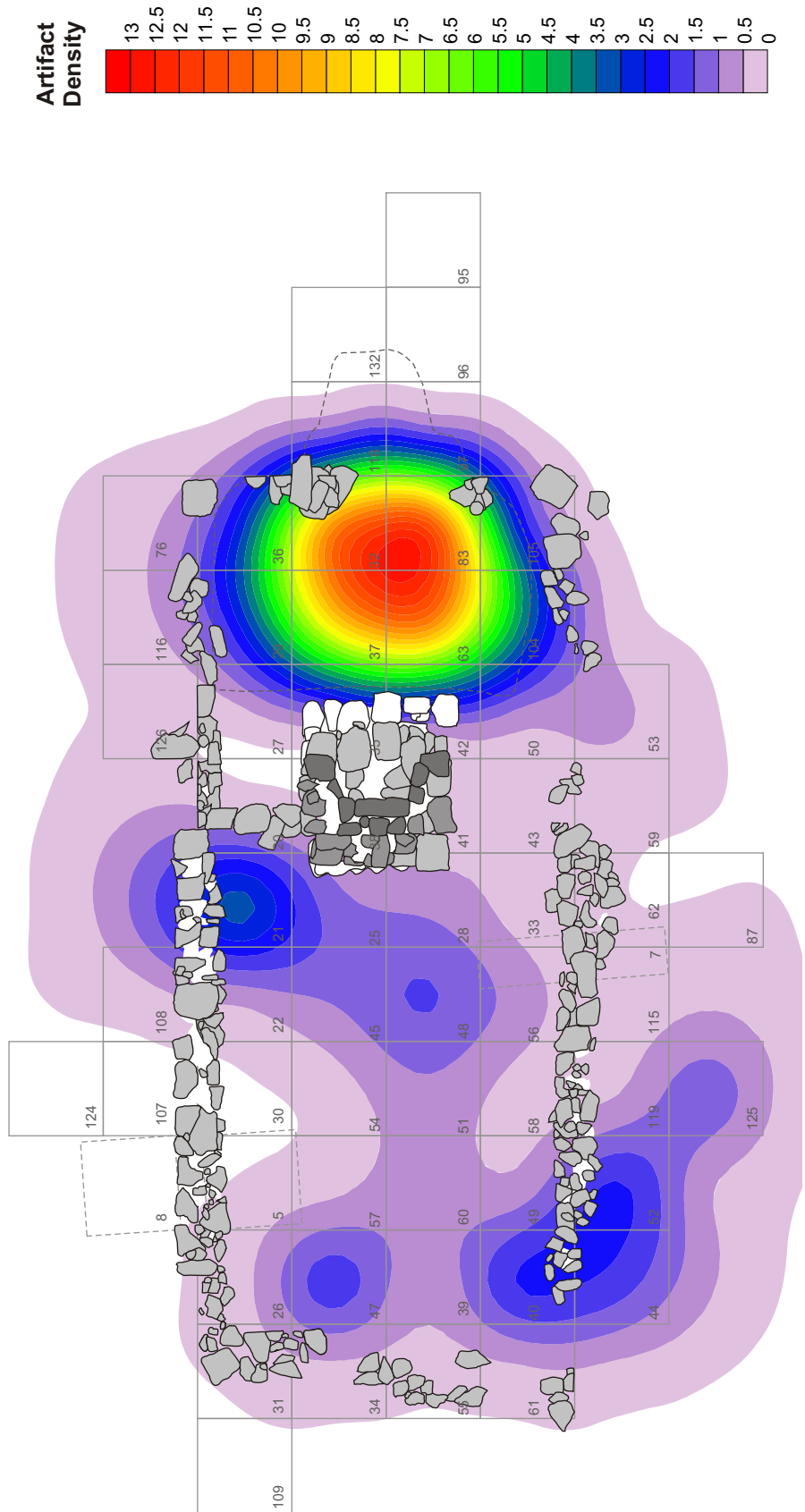
The relatively low numbers of creamers (n=5, MNV=2), recovered in the cellar fill (Feature 5), and sugar bowls (n=14, MNV=2), generally found in the parlor, preclude any conclusions based on their distribution patterns. The Rockingham teapots (n=49, MNV=2) are both in the Rebekah at the Well pattern, but are of two different sizes. Both vessels were recovered from the cellar.

The distribution of ceramic ware types reveals activity patterns within the household. The whiteware sherds (n=1,917, MNV=56) were strongly concentrated along the west wall of the parlor and in the kitchen/cellar (Figure 252). By contrast, the white granite sherds (n=1,067, MNV=42) were clustered along the south wall of the parlor at the pie safe area as well as in the kitchen/cellar (Figure 253). This distribution likely reflects separate storage areas for sets of whiteware and white granite dishes – whiteware in a hutch or china cupboard on the west parlor wall and white granite in the pie safe on the south parlor wall.

Five different decorative plate patterns were noted (MNV=17, Table 141). While the manufacturing dates of these wares range from the mid-nineteenth century to the present, it is significant that they were all deposited contemporaneously and represent use of the dishes at the time the house burned down. The clustering of vessels that belong to identifiable sets of dishes reinforces the patterns noted in the ware type distributions. The six rose decal plates were concentrated along the west wall of the parlor; the two sherds recovered from the cellar fill (Feature 5) may reflect post-depositional disturbance of the site. The second rose decal set and the blue edged set were also clustered along the west wall of the parlor. Perhaps these vessels, among the most decorated ceramics in the assemblage, were displayed in the parlor and used for formal dining or special occasions.

The three ‘Verona’ pattern plates were concentrated in the kitchen/cellar. The white granite plates were recovered along the south wall of the parlor, as well as in the kitchen/cellar. These sets of dishes could have been considered ordinary or everyday dining vessels, and their storage in the kitchen or perhaps the pie safe may reflect that.

The porcelain sherds (n=250, MNV=14) were concentrated in the kitchen/cellar, but were also present along the south wall of the parlor, the west wall of the parlor, outside the front door, and in the northeast corner of the parlor. Yellowware sherds (n=42, MNV=2) were concentrated in the kitchen/cellar, along the south wall of the parlor at the pie safe, and in the southwest corner of the parlor. Rockingham (n=85, MNV=2) and pearlware (n=16, MNV=1) were strongly concentrated in the cellar.



Artifact Density



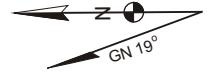
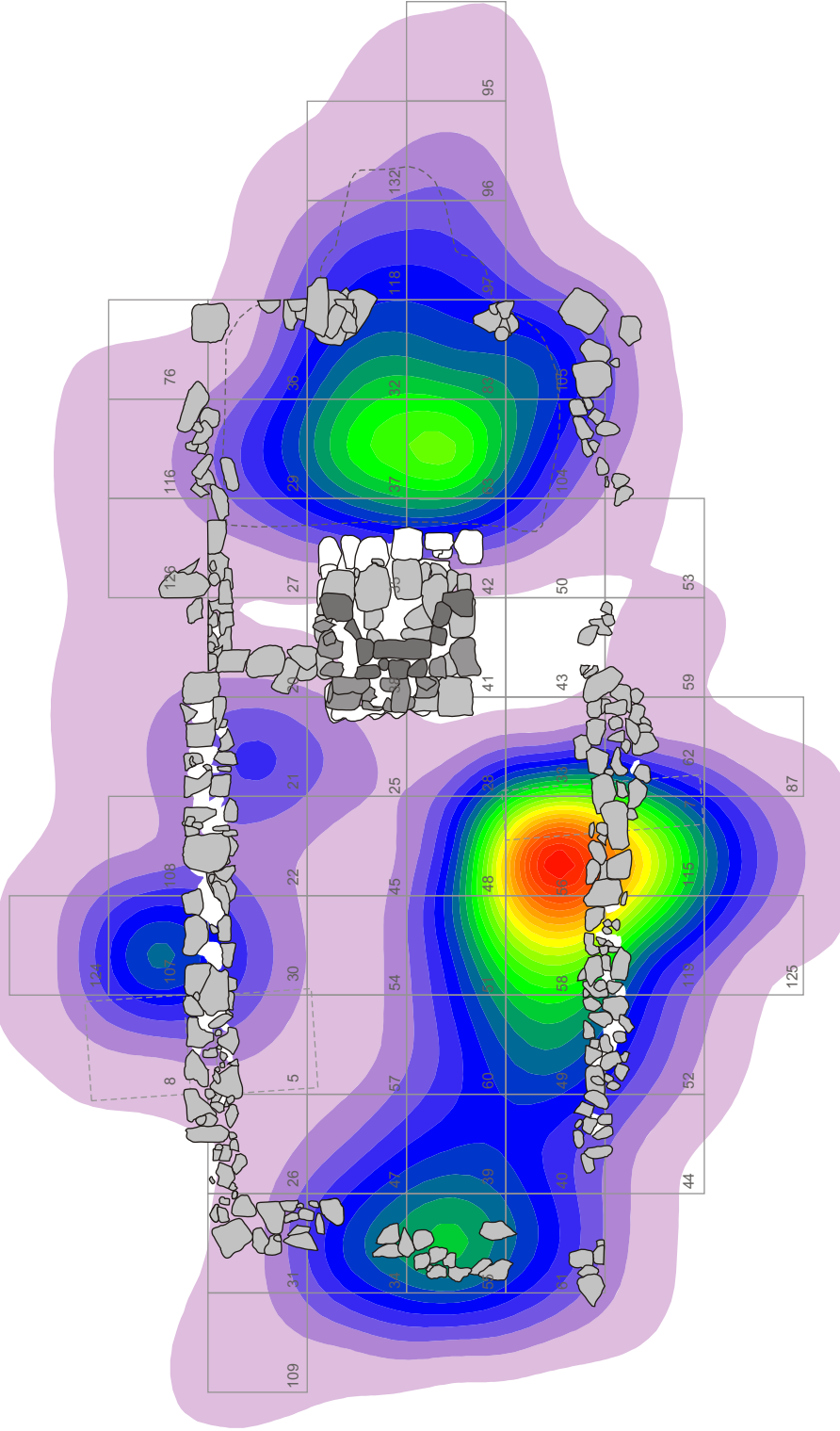
PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II
SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)
SOURCE URS



Structure A, Ceramic Cups Distribution

PROJECT NO. 20831016
FIGURE NO. 250

Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

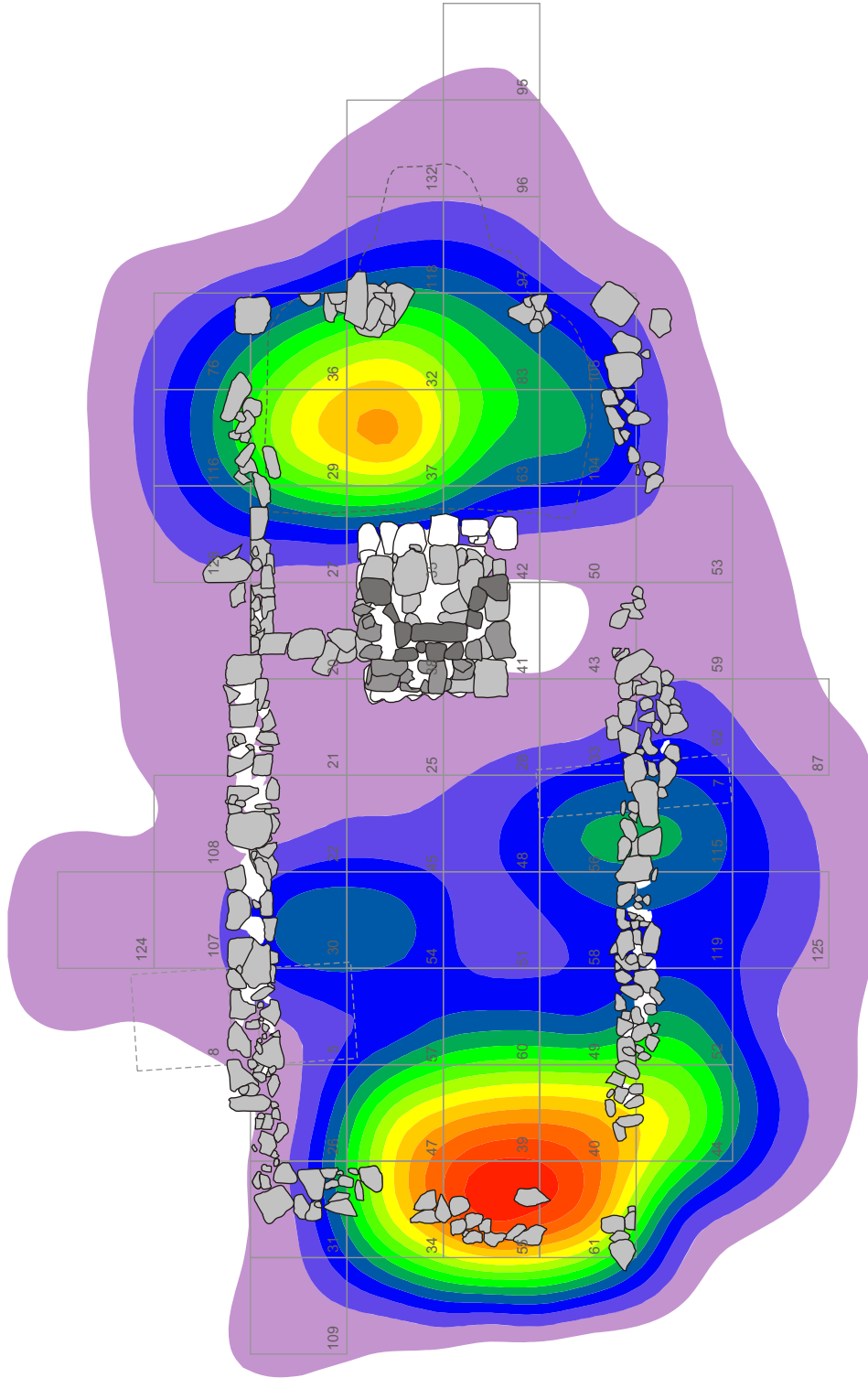
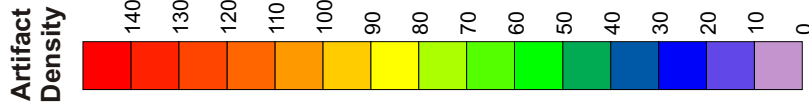
SOURCE URS

Structure A, Ceramic Saucers Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 251



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

SOURCE URS

Structure A, Whiteware Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 252

Table 141. Sets of Matching Dishes

Ware	Forms	Decoration	MNV
Whiteware	Plate	Rose decal	6
Whiteware	Plate, saucer	Rose decal	2
Whiteware	Plate, saucers	Blue edged and gold garland decal	4
Whiteware	Plate	'Verona' transfer print	3
White granite	Plate	Molded arches	2
Total			17

8.3.1.8.2 Glass

Overall, the glass bottles and jars were strongly concentrated in the kitchen/cellar (Figure 254). The bottles were clustered in kitchen/cellar, especially in south central cellar area. The distribution patterns of different types of bottles were analyzed to identify any household activity patterns. The mineral water bottle fragments (n=5), soda bottle fragments (n=6), and most of the baking powder bottle fragments (n=92) were recovered from the cellar deposits. This likely reflects the use of the cool cellar for storage of beverages and foodstuffs, although baking powder would not have required cool temperatures. The beer, liquor, and wine bottle were concentrated along the south wall of parlor at the pie safe and in the northeast corner of kitchen/cellar (Figure 255), with one beer bottle fragment in the cellar and two wine bottle fragments near the pie safe. The 16 liquor bottle fragments were split between the pie safe area and the kitchen/cellar. Despite the low densities, it appears likely that some glass bottles were stored in the pie safe and others in a kitchen cupboard or in the cellar. Any of these bottles could have been reused as a container for almost any household product after the original contents were consumed.

As expected, the glass canning or fruit jars were strongly clustered in the kitchen/cellar, but there was a cluster on the south parlor wall at the pie safe area and another in the hall between the parlor and the kitchen (Figure 256). It is not unexpected to find evidence for the storage of preserved foods in the cellar. The other clusters may represent open jars stored in the pie safe for daily use. In addition, these glass jars could have been used to hold almost any kind of household product, including non-food items.

The glassware artifacts, which include tumblers, bowls, pitchers, and other table glass, were strongly concentrated in the kitchen/cellar (Figure 257). The fragments of bowls (n=3), pitchers (n=22), stemware (n=8), and trays (n=2) were not numerous, but were recovered from the cellar. The tumbler fragments (n=221) were strongly concentrated in the cellar, with weak to moderate concentrations in the southwest corner of the parlor and along the north parlor wall near the front door. Tumblers typically first held jelly or other preserved foods, and were then reused as drinking glasses. The presence of so many tumbler fragments in the cellar may suggest they still contained their original food products at the time of the fire. Conversely, the family may have stored extra tumblers in the cellar, or these could represent drinking glasses that were stored in the kitchen. Table glass fragments (n=209) were also found in concentrations in the cellar and the southwest corner of the parlor. The parlor artifacts include press molded glass, possible candy dishes or other specialty dishes, which may have been displayed in a cabinet on the west wall of the parlor.

Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

SOURCE URS

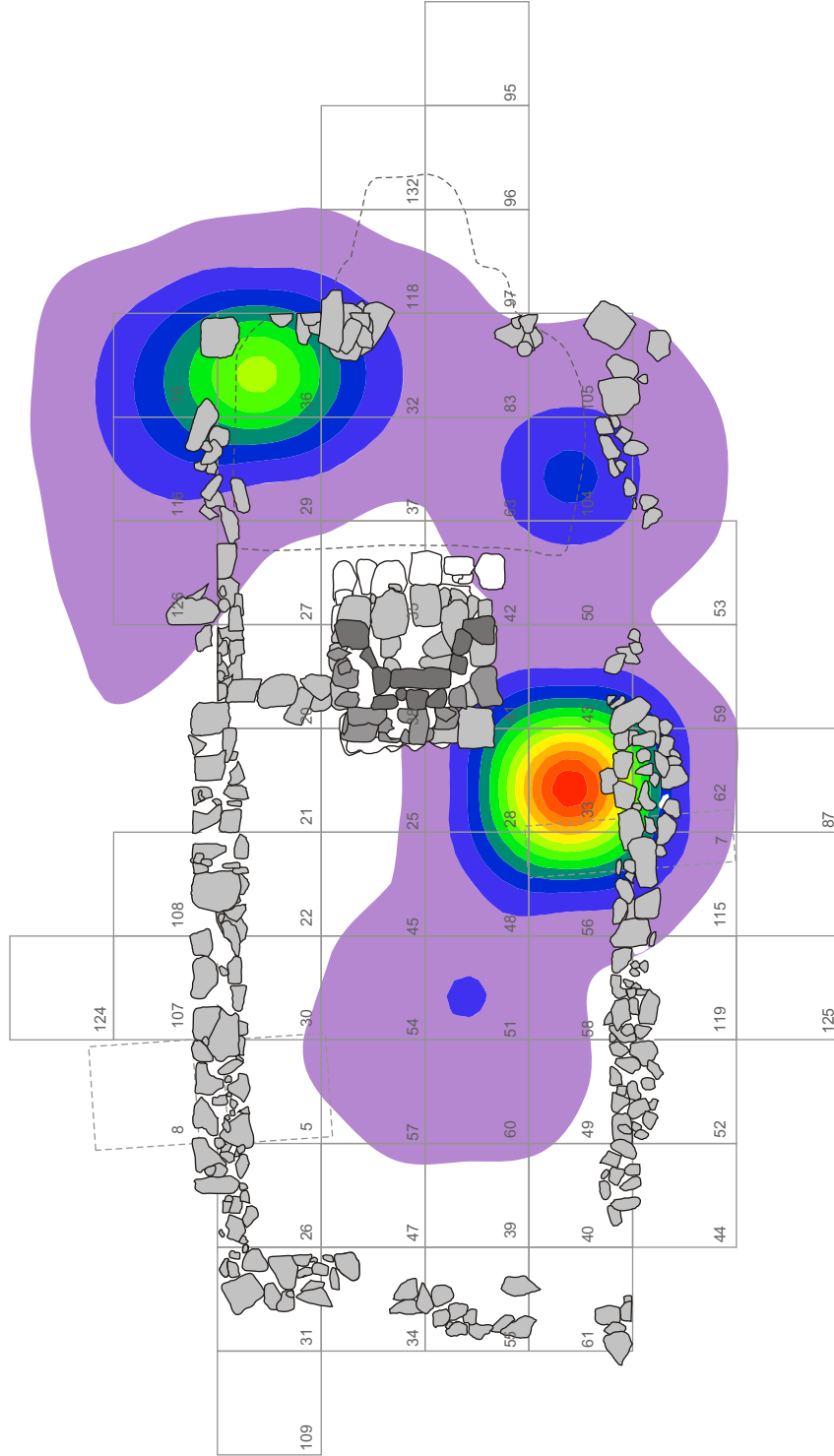
Structure A, Glass Bottles and Jars Sub-Group Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 254

Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

SOURCE URS

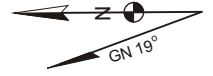
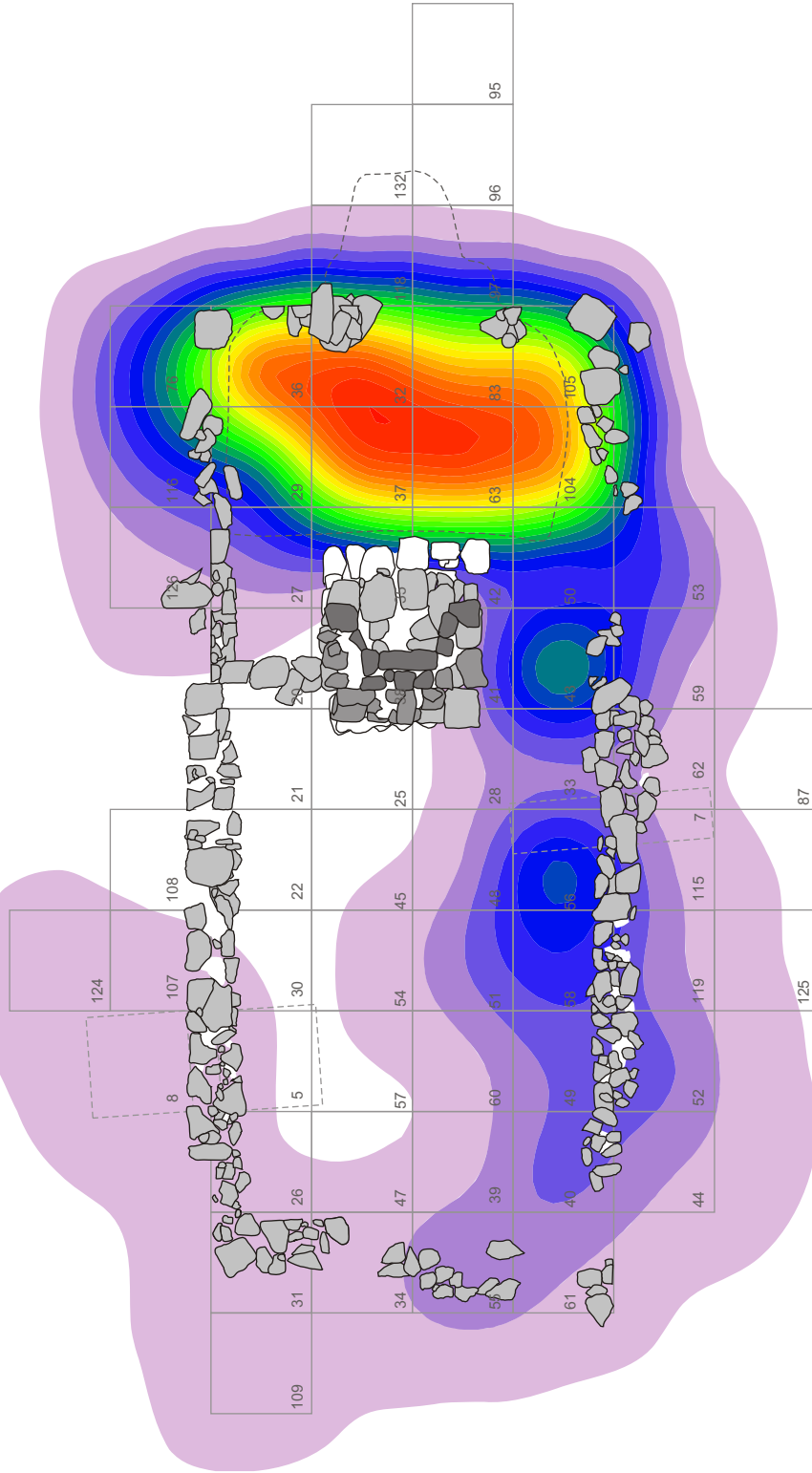
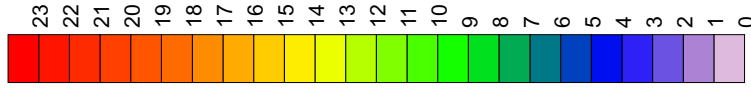
Structure A, Glass Alcohol Bottle Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 255

**Artifact
Density**



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

SOURCE URS

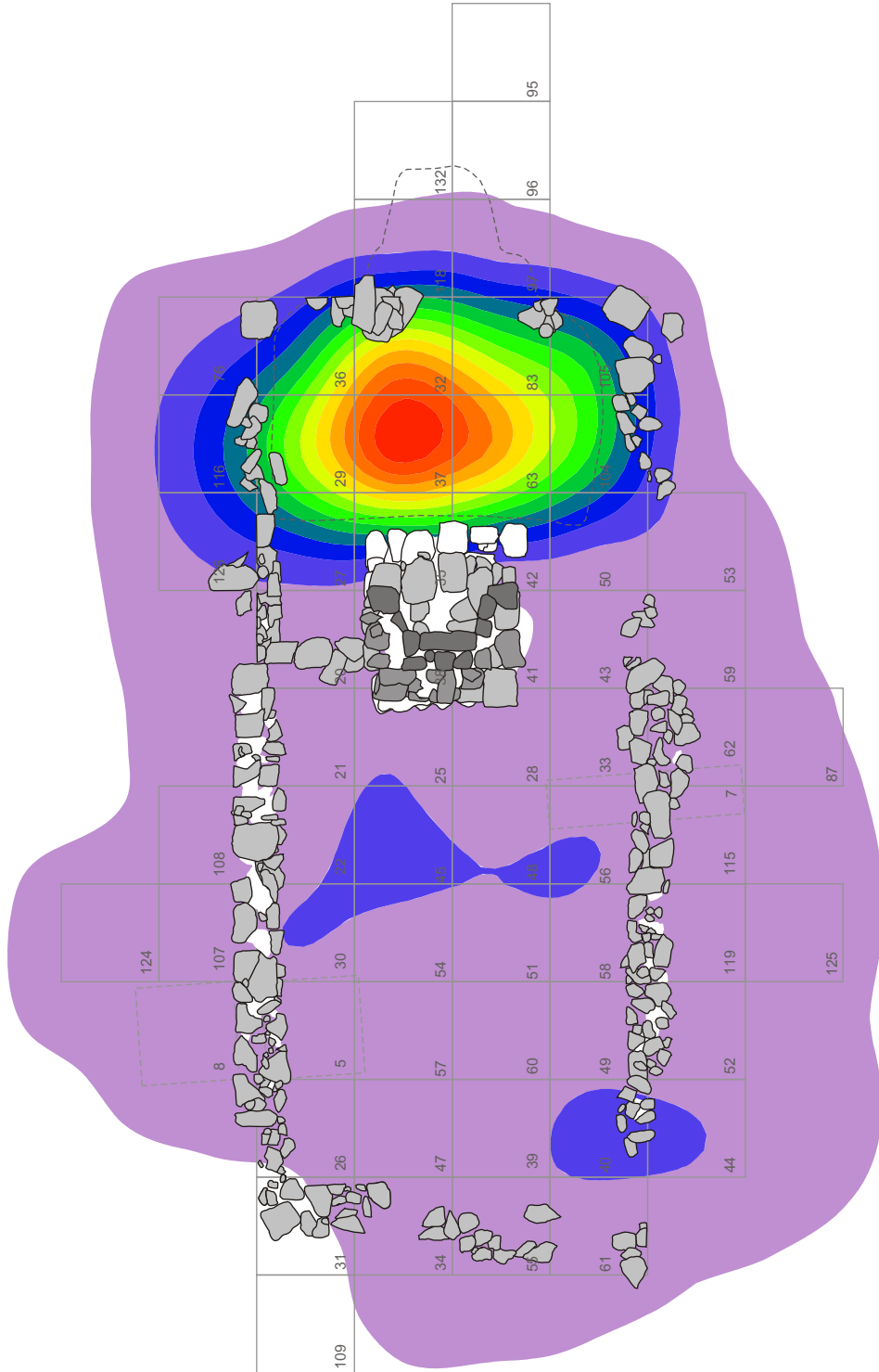
Structure A, Glass Jar Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 256

Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

SOURCE URS

Structure A, Glassware Sub-group Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 257

8.3.1.8.3 Kitchenware, Food Containers, and Tableware

The kitchenware artifacts (n=47), which include a variety of household tools, such as pots, pans, knives, graters, corkscrews, tongs, and a teakettle, were concentrated in the kitchen/cellar, along the south wall of the parlor near the back door, and in the north central parlor area (Figure 258). This pattern reflects the use and storage of these items throughout the house. The cluster at the back door reflects seven fragments of an iron pot and five fragments of an iron grater.

The food containers (n=46) were concentrated in the cellar. These artifacts, including metal cans and small keys for opening cans, likely contained preserved meat, fish, or other food. While they may not have required storage in the cool cellar, it was not unexpected to find them in the kitchen, as they may be stored in a cupboard or on a shelf.

The tableware artifacts (n=120), which include forks, knives, and spoons, were concentrated in the kitchen/cellar and in the southwest corner of the parlor (Figure 259). The forks exhibited a low-density scattering throughout the house. The knives were also relatively low in density, but were clustered in the south central parlor area. Only one knife was recovered from the kitchen.

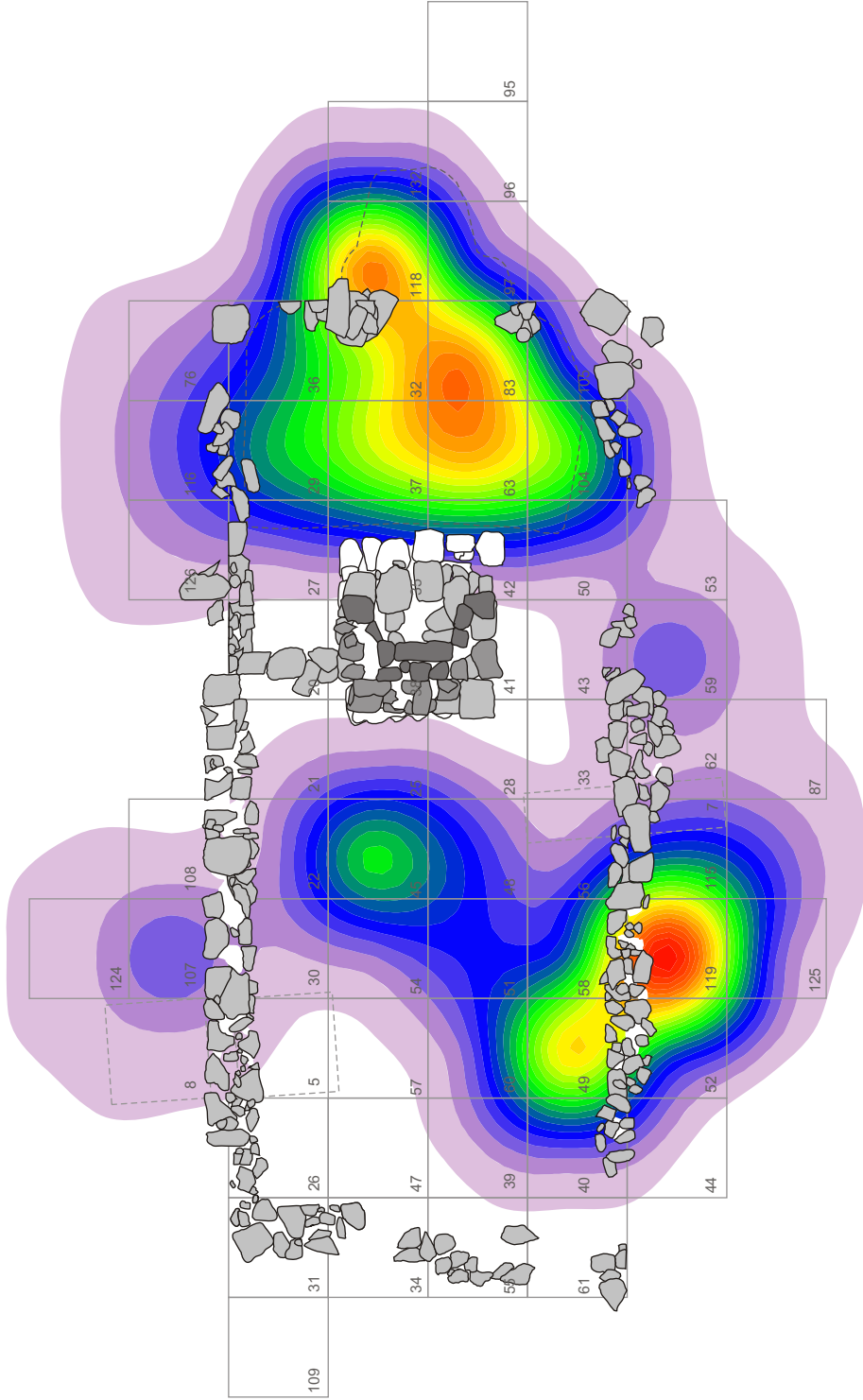
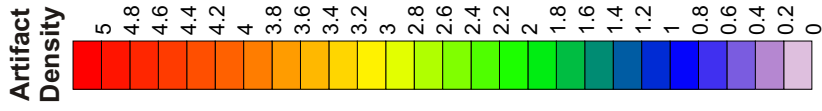
The spoon distribution, also low-density, was concentrated in the cellar. A cluster was noted in the central parlor area as well as outside the front door. This may reflect dining on the front porch or the use of spoons as a musical instrument; however, the low densities of these artifacts preclude definitive conclusions.

8.3.1.9 Personal Group

The distribution of personal artifacts was densely concentrated in the kitchen, with lighter concentrations in the southwest and northeast sections of the parlor (Figure 260). Several personal sub-groups were examined, including coins, jewelry, eyeglasses, medical, medicine bottles, stationery, and toiletries. The sub-groups show some differentiation in location within the house. Coins were concentrated on the south wall of the parlor and, to a lesser degree, in the kitchen; this parlor distribution may reflect the location of jars of change or money purses on either floor (Figure 261). The jewelry distribution shows concentrations in the north central and central kitchen, and in the northeast and southwest corners of the parlor (Figure 262). The distributions suggest the location of furniture on the second floor of either side of the house (i.e., jewelry would have been kept in a dresser or in a box on a dresser).

The eyeglasses sub-group includes three frames and 27 lenses. The lenses indicate at least 14 pairs of eyeglasses were present in the house. Many of the eyeglass lenses were burned or melted from the fire. The eyeglass distribution shows densest concentrations outside the front door of the parlor (north wall) and in the southwest corner of the parlor (Figure 263). The parlor concentrations may suggest storage on either the first or second floor. It is also possible eyeglasses were stored on or in a piece of furniture, such as a dresser or cupboard. Alternatively, some of lens locations (e.g., those outside the front door) could indicate post-fire redistribution from salvage efforts. The location of the lenses by the front door could also reflect their use on a front porch. Only three eyeglass lenses were recovered from the kitchen side.

Toiletries include combs, perfume bottles, shaving implements, ointment jars, hair pins, toothbrushes, and chamber pots. This sub-group shows a different pattern from the others (Figure 264). Concentrations were noted in the kitchen, along the south wall of the parlor, and in the northeast corner of the parlor, and two small concentrations were noted along the west-



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

SOURCE URS

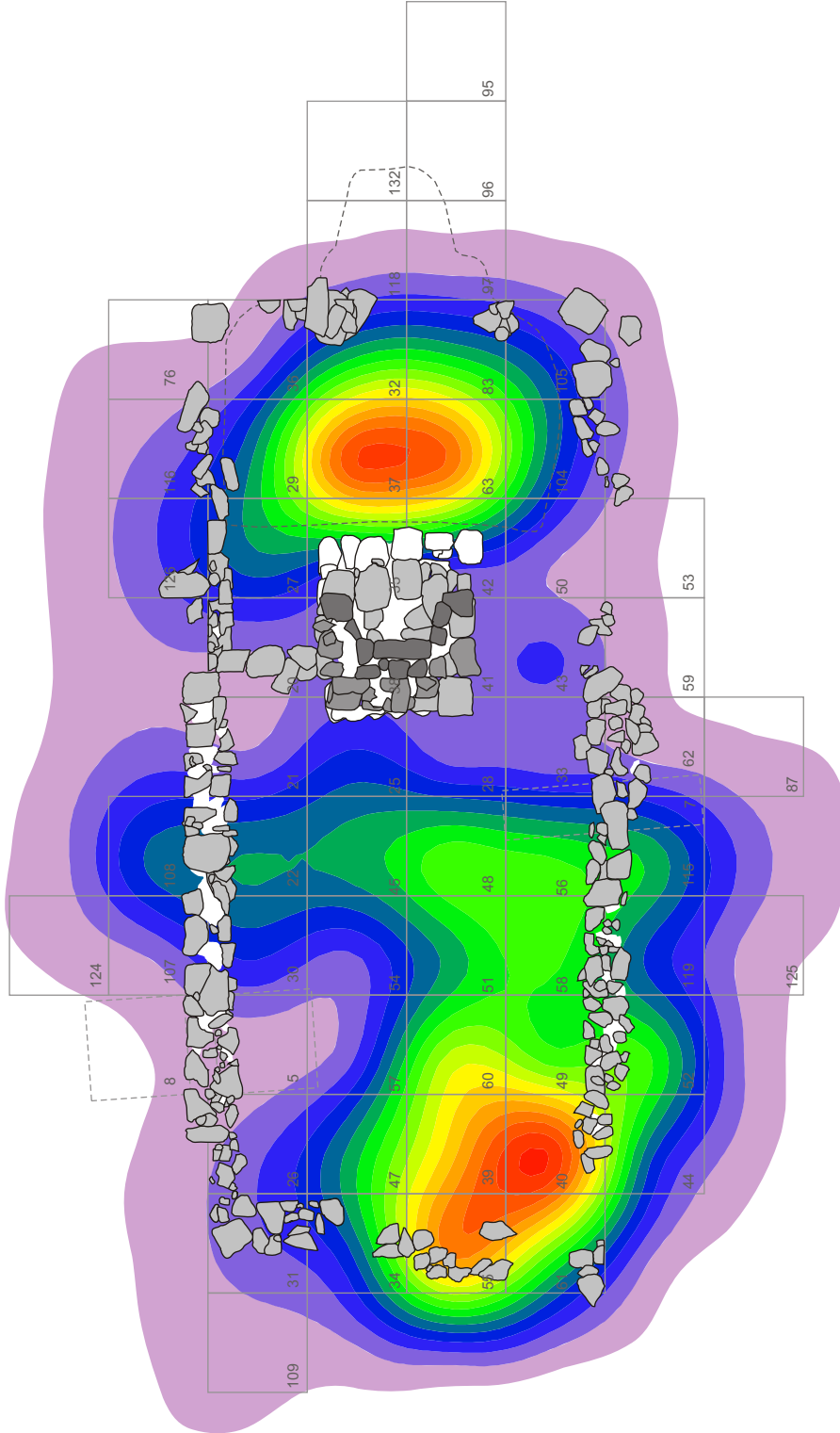
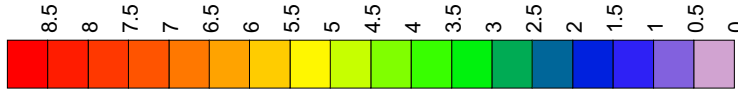
Structure A, Kitchenware Sub-Group Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 258

Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

SOURCE URS

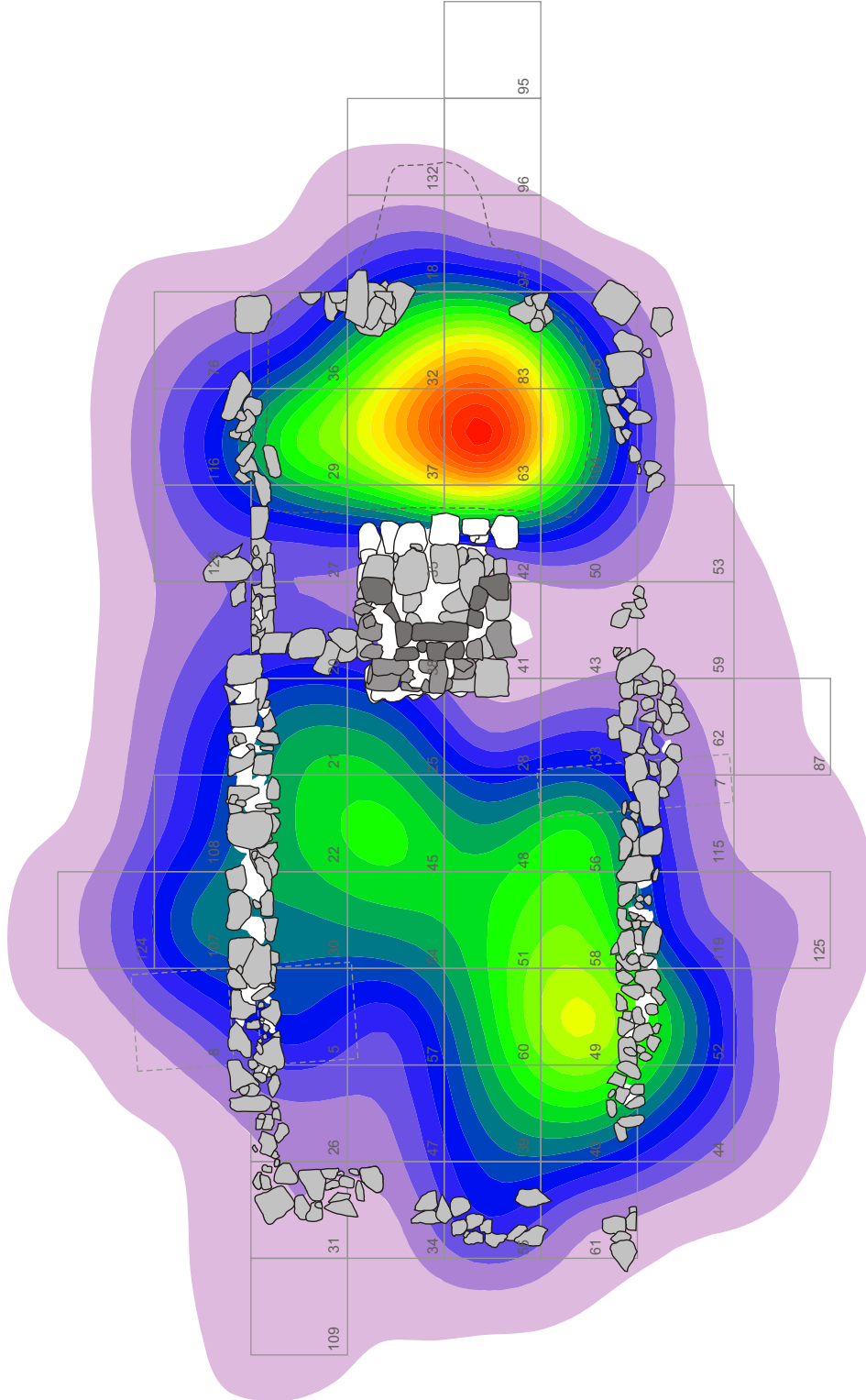
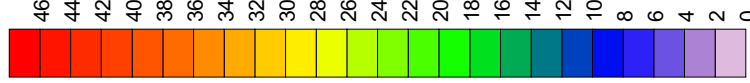
Structure A, Tableware Sub-Group Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 259

Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

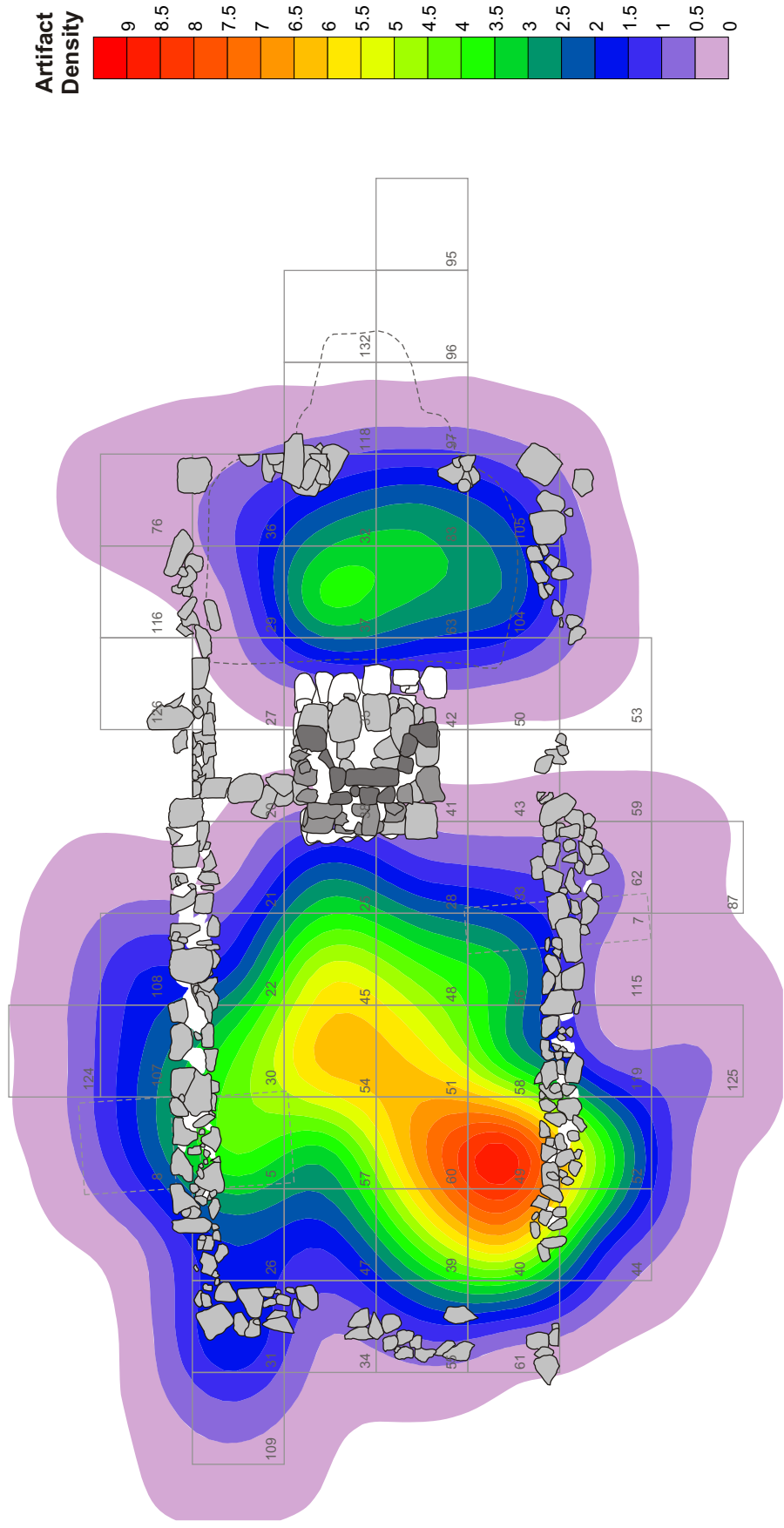
SOURCE URS

Structure A, Personal Group Distribution




PROJECT NO. 20831016

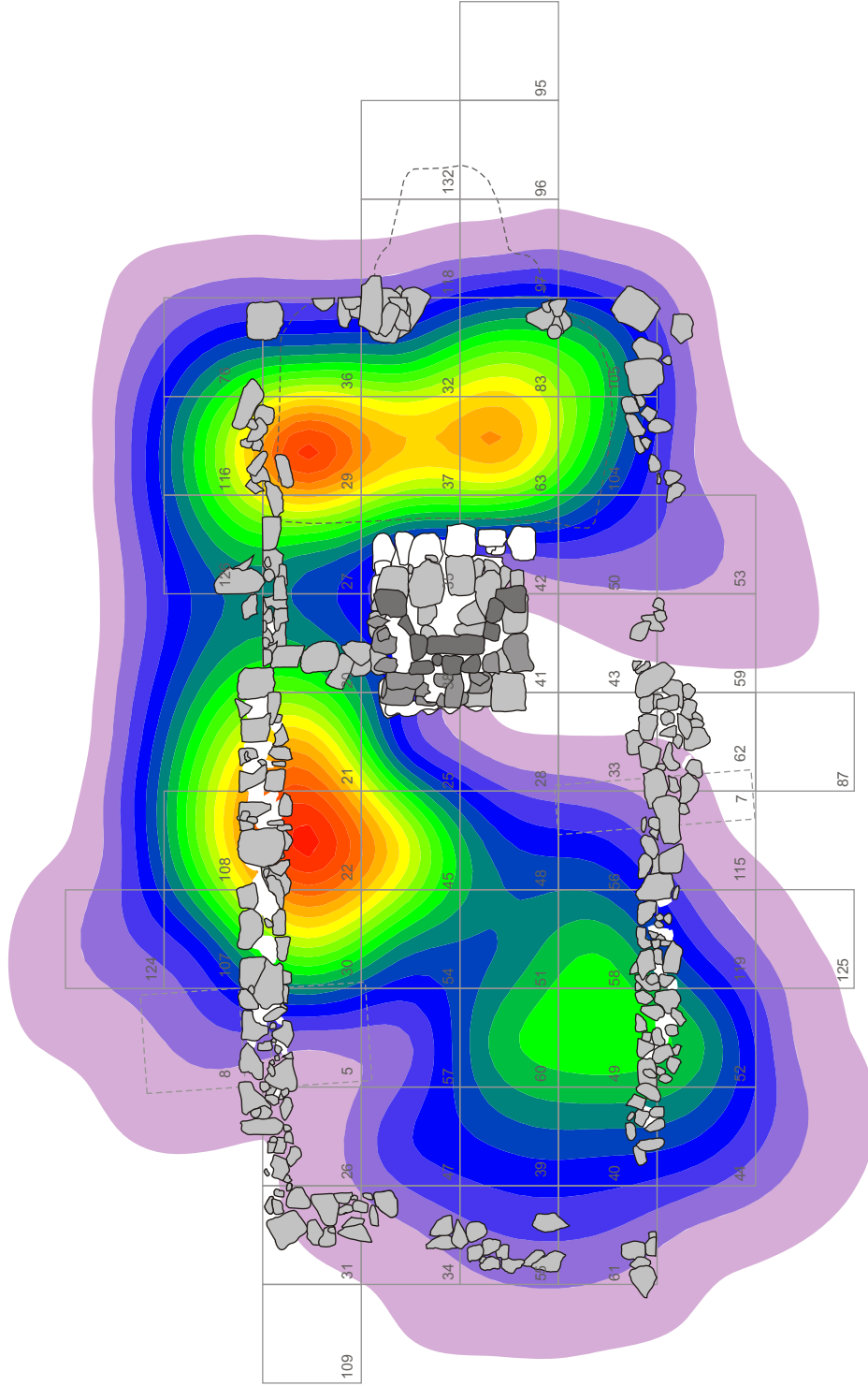
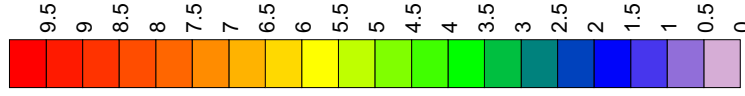
FIGURE NO. 260



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II
SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)
SOURCE URS

Structure A, Coins Sub-Group Distribution

PROJECT NO. 20831016
FIGURE NO. 261

Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

SOURCE URS

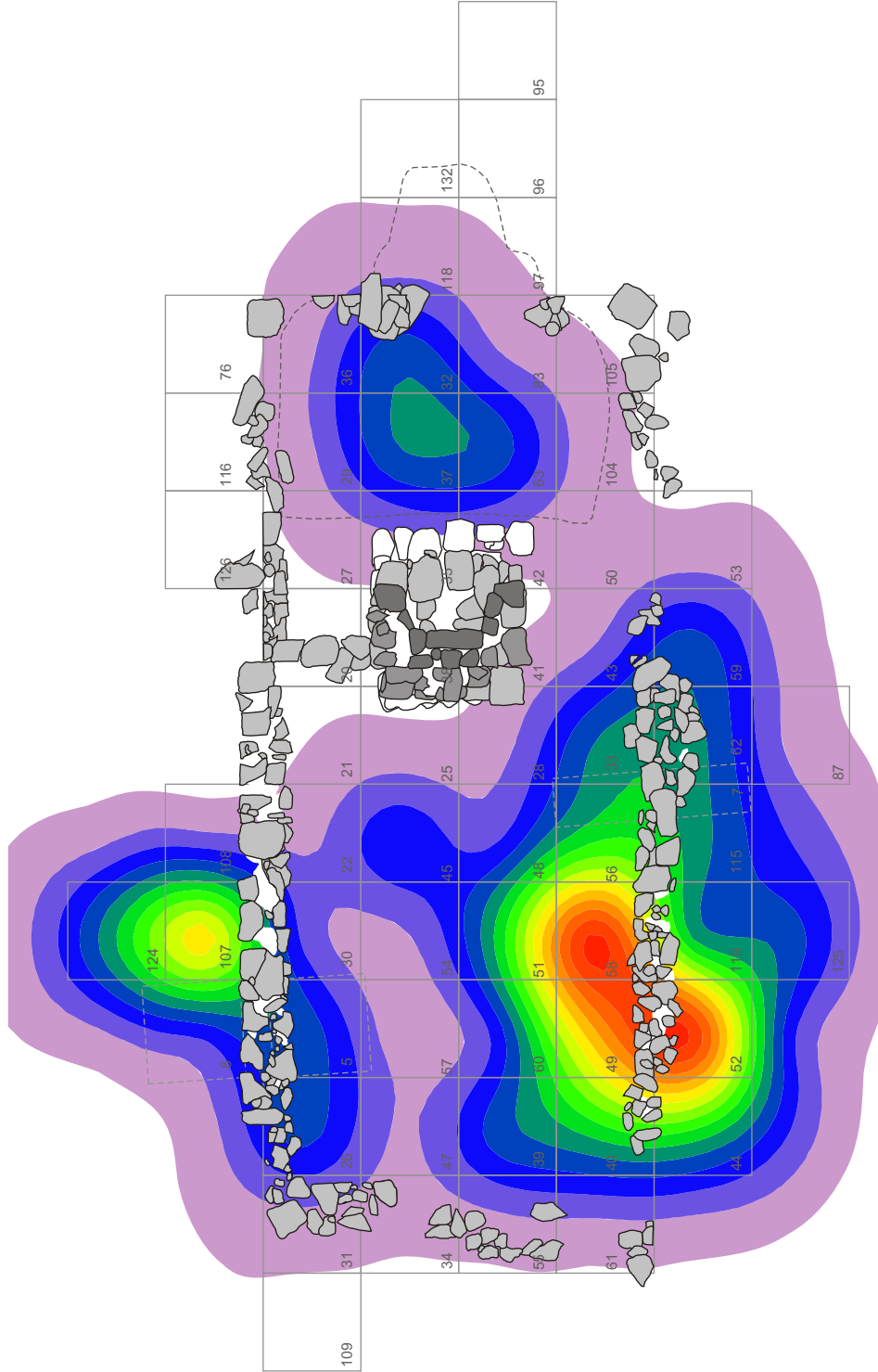
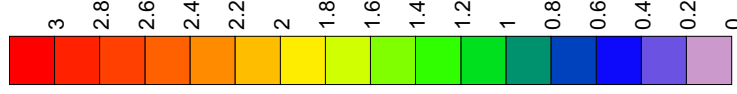
Structure A, Jewelry Sub-Group Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 262

Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

SOURCE URS

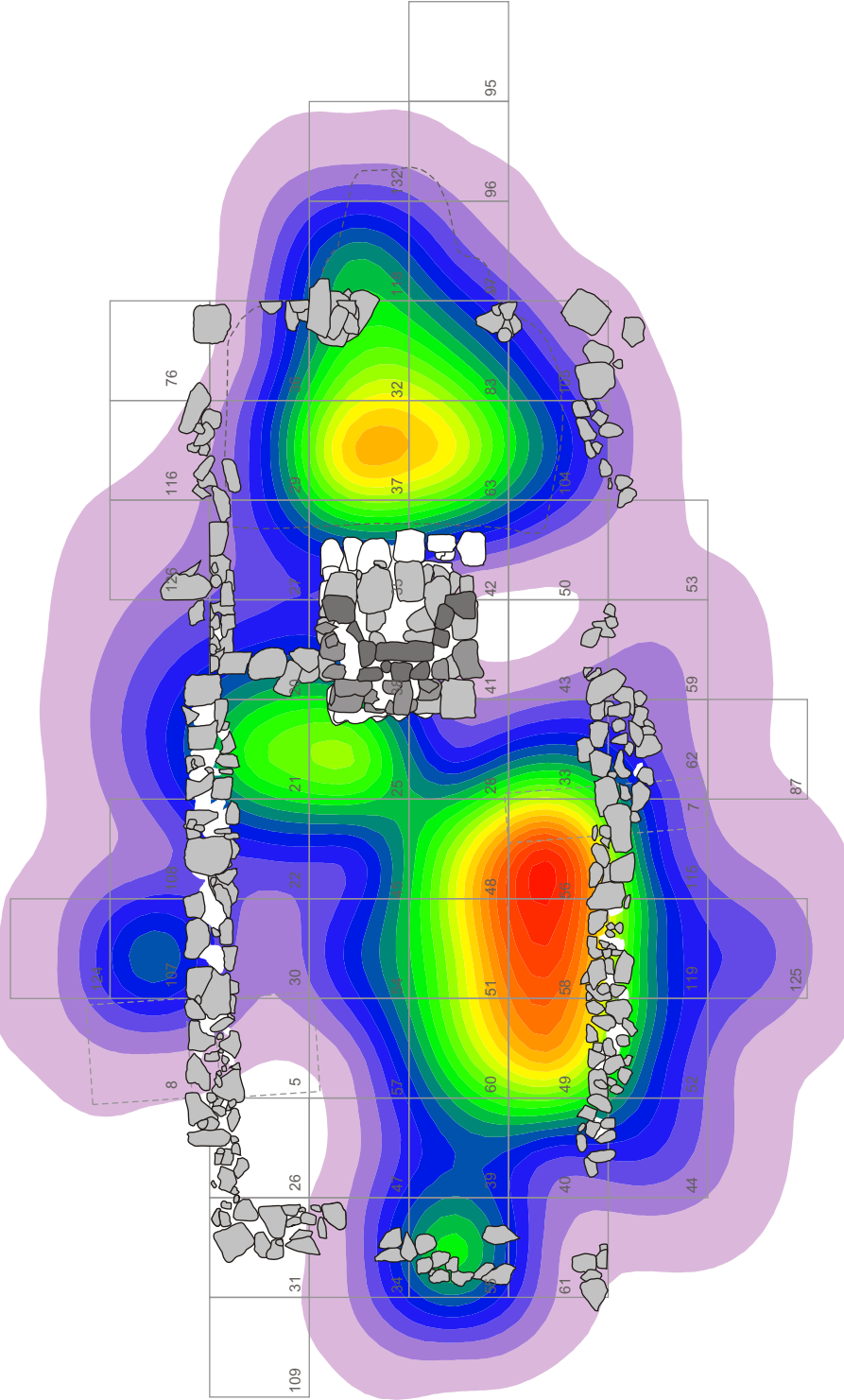
Structure A, Eyeglasses Sub-Group Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 263

Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

SOURCE URS

Structure A, Toiletries Sub-Group Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 264

central and north-central walls of the parlor. The concentration along the south and west-central parlor walls includes 52 fragments of a chamber pot, which was, in all probability, located on the second floor. The two concentrations could be an indicator of post-fire salvage efforts, which may have resulted in the redistribution of some of the fragments. The concentration outside the north wall is five fragments of a glass Vaseline jar. The concentration in the northeast corner includes several artifacts (e.g., whetstone, ointment jar, wire basket, hair pin) that indicate the location of personal items on the second floor.

Medical and medicine bottle artifacts were heavily concentrated in the kitchen, though lighter distributions were noted in the parlor as well. A possible thermometer was recovered from the northeast corner of the parlor. The medicine bottle concentration in the kitchen likely reflects medicines kept in the kitchen and, possibly, empty bottles stored in the cellar for later reuse.

Artifacts from the stationery sub-group were concentrated on the kitchen side (Figure 265). The majority are pencil fragments that may have been kept in the kitchen, upstairs bedroom, or cellar. The lighter distribution of stationery items on the parlor side included primarily pencil fragments. Writing implements probably were stored in many locations for easy access and use.

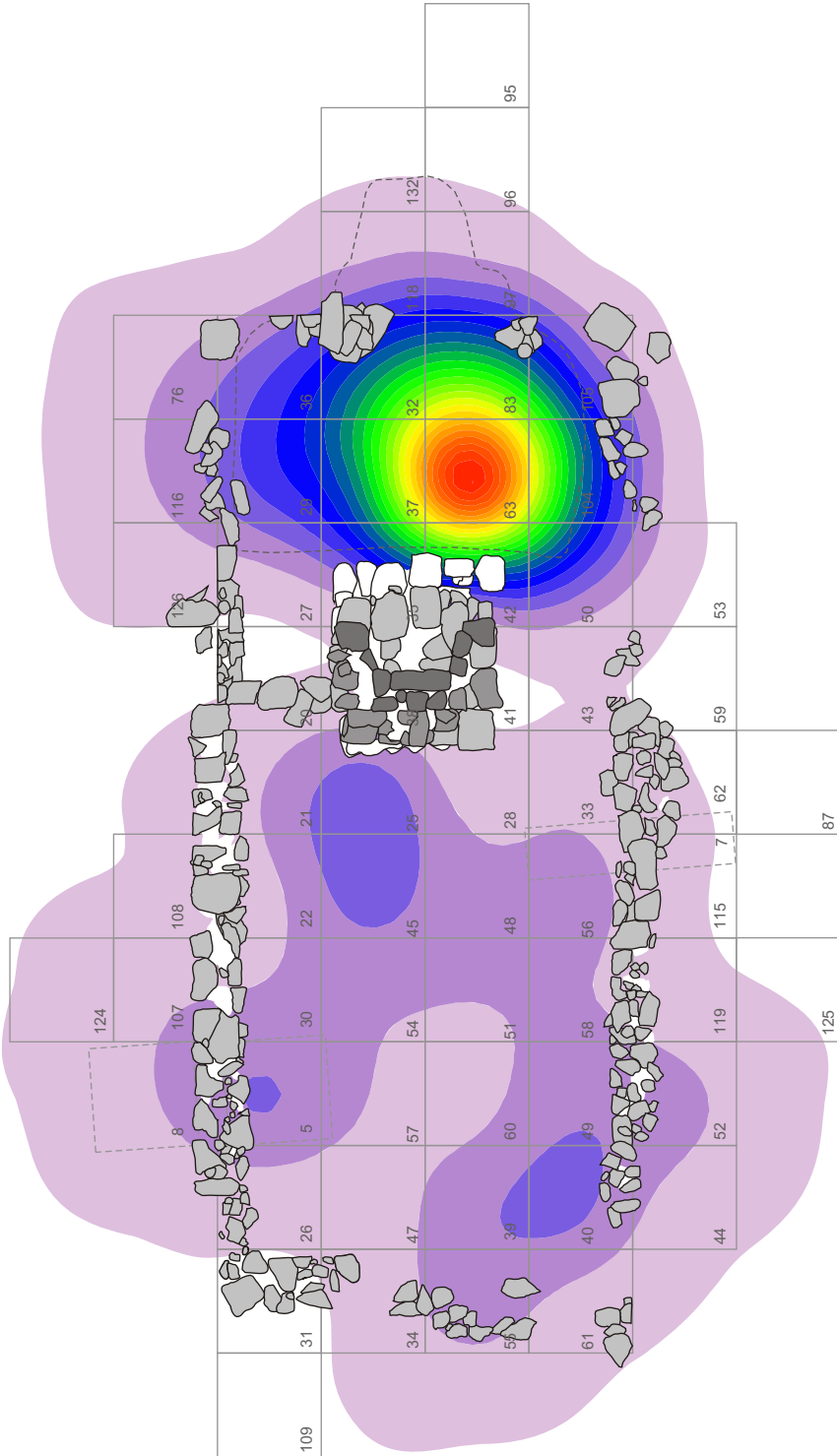
8.3.1.10 Religious Group

Two folk ritual caches (Features 4a and 4b) were identified within the chimney base in the kitchen. A number of other possible ritual caches or artifacts were also located throughout the house (Figure 266; see Table 129 in the religious section above). Of particular ritual significance are the incised button, incised window glass, crystals, pierced coins, and Native American stone tools. Two medallions may have been associated with protective qualities. Two complete Hoyt's bottles were also recovered and may have been associated with bringing good luck; Hoyt's was typically associated with bringing good luck during games of chance (Yronwode 2010). The majority of these artifacts were located in TUs near doorways, windows, or the hearth, which is consistent with folk ritual practices focused on controlling the movement of spirits within the house (e.g., Leone 2005). These artifacts would have been buried to keep them in place indefinitely. Some artifacts, however, were likely worn (e.g., pierced coins) or carried so that their protective qualities were portable and closely associated with only one person.

The distribution plot shows distinctive concentrations in the northwest and northeast corners of the parlor, as well as throughout the kitchen. Analysis of the distribution and types of artifact provides the possible locations of caches. The artifacts from these possible ritual contexts (RCs) were given arbitrary numbers to distinguish them from one another (e.g., RC1, RC2; Figure 266). The RC1 and RC2 chimney caches are discussed separately, since they were closely associated and had stronger contexts. The remaining RC artifacts may have been emplaced individually or may have been part of caches that are no longer archaeologically identifiable.

As discussed earlier in this chapter, changes in the composition of these ritual contexts through time are difficult to discern given the destruction caused by the fire. The contexts identified in the single pen kitchen and cellar likely date earlier than those contexts from the parlor; however, artifacts assumed to have ritual meaning from the parlor, such as the quartz crystals and medallions, were recovered from the burned Feature 2 contexts, and their possible associations with other artifacts was destroyed. Contexts from the foundation and chimney have, more or less, retained their integrity and associations as caches.

Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II
SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)
SOURCE URS



Structure A, Stationary Sub-Group Distribution

PROJECT NO. 20831016
FIGURE NO. 265

The following sections describe the various ritual contexts identified during analysis. These sections focus on documentation of the archaeological data and comparisons of the data with similar documented contexts at sites in the eastern U.S. Schablitsky (2011:45) examines the ritual context data from the Jackson homestead and “the reasons behind the use of concealed material culture by an African American family.” Her article is included as Appendix K as an additional perspective on interpreting African American ritual caches.

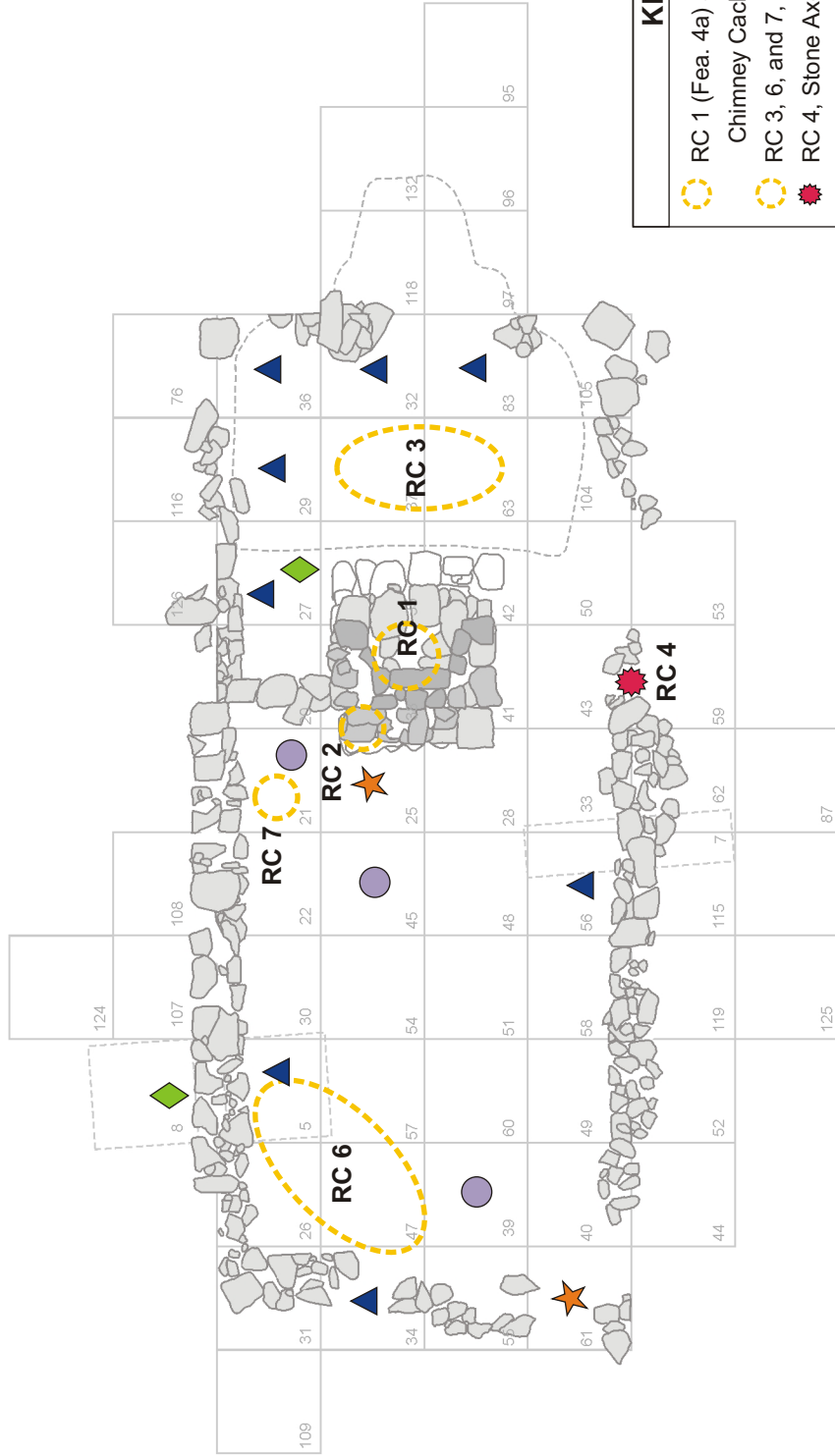
8.3.1.10.1 RC1 and RC2 Chimney Caches

While numerous religious or ritual artifacts were found, there were two folk ritual caches identified within the chimney base (Figure 266). Both caches, RC1 (Feature 4a) and RC2 (Feature 4b), differ from the other individual artifacts in that they were clearly identified as discrete deposits within the chimney base. RC1 was identified within the second course of stone in the chimney base and RC2 was identified within the third course of stone in the chimney base, northwest of RC1. The location of these artifacts within the chimney base suggests they were emplaced to control the movement of spirits. Leone (2005), among others, discusses the importance of location within the house for ritually associated artifacts.

It appears that both caches were emplaced during construction of the single-pen slave cabin sometime prior to 1860 (based on the 1840 census which documents a slave cabin on the property). Over time, additional cache materials may have been added through small voids in the stone to “recharge” the cache’s spiritual power (Leone 2005). It should be noted that while the cache contents appear to be discrete, some small fragments of intrusive (i.e., not intentional) artifacts or ecofacts (e.g., seeds) may have been introduced after the caches were emplaced.

The RC1 cache consists of a large quantity of artifacts from multiple groups, including activities, architectural, arms, clothing, faunal, floral, kitchen, and miscellaneous (Table 142). The contents of the RC2 cache (Feature 4b) are similar to those of RC1. RC2, however, contains a large quantity of pokeweed seeds (8,692), as well as other artifacts from the activities, architectural, clothing, faunal, floral, and miscellaneous groups (Table 143). The quantity of seeds recovered could represent an entire bush and are, therefore, not likely incidental inclusions. Since the seeds are poisonous, their placement may have been associated with protective qualities. The seeds also may have held significance due to their circular bead-like shape, or because they are black and produce a red juice (possibly associated with blood). While no reference was found to ritual use of pokeweed seeds, plants did serve an important role in African American folk rituals. As a result, it is likely that all of the RC2 ecofacts and at least some of the RC1 ecofacts were intentionally placed.

A cache always had a purpose, such as curing, protecting, or driving a certain person away. It was always for a specific reason and was placed in a specific location. Caches have been archaeologically identified in three primary locations within a house: “(1) the northeast corners, (2) hearths or chimney bases, and (3) thresholds or bottoms of staircases or steps” (Leone 2005:221). In particular, chimneys and doorways served as points of egress and ingress for spirits. The presence of the Jackson homestead cache in the chimney base suggests it was emplaced to control the intent and action of both benevolent and malevolent spirits in order to protect one or more members of the family.



KEY	
	RC 1 (Fea. 4a) and RC 2 (Fea. 4b), Chimney Caches
	RC 3, 6, and 7, Possible Caches
	RC 4, Stone Axe in Foundation
	RC 5, Projectile Points and Bifaces
	RC 8, Pierced Coins
	RC 9, Medallions
	RC 10, Hoyt's Cologne Bottle



PROJECT	18MO609 Phase II and II	URRS	PROJECT NO.	20831016
	SCALE			1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)
SOURCE	URR			

Structure A, Religious Context Locations



Table 142. RC1 (Feature 4a) Assemblage

Group	Sub-Group	Form	Count
Activities	Sewing	Straight pin	5
Architectural	Building materials	Foundation stone	1
	Building materials	Mortar	1
	Finishing materials	Possible tar paper	1
	Nails	Nail	1
	Windows	Window glass	1
Arms	Ammunition	Buckshot	1
Clothing	Beads	Glass bead	1
	Other	Grommet	1
Faunal	Birds	Bird	321
	Fish	Unidentified	1
	Fish	Perch-like fish	3
	Mammals	Deer mouse	2
	Mammals	E. harvest mouse	2
	Mammals	House mouse	5
	Mammals	Large mammal	3
	Mammals	Mouse or rat	7
	Mammals	Pig	1
	Mammals	Rabbit	1
	Mammals	Rodent	1
	Mammals	Rodent or rabbit	10
	Mammals	Small mammal	9
	Mammals	Squirrel	2
	Mammals	Unidentified mammal	2
	Shells	Unidentified univalve	27
	Reptiles	Venomous snake	5
	Unidentified	Fragment	8
	Unidentified	Unidentified vertebrate	304
	Floral	Seeds	Fleshy fruit
Herbaceous – edible/medicinal			1
Shrubs/trees			58
Nuts		n/a	20
Unidentified		n/a	12
Wood		n/a	884
Kitchen	Glass fragments	Fragment	1
Miscellaneous	n/a	Cellophane	1
Miscellaneous	n/a	Glass	4
	n/a	Mica	34
Total			1,807

Table 143. RC2 (Feature 4b) Assemblage

Group	Sub-Group	Form	Count
Activities	Miscellaneous hardware	Wire mesh	1
Architectural	Nails	Cut nail	1
Clothing	Beads	Bead	1
Faunal	Birds	Bird	117
	Mammals	House mouse	4
		Mouse	1
		Opossum	1
		Rabbit	2
		Rodent or rabbit	3
		Small mammal	4
		Squirrel	1
	Unidentified mammal	1	
	Reptiles	Snake	3
	Shells	Unidentified univalve	108
Unidentified	Fragment	16	
	Unidentified vertebrate	63	
Floral	Seeds	Fleshy fruit	28
		Herbaceous – edible/medicinal	8,692
		Herbaceous – medicinal	4
		Miscellaneous or unidentified	972
	Shrubs/trees	85	
	Nuts	n/a	1
Wood	n/a	1,083	
Miscellaneous	n/a	Fragment	14
Total			11,206

Typically, there were three items or a set of elements in a cache: something to identify the person (e.g., hair); something to direct the action of a spell, such as a bent pin for protection; and something to contain the spirit, such as a crystal, white powder, or glass fragment (Leone 2005). When the object of the cache passed near it, the spirit caused the desired result.

Straight pins, such as those that were found in RC1, have been identified archaeologically in African American folk ritual caches (e.g., Brown 2001; Leone 2005; Wilkie 1995, 2000). The material and sharpness may have been associated with protective qualities. Mortar may have been included in the RC1 cache because of its whiteness, which is associated with the spirit world (Leone 2005). The color white is associated with blessings, healings, jinx-breaking, and protection (Yronwode 2010). Conversely, the mortar and foundation stone may be incidental and associated with the chimney construction, as opposed to holding ritual meaning. A reference to the use of foundation stone or tar paper in ritual practices was not found.

Nails, beads, and glass are common elements in ritual practices. As noted previously, nails were valued for the protective qualities associated with their material as well as their sharpness. Nails

were often buried near hearths to ward off malevolent spirits as “the heat of the hearth would animate the pins or iron nails” and stop the malevolent spirit from entering the home (Fennell 2010). Beads and glass fragments were included in caches for their reflective qualities, which were associated with catching spirits. The mica fragments may have been included for their shiny nature or may have been incidental inclusions. The cellophane (invented in 1900) may have been added to the cache because of its shiny or transparent qualities.

The grommet from RC1 may have been included because it was metal (i.e., for strength) or because it was circular (i.e., associated with a cosmogram). While no specific reference to the ritual use of buckshot was found, it may have served a similar function as gunpowder and saltpeter, which were used for their protective qualities. Gunpowder was also used to produce quick, explosive actions, which may have been desirable in an apotropaic (i.e., repelling evil) cache (Yronwode 2010).

A large quantity of small faunal and floral specimens were also recovered, many of which were likely incidental from cooking or the original construction of the chimney. Some of these remains, however, likely served a ritual function, as they were common elements of spiritual caches. The ritual use of snake, rodent, bird, and fish bones has been noted by a number of authors (e.g., Puckett 1923; Schablitsky 2009).

8.3.1.10.2 RC3

RC3 consists of six artifacts recovered from cellar deposits in TUs 37 and 63 (Figure 266). The artifacts include one brownish-black chert PPK, one incised button, and four incised window glass fragments. These artifacts may originally have been part of a single cache, especially the incised artifacts. As noted previously, the button is incised with the letters “A” and “M,” and also contains “X” marks on its front face and side. The window glass also has “X” marks. Both TUs were located directly in front of the kitchen hearth; artifacts may have been placed under the floorboards in the kitchen and may have fallen into the cellar as a result of the fire and abandonment of the house. Conversely, they may have been purposely placed in the cellar. Except for the shield medallion in RC9, no other incised artifacts were recovered from the site.

As noted, the button may have been associated with Malinda Adams Jackson, Malinda A. Jackson (Mary E. Jackson’s daughter), Mary Jane Walker Adams (the wife of John T. Adams), or Mary Jane or Mary Ida Adams (his daughters). Cosmograms were often represented as an “X” on circular artifacts, such as buttons. The initials may have ritually targeted a living or deceased family member.

8.3.1.10.3 RC4 and RC5

RC4 and RC5 consist of prehistoric lithic artifacts apparently emplaced for spiritual purposes (Figure 266). Although the exact function of prehistoric artifacts in African American folk rituals is not clear, folk practitioners may have ascribed magical or protective properties to them (Wilkie 1995).

RC4 is the black, siltstone grooved axe recovered from within the foundation of the south wall of the house. It was located in the parlor addition, not far from the kitchen window, door, and hearth. It was intentionally placed within the foundation during construction of the addition in the late nineteenth century. Its placement is likely associated with the desire to control movement of either malevolent or benevolent spirits.

RC5 consists of eight prehistoric stone tools recovered along the periphery of the house. These tools include seven PPKs (five quartz, one quartzite, and one metarhyolite) and one quartz biface; five were recovered from the kitchen and three were recovered from the parlor. The stone tools were recovered along the interior of the north and east walls of the kitchen, as well as the north, west, and south walls of the parlor; effectively, this results in tools along all walls of the house. Unlike the stone axe, these were not recovered from within the foundation, but would have been from caches under the floorboards. The majority of these were very likely emplaced at the time of construction. The larger quantity of PPKs in the kitchen may suggest a rededication or a recharging of spiritual powers during the construction of the parlor addition. This could explain why there were more PPKs along the north and east walls of the kitchen. Conversely, the larger quantity of PPKs in the kitchen may reflect more intensive ritual practices during the earliest occupations of the house, while the lower quantity of tools in the parlor may suggest the family continued this ritual tradition, but to a lesser extent.

With the exception of the PPK in RC3, no PPKs were recovered from the center of the structure. This pattern strongly suggests that the PPKs were not simply part of an earlier prehistoric component, but were instead part of an important folk ritual tradition that was passed down through generations of the family.

8.3.1.10.4 RC6 and RC7

RC6 consists of two crystals and one round quartz cobble, and RC7 consists of 21 crystal fragments (likely originally from one crystal; Figure 265). The RC6 artifacts were recovered from three TU within the northwest corner of the parlor; the 21 crystal fragments were recovered from one TU in the northeast corner of the parlor. These artifacts were recovered near the north wall of the foundation, near windows and the front door. No crystals were recovered from the kitchen, though some of the PPKs may have served a similar ritual function.

The presence of crystals at African American sites has been well documented, and is presumed to be associated with the movement of spirits at points of ingress and egress. The location of RC6 and RC7 crystals near the front door and windows is consistent with this theory. Also, the RC6 and RC7 crystals were located in corners along the north wall (i.e., no crystals were found along other walls). Others (e.g., Fennell 2007:297; Neuwirth and Cochran 2000; Schablitsky 2009) have noted the apparent importance of northeast corners in ritual caching activities. The northeast corners of both the parlor and kitchen contained items, though clusters were also noted in the northwest corners. The meaning associated with north directions is unclear.

8.3.1.10.5 RC8 and RC9

RC8 consists of three pierced coins that were recovered from the parlor contexts: one 1884 half dime in TU 21 (in the northeast corner); one 18?? half dime in TU 39 (along the west wall); and one 1856 three cent piece in TU 45 (in the northeast; Figure 266). Two medallions were recovered from TUs along the north wall of the house; the incised (with a “T”) shield medallion was recovered from TU 27 in the kitchen and the Infant of Prague medallion was recovered from TU 8 outside the north wall near the front door.

Both medallions likely held folk ritual significance. While the Infant of Prague medallion may have had more mainstream religious meaning, it is unlikely the Jackson family was Catholic. The use of Catholic artifacts in folk rituals has been noted by others: “saints were called upon and prayed to by black Baptists and Catholics alike to fulfill specific requests” (Wilkie

2000:187). The incised shield medallion may have been worn to bring the spirit of “T” to protect the wearer. The “T” may relate to Thomas Jackson, Malinda Adams Jackson’s husband, or Thomas E. Jackson, her son. One of Malinda’s children, for example, may have worn the medallion to invoke the protective spirit of their father. The medallions and the coins would have been worn for their protective qualities, and were not likely buried with the other ritual or religious artifacts. They may have been kept on a dresser in the bedroom space on the upper floor. The two pierced coins from the northeast corner may have been stored together.

8.3.1.10.6 RC10

Two complete Hoyt’s cologne bottles were recovered from TUs 25 and 61 in the parlor (Figure 266). The cologne has been associated with bringing good luck to those playing games of chance. Conversely, they may have only had a mundane purpose. These bottles would also have been kept in the living space and not buried. Their location may reflect storage and use in the upstairs bedroom space.

8.3.1.10.7 Religious Group Discussion

As has been stated previously, examination of changes through time in the use of ritual objects is difficult; however, some interpretations can be made. Artifacts recovered from the chimney base (e.g., cache) and from the single pen foundation (e.g., the stone axe recovered from the south wall foundation) date to the construction of the cabin before the Civil War. One of the pierced coins dates to 1856 and is therefore also related to the pre-Civil War occupation of the cabin. These artifacts are associated with Malinda Jackson and her parents. Several artifacts date to the post-Civil War occupation of the house and were recovered from both kitchen and parlor contexts. For example, the Hoyt’s cologne bottles, the plastic medallion with shell inlay, the Infant of Prague medallion, and the incised button date to the late nineteenth to early twentieth centuries. In addition, one of the pierced coins dates to 1884. Since Malinda died before 1878, these artifacts likely are associated with her children and grandchildren. The pierced coins hint at a sense of tradition or continuity in folk ritual practices; likewise, the use of shell and glass also suggest certain objects were used, not necessarily for their specific forms, but for other qualities that made them suitable for use in folk ritual. That some of the artifacts are made from plastic versus ceramic (e.g., plastic buttons versus Prosser buttons) appears to be inconsequential. As has been noted by many researchers (e.g., Brown 2001; Schablitsky 2012), African American ritual practices are fluid and change through time; rituals are adapted for the task at hand and objects are used for their properties, perceived meanings, or convenience.

Since no intact caches were identified in the parlor side of the house, it is difficult to say what changes occurred from the initial placement of the chimney caches to the time of the parlor addition construction in the late nineteenth century. Quartz crystals and prehistoric projectile points were recovered from the Feature 2 burned contexts on the parlor side of the house (points were recovered from the kitchen side as well); however, since their original contexts were destroyed by the fire, it is not possible to say whether these artifacts were placed with other objects as part of a ritual cache. The majority of the artifacts recovered from Features 2 and 5 (i.e., the burn layers and cellar deposits) that appear to have ritual associations suffer the same problem of unclear context caused by the house fire. Their interpretation as artifacts holding religious or ritual meaning is based primarily on archaeological evidence from other archaeological sites in the region (e.g., Brown 1994, 2001; Ferguson 1992; Leone and Fry 1999; Wilkie 2000). Unfortunately, the incomplete nature of the assemblage precludes more definitive

associations and interpretations of changes in ritual behavior over time; however, the presence of diagnostic artifacts from varying occupation periods suggests a strong continuity of spiritual or ritual practices for over 70 years that the site was occupied.

8.3.1.11 Tobacco Group

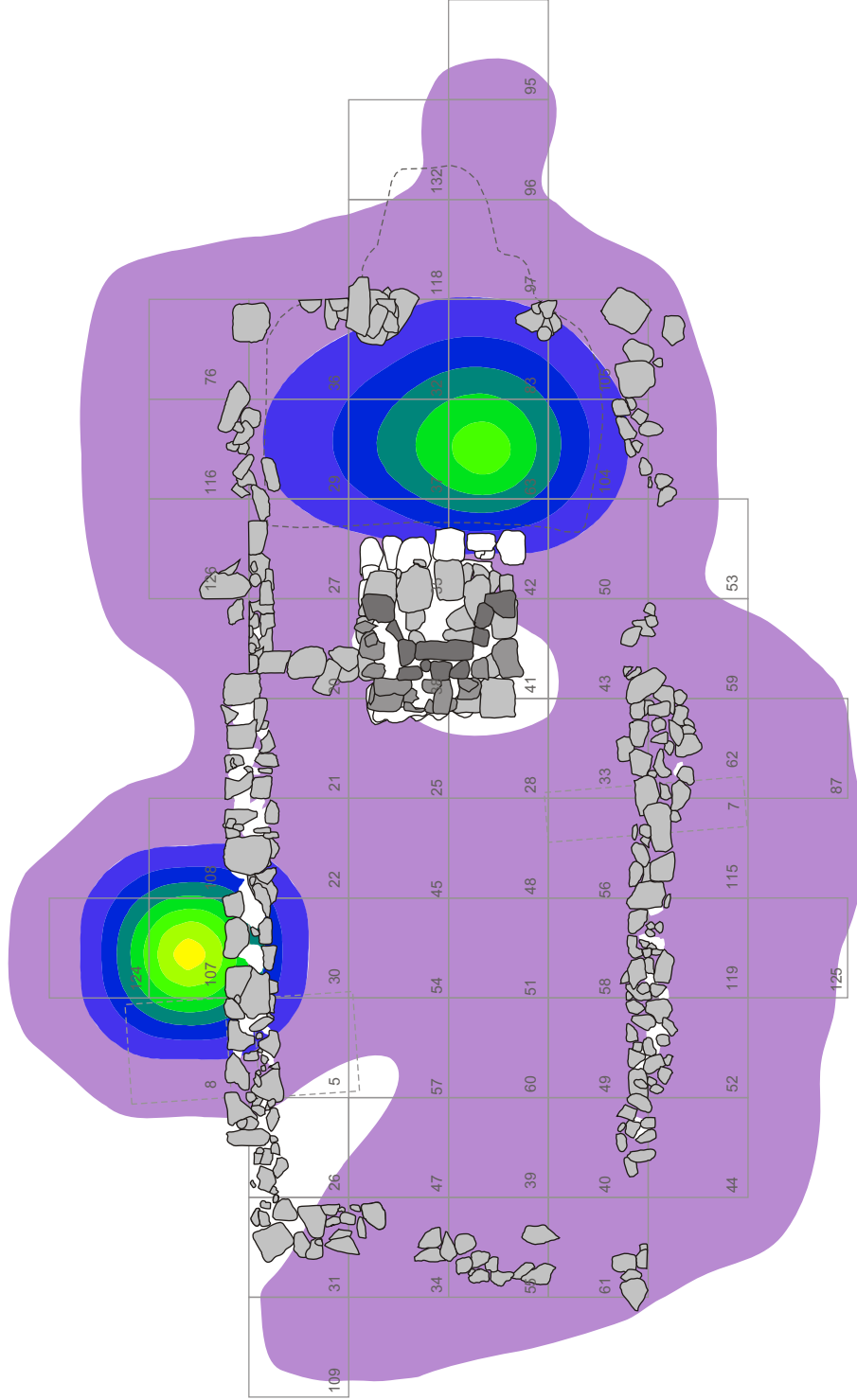
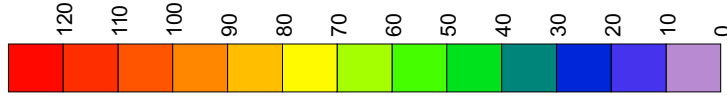
The distribution plot shows a concentration of tobacco items in the kitchen and on the outside north wall of the parlor (Figure 267). The parlor concentration consists of 122 tobacco tags from TU 107, suggesting there was a jar or can of tobacco tags on the front porch. Tags were typically saved and traded for goods, in a manner similar to the use of green stamps. The concentration of ball clay and reed-style pipe fragments in the kitchen may indicate smoking materials were stored there.

8.3.2 YARD AREAS

In total, 5,244 artifacts were recovered from yard contexts (Table 144). The artifact distribution shows several concentrations, as well as a light scatter across the yard (Figure 268). The concentrations are located at Structure B, midden Features 18 and 19, the east yard, and the northeast corner of Structure A (Table 145). The concentration on the north side of Structure A likely represents a front porch, as well as some debris from the house fire. The east yard appears to have been the location of at least one outbuilding (a posthole and postmold were identified in TU 71) and the yard area would have been used for a variety of domestic and farm functions. The relatively low quantity of burned artifacts from all yard contexts (e.g., 10 percent burned from Feature 18, 5 percent burned from Feature 19, and 0.3 percent burned from Structure B) suggests limited post-fire salvage and redistribution from the house. Due to the paucity of data, little was gleaned about Structure B and its appearance, function, and inhabitants.

The sections below discuss distribution plots for the architectural, kitchen, faunal, arms, and tobacco groups. The activities, clothing, furniture, and personal groups show diffuse patterns across the yard areas, with no distinct concentrations, so they are not discussed further.

Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

SOURCE URS

Structure A, Tobacco Group Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 267

Table 144. Yard Artifact Summary

Group	Sub-Group	Count
Activities	Laundry	1
	Miscellaneous hardware	40
	Music	4
	Sewing	2
	Stable and barn	5
	Storage items	20
	Toys	19
Architectural	Building materials	79
	Finishing materials	9
	Nails	450
	Other	2
	Spikes	2
	Windows	1,285
Arms	Ammunition	22
Clothing	Buckles	4
	Buttons	43
	Other	2
	Shoes	21
	Studs	1
Debitage	n/a	8
Faunal	n/a	25
Floral	n/a	6
Furniture	Hardware	4
	Knickknacks	4
	Lighting	129
	Mirrors	10
	Stove	6
Kitchen	Bottles or jars	134
	Ceramic	1,154
	Food containers	1
	Glass fragments	2,379
	Glassware	76
	Kitchenware	2
	Tableware	10
Miscellaneous	n/a	354
Personal	Coins	4
	Jewelry	7
	Medical	1
	Medicine bottles	7
	Other	1

Group	Sub-Group	Count
	Stationery	1
	Toiletries	2
Tobacco	Ball clay pipes	18
	Reed-style pipes	3
Total		6,357

Table 145. Yard Contexts

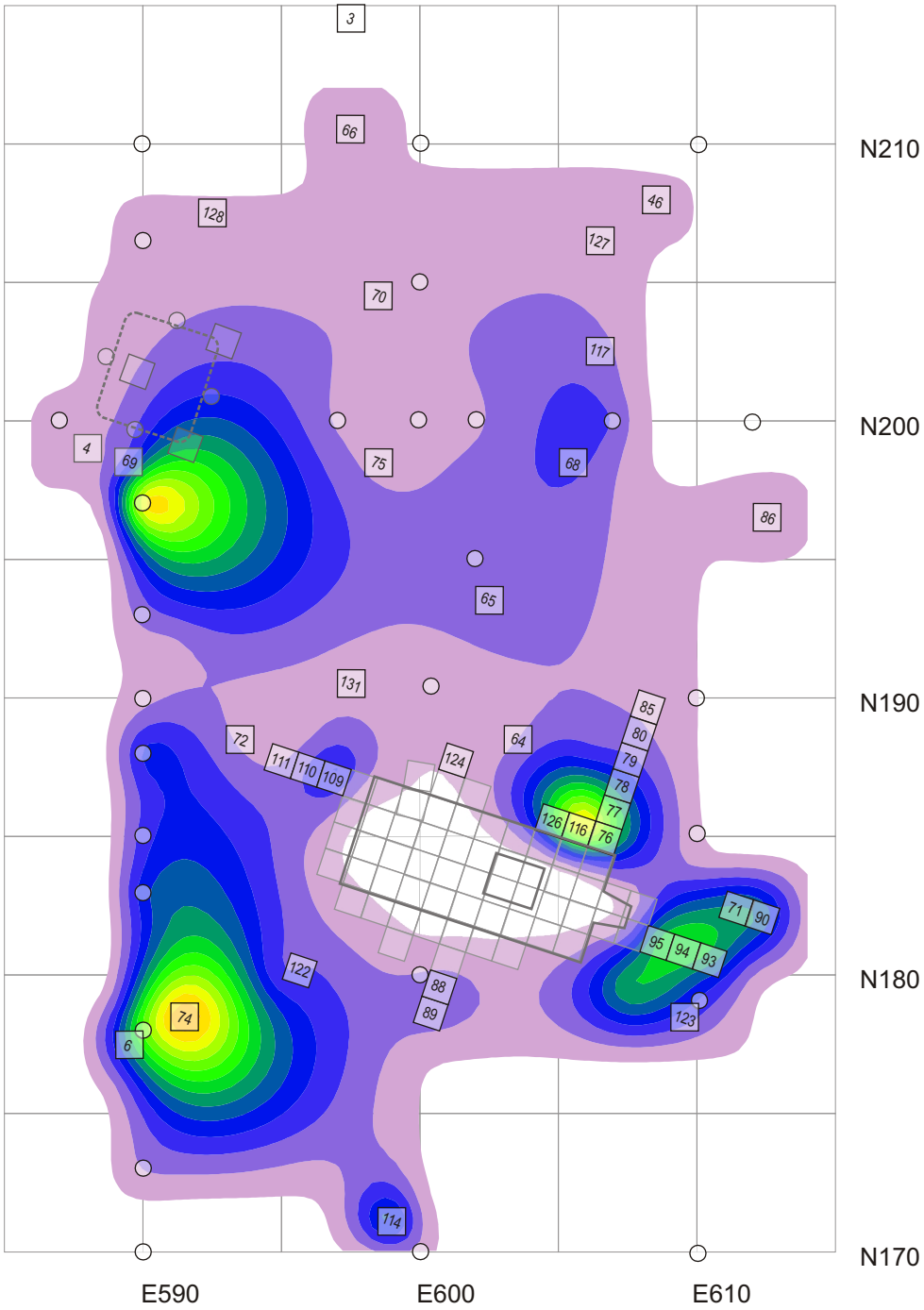
Group	Count						
	Structure B	Fea. 18	Fea. 19	North Yard	East Yard	South Yard	West Yard
Activities	23	10	5	15	15	1	6
Architectural	38	92	68	296	437	105	35
Arms		4	2	2	6	1	1
Clothing	7	8	3	12	14	4	3
Faunal		1	14		4	1	2
Floral	3				1		
Furniture	2	23	2	33	27	5	
Kitchen	224	846	221	527	1,149	187	282
Miscellaneous	44	21	27	58	48	35	23
Personal	11	5	2	3	1	1	2
Tobacco		1	2	5	6	1	
Total	352	1,011	346	951	1,708	341	354

8.3.2.1 Architectural Group

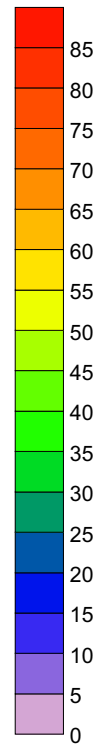
The distribution of architectural artifacts shows a light concentration across the site, with moderate concentrations along the northeast corner of Structure A, the east yard, and midden areas in the south yard (Figure 269). Structure B had very few architectural artifacts, likely the result of disturbances and redistribution from the mid- to late twentieth century dumping activities in the cellar. The concentration at the northeast corner of Structure A is associated with a front porch. The distribution of nails further suggests a porch was located on the northeast corner of Structure A. The east yard concentration was associated with an outbuilding of unknown function. Some of the nails from the midden contexts may be a result of structure cleanup after the fire.

8.3.2.2 Arms Group

The distribution plot for the arms group shows concentrations around Structure A and in the south yard around midden Features 18 and 19 (Figure 270). The concentrations indicate ammunition was discarded casually around the house, while the midden concentrations may be indicative of general yard waste deposited here, along with kitchen refuse.



Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

SCALE 1 inch = 6.5 m (21 ft)

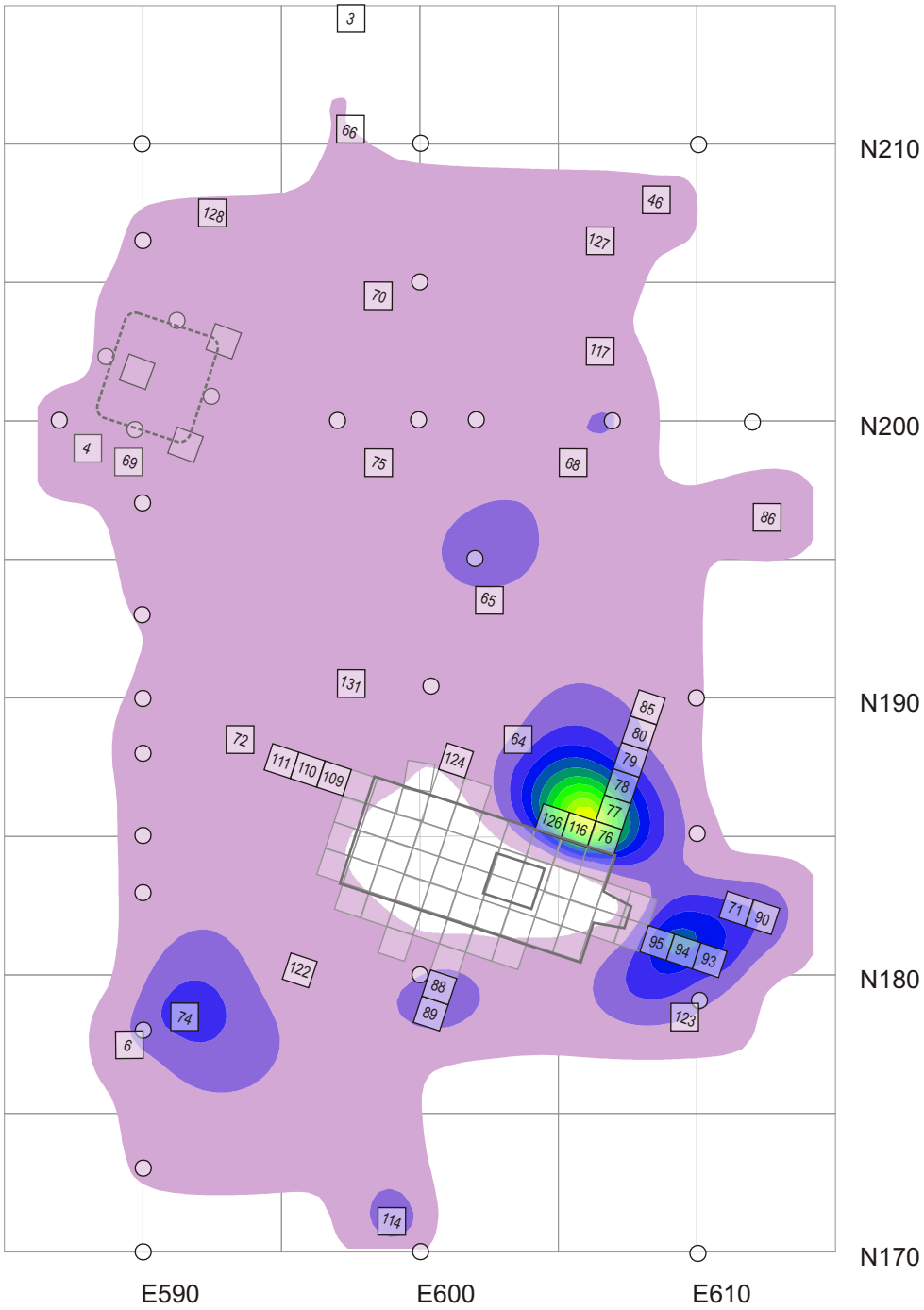
SOURCE URS

Yard Areas, Artifact Distribution

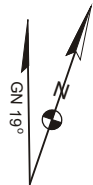
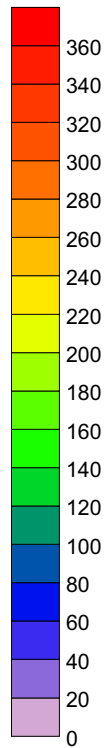


PROJECT NO. 20831016

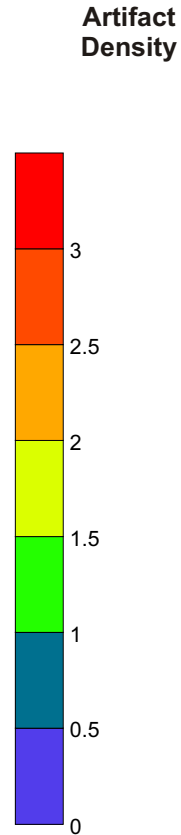
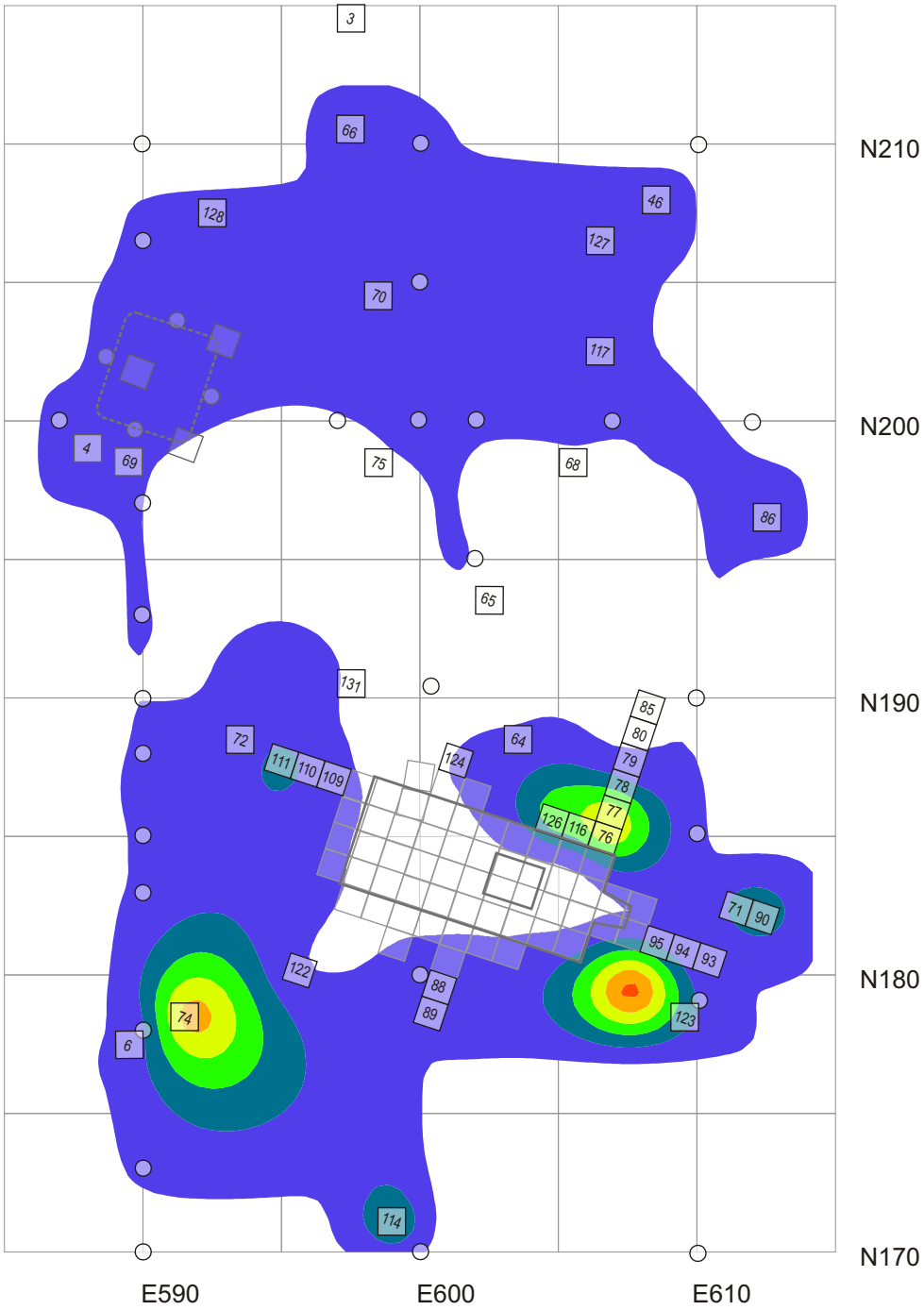
FIGURE NO. 268




Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Yard Areas, Architectural Group Distribution	
SCALE 1 inch = 6.5 m (21 ft)		
SOURCE URS	URS	PROJECT NO. 20831016
		FIGURE NO. 269



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Yard Areas, Arms Group Distribution	
SCALE 1 inch = 6.5 m (21 ft)			
SOURCE URS			PROJECT NO. 20831016
			FIGURE NO. 270

8.3.2.3 Faunal Group

Not surprisingly, the fauna concentrate in the south (rear) yard near the midden features (Figure 271). The faunal evidence, along with the kitchen group distribution, supports these areas being used as a midden to dispose of house waste.

8.3.2.4 Kitchen Group

The distribution of kitchen artifacts (which are primarily glass and ceramic) shows moderate concentrations in the east yard (just outside of the kitchen), north yard, and the south side of Structure B, and a dense concentration in the south yard around the Feature 18 midden (Figure 272). The Feature 19 midden shows only a light concentration of kitchen artifacts. The light concentration near TU 68 in the north yard may indicate a possible work area associated with kitchen activities; an alternative explanation is the concentration represents a diffuse scatter created from yard-sweeping activities.

8.3.2.5 Tobacco Group

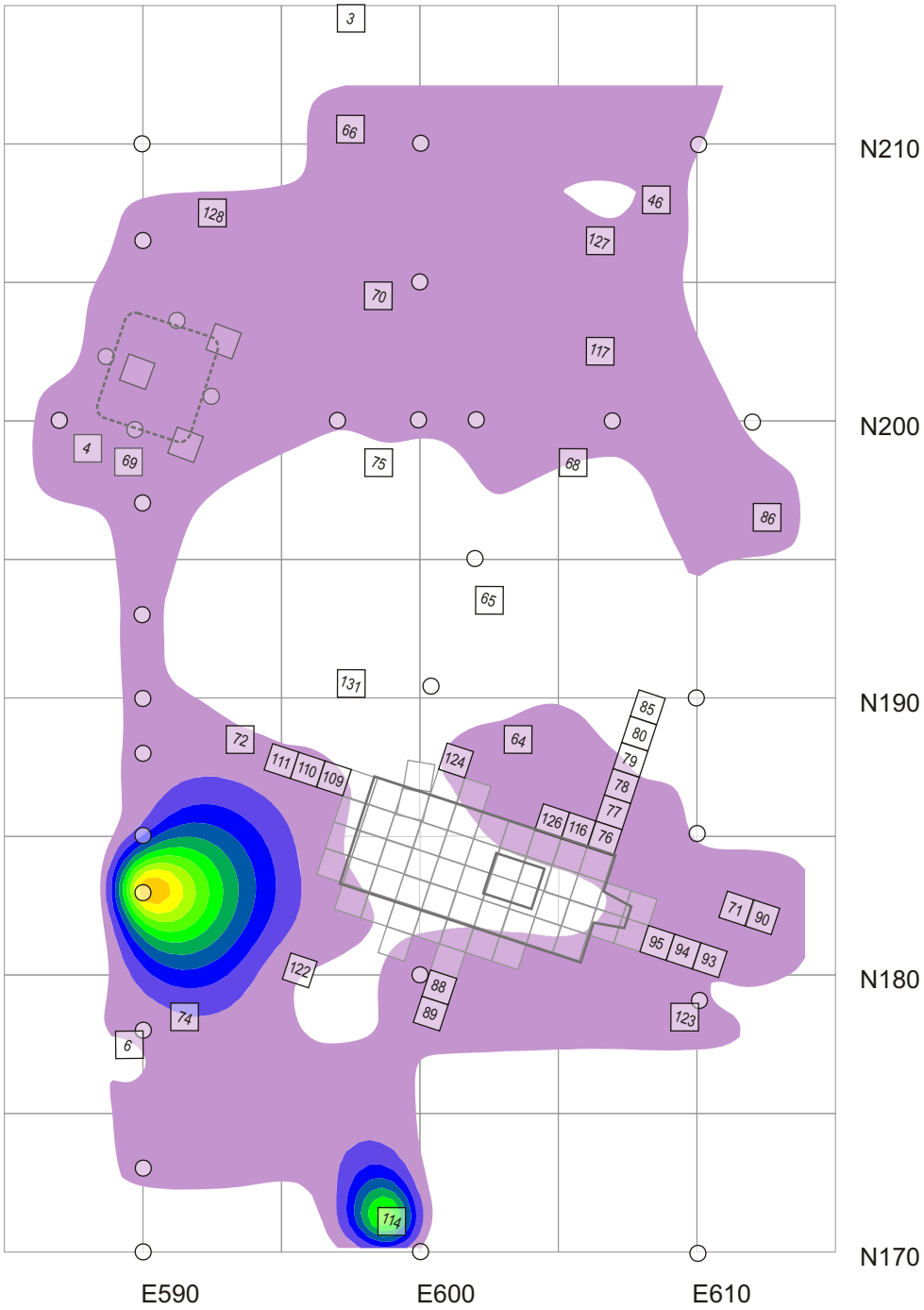
A low to moderate concentration of tobacco artifacts were found in the south, east, and north yards (Figure 273). The concentration at the northeast corner of Structure A in the north yard may be associated with tobacco use on the front porch, where tobacco pipe stem fragments may have been easily discarded.

8.3.3 STRUCTURE C

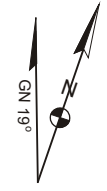
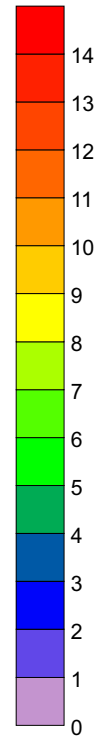
In total, 686 historic and modern artifacts were recovered from the Structure C dwelling (Table 146). Due to the small size of the building and the low quantity of artifacts, it was not possible to distinguish interior activity areas. The results of some distribution plots, however, offer information about the dwelling.

The artifact distributions tentatively suggest that this small dwelling had an end gable roof, with windows on the east and west sides, and doors on the north and south. The structure likely fronted to the south towards the main house, with a central rear (north) entrance where most activity took place. A small outbuilding may have been located to the west of the dwelling.

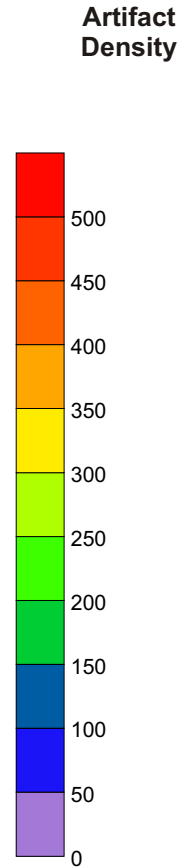
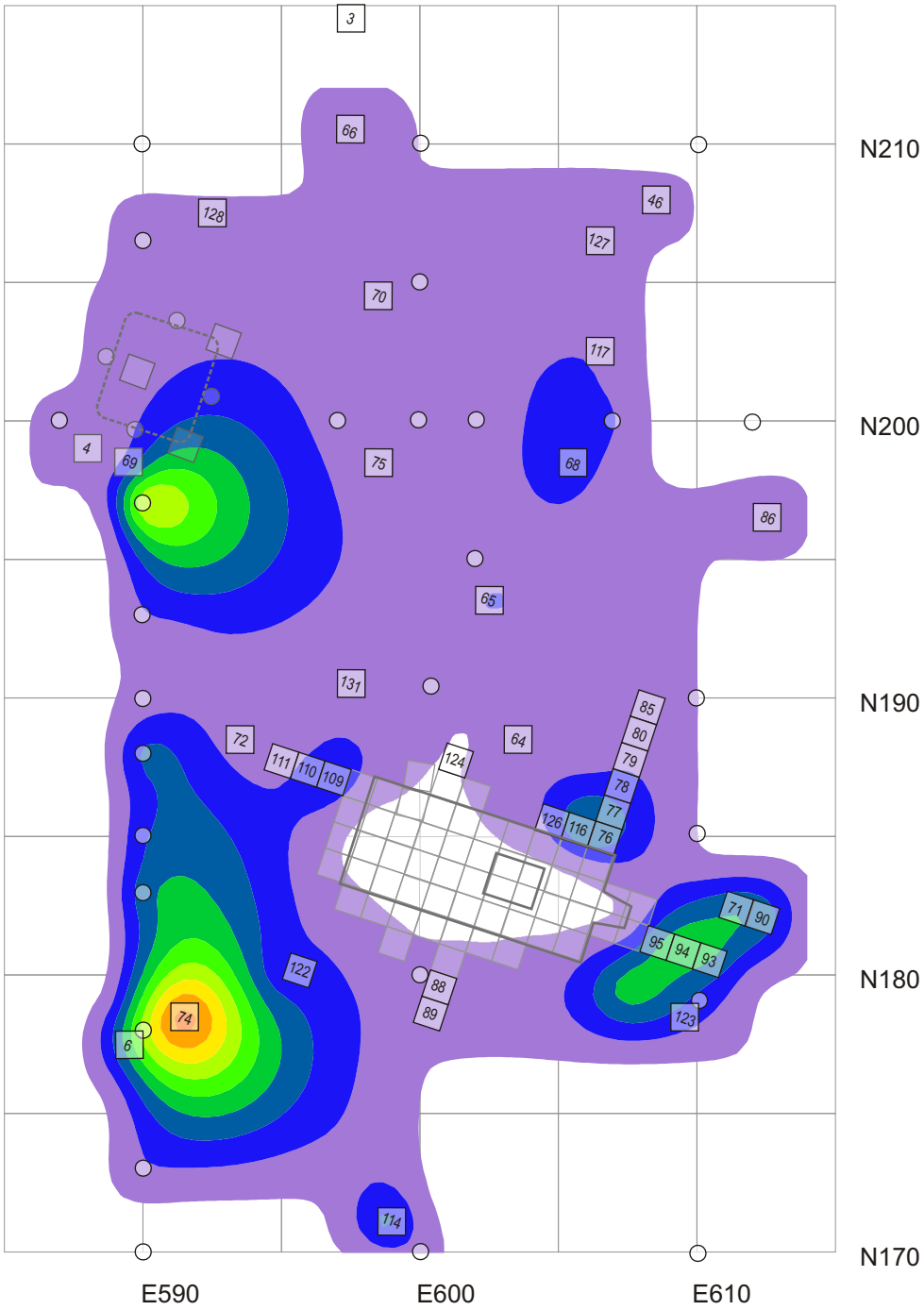
Unlike the main house that burned, it is likely that Structure C was abandoned for a time before it collapsed or was torn down. Two light artifact concentrations center on the two northern corners of the dwelling (Figure 274). This pattern may indicate that the structure collapsed towards the north. Two additional light concentrations were noted to the west of Structure C and may represent outbuildings associated with the dwelling. The architectural and kitchen groups were the only groups with sufficient artifacts to examine distributions. Both groups are concentrated in the north, which also may suggest the dwelling was purposely demolished and pushed towards the north.




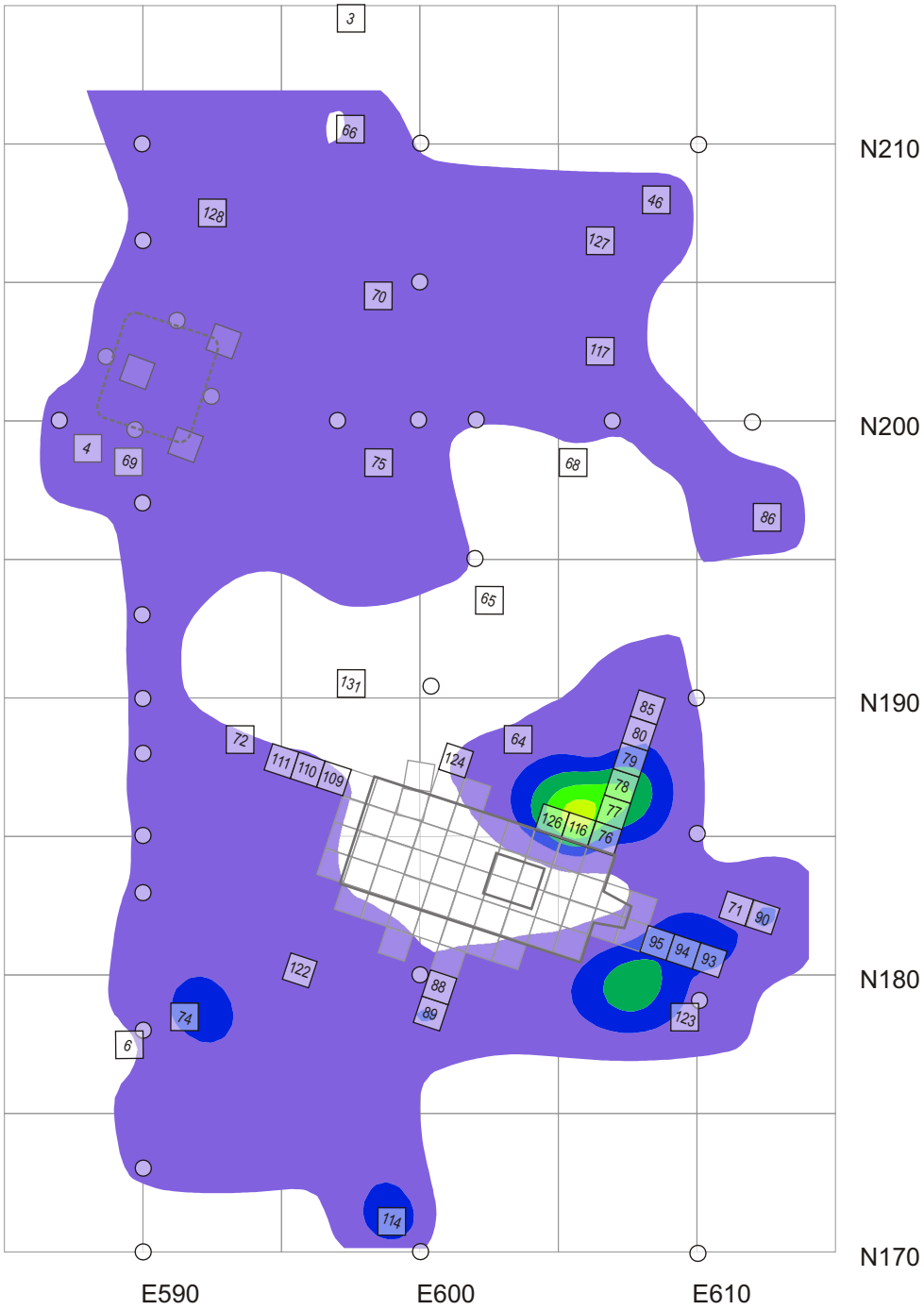
Artifact Density



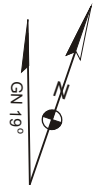
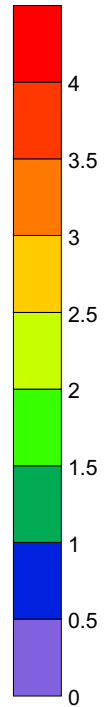
PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Yard Areas, Faunal Group Distribution	
SCALE 1 inch = 6.5 m (21 ft)			
SOURCE URS		PROJECT NO. 20831016	FIGURE NO. 271



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Yard Areas, Kitchen Group Distribution	
SCALE 1 inch = 6.5 m (21 ft)		
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 272



Artifact Density




PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Yard Areas, Tobacco Group Distribution	
SCALE 1 inch = 6.5 m (21 ft)		
SOURCE URS		PROJECT NO. 20831016
		FIGURE NO. 273

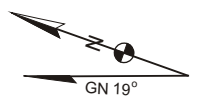
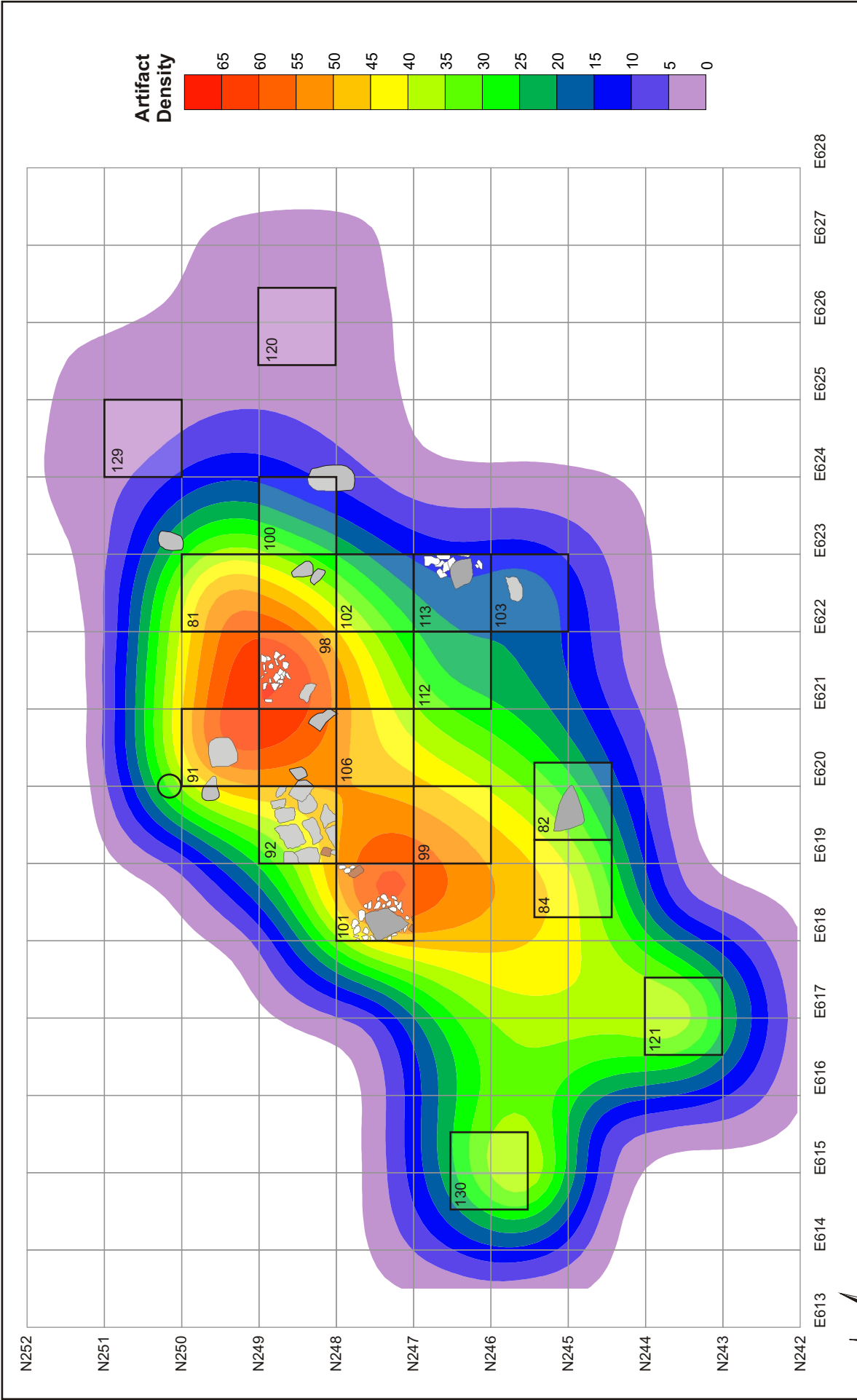
Table 146. Structure C Artifact Summary

Group	Sub-Group	Count
Activities	Miscellaneous hardware	11
	Sewing	1
	Stable and barn	1
	Toys	1
Architectural	Building materials	16
	Door parts	1
	Finishing materials	50
	Nails	189
	Spikes	3
	Windows	280
Arms	Ammunition	3
Clothing	Buttons	2
	Shoes	2
Debitage	n/a	3
Faunal	n/a	2
Floral	n/a	3
Furniture	Lighting	16
	Stove	6
Kitchen	Bottles or jars	9
	Ceramic	9
	Glass fragments	38
	Glassware	10
Miscellaneous	n/a	28
Personal	Medicine bottles	1
	Toiletries	8
Total		693

8.3.3.1 Architectural Group

Architectural distributions resemble the overall distribution from Structure C. Window glass was concentrated on the east and west sides of the structure, possibly indicating that windows were present on these walls of the dwelling (Figure 275). Window glass in TU 121, to the southwest of the structure, possibly reflects post-depositional processes; conversely, it may have been the location of a small outbuilding.

Nails were concentrated to the north of the dwelling (Figure 276). The structure was likely of balloon-frame construction, though the relatively low number of nails could suggest log construction. Of the 189 nails, most were wire (n=108), indicating a post-1877 construction date. A small concentration of nails in TU 130 to the southwest of the dwelling may indicate the location of a very small outbuilding, such as a shed. This TU also yielded three wood fragments, six brick fragments, and 12 kitchen artifacts.



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

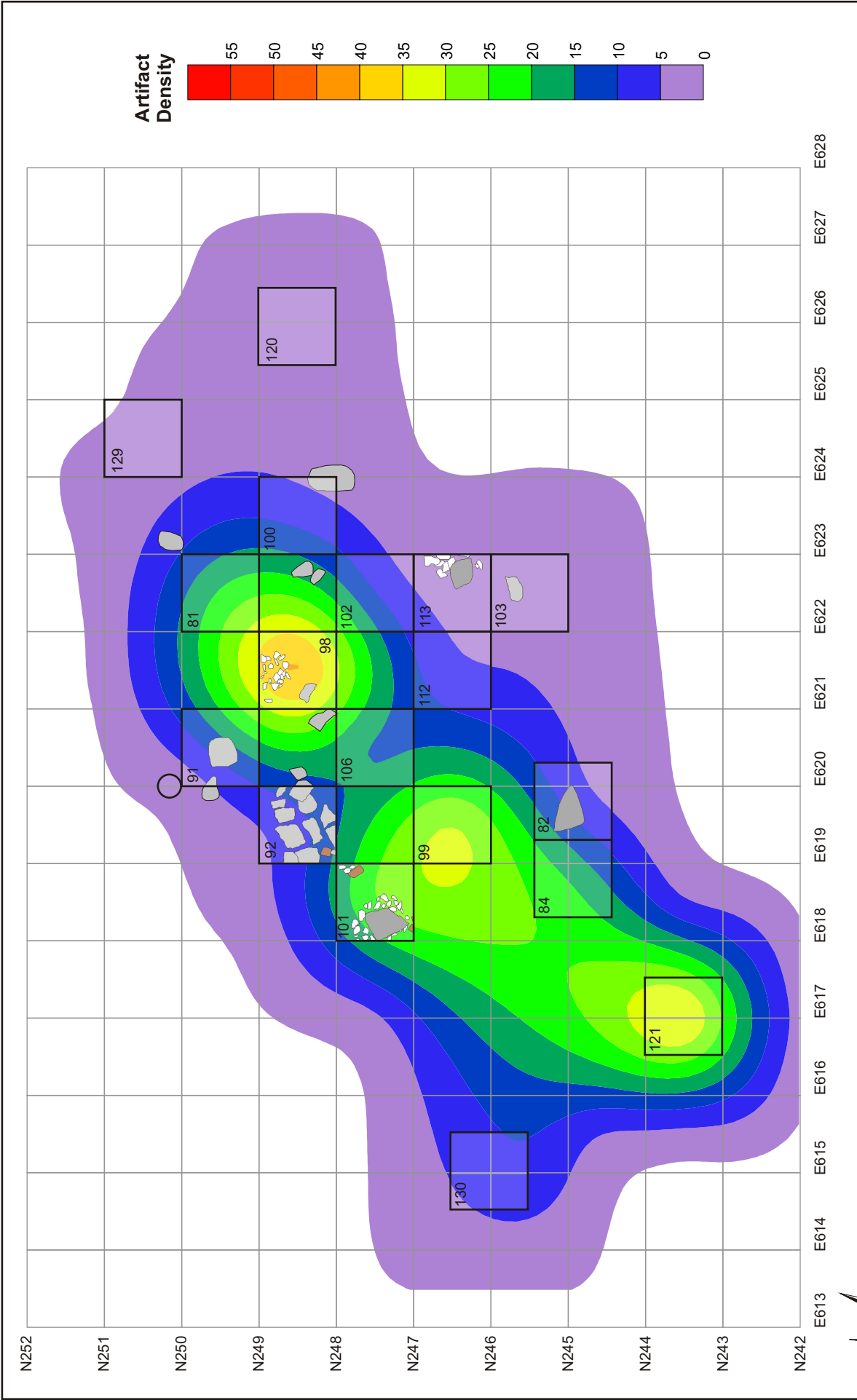
SOURCE URS

Structure C, Artifact Distribution



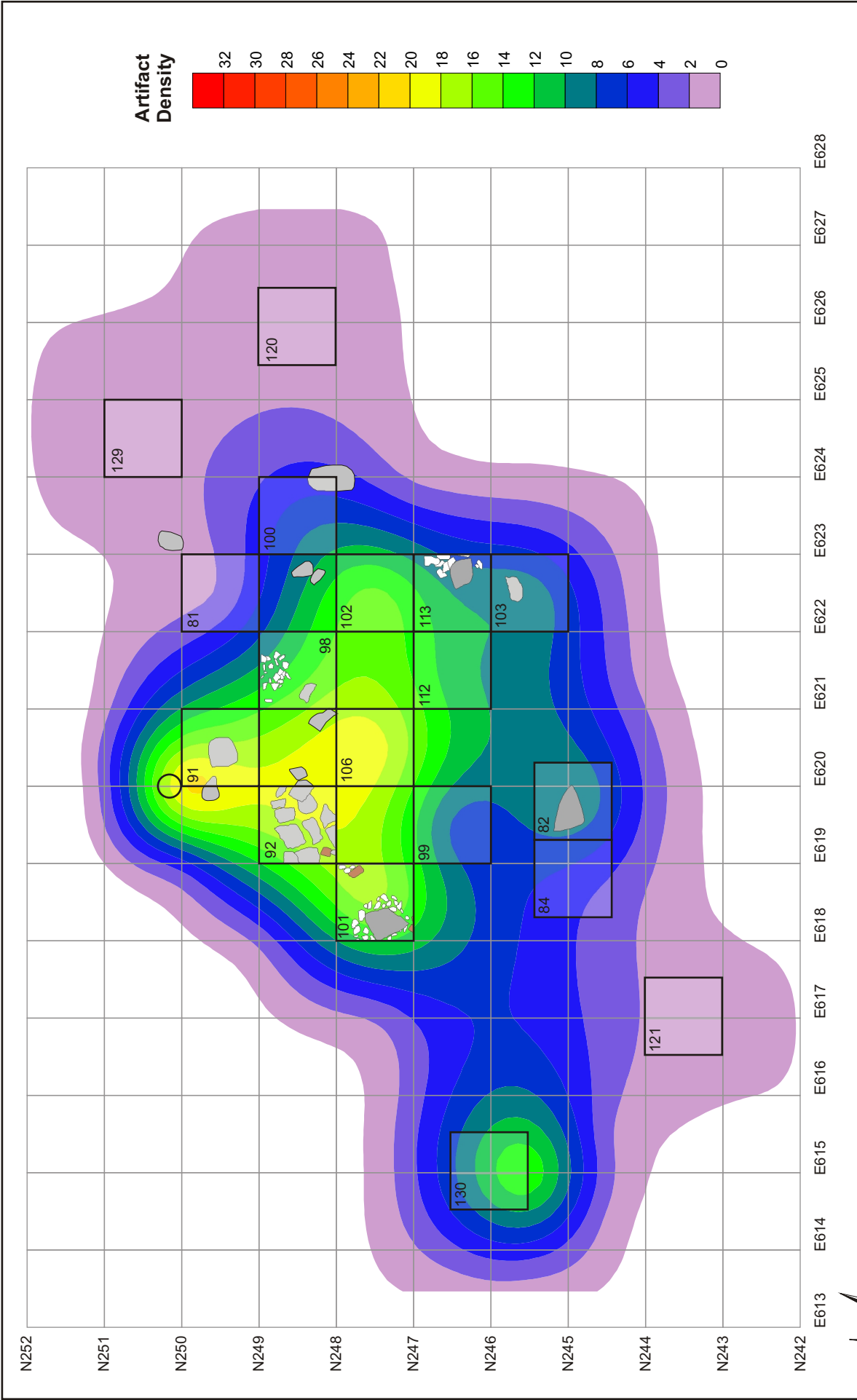
PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 274



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II		Structure C, Window Glass Sub-Group Distribution	
SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)		PROJECT NO. 20831016	
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 275	





PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II		Structure C, Nails Sub-Group Distribution	
SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)		PROJECT NO. 20831016	
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 276	



TU 81 to the east of the dwelling and TU 84 to its west included significant amounts of asphalt shingle fragments. This may indicate that the structure had a gable roof, and that shingles fell to the east and west during decay. The asphalt shingles suggest a post-1903 date of the roof. Whether this was the original roof or a replacement is unknown.

The dwelling does not appear to have had a chimney or hearth; stove parts, however, were recovered. Whether the stove was for both heating and cooking could not be determined. The paucity of faunal remains (shells, n=2) and kitchen ceramic sherds (n=9) from Structure C may suggest that the occupants were eating at the main house (Structure A). This is even more likely if the dwelling served as a camp house for woodchoppers, as the historic records suggest. The presence of woodchoppers in the area in 1880 aligns well with the nail data (i.e., post-1877). The asphalt date may reflect later construction, or simply dwelling repair and maintenance.

Stone steps centered on the north wall of the dwelling indicate the main doorway faced north. One door hinge recovered at the southeast corner may suggest it also had a south-facing door. If the occupants spent time at the main house, including taking their meals there, it would be likely that Structure C would have had a door facing south towards the main house.

8.3.3.2 Kitchen Group

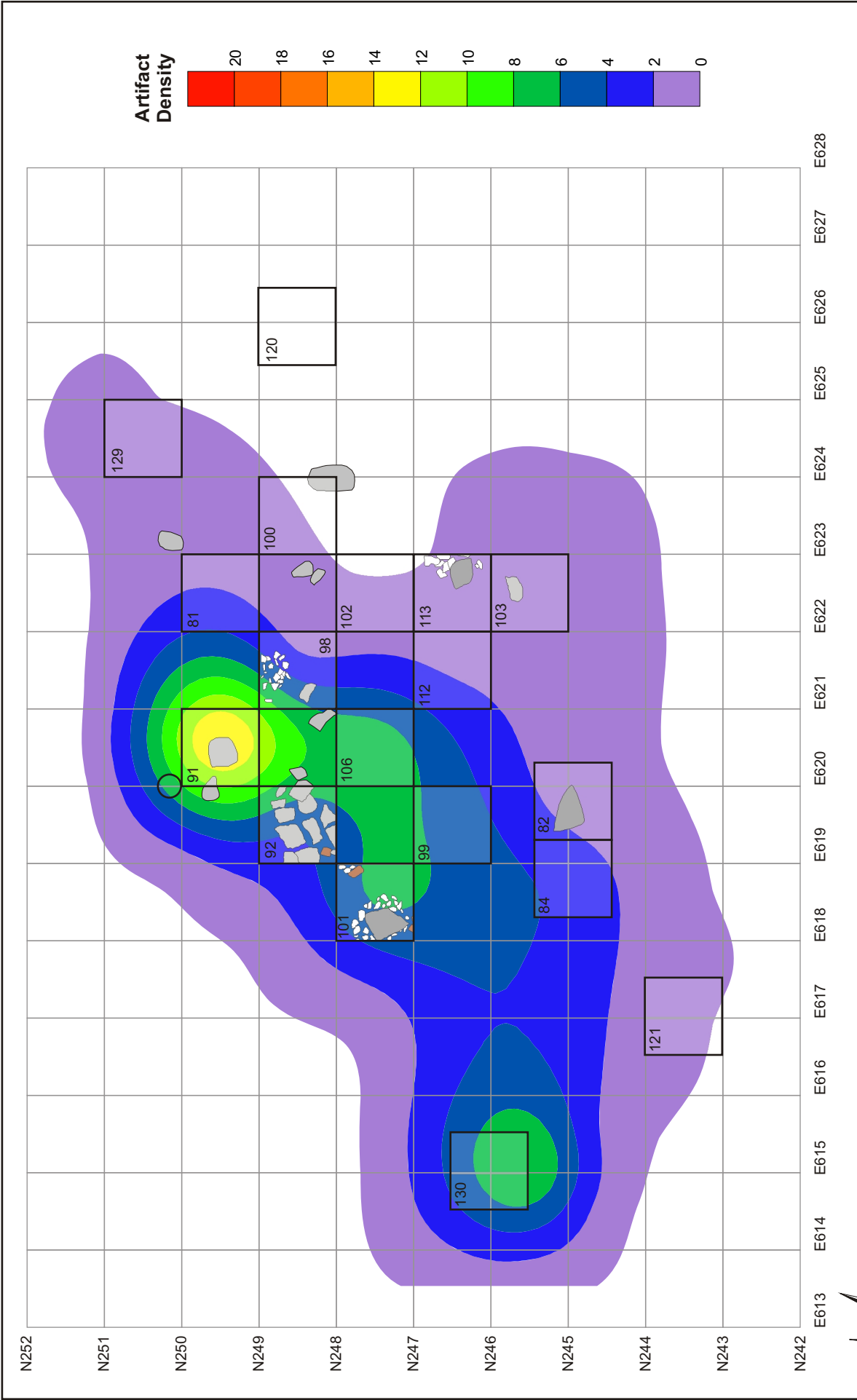
Kitchen artifacts (n=66) were concentrated on the north side of the dwelling (Figure 277). This pattern is somewhat surprising, since it seems likely that residents would have traveled between the houses frequently. This may indicate that the front of Structure C faced the main house and refuse disposal and casual activities took place in the back, to the north. A low-density concentration of kitchen artifacts was present west of the dwelling, where a window may have been.

8.4 BURNED HISTORIC ARTIFACTS

Burned artifacts (n=51,268) account for almost 32 percent of the total Jackson homestead assemblage. Burned artifacts were recovered from across the site, but predominantly were from parlor and kitchen contexts from Structure A, the main house. The parlor contained 51.18 percent (n=26,237) of the burned artifacts, while the kitchen contained 47.53 percent (n=24,368). The remaining 1.29 percent (n=663) of burned artifacts were recovered other contexts within the site (e.g., the yard).

In total, 32,846 of the 38,540 floral remains are burned (85.23 percent; note: this analysis did not include tuliptree or carpetweed, as they were likely intrusive or noncultural.) The large quantities of wood and inherent sampling biases were masking patterns and, as a result, the burned floral data were excluded from this analysis. Of the 14,908 faunal specimens, only 1,483 had evidence of burning (9.95 percent). The faunal assemblage was also excluded due to sampling biases and the presence of intrusive, non-dietary animal remains (e.g., mice). Also, it was unclear whether burned faunal remains were the result of cooking or the house fire.

The remaining artifacts (n=16,939) comprise the dataset for this burned artifact analysis (Table 147). Site wide, the majority of burned artifacts are from the architectural group, predominantly nails and window glass. The miscellaneous and kitchen groups have similar percentages of burned artifacts. The miscellaneous group contains artifacts that were burned beyond the point of recognition (many were likely from other groups before they burned). The burned kitchen artifacts are mostly ceramics and glassware.



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

SOURCE URS

URRS

Structure C, Kitchen Group Distribution

PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 277

Table 147. Site-Wide Burned Artifact Summary

Group	Total Count	Burned Count	Burned Percent within Group	Burned Assemblage Percent
Activities	2,959	67	2.26	0.40
Architectural	28,316	5,687	20.08	33.57
Arms	273	2	0.73	0.01
Clothing	3,705	256	6.91	1.51
Furniture	2,181	52	2.38	0.31
Kitchen	22,098	5,210	23.58	30.76
Miscellaneous	14,822	5,515	37.21	32.56
Personal	799	127	15.89	0.75
Religious	51	3	5.88	0.02
Tobacco	423	20	4.73	0.12
Total	75,627	16,939	22.40	100.01

The activities, arms, clothing, faunal, furniture, personal, religious, and tobacco groups all contained lower percentages of burned artifacts, both within their own groups and within the entire assemblage. Some classes of artifacts may have artificially lower burned percentages due to the nature of how the materials burned. For example, nails may not have exhibited classic signs of burning unless they burned to the point of annealing.

Analysis of the distribution of burned artifacts between the kitchen and parlor contexts provides more meaningful information about the nature and origin of the fire (Table 148; Chart 29). Again, the floral and faunal groups were removed from the dataset. While the overall counts for kitchen and parlor contexts are similar, the percentage of burned artifacts from the parlor is more than five times greater than that from the kitchen.

The architectural, clothing, kitchen, miscellaneous, and personal groups suggest more intensive burning in the parlor than in the kitchen. For example, there were 10 times more burned architectural artifacts from the parlor, despite there being only one-third more total artifacts recovered from the parlor. Conversely, there were nearly twice as many clothing artifacts recovered from the kitchen, but only half as many were burned. It is likely both sides of the house had upstairs rooms that served as bedrooms with clothing storage. The burned pattern suggests that both floors of the parlor side burned more intensely than did the kitchen side.

Numerous artifacts were burned to the point that identification was not possible; therefore, they could not be placed into meaningful functional groups. As a result, these artifacts were included in the miscellaneous group. The miscellaneous artifacts from the parlor contain the second highest percentage of burned artifacts, while the kitchen had relatively few burned miscellaneous artifacts. This indicates that many artifacts recovered from the parlor were unidentifiable due to burning, and suggests that the fire was very intense or very long-lasting on the parlor side of the house.

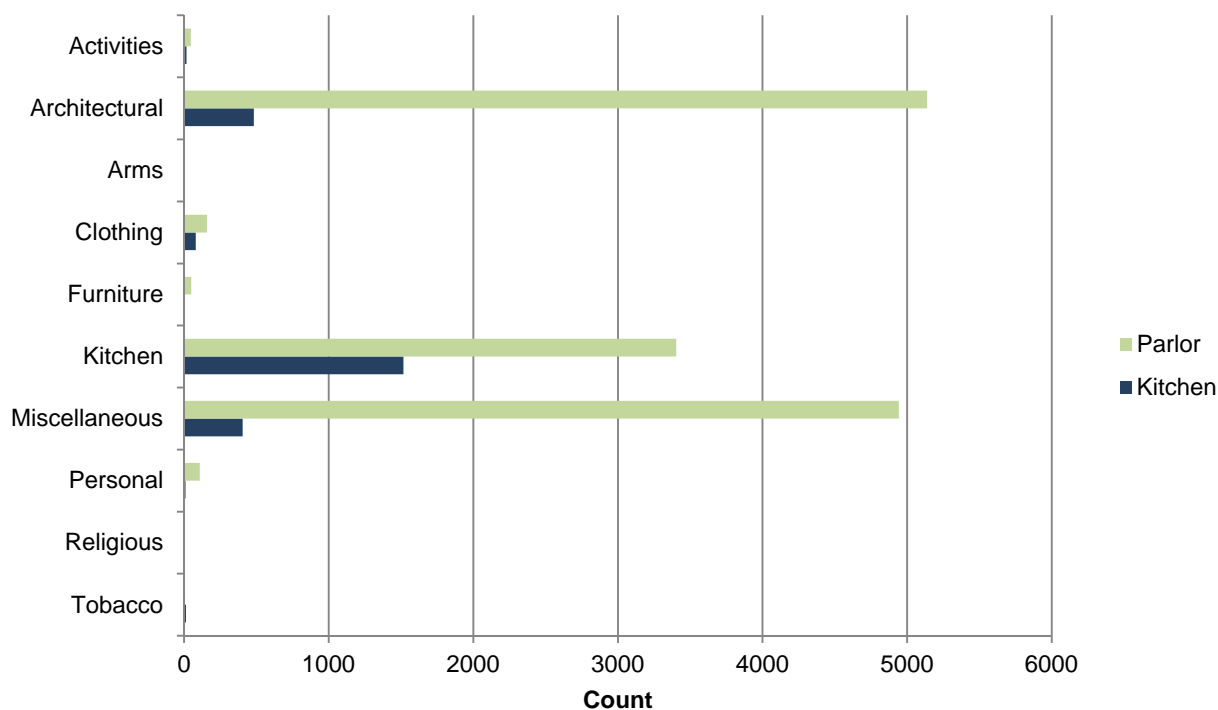
The kitchen group also suggests more intensive burning within the parlor. For example, 77.53 percent (n=2,771) of the ceramics from the parlor were burned, while only 9.53 percent (n=224) of the kitchen ceramics were burned. The ceramic minimum vessel count data echoes the patterns seen in other groups. A higher percentage of vessel sherds from the parlor were burned

(76.49 percent; n=641), compared to vessel sherds from the kitchen (11.97 percent; n=71). These data, like the miscellaneous group, suggest that the fire was more intense on the parlor side of the house.

Table 148. Kitchen and Parlor Burned Artifact Summaries

Group	Kitchen				Parlor			
	Total Count	Burned Count	Burned Percent	Burned Kitchen Assemblage Percent	Total Count	Burned Count	Burned Percent	Burned Parlor Assemblage Percent
Activities	1,437	17	1.18	0.67	1,275	47	3.69	0.34
Architectural	10,585	483	4.56	19.11	15,239	5,138	33.72	37.07
Arms	127	1	0.79	0.04	117	1	0.85	0.01
Clothing	2,353	81	3.44	3.20	1,230	159	12.93	1.15
Furniture	904	1	0.11	0.04	1,082	50	4.62	0.36
Kitchen	11,535	1,517	13.15	60.01	6,436	3,403	52.87	24.55
Miscellaneous	6,039	405	6.71	16.02	8,140	4,942	60.71	35.66
Personal	369	10	2.71	0.40	381	109	28.61	0.79
Religious	15	0	0	0	36	3	8.33	0.02
Tobacco	213	13	6.10	0.51	186	7	3.76	0.05
Total	33,577	2,528	7.53	100.00	34,122	13,859	40.62	100.00

Chart 29. Distribution of Burned Artifacts between the Kitchen and Parlor Contexts



The burned assemblage data indicates the fire originated in the parlor and burned most intensely within that part of the house. The distribution plots show that the majority of unburned artifacts

were recovered from kitchen contexts. Some of the unburned artifacts from the parlor may have been in pieces of furniture, such as the pie safe, that prevented or lessened fire damage.

The burned artifact distribution shows the highest concentration in the southeast corner of the parlor, where other archaeological data suggests the fire was most intense. Some of the spikes in the cellar may be related to infilling after the fire (i.e., the cellar hole may have been a useful place to discard debris, as the family picked through the remains of the house.)

8.5 DNA ANALYSIS

Ten artifacts were submitted for genetic analysis (Table 149; Appendix H). The artifacts selected were obtained from three separate contexts: three clay pipe stems from Feature 2, three clay pipe stems and three metal harmonica fragments from Feature 5, and one clay pipe stem from TU 77 in the east yard.

Table 149. DNA Analysis Results from Selected Artifacts

Context	Artifact Type	Artifact Number	nDNA*	mtDNA*	Haplogroup
Feature 2	Clay pipe stem	9003	No	No	n/a
Feature 2	Clay pipe stem	9024	No	Yes	Group H
Feature 2	Clay pipe stem	9028	No	No	n/a
Feature 5	Metal harmonica fragment	9008	No	No	n/a
Feature 5	Metal harmonica fragment	9014	No	No	n/a
Feature 5	Metal harmonica fragment	9015	No	No	n/a
Feature 5	Clay pipe stem	9020	No	No	n/a
Feature 5	Clay pipe stem	9022	Yes	Yes	Group H
Feature 5	Clay pipe stem	9029	Yes	Yes	Group H
TU 77	Clay pipe stem	9035	Yes	Yes	Unknown

*nDNA = nuclear DNA; mtDNA = mitochondrial DNA

DNA samples suitable for analysis were obtained from five artifacts. nDNA was recovered from three of these artifacts and mtDNA was recovered from four artifacts, with samples of both recovered from one artifact. Only extremely low levels of nDNA were recovered; these were not large enough to obtain any information. The mtDNA samples were recovered from one pipe stem (No. 9024) from Feature 2, two pipe stems (Nos. 9022 and 9029) from Feature 5, and the one pipe stem (No. 9035) from TU 77. Two distinct sequences of mtDNA were recovered from one pipe stem (No. 9029), representing two separate individuals.

The mtDNA recovered from artifacts No. 9022 and No. 9024, and the two different sequences on No. 9029 were assigned to a previously defined Haplogroup H, while the mtDNA obtained from artifact No. 9035 could not be assigned to a haplogroup. A haplogroup is defined as representing a group of individuals with similar genetic material that share a common ancestor. Haplogroup H is largely found in European populations and originated in approximately 20,000 B.C. in the Near East. It is evenly distributed throughout Europe and present in roughly 30 percent of all mtDNA lineages there.

The results of the DNA analysis appear to contradict the results of the historic research concerning the last occupants of the Jackson homestead. The DNA analysis suggests that the artifacts sampled were used or handled by individuals of European decent, while the analysis of

available historic material (i.e., census records, wills, deeds) conclusively shows that the house was occupied by individuals of African descent. Although it is possible that these objects were historically used or handled by individuals of European descent, it appears far more likely that the DNA samples are the result of contamination from modern handling (e.g., archaeologists).

8.6 ARTIFACT CONSERVATION

Fifty-six historic artifacts from the Jackson homestead were selected for conservation, including: 34 copper alloy objects, four bone objects, four silver objects, four ferrous alloy objects, two pewter (lead alloy) objects, one glass object, and one plastic and shell object (Appendix I). The treatment record forms and pre- and post-treatment photographs of each artifact are included in Appendix I. The specific treatments used on the 56 Jackson homestead artifacts, and the storage recommendations for the treated objects are discussed below.

8.6.1 JACKSON HOMESTEAD CONSERVATION TREATMENTS

Conservation artifacts were thoroughly documented before and after treatments were undertaken; treatments varied depending on the material types. Thirty-four artifacts (68 percent) were composed of copper alloy, including 11 decorative items or pieces of jewelry, seven buttons, six pieces of cutlery, six buckles, two straight pins, a thimble, and a fork. These objects were first cleaned with soft brushes, water, ethanol, and surfactants, to remove any lingering sediments. Twenty-six of the cupreous alloy objects were then placed in electrolytic reduction (ER), with a 2 percent sodium hydroxide electrolyte and expanded steel anodes. ER was used to remove salts, and copper sulfide and oxide corrosion products, while limiting loss to surface detail. Once free of visible corrosion, the objects were rinsed in water to remove lingering electrolytes. They were then immersed for 24 hours in a 5 percent solution of Benzotriazole (BTA) in ethanol, which produced a chemical barrier resistant to corrosion. Artifacts were then dehydrated in two baths of 100 percent anhydrous acetone, and sealed from the environment with two coats of Inralac lacquer diluted in acetone (four parts acetone to one part Inralac). Eight objects (609-1, 609-2, 609-9, 609-11, 609-18, 609-22, 609-23, and 609-25) were not placed in ER because the natural, inert patina or gilding would have been lost, along with significant surface detail. These finds were subject to the same treatment described above, minus the ER reduction and rinsing steps.

Six ceramic vessels were chosen for conservation: a Rockingham teapot, redware jar, white granite pitcher, stoneware storage jar, glazed stoneware chamber pot, and stoneware chimney pot. Sherds were first cleaned with water and a soft brush to remove surface sediments that had masked detail, color, and decoration. Closely adhering surface deposits were mechanically removed with a sharp needle or dental pick. Fused glass or vitrified material was found adhering to the exterior of one vessel. This material was mechanically removed through the application of minimal pressure with dental picks and fine-grade abrasive paper burs fixed to a handheld rotary tool. Prior to mending, all sherd edges were cleaned with 100 percent acetone and a cotton swab to remove any lingering dirt or contaminant, to ensure a solid join. A non-yellowing, reversible solution of 50 percent Acryloid B-72 in acetone was used as the bonding agent. Strips of pressure-sensitive tape provided mechanical support during the drying process. Lingering tape adhesive and excess acrylic resin was removed using a cotton swab dampened with acetone.

Four bone artifacts, including a toothbrush and three dice, were conserved. These objects were first cleaned with soft brushes, water, ethanol, and surfactants to remove any lingering

sediments. The artifacts were then dehydrated in two baths of acetone before being sealed from the environment with two coats of 5 percent Acryloid B-72 in acetone.

Four silver artifacts, including three coins and the Infant of Prague medallion, were selected for conservation. These were first cleaned with soft brushes, water, ethanol, and surfactants to remove any lingering sediments. Sulfide stains and tarnish were removed with Hagerty's 100 metal polish (American Institute for Conservation of Historic and Artistic Works [AIC]-approved). Artifacts were rinsed and dehydrated in two baths of acetone to remove lingering polish residue and water. Objects were then sealed from the environment with two coats of 5 percent Acryloid B-72 in acetone.

Four wrought or cast iron artifacts, including a mouth harp, straight razor fragment, scissors, and toy jack, were conserved. The straight razor blade fragment was placed in ER with a 2 percent sodium hydroxide electrolyte and expanded steel anodes. ER was used to remove salts, and copper sulfide and oxide corrosion products, while limiting loss to surface detail. After electrolysis, objects were placed in three baths of boiling water to remove lingering electrolytes. Three coats of a saturated solution of tannic acid were then applied; this produced a black ferric tannate layer that serves as a chemical barrier to corrosion. Artifacts were then dehydrated and sealed from the environment with a single 2- to 3-hour immersion in molten microcrystalline wax.

The remaining three iron artifacts were not placed in ER because they did not retain a solid metal core and they would have experienced significant loss if ER was performed. These objects were mechanically cleaned to display all possible surface detail. They were then dehydrated in two baths of 100 percent anhydrous acetone and sealed from the environment with two coats of Acryloid B-72 diluted in acetone (four parts acetone to one part Acryloid B-72).

Two pewter and ferrous alloy artifacts, including a buckle and a hair barrette, were conserved. These objects were first cleaned with soft brushes, water, ethanol, and surfactants to remove any lingering sediments. Sulfide corrosion was removed with a glass bristle brush. Artifacts were then dehydrated in two baths of acetone before being sealed from the environment with two coats of 5 percent Acryloid B-72 in acetone.

A single plastic and shell medallion was conserved. The medallion was first cleaned with soft brushes, water, ethanol, and surfactants to remove any lingering sediments. The artifact was then dehydrated in two baths of acetone before being sealed from the environment with two coats of 5 percent Acryloid B-72 in acetone.

A glass button was treated. It was first cleaned with soft brushes, water, ethanol, and surfactants to remove any lingering sediments. The artifact was then dehydrated in two baths of acetone before being sealed from the environment with two coats of 5 percent Acryloid B-72 in acetone.

8.6.2 TREATMENT RESULTS

Overall, the conservation and treatment of the 56 Jackson homestead artifacts resulted in objects that are stable and free of corrosion. The results are summarized in Table 150 below. The removal of corrosion resulted in surface details becoming clearer, as was the case with the silver coins and some copper alloy jewelry. The treatments have provided additional archaeological data, but have also enhanced the aesthetic nature of the artifacts so they can be displayed and used as interpretive tools for the public. Most importantly, the treatment of the artifacts was also

designed to halt further deterioration and promote long-term stability. This was achieved with the use of tannic acid and microcrystalline wax on iron objects, and BTA or acrylic resins on ferrous alloy, pewter, and copper alloy artifacts. These compounds prevent the parent material (i.e., copper alloy, iron, or pewter) from reacting with water or other aggressors that can start or propagate corrosion.

Table 150. Summary of Treatment Results

Conservation Number	Identification	Material	Treatment Results/Discussion
609-1	Gilded eagle button	Gold or copper alloy	Excellent/Object not placed in ER in order to preserve gilding and patina
609-2	Maryland jacket button	Copper alloy	Excellent/Object not placed in ER in order to preserve patina
609-3	Maryland jacket button	Copper alloy	Excellent/Object is free of corrosion and is stable
609-4	Infant of Prague medallion	White metal or silver alloy	Excellent/Object is free of corrosion and is stable
609-5	Medallion with braided chain	Copper alloy	Excellent/Object is free of corrosion and is stable
609-6	Lincoln-Hamlin medallion	Copper alloy and ferrous alloy	Fair/Central ferrous alloy disk was extremely corroded and there was some loss to the copper alloy surrounding copper alloy ring
609-7	Spoon	Silver or copper alloy	Excellent/Object is free of corrosion and is stable
609-8	Button with laurel motif	Gold or glass	Excellent/Object is free of corrosion and is stable
609-9	Gilded eagle button	Gold or copper alloy	Excellent/Object is free of corrosion and is stable
609-10	Plastic and shell medallion	Plastic and shell	Excellent/Object is stable, form is readily visible
609-11	Belt buckle with feather motif	Copper alloy	Excellent/Object is free of corrosion and is stable
609-12	Spoon	Silver or copper alloy	Good/Object is free of corrosion and is stable; silver plate largely consumed by corrosion
609-19	Spoon	Silver or copper alloy	Good/Object is free of corrosion and is stable; silver plate largely consumed by corrosion
609-13	Mouth harp	Ferrous alloy	Good/Object is free of corrosion and is stable; form is readily visible
609-14	Copper alloy crimp style buckle	Paint or copper alloy	Good/Object is free of corrosion and is stable; some loss to metallic paint
609-15	Copper alloy watch fob	Copper alloy	Excellent/Object is stable, form is readily visible
609-16	Butterfly button	White metal or ferrous alloy	Excellent/Object is stable, form is readily visible
609-17	Copper alloy vest chain	Copper alloy	Excellent/Object is stable, form is readily visible
609-18	Copper alloy finger ring with glass stone	Glass or copper alloy	Excellent/Object is stable, form is readily visible
609-20a*	Belt hook style buckle half	Copper alloy	Good/Object is stable and the form is readily visible
609-20b*	Belt hook style buckle half	Copper alloy	Good/Object is stable and the form is readily visible
609-21	Oval two-slot buckle	Copper alloy	Excellent/Object is stable, form is readily visible
609-22	Belt buckle with two prongs	Copper alloy	Excellent/Object is stable, form is readily visible

Conservation Number	Identification	Material	Treatment Results/Discussion
609-23	Pin with glass and iron beads	Copper alloy, ferrous alloy, or glass	Fair/Object is free of corrosion and is stable, but there is some loss to mineralized ferrous alloy beads
609-24	Crimp style buckle with an iron clasp	Pewter or ferrous alloy	Good/Object is stable and the form is readily visible
609-25	Pin with glass and iron beads	Copper alloy, ferrous alloy, or glass	Fair/Object is free of corrosion and is stable, but there is some loss to mineralized ferrous alloy beads
609-26	Gilded stick pin with embossed "A"	Gold, copper alloy, mother of pearl	Excellent/Object is free of corrosion and is stable
609-27	Copper alloy decorative pin	Copper alloy	Excellent/Object is free of corrosion and is stable
609-28	Domed button with raised wave motif on obverse	Copper alloy	Excellent/Object is free of corrosion and is stable
609-38	Domed button with raised wave motif on obverse	Copper alloy	Excellent/Object is free of corrosion and is stable
609-29	Dome button with embossed "P" and surrounding wreath	Copper alloy	Excellent/Object is free of corrosion and is stable.
609-30	Strait pin with circular glass head	Copper alloy or glass	Excellent/Object is free of corrosion and is stable
609-31	Toothbrush	Bone	Excellent/Object is stable, form is readily visible
609-32	Scissors	Ferrous alloy	Fair/Object is free of corrosion and is stable; there is some loss
609-33	Straight razor blade	Ferrous alloy	Fair/Object is free of corrosion and is stable; there is some loss
609-34	Silver-plated spoon	Silver or copper alloy	Good/Object is free of corrosion and is stable, silver plate largely consumed by corrosion
609-35	Silver-plated fork	Silver or copper alloy	Good/Object is free of corrosion and is stable, silver plate largely consumed by corrosion
609-36	Silver-plated spoon	Silver or copper alloy	Good/Object is free of corrosion and is stable, silver plate largely consumed by corrosion
609-37	Silver-plated spoon	Silver or copper alloy	Good/Object is free of corrosion and is stable, silver plate largely consumed by corrosion
609-39	Pocket watch cover	Copper alloy	Excellent/Object is stable, form is readily visible
609-40	Thimble	Copper alloy	Excellent/Object is stable, form is readily visible
609-41	Dice	Bone	Excellent/Object is stable, form is readily visible
609-42	Pocket watch backing	Copper alloy	Excellent/Object is stable, form is visible
609-46	Half dime, dated to nineteenth century	Silver	Good/Object is stable, form is readily visible, façade is faded
609-47	Dice	Bone	Good/Object is stable, form is readily visible, with some loss
609-50	Half dime, dated 1844	Silver	Good/Object is stable, form is readily visible, façade is faded
609-51	Three cent piece, dated 1865	Silver	Good/Object is stable, form is readily visible, façade is faded
609-52	Dice	Bone	Good/Object is stable, form is readily visible, with some loss
609-53	Jack	Ferrous alloy	Good/Object is stable, form is readily visible, with some loss
609-54	Straight pin	Copper alloy	Excellent/Object is stable, form is visible

Conservation Number	Identification	Material	Treatment Results/Discussion
609-55	Chimney pot	Stoneware	Excellent/Object is stable, form is visible
609-56	Storage jar	Redware	Excellent/Object is stable, form is visible
609-57	Teapot	Rockingham	Excellent/Object is stable, form is visible
609-58	Storage jar	Stoneware	Excellent/Object is stable, form is visible
609-59	Water pitcher	White granite	Excellent/Object is stable, form is visible
609-60	Chamber pot	Stoneware	Excellent/Object is stable, form is visible

* Two parts of the same buckle

8.6.3 STORAGE RECOMMENDATIONS

Treated copper alloy and iron objects should be stored in an environment that does not promote deterioration, or propagate ferric and cupreous corrosion. Artifacts composed of these material types should be stored in an environment with a relative humidity (rH) below 35 percent. They are then safe from future corrosion, because there is not enough water in the atmosphere to encourage further reaction. This should be achieved by packaging these finds in sealed, acid-free polypropylene boxes with packets of silica desiccant. Desiccants, while not effective in large areas, will ensure a low rH in small sealed boxes. Easily read humidity cards should then be affixed to the interior of these boxes. These will help the curator to determine current humidity conditions and when desiccant packets need to be replaced.

9.0 HISTORIC INTERPRETATIONS

The archaeological and historical data have begun to tell a story of African American life in rural Maryland in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. The archaeological evidence documents the early through late nineteenth century occupation of 18MO609, and the fire created a snapshot in time of the Jackson family ca. 1915. This section presents interpretations of the Jackson homestead, at both the household and site levels. A brief summary of the Jackson homestead is presented, followed by a discussion of the fire. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the research questions identified in the Data Recovery Plan.

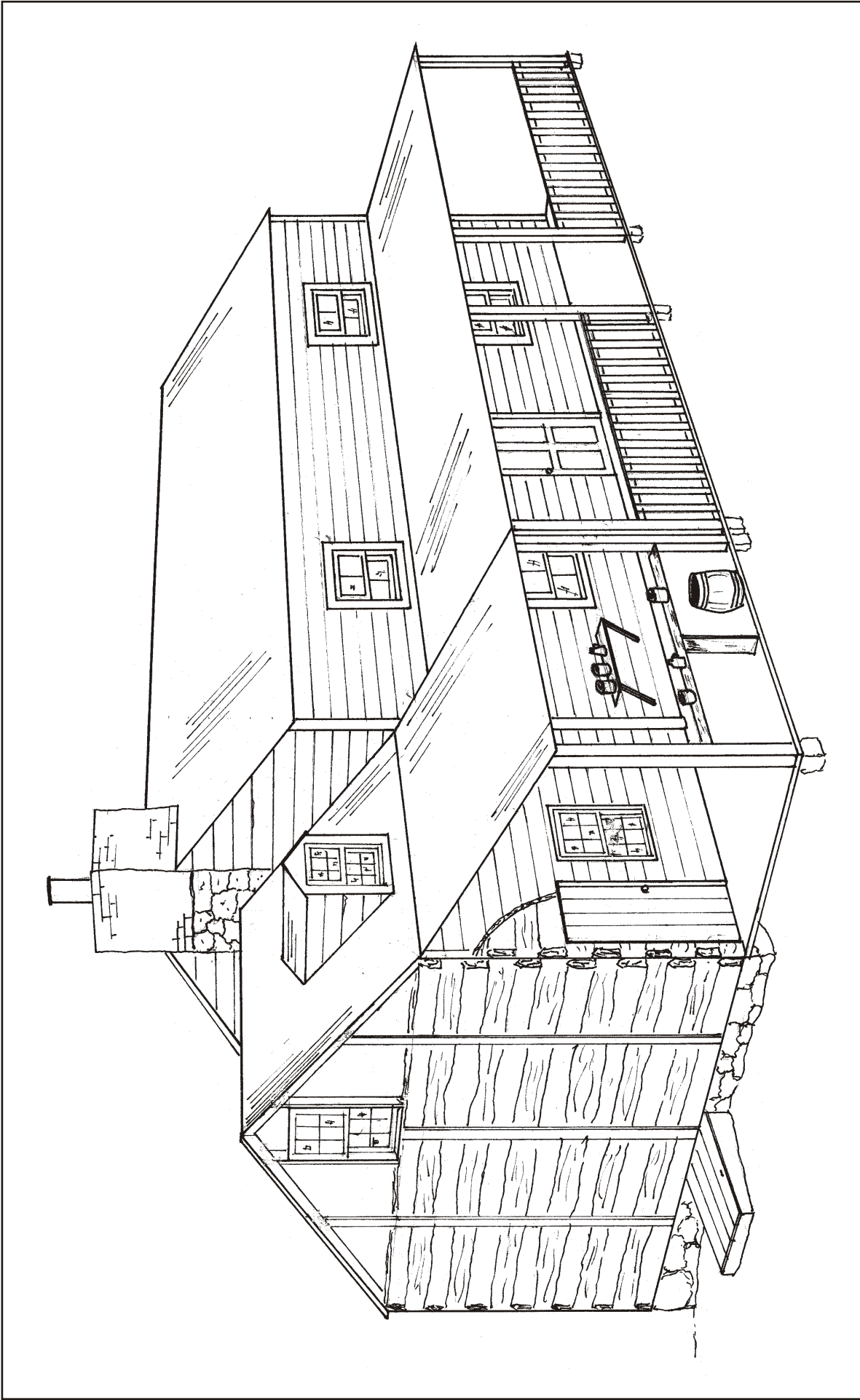
9.1 JACKSON HOMESTEAD SUMMARY

The Jackson homestead comprises 19 features, including three historic structures and 160,491 historic artifacts. The structures include the main Jackson family house (Structure A), a less substantial dwelling (Structure C), and one possible dwelling with an associated cellar (Structure B). As discussed previously, based on historic records and analysis, the house was first constructed as a single-pen slave cabin, and was occupied by Malinda Adams Jackson, her mother, Rachel, possibly her father, Edward Adams, and other family members and enslaved persons, prior to Emancipation. Malinda's five oldest children, and possibly the youngest, were born into slavery in the house.

In 1869, Malinda purchased the 3.54-ha (8.75-acre) property along with the slave cabin that she and her family had occupied for years. While the census confirms the presence of a slave cabin by 1860, it is likely that it was constructed in the first quarter of the nineteenth century. Zachariah Down's 1826 will mentions 10 enslaved persons, and it is possible that the cabin dates to this period. The predominance of cut nails suggests construction during the first half of the nineteenth century, and the presence of English brown stoneware, Nottingham, creamware, and pearlware support an earlier nineteenth century construction date.

The single-pen slave cabin was originally 3 x 4 m (10 x 13 ft) and was likely one-and-a-half stories. The cabin was constructed of logs from the pine and elm families. It sat on a fieldstone foundation, and had an exterior fieldstone and brick chimney along its west central wall. The cabin had a full cellar with an exterior bulkhead access; it is unknown whether the cellar was also accessible from the interior. Artifact distributions indicate windows along the north and south walls. Doors were likely present along these same walls. The main level of the cabin served as kitchen and living space; the upstairs would have provided sleeping space. An interior staircase, with under-the-stair storage, may have been present in the northwest corner of the cabin. Based on similar cabins in the area, the upstairs may have had a dormer window. Interior, and possibly even exterior, walls may have been whitewashed; whitewash, a low-cost material often used in rural areas, was typical in locations where food preparation and hygiene was important (Lonnie Hovey, AIA, FAPT, personal communication August 24, 2010).

Archaeological evidence suggests an addition was built onto the west side of the cabin in the late nineteenth century. The addition, measuring 4 x 6 m (13 x 20 ft), expanded the structure into a hall-and-parlor style home, with the first floor of the old cabin serving as the kitchen and the first floor of the addition serving as a parlor. The parlor addition likely had two stories, resulting in a new house floor plan, with two downstairs rooms and at least two upstairs rooms (Figures 278–280).



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

SCALE N/A

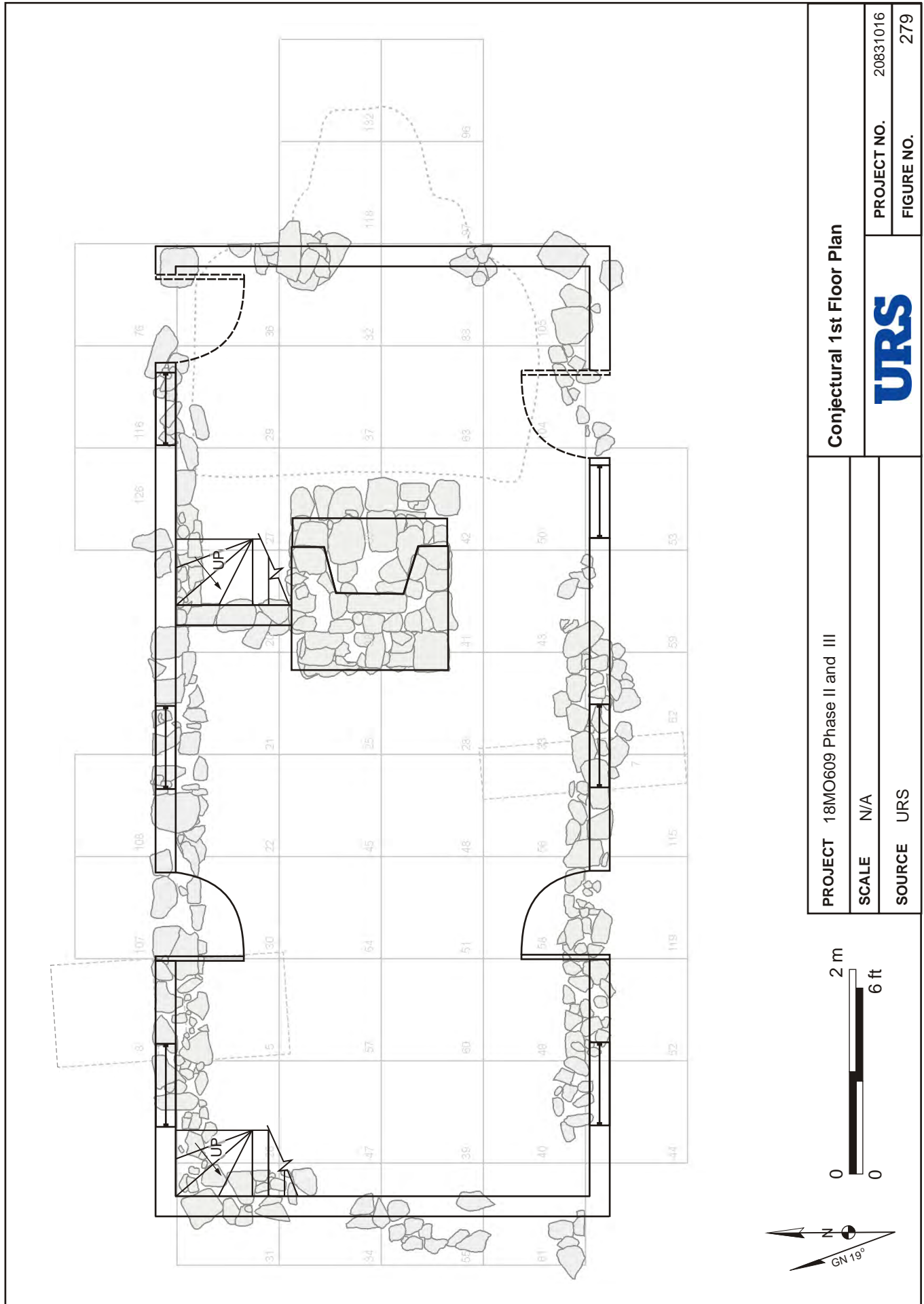
SOURCE URS; Drawing by Brian Cleven

Conjectural Rendering of the Jackson Homestead
ca. 1915



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 278



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

SCALE N/A

SOURCE URS

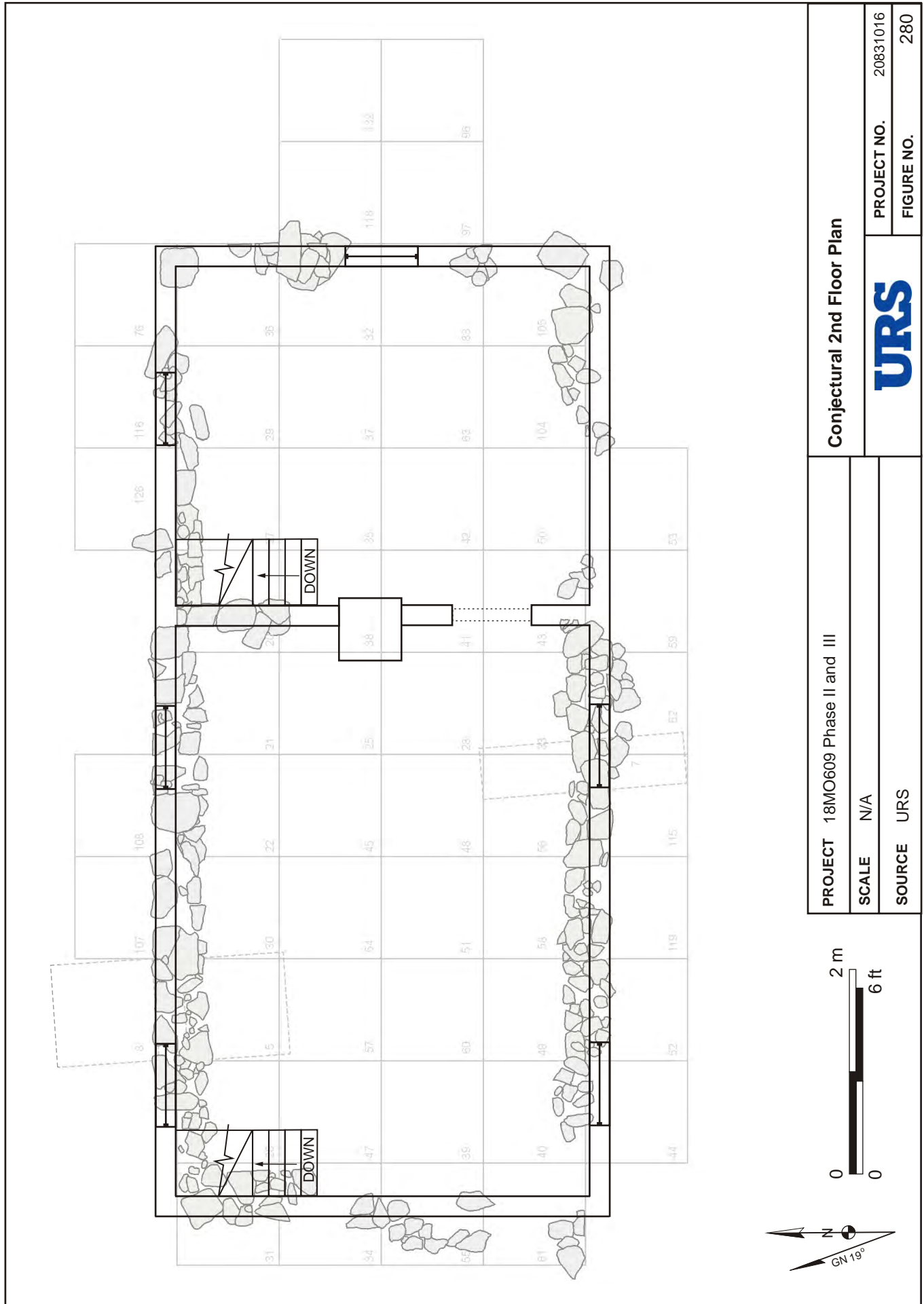
Conjectural 1st Floor Plan



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 279





PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Conjectural 2nd Floor Plan	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016	
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 280	



The upstairs addition would have served primarily as sleeping and dressing space and the parlor served as a living and work space. The parlor also had doors on the north and south walls, with windows flanking each door. The second floor likely had windows as well. A staircase, also with under-the-stair storage, was likely present in the northwest corner of the parlor. A doorway between the kitchen and parlor was likely located south of the chimney. One or more interior doorways may also have been present upstairs.

While no direct archaeological evidence for porches was recovered, it is likely the house had a porch on at least the front of the building, and possibly on the rear. Porches would have served as an extension of the interior living and work space, as well as providing a place to sit and relax. Items, such as tobacco tags, were apparently also stored on the porch.

Fieldstone foundations were present across the structure; however, those under the parlor addition differed in some ways from those under the kitchen. For example, the kitchen had large fieldstones on the northeast and southeast corners and its foundation was more degraded. There is some evidence the kitchen foundation was dry-laid while the addition's foundation was mortared.

The parlor addition was balloon-frame construction from American chestnut. It was also built on a fieldstone foundation. American chestnut was a widely popular building material during the 1880s, 1890s, and the first few years of the twentieth century; however, the chestnut blight devastated the species by 1908. The predominance of cut nails found in parlor contexts suggests the addition likely was built by 1890, as wire nails were more widely used after this period. The presence of some wire nails, as well as asphalt shingle fragments, suggests the house continued to be modified and maintained into the early twentieth century.

The presence of plaster in the parlor addition indicates improved and more refined construction techniques, which may reflect family choices that were not available prior to Emancipation. The paucity of mortar and plaster from the kitchen further suggests different episodes of construction.

Malinda and her five youngest children occupied the house until her death by 1879. In 1880, John T. Adams, Malinda's oldest son, returned to the family home with his wife and daughter, and became head of household. His half-siblings Thomas E., Emma J., and Mary E. Jackson, shared the family home, as did a one-year old child named Ella C. Jackson (likely the child of Emma J. or Mary E.) and a farm laborer named Samuel Dorsey. At this time, John and Thomas E. worked as woodchoppers, along with 11 other men in the immediate vicinity of the home. It is possible that Structures B and C served as dwellings to some of the other men, who were clearly migrant workers. The county was experiencing significant growth at this time, and the men may have been chopping wood to clear the way for roads or new housing, or simply to provide fuel to local homes.

Structure B consisted of a cellar, with little other evidence of a structure. No evidence of a chimney was identified, though the house could have been heated with a wood stove. Conversely, this structure could have been an outbuilding with a deep cellar for storage. None of the archaeological data could confirm the function of this structure. Structure C, with domestic artifacts, including ceramics, glass, personal items, and parts of a stove, clearly served as a dwelling. The influx of woodchoppers around 1880 suggests additional housing was necessary. There appeared to be fewer homes in the vicinity prior to and after the 1880 census, further suggesting Structures B and C served as additional housing on the Jackson homestead. The

presence of farm laborers and boarders in census records from this period forward further suggests Structures B and C served as dependent dwellings on the property. Once the migrant woodchoppers left the area, the family may have added to their income by renting out these structures to local men. For example, in 1880, George Bird was a married neighbor who, by 1910, was widowed and living with the Jackson family as a boarder.

The influx and outflux of family members and others characterizes the Jackson homestead throughout much of its history. In 1870, the house was the focus of the nuclear family, with Malinda as head of household. After her death, family members generally came and went, with only two of her children, Thomas E. and Emma J., being constant residents. By 1900, Thomas E. was head of household, with only his sister, Emma J. also living on the property. By 1910, the number of residents grew significantly and Emma J. served as head of household (this change may have only been the result of who was at home when the census taker arrived). Other family members included Thomas E., Mary E., and three of her children (George W., John T., and Pauline), and Emma J.'s granddaughter, Emma C. Jackson. Two boarders, George W. Bird and Griffin Conway, had joined the household by 1910. As noted, George Bird may have been the father of Mary E.'s children. It is possible that George Bird, Mary E., and the children resided in Structure B or C while living on the property.

In 1917, Mary E. sold the property to Perry E. Johnson, the husband of her niece, Mary Jane Adams; however, Mary Jane and Perry lived in Tacoma Park and not on the property. Where Mary E. lived after the sale is unknown, but it appears she had moved from the area or, more likely, died by 1920. Mary Jane died in 1942 and Perry held the property until 1944. This ended the 75-year ownership of the homestead by the family. It appears from historic records that no one lived on the site after 1916.

By 1920, the family seems to have scattered into multiple households, though some members stayed in the general vicinity of the homestead. For example, Mary E.'s son, George W., and his family stayed in the area through at least 1930.

9.2 ANATOMY OF A HOUSE FIRE

While the exact date of the fire is unknown, the historic records and archaeological assemblage together suggest the main house burned by ca. 1915. Archaeobotanical evidence suggests the fire occurred in the late summer or early autumn. The large and diverse assemblage indicates the house was occupied by multiple family members at the time it burned. This catastrophic event destroyed much of the house and the family's possessions.

Evidence suggests the fire started in the southwest corner of the parlor. As no chimney or other apparent fire source appeared to be present in this area, the fire may have started from a tipped over oil or kerosene lamp. Other possible causes of the fire are a lightning strike, arson, or other accidents, such as children playing with matches. Due to the balloon-frame construction, the fire spread quickly; this type of construction results in voids from the foundation to the attic that allow smoke and fire to penetrate a structure quickly (Dunn 1988).

The extent to which some artifacts were burned also indicates it was an intense fire. Fire affects material types in vastly different ways, and the condition of burned objects depends on their composition and the temperatures to which they were exposed. A number of material types, including ceramic, glass, metals, and wood, were affected by the fire.

The ceramic assemblage includes whiteware, white granite, and stoneware. In general, the condition of ceramics originally fired at lower temperatures is poor, while highly fired examples appear discolored at most. The degree to which ceramic types were fire damaged provides evidence of the minimum temperature of the fire. Whiteware was fired and glazed at temperatures between 871 and 1,038 degrees Celsius (C; 1,600 and 1,900 degrees Fahrenheit [F]). The preponderance of severely affected whiteware, often with partially vitrified and separated glazes, indicates that the fire reached temperature extremes that exceeded 1,038 degrees C (1,900 degrees F). Stoneware was typically fired at temperatures between 1,093 and 1,260 degrees C (2,000 and 2,300 degrees F). The deformation of a limited number of stoneware fragments indicates that the temperature exceeded 1,093 degrees C (2,000 degrees F) in localized areas only.

The glaze of heat-altered whiteware is often bubbled and darkened, and tends to separate from the paste (Figure 281). Glazes became vitrified in extreme cases. Underglaze paint often appears discolored and muted, and overglaze decals were often burned completely away and appear fugitive. The paste of severely burned whiteware is often friable and appears grayish-white in color. A significant percentage of whiteware fragments display jigsaw-like fractures. These fractures are seen on ceramics that have been heated to extreme temperatures and then rapidly cooled, usually with water. This indicates the family was at home at the time of the fire and attempted to extinguish the blaze. White granite was less affected by temperature extremes, and often exhibits stained and severely crazed glazes that are bubbled in localized areas. Several stoneware crocks display small fields of raised, bubbled glazes and dark grey paste. Albany slip and Bristol glazed stoneware are deformed in a similar manner and their bodies are discolored.

The most dramatic examples of the intensity of the fire are found in the vessel glass conglomerates. One large conglomerate weighs 4.1 kg (9 lbs) and is composed of mortar, ceramic, iron fasteners, and rock (Figure 282). The glass in this conglomerate became liquid for a short period of time and after cooling serves as an adhesive that holds the mass together. Temperatures were so extreme that vessel glass fused with sand-tempered lime mortar and the glazes of various types of whiteware.

The degree to which the glass is deformed provides some indication as to the minimum temperature of the fire. Vessel glass from this period softens and deforms at 538 degrees C (1,000 degrees F), adopts a semi-liquid consistency and fuses with other artifacts at 788 degrees C (1,450 degrees F), and becomes liquid at 1,093 degrees C (2,000 degrees F; Figure 283). The preponderance of deformed and fused glass and relative paucity of molten glass indicates the temperature of the blaze was consistently above 788 degrees C (1,450 degrees F), but that there were hot spots that exceeded 1,093 degrees C (2,000 degrees F).

The window glass assemblage was not as dramatically affected. A significant percentage of window glass displays spidering, which appears as a dense network of internal cracks that typically occur when glass is heated and cooled quickly, usually on contact with water (Figure 284). This phenomenon may evidence a failed attempt to extinguish the fire with water from the nearby creek.



Figure 281. Whiteware Saucer (V-123)


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 281



Figure 282. Burned Conglomerate of Mortar, Glass, Metal and Ceramic


PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 282



Figure 283. Melted Glass

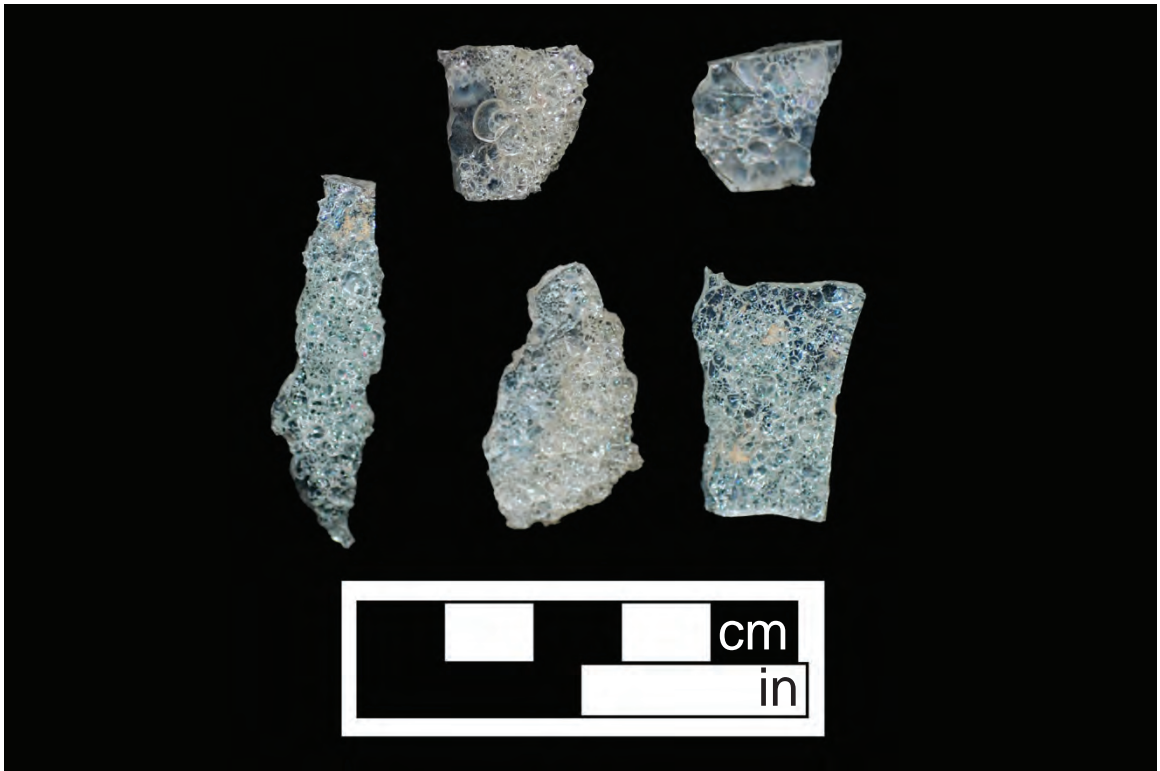



Figure 284. Burned Window Glass

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III	Artifact Photographs	
SCALE N/A		PROJECT NO. 20831016
SOURCE URS		FIGURE NO. 283 and 284

The metals assemblage includes ferrous and copper alloys, as well as silver. The temperature of the fire did not reach the extremes needed to deform or melt the majority of metal types; however, exposure to extreme heat affected some metal artifacts. None of the copper alloy or silver artifacts was dramatically affected by the fire. Some cut iron nails display little evidence of ferrous or ferric corrosion, which is likely the result of annealing that occurred during the fire. Annealing burns away the impurities in iron when heated to temperatures above 816 degrees C (1,500 degrees F).

The melting temperature for most modern ferrous and copper alloy objects ranges between 1093 and 1,538 degrees C (2,000 and 2,800 degrees F). Silver has a lower melting point of 960 degrees C (1,760 degrees F), and the lack of deformed silver objects indicates that temperatures were rarely hotter than that, outside of isolated hot spots that may have approached 1,093 degrees C (2,000 degrees F).

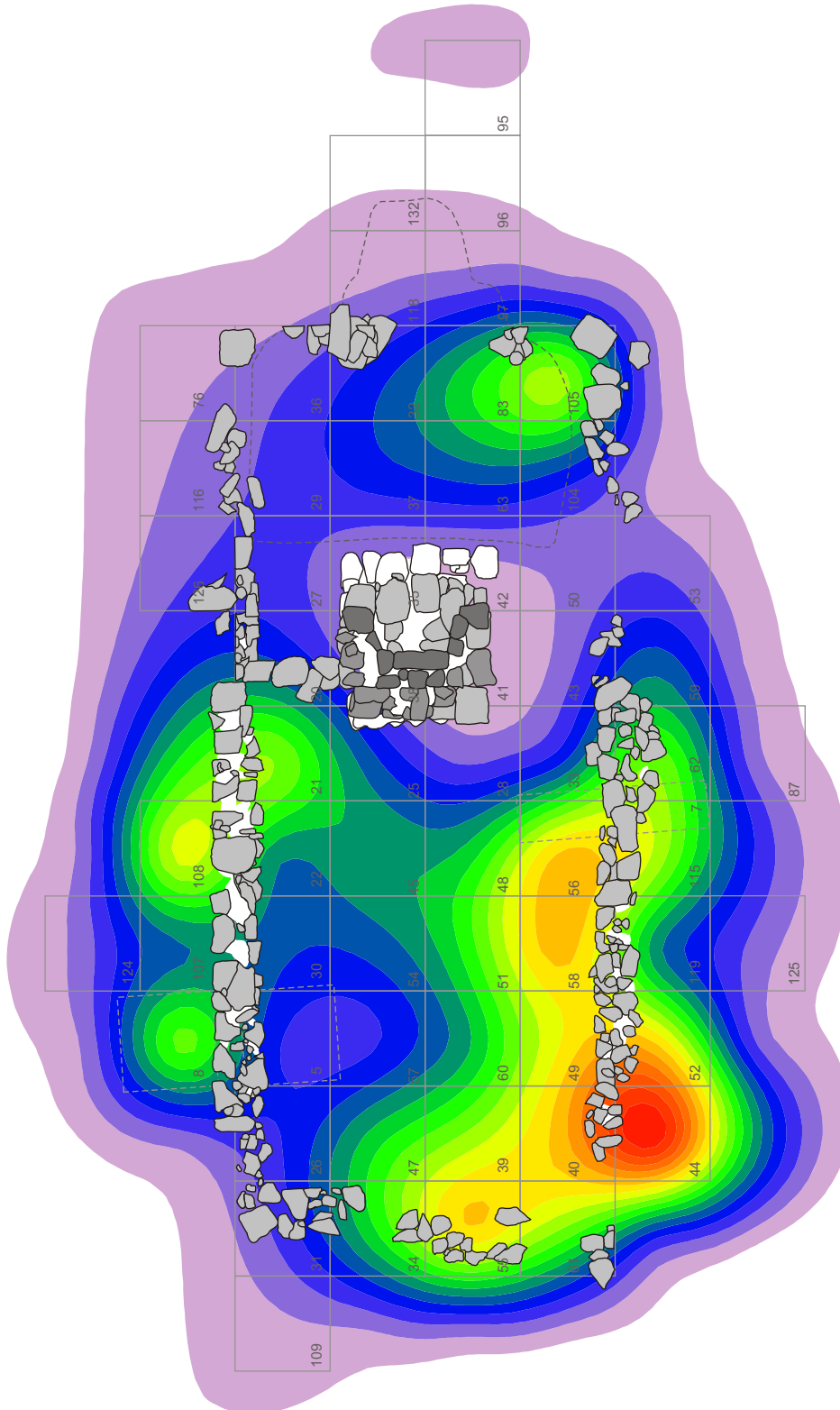
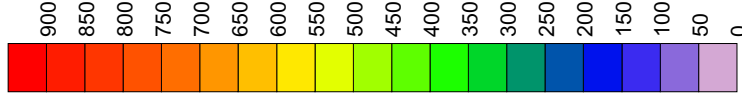
Vast quantities of carbonized wood, including structural remains, furniture, and other objects, were recovered. Carbonized wood is created by the thermal decomposition of cellulose and lignin proteins in wood, and their subsequent transformation into charcoal. The process of thermal decomposition starts between 200 and 250 degrees C (390 and 480 degrees F; Janssens 2004; Rowell and LeVan-Green 2005). Wood is converted to carbon at around 400 degrees C (750 degrees F), with complete carbonization at 600 degrees C (1,100 degrees F; Xie 2008). Some carbonized wooden artifacts retained their original form, suggesting they burned very slowly in a low-oxygen environment between 500 and 620 degrees C (930 and 1,150 degrees F). Other wood artifacts were so completely carbonized, their form is unidentifiable.

The artifacts suggest that, while some portions of the structure were heavily damaged by fire, some areas may have been relatively untouched. For example, a piece of storage furniture containing artifacts may be charred, but the artifacts inside remained undamaged because they were protected by the furniture. This is a well-documented pattern in modern fire investigations (e.g., Lentini 2006).

Distributions of burned versus unburned artifacts were generated (Figures 285 and 286). The plot shows a dense concentration of burned artifacts at the southwest corner of the house, and lighter concentrations along the north wall of the parlor and in the southeast corner of the kitchen (Figure 285). In the southwest corner and along the south wall of the parlor, a wide range of burned artifacts, representing the full gamut of the assemblage, were recovered. The concentration along the north parlor wall consists of burned nails and window glass. Not surprisingly, the burned artifact concentration in the kitchen is primarily from architectural and kitchen groups.

Large quantities of unburned artifacts were recovered in the kitchen and, to a lesser degree, in portions of the parlor (Figure 286). The dense concentration of unburned artifacts in the kitchen suggests this part of the structure did not burn as intensely or as extensively as the parlor. The floors may have burned and collapsed, dumping the household belongings from the kitchen and the floor above into the cellar. Burned artifacts from the cellar may have been deposited when the floor collapsed or when items were discarded during post-fire salvage. The presence of unburned artifacts from the parlor suggests, while the fire was extensive in this part of the house, some items were protected from the heat and flames (e.g., dishes that were stored in a hutch or cupboard).

Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

SOURCE URS

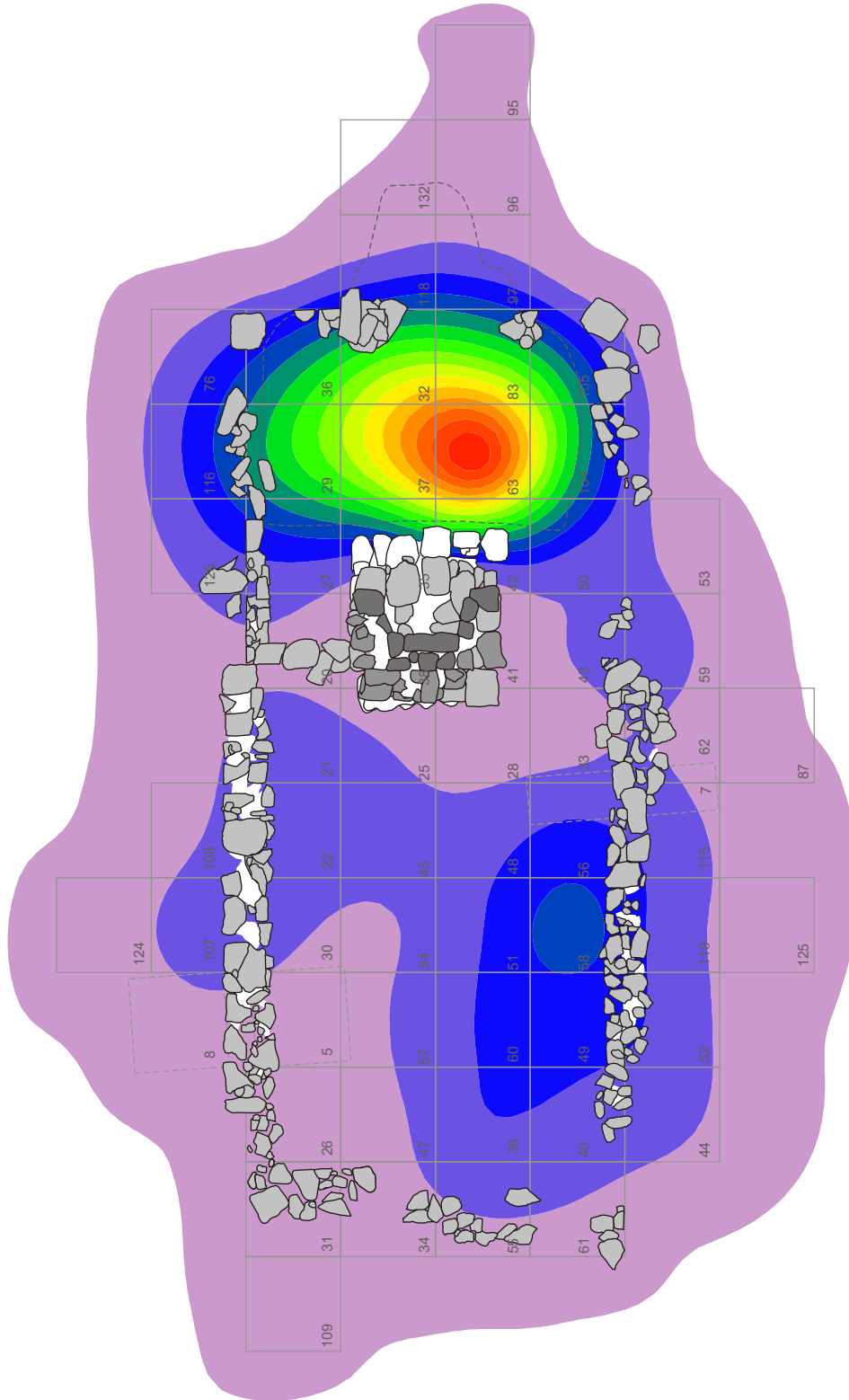
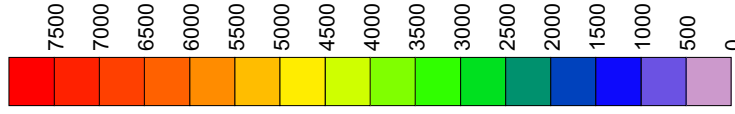
Structure A, Burned Artifact Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 285

Artifact Density



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and II

SCALE 1 inch = 1.8 m (5.9 ft)

SOURCE URS

Structure A, Unburned Artifact Distribution



PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 286

The archaeological evidence overwhelmingly points to the fire starting, and burning most intensely, in the southwest corner of the parlor. It is likely that the upstairs collapsed into the parlor during the fire. The distributions of artifacts in the parlor, therefore, likely reflect both living spaces. The kitchen did not burn as intensely and the upstairs may not have immediately collapsed. After the house was abandoned, the remaining structure may have further degraded until it also collapsed into the kitchen and cellar. The archaeological assemblage also reflects a variety of post-depositional processes that occurred on-site, including salvage, trash disposal, and slumping or erosion.

9.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In an effort to provide important information on the lifeways of the site's occupants, a number of research questions were developed to guide the investigations. These were focused on learning more about the family (adults and children), their ethnicity (specifically, African American lifeways and practices), gender (specifically related to the period where it was owned or the household was headed by females), religious practices, and social and economic status. The questions and associated discussions follow.

9.3.1 COMMUNITY/SPATIAL PATTERN THEME

Can we determine the historic site layout (e.g., location of outbuildings and features in association with the house foundation)?

The archaeological and historical data provide extensive information on the historic layout of the Jackson homestead. The locations of the main house (Structure A) and two secondary dwellings (Structures B and C) are known. The main house was located close to the edge of the ridge overlooking Fairland Branch. The house was oriented with the front facing true north, away from the stream; the backyard sloped down towards the stream and was used for disposing of kitchen trash. One secondary dwelling (Structure B) was located northwest of the main house, along the edge of the ridge. It also overlooked Fairland Branch, with its long axis oriented northwest-southeast. The third dwelling (Structure C) was located approximately 60 m (197 ft) up the ridge and northeast of the main house. The orientation of the long axis for this structure was northeast-southwest. The differing structure orientations provide additional evidence for differing periods of construction.

Historic maps show a road leading from the north side of the house to the northwest, where it joined with Old Columbia Pike near its intersection with Fairland Road. No traces of this road were identified during the field investigations.

Only one possible outbuilding was identified, located east of the kitchen. While its exact function is unclear, this structure could have been a storage shed or animal enclosure (e.g., a chicken coop). The numerous chicken bones and eggshells recovered from the site indicate there was a hen house. While there must have been other outbuildings on the property during its occupation, they left no apparent archaeological traces. Remote sensing was conducted in the yard areas, but no subsurface cultural features were identified; instead, extensive root systems from large trees (e.g., tuliptree and hickory), rodent burrows, and saprolite or bedrock outcrops close to the surface were identified. These types of disturbances can make interpreting remote sensing data difficult, so it is possible any potential subsurface cultural features, such as a

building footprint, were masked by the natural features. In addition, due to the extensive tree root systems throughout the yard areas, mechanical stripping of the topsoil could not be done without disturbing any potential subsurface cultural features. These factors limited the ability to identify subsurface cultural features in the yard areas.

Ethnographic data for Montgomery County provides a glimpse into what a typical nineteenth century African American homestead would look like. According to McDaniel (1979:28, 95), a subsistence farm would consist of a dwelling house, privy, meat house, hen house, and hog pen. Additional structures may have been present, depending on the size of the parcel, including a stable, pasture, milk house, corn or feed house, garden, orchard, corn field, hay field, and well or spring (McDaniel 1979:28, 95). Faunal data indicate the family was butchering animals, such as cows and pigs, on-site, which further suggests there was a meat house for storage, milk or spring house to hold the cow's milk, animal pens, and fields of crops to feed the family and livestock.

Based on the historic data, it is possible that deceased members of the Jackson family were buried on the property. As mentioned, remote sensing did not detect any potential subsurface cultural features. Any graves that may be on the property would be fairly shallow, based on the shallow depth at which saprolite and bedrock were encountered. In addition, traditional ways of marking graves during this period (e.g., a rock or other object on the ground surface) would not have left an enduring sign of grave locations for archaeologists to identify 100 years later. It is possible that graves were once present on the property, but were not identified during the remote sensing or pedestrian walkover. If graves were present, they may be outside the area of archaeological investigation.

What information can be deduced about the size, construction materials, and uses of the structures? Does the site data reflect regional trends for the period?

The Jackson house reflected the evolution of the family over time. The house was first a single-pen slave cabin where the Jackson's immediate family cohabitated with non-family residents. After Emancipation, the house was expanded; this reflected the increase in family size, as well as trends common during the period. The single-pen cabin was a 3- x 4-m (10- x 13-ft) dwelling constructed during the first half of the nineteenth century. It was a one-and-a-half-story log structure constructed on a fieldstone foundation with a mortared fieldstone chimney. The cabin had a full cellar with exterior bulkhead access that was used to store goods. The first floor served as the main kitchen and living space, while the upper story served as sleeping quarters. The upper story was probably accessed through an interior staircase located in the northwest corner of the cabin. Distribution data suggest windows were located on the north and south walls, and it is likely a dormer window was present in the upper story. The construction methods correspond well with extant period buildings in Maryland. The size of the structure and its probable use as a slave quarter is also typical for the region.

In the late nineteenth century (possibly ca. 1880) a 4- x 6-m (13- x 20-ft) addition was constructed on the west side of the cabin, expanding the house to 4 x 9 m (13 x 33 ft). This addition was likely a two-story, balloon-frame structure. It was built on a mortared fieldstone foundation in the style of the period, with central doors on the main faces, flanked by double-hung windows. Additional windows were likely present on the upper story. Archaeological evidence suggests a staircase was located in the northwest corner of the addition. One or more doors on both floors connected the addition to the cabin. The expanded structure was

functionally a hall-and-parlor style, with the cabin serving as the kitchen and the addition serving as the parlor. The upstairs on both sides would have served as living and sleeping quarters. Front or back porches also were likely present on the house. The porches would have provided additional work space, as well as areas for relaxation.

The Jackson homestead reflects regional building trends for the period. First generation structures (built during slavery) were typically log dwellings, either one-and-a-half or two stories, with a chimney and cellar (McDaniel 1982). After Emancipation, many newly freed African Americans purchased a small plot of land and their cabin. It was not until the very late nineteenth or early twentieth century that these homes were expanded, usually with a two-story addition, typically built using balloon-frame construction.

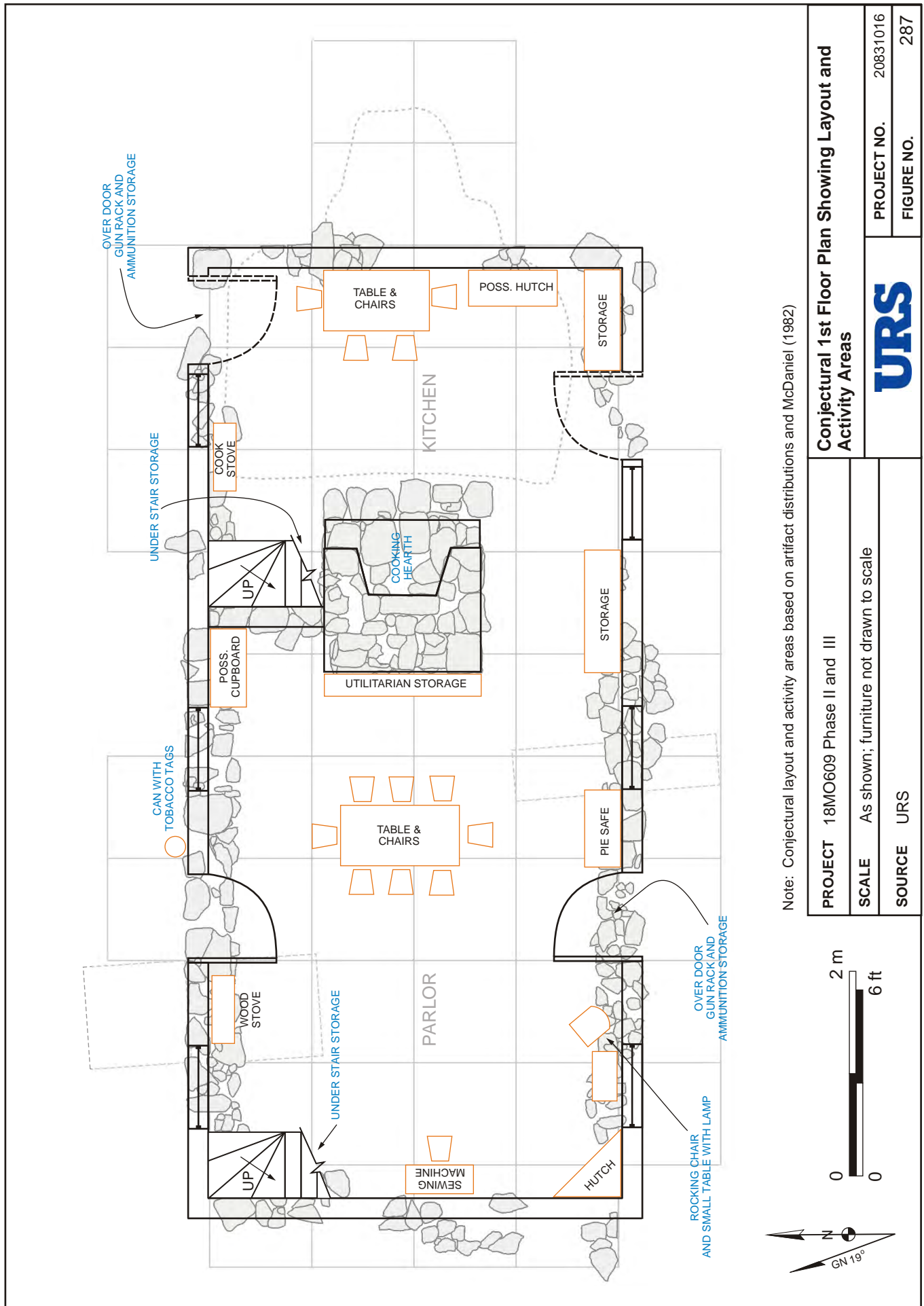
This general house layout is consistent with what others (e.g., McDaniel 1982) have noted in Maryland. In particular, there are strong similarities between the Jackson homestead and the Harrod house from Calvert County, Maryland (McDaniel 1982). Both the Harrod and Jackson homes had an original log cabin with a later parlor addition; the parlors in both houses were built ca. 1880. Harrod's parlor had whitewashed walls; it is likely the interior of the Jackson home was also whitewashed. The Harrods built the parlor addition on the wall opposite the fireplace, thus keeping the chimney external. The Jacksons, however, built their addition to the back of the chimney and encompassed the chimney within the parlor; this could be further evidence that the cellar bulkhead entrance on the east was an original feature of the slave cabin. Unlike the Harrod house, there was not a second addition to the Jackson house. Second additions, frequently creating ell floor plans, were quite common in Maryland; the lack of another addition to the Jackson house may relate the timing of the fire, since many additions of these even later additions were built in the 1910s and 1920s.

Are there indications of activity areas within the house and yard areas?

The spatial analysis provided a wealth of data on activity areas within the home, as well as information on the evolution of the house's layout and organization (Figures 287 and 288). Not surprisingly, a wide variety of artifacts was recovered from kitchen contexts, reflecting the diverse activities that were performed there. Cooking was primarily performed in the hearth and yard, depending on the time of year. At some point later in the occupation, the family installed a cook stove along the north wall of the kitchen. This would have greatly expanded the ease with which daily cooking activities were performed.

The kitchen cellar contained a rich assemblage of artifacts that tell the story of everyday domestic activities. The cellar held stored foods (e.g., mason jars of preserves, tinned meat, and baking powder) and beverages (e.g., mineral water and soda), serving wares (e.g., Rebekah at the Well teapots), and tools (e.g., hoes, knives, and files). Most of these were likely stored on shelves that lined the cellar. The soda bottles were concentrated in the bulkhead and may have been stored under the stairs. Alcoholic beverages appeared to have been stored in both cellar and main kitchen areas. Other artifacts were dispersed throughout the cellar, which may be the result of the collapse of the structure and subsequent scattering of goods.

The main kitchen area contained foods and beverages, serving wares (e.g., cups, plates, bowls, saucers, creamers, and pitchers), utilitarian vessels (e.g., jugs, crocks, and bowls), cookware (e.g., pots and pans), tableware utensils (e.g., spoons), and tools (e.g., knives). A plank table (possibly with drop leaves, as was common during the period) and chairs were also likely



Note: Conjectural layout and activity areas based on artifact distributions and McDaniel (1982)

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

SCALE As shown; furniture not drawn to scale

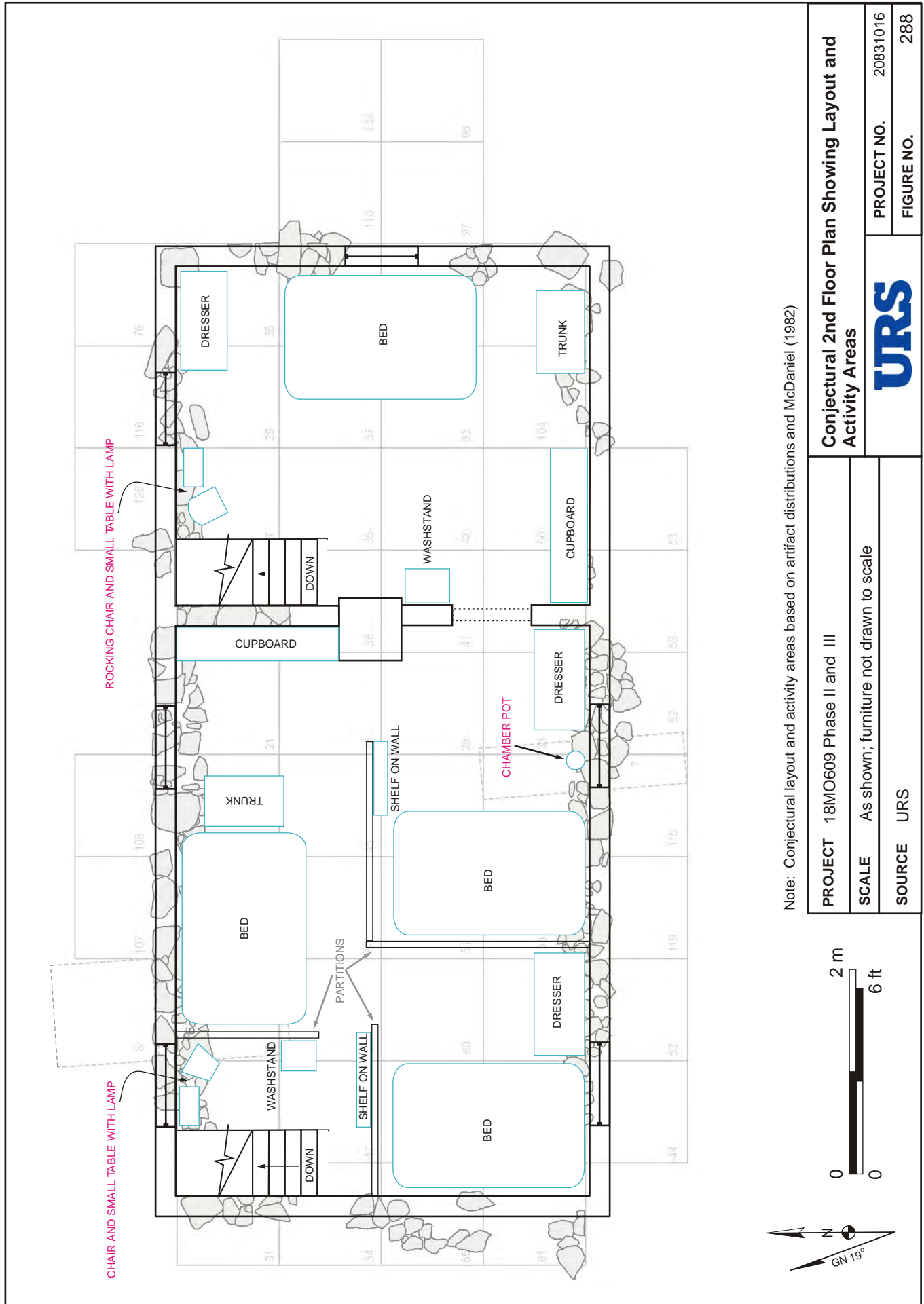
SOURCE URS

Conjectural 1st Floor Plan Showing Layout and Activity Areas

PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 287





Note: Conjectural layout and activity areas based on artifact distributions and McDaniel (1982)

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III		Conjectural 2nd Floor Plan Showing Layout and Activity Areas	
SCALE As shown; furniture not drawn to scale		PROJECT NO. 20831016	FIGURE NO. 288
SOURCE URS		URS	



present, as were storage shelves or cupboards. Due to the small size of the kitchen, the table would also have served as a multi-purpose surface for dining, writing, games (e.g., dominoes), mending and sewing, food preparation, and other various household chores.

It appears that the family stored food under the staircase in the northwest corner of the kitchen, as well as under the bulkhead stairs. Clusters of artifacts (e.g., storage vessels) suggest there were cupboards along the north, south, and east walls of the kitchen. Some of the wood remains identified during the archaeobotanical analysis may represent this furniture and cabinetry, as well as utilitarian objects (e.g., wooden bowls) that would have burned in the fire.

Other items in the kitchen included a clock, lamps, porcelain vase, ammunition, keys, and barrel (possibly for water, flour, or cornmeal). The clock may have been placed on a shelf or the mantel over the fireplace, along with utilitarian items, such as cups. The stationery items (e.g., pencils and inkwell), sewing kit (e.g., thimble, pins, and scissors), and washboard indicate that the kitchen served functions beyond food preparation. The presence of a washboard to the immediate south of the parlor foundation suggests laundry was also done on the porch or in the yard. The family likely mended clothing in the kitchen as well, as suggested by the cluster of sewing implements. While the stationery would have been used for everyday activities (e.g., letter writing and making a shopping list), the writing slate suggests the children were educated in the kitchen.

Medicine bottles were also kept in the kitchen and, possibly in the cellar. They were likely held in cupboards along the wall. The numerous toys (e.g., dolls, dice, jacks, marbles, and toy teacups), musical instruments (e.g., harmonicas and mouth harp), and tobacco pipe fragments suggest the kitchen was not only a place of work, but also of recreation.

The parlor would have been more handsomely decorated than the kitchen, though it still would have served as both a working and living space. The likely locations of furniture point to some activity and storage areas. A heating stove was located along the north wall, just west of the front door. The stovepipe would have vented out of the roof or front window. There was also likely under-the-stair storage in the northwest corner of the parlor, as well as shelves over both exterior doors. Tools and other items were likely stored under the stairs. Since it is unlikely there were closets in the parlor, numerous shelves, hutches, cupboards, or cabinets would have served as storage spaces.

Sewing activities were concentrated predominantly along the center of the west parlor wall, at the location of the sewing machine. Numerous shelves or cupboards were located within the parlor in the southwest and northeast corners, and along the south and east walls at the back of the chimney. Like the kitchen, the parlor would have contained a table and chairs; they may have been located in the southwest corner or center of the parlor. It was common during this period for parlors to have central tables and chairs, which were considered a symbol of the family circle (McDaniel 1982:221, citing Andrew J. Downing in 1850).

The quantity of serving vessels found in the parlor suggests the family also dined in that room. Not surprisingly, the presence of the matching sets of dishes and the “good dishes” in the parlor suggests they were used for special occasions and for entertaining guests. It appears the good dishes were displayed along the west wall on a shelf or in a hutch. Conversely, the everyday white granite dishes were stored in the pie safe that was located along the south wall. The pie

safe held serving and utilitarian dishes, utensils, canned foods (e.g., preserves), and wheat. This piece of furniture indicates that food storage and preparation were not confined to the kitchen.

The parlor was also a place for relaxation, play, and, likely, Bible study. Harmonicas were concentrated in the northeast corner of the parlor, and may have been stored in a cabinet or cupboard. The large quantity of instruments from the house indicates music was an important means of relaxation, and personal or ethnic expression. Concentrations of toys were identified in the southwest and northeast corners of the parlor, which give a glimpse into the lives of children at the site. Clock parts and knickknacks were largely concentrated in the northeast corner of the parlor, and lighting artifacts, such as lamp chimneys, were concentrated along the southwest parlor walls. Ethnographic evidence from the Harrod house suggests the family Bible held a prominent place on the parlor table. It is likely that the family read the Bible and other books and magazines by lamplight in the parlor.

While there may have been sleeping space in the parlor, the upper floor rooms were the primary sleeping space. The upstairs living space would have been divided into multiple rooms, with either solid walls or partitions. At the Harrod house, the “master” bedroom was the most formally decorated room in the house (McDaniel 1982:222). It contained “a bed, bureau, washstand with towel rack, six cane-bottomed chairs (different from the ones downstairs), and a small rocker” (McDaniel 1982:222). The bed had both corn shuck and feather mattresses, and the bureau had a framed mirror. The washstand held pitchers, a basin, shaving mug, soap dish, and chamber pot. The types and locations of artifacts suggest a similar arrangement in the upstairs bedrooms at the Jackson house.

The artifacts indicate the upstairs bedrooms were occupied by both men and women. The bedrooms were likely partitioned to separate males and females and, possibly, married couples. Men’s items included shaving brushes, straight razors, and pocket watches. Women’s items included coin purses, jewelry, toiletries, perfume, and corsets. Numerous artifacts would have been used by both genders, including toothbrushes, combs, mirrors, eyeglasses, pocket knives, and coins. Buttons and shoe fragments indicate that clothing was also stored in the bedrooms. These were likely stored in dressers or trunks.

The concentration of these items suggests the location of pieces of furniture in the bedrooms. The bedroom above the kitchen likely contained dressers along the north and south walls. Since it is assumed this was a half-story room, the bed(s) may have been placed in the center of the room or along the east wall. The restricted ceiling height may have made trunks especially useful in this space.

The bedroom(s) above the parlor likely contained similar pieces of furniture. It appears there were dressers or trunks along at least the north, south, and west walls. A mirror was located along the south wall, as was a chamber pot. Shoes were located across the space, perhaps associated with individual bed space. Beds would have been located along any of the walls or in the center of the room.

The presence of tobacco tags outside the parlor front door and a tobacco pipe concentration at the northeast of the kitchen suggest the house had a full front porch. Artifacts, such as one of the washboards, suggest there was at least a partial back porch. Both porches would have extended the limited living and work spaces for the family. This may have been especially helpful as the household expanded with additional family members and boarders over time.

Similar to the Harrod house (McDaniel 1982:217), the Jackson house reflected improvements in living conditions as the families moved from having the status of enslaved occupants to that of property owners with greater control over the look and contents of the house. While the family members were enslaved, they would have had limited control over their material lives; much of what the family had was provided by or passed down through the Downs. The Jackson homestead assemblage, which is predominantly from the post-Emancipation period, reflects participation in a wage labor economy and a marked increase in the accumulation of material goods. This was characterized not only by an increase in the number and variety of goods, but also by an increase in the quality of goods available to the family. Because they had more freedom of choice, the material goods reflected their own consumer preferences. This also resulted in the accumulation of some finer possessions, which could have become heirlooms (McDaniel 1982:217).

A comparison between the Harrod and Jackson houses revealed similarities between both the layout and content. Both homes had a cook stove in the kitchen and a heat stove in the parlor; in each, the heat stove was along the wall. Kitchen sinks in both homes would have consisted of a washbasin on a work shelf or table, likely near the backdoor, through which the used water could be easily disposed. The basins would have been used for washing dishes, as well as washing up after work. Like the Harrod house, the Jackson house had a corner staircase adjacent to the fireplace. As was common in most small homes, both families used under-the-stair storage; the Harrods stored barrels of flour and sugar under the stairs (McDaniel 1982:219). A barrel hoop was recovered from TU 118, which suggests items, possibly flour, were stored under the bulkhead stairs. Both homes had pie safes, though the Jackson's was kept in the parlor instead of the kitchen. The ethnographic information from the Harrod house is further confirmation that the pie safe contained the everyday dishes, glasses, and utensils. Both homes also had parlor closets or cupboards that held not only the good dishes, but also the canned fruits and preserves.

As noted previously, arms artifacts were recovered near doorways in the Jackson house. It was a common practice to hang firearms over a door; it has been noted that James Harrod hung his musket over the kitchen door (McDaniel 1982:220). Walls would have held numerous hooks or shelves to accommodate the large quantities of goods held in the home.

The archaeological data provides limited information about the historic use of the yard. Yard deposits were concentrated northwest, south-southwest, and east of the house. The northwest density was concentrated around the Structure B cellar. Trash disposal was focused along the south slope of the rear yard. One possible outbuilding was located to the east of the house, though its function is unknown. Another small concentration of artifacts north of the house may be associated with an unknown outbuilding or it could have been a small trash disposal area associated with yard cleanup.

The two secondary dwellings (Structures B and C) were identified north of the main house. Structure B was near the main house, while Structure C was 60 m (197 ft) upslope to the north. The residents of these structures may have been woodchoppers or boarders living with the family. These dwellings were clearly constructed after the main house, possibly in the 1870s or 1880s.

The importance placed on yard spaces and home grounds have been noted by numerous scholars and popular writers (e.g., Gundaker 1994, 1998; Westmacott 1992). Given the presence of African American folk ritual objects in the home, it is likely the yard also contained spiritual

objects. For example, some of the bottle glass recovered from yard contexts could relate to “bottle trees,” which were common on African American sites in the region and, in some cases, across the country. The family also may have exhibited “yard shows,” which broke up the space between homes and roads with icons and decorations with specific meanings (Thompson 1998:44-45). Many of the principles of yard shows tie into the belief system exhibited in the home: “There is a logic to the main visual principles of the yard show: *motion* (wheels, tires, hubcaps, pinwheels); *containment* (jars, jugs, flasks, bottles, especially on trees and porches); *figuration* (plaster icons, dolls, root sculptures, metal images); and *medicine* (special plantings of healing herbs by the door or along the sides of houses)” (Thompson 1998:45). Thompson (1998:63) contends that yard shows not only “express spiritual concerns, they are conversations with the surround of neighbors and strangers,” but also that they “may formulate conversations with the ancestors.” While the data from these contexts is relatively weak, it is possible that the family placed special significance on the yard.

In summary, the yard and house distributions reveal patterns that highlight an active daily, and even ritual, life. These patterns suggest where the family worked, practiced their religious beliefs (both mainstream and folk), played, and slept. The homestead would have consisted of separate but interdependent spaces (McDaniel 1982:208); the Jackson homestead would have contained the main house, secondary dwellings, outbuildings, animal pens, gardens and fields, as well as a variety of yard work spaces. While the archaeological and historical data have not provided details on all of these areas, it has afforded a glance into the dynamic family life at the Jackson homestead in the early twentieth century.

Can we determine if and how the site is associated with plantations in the area?

The single-pen cabin was originally a slave quarter on the Downs’ plantation. The association of the cabin with the plantation continued past Emancipation until 1869, when Malinda bought the 3.54-ha (8.75-acre) parcel and cabin. Malinda’s husband, Thomas, was a freeman who lived and worked on the Joseph Soper plantation that was located north of the Downs’ plantation. Malinda’s children, some of whom were laborers, may have also worked at the Downs, Soper, or other local plantations or farms.

During the earliest occupations, the slave cabin would have been considered only an “outbuilding” to the larger Downs’ plantation. Over time, however, it became a separate and distinct homestead for the Jackson family, and was no longer directly tied to slavery or to the Downs family. While the Jackson family would have considered this their home throughout its history, the independence and respect gained from owning and expanding their own property would have been empowering and would have further cemented their place in the Fairland community.

9.3.2 SOCIOCULTURAL THEME

Was the former house a slave dwelling that became a freed-person’s dwelling?

As discussed in detail previously, the Jackson homestead was originally a single-pen slave cabin that was built by 1860 and likely earlier in the nineteenth century. Malinda, her parents, and other enslaved African Americans lived in the cabin during the antebellum period; after Emancipation in 1865, Malinda’s family likely continued to live in the cabin as tenants until it was purchased by her in 1869.

Since Malinda Jackson owned the property for a period of time in the nineteenth century, can we differentiate that occupation from those of her descendants?

While the site was first occupied by Malinda and her mother, Rachel, the majority of the artifacts date to later occupations. Some artifacts, however, do point to earlier occupations. For example, early artifacts (e.g., English Brown, Nottingham, creamware, and pearlware) reflect the antebellum occupation of the single-pen cabin by the enslaved Jacksons. These artifacts, along with the Feature 4 chimney caches, give us the tiniest of glimpses into the earliest occupation of the site. The presence of earlier artifacts in the Feature 2 burn layers indicates certain objects were curated, either through use or as heirlooms. Some of these objects may have continued to be used, either out of necessity (i.e., the family could not afford new or replacement items), convenience, or sentimental value. Many of the artifacts, such as the 1860 Lincoln-Hamlin medallion, most certainly belonged to Malinda. Other artifacts (e.g., whiteware) have a long span of use during the nineteenth century that precludes making associations with one generation or another. The vast majority of the artifacts are associated with the occupation by Malinda's children and grandchildren and, more specifically, reflect occupation of the home at the time it burned ca. 1915.

Is gender visible in the archaeological record of the site? If so, how and to what extent?

Gender played a key role throughout the history of the Jackson homestead. The property at one time was owned by Ann Magruder Downs, a single white woman. Ann sold the property to Malinda, a female head of household, who appears to have raised her children alone in the house. After Malinda's death, her sons, John and Thomas E., and daughter, Emma J., respectively, served as heads of household. This suggests that gender was not a key factor in determining who led the household.

Muller (1994) contends that African American women played a key role in maintaining family property ownership within and between generations. After the family home burned, Malinda's granddaughter, Mary Jane Adams Johnson, continued to control the property through its purchase by her husband. They held the property for more than 25 years, which reflects her strong ties to the place where she lived as a child. After her death, Mary Jane's husband sold the property. This may be evidence of the strong female ties to the house and the women's desires to keep the property in the family.

The community of residents at the Jackson homestead was ever-changing but, during most of its history, men and women were present in roughly equal numbers. Multiple children were also typically present in household. The household consisted of mothers/grandmothers and children, sisters and brothers, aunts and uncles, and, to a much lesser degree, husbands and wives.

Men's work would have been focused outside of the home, while the women would typically have worked within the home (at times, some of the women would also have worked as servants on other properties). Not surprisingly, the kitchen best reflects the lives of the women. They would have spent a considerable amount of their time in this space, preparing meals, making and mending clothes, teaching children, and performing a wide variety of domestic chores. The presence of food preparation items, the pie safe, and the sewing machine in the parlor indicates that women also largely controlled this space (i.e., the interior house was not apparently divided by women's areas vs. men's areas).

Women would have held a key role in providing care and healing to the sick at the home. The large quantity of medicinal artifacts suggests this was an important aspect of feminine life. Numerous children were born at the homestead and the women likely also served as informal midwives.

A number of artifacts are indicative of gender use at the site. For example, artifacts representing women on the site include corset parts, purses, jewelry, decorative buttons, and perfume bottles. The women's personal items not only reflect their gender, but also their personal preferences. Some of the jewelry contained initials that may reflect the individuality of the women. For example, the heart-shaped "C" charm may have belonged to Emma C. Jackson, who may have gone by her middle name to avoid confusion with her grandmother, Emma J. At least one of the medallions contained paper that was likely from a photo (similar to what is often found in a locket). A number of plain rings were also recovered, as was jeweled solitaire. The quantity of beads recovered also suggests the women purchased more highly decorated items.

Artifacts representing men on the site include buttons, shaving items (e.g., straight razor and shaving brush), and personal items (e.g., pocket watch). Artifacts, such as coins, eyeglasses, smoking pipes, pocket knives, ammunition, farm tools, and chamber pots, would have been used by both genders.

Are the known children at the site archaeologically represented? If so, how and to what extent?

The historic and archaeological record indicates numerous children lived at the homestead throughout its history. A wide range of artifacts, such as toys (e.g., dolls and marbles), personal items (e.g., bib pins), and educational items (e.g., slate and pencil fragments), were recovered throughout the house. The distributions suggest children played at least in the parlor and kitchen, and possibly the upstairs bedrooms.

The toys also reflect use by both boys and girls. Many suggest gender-specific use, though it is likely that both girls and boys played with most of the toys. The toy tea sets and the wide range of dolls would have been used predominantly by girls. The dolls included Frozen Charlottes and cloth-bodied dolls of all sizes. Most of the dolls were white, though one African American doll was recovered. Given the rarity of distinctly African American toys, this doll may have been purchased as a gift for a special occasion (e.g., birthday or Christmas). The toy gun, horse, and truck were most likely used by boys. Jacks, dice, marbles, dominoes, and the bicycle would have been used by both children and adults.

While certainly used by adults as well, the presence of pencils, ink wells or bottles, and the writing slate suggest the children were being educated at home, as was common at the time. In 1912, the community of Fairland only had a school for whites. It is unknown whether the children attended school in the local church or in one of the "colored" schools in a different community.

The assemblage of patent medicines advertised cures for gender-specific and age-specific illnesses. Two of these proprietary medicines, Frey's Vermifuge for Worms and Dalby's Carminative, were marketed to cure the illnesses of infants or children (London Medical Gazette 1843; Dick 1900). The advertisement for Frey's Vermifuge, for example, asks mothers to heed the call of children stricken with restless nights and abdomen pain (Dick 1900).

Among the patent medicine bottles, Paine's Celery Compound was the most specialized. It was marketed as a "blood purifier" for adolescent girls, a remedy that would clear the nervousness and anxiety of societal pressures, while maintaining a healthy body and mind (*Good Housekeeping* 1894). This provides insight into how the Jackson daughters might have coped with this pivotal stage in life. The consumption of these three age-specific medicines suggests a household with children at different stages of life, which is also reflected in the census data.

If personal artifacts are submitted for nDNA or mtDNA testing, what can we learn from the information derived from the results (i.e., maternal lineage or sex of individuals)?

DNA analysis of artifacts can provide information such as the number of individuals to handle or use an artifact, as well as the sex and ancestral heritage of each individual who handled or used an artifact. Ten artifacts were submitted for DNA analysis, including seven clay pipe stems and three harmonica fragments. The samples were tested for both nDNA and mtDNA. mtDNA profiles from populations across the globe have been grouped into distinct haplotypes, based on similarities that are interpreted as indicating common ancestry. These haplotypes have been grouped into haplogroups, which have been shown to correspond to geographically distinct populations. The nDNA could, in theory, provide information as described above and the mtDNA could provide information related to an individual's ancestry through the maternal line.

One of the principal objectives of the research into the history of the site was genealogical research aimed at identifying the descendants of Malinda Adams Jackson. Census records indicate that three generations of Jacksons lived on the property between 1869, when Malinda purchased the property, and 1910, the year of the last decennial census prior to the destruction of the residence ca. 1915. If an unbroken maternal line back to Malinda could be established, her descendants could provide mtDNA samples for comparison to mtDNA obtained from artifacts recovered at the site. This would have provided strong evidence that the Fairland Branch site was the location of Malinda's home and that artifacts recovered from the site had been used by Malinda or her descendants. Unfortunately, the genealogical research was unable to conclusively trace an unbroken maternal line of descent to Malinda or her descendants.

The results of the analysis were disappointing. nDNA was recovered from three artifacts, but was in such low levels that no information could be obtained. mtDNA was recovered from four pipe stems; however, the mtDNA from one pipe stem was insufficient to assign it to a haplogroup, and the remaining three samples produced mtDNA from Haplogroup H, which is largely found in European populations. Since no control samples were taken from the archaeologists, it is impossible to say whether the results represent historic DNA or modern contamination from the archaeologists.

Is there evidence of foodway patterns and preferences?

The faunal and floral data present a rich dataset that can be used to examine African American foodways. As noted by Whitehead and Williams-Forson (2010), a "discussion of African American food must include the cultural patterns associated with how, where, when, with whom, and why certain foods are consumed and the patterns of food procurement, preparation, presentation, and dispensation." While much of this is beyond the scope of this report, some preliminary data about the foodways at the Jackson homestead can be provided.

A number of factors influenced the dietary behavior of the Jackson family, including availability, seasonality, personal and ethnic preferences, and cost. While the family clearly purchased a wide variety of goods from local stores and markets, they likely had a rich diversity of meats and produce from their subsistence farm. The variety of commercially prepared, homegrown, and wild foods reflects their personal and ethnic preferences. Foodways were also a means for the family to express their social and economic status. Foods were not only consumed to meet nutritional needs, but also to provide medical, social, and ritual needs.

The wide variety of floral and faunal remains, as well as the range of other food (e.g., Rumford baking powder, sugar, and tinned meat) and beverage products (e.g., alcohol, soda, tea, and mineral water), suggest the family had a diverse diet. Meat protein sources came from both wild and domesticated animals, including deer, rabbit, turtle, fish, cow, pig, duck, turkey, and chicken. It also appears that they consumed opossum, raccoon, and squirrel, though these species may be evidence of incidental inclusions. The wide variety of meat sources, as well as the butchering methods, suggests the family was acquiring and preparing meat on-site, as well as purchasing it from local sources. The presence of pig feet may suggest they also raised pigs, though pickled pigs feet were likely available at local markets as well. The Jackson family certainly raised and butchered fowl at home, as evidenced by the chicken feet. The inclusion of wild game in the diet may reflect tough economic times or regional cuisine preferences.

Wild and cultivated plants were also consumed by the Jackson family. Wild plants included fruits, nuts, and potherbs. Cultivated plant foods included wheat, corn, peaches, plums, cherries, strawberries, and other fruits. The corn may have been grown on-site for the family as well as for livestock. Many of the fruits may have been purchased from local truck farms. A wide array of vegetables would have been grown at home, though some may have also been purchased at market.

Numerous items would have been purchased at local markets or stores. The quantity of Rumford baking powder bottles suggests a strong preference for this brand in baking. Cooking staples, like vinegars and oils, were stored in ceramic jugs and crocks. Not surprisingly, the large quantity of jars indicates the family was canning their own fruits and vegetables. Glass tumblers, purchased as jars of jelly, peanut butter, or the like, were reused as drinking glasses.

The kitchen vessels reflect common daily cooking practices, such as baking, roasting, and stewing. It is likely that the family frequently consumed stews and soups, though the paucity of ceramic bowls suggest they ate them on plates or out of wooden bowls. Glass berry bowls were also recovered in the kitchen; these were used to serve fresh fruit.

A wide variety of beverages were consumed by the family, including milk, water, soda, tea, beer, wine, and hard liquor. The sumac berries recovered may have been used to make beverages as well. Many of these beverages would have been served on the table in pitchers. While some researchers (Wood 2004) have noted a preference for coffee over tea in working class households, tea was likely a staple beverage in the Jackson family. Some of the teawares were stored in the pie safe in the parlor. The use of bottled water at the site may reflect its use for therapeutic or ethnomedical purposes. Conversely, the use of bottled water may coincide with the typhoid breakout in 1898 and growing concerns about unsanitary water. Interestingly, Montgomery County was legally dry from 1880 until the 1930s. The family probably purchased their alcohol from illegal distilleries, nearby counties, or from Washington, D.C. (at least one bottle from the assemblage was from the city).

9.3.3 SOCIO-RELIGIOUS THEME

Given the direct indications of ethnicity at the site (e.g., historic records and crystals), what additional data can we add to the existing literature on African Americans who held on to African-based religious practices and beliefs?

While historical evidence indicates that the Jackson and Adams families were part of mainstream Protestant communities, such as the Good Hope Methodist Episcopal Church and the Round Oak Missionary Baptist Church, archaeological evidence from the homestead site indicates that the family also practiced a form of African American folk ritual. Prior to Emancipation, when African American churches were rare, the family would have participated in Christian religious ceremonies with the Downs family, as well as practiced “invisible” West African-derived folk rituals. While Christian doctrines and symbols were familiar, most enslaved continued to have a religious life that was deeply rooted in West African religious practices—“the religion of the slaves was both institutional and non-institutional, visible and invisible, formally organized and spontaneously adapted” (Raboteau 2004:212). As a result, the enslaved people were baptized into the Christian faith, while they actively practiced West African-based spiritual traditions.

African American folk ritual is part of a wider area of study often termed “Africanisms.” While there has been a relatively long period of scholarly research on Africanisms, or elements of culture found in New World populations that are traceable to an African origin (Joyner 2003:2), Wilkie (1995:136) notes that archaeologists have only recently attempted to understand the cultural significance of artifacts identified as examples of Africanisms, in particular those associated with African American spiritual or cosmological systems. As mentioned previously, a number of artifacts from the Jackson homestead can be interpreted in light of African American folk ritual. While the origins of Africanisms associated with African American folk ritual are derived from West African religions, numerous researchers stress that African American folk ritual represents a transformation based on an integration of West African cosmologies, Christianity, and Native American elements (e.g., Fennell 2007:80; Hall 2005; Joyner 2003:2, 32; Samford 2007:151; Schablitsky 2011; Springate 2010; Wilkie 1995:137).

Many West African religious traditions identify a sovereign creator or ruler of the universe, but this entity is typically removed from everyday activities (Raboteau 2004:8; Samford 2007:151). Instead, lesser gods and ancestors are intermediaries to the affairs of humankind. Lesser gods, often associated with elements of nature, are either malevolent or benevolent, and people actively engage these entities to maintain proper relations through prayer, sacrifice, and obedience (Raboteau 2004:10; Samford 2007:152). Less powerful are the ancestors, who are custodians of customs and laws, and who have the power to intervene in everyday affairs. Sacrifice, divination, and veneration provide a means for communication between the living and both ancestors and lesser gods (Raboteau 2004:11-12; Samford 2007:152). This active engagement with spiritual entities is used as a means to confront the anxieties and uncertainties of everyday life, to influence people, and to attain goals (Samford 2007:151); therefore it is not unexpected that the gods and ancestors were carried with the enslaved from West Africa to the New World, although Raboteau (2004:81) suggests that, through time, the theological basis of West African religion largely disappeared, leaving what is described as “folk customs” or “folk ritual” (Springate 2010:9).

The folk ritual associated with post-Emancipation African Americans is often discussed as the concept of “conjure.” Conjure, as a belief system, is an attempt to make sense of mysterious and inexplicable occurrences, such as illness and adversity (Raboteau 2004:275), and can be used to fix or prevent such occurrences. Springate (2010:8) also suggests that conjure was a response to the tensions inherent in the post-Emancipation African American experience: the double-consciousness of existing within the agricultural, spiritual, traditional, African, and black world, as well as the modern, industrial, urban, materialist, European, and white world. Conjure often involves the use of material items, variously described as charms or amulets, although Wilkie (1995:142) stresses that the charms derive strength from the spirit in the object, not the object itself. Fennell (2007:56-57) notes that in the BaKongo culture, such a charm, the *minkisi*, is a physical container into which a spirit (ancestor or intermediary) can be summoned and focused. The *minkisi*, into which a wide variety of objects are placed (known as bilongo), is prepared by ritual specialists, and used in divination and to determine causes of misfortune and illness, or as supplication for protection, cures, or retribution. Springate (2010:10), however, suggests that African American folk ritual typically invokes non-personified spiritual power and not specific deities. Washington (1990:82) notes that the BaKongo had a complex system of afterlife beliefs and “humans were double beings, consisting of an outer and inner entity.” Each entity had two parts: “one part of the outer being, the shell, was visible. After death it was buried and rotted. The second part was invisible and could be ‘eaten’ by bad medicine, *kindoki*, but helped by good medicine, *minkisi*” (Washington 1990:82).

The concept of conjure or folk ritual has been increasingly employed by archaeologists in the interpretation of material remains and features at African American archaeological sites across the eastern United States and the Trans-Mississippi South, and Springate (2010:10) suggests that such practices spread nationwide after Emancipation. Hall (2005) notes that oral histories indicate the continuance of conjure through the 1890s, suggesting that material remains associated with this practice are potentially identifiable at African American archaeological sites that were occupied to the end of the nineteenth century and into the twentieth century. Present-day New World African-derived religions, such as Santeria, continue to employ practices and materials that could be classified under the broad definition of folk ritual (G. Brandon 2005).

Raboteau (2004:212) notes that enslaved African American religious practices prior to the Civil War were often conducted in private, both in cabins and in forested areas shielded from overseers or plantation owners (see also Fennell 2007:68), and the private nature of folk ritual practices continued after Emancipation. Relevant to the interpretation of the archaeological record at 18MO609 are objects that can be subsumed under the term *minkisi* or conjure caches. Such caches of small items, often buried in small pits, placed under floorboards, or inserted into walls, can include buttons, rings, quartz crystals, glass, pins, nails, other items made of iron, beads, bones, shells, bottles, and ceramic sherds (Leone and Fry 1999:378; Springate 2010:12). Wilkie (2000:186) adds Native American stone tools, pierced coins, Catholic medals, and gizzard-stone ceramics to the list of conjure cache items. Several examples of conjure caches have been identified at African American archaeological sites in Maryland. Leone and Fry (1999:378) identified a number of such caches found during the excavation of African American-related areas at the Charles Carroll, Slayton, and Brice Houses in Annapolis, Maryland. Derr (2007b:47, 64) identified several beads and an engraved glass disc, located in a doorway at 18CV355, as a conjure cache and suggests that the large number of buttons and a pierced screw cap may be evidence for another conjure cache located near the hearth area of the

structure. Derr (2007a, 2007b) also identified a pit feature containing a hoe blade found at the entrance to the structure as part of a conjure cache.

As noted above, objects associated with conjure tend to be located within structures, although possible conjure items have also been found adjacent to chimneys and along paths. Within structures, objects or caches have been found in or near doorways, near hearths, within walls, or beneath floors. Several researchers suggest that the northeast corners of buildings or rooms are also significant locations for conjure caches (Fennell 2007:297; Neuwirth and Cochran 2000; Schablitsky 2009). Those objects found in passageways, such as doors and hearths, or along paths are interpreted as protecting the inhabitants or targeting an individual, while those concealed in a wall or under a floor may serve to protect the house (Springate 2010:11-12). No explanation for the association between caches and the northeast corners of rooms and structures has been posited (Leone and Fry 1999:378).

Aside from the actual objects, archaeologists have noted that many items are inscribed with signs or symbols. One of the more recurrent symbols is an “X” or “+,” which has been interpreted as a cosmogram, or a graphic depiction of the universe (Fennell 2007:68; Joyner 2003:15). At its most basic, these symbols divide the living from the departed, and worldly power from spiritual forces (Joyner 2003:15). Perhaps one of the more interesting archaeological discoveries that combines both the *minkisi* and cosmogram concepts is that described by Brown (1994), based on investigations at the Levi Jordan plantation site in Texas. At that site, four subfloor caches oriented in the cardinal directions were found in an interior room near a hearth in what is interpreted as a conjurer’s cabin.

Finally, outside of the interpretation of material items and features as caches, archaeologists have attempted to identify specific spiritual attributes of the items found, and West African cosmology, combined with oral history, provides a ready source of interpretation. Oral history suggests that Native American artifacts were used as “good luck” charms, while holed coins and medals warded off evil (Wilkie 1995:143-144). Such statements may reflect the loss of the West African theological basis and the transformation of conjure into folk custom or ritual (Raboteau 2004:81). Reflective surfaces, such as those found on quartz crystals or mirror fragments, may be a metaphor for the boundary between the living and the world of the spirits (Fennell 2007:58). Caches are often found in pathways or thresholds, in small pits near chimneys or hearths, in the northeast corner of the structure, and in cellars. It is posited that these locations were chosen to control spirits or individuals entering or leaving the house. Axes are often associated with the Yoruba god Shango, a god of thunder, lightning, and storms. Raboteau (2004:81) cites oral histories that suggest such an item could be used to abate storms. Iron objects, such as the hoe blades discussed above, have been associated with the god Ogun (e.g., Samford 2007:157).

This brief discussion on the basis of Africanisms in African American folk ritual or cosmology, and the material correlates of that cosmological system found at archaeological sites, provides an interpretive framework for a number of artifacts recovered at the Jackson homestead. First, objects and caches have been found by archaeologists at African American sites in Maryland and nearby States that pre- and post-date the period of enslavement. Second, conjure items or features are likely to be located in liminal spaces, in or near doorways, near hearths, or along paths, although the identification of a path may be difficult. If several are located, the spatial relationship of the features or items may be of cosmological significance. Third, several classes of artifacts, and their grouping, can be used to identify items of African American folk ritual or

cosmological significance. Such items include iron objects, quartz crystals, pierced coins, religious medals, Native American stone tools, doll parts, mirrors, buttons, pins, beads, bones, and rings. Such objects may also have been engraved with symbols, such as the cosmogram. However, Fennell (2007:66) cautions against the over-interpretation or simplistic interpretation of potential African American spiritual objects, stating that items combining several characteristics or metaphors provide a safer basis of interpretation. At the Jackson homestead, numerous items can be interpreted as combining several characteristics discussed in this section, and therefore have been identified as objects associated with African American cosmological practices.

While many of the artifacts likely served dual purposes or held dual meanings, it is clear some (such as the two chimney caches, crystals, incised artifacts, and pierced coins) served a solely ritual purpose. As noted in the spatial analysis section, 10 ritual contexts (RC) are interpreted as representing West African derived spiritual practices. RC1 and RC2 were both located in the chimney base – a common location for spiritual caches. It is clear that these caches were purposely emplaced for ritual purposes. Both contained a wide variety of artifacts; the quantity of artifacts and their presence between courses of stone make it highly unlikely these were only incidental assemblages (though some incidental inclusions were likely). The caches would have been emplaced during construction of the original single-pen cabin. Over time, however, additional artifacts may have been added to recharge their magical power. The presence of snake bones, pins, beads, and nails (all common elements in African American folk ritual caches) is a further indication of their spiritual nature.

The incised button invokes a particularly strong ritual connotation, as it was clearly tied to the spirit of a person. Whether the “M” and “A” relate directly to Malinda Adams Jackson or to one of the Mary Adams is unknown, but it seems very likely. The “X” markings on the button, indicative of cosmograms, also indicate its ritual purpose. Its close association with the X-marked window glass may suggest the presence of a cache, and not just individual ritual artifacts. Schablitsky (2011; Appendix K) provides additional interpretations of the ritual caches and objects at the Jackson homestead in the broader context of family protection motivated by strong emotions such as fear and the desire to protect the family from harm or to control the actions of others.

Of particular note are the prehistoric tools identified within and adjacent to the house foundation. These tools were located along all four walls of the structure, possibly indicative of caches in cardinal directions, much like that found at the Levi Jordan site in Texas. Their location along the wall, with more in the kitchen than in the parlor, is strongly indicative of their ritual association. Clusters were also noted in the northwest corner of the parlor and the northeast corners of both the kitchen and parlor. While others have noted the presence of caches in northeast corners, the significance is unknown.

The presence of ritual artifacts throughout the house indicates that folk ritual traditions were passed down through the family for multiple generations. The character of the ritual artifacts, however, seems to vary somewhat over time. The kitchen assemblage consists of prehistoric tools and incised artifacts, while the parlor assemblage consists of lower quantities of prehistoric tools, pierced coins, Hoyt’s cologne bottles, and crystals. This suggests that, while the ritual traditions held strong, the manner in which they were expressed evolved and expanded over time.

9.3.4 SOCIOECONOMIC THEME

How did Malinda Adams Jackson and her family make a living? Does the number of clothing-related artifacts suggest that Malinda or her daughters were seamstresses, dressmakers, or milliners?

It is unknown what type of work Malinda did from the time of Emancipation to the 1870 census; she may have worked as a servant for Ann Magruder Downs. Malinda's occupation on the 1870 census was listed as "keeps house," so it appears she tended the house while others in the family worked.

It is unlikely that Malinda made a living as a seamstress or dressmaker. While the quantity of buttons from the site at first seems unusual, an examination of the data suggests the quantities are within expected ranges. A review of period catalogs (e.g., Sears, Montgomery Ward, and Bloomingdales) and period photographs (Library of Congress) shows both male and female outfits had many buttons (Figures 289–293). This was the era before zippers (clothing zippers did not come into use until 1913), so clothing was fastened by buttons or fabric ties. Understanding the pieces of a typical wardrobe for men and women illustrates how many buttons were used. An average woman's wardrobe would include:

- Undergarments – consisting of hosiery, vests, corsets, corset covers, chemises, drawers, underskirts (short and long), nightgowns, and "dressing sacque," and possibly include union suits, and ribbed underwear and drawers (for cold weather)
- Garments – consisting of shirt waists, skirts, wrappers, collars, boleros, cuffs, suits, and shoes
- Outer garments – consisting of capes or wraps, gloves, and hats

A typical man's wardrobe included:

- Undergarments – consisting of hosiery, drawers, undershirts, pajamas, nightshirts, and union suits
- Garments – consisting of suspenders, pants, overalls, shirts, collars or cuffs, vests, jackets, ties, suits, and shoes
- Outer garments – consisting of coats, gloves, hats, and boots

All this clothing would have been fastened with buttons or fabric ties. A rough count of the number of buttons completed using the sources cited above indicates that approximately 100 buttons would be needed for one set of clothing for a woman, 60 buttons for a man, and 75 buttons for a child (male or female). If it is assumed that each person in the Jackson house had at least two full sets of clothing, the total would be 200 buttons for a woman, 120 for man, and 150 for a child, for a total of 470 buttons. This average estimate does not factor in variables, such as dress clothing, specialized work clothing (e.g., uniforms), or curated buttons (i.e., buttons that were snipped off worn-out clothing for later re-use).



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

Ca. 1899 Photograph Showing Clothing Styles

SCALE N/A

PROJECT NO. 20831016

SOURCE Library of Congress 2010d

FIGURE NO. 289





PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

Ca. 1899 Photograph Showing
Women's Clothing

SCALE N/A

SOURCE Library of Congress 2010e

URS

PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 290



Ca. 1899 Photograph Showing Men's Clothing
Styles and Musical Instruments

PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

SCALE N/A

SOURCE Library of Congress 2010f

PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 291





PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

Ca. 1899 Photograph Showing Men's Clothing

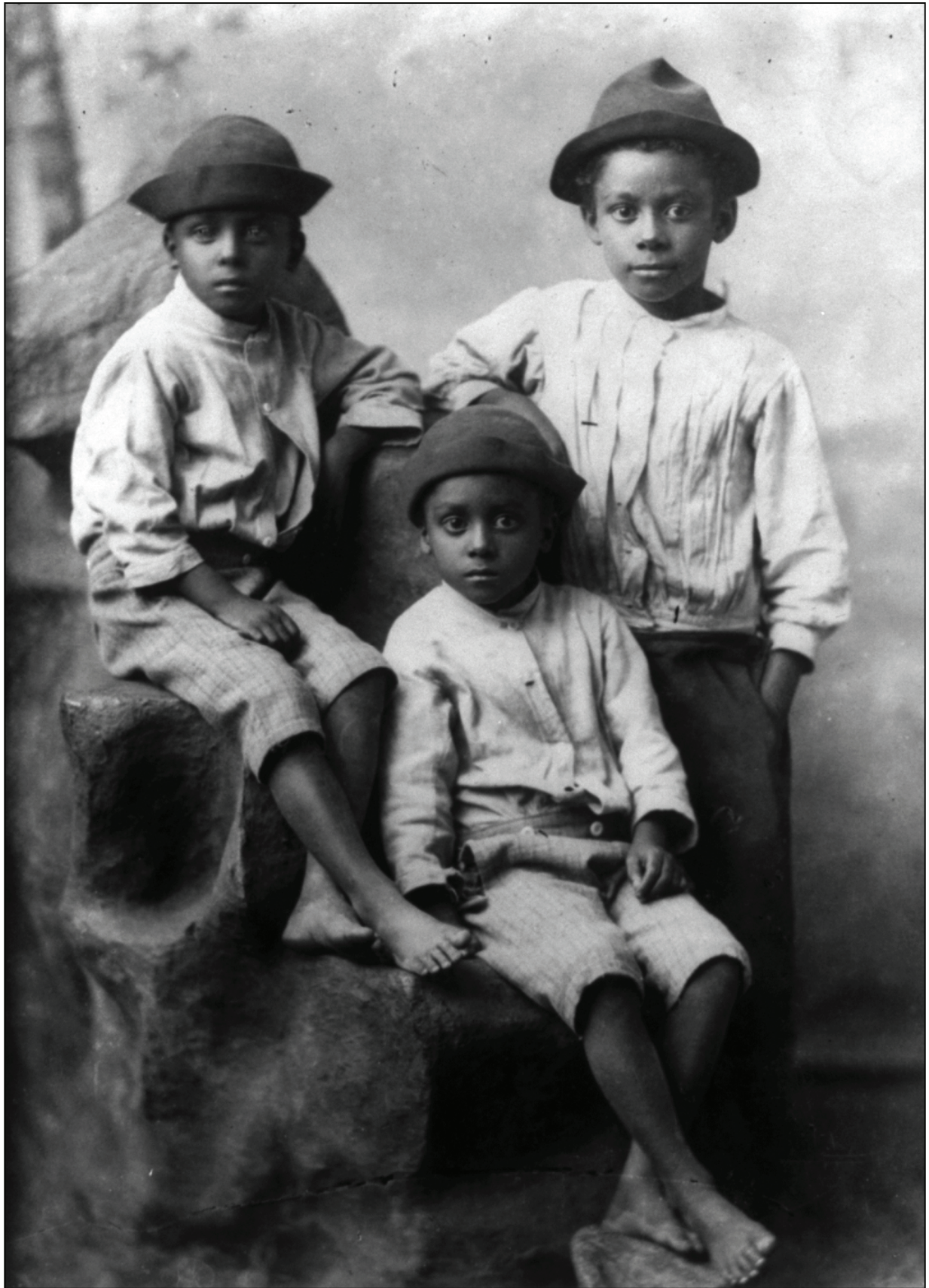
SCALE N/A

URS

PROJECT NO. 20831016

SOURCE Library of Congress 2010g

FIGURE NO. 292



PROJECT 18MO609 Phase II and III

Ca. 1899 Photograph Showing
Children's Clothing

SCALE N/A

SOURCE Library of Congress 2010h

URS

PROJECT NO. 20831016

FIGURE NO. 293

Once the average number of buttons is multiplied by the number of people living in the house during any given year, it becomes clear that the buttons from the site reflect use on clothing worn by the family. The family owned a sewing machine, and probably sewed and mended their clothing. Unlike most archaeological sites, the buttons at this site represent the entire wardrobe of the family, exclusive of what they were wearing at the exact time of the fire. As a result, the historic and archaeological data do not suggest Malinda or other members of the family were taking in laundry or doing seamstress work.

While Malinda likely only worked in the home, the majority of her children worked outside of the home. Malinda's teenage son, George, was listed as a farm laborer in 1870, and there may have been other members of the extended family who contributed to the household. Her eldest son, John T., was no longer living at home in 1870. He was possibly a mariner operating out of Baltimore, and may have been sending money back home to help support the family. Malinda's children held a variety of jobs throughout their teenage and adult lives, as follows:

- John T. was possibly a mariner, and later worked as a woodchopper and general laborer
- George was a farm laborer
- Thomas E. was a woodchopper and farmer or farm laborer
- Milburn's occupation is unknown, since he was not found in the census records
- Emma's occupation in 1910 was listed as a "servant in private family"
- Mary E.'s occupation is unknown, as the census records do not list an occupation; it may be that she tended the house while the others worked

In general, the family seemed to be employed as farm hands or laborers, either at the family homestead or on other farms or plantations. Changing occupations may reflect downturns in the farm economy and the need to support the family by whatever means possible. The men's changing occupations, as documented in the census records, is also indicative of the difficulties faced by the working classes in general, and especially African Americans after Emancipation.

Is there indication of consumer behavior preferences? Were the site's occupants purchasing goods produced in Europe, across America, or locally? How were the site's occupants participating in the local economy?

Consumer behavior at the Jackson homestead "reflects the values, attitudes, and life-styles of the socioeconomic group" to which they belonged (Henry 1987:362). Numerous factors would have played a role in consumer choices, including: age, gender (i.e., who is primarily purchasing the goods), marital status, household composition (e.g., solely family members vs. family with boarders, and single adults vs. adults with children), and ethnicity. The family expressed or asserted their social status and, to a lesser degree, their ethnicity, through their consumer choices.

The ever-changing and evolving household composition at the Jackson homestead makes examining consumer choices difficult. The census data suggest that the family composition changed at least every 10 years. Early on, the household consisted of the nuclear family (i.e., Malinda and her five youngest children). By 1880, Malinda's eldest son, John, had returned home with his family and was serving as head of household, though most of his half-siblings were still present in the household. In 1900, only Thomas E. and Emma J. were living at the

homestead. By 1910, however, the family had expanded again to include Thomas E. and Emma J.'s sister, Mary E., who had returned with some of her children. Boarders also were present off and on at the homestead. This fluid household composition would have played a significant role in consumer choices, as the family's material needs and desires evolved and changed.

The Jackson homestead assemblage reflects a rich diversity of material goods that mirrors the demographics of the household (i.e., children, adults, men, women, family, and boarders). As a result, it is likely the family was purchasing goods from a wide variety of sources, including local stores, produce markets, and mail order catalogs. Many of the items in catalogs were sold in bulk lots of a dozen, indicating that the catalogs were not only targeting the individual consumer but, possibly local merchants as well. Items purchased in bulk are often cheaper than those purchased individually, which would have potentially allowed merchants to purchase and resell items for less than it would cost the consumer to purchase the item and pay for shipping.

The artifact assemblage represents items that would have been used on a subsistence farm (i.e., household, farm, and yard goods); most of these items would have been readily available in catalogs and stores. The family's consumer choices are most evident in the kitchen assemblages. The ceramic assemblage reflects the general patterns of the period, with a focus on whiteware and white granite vessels. It is evident the family also purchased vessels reflecting new trends and designs (e.g., decal decorated wares).

While the majority of the ceramic assemblage does not reflect regular use of matching sets of dishes, it appears the family chose matching or near-matching sets of dinnerware for use on special occasions. The dish patterns in the artifact assemblage were available as sets or individual pieces through catalogs and at local stores, so that the replacement of broken pieces or the addition of new pieces to the set would have been convenient. This would have allowed flexibility in building and restocking dining sets. The Jacksons may have purchased an initial set and then added to it or replaced items as they broke; the nearly matching patterns may indicate that pieces in the existing pattern were unavailable, so a choice was made to purchase pieces that closely matched. It is also possible that flawed or "second hand" pieces were readily available, and purchased to replace or augment a set. The purchase of flawed items, likely available in local stores, would have been a way for the Jacksons to obtain wares at an affordable price. This suggests they were fully participating in the consumer-driven local economy.

The Jacksons purchased a set of matching knives, as well as a set of pressed glass berry bowls. This is further evidence of their desire to create a tablescape that reflected the Victorian formality common at the time. They were purchasing goods from catalogs and local stores stocked with items produced in Europe and the United States. The availability of goods from all over was typical of the period, and this widespread availability made these goods commonplace for the consumer. Ceramic and glass bottle maker's marks indicate sources in Europe (England and Germany), the United States (New York, Ohio, and West Virginia), and local sources, such as Baltimore. The Jacksons also purchased local products—medicines, fruit, and other goods. They also had some expendable cash, based on the variety of toys, musical instruments, and multiple stoves in the main house.

The large number of tobacco tags recovered from the site indicates the Jacksons also participated in product loyalty programs; the tags would have been redeemed for products offered in a catalog, much like "green stamps" or reward programs offered by some credit card companies

today. Saving and trading these tags reflects not only preferences for certain brands, but also a choice to participate in programs that would potentially save money.

The Jackson homestead assemblage, predominantly early twentieth century material, includes many mass-produced consumer items that reflect the ways the family blended and adapted their personal beliefs with readily available material goods. For example, the Saratoga Springs mineral water could have been consumed for its therapeutic benefits or as part of ethnomedical preparations. In the late nineteenth century, Saratoga Springs and other New York springs marketed the therapeutic benefits of their spas and healing waters. Mullins (1999) notes the use of water in African American healing traditions, such as rainfall collected in the month of May that was used for salves or tonics. A nationally recognized product associated with healthfulness could have served to add a veneer of mainstream acceptability to mineral water used as part of culturally distinctive care giving. Mullins (1999:54) notes that these consumer choices cannot be understood “simply as either cultural tradition or consumer homogenization,” but benefit from analysis that considers the complexities of African American life.

What are the occupants' class and social status, based on artifact and faunal analysis?

The period after the Civil War was a difficult time for newly freed African Americans. Jim Crow laws restricted civil rights and institutionalized discrimination at economic, social, and educational levels. The result was that the majority of African Americans were of low socioeconomic status, with few opportunities for social advancement. Based on the historic data, the Jacksons suffered at the hands of oppression. They worked mainly as laborers to make ends meet and did not appear to hold high social status within the community.

It is likely that the continual influx and outflux of residents at the homestead was a result of economic pressures of the time. After Malinda's death, her son, John, returned to the family home and worked as a woodchopper along with his brother, Thomas E., and numerous other men that appear to have been migrant workers. John and his family appear to have established enough economic security to establish their own nearby home by 1900, and likely much earlier. By adulthood, George, who worked as a laborer as a teen to help support the family, moved away, but continued to work as a laborer. Thomas E. and Emma J. appear to have always stayed at the homestead, while Mary E. moved away and then back. At times, Emma J. worked outside the home as a servant. Thomas E.'s work life varied the most; he was a woodchopper, laborer, and, ultimately, a farmer.

The family also made money by taking in boarders. The two secondary dwellings were likely rented to the woodchoppers in 1880 and later to the boarders listed on the census. While the family was from the working class, they did have enough economic security to construct the house addition and two secondary dwellings, possibly indicating entrepreneurial characteristics.

Despite tough economic and social times, the family's hard work allowed them to have some expendable cash for leisure activities and material items. The artifact assemblage contains toys and musical instruments that point to leisure activities, while artifacts, such as numerous knickknacks, jewelry, and decorative dishes, indicate a desire for both home and personal aesthetics.

9.3.5 REGIONAL THEME

How does the site reflect the general trends of the Agricultural/Industrial Transition (A.D. 1815-1870) Period in the region?

The site is typical of sites in the region during this period. The 3.54-ha (8.75-acre) parcel was originally part of a larger plantation owned by the Downs family. The Downs were initially a large slave-holding family, with 10 enslaved persons in 1826; other plantations in the area held only six or seven slaves. While the majority of Montgomery County's African Americans were enslaved during the antebellum period, there were freemen and free communities (Big Woods, Mt. Ephraim, and Sandy Spring). Edward Adams, Malinda's father, was a freeman, as was Malinda's husband, Thomas. It was common during the antebellum period for enslaved husbands and wives to live and work separately; children stayed with their mothers. An exception is Edward, who lived on the same plantation as his wife, Rachel (Malinda's mother), at least from the period between 1840 and 1860. It appears that Rachel only had the one child and that they were always in the same household. Thomas E. lived and worked on the Soper plantation, which is consistent with trends of the period.

Depletion of agricultural soils by around 1840 led to a decline in the tobacco industry (e.g., Anderson 1986; Spero et al. 1996). Regionally, large plantations were broken up into smaller farms, and farmers began growing a wider variety of crops (Anderson 1986; Spero et al. 1996). The subdivision of these larger tracts created crossroads communities, including Fairland. After the Civil War, many people flocked to Washington, D.C., or other cities for economic reasons; many formerly enslaved African Americans stayed local (Spero et al. 1996). The typical pattern was that freed African Americans purchased a segment of property from the plantation on which they had been enslaved. The plot of land was small and located on the outskirts of the larger property, and typically contained the former slave quarter as well. The small plot was only large enough for subsistence farming, and members of the family, usually the men, often worked outside the home to bring in income to sustain their farm (McDaniel 1979). The Jackson homestead is consistent with this pattern. In addition, it appears that some of the Jackson men left the homestead during the Reconstruction period to seek work elsewhere; Thomas Jackson and Edward Adams disappear from the census records after a time and it is possible they moved to the city. Milburn Jackson, one of Malinda's sons, also disappears from the census. He may have followed in his father's footsteps. John T. Adams, Malinda's eldest child, appears to have moved to Baltimore for a time, but eventually returned to the family home.

The site reflects typical architectural trends for the period, with a first generation house being of log construction with one-and-a-half or two stories, and an addition being a larger balloon-frame structure built during later periods, when the family was able to save enough money to afford new construction.

The Fairland area was predominantly white before this period, and evolved into a mix of whites and African Americans. By the end of this period, many whites had moved out (for economic and other reasons) and the area became predominantly African American.

How does the site reflect the general trends of the Industrial/Urban Dominance (A.D. 1870-1930) Period in the region?

This period witnessed rapid development of towns, suburbs, and transportation routes (e.g., roads and trains). Agricultural importance began to decline during the period, but continued to dominate the area's economy until the twentieth century. Dairy farming was an important business in the Fairland area, but there is no indication that the Jacksons were involved. In general, the archaeological record does not reflect the change from a tobacco to a wheat and dairy economy in the area. The 1879 Hopkins' map gives a snapshot of the community, which were largely rural farmsteads. The 1880 census indicates the majority of the males were farm laborers or farmers, with other occupations listed as wood chopper and collier.

Fairland remained rural until after the turn of the century, when it transitioned from a rural agricultural community to a growing suburb of Washington, D.C. Demographically, the community was mixed white and African American in 1870; by 1880, the demographics had shifted to predominantly African American. By 1900, many of the original white families were gone. George, Malinda's son, appears to have moved from the area after 1871, as he does not show up in the census records. By 1900, he had moved back to the area and lived near the homestead.

By 1879, family member's occupations closely mirrored those of the majority of African Americans in the region; specifically, men worked as farm and day laborers, women worked as servants or wash women, and children worked as farm laborers (Ancestry.com 2010: U.S. Census 1870, 1880; Kreisa et al. 2010). With regard to child labor, post-bellum Maryland developed a contract-wage apprentice system (the Maryland Apprenticeship Law) that focused on youth between the ages of 12 and 18 (Foner 2005). This system required the contracting of youth for a specific period of time, and was intended to benefit both black and white youth. It generally benefited the white youth, but was just another form of slavery that exploited African Americans. The law was phased out by the end of the 1860s. It is unknown whether Malinda's boys were involved in this system, but George's occupation as a laborer in 1870 may reflect his participation in this program.

Most freed African Americans were not able to afford property after Emancipation, and were forced into tenancy relationships (e.g., as share croppers) or employment as farm laborers with their former owners or other local landowners. In this regard, Malinda is an exception, as she was able to purchase land and raise her family. The mechanisms behind this are unclear; it is possible that Malinda's husband, Thomas, was able to contribute to the purchase of the property. Alternatively, Malinda may have arranged with Ann Downs to provide her with labor or services for a period of time to help pay for the land.

The influx of woodchoppers reflects growth of the community as a whole during this period. The census lists both woodchoppers and colliers; colliers were charcoal makers. Charcoal was used in the production of iron and was also a popular fuel source, until coal became a widely available fuel source. The American charcoal industry peaked during the early 1880s (Baker 1985). The number of woodchoppers and colliers listed in the census likely reflect this booming industry.

By the turn of the twentieth century, there were no appreciable formal differences between the architecture of rural houses of African Americans and whites of similar socioeconomic class.

Due to the persistence of Jim Crow laws, African Americans continued to encounter significant difficulties in obtaining work other than as unskilled laborers. African Americans in the region had to cope with active and passive discrimination and aggression. The disturbing increase in hate crimes against African Americans peaked in the 1890s and did not level off until well into the twentieth century.

African Americans countered oppression during the late nineteenth century through institutions like churches, benevolent societies, and schools. Through these institutions, they were able to develop a political and economic base that allowed them to establish a foothold in the broader context of society. Ministers and teachers held positions of authority within the African American community. The church was a central institution before and after the Civil War. Churches were the first institution completely controlled by African Americans after the Civil War. African Americans were able to make the choice to worship in their own churches and in ways that better suited their culture. The Jackson family had ties to both the Round Oak Missionary Baptist Church and the Good Hope Methodist Episcopal Church in Colesville. At least seven members of the Jackson family are buried at the Round Oak Missionary Baptist Cemetery, and at least 13 are buried at the Good Hope Church Cemetery, including Mary Jane Adams Johnson, Malinda's granddaughter. While African Americans were Christians and church was a central part of their lives, they did not confine their spiritual beliefs to mainstream religious practices. West African beliefs brought over by their ancestors were intermingled with Christian traditions, and remained important components of African American life into the twentieth century.

Schools were often established in churches during the nineteenth century, before they were established as separate institutions. In 1876, funds were appropriated for an African American school in Colesville. While this school would have been accessible to the Jackson children, it was probably located several miles from the home and it is, therefore, more likely that the children were schooled at church or at home. Schools were established by the late nineteenth century and into the early twentieth century; however, it does not appear from the census records during this period that the Jackson children were attending school, as many of the school-age children are listed as being unable to read or write. It is unclear if this reflects a bias of the census-taker, or if economic or other factors were at work that prevented the children from attending school.

How would this compare to contemporaneous sites in the region?

Numerous African American sites have been a recent focus of archaeological study; however, few sites dating to the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries have been excavated. African American archaeology tends to be focused on antebellum sites and, while the Jackson homestead was likely occupied prior to the Civil War, the archaeological assemblage primarily dates to the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Comparative sites were identified in several Maryland counties, including Anne Arundel, Baltimore, Calvert, Carroll, Charles, and Montgomery. The summaries of these sites below include comparisons with the Jackson homestead.

*Montgomery County**Site 18MO421*

Site 18MO421 was a domestic site located in the historic African American Blue Marsh community (18MO202) in Laytonsville, Maryland (Lawrence et al. 1997). The information that follows is summarized from the 1997 Phase II report by Richard Grubb Associates, Inc. (Lawrence et al. 1997). The Blue Marsh community was established by freed African Americans ca. 1850. Site 18MO421 was possibly occupied by the Simpson family between ca. 1860 and the 1930s or 1940s. Historic research did not find much information about this family; however, there appear to be two female landowners in the community, Margaret and Susan Simpson (mother and daughter), who appear to have owned the property on which the site was located. Tax records indicate the Simpson property was between 9.31 ha (23 acres) and 11.33 ha (28 acres) in the late nineteenth century.

The site appeared to have been part of this 9.31- to 11.33-ha (23- to 28-acre) lot; the actual size of the site was not included in the Phase II report, but it appears to be limited to an area of 18 x 26 m (60 x 85 ft). The site consists of a stone foundation, possible well, and domestic and architectural artifacts. The foundation is approximately 5 x 9 m (18 x 30 ft); it is constructed from mortared stone. A brick scatter on the ground surface suggests the chimney was constructed from brick; construction methods for the house are unknown. The house appears to have been oriented on a roughly north-south axis, with the front door located on the north side of the structure. Based on dense kitchen artifact scatter on the south side of the house, this has been interpreted as the rear yard. The artifact assemblage is dominated by kitchen artifacts, and dates the site to the mid- to late nineteenth through early twentieth centuries (Lawrence et al. 1997). The Phase II study included excavation of TUs adjacent to the foundation walls on the interior and exterior of the building. No possible West African folk ritual caches were identified.

The limited information available for 18MO421 clearly shows affinities with the Jackson homestead, with some important differences. The site appears to have been built and occupied by freed African Americans, unlike the Jackson homestead. The structure at 18MO421 was close to the size of the Jackson homestead after the parlor addition was built in the late nineteenth century, but does not appear to have started out as a small cabin. Construction methods for 18MO421 are unknown, so no comparisons can be drawn.

The house at 18MO421 is oriented in a similar direction to that of the Jackson house, with its front door located on the north side of the structure. Yard trash was identified surrounding the structure, as it was for the Jackson homestead. No outbuildings were identified, although, like the Jackson homestead, the site is wooded, so field methods were not conducive to identifying features (i.e., no mechanical stripping of topsoil was possible). The site appears to have been owned by African American women, which matches the patterns noted for the Jackson homestead and the Lowry house (discussed below). Given the limited scope of the Phase II study for 18MO421, little other information about the family is available from which to make comparisons.

*Anne Arundel County**The Fischer Site (18AN500)*

The Fischer site was an African American domestic site located in Anne Arundel County, Maryland. The information that follows is summarized from the 1982 Phase II report by the Maryland Geological Survey (Hurry 1982). The site consists of the remains of a chimney hearth, and associated domestic and architectural artifacts. The chimney is part of a log dwelling that may have been constructed in the 1880s as a tenant house. The dwelling appears to have been occupied by four generations of the Simons family until ca. 1920. During this period, the house was rented by Daniel Simons, Sr., an African American, who lived in the house with his wife, their son (Daniel Simons, Jr.), and Daniel Jr.'s wife and four children.

Interesting details about the house that once stood on the property were obtained from a former resident of the area, Bernard J. Fischer, whose family owned the property and lived in a house located to its northeast. Bernard was a child in 1915, when his family bought the farm on which the site was located. He reported that the house was a two-story building constructed from logs, with a wood shingle roof. The logs were chinked with mortar; the house exterior appears to not have been treated with a finish, but the interior may have been whitewashed. The foundation was constructed from sandstone. The chimney was built from stone and brick, and was located on the eastern end of the house. Mr. Fischer recalled that the fireplace had been blocked off and a stove put in front of it. A small, lean-to shed was located on the west end of the house.

The main floor had two rooms and there was a small room in the shed addition. The upper floor had one room. The house had wood floors. Windows were located in the gable (east and west) ends of the upper floor. An exterior door was located along the south side of the house in what was the kitchen, and it appears to have been the main entrance. No other exterior doors were located on the structure. Two doors on the east and west walls of the kitchen connected to the other rooms on the main floor. It was unknown where windows or the stairway to the second story were located.

Use of the space as recalled by Mr. Fischer is interesting. The lean-to addition was used as a pantry and for storage. The center room was the kitchen and the east room was the main living space. Mr. Fischer noted that food was prepared in the kitchen but heated in the east room on the stove. The upstairs was used as sleeping space.

The house had a garden that was located south of the structure; the house and garden were surrounded by a fence. A spring was located northeast of the log house and the Fischer residence. Mr. Fischer remembered another small dwelling located to the west of the Fischer house that was a log house with a root cellar; Mr. Fischer referred to this structure as a slave cabin.

Archaeological data suggest the house was 3.5 x 5 m (12 x 16 ft), and that windows were located on the south and north walls of the kitchen, and on the south wall of the "living room" (east room). Artifact distributions show clusters to the south of the house consistent with domestic refuse; a linear pattern of artifact debris northwest of the house may indicate a path that was used to get to the main road. The artifacts include a variety of ceramics (e.g., porcelain, Rockingham, stoneware, whiteware, and yellowware), bottle glass, lamp glass, window glass, and cut and wire nails.

The log structure was larger than the Jackson single-pen log structure; however, the structure was smaller than the combined size of the Jackson house with its addition, which dated to roughly the same period as the Fischer site (ca. 1880). The house was similar to the Jackson house, with log construction, a stone foundation, and stone and brick chimney. The artifact assemblage, though lower in quantity than that at the Jackson homestead, is similar.

The occupants of the house, the Simon family, appear to have resided on the property for four generations, until ca. 1920. The paucity of historic records about this family precludes further comparisons with the Jackson homestead.

Baltimore County

Site 18BA332

Site 18BA332 was a tenant house located on a larger plantation in Baltimore County, Maryland. The information that follows is summarized from a 1995 master's thesis by Martin Reinbold (1995). The site was occupied by three families between 1880 and 1964; the Macks, an African American family, occupied the house as tenants until 1964 (their beginning date of occupation is unknown), and appear to have been the only African Americans who lived on the site. The house burned in 1964, while the family still occupied it; oral interviews with Marguerite Mack, who lived in the house as a child, indicate that the family lost everything in the fire, and that many of the possessions the family owned were handed down to them by their employers, the Dolfields.

The site was located on a ridge that faces west. A small tributary of Red Run that flowed at the base of the ridge appears to have been the main water source for the house. The site contains a late nineteenth century house foundation, a frame outbuilding (chicken coop), and two privies. Trash deposits associated with domestic activity were identified in the rear and side yard. The house was a two-story wood-frame structure with stone foundations. The original house foundation was 4.5 x 13.5 m (15 x 44 ft). A later addition was located on the south end of the dwelling, enlarging the house to 4.5 x 24 m (15 x 80 ft). Each end of the original structure had a brick chimney. The house was oriented east-west, with the east face appearing to have been the front of the house.

According to Reinbold (1995:19), "the house burned intact, [and] a full range of artifact types were recovered; it appeared that no attempt had been made to salvage any items." Of note is a wooden cabinet or sideboard (Feature 1) that contained dishes (e.g., saucers, plates, cups, and flatware), dinner bells, figurines, coins, and other personal items. Furniture hardware (e.g., drawer pulls and hinges) were also recovered from Feature 1. This piece of furniture burned with the house; the dishes were recovered both fully and partially intact, and were stacked where the sideboard had collapsed. Feature 1 has been interpreted as items obtained by the Mack family for conspicuous display and special occasion use (Reinbold 1995).

Ceramics recovered from the house interior include porcelain, semi-porcelain, stoneware, whiteware, and yellowware. A variety of forms were identified from the interior house deposits (exclusive of Feature 1), including plates, saucers, bowls (e.g., food preparation and serving), teacups, mugs, demitasse cups, tureens, egg cups, teapots, coffee pot, sugar bowl, creamer, dessert dishes, salt and pepper shakers, canisters, pitchers or jugs, ceramic box, and vases. Kitchen glass included jars, soda bottles, sugar bowls, dessert dishes, candy dish, and ink bottle.

Several silver-plated and one pure silver piece of flatware were also recovered from the interior house deposits.

General yard trash deposits included enameled and tin cookware, medicine bottles, liquor bottles, glass food jars, tin cans, utilitarian and refined ceramic wares, farm and carpenter's tools, and a variety of household and personal items. The trash and privy deposits west of the house included ceramics, bottles, jars, and other household items.

There are some striking similarities between the Mack family site and the Jackson homestead, although the Mack site was occupied later. Both houses burned while still occupied, resulting in the destruction of many of the family's belongings. Many of these possessions were preserved in the archaeological record, which demonstrates that both utilitarian and high-end objects were owned. While the Mack family obtained many of these high-end items from their employers, there is no direct evidence to suggest the same for the Jackson homestead. The yard deposits at the Mack site are richer and more diverse than the yard deposits at the Jackson homestead. Given that the Mack site was a tenant home and was located on a small parcel, identification of yard features was easier than at the 3.54-ha (8.75-acre) Jackson homestead. Little information was available concerning construction methods for the Mack house, precluding comparisons with the Jackson house.

Calvert County

Sukeek's Cabin Site (18CV426)

Under the direction of Kirsti Uunila and Ed Chaney, archaeological investigations were conducted at Sukeek's cabin, a nineteenth century African American site in Calvert County, Maryland (Uunila 2002). The dwelling was likely constructed in the 1870s and was at least partially constructed of logs. The interior was plaster over wood lath. The archaeological data also suggest the house interior was partitioned. The home had two cast iron stoves, one inside for heating and one outside for cooking.

Approximately 42,000 artifacts were recovered from across the site, including whiteware, ironstone, stoneware, porcelain ceramic fragments, glass bottles and jars, lamp glass, pipe fragments, buttons, beads, toys, faunal remains, and a large quantity of architectural debris (e.g., brick, plaster, and cut nails; Uunila 2002). The archaeological data suggest the cabin was occupied between 1873 and 1920. It appears the home was demolished sometime after 1951.

Like the Jackson homestead, the middens at Sukeek's cabin were located on a south downslope from the edge of the yard (Uunila 2002). Uunila (2002) also noted the paucity of domestic artifacts adjacent to the house and surmised this represented routine yard sweeping. Artifacts from Sukeek's cabin (e.g., alphabet plate and slate pencils) suggest there was a focus on education (Uunila 2002). No artifacts associated with African American folk rituals were identified.

The Indian Rest Site (18CV355)

The Indian Rest site is a 0.60-ha (1.5-acre) African American domestic site located in rural Calvert County, Maryland (Derr 2007a, 2007b). The information that follows is from an unpublished report by Katie Derr (2007a, 2007b). The site consists of a one-and-a-half-story log cabin and associated archaeological deposits dating to the 1870s and possibly earlier. The earlier history of the property is unknown because the county records were destroyed by fire in 1882;

however, the cabin appears to have been occupied by at least two African American families. The cabin was occupied between 1870 and 1934, after which it was unoccupied and used as a tobacco stripping shed (Derr 2007a, 2007b). Historic records indicate James A. and Mary M. Rice owned the property until 1919, when they conveyed it to Joshua A. and Pauline Gray. The census records indicate that the Grays were tenants and Joshua was listed as a farmer. The Grays defaulted on a loan to the property in 1934 and the land was put up for public sale. The property was purchased by William Gray, a white man.

The cabin is 5.0 x 5.5 m (16 x 18 ft) and was constructed on a sandstone pier foundation. A sandstone and brick chimney is located on the east wall of the cabin. Its southwest corner has a staircase to the second floor, with storage located under the stairs. Based on the round hole cut into the wall above the mantel, the fireplace later had a stove installed. The front door was centrally located on the south wall of the cabin; a window is located on the same wall to the east of the door. The north and west walls contain centered doorways. A window is located on the west wall of the second story; it is large enough to be a door and indicates there may have been an addition built onto the cabin (Derr 2007a, 2007b).

Archaeological investigations of the site indicated a scatter of domestic and architectural debris in the yard areas. TUs placed inside the cabin and at the south doorway produced evidence for caches relating to West African folk ritual practices. The south doorway cache includes an iron hoe, incised bead, and possibly other associated artifacts. A second cache is located in front of the hearth and includes a pierced metal screw cap, buttons, architectural artifacts, and faunal remains. A third possible cache was identified along the south side of the exterior chimney, and contains an iron wheel fragment that emulated the radial pattern etched into the glass bead from the cache located at the south door (Derr 2007a, 2007b).

The similarities between the Indian Rest site and the Jackson homestead are limited. While both sites were occupied in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, Indian Rest did not stay within the same family, as did the Jackson homestead. The pre-1882 history of Indian Rest is unknown, so it is possible that it had a longer family-owned history than is currently known. There also does not appear to be a history of female ownership of the property, as there is with the Lowry and Jackson sites; however, details about the size of the Indian Rest property are not available, making comparisons with the Jackson homestead and Lowry site difficult.

Indian Rest and the single-pen cabin of the Jackson homestead were both log structures with exterior chimneys; however, there is more information regarding construction techniques for Indian Rest because the structure is still standing. The size of Indian Rest is comparable to the Lowry cabin; both are larger structures than the Jackson single-pen structure. The placement of windows and doors for the Indian Rest cabin is similar to what the archaeological evidence suggests for the Jackson cabin, although the wall opposite the fireplace in the Jackson house does not appear to have had a door like the one at Indian Rest. Like the Jackson homestead, Indian Rest appears to have had an addition built onto the west side of the structure; the nature of this addition is unknown. Unlike the Jackson homestead, where the addition was built on the same wall as the chimney, the Indian Rest addition was built on the wall opposite the chimney, which appears to be a more common treatment for the period.

While the yard artifacts from both sites are comparable, with a mix of domestic and architectural debris, the interior house assemblages are vastly different (i.e., the Jackson homestead burned down, but Indian Rest was abandoned while the structure was standing). Both sites provide

evidence for African-based ritual practices; in the case of Indian Rest, intact caches were identified below floorboards. At the Jackson homestead, however, the fire obscured any archaeological traces of caches below the floorboards; the only intact caches were identified in the chimney and part of the foundation.

Carroll County

The Elizabeth Lowry Site (18CR226)

The Elizabeth Lowry site (18CR226) was located in Carroll County, Maryland (Catts et al. 1998; Jones et al. 2009). The information that follows is summarized from the reports. The site was owned and occupied by a free African American woman, Elizabeth Lowry, and her family between ca. 1839 and 1868. Elizabeth had five children (one son and four daughters). There was apparently no indication that the children's father lived on the property. Elizabeth died by 1868 and, as stipulated in her will, her son, James, sold the property in 1868 to J.D. Roop, a white landholder. After 1868, the property appears to have been occupied by tenants of unknown ethnic background.

Lowry purchased a small plot of land (less than 0.4 ha [<1 ac]) for \$10 in 1839; sometime between 1839 and 1841, a two-room log cabin was constructed on the property. The log cabin was 6.5 x 6.5 m (21 x 21 ft) in size; ca. 1852, a frame addition was built to the northwest of the log cabin that was 3 x 6.5 m (10 x 21 ft) in size. The cabin and addition were built on unmortared micaceous schist fieldstone foundations. The house had front and rear porches, and was oriented on a northeast-southwest axis.

A second log cabin was constructed 20 m (66 ft) south of the house ca. 1865. The archaeological investigations identified a large cellar associated with this second cabin that was 5 x 8 m (16 x 26 ft) in size. The cellar deposits indicate the structure had burned, and analysis of the artifacts indicated the cabin burned between 1877 and 1890, well after the Lowry occupation.

Archaeological investigations in the north, east, and south yards identified light scatters of artifacts dating from the early nineteenth through the early twentieth centuries. A stone-lined privy was located approximately 10 m (33 ft) northwest of the cabin, and several late nineteenth to early twentieth century outbuildings, including a well house and garage, were located east of the house. These outbuildings were constructed after the occupation by Elizabeth and her family. It is unknown what Elizabeth did for work or how she came by the funds to purchase a small plot of land and build two houses. She was one of the few African American landowners in Carroll County during the antebellum period (Catts et al. 1998).

There are many similarities between the Lowry and Jackson homesteads. Both properties were owned by free African American women; in the case of Lowry, she was free during slavery, while Malinda did not gain her freedom or own property until after the Civil War. Historic records did not indicate whether Elizabeth had been enslaved prior to 1839; it is possible that she was enslaved prior to this time. Both families were headed by women; it is unclear what role the fathers of the children had in the family, but they do not appear to have lived with their families, as they were not listed in the census records. The census data for both households show an ever-changing and evolving house composition, with extended family or apparently unrelated people living in the house over time.

There are also some important differences between the Lowry and Jackson homesteads. The Lowry log cabin was larger than the Jackson cabin. The Lowry cabin appears to conform more closely to other structures of the period in the region. No information regarding placement of windows, doors, or the chimney is available in the report, precluding comparisons of spatial layout.

The Lowry house was occupied for a shorter period of time (29 years) and was always occupied by Elizabeth. The Jackson house was occupied for a much longer period (at least 57 years and probably longer). The Jackson house was originally a slave quarter, while the Lowry house was always a free person's home. After Malinda's death ca. 1879, her family continued to occupy the homestead until the house burned ca. 1915. Conversely, Elizabeth lived on her property until her death ca. 1868; her children did not live on the property for long, and did not return to the home after their mother's death.

The Lowry property was a typical "house and garden lot"—a small plot of land that contained a dwelling and just enough land for a garden and a few livestock (e.g., chickens and a pig). Catts et al. (1998) note that these types of lots were common in the Mid-Atlantic region; the lots were typically located on marginal land, usually on the edge of fields or roads. In this respect, the Lowry and Jackson houses are similar, as they were both located in marginal areas. The properties differ, however, in that the Jackson homestead was 3.54 ha (8.75 acres)—large enough for subsistence farming—while the Lowry property was about 0.3 ha (0.75 acre).

Charles County

Site 18CH379

Site 18CH379 was located in Charles County, Maryland. The site includes several loci, three of which were adjacent parcels owned by African Americans. The information that follows is summarized from the 1995 Phase II report by R. Christopher Goodwin & Associates, Inc. (Hornum et al. 1995). While three separate loci were identified representing African American occupations, only one (Locus A) contained sufficient architectural and archaeological data to be used to compare it with the Jackson homestead.

Locus A is the Thomas Brown parcel; it is approximately 70 by 80 m (230 x 262 ft) and includes a log dwelling, two barns, a small animal pen (possibly a chicken coop), and yard areas. Thomas Brown purchased 10.12 ha (25 acres) from Eugene and Margaret Brawner, white landowners, in 1877. In 1880, Thomas was 38 and listed in the census as being married to Emma. They had seven children under the age of 15. The Brown family retained the property until 1929, when it was sold at public auction. The property was purchased by an African American by the name of James W. Brown (apparently no relation to the Brown family), who held onto it for three years before selling to Burley, Marie, and Carrilean Brown (no relation to James). The property was owned by Burley, Marie, and Carrilean until 1981, when they sold it to Nathaniel and Alice Fleet. The property appears to have been vacated sometime around 1955, based on the lower tax assessments recorded for the parcel.

The dwelling on the parcel was a one-story log structure with a wood-frame second story. An exterior brick chimney was located on the east side of the house. Archaeological and architectural investigations revealed the house was originally a one-and-a-half-story, single-pen log structure. The house measured approximately 4.5 x 5 m (15 x 17 ft). During the late nineteenth or early twentieth century, a full second story was added using balloon-frame

construction methods. Two wood-frame additions were built onto the north and west ends of the original log structure between 1910 and 1920.

The first story consisted of a large room with fireplace on the east wall and a boxed staircase in the southwest corner. The upstairs was also one room. The main entrance to the house was on the south wall; one window was located on the east side of the door. Two windows were centered over the door on the second story. The north side of the house has a centered doorway on the first floor and an off-center doorway on the second floor. The interior of the log structure appears to have been whitewashed.

The wood frame addition on the north side of the house apparently had a brick chimney that had collapsed. There was evidence this addition had burned. The brick chimney on the east end of the log dwelling was stuccoed; this chimney may have been a later addition to the structure. A window is located slightly off center on the first floor of the west side of the log structure, and a doorway is located on the second story that accessed the frame addition that was once located on this side of the house.

In total, 345 artifacts were recovered, and include artifacts from the activities, architectural, arms, clothing, furniture, kitchen, miscellaneous, and personal groups. The majority were concentrated on the north, east, and west sides of the dwelling.

The Brown parcel was nearly three times the size of the Jackson homestead; the house, originally a log structure built ca. 1880, was larger than the Jackson single-pen cabin. Like the Jackson house, the Brown house was enlarged with balloon-frame additions, likely between 1910 and 1920. The Brown house had an addition that apparently burned, but this appears to have occurred well after the Brown's occupation. The artifact assemblages, though similar, vary in the quantity recovered during the archaeological investigations. The excavations at the Brown house apparently did not identify artifacts associated with West African folk rituals, although these may not have been encountered simply due to the level of investigation (i.e., the Brown parcel received Phase II-level of study, while the Jackson homestead received Phase III-level of study and, therefore, had more excavation coverage). Due to the limited scope of the Phase II study at the Brown parcel, further comparisons are not possible.

10.0 CONCLUSIONS

As part of the ICC highway project, Phase II and III archaeological investigations were conducted at site 18MO609 (the Fairland Branch site). The site contained prehistoric components dating from the Early Archaic to Late Woodland Periods, as well as an African American component (the Jackson homestead) dating to the nineteenth to early twentieth centuries. Phase II testing was completed across the site to evaluate its significance and eligibility for listing in the NRHP. The prehistoric components represented short-term resource procurement camps and were not considered significant. The historic component was thought to contain important information about historic lifeways and, as a result, the SHA and FHWA determined, in consultation with MHT, that 18MO609 was eligible for listing in the NRHP under Criterion D.

The ICC interchange construction plans require extensive cutting and filling, subsurface excavation, and massive ground clearance; it was estimated that 100 percent of the site would be disturbed or destroyed by the proposed construction. As a result, it was determined that the site would be adversely impacted. In consultation with the SHA, FHWA, and MHT, a Data Recovery Plan was prepared that guided the Phase III mitigation efforts. The data recovery investigations were designed and conducted to address research questions concerning the Jackson homestead. The Jackson homestead falls within two Maryland Historic Contexts: Agricultural/Industrial Transition (A.D. 1815–1870) and Industrial/Urban Dominance (A.D. 1870–1930), though most predominantly within the later period. Research questions focused on learning more about the site’s occupants, as well as post-Civil War African American lifeways in rural Montgomery County. The mitigation included extensive manual excavations, research, and laboratory analyses, as well as a robust public outreach program.

In total, 270 STPs and 137 TUs were excavated. Nineteen historic features were identified, all within the Jackson homestead component. Features included the remains of the Jackson house, as well as two secondary dwellings. In order to obtain the most data possible, the entire footprint of the main house was excavated. This included the full excavation of the Feature 5 cellar. Other significant features included builder’s trenches, two midden deposits, a hearth and related ritual caches, and a posthole and postmold.

As a result of the Phase II and III investigations, 160,833 artifacts were recovered, including 342 prehistoric and 160,491 historic artifacts. The quantity and quality of data enabled detailed analyses and interpretations of life at this African American homestead. An abundance of data was gathered on activity areas within the home, as was information on the evolution of the house’s layout and organization. This information, along with the historic record, provides a glimpse into the daily lives of the Jackson family over a period of more than 50 years. Of particular significance was the information gleaned about African American folk rituals.

Not surprisingly, the most significant data was recovered from the Jackson house, which catastrophically burned by ca. 1915. The fire was certainly a tragic and life-altering event for the family. After the fire, it appears that the family split into several households, many of which no longer owned property. It appears from historic records and information provided by living descendants, however, that the family remained closely tied to the old homestead and to each other. Many of the descendants continue to live, work, and worship near the Fairland area.

10.1 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

While a wealth of information has been gathered about life at the Jackson homestead, there remain avenues of research that can provide additional data on the Jackson family and African American life in rural Maryland. Additional analyses and research could provide information about gender, ethnicity, socioeconomics and consumer choice, sociocultural patterns, and ritual behavior. Suggestions for further research include:

- Minimum vessel analysis of glassware to further discern patterns of consumer choice (e.g., sets of glasses, pattern identification)
- Medicine and condiment bottle manufacturers to determine more about consumer choice, foodways, and ethnomedical practices
- More detailed pattern research into the ceramic assemblage to discern socioeconomic and sociocultural patterns of behavior
- Historic African American foodways
- African American preferences and consumer choices in adornment and personal care (e.g., hair care and jewelry)
- Market research on late nineteenth and early twentieth century consumerism (e.g., local merchants and catalog use)
- Post-Emancipation participation in the local economy
- Evolution of African American gender roles and familial relationships
- African American ritual and religious practices in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries (e.g., more in-depth interpretations of the ritual caches, artifacts, and ecofacts)
- Comprehensive inter-site analysis of African American sites in the region
- Additional genealogical and oral history studies of the Jackson family

10.2 PUBLIC OUTREACH PROGRAM

The public outreach program was designed to reach a wide audience through several different venues. Program components were conducted by URS or the SHA. A summary of what has been accomplished and what remains to be done is provided below.

10.2.1 MEDIA EVENTS

Information about the site was distributed to the public through newspapers, television broadcasts, radio shows, and the Internet. Two tours of the site were conducted for the Jackson family descendants, one of which was also attended by the media. A laboratory tour was also conducted for the family to provide them with the opportunity to view the artifacts recovered from the Jackson homestead. All media efforts were coordinated through the SHA Office of Communications, which was responsible for drafting press releases, coordinating with reporters, and handling the logistics of directing the media to the site. Dr. Julie Schablitsky, Assistant Division Chief/Chief Archaeologist at the SHA, led the discussions for members of the media.

10.2.2 ICC WEB SITE

Information about the ICC project and the archaeological investigations were posted at www.iccproject.com. This Web site contains a map of the project, along with frequently requested information. URS drafted an informational sheet on the preliminary results of the archaeological investigations that was posted on the site.

10.2.3 SOCIETY FOR HISTORICAL ARCHAEOLOGY SYMPOSIUM

In 2009, a symposium, “The Jackson Homestead: Reconstruction of African American Lifeways in Rural Maryland,” chaired by Dr. Julie Schablitsky, was held at the Society for Historical Archaeology annual meeting in Toronto, Canada. Dr. Paul Mullins served as discussant for the symposium. Seven papers and five poster sessions detailed the preliminary results of the archaeological study. The symposium papers included:

“Controversy, Compromise, and Closure Along the Intercounty Connector.” Authors: April Fehr and Nichole Sorensen-Mutchie.

“Meeting at the Cross Roads: Overview of a Rural African-American Farmstead.” Author: Kathleen Furgerson.

“To Malinda Jackson and Her Children: Slavery and Freedom in Montgomery County, Maryland.” Author: Mechelle Kerns-Nocerito.

“Catastrophic Archaeology: Examining Spatial Patterns and Activity Areas within a Burned Domestic Structure.” Authors: Varna Boyd and Kathleen Furgerson.

“Markets, Status, and Consumer Behavior of a Rural African American Household.” Authors: Carey O’Reilly and Heather Crowl.

“No Stone Unturned: African American Spiritual Practices within the Jackson Homestead.” Author: Dr. Julie Schablitsky.

“The Conservation of the Jackson Homestead Assemblage: A Study in the Condition and Treatment of Burned Material Culture.” Author: Anthony Randolph.

The five posters focused on individual aspects or artifact types from the Jackson homestead assemblage, and included:

“More than Child’s Play: A Ritual Explanation for White Porcelain Toys in an African American Home.” Author: Nichole Sorensen-Mutchie.

“Fastener or Cosmogram?: Variety, Type, and the Function of Buttons in the Jackson Home.” Author: Tara Giuliano.

“A Musical Note: Leisure Activities at the Jackson Homestead.” Author: Sharon Moose.

“Medicine of Choice: Pharmaceutical Bottles at the Jackson Homestead.” Author: Brian Ostahowski.

“Underneath It All: The Archaeology of Undergarments at an African American Domestic Site.” Author: Kristen Heasley

10.2.4 CULTURAL RESOURCES BOOTH AT MARYLAND STATE FAIR

In 2008 and 2009, the SHA displayed a sample of artifacts from and flyers about the Jackson homestead at its informational booth at the Maryland State Fair. Archaeologists were present to discuss the site, and ICC archaeology in general, with the public.

10.2.5 MONTGOMERY COUNTY SCHOOL DISTRICT VISITS

Outreach to schools was considered a very important and effective way to educate children on archaeology and the history of their area. SHA staff members presented informational talks about the Jackson homestead to local schools.

10.2.6 MARYLAND NATIONAL CAPITAL PARK AND PLANNING COMMISSION PRESENTATION

The Maryland National Capital Park and Planning Commission (M-NCPPC) was created by the Maryland General Assembly in 1927 to develop and operate public park systems and provide land use planning for the physical development of Montgomery and Prince George's Counties. M-NCPPC has been very interested and involved in the ICC project. After coordination with M-NCPPC, SHA will arrange a time and date to present the background, findings, and interpretations of site 18MO609 to all interested staff members. The talk, which may be held during the lunch hour, will include a PowerPoint presentation. This component of the program is planned after the investigations and report are completed.

10.2.7 ARCHAEOLOGICAL EXHIBIT

A traveling or impermanent exhibit will be prepared to provide opportunities for the public to view the artifacts and information from the Jackson homestead. It is anticipated that the exhibit will be shown at the Reginald F. Lewis Museum of Maryland African American History & Culture in Baltimore or a similar museum. At the discretion of the SHA, it may also be shown at schools or other public forums, as determined appropriate. This portion of the program will be conducted in the future at the direction of the SHA.

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