

PHASE III

ARCHAEOLOGICAL
INVESTIGATION OF SITE
15BB137 IN BOURBON
COUNTY, KENTUCKY
ITEM NUMBER: 7-310.00

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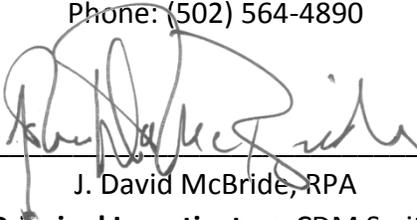
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Abstract

This report describes the field and laboratory methods, and the results of a Phase III Archaeological data recovery of Site 15BB137. The project is being conducted for the Kentucky Transportation Cabinet (KYTC). The State Project Number for this project is 7-310.0.

The archaeological research was conducted in compliance with provisions of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966 (P.L. 89-665; 80 Stat.915, 16 U.S.C. 470 et seq), the National Environmental Policy Act of 1969 (P.L. 910190; 83 Stat. 852, 42 U.S.C. 4321 et seq), Procedures of the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation (36CFR800), and Executive Order 11593, Protection and Enhancement of the Cultural Environment (16 U.S.C. 470; Supp. 1, 1971).

Phase II investigations by Cultural Resource Analysts, Inc. were conducted in Bourbon and Nicholas Counties, Kentucky to evaluate six sites along U.S. 68, which included sites 15BB131, 15BB132, 15BB133, 15BB137, 15BB140 and 15NI54. Sites 15BB131, 15BB132, 15BB133, 15BB137, and 15BB140 all dated from early to mid-nineteenth century through the mid-nineteenth to mid-twentieth century with little prehistoric material. Site 15NI54 consisted of a Late Archaic and Late Prehistoric component with a low density of mid-nineteenth through mid-twentieth century material. As a result of the Phase II investigation, sites 15BB140 and 15NI54 were not considered eligible for inclusion in the NRHP under Criterion D due to the exhaustion of research potential, and no further work was recommended. Sites 15BB131, 15BB132, 15BB133, and 15BB137 were all recommended as eligible, and determined significant late eighteenth to mid-nineteenth century sites associated with historic US 68. Sites 15BB131, 15BB132, and 15BB133 were not recommended for further fieldwork. However, site 15BB137 was recommended for further fieldwork due to unexcavated, subsurface features with research potential pertaining to local and regional studies. Based on its location within the construction area, avoidance was not possible.

Phase III investigation of site 15BB137 was conducted by CDM Smith between October and December of 2011. The excavations revealed evidence of a house and associated features. The house was log with a stone chimney base. The exact size of the house was not determined. There was a cellar feature that may have been part of a house extension or a detached kitchen. The artifacts and the archival documents indicated the house was occupied from the late eighteenth century to the early nineteenth century. The original owner was Thomas Champ, who died in 1808. Mary Champ, Thomas' daughter lived in the house until at least 1827, when she sold the property to her brother Robert Champ. Initially, researchers believed that 15BB137 was the site of T. Champ's Inn, which was shown on a historic map. Additional research suggested that the inn was on another site, Thomas Champ's house (BB204).

The archaeological and archival research on 15BB137 indicated that Thomas Champ, the original owner, was a successful farmer. After his death the farm was divided among his heirs. Mary Champ lived on 25 acres and data suggests that her economic status declined. Robert Champ's son Thomas Champ expanded the farm and built a brick federal style house that compares to other houses along Maysville Road.

The study of 15BB137 and the other sites (15BB132, 15BB132, and 15BB133) show the variability of the occupation of the Maysville Road in the late eighteenth and nineteenth century and the changes that occurred.

Table of Contents

Abstract	i
Table of Contents	ii
List of Figures	viii
List of Tables	xiii
Acknowledgements	xv
Section 1 - Introduction	1-1
1.1 Project Sponsors and Regulatory Authority.....	1-1
1.2 Project Location and Description.....	1-1
1.3 Project Sponsors.....	1-1
1.4 Personnel.....	1-1
1.5 Fieldwork.....	1-5
1.6 Exhibit Preparations and Maps.....	1-5
1.7 Curation.....	1-5
1.8 Environmental Setting.....	1-5
1.8.1 Physiographical Setting.....	1-5
1.8.2 Geology.....	1-7
1.8.3 Hydrology.....	1-7
1.8.4 Soils.....	1-7
1.9 Current Land Use.....	1-7
1.10 Report Organization.....	1-7
1.11 Summary.....	1-10
Section 2 - Research Design	2-1
2.1 Introduction.....	2-1
2.2 Site Descriptions and Previous Investigations.....	2-2
2.2.1 Site 15BB131 “Neal’s Old House”.....	2-2
2.2.2 Site 15BB132.....	2-2
2.2.3 Site 15BB133 “Eli Current’s Inn”.....	2-2
2.2.4 Site 15BB137 “Thomas and Mary Champ House”.....	2-3
2.3 Research Design.....	2-3
2.3.1 The Maysville Road and the New West.....	2-3
2.3.2 Market and Household Production.....	2-4
2.3.3 Consumer Behavior and Material Culture.....	2-6
2.3.4 Foodways.....	2-7
2.3.5 Site Layout and the Built Environment.....	2-7
2.3.6 The Archaeology of Rural Inns.....	2-7
2.4 Summary.....	2-8
Section 3 - Historic Context of the Thomas and Mary Champ House	3-1
3.1 Historic Context.....	3-1
3.1.1 Along the Maysville Road.....	3-1
3.1.2 War of 1812 and the Panic of 1819.....	3-2
3.1.3 The Maysville Road, Henry Clay, and Andrew Jackson.....	3-4
3.1.4 The Panic of 1837.....	3-4
3.1.5 Cane Ridge and the Great Revival.....	3-4
3.1.6 Cholera and Medical Science.....	3-5

3.1.7 Historical Sketch of Bourbon County	3-6
3.1.8 Class and Slavery.....	3-8
3.2 Archival Research.....	3-8
3.2.1 Introduction	3-8
3.2.2 The Thomas and Mary Champ House (15BB137).....	3-8
3.2.3 The Darnaby and Ellis Map.....	3-22
Section 4 - Methodology	4-1
4.1 Introduction.....	4-1
4.2 Field Methods.....	4-1
4.2.1 Remote Sensing	4-1
4.2.2 Test Units.....	4-2
4.2.3 Mechanical Excavation	4-2
4.2.4 Features	4-2
Section 5 - Material Recovered.....	5-1
5.1 Introduction.....	5-1
5.2 Laboratory Procedures.....	5-1
5.2.1 Kitchen Group.....	5-1
5.2.1.1 Ceramics	5-2
5.2.1.1.1 Refined Wares	5-3
5.2.1.1.1.1 Porcelain	5-3
5.2.1.1.1.2 Creamware.....	5-5
5.2.1.1.1.3 Pearlware.....	5-6
5.2.1.1.1.4 Whiteware	5-7
5.2.1.1.2 Coarseware.....	5-8
5.2.1.1.2.1 Redware	5-9
5.2.1.1.2.2 Stoneware.....	5-10
5.2.1.2 Container Glass.....	5-10
5.2.1.2.1 Bottle/Jar Glass.....	5-10
5.2.1.2.2 Table Glass.....	5-13
5.2.1.3 Other Kitchen	5-14
5.2.2 Architecture Group	5-14
5.2.2.1 Nails.....	5-16
5.2.2.1.1 Wrought Nails	5-16
5.2.2.1.2 Cut Nails	5-16
5.2.2.1.3 Wire Nails.....	5-17
5.2.2.2 Flat Glass	5-18
5.2.2.3 Bricks	5-19
5.2.2.4 Other Architectural Material.....	5-19
5.2.3 Furniture Group	5-20
5.2.4 Arms Group	5-20
5.2.5 Clothing Group	5-20
5.2.5.1 Buttons.....	5-21
5.2.5.2 Beads.....	5-22
5.2.5.3 Buckles	5-22
5.2.5.4 Hook and Eye	5-23
5.2.6 Personal Group	5-23
5.2.6.1 Smoking Artifacts	5-23
5.2.6.2 Sewing	5-23
5.2.6.3 Toys	5-24

5.2.6.4 Pocket Knife.....	5-24
5.2.6.5 Writing Instruments	5-24
5.2.6.6 Religious	5-24
5.2.6.7 Other Personal.....	5-25
5.2.7 Transportation Group.....	5-25
5.2.7.1 Animal Shoe Parts.....	5-25
5.2.7.2 Harness and Tackle Parts	5-25
5.2.7.3 Wagon/Carriage Parts	5-25
5.2.7.4 Unidentified Transportation	5-25
5.2.8 Fuel Group.....	5-26
5.2.9 Tools/Activity Group	5-26
5.2.9.1 Other Group.....	5-26
5.3 Summary	5-27
Section 6 - Field Results	6-1
6.1 Location and Site Description	6-1
6.2 Previous Investigations	6-1
6.3 Phase III Excavations	6-1
6.3.1 Stratigraphy	6-3
6.3.2 Stratigraphy and Artifacts.....	6-7
6.3.3 Features	6-8
6.3.3.1 Cellar Related Features.....	6-8
6.3.3.1.1 Feature 4.....	6-8
6.3.3.1.2 Feature 8.....	6-16
6.3.3.1.3 Feature 9.....	6-16
6.3.3.1.4 Feature 10.....	6-19
6.3.3.1.5 Feature 12.....	6-20
6.3.3.2 House Related Features.....	6-20
6.3.3.2.1 Feature 2.....	6-20
6.3.3.2.2 Feature 5.....	6-20
6.3.3.2.3 Feature 6.....	6-20
6.3.3.2.4 Feature 7.....	6-20
6.3.3.2.5 Feature 13.....	6-26
6.3.3.2.6 Feature 14.....	6-26
6.3.3.2.7 Feature 15.....	6-30
6.3.3.2.8 Feature 16.....	6-30
6.3.3.2.9 Feature 17.....	6-30
6.3.3.2.10 Feature 18.....	6-30
6.3.3.2.11 Feature 19.....	6-30
6.3.3.2.12 Feature 20.....	6-38
6.3.3.2.13 Feature 21.....	6-38
6.3.3.3 Other Features.....	6-40
6.3.3.3.1 Feature 1.....	6-40
6.3.3.3.1 Feature 11.....	6-40
6.3.3.3.2 Feature 22.....	6-40
6.3.3.3.3 Feature 23.....	6-40
6.3.3.3.4 Feature 24.....	6-40
6.3.3.3.5 Feature 25.....	6-40
6.3.3.3.6 Feature 26.....	6-47
6.3.3.3.7 Feature 27.....	6-47

6.3.3.3.8 Feature 28.....	6-47
6.3.3.3.9 Feature 29.....	6-47
6.3.3.3.10 Feature 30.....	6-47
6.3.3.3.11 Feature 31.....	6-57
6.3.3.3.12 Feature 33.....	6-57
6.3.3.3.13 Feature 34.....	6-57
6.4 Chronology.....	6-61
6.4.1 Archival.....	6-61
6.4.2 Window Glass.....	6-61
6.4.3 Ceramics.....	6-66
6.4.4 Nails.....	6-73
6.4.5 Features.....	6-77
6.4.5.1 Features 4a and 4b.....	6-77
6.4.5.2 Feature 9.....	6-78
6.4.5.3 Feature 10.....	6-78
6.4.5.4 Feature 13.....	6-78
6.4.5.5 Feature 15.....	6-78
6.4.5.6 Feature 19.....	6-78
6.4.5.7 Feature 21.....	6-78
6.4.6 Chronology Summary.....	6-78
6.5 Summary.....	6-79
Section 7 - Botanical Analysis.....	7-1
7.1 Field and Laboratory Processing.....	7-1
7.1.1 Field Processing.....	7-1
7.1.2 Laboratory Procedures.....	7-1
7.2 Results.....	7-7
7.3 Conclusions.....	7-9
Section 8 - Faunal Analysis.....	8-1
8.1 Research Objectives.....	8-1
8.1.1 Objective 1 – Patterns of Consumerism at 15BB137.....	8-1
8.1.2 Objective 2 – Does 15BB137 conform to the Upland South Subsistence pattern, as currently defined?.....	8-2
8.2 Methods.....	8-2
8.2.1 Laboratory Methods.....	8-2
8.2.2 Zooarchaeological Quantification.....	8-2
8.3 Taphonomic and Cultural Effects on Faunal Assemblages: Theoretical Considerations for Zooarchaeological Research.....	8-5
8.3.1 The Sample Assemblage.....	8-6
8.3.2 The Fossil Assemblage.....	8-6
8.3.3 The Deposited Assemblage.....	8-6
8.3.4 The Death Assemblage.....	8-6
8.4 Taphonomy: Natural and Cultural Modifications to Bone.....	8-6
8.4.1 The Sample Assemblage.....	8-6
8.4.2 The Fossil Assemblage.....	8-7
8.4.3 The Deposited Assemblage.....	8-7
8.4.4 The Death Assemblage.....	8-7
8.5 Identifications.....	8-7
8.6 Comparison to Other Sites.....	8-11
8.7 Chronology and Spatial Analysis.....	8-19

8.8 A Recipe	8-30
8.9 Summary and Conclusions	8-30
8.9.1 Objective 1- Patterns of consumerism at site 15BB137.....	8-30
8.9.2 Objective 2- Does 15BB137 conform to the Upland South Subsistence pattern, as currently defined?	8-30
8.9.3 Objective 3- Spatial Analysis of the Farmstead Layout.....	8-31
Section 9 - Site Layout.....	9-1
9.1 Introduction.....	9-1
9.2 Upland South Farm Model.....	9-1
9.3 Construction of the Thomas and Mary Champ House	9-3
9.4 Use of Space at Thomas and Mary Champ House	9-8
9.4.1 Architectural Group Artifacts	9-9
9.4.1.1 Mortar.....	9-9
9.4.1.2 Nails.....	9-9
9.4.1.3 Flat Glass	9-13
9.4.1.4 Burned Clay.....	9-13
9.4.2 Kitchen Group Artifacts.....	9-13
9.4.2.1 Creamware	9-13
9.4.2.2 Pearlware.....	9-27
9.4.2.3 Whiteware	9-27
9.4.2.4 Hard Paste Porcelain	9-27
9.4.2.5 Domestic Stoneware	9-27
9.4.2.6 Coarse Redware	9-27
9.4.2.7 Kitchen Bottle and Table Glass.....	9-27
9.4.3 Clothing Group Artifacts.....	9-27
9.4.4 Furniture Group Artifacts	9-35
9.4.5 Transportation Group Artifacts.....	9-35
9.4.6 Activity/Job Group Artifacts	9-35
9.4.7 Personal Group Artifacts	9-35
9.4.8 Fuel Group Artifacts.....	9-35
9.4.9 Arms Group Artifacts	9-35
9.4.10 Botanical and Faunal Assemblages	9-35
9.5 Discussion.....	9-42
9.6 Comparisons with other Maysville Road Sites	9-49
9.7 Summary	9-51
Section 10 - Market and Household Production	10-1
10.1 Introduction	10-1
10.2 Early Farming in Kentucky.....	10-1
10.3 Production on the Champ Farmstead.....	10-4
10.4 Production on Other Maysville Road Sites	10-9
10.5 Discussion	10-11
10.6 Summary	10-12
Section 11 - Consumer Behavior.....	11-1
11.1 Introduction	11-1
11.2 Archaeology and the Consumer Revolution	11-1
11.3 Ceramics and the Study of Consumerism	11-4
11.4 Ceramic Protocol and Results	11-5
11.4.1 Mean Ceramic Date.....	11-11

11.4.2 Social and Economic Status at Thomas and Mary Champ House	11-11
11.4.3 Genteel Dining and Middle Class Membership	11-15
11.5 Discussion of Comparative Material from Sites on the Old Maysville Road.....	11-15
11.5.1 Site 15BB131 (Neal’s Old Place).....	11-16
11.5.2 Site 15BB132.....	11-18
11.5.3 Site 15BB133 (Eli Current’s Inn).....	11-20
11.5.4 Site 15BB137 (Thomas and Mary Champ House)	11-23
11.6 Discussion and Conclusions.....	11-26
11.7 Summary	11-27
Section 12 - The Archaeology of Inns	12-1
12.1 Latchstring Inns, Taverns, and Hotels.....	12-1
12.2 Previous Archaeological Research.....	12-6
12.3 Inn Assemblage Comparisons	12-7
12.4 T. Champ’s Inn and Eli Current’s Inn	12-10
12.5 Summary	12-11
Section 13 - Summary and Conclusion	13-1
13.1 Introduction	13-1
13.2 Summary of the Archaeological Investigations at 15BB137	13-1
13.3 Conclusion	13-3
Section 14 - References	14-1
Appendix A - Artifact Inventory	A-1
Appendix B - Geophysical Investigation of Site 15BB137, an Historic Site in Bourbon County, Kentucky.....	B-1
Appendix C - Prehistoric Component.....	C-1
C.1 Introduction.....	C-2
C.1.1 Prehistoric Interpretation	C-2
C.1.1.1 Discussion.....	C-3

List of Figures

Figure 1-1. Project Location.....	1-2
Figure 1-2. Location of 15BB137 on USGS Quadrangle.....	1-3
Figure 1-3. Location of 15BB137 on Aerial Photo.	1-4
Figure 1-4. Physiography of Kentucky showing Bourbon County.....	1-6
Figure 1-5. Geology of Kentucky showing Bourbon County.....	1-8
Figure 1-6. Hydrology of site 15BB137.	1-9
Figure 3-1. Close up of “Road from Limestone to Frankfort in the State of Kentucky Showing the Road between Millersburgh (sic) to Paris.” (Collete 1796).	3-10
Figure 3-2. Division of Thomas Champ’s Land.....	3-10
Figure 3-3. Thomas Champ Inventory BCWB C:385-389.....	3-12
Figure 3-4. Thomas Champ Inventory BCWB C:385-389.....	3-13
Figure 3-5. Thomas Champ Inventory BCWB C:385-389.....	3-14
Figure 3-6. Thomas Champ Inventory BCWB C:385-389.....	3-15
Figure 3-7. Thomas Champ Inventory BCWB C:385-389.....	3-16
Figure 3-8. Darnaby and Ellis map, 1827, showing site 15BB137.....	3-18
Figure 3-9. 1861 Hewitt Map showing the location of Mrs. Champ’s House.....	3-20
Figure 3-10. 1877 Beers Map of Bourbon County showing the location of L. L. Champ’s House.....	3-20
Figure 5-1. Samples of Porcelain from 15BB137. A) Overglazed enamel monochrome rim and body; B) undecorated footring; C) undecorated rim; D) overglazed enamel polychrome with floral and annual motif; E) overglazed enamel monochrome rim with red dots; F) overglazed enamel polychrome rim with floral motif; G) overglazed enamel polychrome body with floral motif; H) burned porcelain with hand panted floral motif.....	5-4
Figure 5-2. Samples of Creamware from 15BB137. A) Undecorated teacup rim; B) underglazed painted polychrome and overglaze enamel rim with floral motif; C) underglazed painted yellow and overglazed enamel rim; D) undecorated plate rim and body; E) annular body; F) annular bowl body.....	5-5
Figure 5-3. Samples of Pearlware from 15BB137. A) Underglazed blue painted plate body; B) underglazed blue transfer printed teacup rim; C) underglazed blue plate rim; D) underglazed blue transfer printed plate rim; E) green shell edge straight plate rim; F) underglazed blue painted teacup rim; G) underglazed blue transfer printed footring with body; H) underglazed painted polychrome with lines and floral motif; I) green shell edge scalloped flatware rim.....	5-6
Figure 5-4. Samples of Whiteware from 15BB137. A) Underglazed blue transfer printed plate rim; B) overglazed painted rim; C) underglaze red transfer printed body; D) underglazed red transfer printed body; E) underglaze blue painted teacup body; F) underglazed red transfer printed body.....	5-8
Figure 5-5. Samples of Redware from 15BB137. A) Clear lead glazed rim with body job/bottle; B, C) lead glazed brown tint plate/bowl rim; D) lead glazed brown tint body with handle; E) lead glazed brown tint base; F) lead glazed brown tint rim with body; G, J) clear lead glazed body with curvilinear incising; H) lead glazed green tint base; I) lead glazed brown tint rim with body; K) lead glazed brown tint base.....	5-9
Figure 5-6. Samples of Stoneware from 15BB137. A) Salt glazed undecorated jug/jar base; B) salt glazed undecorated jug rim; C) salt glazed undecorated body; D) salt glazed undecorated body.....	5-11
Figure 5-7. Sample Bottle/Jar Glass from 15BB137. A) Dark green body, unidentified manufacture; B) clear leaded, unidentified manufacture, burned; C) light aqua, leaded, base; D) dark green	

body, unidentified manufacture; E) light green, medicine bottle base, pontil, slighted melted; F) colorless/clear unleaded, base, unidentified manufacture. 5-13

Figure 5-8. Sample Table Glass from 15BB137. A) Undetermined lip, undetermined manufacture, colorless/clear unleaded; B) body, unidentified manufacture, olive green; C) lip, press molded, shell-patterned, clear; D) body, unidentified color, leaded, molded design; E) lip, unidentified manufacture, colorless/clear unleaded..... 5-15

Figure 5-9. Sample of Other Kitchen Artifacts from 15BB137.)A cast iron kettle/pot base with leg; B) two prong fork fragments; C) utensil handle; D) knife. 5-15

Figure 5-10. Sample Nails from 15BB137. A) early cut nail, 4d, unaltered; B) early cut nail, 8d clinched; C) late cut nail, 4d, unaltered; D) late cut nail, 6d, unaltered; E) late cut nail, 8d unaltered.... 5-17

Figure 5-11. Moir Window Glass Dating. 5-19

Figure 5-12. Sample Bricks from 15BB137. A) Handmade brick; B) handmade brick. 5-20

Figure 5-13. Gun Flint from 15BB137. A) English grey/black gunflint..... 5-21

Figure 5-14. Sample of Clothing Group Artifacts from 15BB137. A) Blue glass bead; B) clear, oblong, faceted jewelry bead; C) copper/brass eye of a hook and eye; D) silver plated front iron button; E) copper/brass button, 4 hole; F) copper/brass button with eyelet on back; G) one eyed bone button; H) iron buckle; I) small iron buckle. 5-22

Figure 5-15. Sample of Personal Group Artifacts from 15BB137. A) Straight pin, spun head (round); B) copper/brass thimble; C) stoneware/earthenware smoking pipe bowl, dark brown/black glaze, linear design; D) stoneware/earthenware smoking pipe bow, undecorated; E) toy marble; F) slate pencil; G) pocket knife; H) lead amulet; I) slate writing tablet..... 5-23

Figure 5-16. Obverse and Reverse of Drilled Metal Disc..... 5-24

Figure 5-17. Sample of Transportation Group Artifacts from 15BB137. A) Metal wagon part; B) large metal animal shoe. 5-25

Figure 5-18. Sample of Tools/Activity Group Artifacts from 15BB137. A, D) Unidentified machinery metal; B) plow or kettle fragment; C) unidentified plow part; E) other unidentified metal.... 5-26

Figure 6-1. 15BB137 Excavation Units and Features..... 6-2

Figure 6-2. Test Unit 13 East Wall Profile Photo..... 6-4

Figure 6-3. Test Unit 13 East Wall Profile. 6-4

Figure 6-4. Test Unit 27 North Wall Profile Photograph. 6-5

Figure 6-5. Test Unit 27 North Wall Profile. 6-5

Figure 6-6. Test Unit 36 North Wall Profile Photograph. 6-6

Figure 6-7. Test Unit 36 North Wall Profile. 6-6

Figure 6-8. Possible House and Outbuilding Locations for Site 15BB137. 6-9

Figure 6-9. Feature 4b Looking South..... 6-10

Figure 6-10. Feature 4b looking south after mechanical excavation. 6-10

Figure 6-11. Feature 4a in Test Unit 16..... 6-11

Figure 6-12. Feature 4a and 4b Looking East. 6-11

Figure 6-13. Features 4a, 4b, and 9. 6-12

Figure 6-14. West Profile Feature 4, Feature 9 and Feature 10. 6-12

Figure 6-15. Features 4a, 4b, 9, 10 and 12 Looking West..... 6-13

Figure 6-16. Test Unit 19, West Wall Profile..... 6-13

Figure 6-17. Test Unit 30, West Wall Profile..... 6-14

Figure 6-18. Feature 8 before Excavation. 6-17

Figure 6-19. Feature 8 after Excavation..... 6-17

Figure 6-20. Feature 9 and 10 before Excavation..... 6-18

Figure 6-21. Features 9 and 10 after Excavation. 6-18

Figure 6-22. Feature 12 Profile. 6-21

Figure 6-23. Feature 12, West Wall Profile..... 6-21

Figure 6-24. Feature 12 within Feature 4..... 6-22

Figure 6-25. Feature 2, TU 12 after Excavation.....	6-22
Figure 6-26. Feature 5 and Feature 6 before Excavation.....	6-23
Figure 6-27. Feature 5 and Feature 6 after Excavation.....	6-23
Figure 6-28. Feature 5 and 6, TU 24 Plan.....	6-24
Figure 6-29. Feature 5, TU 24 East Wall Profile.....	6-24
Figure 6-30. Feature 6, TU 24 West Wall Profile.....	6-25
Figure 6-31. Feature 7 before Excavation.....	6-25
Figure 6-32. Feature 7 after Excavation.....	6-26
Figure 6-33. Planview of Feature 13.....	6-27
Figure 6-34. Feature 13.....	6-28
Figure 6-35. Feature 14 and 15 before Excavation.....	6-29
Figure 6-36. Feature 14 and 15 after Excavation.....	6-29
Figure 6-37. Planview of Feature 15.....	6-31
Figure 6-38. Feature 16.....	6-32
Figure 6-39. Feature 17 Plan, TU 50.....	6-33
Figure 6-40. Feature 18 before Excavation.....	6-34
Figure 6-41. Feature 18 after Excavation.....	6-34
Figure 6-42. Feature 18 Plan.....	6-35
Figure 6-43. Feature 19 before Excavation.....	6-36
Figure 6-44. Feature 19 Plan.....	6-37
Figure 6-45. Feature 21 Northern end, after Mechanical Removal of Topsoil.....	6-39
Figure 6-46. Feature 21 Southern end, after Mechanical Removal of Topsoil.....	6-39
Figure 6-47. Feature 11 before Excavation.....	6-41
Figure 6-48. Feature 22 before Excavation.....	6-41
Figure 6-49. Feature 22 after Excavation.....	6-42
Figure 6-50. Feature 22 Plan and Profile.....	6-43
Figure 6-51. Feature 23 before Excavation.....	6-44
Figure 6-52. Feature 23 south wall Profile.....	6-44
Figure 6-53. Feature 23 Profile and south wall Planview.....	6-45
Figure 6-54. Feature 24 before Excavation.....	6-46
Figure 6-55. Feature 24 south wall Profile.....	6-46
Figure 6-56. Feature 26 before Excavation.....	6-48
Figure 6-57. Feature 26 after Excavation.....	6-48
Figure 6-58. Feature 27 before Excavation.....	6-49
Figure 6-59. Feature 27 north wall Profile.....	6-50
Figure 6-60. Feature 27 Plan and Profile.....	6-51
Figure 6-61. Feature 28 during Excavation.....	6-52
Figure 6-62. Feature 28 after Excavation.....	6-52
Figure 6-63. Feature 28 Profile and Plan.....	6-53
Figure 6-64. Features 29, 30, and 31 before Excavation.....	6-54
Figure 6-65. Feature 29 Plan and Profile.....	6-55
Figure 6-66. Feature 30 Plan and Profile.....	6-56
Figure 6-67. Feature 31 Planview.....	6-57
Figure 6-68. Feature 33 before Excavation.....	6-58
Figure 6-69. Feature 33 after Excavation.....	6-58
Figure 6-70. Feature 33 Plan and Profile.....	6-59
Figure 6-71. Feature 34 before Excavation.....	6-60
Figure 6-72. Feature 34 Plan and Profile.....	6-60
Figure 6-73. Flat Glass to 1800.....	6-62
Figure 6-74. Flat Glass 1801 to 1810.....	6-63

Figure 6-75. Flat Glass 1811 to 1830.....	6-64
Figure 6-76. Flat Glass 1831 onward.....	6-65
Figure 6-77. Moir Window glass Dating.....	6-66
Figure 6-78. Coarse Redware Distribution.....	6-69
Figure 6-79. Creamware Distribution.....	6-70
Figure 6-80. Pearlware Distribution.....	6-71
Figure 6-81. Whiteware Distribution.....	6-72
Figure 6-82. Early Cut Nail Distribution.....	6-75
Figure 6-83. Late Cut Nail Distribution.....	6-76
Figure 8-1. Mammalian Species Utilization.....	8-10
Figure 8-2. Avian Species Utilization.....	8-11
Figure 8-3. Distribution of Pig Cranium Elements and Teeth.....	8-28
Figure 8-4. Distribution of Pig Feet Elements.....	8-29
Figure 9-1. Comparison of Ideal Nail Ratios with 15BB137 Nail Assemblage (Young 1994).....	9-5
Figure 9-2. Distribution of Architectural Group Artifacts.....	9-10
Figure 9-3. Distribution of Mortar.....	9-11
Figure 9-4. Distribution of All Nails.....	9-12
Figure 9-5. Distribution of Early Cut Nails.....	9-14
Figure 9-6. Distribution of Late Cut Nails.....	9-15
Figure 9-7. Distribution of Unaltered Nails.....	9-16
Figure 9-8. Distribution of Pulled Nails.....	9-17
Figure 9-9. Distribution of Clinched Nails.....	9-18
Figure 9-10. Distribution of Flat Glass.....	9-19
Figure 9-11. Distribution of Flat Glass to 1800.....	9-20
Figure 9-12. Distribution of Flat Glass 1801 to 1810.....	9-21
Figure 9-13. Distribution of Flat Glass 1811 to 1830.....	9-22
Figure 9-14. Distribution of Flat Glass 1831 onward.....	9-23
Figure 9-15. Distribution of Burned Clay.....	9-24
Figure 9-16. Distribution of Kitchen Group Artifacts.....	9-25
Figure 9-17. Distribution of Creamware.....	9-26
Figure 9-18. Distribution of Pearlware.....	9-28
Figure 9-19. Distribution of Whiteware.....	9-29
Figure 9-20. Distribution of Hard Paste Porcelain.....	9-30
Figure 9-21. Distribution of Domestic Stoneware.....	9-31
Figure 9-22. Distribution of Coarse Redware.....	9-32
Figure 9-23. Distribution of Kitchen Bottle Glass.....	9-33
Figure 9-24. Distribution of Kitchen Table Glass.....	9-34
Figure 9-25. Distribution of Clothing Group Artifacts.....	9-36
Figure 9-26. Distribution of Furniture Group Artifacts.....	9-37
Figure 9-27. Distribution of Transportation Group Artifacts.....	9-38
Figure 9-28. Distribution of Activity/Job Group Artifacts.....	9-39
Figure 9-29. Distribution of Personal Group Artifacts.....	9-40
Figure 9-30. Distribution of Fuel Group Artifacts.....	9-41
Figure 9-31. Distribution of Faunal Remains.....	9-43
Figure 9-32. Possible Thomas and Mary Champ House Structure Placement.....	9-44
Figure 9-33. Mefford's Fort, Mason County, Kentucky.....	9-45
Figure 9-34. Mefford's Fort.....	9-45
Figure 9-35. Cellar Profile a,b) steps; c) earthen wall; d) board roof; e) earth covering; f) rafters (Halsted 1977:228).....	9-46
Figure 9-36. Fruit Cellar (Hiles 1893:97).....	9-46

Figure 9-37. Fruit Cellar Profile (Hiles 1893:98).	9-46
Figure 9-38. Log House with Kitchen and Stone Foundation (Morgan 1990:66).....	9-47
Figure 9-39. Hewitt Map (1861), showing Mrs. Champ, W.W. Fisher (The Grange), and W.S. Rogers (New Forest).	9-48
Figure 9-40. Beers Map (1877) Showing L.L. Champ, W. Fisher (The Grange), and Horace Miller (New Forest).....	9-48
Figure 9-41. Thomas Champ House and Outbuildings.	9-49
Figure 9-42. Comparison of Idea Nail Ratios with of 15BB137 with 15BB131 and 15BB133.	9-51
Figure 11-1. Examples of Teaware Body and Rim Ceramic Sherds from 15BB137 (Champ House).....	11-9
Figure 11-2. Examples of Teaware Base and Foot Ring Ceramic Sherds from 15BB137 (Champ House).	11-9
Figure 11-3. Examples of Creamware Body Sherds from 15BB137 (Champ House).	11-10
Figure 11-4. Examples of Pearlware and Red Transfer Printed Whiteware Rim Ceramic Sherds from 15BB137 (Champ House).....	11-10
Figure 12-1. Darnaby and Ellis 1827.	12-2
Figure 12-2. Hewitt Map of 1861 showing Thomas Champ House.....	12-12
Figure C-1. Projectile Points collected from Site 15BB137.....	C-2
Figure C-2. Biface Fragments and an Endscraper Collected from Site 15BB137.....	C-3

List of Tables

Table 3-1. Sample of Items from the Probate Inventory of Thomas Champ in 1808.....	3-11
Table 5-1. Artifacts by Functional Group.....	5-1
Table 5-2. Kitchen Group Artifacts.....	5-2
Table 5-3. Kitchen Ceramics.....	5-3
Table 5-4. Refined Ceramics.....	5-3
Table 5-5. Architecture Group Artifacts.....	5-16
Table 5-6. Nails.....	5-16
Table 5-7. Whole Nail Type and Size from 15BB137.....	5-18
Table 6-1. Temporally Diagnostic Artifacts by Zone.....	6-7
Table 6-2. Temporally Diagnostic Artifacts by Zone.....	6-7
Table 6-3. Artifacts from Features 4a and 4b.....	6-14
Table 6-4. Temporally Diagnostic Artifacts from Feature 4.....	6-16
Table 6-5. Artifacts from Feature 9.....	6-19
Table 6-6. Artifacts from Feature 13.....	6-28
Table 6-7. Artifacts from Feature 15.....	6-32
Table 6-8. Artifacts from Feature 19.....	6-38
Table 6-9. Artifacts from Feature 26.....	6-49
Table 6-10. Artifacts from Feature 28.....	6-54
Table 6-11. Average Window Glass Dates.....	6-61
Table 6-12. Ceramic Dates.....	6-67
Table 6-13. Ceramic Types by Zone.....	6-67
Table 6-14. Ceramics from Feature 4 Area.....	6-68
Table 6-15. Ceramics from Feature 13 Area.....	6-68
Table 6-16. Ceramics from Feature 15 Area.....	6-68
Table 6-17. Nails.....	6-74
Table 6-18. Nail Types by Area.....	6-74
Table 6-19. Kitchen Ceramics from Feature 4a and 4b.....	6-77
Table 6-20. Features 4a and 4b Nails.....	6-77
Table 7-1. Macrobotanical Remains from 15BB137.....	7-3
Table 7-2. Density Measures.....	7-7
Table 8-1. Species Identified in the 15BB137 Sample.....	8-8
Table 8-2. Summary of Selected 19 th Century Faunal Assemblages.....	8-12
Table 8-3. Mean Ceramic Dates.....	8-19
Table 8-4. Fauna from Feature 4a.....	8-20
Table 8-5. Fauna from Feature 4b.....	8-21
Table 8-6. Fauna from Feature 4 Area, Zone 1.....	8-21
Table 8-7. Fauna from Feature 13 Area, Zone 1.....	8-23
Table 8-8. Fauna from Feature 15 Area, Zone 1.....	8-25
Table 8-9. Fauna from All Other Features.....	8-26
Table 9-1. Nail size and Use (adapted from Wagner et al. 1992).....	9-4
Table 9-2. Whole Nail Type and Size from 15BB137.....	9-5
Table 9-3. Whole Nail Type and Size from 15BB137, Feature 4 Area (Kitchen/Cellar).....	9-6
Table 9-4. Whole Nail Type and Size from 15BB137, Feature 13 Area (House).....	9-6
Table 9-5. Whole Nail Type and Size from 15BB137, Feature 15 Area (House).....	9-7
Table 9-6. Whole Nail Type and Size from 15BB131.....	9-50
Table 9-7. Whole Nail Type and Size from 15BB133.....	9-50
Table 10-1. Bourbon County Tax Assessment Records.....	10-5

Table 10-2. Faunal Assemblages (from Bundy 2006).....	10-10
Table 10-3. Botanical Assemblages (Phase II from Bundy 2006).....	10-11
Table 11-1. Kitchen Ceramics by Type, Decoration, and Function.....	11-7
Table 11-2. Form/Function Categories for Champ House Ceramics.....	11-11
Table 11-3. Mean Ceramic Date Using Vessels for Champ House (15BB137).	11-12
Table 11-4. Teaware Ceramic Index Values for Champ House (15BB137).....	11-13
Table 11-5. Tableware Ceramic Index Values for the Champ House (15BB137).	11-13
Table 11-6. Teaware Ceramic Index Value for Several Sites.....	11-13
Table 11-7. Teaware Vessels and Ceramic Index for Neal’s Old House (15BB131).	11-16
Table 11-8. Serving Vessels from Neal’s Old Place (15BB131).....	11-17
Table 11-9. Teaware Vessels and Ceramic Index for 15BB131 (Neal’s Old Place).	11-19
Table 11-10. Serving Vessels from 15BB132.....	11-19
Table 11-11. Utilitarian Vessels from 15BB132.	11-19
Table 11-12. Teaware Vessels and Ceramic Index for Eli Current’s Inn (15BB133).	11-21
Table 11-13. Serving Vessels from 15BB133 (Eli Current’s Inn).....	11-22
Table 11-14. Serving Vessels from Eli Current’s Inn (15BB133).....	11-23
Table 11-15. Teaware Vessels and Ceramic Index for Champ House (15BB137).....	11-24
Table 11-16. Tableware from Champ House (15BB137).	11-25
Table 11-17. Teaware ceramic Index Value for Several Sites.....	11-25
Table 12-1. Vessel Function Comparisons for Several Sites.....	12-7
Table 12-2. Inn Related Artifacts at Various Sites.	12-9
Table 12-3. Functional Artifact Groups for Inn and Farmsteads.....	12-10

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This report is dedicated to the memory of Tracey A. Sandefur. Poot!



Section 1 -

Introduction

This report describes the field and laboratory methods, and the results of a Phase III Archaeological Investigation of the Thomas and Mary Champ House (15BB137) in Bourbon County, Kentucky. The project is being conducted for the Kentucky Transportation Cabinet (KYTC). The State Project Number for this project is 7-310.0. This chapter will present an introduction to and provide an overview of the project.

1.1 Project Sponsors and Regulatory Authority

The archaeological research was conducted in compliance with provisions of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966 (P.L. 89-665; 80 Stat.915, 16 U.S.C. 470 et seq), the National Environmental Policy Act of 1969 (P.L. 910190; 83 Stat. 852, 42 U.S.C. 4321 et seq), Procedures of the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation (36CFR800), and Executive Order 11593, Protection and Enhancement of the Cultural Environment (16 U.S.C. 470; Supp. 1, 1971).

1.2 Project Location and Description

The planned reconstruction to US 68 spans northeastern Bourbon County and southeastern Nicholas County. The project begins on US 68 at the Paris Bypass and continues on or near existing US 68 until it bypasses Millersburg on the western side. It terminates in southeastern Nicholas County on US 68 near KY 1455. Existing US 68 from Paris to KY 32 has curves, grades, and other design features, which do not meet current design standards. Congestion, reduced sight distances, narrow lanes, and narrow shoulders occur on existing US 68.

Site 15BB137 is located along the north side of US 68 in Bourbon County (Figure 1-1) and west of an existing driveway on the property of Joseph and Virginia McClain. The site is located in a grass field on undissected uplands at an elevation of 680 feet AMSL. The location of 15BB137 is shown on a topographical map in Figure 1-2 and on an aerial photograph in Figure 1-3.

1.3 Project Sponsors

The state agency sponsoring this survey is the KYTC; the lead federal agency is the Federal Highway Administration.

1.4 Personnel

The Principal Investigator for the Phase III archaeological study was Mr. J. David McBride, RPA. Mr. McBride oversaw the project from beginning to end.

The Field Director for the archaeological study was Mr. McBride. Crew members for the Phase III data recovery included J. Howard Beverly, Dona Daugherty, Chris Rankin, Carrell Rush, and Ann Wilkinson. Eddie Jones, Craig Shaefer, and Tim Reynolds from URS provided additional field labor. Walker Cooper and Shaun Webb from the University of Kentucky's Program for Archaeological Research (UKPAR) also provided field labor.

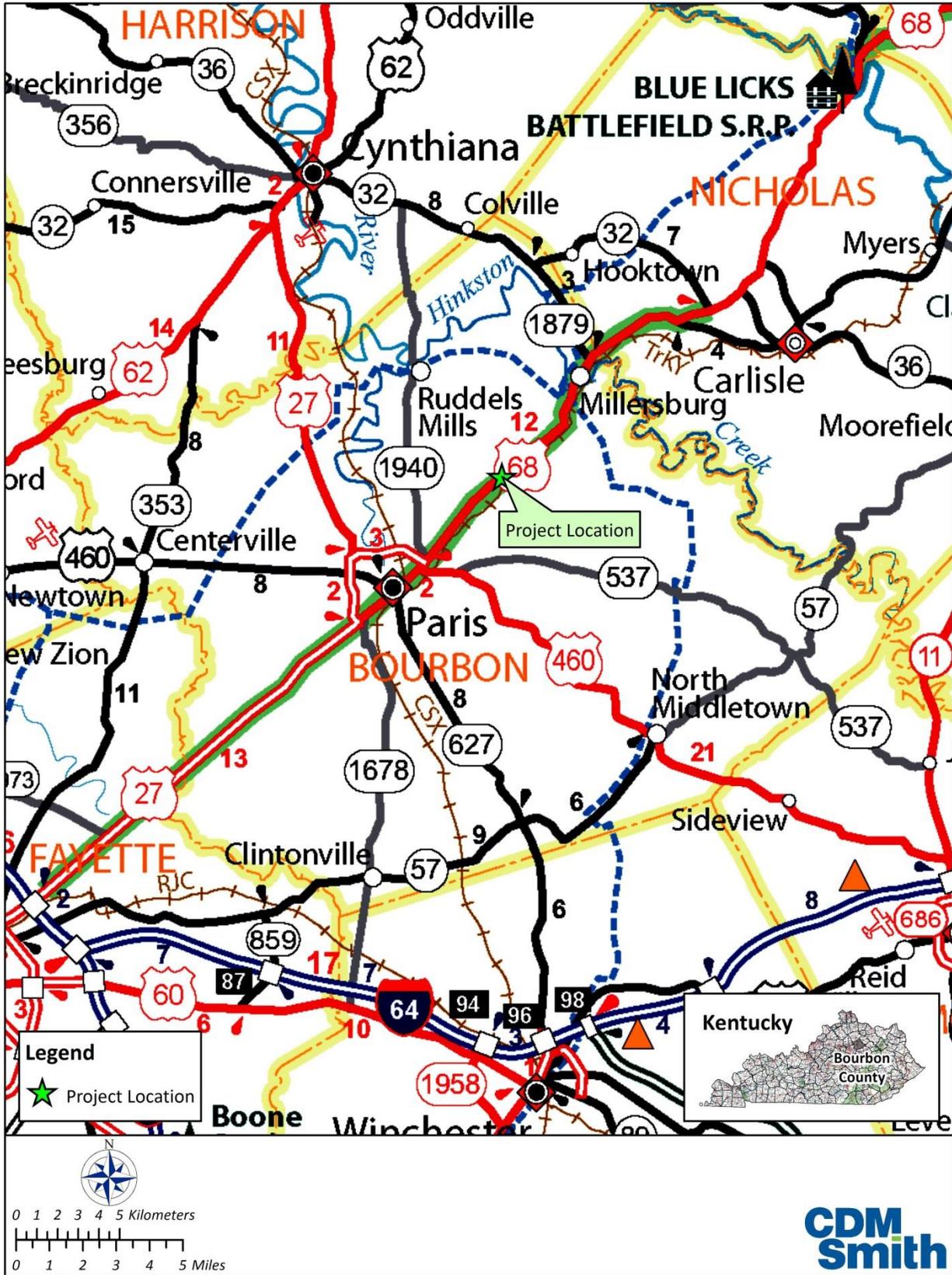


Figure 1-1. Project Location.

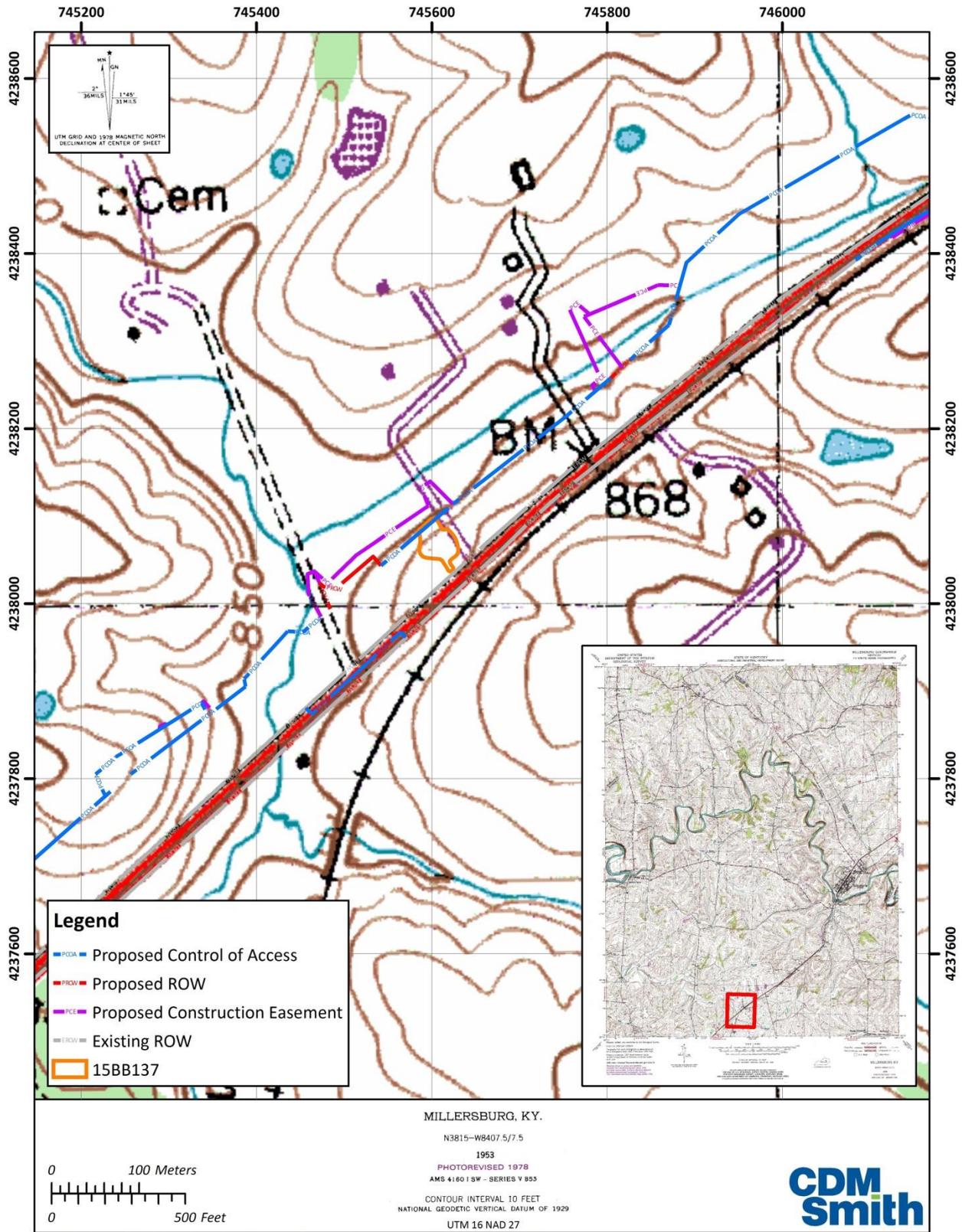


Figure 1-2. Location of 15BB137 on USGS Quadrangle.

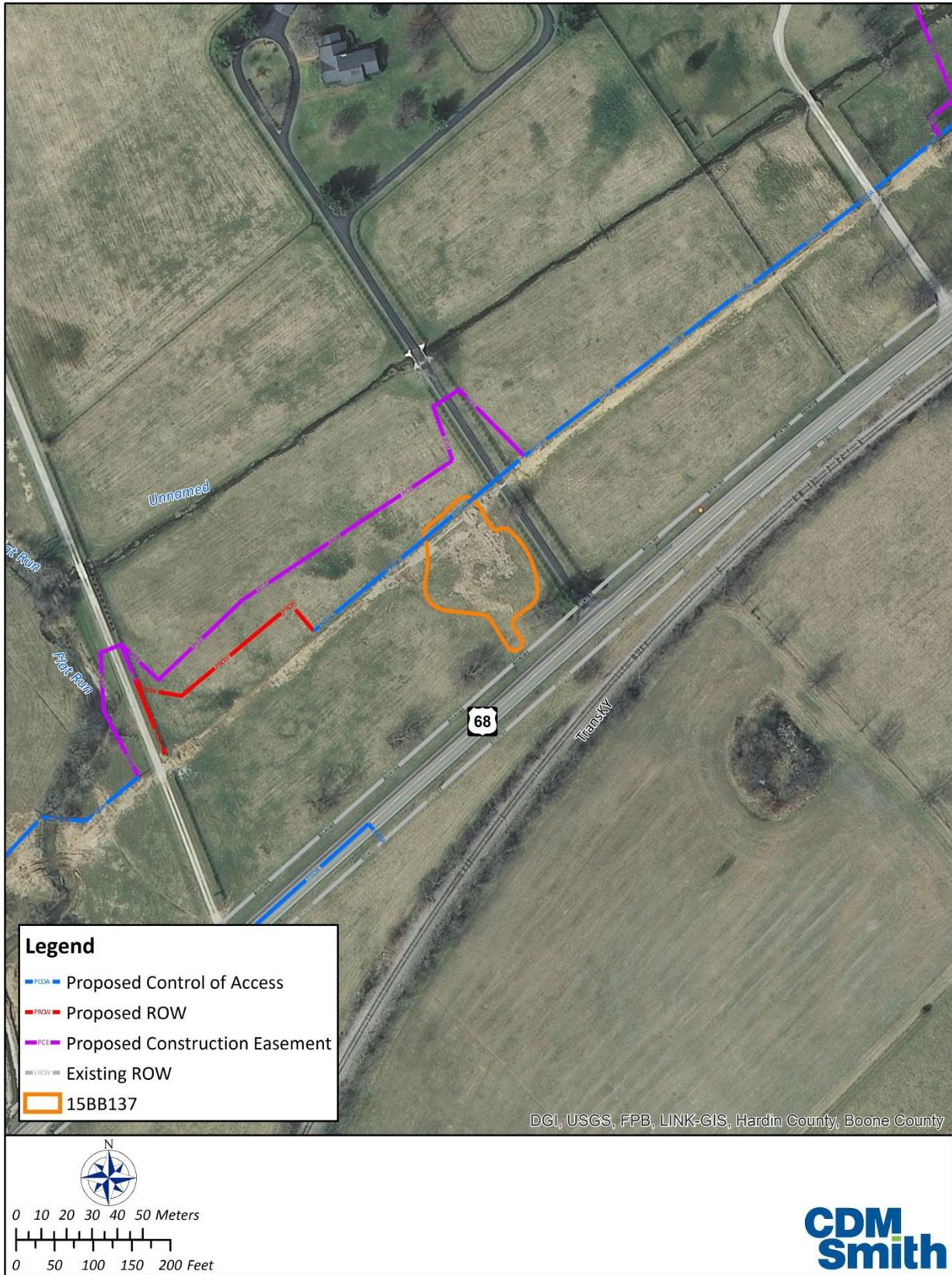


Figure 1-3. Location of 15BB137 on Aerial Photo.

The faunal material was analyzed by Jessica L. Cox, MS, RPA. Botanical remains were identified and analyzed by Renée M. Bonzani, Ph.D. Geophysical investigation of the site was conducted by Donald L. Handshoe with the Kentucky Archaeological Survey.

The Laboratory Director for prehistoric artifacts was David McBride. Tracey Sandefur and David McBride acted as the Laboratory Directors for the historic artifact analysis. Laboratory crew members included Dona Daugherty, Carrell Rush, and Ann Wilkinson.

1.5 Fieldwork

Fieldwork commenced on October 3rd, 2011, and was completed on December 15th, 2011.

1.6 Exhibit Preparations and Maps

Maps and figures for this report were prepared using a combination of Microstation design files, GIS data overlays, and databases gathered from a number of different resources. Existing site information was provided by the West Virginia Culture and History. Soil mapping, landowner data, and vegetation coverage were obtained from aerial photographs and field reconnaissance. All GIS work was conducted by J. Howard Beverly, RPA.

1.7 Curation

All field notes, maps, forms, and artifacts will be curated at the University of Kentucky's curation facility, the William S. Webb Museum of Anthropology.

1.8 Environmental Setting

This section presents the environmental setting of the project area by examining the physiographical setting, paleoclimate and modern climate conditions, soils, hydrology, and current land use.

1.8.1 Physiographical Setting

Kentucky's physiography comprises a series of dissected plateaus and gently rolling plains separated by scarps. The state is commonly divided into five broad physiographic provinces, the Cumberland Plateau, Bluegrass, Mississippian Plateau, Western Coal Field, and Jackson Purchase. Most of the five physiographic provinces are characterized by erosional landforms on gently dipping Paleozoic elastic or carbonate rocks. Site 15BB137 is located within the Inner Bluegrass, which is a part of the Blue Grass Region (Pollack 1990).

In general, the Bluegrass Region of Kentucky consists of gently rolling lowlands co-extensive with the outcrop of Ordovician and Silurian carbonates and shales exposed on the crest and flanks of the Cincinnati Arch (Davis 1927). Reflecting variation in topography, soil fertility, and underlying bedrock, the Bluegrass is typically subdivided into an Inner Bluegrass Region, which lies on Middle Ordovician limestones, and an Outer Bluegrass region that sits on limestones, dolomites, and shales of Late Ordovician and Silurian age.

Site 15BB137 is located within the Inner Bluegrass, a gently rolling, mildly karst plain or low plateau in the geographic center of Kentucky (Figure 1-4). The highest elevation of the Inner Bluegrass, 1,072 feet AMSL, is in northern Jessamine County near the Fayette County border; the lowest elevation, that of the Kentucky River below Frankfort, is 455 feet AMSL (McGrain and Currens 1978). Elevation at the site is approximately 690 feet AMSL.

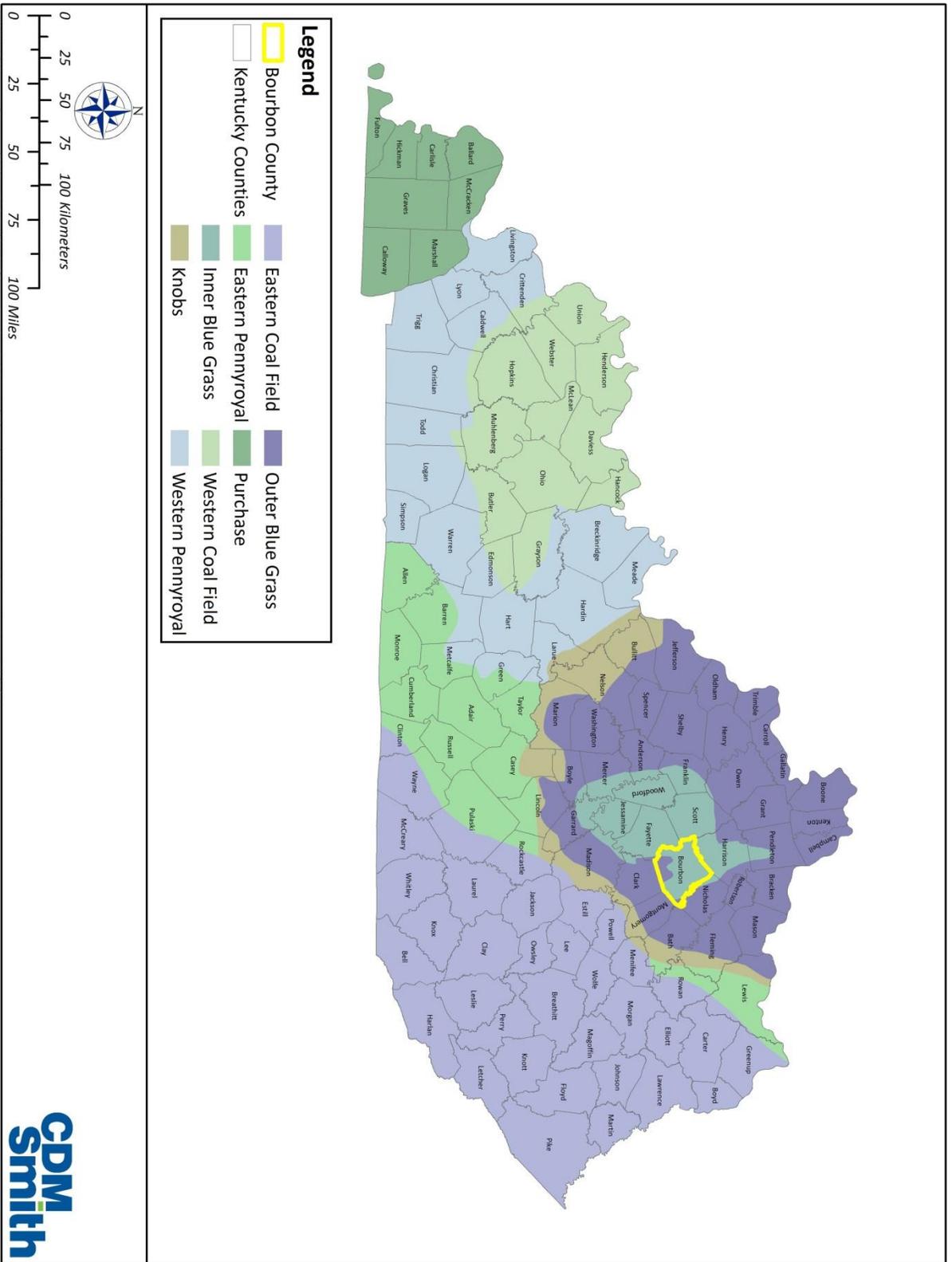


Figure 1-4. Physiography of Kentucky showing Bourbon County.

1.8.2 Geology

The Inner Bluegrass area is underlain by Middle Ordovician limestones deposited about 400 million years ago, the oldest geologic formations in the state (Figure 1-5). These limestones appear here and not elsewhere because the area is situated on the Jessamine Dome of the Cincinnati Arch, or Cincinnati Geanticline, which is the main axis of the uplift between northwest Alabama and Lake Erie. The dome has been beveled by erosion through long geologic ages, exposing the oldest strata at the point of greatest uplift. From the center of the dome, the beds dip gently away in all directions. Hence, in a somewhat concentric pattern, successively younger rock is encountered as one moves outward from the Inner Bluegrass area in any direction (Wharton and Barbour 1991: 5).

The site area is underlain by thin-bedded limestone of the Cynthiana Formation (Richardson, Forsythe, and Odor 1982:2). Soils at the site are of the type located on upland ridges and derived from sedimentary rock of the Ordovician period (Richardson, Forsythe, and Odor 1982:2).

1.8.3 Hydrology

Bourbon County is located within two watersheds. One is the South Fork Licking Watershed and the other is the Lower Kentucky Watershed. The site area is drained by Flat Run and its tributaries (Figure 1-6). Flat Run empties into Stoner Creek, a major drainage of Bourbon County. Stoner Creek in turn empties into the South Fork Licking River, the Licking River, and finally into the Ohio River.

1.8.4 Soils

Site 15BB137 is located on McAfee silt loam, 6 to 12 percent slope soils (McC). This soil is moderately well drained. It is found on low-lying hills and on irregular side slopes in areas of karst topography. The typical stratigraphy begins with 8 inches of dark reddish brown silt loam. Below this is a 21-inch thick, dark brown, silty clay loam. From 21 to 32 inches below the surface is a reddish brown, silty clay. Limestone bedrock is usually encountered around 32 inches below the surface (Richardson, Forsythe, and Odor 1982:34).

1.9 Current Land Use

The site is located in a field classified as Pasture/Hay. These are areas of grasses, legumes, or grass-legume mixtures planted for livestock grazing or the production of seed or hay crops.

1.10 Report Organization.

This report is organized into thirteen sections. Section 1 describes the project study area, the reason for the study, identifies the project sponsors, project personnel, and field and laboratory time. It also provides an overview of the environmental setting. Section 2 describes the research design that guided the excavation and analysis of Site 15BB137. Section 3 presents the historical context of Site 15BB137. Section 4 describes the field methods employed during the course of this study. Section 5 describes the material recovered during the excavation at 15BB137. Section 6 presents the results of the field investigation. Section 7 describes and discusses carbonized and desiccated plant remains recovered from the water-separated samples collected during the excavations of the site. Section 8 summarizes results of the analysis of faunal materials recovered from the site and compares the data to other nearby farmsteads. Section 9 discusses the internal layout of the site.

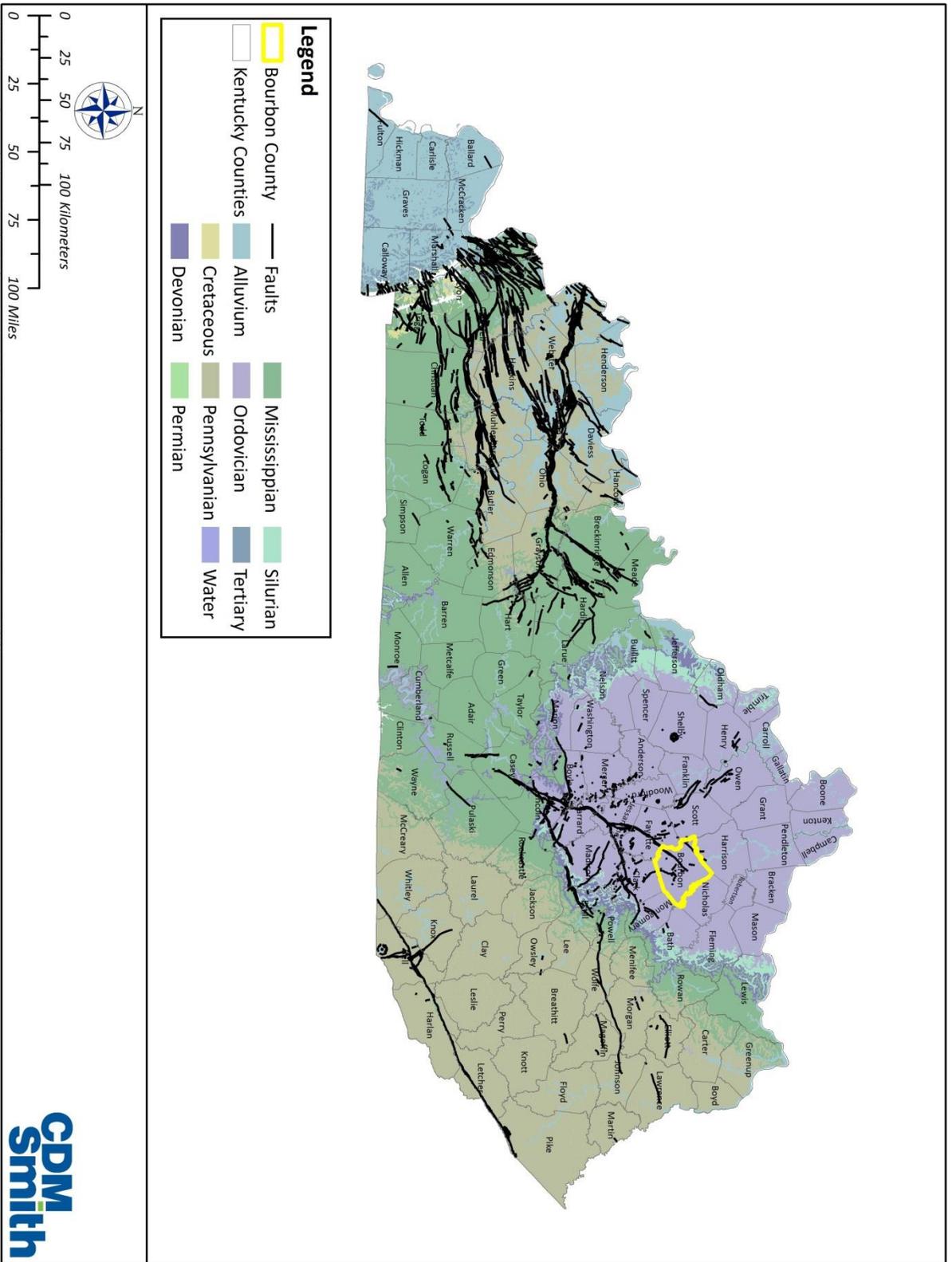


Figure 1-5. Geology of Kentucky showing Bourbon County.

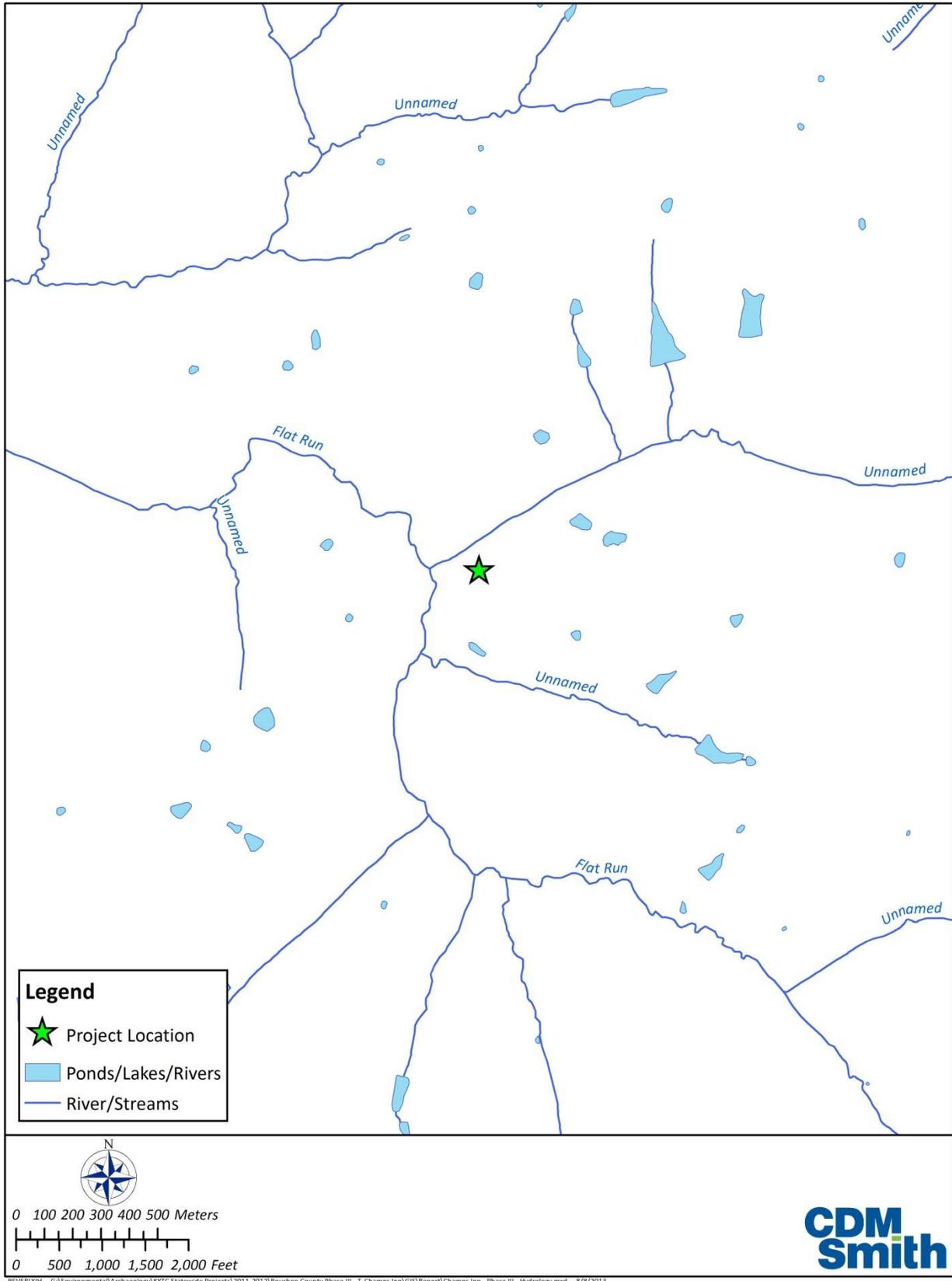


Figure 1-6. Hydrology of site 15BB137.

Section 10 considers the role the inhabitants of Site 15BB137 played within an economic framework. Section 11 looks at the consumer behavior of the occupants of Site 15BB137 through the ceramic assemblage. In Section 12, the previous historical and archaeological research is discussed and the material from the excavations at 15BB137 and 15BB133 is analyzed and discussed. The discussion of historical research will focus on definitions and descriptions of inns and taverns. The previous archaeological research will be used for comparisons with the Thomas and Mary Champ House (15BB137) and Eli Current's Inn (15BB133). The basic research pursuit is to determine if latchstring inns have a specific archaeological signature that is different from farmsteads or other types of taverns. And finally Section 13 presents a summary and conclusion to the research at Site 15BB137.

1.11 Summary

This report presents the results of archaeological field investigations and artifact assemblage analysis of Site 15BB137, a well-preserved, late eighteenth and early nineteenth century farmstead located in Bourbon County, Kentucky. The analysis of features and artifacts recovered from the site was directed toward identifying the structural components of the site and their associated functions. The research questions formulated for this report focused on six general topics: the Maysville Road and the New West; Market and Household Production; Consumer Behavior and Material Culture; Foodways; Site Layout and the Built Environment; the Archaeology of Rural Inns. In answering the research questions, the occupation span of the site can be narrowed and placed within the historic context of the development and demise of the Maysville road as an immigration and commercial corridor during the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries.

Section 2 -

Research Design

2.1 Introduction

The lands of the New West opened up after the end of the Revolutionary War and Kentucky became the Promised Land for many settlers from different parts of the new country and from all economic classes (Aron 1996; Friend 2005). Most of the people that arrived in the 1770s and 1780s were of lower or middling economic classes who were looking for good land and to ensure a better future for themselves and their children (Friend 2005:4). Most of the people that settled along the Maysville Road between the 1770s and the early 1790s were of Scots-Irish, Scottish, and Irish ancestry from the backcountries of Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina (Friend 2005:26). Thomas Champ came with his family to Kentucky from Loudoun County, Virginia. Champ purchased 200 acres from James Parberry in 1787. He built a house and began farming. Initially it was thought that Champ may have also used his house as an inn (Bundy 2006). No archival evidence was located to support this notion. It appears that “T. Champ’s Inn” was located at the house of Thomas Champ’s grandson, Thomas Champ (BB204).

Besides the problem of four Thomas Champs in four generations, there were also changes in the nature and name of site 15BB137. Site 15BB137 will be referred to as the Champ house or the Thomas and Mary Champ House. The 200 acre farm, owned by Thomas Champ and later by Robert Champ, will be referred to as the Champ Farmstead.

Site 15BB137 was occupied from the late 1780s to around 1830 based on archival and archaeological data. The 1808 inventory for Thomas Champ listed such things as bedsteads, shoe leather and barrels of whiskey. Other items in the inventory indicated that Thomas Champ was growing a variety of crops and had a variety of livestock. The number of sheep and the amount of wool on the inventory and other items related to hemp and tobacco production suggests that Champ was selling on the commercial market for profit. Based on the 200 acres and the inventory list, Thomas Champ was a successful middling farmer. After the death of Thomas Champ, his daughter Mary Champ continued to live in the house on a 25 acre lot. Based on tax records Mary Champ’s economic status declined. The site was occupied for a relatively short period; archaeologically no stratified deposits were located and only a limited number of features were identified.

The focus of the research is on the Phase III investigations of the Thomas and Mary Champ House. Three other sites that were excavated during the Phase II investigations will be included to gather a more complete picture of life along the Maysville Road during this period. Research questions will involve consumer behavior, site layout and the built environment, market and household production, and the archaeology of rural inns and how changes in transportation along the Maysville Road affected them. To investigate the research questions for the Thomas and Mary Champ house we will use archaeological and documentary data. To make the best use of both data sources, we will combine them in what James Deetz refers to as a “multidirectional approach,” which is “working back and forth between the documents and what the site produced, constantly refining and reformulating questions raised by one set of data, looking at it against the background of the other” (Deetz 1993:159).

2.2 Site Descriptions and Previous Investigations

Sites 15BB131, 15BB132, 15BB133, and 15BB137 were also discovered during Phase I survey (King 2003) and Phase II investigations were conducted on these sites in 2006 (Bundy 2006). The artifacts and findings from these sites will be used to address research questions. Descriptions of these sites are included below and based on previous work of King (2003), Bundy (2006) and Andrews et al. (2010).

2.2.1 Site 15BB131 “Neal’s Old House”

Site 15BB131, Neal’s Old House, was located during a Phase I survey conducted by CRA (King 2003). The site was identified as an early nineteenth century through mid-nineteenth century farmstead or residence. Phase II testing at the site conducted by CRA (Bundy 2006), consisted of a geophysical survey, test units and mechanical stripping of the site. A total of 8 test units were excavated and a total of 520 sq m of plowzone was mechanically removed revealing six features. The features included an oval basin for storage, circular basin for cooking, dry laid limestone end chimney base, two non-cultural areas and a rectangular-to-irregular burned area thought to be an outbuilding. The testing resulted in a determination that Site 15BB131 was the location of the John Neal residence. A total of 7,526 artifacts were recovered from the site. These represent a domestic occupation from the late-eighteenth through the early-nineteenth centuries.

2.2.2 Site 15BB132

Site 15BB132 was located during a Phase I survey conducted by CRA (King 2003). The site was identified as a mid-nineteenth century through twentieth century farm or residence. Phase II testing at the site conducted by CRA (Bundy 2006), consisted of a geophysical survey, test units and mechanical stripping of the site. A total of 4 test units were excavated across the site. Nine features were identified during the Phase II testing. Four of the features turned out to be non-cultural, the remaining five included a “U” or “C” shaped end chimney base of cut, dry-laid limestone. Two features were classified as sub-floor pits or cellars while the last two were irregular shaped basins of unknown function. The testing suggested that the site was possibly the location of a cotton factory built around 1820 and possibly used later by tenants or enslaved laborers (Bundy 2006). A total of 5,864 historic artifacts were recovered from the site during the Phase II testing. Based on the domestic material recovered it is doubtful that the site was a cotton factory.

2.2.3 Site 15BB133 “Eli Current’s Inn”

Site 15BB133, Eli Current’s Inn, was located during a Phase I survey conducted by CRA (King 2003). The site was identified as an early nineteenth century through mid-nineteenth century farm or residence. Phase II testing at the site conducted by CRA (Bundy 2006), consisted of a geophysical survey, test units and mechanical stripping of the site. A total of six test units were excavated. Nine sub-plowzone features and a sub-plowzone midden were identified. A total of 1,833 artifacts were recovered from the site. Historic maps suggest that the site is the location of Eli Current’s Inn, specified as early as 1827 and no longer present on an 1861 map (Bundy 2006). Archival research indicates that the property was owned by Thomas Current between 1794 and 1827 when it passed to his son Eli Current. Eli Current operated an inn at the site until 1839 when he deeded the property to his brother Elijah Current (Bundy 2006). Thomas Current was a member of the Mt. Gilead Methodist Episcopal Church and in 1838 Eli Current deeded a little more than one acre of land to the trustees of the Gilead Meeting House. The Gilead Meeting House was just northeast of the Current’s residence and inn (Bundy 2006). Preliminary artifact analysis conducted during the Phase II investigation indicates that the site was likely occupied from 1800 to 1850 by the Current family.

2.2.4 Site 15BB137 “Thomas and Mary Champ House”

Site 15BB137, Thomas and Mary Champ House, was located during a Phase I survey conducted by Cultural Resources Analysts, Inc. (CRA) (King 2003). The site was identified as an early nineteenth through twentieth century site located adjacent to US 68 in Bourbon County, Kentucky. The Phase I survey consisted of shovel probes at 5 m intervals. The site size was found to be .48 acres (.19 ha) and measure 35 m east to west and 55 m north to south. It is bounded by US 68 on the south and a driveway on the eastern part of the site. A total of 125 historic artifacts were recovered including cut nails, pearlware, redware, and window glass. Window glass measurements indicated an early date of 1797 and a maximum date of 1835. Phase II investigations consisted of archival research, ten test units, and magnetic gradient survey. Artifacts recovered from the units combined with the archival information indicate that the site was abandoned by 1840 or before. A total of 2,154 historic artifacts were recovered from unit and feature excavations at Site 15BB137. Excavations and analysis of cultural material from 15BB137, as well as those from sites 15BB131, 15BB132, and 15BB133 will be used to narrow the occupation span of the sites and place the sites within the historic context of the development and demise of the Maysville Road as an immigration and commercial corridor during the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries.

2.3 Research Design

2.3.1 The Maysville Road and the New West

Site 15BB137 is located on the buffalo trace that would become the Limestone or Maysville Road by 1817. The Maysville Road was literally an extension of the Zanesville Trace or Turnpike. Zanesville Trace ran from Wheeling, in what is now West Virginia, through Southeastern Ohio to Limestone or Maysville on the Kentucky shore of the Ohio and was expressly authorized by an Act of Congress which became a law on the 17th of May, 1796 (Wilson 2001). The route lay through Zanesville, Lancaster, Chillicothe, and Aberdeen, Ohio, with termini in Wheeling, Virginia, and Limestone in Kentucky. Besides furnishing a better and more dependable overland road for mail, the Zanesville Trace was designed primarily as a travel route connecting Kentucky to Pennsylvania, Maryland, and the other middle and North Atlantic States.

Those early settlers to Bourbon and Fayette County arrived in waves to the New West. In the 1770's through the 1780's, settlers that arrived were of lower and middling economic status in search of cheap lands with the promise of generational prosperity (Friend 2005). The 1790's brought heavy waves of poorer and middling farmers to Kentucky along with a group of wealthier immigrants. A commercially bent group of settlers arrived drawn by maturing villages and towns, gentry's demands for luxury goods, and farmers' cries for exportation of surplus crops.

Early settlers, including Simon Kenton together with Edward Waller, John Waller, and George Lewis, erected a block house at Limestone (now Maysville), in February, 1784, and the road from Maysville/Limestone to Lexington by way of the Lower Blue Licks became the favored route for immigration (Wilson 2001). The Maysville Road was completed in the 1830s and took the shortest, most direct route rather than following the buffalo trace which tended to wander a bit through the countryside (Friend 2005). However, by 1830, transportation changes were already occurring throughout the state and especially along the rivers (Friend 2005; Wilson 2001). Maysville Road was already experiencing less traffic as better, faster routes were built. As transportation via the river began to dominate trade and traffic, the Maysville Road became less and less traveled.

Originally referred to as the “old buffalo trace to Mayslick” or the “beaten path,” in the six decades between 1770 and 1830, the Maysville Road was one of the most exceptional roads of the early Republic and served as the spine of the most dynamic area of the new American West (Friend 2005). Road systems and transportation improvements played a dominant role in making and altering cultural and physical landscapes in the early United States. As people traveled and immigrants resettled so did consumer goods and ideas spreading the culture and ideas of the East to the western frontier.

Although the improvements in transportation were seen as economic opportunity; the migrations and commerce facilitated by better transportation would also bring culture change. This synergistic relationship continued throughout the settlement period. The history of the Maysville Road from buffalo trace to macadamized highway for migration and commerce and peopling of the New West to the eventual decline in regional and national importance as a conveyor of people, commerce, and ideas is intertwined with the history of those individuals and families that lived along it (Friend 2005). This development and decline is a micro-history of the Early American Republic as frontier society changed from a subsistence-based rural economy to a commercial market economy.

By looking at the location of the houses located at the four sites we should be able to determine their spatial relationships to the road and the similarities and differences. The nature of the archaeological and archival data for this early period do not allow for fine grained temporal questions. No stratified deposits were recovered and the economic data was not available until the 1850 Agricultural Census. The analyses of the houses and comparisons of site structure will be presented in Section Nine. The archaeology of inns will be presented in Section Ten. The relationships between changes in the Maysville road and the economics of the farms will be presented in Section Twelve.

2.3.2 Market and Household Production

The end of the Revolutionary War saw significant changes in rural lifeways brought on by changes in the economy and improved modes of transportation. The extent to which farmers participated in the increasingly capitalist mode of production in the Upland South has been an important and controversial research theme both in American social history and in historical archaeology. Several schools of thought concerning how post-Revolutionary Americans adapted to these changes, and the degree to which they participated, are current. While social historians have been actively engaged in discussions of agrarian origins and the extent of capitalism, historical archaeologists have been more concerned with urban manifestations of capitalism like class formation and negotiation. According to historians who subscribe to the entrepreneurial school of agricultural history, the dominant theme of late eighteenth and early nineteenth century American agriculture was the steady shift from household self-sufficiency to market-oriented farming (Schlotterbeck 1982). Other scholars maintain that capitalism originated first in the countryside (Aron 1996).

Scholars have argued that rural output was for family or local consumption, that involvement in the market was usually limited, and that a complex network of exchange relations existed within each rural community (Clark 1979). Subsistence level or self-sufficiency are terms used by these scholars to describe the farms' involvement in local markets to sell incidental surplus that hardly ever led to great profit. This network of exchange is termed local self-sufficiency. Most if not all scholars have conceded that self-sufficiency on individual farms was not possible (Shammas 1982; Appleby 1982). The household mode of production was not profit-oriented. The outside market was resorted to in order to acquire necessities that were not available inside the region such as iron, sugar, salt and rum or in certain instances to purchase luxury items that could not be produced locally. Rather than relying on the market, rural families supplied their wants both by producing their own goods for consumption and by

entering into complex networks of exchange relationships with their neighbors and relatives to provide for needs that they could not or chose not to provide for themselves.

According to Winters (1994) in his study of antebellum farmers of Tennessee, virtually all farmers participated at some level in the pursuit of profitable ventures. They understood that to realize their ambition to improve their own material well-being and that of their offspring required involvement in a commercial world beyond the farm. Though their success varied widely, they shared a commitment to the business of farming. In fact, most farmers simultaneously produced for the family and for the market on what one scholar has called composite farms (Bushman 1998). A fluid boundary existed between household production, self-sufficiency and commercial production in which the success of a farm was measured by the ratio of commercial to household production. The farm that could produce more for the market would have more capital to spend on purchasing more land, livestock, and goods.

According to Friend (1999:138) the production of corn strongly influenced the pursuit of profit. Its production dominated rudimentary commercial or marketing activity in the Appalachian frontier and became imbedded in the state's economy. Money could be made raising and selling corn, grinding corn, marketing cornmeal, distilling whiskey, and generating grain and fodder for livestock. Although the success of corn cultivation raised expectations for profit among farmers, household production was important to the total success of the farm.

Another aspect of market and household production is the ownership of slaves. On farms and plantations with less than thirty slaves the slave owners were also the overseers (Kolchin 1993). Approximately ninety percent of the farms had less than thirty slaves. The slave owners also worked alongside the slaves on small hemp-producing farms in Kentucky (Kolchin 1993:100). On farms with a small number of slaves, housing may have been provided in the main house or a detached kitchen. On farms with more slaves, separate slave quarters would have been the most common form of housing (Kolchin 1993). Slaves were important for the success of corn and hemp farming in the mountain south (Friend 2005; Dunaway 2003).

The study of household succession and family cycles has been done primarily by sociologists and historians (Demos 1986; Greven 1970; Kett 1983). Greven (1970) looked at four generations of families in Andover, Massachusetts in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. He looked at the changes in population and land. Greven also focused on the role of paternalism and how it affected marriage and land inheritance. The marriage of sons depended on parental consent and support. The son needed the means to support a wife which often meant the father had to allow the son to leave the parental homestead and establish a house built on family land designated as the married son's responsibility (Greven 1970:75). The married son would sometimes remain a tenant for his parents until the estate was settled or the son made enough money to buy his own land. Sometimes fathers would give or sell land to their sons (Greven 1970; Lemon 1972).

Research on family history has focused on the stages of life (Demos 1986; Kett 1983). In early nineteenth century America full incorporation in the labor force occurred around the age of 16 which was distinguished in the census classifications (Kett 1983). Typically a man of thirty would be starting a family and a career as an independent farmer or tradesman. Between thirty and forty-five the value of his holdings would increase perhaps two or three fold and continue to increase through his fifties. After sixty, old age, his wealth would decrease and his oldest children would require land and other property (Demos 1986).

The description of women is typically in terms of their roles as wives and mothers. Women are seen as raising children, teaching their daughters, and performing their manifold duties. Besides the more typical domestic duties on a farm women would engage in community service and activities. Women would also be midwives and assist the menfolk in running taverns, inns, and small shops (Demos 1986).

Research questions related to market and household production will focus on changes at Champ's Inn between the Thomas Champ occupation and the Mary Champ occupation. The economic status of the Champs and others will be based on tax and census records and earlier work on wealth by Soltow (1983; 1975). The economic status of the Champ's Inn occupants will be compared to other sites along the Old Maysville Road. The use of slaves by the Champs will also be addressed and how it compares to the use of slaves by other sites along the road.

2.3.3 Consumer Behavior and Material Culture

The period between the end of the Revolutionary War and the middle of the nineteenth century witnessed significant changes in consumer behavior and material culture. By the middle of the nineteenth century there had been a consumer revolution where technological innovations and transportation improvements enabled the production, distribution, and affordability of material goods. In urban areas, social revolution was well underway with the emergence of a large, newly formed middle class and the redefining of gentility in Post-Revolutionary War America (Wall 1994). It was a time that saw a domestic revolution, as well, as the commodification of labor and changing ideas about the roles of women acted together to restructure the American family and the burgeoning middle class, in general. The origins and trajectory of these sweeping changes are currently under debate by historians, economists, sociologists, and archaeologists. The effects of these changes on human behavior are complex and syncretistic but circumstances combined so that along with the middle class there emerged a pervasive materialism and a universal ambition for personal advancement (Persons 1973). The disappearance of hereditary privilege coupled with the diffusion of knowledge and social mobility in post-Revolutionary War America fueled the gospel of success and the myth of upward mobility (Persons 1973:6-7). How the notions of success, wealth and class, and upward mobility are reflected by the material culture of a late eighteenth and early nineteenth century landowner and farmer in Bourbon County, Kentucky is a focus of our research.

The economic development of the frontier, economic diversification over time, and the subsequent complexity of social organization couched within the rural/urban dichotomy has been an important research area. Specific analyses such as minimum vessel counts that document ceramic form and decoration provided the data necessary to illuminate social organization or economic stratification on the frontier. A minimum vessel count was used to calculate a mean ceramic date that enabled us to identify changes in ceramic style, decoration, and vessel form over time. In this manner the Champs' economic and social development was documented. The ceramic assemblages from Neal's Old Place, Site 15BB132, and Eli Current's Inn will be used in the analyses. Miller's ceramic price scaling indices (1980, 1991) were calculated for teawares and tablewares determining the material wealth of Thomas Champ and his descendants. Frequencies of vessel forms and functions are described for the Champ's Inn assemblage and compared with other archaeological sites of similar time period to show how the Champs created social meaning and communicated middle class values through his ceramics use.

One primary research question addresses the interaction of consumption patterns with factors or influences such as wealth and class, transportation, increased mass production, rural versus urban material values, and ideas of wealth display. Previous studies within the Ohio Valley have suggested that the consumption patterns and material displays of status by rural people differed considerably from

those of urban people of the same socioeconomic level (Huser 1993; McBride and McBride 1990; McCorvie 1987). Rural people, especially farmers, sometimes invested more in land and structures than in other material culture (Friedlander 1991). Perkins (1991), using store advertisements, as well as probate records of frontier Kentuckians found that frontier life was not characterized by scarcity of goods or harshness of life.

2.3.4 Foodways

The degree of fit of the faunal and floral assemblages from the Thomas Champ farmstead to the Upland South foodways complex, with its emphasis on corn, pork, and wild game, is another research question of particular interest (McCorvie 1987). How and where foods were processed and their expense will be addressed. Foodways at the Thomas Champ farmstead between 1787 and 1840 will be investigated, with particular attention given to how changes in the foodways system may relate to environment, farm production (degree of commercialization), marketing changes, and economic status. During occupation of these sites a reduction in the proportion of wild game, perhaps in part due to extinction by over hunting and an increase in the proportion of exotics due to improvements in transportation may occur. A reduction in the dominance of pork may also occur over time, as beef and other meats rose in popularity nationally. Comparisons between archaeologically recovered fauna and flora and documented crops and livestock produced at the Thomas Champ farmstead will help examine questions of for-home versus for-sale production. Comparisons with other sites should help identify degrees of variability.

2.3.5 Site Layout and the Built Environment

An important component of the study was the investigation of the built environment of the house lot and yard, particularly the identification of specialized activity areas, swept areas, outbuildings, and refuse disposal areas. Previous farmstead studies have had success in identifying activity areas, such as living areas, butchering areas, blacksmithing areas, storage areas, and refuse areas, as well as outbuildings of various functions (Andrews 1990, 1992a, 1992b, 1994; Keeler 1978; King 1988, 1990; Moir and Journey 1987; Myster 1994; Neiman 1980; O'Malley 1987; Pogue 1988; Price 1985; Wesler 1984). Identification of these activity areas and outbuildings is critical to understanding the extent of the farm operation, what functions were performed, if traditional (folk) or modern (popular) approaches to farm operation were used, and if the spatial patterning follows documented regularities (from other sites in the state or region) by socioeconomic class, region, ethnicity, and temporal period. Toward this end, surficial artifact data was reexamined from the Phase II analysis to aid in the placement of activity and refuse areas and changes in their usage over time. Placement of structural features, refuse features, and functionally specific features was examined in order to recreate the house lot and how it changed over time from the Post-Colonial Frontier to the State of Kentucky in the Early American Republic.

2.3.6 The Archaeology of Rural Inns

A tavern is, loosely, a place of where people gather to drink alcoholic beverages and will, more than likely, also be served food; a tavern is not necessarily licensed to accommodate overnight guests (Babits 1990; Cole 1930; Coleman 1935; Yoder 1969). The distinction of a tavern from an inn, bar, or even pub varies by location, in some places being identical and in others being distinguished by traditions or by legal license (see Wagner and McCorvie 1993). Taverns/inns were among the most important social, political, and economic institutions in early American life. Tavern activities included eating, drinking, smoking tobacco, gaming, informal information exchange, formal meetings, business dealings, banquets, and overnight accommodations (Babits 1990; Coleman 1935; Rockman and Rothschild 1984; Sandefur et al. 2008; Wagner and McCorvie 1993; Yoder 1969).

T. Champ's Inn is documented on an 1827 map of the improvements to the Maysville Road. Several other inns are also documented on the map (Bundy 2006). T. Champ's Inn was the still standing house, BB204, rather than Site 15BB137. An examination of available late eighteenth and early nineteenth century archival records could find no tavern or inn license for Thomas Champ (Bourbon County Tavern Keeper Bond Book 1816-1822, 1871-1895). Licenses were given to proprietors that provided overnight accommodation, normally for four or more individuals and separated the taverns- also called inns- from more lowly saloons (Wagner and McCorvie 1993; Yoder 1969). Early inns and taverns along major thoroughfares like the Buffalo Trace or Maysville Road were common. According to Friend (2005) and others (Yoder 1969; Wagner and McCorvie 1993), adjacent to every immigration route in the early American Republic were houses that were private residences that opened as public taverns and inns to paying guests. Perhaps these types of inns/taverns required no license. Steady traffic along these roads created a feeling of prosperity and longevity for families and businesses that depended on daily travel and commerce. Operating an inn or tavern without a license seemed to be a relatively common occurrence especially during the early frontier period and along heavily traveled thoroughfares like the Maysville Road (Wagner and McCorvie 1993; Coleman 1935).

Taverns and inns appear to have typically provided room and board to any and all visitors, often squeezing additional guests into every available corner. Coleman (1935) describes a typical tavern/inn as having two to four rooms on the first floor and sleeping accommodations upstairs. Downstairs rooms often included the taproom, dining room, sitting or newsroom, and an attached or detached kitchen (Coleman 1935:65). Other accounts describe crowding, sleeping on the floor, or sleeping in a bed with members of the proprietor's family.

The apparent variability between inns and taverns that we see in the historic record is probably due to the differences between latchstring inns/taverns and licensed or more "formal" inns of the Early Republic. Latchstring inns were situated along major thoroughfares where travelers had little consumer choice in where they could sleep or eat. Consequently, the latchstring inns had little incentive to offer private rooms, beds, or serve elaborate dishes. Often the owners were landowners that farmed producing commodities for sale and subsistence. Some inn operators may have earned the bulk of their livelihood by providing overnight accommodation and food for a fee to travelers. These inns/taverns would have had to cater to consumers somewhat as part of competing for business.

It was initially thought that T. Champ's Inn functioned as a latchstring inn – providing room and board to travelers. Archival and archaeological evidence indicates that 15BB137 was a house that T. Champ's Inn was BB204, the house of Thomas Champ's grandson. Remains of the structure (15BB137) were identified during the Phase II and additional archaeology, particularly geophysical survey and hand excavation should yield information on the size, layout, and construction of the house. The geophysical survey and subsequent hand excavation within the house/lot area should identify outbuildings, activity areas and pathways that served the Champ family. The material recovered from the Phase II investigations of 15BB133, particularly ceramics, bottle glass and table glass that will yield information on social status of the owner and possibly clientele of the inn/tavern along with artifacts characteristic of inns/taverns (Rockman and Rothschild 1984) like smoking pipes, spittoons, and abundance of beverage glasses like tumblers, stemware, and mugs, dominoes, skittle balls, billiards, marbles, dice, and other possible gaming accoutrements.

2.4 Summary

In this section, the research designs for the Phase III archaeological mitigation of site 15BB137 have been discussed. The research questions are divided into six areas: the Maysville Road and the New West;

Market and Household Production; Consumer Behavior and Material Culture; Foodways; Site Layout and the Built Environment; the Archaeology of Rural Inns. The Maysville Road analysis involves the analysis study of the rise and fall of the Maysville Road in the New West. The production for household and market involves the economics of the inn and how it was related to the local regional and nation economy. Consumer behavior involves ceramic analysis to document ceramic form and decoration and provide the data to illuminate social organization or economic stratification. Foodways analysis involves the use and consumption of dietary foodstuff for both personal and commercial use at the inn. Site structure involves spatial organization, house style and construction methods. The archaeology of rural inns involves site structure, foodways and the economy of the inn. These research questions will be addressed in the following sections.

Section 3 -

Historic Context of the Thomas and Mary Champ House

Thomas Champ and his family left Loudoun County, Virginia and headed west to Kentucky along with thousands of others. Land was becoming scarce in Loudoun County and for many, Kentucky represented a land of milk and honey and a place where one could become a freehold with plenty of rich land and be able to settle his children around him (Friend 1999:126). In 1787 James Parberry sold Thomas Champ 200 acres along what would become the Maysville Road. A log house was built by Thomas Champ and fields were cleared and planted. Thomas Champ died in 1808 and the property was divided among his children. It appears that Mary Champ, Thomas's daughter, inherited the house and lived in it until she sold her property to her brother Robert in 1827. During the 1820's, a brick house was built, probably by Robert Champ or his son Thomas. The log house was apparently abandoned and demolished during the late 1820s or 1830s. During this period, there were changes to the landscape and the economic and social systems which are important to understanding this archaeological site.

In this section, we look at the world that Thomas Champ entered with his family soon after the end of the American Revolution.

3.1 Historic Context

3.1.1 Along the Maysville Road

The Maysville Road began as a buffalo trace that was then used by prehistoric Native Americans, historic Native Americans, Euroamerican long hunters and finally Euroamerican settlers. The ancient buffalo trace was called Alanantowamiowee by Native Americans and it ran from the Ohio River south to the center of Kentucky (Friend 2005:10). The buffalo trace was formed by migrating herds of bison. Early prehistoric Native Americans followed the herds, and later Native American groups used the trails for transportation.

The buffalo trace became an important transportation route during the American Revolution. The buffalo trace was used by Native Americans and British forces to attack Militia forts in Kentucky. In 1780, the Native American and British force, which included six pound and three pound cannons, attacked and destroyed Martin's Fort and Ruddle's Fort. They captured prisoners who were taken back to Detroit (McBride and McBride 2008). Two years later, Native American and British forces, without cannons, laid siege to Bryan's Station for several days. The Native American and British forces withdrew towards the Ohio River along the Buffalo trace and were pursued by Kentucky Militia forces. The Kentucky troops, which included Lt. Col. Daniel Boone, were ambushed at Blue Licks. The Kentucky troops suffered significant losses, including the death of Daniel Boone's son Israel, and fled back to Lexington. The Native Americans returned to their villages and the British returned to Detroit (McBride and McBride 2008; Wilson 1927).

Simon Kenton established a fort in 1784 on Lawrence Creek in Mason County (Calvert 1992:488). New settlers who came down the Ohio River and were bound for the New West sometimes stayed in the fort if there was any threat of attacks. Maysville became the most important river town and the entry point for thousands of settlers heading to Kentucky.

Kentucky, and especially the Inner Bluegrass, became a magnet for people of all classes in search of land and opportunity. The early settlers, in the 1770s and 1780s, were mostly lower or middling classes who wanted good land and good futures for themselves and their children (Friend 2005:4). In the 1790's, the gentry from the Tidewater and Piedmont found the area hospitable for replicating the planter culture of eighteenth century Virginia (Aron 1996:124). Poorer and middling farmers also migrated during the 1790s along with merchants and artisans who were drawn to the maturing village economies (Friend 2005:4).

Descriptions of the early farmers along the Maysville Road consisted of subsistence farmers and profit oriented commercial farmers. The first type of farmer represented the Jeffersonian ideal, a yeoman enterprise consisting of a thirty-acre homestead where the farmer plowed and the wife spun flax, wool, or cotton to clothe the family. The republican yeoman farmer represented simplicity, domestic production, and satisfaction with one's position in society (Friend 2005:105). The other type of farmer was concerned with profit-making in a market economy. A settler from Virginia told his friends to trade all lands in the Old Dominion for slaves, horses, hams, wagons, gin, and Kentucky lands, and to have your women and slaves spin and the young make nails. In order to succeed in the "new country," the new settler suggested that farmers focus on animal husbandry, especially sheep, and have at least one thousand cultivable acres (Friend 2005:105).

Farmers in the Bluegrass were successful in their diversified land use strategies. Some of the Bluegrass elite modeled themselves on the Tidewater gentry of Virginia and were discouraged by the uncertainty of marketing tobacco and its negative impact on the soils (Aron 1996:128). The Bluegrass planters depended on hemp for a cash crop, supplemented by stock raising. Middling farmers also grew hemp along with corn and also raised cattle, sheep, and hogs (Aron 1996; Friend 2005).

The Bluegrass was perfectly suited for the cultivation of hemp (Aron 1996; Hopkins 1951). Hemp was important to farmers and manufacturers in Kentucky. Hemp was important in getting cotton to market and an important item in national defense (Hopkins 1951). In 1810, Kentucky produced all of the hemp in the United States and three-fourths of the crop in 1840 (Hopkins 1951:68). As with other cash crops in the south, such as cotton and tobacco, hemp was associated with slave labor (Hopkins 1951:24).

Lexington was the commercial and industrial capital of western America from the 1780s until 1812. By the 1790s, the town had a dozen general stores. Daily life in early Lexington reminded commentators of Philadelphia rather than rural Virginia (Aron 1996:129). The hemp industry was important for the development of Lexington. By 1800, there were five rope walks in town, and by 1810, there were eight (Aron 1995:133). The price for hemp began to decline in 1811, and at the end of the War of 1812, foreign competition replaced the domestic fiber in many cases (Hopkins 1951:85). The loss of sales to European hemp was replaced by increases in the cotton industry, but the Panic of 1819 temporarily paralyzed the industry (Hopkins 1951:87).

3.1.2 War of 1812 and the Panic of 1819

The War of 1812 brought economic expansion to manufacturing and agriculture in the United States. Great Britain had manufactured many of the goods purchased in the U.S., and with the war, there was limited competition for American companies. Before the War of 1812, the United States had been a lightly populated country of seven million people primarily engaged in agriculture. Cotton, wheat, tobacco, and cattle were exported abroad and consumed at home by rural households. Cities contained seven percent of the population and were primarily trading depots. New York City was becoming the major foreign trade center with Philadelphia and Boston close behind (Rothbard 2002:1).

Manufacturing in the United States was limited by markets and transportation. There were no large or medium scale manufacturing businesses in the country before the war. Manufacturing consisted of small scale operations with artisans or craftsmen. Cotton and wool textiles lead the developing domestic manufacturing arenas. The war and embargos had limited the importation of foreign goods, especially from Great Britain. Forty-three cotton mills were established during 1814, while only four were established in 1807. Transportation was primitive. Land transportation was over rugged dirt roads and was costly. River transportation was on flat boats (Rothbard 2002:3).

The banking system and the monetary system in the United States were not very developed by the War of 1812. There was heavy pressure on the government to borrow during the war. The government relied on the expanding banks in states outside of New England for loans. These banks were primarily note-issuing institutions and were often run on loose principles. The expansion of banknotes banks outside of New England led to a drain of specie from other states to New England (Rothbard 2002:3).

After the war, imports from Europe had a negative impact on the manufacturing industry, especially the textile industry. Although there was a general prosperity during the post-war period, the manufacturing industry faced serious competition from foreign imports. Prices dropped on many industrial commodities. Many factories were hard pressed and many of the new factories had invested capital at stake (Rothbard 2002:5).

Exports of American agricultural products expanded after the war. Agricultural exports rose from \$38 million in 1815 to \$53 million in 1816. Cotton accounted for about half of the exports. Most of the remainder of the exports consisted of tobacco, wheat, and flour. The prices of the exports increased with the increased European demand (Rothbard 2002:6-7).

The rise in export prices had other effects on the American economy. In addition to the rise in export prices, there was also an expansion in money and credit which led to increases in urban and rural land prices. There was also speculation in the purchase of public lands and increased debt by farms for project improvements. The prosperity of the farmers led to prosperity in the cities. There was an increase in turnpike construction beginning in 1816, especially in New York, Maryland, and western Pennsylvania. The turnpikes were built by corporations which rivaled banks in number (Rothbard 2002:7-10).

The Panic of 1819 was the result of price drops of American agricultural products in Europe, an overextension of debt by banks and individuals, and a limited money supply. By 1819, European farming was recovering from the Napoleonic Wars and local supplies were increasing causing drops in American exports, especially cotton and wheat. Farmers and businessmen had increased debt believing the post-war prosperity would be permanent. In some cases, people were lured by the cheap money of the banks to engage in wild projects and visionary speculations. When banks called in the debts, the lack of money supply and the devaluation of bank-notes caused individuals and other banks to go bankrupt (Rothbard 2002:28; Sellers 1991:156-157).

In Kentucky, the panic had serious effects. There were attempts at debtor relief laws by the legislature. General John Adair, a hero of the Battle of New Orleans and a leader of the Green River farming country, was elected governor on a platform of radical relief for small debtors. The Bank of Kentucky was abolished by large majorities in the legislature and a state paper-money loan office called the Bank of the Commonwealth of Kentucky was established. The allies of the Bluegrass gentry on the state Court of Appeals declared the relief law unconstitutional. The political struggle continued even after the pressure on debtors eased (Sellers 1991:169-170).

3.1.3 The Maysville Road, Henry Clay, and Andrew Jackson

Henry Clay was the proponent of the American System which had twin goals of economic development and political integration (Aron 1996:199). Federally financed internal improvements were key elements for both goals. Two other issues in Congress during Clay's Senatorship also related to the American System were tariff legislation and the Second National Bank. President Andrew Jackson opposed Henry Clay on these issues, although he would change his position on tariffs (Schlesinger 1971).

In 1817, state legislation granted charters to private companies to construct an artificial road from Maysville to Lexington. Very little construction occurred on the road during the 1820s. In 1827, the Maysville and Lexington Turnpike Road Company was incorporated by the state legislature. Federal funds were requested and state funds were guaranteed.

The Maysville Road project became contentious in Washington, D.C. The proponents, such as Henry Clay, thought the road was an extension of the National Road and therefore not local in character. Martin Van Buren, the Secretary of State under President Jackson, characterized the bill as purely intrastate and therefore unconstitutional. The bill for funding the road was passed in congress, but was vetoed by Jackson in 1830. Jackson argued that internal improvements were not the responsibility of the federal government. In spite of the constitutional arguments for vetoing the bill, the purpose of the veto was to kill the bill because of its connection to Henry Clay and to slap down the National Republican Party (Remini 1966:126-127).

The Maysville Turnpike was eventually finished in 1835 with \$213,200 in state funds, about half the cost. The remainder of the costs was from private sources who expected returns from the tollhouses along the road. The road did not re-establish Lexington as the Athens of the west as Clay had hoped. Louisville and Cincinnati were the booming cities and the major trading centers for the region (Friend 2005:265-267).

3.1.4 The Panic of 1837

The Panic of 1837 had its origins in Great Britain. The British tightened the money supply and raised interest rates in the latter half of 1836. The American cotton export trade was restricted by the credit contraction. Exports to London declined, cotton prices fell, and pressure was put on American trade and American banks. Banks in the United States, including the Bank of the United States, suspended specie payments in May 1837, their notes depreciated and interregional trade was crippled (Rathbard 2002:100).

During the boom of 1838 state governments received funds from the federal surplus. Some states borrowed more money for public works. The borrowing from banks was based on the cotton boom, which collapsed in 1839 and states had to abandon the projects. Some state had to default on their loans, Kentucky was not one of them (Rathbard 2002).

For many farmers the depression was very difficult. Farm prices fell and some farmers found themselves overextended and even fell into poverty. The hard times forced some to sell or leave their homes for the west. Many small farmers along the Maysville Road sold their farms and headed further west (Friend 2005; MacMaster 1986).

3.1.5 Cane Ridge and the Great Revival

At the turn of the nineteenth century there was a religious fervor that swept through the western frontier. In 1801, there was a highly emotional revival at the Cane Ridge Meeting House in Bourbon

County. As many as seven ministers preached simultaneously before a crowd of 20,000. The revival led to the founding of the Christian Church and the Christian Church (Disciples of Christ) denominations. Several scholars also spoke on social and theological issues including slavery and many participants returned home and emancipated their slaves (Everman 1992:160).

Although the Cane Ridge was a Presbyterian Church, the churches that gained from revivalism were the Baptists, Methodists, and the new evangelical churches such as the Christian Church. The Deists, Unitarians, Episcopalians and Presbyterians had little appreciation for the activities at Cane Ridge. The evangelical excitement and ways defied the cultural hegemony of Kentucky and eventually the rest of the United States. The evangelical spirit of selflessness contrasted to the gentry's spirit of gain (Aron 1996; Friend 2005).

The egalitarianism of the Great Revival could be seen as a threat to the gentry and slavery in Kentucky. Evangelicals had censured slaveholding and reproached the lifestyles of the gentry. After the Great Revival, the evangelicals, except for the Shakers, disavowed their anti-slavery comments. That disavowal made evangelicalism safe for masters, and it made slavery and Kentucky safe from evangelicals (Aron 1996:191).

3.1.6 Cholera and Medical Science

Four Asiatic cholera epidemics struck the United States during the nineteenth century and Kentucky had one of the highest fatality rates. Asiatic cholera is spread by ingestion of food and water contaminated by the fecal discharges of other cholera victims. During most of the nineteenth century, the medical profession thought that cholera was not contagious and was caused by eating raw fruits and vegetables or by strong emotions, strong drink and sinful ways. The first outbreak occurred between 1832 and 1835 and ten percent of the populations in Lexington and Russellville died within a few weeks. Losses were also significant in other Kentucky communities. Asiatic cholera epidemics also occurred in 1848-54, 1866 and 1872 (Baird 1992:184).

The limitations of medical science and the lack of public health combined with urbanization and the transportation revolution made the cholera epidemics possible. Cholera is caused by the bacteria *Vibrio cholera*. The *V. cholera* bacteria causes diarrhea, acute spasmodic vomiting, and painful cramps. The rapid and extreme dehydration results in various organ failures and ultimately death. During the 1854 cholera epidemic in London, Dr. John Snow determined that the disease was spread from contaminated water. Dr. Snow also found that those infected with cholera that drank a lot of uncontaminated water survived. In 1832, another British doctor, Thomas Latta, also used this cure, but it was lost among a mass of cures discussed in newspapers and journals (Johnson 2006; Rosenberg 1962).

In the United States, the transmission of cholera by contaminated water or food was not generally accepted until after the final epidemic of 1872 when evidence proved that better sanitation could decrease the risk of cholera. During the 1832-35 cholera epidemic, calomel, a chalky mercury compound, was a common remedy for cholera. Massive doses of laudanum and bleeding were also used. Some used all three (Rosenberg 1962).

During the 1832-35 cholera epidemic, there were calls for a national day of prayer. President Andrew Jackson thought that such an act would be unconstitutional. Jackson was attacked by Henry Clay for this action, although Clay may not have been the best proponent of national piety since he was a duelist, drinker and gambler. Clay had remarked in the past that war, famine, and pestilence would be preferable to Andrew Jackson in the White House (Rosenberg 1962).

The causes of deaths for Kentucky are listed in the 1850 U.S. Census. The total number of deaths was 15,033; cholera killed 2,030 of these people and was the single leading cause of death listed in the 1850 U.S. Census. Consumption was the second highest cause, killing 1,288 people. In 1850, Henry Clay Champ, brother of Thomas Jefferson Champ and grandson of Robert Champ, died of cholera at age 19 (Bourbon County Library n.d.).

Medical science during the eighteenth and the first half of the nineteenth century was very different from modern medicine. During the eighteenth century, the basic approach of medical professional, doctors and midwives, for curing their patients was through “pukes” and “purgues.” The emphasis on expulsion derived from the ancient theory of humors, the notion that health was achieved by a proper balance of bodily fluids (Ulrich 1991). Although the eighteenth century was seen as a golden age of quackery, charlatanism, and superstitious credulity, there were important medical advances such as the development of the smallpox vaccine by Edward Jenner, a modest English country doctor (Couch 1959:356).

An alternative approach to humoral therapy was solidistic medicine. Solidistic medicine attempted to regulate the mechanical properties of solids, usually defined as blood vessels and nerves. Doctors employed tonics to stimulate bodily force and sedatives to induce relaxation. In practical terms, humoral and solidistic approaches overlapped, since both tried to control respiration, perspiration, and excretion (Ulrich 1991).

Common drugs used by doctors were laudanum (a liquid opiate), purple foxglove (digitalis), and bark (quinine) which was usually associated with solidistic medicine. By the nineteenth century, laudanum was used in many patent medicines to relieve pain, produce sleep, and check excessive secretion and to support the system (Ulrich 1991).

During the nineteenth century, medical advances included the development of the germ theory by Louis Pasteur (Couch 1959). Changes in science and medicine also brought about changes in society. Cholera in 1832 was a moral dilemma to many people. In 1866, cholera was a social problem. Disease had become a consequence of man’s interaction with the environment rather than an incident in a drama of moral choice and spiritual salvation (Rosenberg 19862).

3.1.7 Historical Sketch of Bourbon County

Bourbon County was formed in 1785 when Virginia subdivided Fayette County. The county was rich in timber, cane, pasture grass, fertile soil, and limestone. Early settlers to Bourbon County claimed the choice farmland and built homes, mills, taverns, and churches. Paris became the county seat and economic center of the county. The early Bourbon County economy was based on agriculture and the mainstays were corn, whiskey, hemp, tobacco, sheep, and horses (Everman 1992:104-5).

Before the end of the Revolutionary War, settlement in Bourbon County was limited. John Cooper settled along Hinkston Creek in 1775, but was killed the next year by Indians. Many of the early settlers left Kentucky in 1777, the year of the “Bloody Sevens,” due to increased Indian attacks. The pioneer settlers eventually established perhaps 20 stations in Bourbon County to protect themselves. After the war, settlers arrived by the thousands along the Old Maysville road and through the Cumberland Gap to find property in the land of “Milk and Honey” (Aron 1996; Friend 2005; McBride and McBride 2008; O’Malley 1995).

Many of the early settlers brought slaves with them to Kentucky. In 1790, there were 7,837 people living in Bourbon County, including 908 slaves. The population of Bourbon County rose to 11,896 in 1810

including 2,207 slaves, and then to 17,664 including 5,165 slaves in 1820. The slave population was 29.2% of the total in 1820 and 37.2% in 1830. The population declined by 21% in 1840 to 14,478 and declined to 14,466 in 1850. Many small farmers sold their land and moved west after the Panic of 1837, which may explain at least part of the population decline in 1840 (Clotfelter 1953:113). There was a 2.7% population increase in 1860 to 14,860 including 6,767 slaves (U.S. Census 1790, 1800, 1810, 1820, 1830, 1840, 1850, 1860).

In Bourbon County, as in most of the upland south, most slaveholders owned less than ten slaves. In the 1860 U.S. Census, there were 6,767 slaves and 858 slaveholders. Three hundred and fifty-six slaveholders owned four or less slaves, 259 owned between five and ten slaves, 229 owned between ten and 30 slaves and 14 or 1.6% owned more than 30 slaves. Brutus J. Clay was one of the 1.6% and he owned 88 slaves (Clotfelter 1953; U.S. Census 1860; U.S. Census –Slave Schedules 1850).

Slaves were used for various agricultural activities on both small farms and large plantations. Inside, the house slaves would spin wool and shoe together shoes that would be used in the household economy and the market economy. In the fields, slaves were instrumental in bringing in the cash crops such as hemp and tobacco. Slaves were also used in animal husbandry and transportation. On the smaller farms, slaves would work alongside their masters while on the larger plantations they would work under an overseer (Dunnaway 2003; Friend 2005; Kolchin 1993).

Agriculture was the focus of the Bourbon County economy in the late eighteenth and the entire nineteenth century. Corn and wheat were the most widely grown crops for subsistence and for market. Corn was the single most important crop since it provided food for cattle and hogs, and also for the farmers. Corn, along with other grains, was used to produce whiskey for consumption and trade. Whiskey was also important for barter in the early settlement days when money was rare. The most important cash crops were hemp and tobacco (Clotfelter 1953; Hardeman 1981; Hilliard 1972; Veach 2013).

Hemp was an important part of the Bourbon County economy for most of the nineteenth century. Hemp production expanded during the early nineteenth century. Hemp ropes and bagging were used in the cotton industry, which was also expanding during this period. The production and processing of hemp was a labor-intensive operation. Hemp became a mainstay of slavery in Kentucky and slavery was the mainstay of hemp growing and processing. After the Civil War, there was a shortage of labor which made it difficult to maintain hemp production. A drop in hemp prices during the 1870s and the development of burley tobacco reduced the reliance on hemp as a cash crop in Bourbon County and Kentucky (Clark 1998; Clotfelter 1953; Hopkins 1951).

In the 1840s the Bourbon County Agricultural society was formed. One of its principle goals was to improve the quality of corn. There is no evidence that they were successful. Between 1860 and 1930, the corn yields were stable at 30 bushels an acre. There was insufficient data before 1860. Corn yields jumped to 60 bushels an acre in 1960 and 160 bushels an acre in 2010 (Clotfelter 1953; Plumer 2012).

Cattle and Hogs were also important for the household and the market. Cattle were used for meat and dairy products and the surplus was sold. Surplus cattle could also be driven to markets in the east or later to Cincinnati and Chicago. Hogs provided the primary meat source to many farmers. Surplus meat or surplus animals could also be sold at urban markets (Clotfelter 1953; Friend 2005; Hilliard 1972).

By the 1830s and 1840s, large land owners became involved in cattle breeding, which became a lucrative business. The leading breeders in Bourbon County included the Renicks, Bedfords, Clays, and

Cunninghams. The Renicks and Cunninghams had been involved in the cattle trade in Hardy County, Virginia (now West Virginia) since the late eighteenth century. They bred cattle along practical lines to be similar to the parent herds in England. In 1835, 10,000 fat cattle were exported from Bourbon County (Clotfelter 1953, MacMaster 1991).

Bourbon County had one of the strongest agricultural economies in the Bluegrass in 1850. There were 6,683 horses, 4,031 milch cows, and 12,462 other cattle according to the 1850 U. S. Census. There were also 25,288 sheep which produced 78,621 pounds of wool. There were 39,492 head of hogs. Grain production consisted of 9,915 bushels of rye, 78,133 bushels of wheat, 180,532 bushels of oats, and 1,705,589 bushels of corn (U.S. Census 1850).

3.1.8 Class and Slavery

Most, if not all, of the thousands of settlers that came down the Maysville Road after the Revolution were looking for land. Less than half would own any land and would become tenant farmers or wage laborers (Aron 1996; Friend 2005). Measuring wealth before 1850, when census records became more detailed, was based on tax records and the amount of land, slaves, horses one owned. The majority of landowners in Kentucky had less than 50 acres, owned no slaves, and lived in a one or two room house (Kennedy and Macintire 1999:1). “Middling” farmers owned between 100 and 500 acres, a few slaves, and often had a masonry or frame house. Farmers or landowners with more than 500 acres were wealthy. They also had more slaves and larger houses (Andrews and Sandefur 2002; Kennedy and Macintire 1999).

The middling to wealthy landowners were the affluent men in Kentucky (Soltow 1983). Henry Clay suggested that 30 percent of the voters in Fayette County would own enough resources to attend meetings. Thirty percent of the 34,700 free men 21 and older in Kentucky would be just over 10,000 men which was the number of men owning 110 acres or more (Soltow 1983:624-625). Soltow (1983) found that wealthy landowners owned multiple property holdings. A person with seven or more properties owned 50 times the average acreage and a person with only one property and slavery facilitated multiple-property holding (Soltow 1983:625).

Slavery was an important part of the economic development of Kentucky and the United States. Slavery was necessary for the profitability of the major cash crops in Kentucky: hemp and tobacco. Slavery was even more important in the deep south for cotton, the world’s most important crop (Baptist 2014:xvii). Cotton was the key material in the first century of the industrial revolution and the profits from the cotton monopoly powered the modernization of the rest of the American economy (Baptist 2014:xxi).

3.2 Archival Research

3.2.1 Introduction

In this section the archival research is discussed. The research included studying deeds, tax records, wills, and census records.

3.2.2 The Thomas and Mary Champ House (15BB137)

Thomas Champ was born in what is now Loudoun County, Virginia in 1728. His father, John Champe, was born in 1698 and died in 1763 in Loudoun County. Documents are meager for this period. There is a will for John Champe, in which he gave various material possessions to his children and grandson (Loudoun County Will Book A: 96-97). No land was mentioned. He gave his grandson, John Champe, three iron pots, two pair of pot hooks, a gun, a bed and furniture, two butter pots, a chest sock and key, half a dozen knives and forks, a cow and calf, two pewter dishes, five plates and a falster, two basons, a

riding mare with bridle and saddle. He gave his daughter Sufy Champe a yellow cow. He gave his daughter Ann Champe one cow and calf, a spice mortar, and one brass candlestick. He gave his daughter Elizabeth Jones one five year old steer. He gave his son Thomas Champe a roan mare. His sons John and Thomas were the executors of his will.

According to deed records from Loudoun County, Virginia, Thomas Champe, farmer, rented 152 acres from George Johnson in 1771 (Loudoun County documents spell the surname with an “e”) (Loudoun County Deed Book H: 297-300). The indenture was in form of a land grant and lasted for life of Thomas Champe and his sons Thomas Champe and Robert Champe. The indenture stated that within five years Thomas Champe must erect “a good dwelling house twenty feet by sixteen at the least and a Barn twenty feet square with shingled roofs.” The indenture also required that fifty peach trees be planted along with apple trees planted thirty feet apart and the property must be fenced (LCDB H: 297-300).

In 1777, Thomas Champ leased the above property to John Gunn (LCDB L: 389-391). There are no other records for Thomas Champ in Loudoun County, Virginia. In the 1787, deed Thomas Champ is listed as a resident of Bourbon County. No documents have been located to indicate where Thomas Champ and his family were living between 1777 and 1787.

Thomas Champ purchased a 200 acre tract on Flat Creek (later known as Flat Run) in Bourbon County from James Parbery (also spelled Parberry in other records) in 1787. The land was part of a pre-emption Menoah Singleton assigned to James Parbery. There is no mention of the amount of money paid for the property. The deed does not mention any structures present or the location of the tract relative to the Maysville Road (Figure 3-1). According to the deed, Parbery was a resident of Franklin County and Champ was a resident of Bourbon County (Bourbon County Deed Book A: 90-91).

Thomas Champ came to Kentucky with his wife Margaret and ten children. There were four boys: Thomas (died 1851 in Indiana), Robert (died in 1828 in Bourbon County), John (died in 1810 in Bourbon County), and Quisenberry (died 1805 in Bourbon County). There were six girls: Jenny (married Caleb Masterson), Sophia (married a Gorham and died in 1808), Lydia (married a Buchanan), Sarah (married an Arnold), Nancy (married a McKinney), and Mary (Molly) Champ.

In 1795, Thomas Champ purchased three slaves from Lawrence Hall (BCDB C:484). The slaves were described as “a negro man named Isaac and a negro woman named Amy and Child” (BCDB C: 484).

In 1808, Thomas Champ died without a will being found. Based on the testimony of Thomas Champ heirs, there had been a will in which Thomas Champ had given 50 acres to four of his children, Thomas, Robert, John, and Mary (Bourbon County Circuit Court Case 6129, 1811). According to the testimony, Mary Champ was to receive “fifty acres of my land whereon I now live to include my houses, meadows and orchards and fields.” Mary Champ also received her father’s three slaves, Isaac and his two children Tuner and Fanny. The fifty acres given to Robert included his houses and fields. After a suit was filed in Bourbon County Circuit Court, Champ’s land was divided among ten heirs. Each heir received a 25.5 acre and 32 poles tract and site 15BB137 was probably located on the tract owned by Mary Champ, the only unmarried daughter of Thomas Champ (Bundy 2006; Bourbon County Survey Book Part I, 1780-1820, Figure 3-2). Robert Champ, son of Thomas Champ, received one of the tracts (Lot 5) and began to buy other tracts. Between 1808 and 1827, he purchased four of the lots (Lots 3, 4, 6, and 7 on Figure 3-2). Lot 6 was purchased from Mary Champ in 1827 (BCDB U:348-9). Robert Champ also purchased 84 acres on Flat Run from Lewellen Porter in 1825 (BCDB R:424-5). In 1804, Robert Champ purchased 100 acres on Licking Creek in Bourbon County from Thomas Bodley (BCDB 8:192).



Figure 3-1. Close up of "Road from Limestone to Frankfort in the State of Kentucky Showing the Road between Millersburgh (sic) to Paris." (Collete 1796).

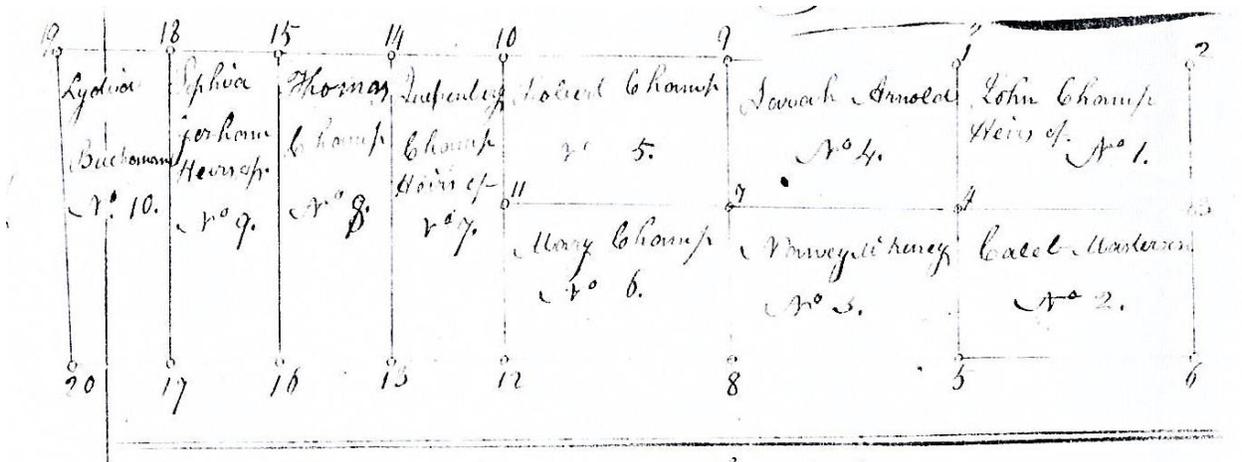


Figure 3-2. Division of Thomas Champ's Land.

An inventory of Thomas Champ's estate provides information on his agricultural and household activities. Champ owned several cows and horses at the time of his death and had wheat, rye, and hemp on hand (Bundy 2006; BCWB C: 385). Table 3-1 provides a sample of the inventory and the inventory is shown in Figure 3-3 through Figure 3-7.

Table 3-1. Sample of Items from the Probate Inventory of Thomas Champ in 1808.

Item	Value	
One crock and kettle containing 18 gallons	\$2.50	
One large pot and dutch oven and 3 bales	\$4.00	
63 gallons whiskey in barrels	\$23.62	1/2
2 hogsheads, 3 double barrels, 4 single barrels 10 gallon __?__, 2 fat cans, 2 salt barrels	\$8.28	
Bedstead, bed and furniture	\$24.00	
Bedstead, bed and furniture	\$26.66	1/3
Bedstead, bed and furniture	\$16.66	2/3
Bedstead, bed and furniture	\$28.00	1/3
20 head of geese	\$5.00	
One negro man and two girls	\$650.00	
Eleven pounds sole leather	\$2.73	
Wool	\$10.00	
Spinning Wheel	\$3.00	
Nine chairs	\$3.00	
Cupboard and furniture	\$18.00	
One chest tobacco horn and Razor	\$3.00	
Large coat, 2 small coats, 8 pair overhats, 2 waistcoats, 5 shirts, 2 pair socks, and one pair of mittons (sic)	\$20.00	
Seventy-seven head of sheep	\$27.00	
Two bee hives	\$3.00	
One grind stone	\$2.00	
1 plow and hand mill stones	\$2.00	
One wagon and hind geer (sic)	\$57.50	
Eight old hogs and seven shoats	\$23.00	

James Wright ^{admr}

Bourbon County July Court 1808
 This appraisement of the estate
 of Thomas Wright deceased was
 produced into Court and ordered
 to be recorded
 att
Wm. Garrison J. C. C.



Bourbon County June 8th 1808

We the appraisers appointed by the honora-
 ble County Court of Bourbon agreeably to
 an order presented to us after first being
 duly sworn have proceeded to appraise the
 goods and chattels of Tho^s Champ dec^d

	\$	cts	u
One red cow and calf	8	-	-
Do. black & white cow	7	-	-
Do. brown cow	7	-	-
Do. black cow	7	50	-
Do. Brown cow	7	-	-
Do. Redd heifer	4	50	-

Figure 3-3. Thomas Champ Inventory BCWB C:385-389.

	\$	cts.	u.
386 Do. 4 yearling calves	9	50	—
Do. blind mare	9	—	—
one gray mare	15	—	—
Do. gray mare & colt	80	—	—
Do. black horse	60	—	—
Do. gray horse	30	—	—
Do. gray horse	25	—	—
Do. bay horse	45	—	—
Do. bay mare	60	—	—
Do. white mare	55	—	—
Do. 2 horse colts	28	—	—
Do. Brown colt	16	66 ² / ₃	—
Do. Black colt	7	50	—
Seventy seven heads of sheep	27	—	—
Eight old hogs and seven shoats	25	—	—
one waggow and hind beer	57	50	—
A lot of old seers	10	—	—
one grind stone	2	—	—
two axes and two wedges	3	50	—
one cutting knife & saw	1	50	—
one lock chain hovel & tom stock	2	00	—
one mattock, bludge & sickle	2	50	—
A Lot of old Iron	1	—	—
Two baskets	—	33 ¹ / ₃	—
1 beef hide, 2 murrain & 1 calf hide	4	—	—
1 plow & hand mill stones	2	—	—
Two beer hives	3	—	—

Figure 3-4. Thomas Champ Inventory BCWB C:385-389.

Two hoes	1	66	$\frac{2}{3}$
one fellow Harrow	6	16	
one wheat Hann	6		
one hemp brake		37	$\frac{1}{2}$
one Rye stack	10		
one Iron ball		33	$\frac{1}{3}$
Stack of wheat supposed to be 30 bush	10	66	$\frac{2}{3}$
Black stretchers link & clevis	6		
one cracked kettle containing 18 gals	2	50	
one large pot small pot, dutch oven and three bayles	4	0	0
1 pair tongs Lamp tray & run lett	2		
1 washing tub & buckets Churn & pigon	1	66	$\frac{2}{3}$
1 Loom & tacking & quil wheel	6	66	$\frac{2}{3}$
63 gals whiskey in barrels	23	62	$\frac{2}{3}$
2 hogheads & double barrels 4 single barrels 10 gallow eay 2 fat cans 2 salt barrels	8	28	
1 pair stileyards & hand saw	4		
1 bridle & saddle	12		
one fine heckled crop heckle	5		
two sheep shears 1 pair long shears			
2 gimblets one funnel & candle sticks	1	16	
one flat iron	1		
one pack		25	
one table	1		

Figure 3-5. Thomas Champ Inventory BCWB C:385-389.

	\$	cts.	ll.
388 tubboard & furniture	18		
five chairs	3		
one chest tobacco horn & razor	3		
one big wheel and reel	2	50	
Base pocket stil yards & looking glass	1	92	
one chest	3	50	
one bedstead, bed & furniture	24		
one pair saddle bags		75	
bedstead bed & furniture	26	66	$\frac{1}{3}$
Do. Do. & Do.	16	66	$\frac{2}{3}$
Do. Do. & Do.	28	33	$\frac{1}{3}$
one calico quilt & coverlet	10		
one spinning wheel	3		
size old bags		50	
Wool	10		
seven pounds sole leather	2	75	
old leather	2		
one negro man & two girls	650		
a large coat 2 small do. & 1 st overhals			
9 waistcoats & shirts 2 nd socks & one pair of Mittens	20		
20 head of Geese	5		
	755	66	$\frac{1}{3}$

Figure 3-6. Thomas Champ Inventory BCWB C:385-389.

389 Francis M^e Kenney's Note \$45
 John M. Garrard's Note 15-00
 To cash - - - - - 89-20
 948-75
 one half bushell 100
 949-00

John Carter
 James Howard
 Geo. Reedman

Bourbon County July Court 1808
 This appraisement of the estate of
 Thomas Champ deceased was produc-
 -led into Court & ord. to be recorded
 attest
 Wm. Garrard J. C. Clk.

608609

Sally Grimes
 Pursuant to an order of Bourbon June
 Court to us directed being first duly
 sworn we have proceeded to appraise
 the estate of Sally Grimes (to wit)

one negro man (Tom)	100	0	0
one Ditto boy (Ved)	75	0	0
one Ditto neg man (Lotta)	90	0	0

Figure 3-7. Thomas Champ Inventory BCWB C:385-389.

The Bourbon County Tax Assessment Books provided information on land ownership, number of white adult males, number of slaves, and number of horses. In 1809, Robert Champ is listed with 200 acres on Stoner Creek and 100 acres on Smith Creek. There is one adult male, six slaves and ten horses. In 1812, after the court proceedings, Robert Champ has 50 acres on Flat Run and 100 acres on Smith Run. He also has seven slaves and 12 horses. Mary Champ is listed with 25 acres on Flat Run and two horses. Polly Champ is listed with 25 acres on Flat Run and four slaves.

In 1827, James Darnaby and William Ellis, Jr. made a map of the Maysville Road showing a T. Champs Inn near the location of 15BB137 (Figure 3-8). According to court case involving Thomas Champs estate (BCCC case 6129, 1811), Robert Champ was living in his own house in 1808. In Robert Champ's Will, his son, Thomas Champ, was living in his own house, which was described as the Thomas Champ House (BB204) in the National Register of Historic Places. It seem more likely that the T. Champs Inn on the 1827 map refers to BB204 rather than 15BB137.

Robert Champ died in 1828 and left a will (BCWB H: 53). Robert Champ gave part of his land on the Limestone road and the house where he now lives to his wife Sarah Champ. He gave the rest of the land to his son, Thomas Champ. Thomas Champ lived on that part of the land he was willed. At the death of Thomas Champ, the land would go to Thomas's son and Robert's grandson, Thomas Jefferson Champ (BCWB H: 53).

Thomas Champ, son of Robert Champ, expanded the farm considerably. In 1831 tax assessment records Thomas Champ has 435 acres, 17 slaves and 28 horses. The land was in multiple tracts along flat Run and Hinkson Creek. The total value for the property was \$10,700. Thomas built the brick house which is now on the National Register (BB204).

Thomas Champ died in 1832 and left a will (BCWB J: 82). He left the plantation, on which his mother Sarah Champ lived, to his son Thomas Jefferson Champ. He left his wife, Louisa Champ, one-third of the plantation and house where she lived. He also wished his wife would finish the house in a decent manner. He left his son Robert just over 127 Acres (51.40 ha) that were willed to Robert by his grandfather. The balance of the land and slaves were to be divided among his for sons, Robert, Thomas Jefferson, George, and Henry (BCWB J: 82).

The one-third of the plantation and house willed to Louisa Champ consisted of a 32 acre tract (12.95 ha) and an 11 acre tract (4.45 ha). Louisa Champ was also given one-third of the fifteen slaves owned by Thomas Champ and two-thirds were given to their sons (Bourbon County Estate Settlements C: 33-35; BCWB J: 82).

In 1850, Thomas Jefferson Champ, age 23, lived on the plantation tract with his wife Sallie, age 21, two children, and his 80 year-old grandmother Sarah Champ. The real estate was valued at \$12,720 (U.S. Census, 1850). The Champ plantation tract consisted of 212 acres. Champ raised 40 bushels of wheat, 1,000 bushels of corn, 200 bushels of oats, two bushels of peas/beans, and 10 bushels of potatoes. Three hundred pounds of butter, and one ton of hay was also produced. Champ owned six horses, five cows, four other cattle, and 30 swine (U. S. Agriculture Census, 1850). Champ also owned seven slaves (U.S. Census-Slave Schedules, 1850).

Thomas J. Champ died in 1853. On January 12, 1854, Sarah Champ relinquished to Sallie G. Champ, John Robert (or Jefferson) Champ, Levi Link Champ, and Sarah Thomas Champ, her one-third dower interest in 105 acres on which she lived with her grandson Thomas J. Champ and his family (Bundy 2006; BCDB 47:224). Thomas J. Champ's brother, Henry Clay Champ died of Cholera in 1850 and his grandmother,

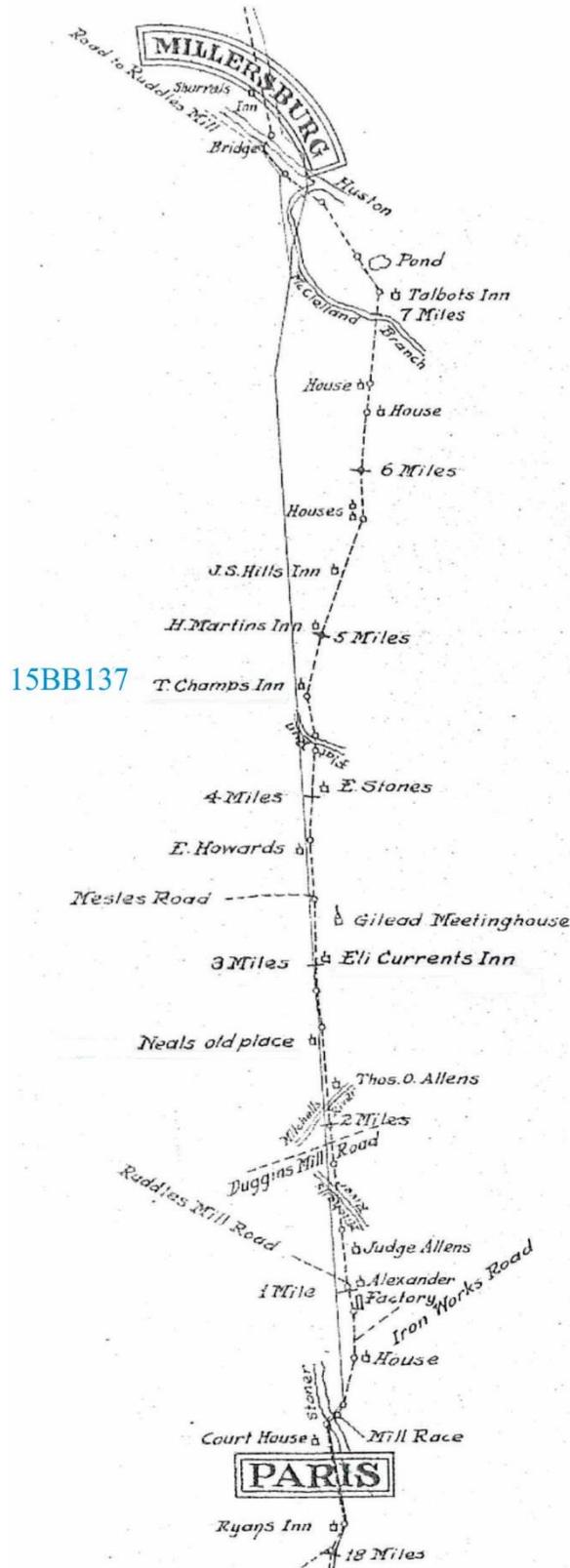


Figure 3-8. Darnaby and Ellis map, 1827, showing site 15BB137.

Sarah Champ, died in 1856 of heart disease at the age of 86 (Bourbon County Library, Death Records, n.d.; Kentucky Death Records 1852-1953).

In 1860, Sallie G. Champ lived with her children, John, age 12, Levi L., age 8, and Sarah, age 6, in the household of her parents, Thomas and Mary Barlow, in the Millersburg precinct of Bourbon County (U.S. Census, 1860). In the 1861 Hewitt map, the location of Mrs. Champ's residence was shown as the Thomas Champ House at Sulpher Spring Farm (Figure 3-9).

The Barlow's real estate was valued at \$16,160 and personal property at \$1,500. Sallie Champ owned \$6,000 in real estate and \$1,500 in personal property. John Champ owned \$15,800 in real estate and \$7,000 in personal property (U.S. Census, 1860).

In 1870, John Champ, age 21, was listed on the census as head of household and farmer. Also listed was John's wife Matty, age 22, keeping house, Levi, age 19, also a farmer, and Sally, age 17, attending school. John Champ owned \$13,700 of real estate and \$2,415 of personal property. Levi Champ owned \$10,000 of real estate and \$750 of personal property. Sally Champ owned \$10,000 of real estate (U.S. Census, 1870).

In 1870, Thomas J. Champ's land was divided between his son Levi L. Champ and daughter Sarah T. Champ. Levi received over 94 acres located on the northwest side of the Maysville-Lexington Turnpike, while Sarah T. Champ received 114 acres on the southeast side of the turnpike (Bundy 2006; BC Estate Settlements G:555).

Levi L. Champ acquired full interest in the tract from John J. Champ and Sallie Champ, heirs of Thomas J. Champ, and from Levi and Sallie G. Link. This transaction was executed as a division of the lands of Thomas J. Champ. This tract is the same 94 acre tract mentioned above and is the location of 15BB137 (BCDB 58:9).

In the 1877 Beers map of Bourbon County, L.L. Champ is listed with a house which appears to be the extant Champ house (Figure 3-10).

In 1880, Levi L. Champ was farming in the Millersburg District with his wife Bell, age 27, and children, Mattie, age five, Mary, age three, and John, age one. Also listed with the family was an illiterate African-American farm-hand Lewis Finch, age 20 (Bundy 2006; U.S. Census, 1880).

In 1880, Levi L. Champ owned about 50 acres of tilled land and 40 acres of meadow or pastureland valued at \$6,850. He paid \$225 in wages the previous year for 75 weeks of labor on his farm. Farm production was valued at \$1,100. Champ owned two horses, six cows, 10 other cattle, 67 sheep, 21 swine, and 225 chickens all valued at \$1,000. The farm produced 600 bushels of corn, 775 bushels of wheat, and 10 bushels of potatoes. Six hundred pounds of butter were produced and 30 pounds of hay were harvested. Champ had an orchard of 50 apple trees (Bundy 2006; U.S. Agriculture Census, 1880).

Levi L. Champ died sometime before 1900 without a will. His lands passed to his children Harry Champ, Lelia Smith, and John K. Champ. Levi Champ's daughters Mary B. Petticord and Mattie Champ died before him and their shares were passed to their siblings by commissioner's deeds. On November 27, 1907, Harry L. Champ, Lelia B. Smith, and her husband W. Austin Smith of Paris, conveyed their undivided two-thirds interest in the tract to John K. Champ of Paris for \$7,840.82 (Bundy 2006; BCDB 89:617-618; 78:402, 404).

In 1900, John Champ, age 21, lived and farmed with his brother Harry, age 18, and sister Lelia, age 15, who attended school. Also residing with them was their grandmother Sallie G. (Champ) Link, age 70. By 1910, John Champ lived alone on his farm (Bundy 2006; U.S. Census 1900, 1910).

In 1911, John K. Champ sold the 94.09 acre farm to James S. Clark. Excepted from the conveyance was the family graveyard located on the property and measuring 12.5 feet by 16 feet (Bundy 2006; BCDB 95: 436). John Champ moved to Dry Ridge in Grant County, never married, and died in 1952 at the age of 74 from apoplexy or stroke. He was buried in Paris, Kentucky (Kentucky Death Records, Ancestry.com).

In 1920, James S. Clark, age 78, lived and farmed in the Millersburg area with his wife Nancy, age 75, and their children Lee, age 47, Edna, age 44, and Nannie, age 37. Lee was a real estate salesman and Nannie was a supervisor for the county (Bundy 2006; U.S. Census, 1920).

James S. Clarke died October 23, 1926, without a will and leaving eight surviving children. In 1933, heirs of James S. Clarke conveyed the property to Annie K. and R. E. Lusk. A two-thirds interest was sold to Annie Lusk for \$8,000 while the remaining one-third was conveyed to R. E. Lusk for \$4,000 (Bundy 2006; BCDB 116: 336-338).

On March 13, 1934, Hattie M. Laughlin, then living in Lexington, purchased the tract from R. E. and Annie Lusk of Paris for \$1.00 (Bundy 2006; BCDB 116: 590). In 1935, J. T. and Hattie Laughlin sold the property to Russell and Josephine Day for \$11,500. The real estate then consisted of 92.93 acres on the Maysville-Lexington Turnpike and was subject to an easement conveyed to Kentucky Utilities (Bundy 2006; BCDB 117: 445).

Russell Day died April 6, 1953. In his will, he devised his interest in the property to his wife, Josephine and nominated the National Bank and Trust Company as his executor. Upon her death, the property was sold by their executor. Josephine Day died on July 29, 1975 (Bundy 2006; BCWB X: 245-247; BCWB CC: 114).

On March 2, 1976, James E. and Carolyn Poe purchased the real estate for \$18,800 from the People's Deposit Bank and Trust Company, executor of the Russell C. Day estate (Bundy 2006; BCDB 172: 620-624).

In 1980, James Emery Poe and his wife Carolyn W. Poe conveyed the property, which consists of 30.41 acres to Joseph and Virginia McClain for \$233,000 (Bundy 2006; BCDB 184:257-268).

Three other sites along the Old Maysville Road were excavated during the Phase II investigations (Bundy 2006). Archival research by Bundy (2006) and Andrews et al. (2010) will be used to compare these sites with Champ's Inn. The sites from the Phase II investigations are Neal's Old Place (15BB131), an early farmstead, site 15BB132, an early homestead and later a possible tenant or slave house, and Eli Current's Inn (15BB133).

John Neal bought 66 acres on the Limestone Road from James Otley (BCDB M: 255). In the 1793 tax assessment, Neal was listed as owning three slaves, two horses, and 13 cattle. Two years later Neal has 10 slaves, two horses, 14 cattle and 150 acres of first rate land (BCTA 1795). In 1822, Neal had 157 acres on Stoner Creek, eight slaves and 12 horses (BCTA 1822).

John Neal died in 1824 and Jackey S. Hitt bought 160 acres from the Neal estate in 1829. Hitt had five different tracts in Bourbon County, including a town lot in Paris. Hitt owned nine slaves and 26 horses

(Andrews et al. 2010; BCTA 1829). Hitt sold 134 acres of the tract to Samuel M. Hibler in 1842 (Bundy 2006; BCDB 43: 242).

Based on the artifact assemblage for site 15BB131 it is doubtful that Samuel Hibler lived there. It is not known if a tenant or slave may have lived there after John Neal. The house is drawn on the 1827 map by Darnaby and Ellis and labeled “Neal’s Old Place.” It is not known if it was occupied at the time.

Information on Site 15BB132 is even more limited than for Neal’s Old Place (Andrews et al. 2010; Bundy 2006). According to Andrews et al. (2010) 15BB132 is the remains of an early homestead of William Scott, who purchased the property in 1820 and died in 1822. Scott left the estate to his son, Jefferson Scott, who built a brick house that the New Forest Farm evolved around. After 1824, site 15BB132 could have been used as slave or tenant housing. It is also possible that site 15BB132 was built by an earlier land owner (Andrews et al. 2010).

According to the tax assessment records, William Scott owned a fair amount of property and was apparently involved in raising horses. In 1821, Scott owned a 114 acre tract and a 186 acre tract on Stoner Creek. He owned seven slaves and 55 horses. The next year, Scott owned 235 acres, eight slaves and 125 horses.

Jefferson Scott may have reached a peak in his wealth in Bourbon County in 1835 and there was a decline in 1850. He owned 426 acres in 1835. He also owned 22 slaves, 40 horses, 20 cattle, with a total value of \$32,905.00. In 1850, Scott owned 395 acres, eight slaves, eight horses and one mare, a pleasure carriage and a piano. The total value of his property in 1850 was \$22,200.00 (BCTA 1835, 1850).

Jefferson Scott sold New Forest farm to William Rogers in 1851, who then sold it to Horace Miller in 1870. In 1851, William Rogers owned 497 acres, 19 slaves, 17 horses, 30 cattle, a pleasure carriage, and a piano. The total value of the property was \$26,360.00. In 1880, Horace Miller owned 300 acres of tilled land and 310 acres of meadows or pastures valued at \$61,000.00. He paid \$1,200.00 in wages to 52 “colored” laborers. He owned one horse, six mules, six ox, five cows, 55 other cattle, 400 sheep, 20 swine, and 46 chickens. He grew 5,000 bushels of corn, 1600 bushels of wheat, and had 200 apple trees (Andrews et al. 2010; BCTA 1851; U.S. Census of Agriculture 1880).

The third site from the Phase II investigations is Eli Current’s Inn, 15BB133. The site is located on the 1827 Darnaby and Ellis map and is labeled Eli Currant’s Inn. Thomas Current initially owned the land in 1821 and gave a 105 acre tract to his son Eli in 1827. In 1822, Thomas Current owned 640 acres on Stoner Creek valued at \$18 per acre and 105 acres valued at \$25 per acre and a town lot valued at \$500. He also had a tavern license, 12 slaves and eight horses. In 1839, Eli Current owned 340 acres, 10 slaves, 15 horses, and five cattle (Bundy 2006; BCDB T: 189; BCTA 1822, 1839).

3.2.3 The Darnaby and Ellis Map

The 1827 Darnaby and Ellis Map shows towns, cities, and inns along the Maysville Road. The construction of the Maysville Road was a political and economic project and involved not only Kentucky but the United States Government as well. The map needs to be viewed as a political and economic document with biases and perhaps even propaganda. Maps made during the nineteenth century were often thematic and provided more information than the topographical (Harley 2002; Schulten 2012). These maps focused on the distribution of phenomena rather than the landscape itself (Schulten 2012). The map may have been drawn to secure additional funding for the improvements to the Maysville Road and perhaps to provide advertising for the inns. It does not show all of the farms or houses along the Maysville Road. In 1827 there were two other houses near T. Champ’s Inn. Mary Champ lived in a log

house (15BB137) nearest the road. Robert Champ lived in a house to the north of 15BB137 and probably to the west of his son's brick house (BB204). T. Champ's Inn was probably BB204.

Section 4 -

Methodology

4.1 Introduction

In this section, the field methods employed during the course of this study are described. These methods include the fieldwork activities, their application in different portions of the archaeological APE (reflecting conditions encountered), and an evaluation of their effectiveness in conducting initial National Register evaluation of the archaeological site. Laboratory methods are discussed in the following section (Section Five) along with the site's assemblage and a discussion of its associated contexts of recovery and interpretation.

4.2 Field Methods

The field methods for the Phase III data recovery of Site 15BB137 included test units, and mechanical stripping across the project area. The field methods implemented for the Phase III investigations conform to the Kentucky Heritage Council's specifications for conducting Phase III testing (Sanders 2006).

4.2.1 Remote Sensing

For this survey, University of Kentucky archaeologists employed electrical resistance. Electrical resistance is greatly affected by features such as buried walls and foundations because they restrict the flow of ions and produce a resistance maxima.

A GeoScan RM15-D resistance meter configured using the MPX15 multiplexer with a parallel twin array on a 1m beam was used to complete the resistance survey. The depth below surface in which the resistance meter collects data is proportionate to the distance between the probes so a 1m beam with probes spaced at 50 cm was chosen to achieve a depth of 50 cm. The survey area was divided into four 20 x 20 m grids. Data were collected using the zig-zag method on 50 cm transects with 50 cm meter intervals.

The geophysical survey conducted by KAS revealed several interesting anomalies. High or low resistance values (anomalies) are represented by darker or lighter spots on gray-scale images. After reviewing the data, three clusters were chosen for further investigation. These anomalies are thought to have the highest probability of representing historic features. A more detailed description of the methodology and results of the remote sensing is found in Appendix B.

Two of the clusters represent modern utility lines and trees. Cluster 3 represented the cluster of six test units excavated during Phase II investigations and portions of Feature 4.

In general, the results of the geophysical survey did not reveal the location of architectural remains or the location of sub-surface features. The cluster of six units from the Phase II excavations were located by depressions visible on the ground.

4.2.2 Test Units

Test units were 1 x 1 m and the soil was screened through ¼ inch mesh hardware cloth. The test units were excavated in ten centimeter levels within natural zones. The measurements were below surface. All artifacts recovered were kept and bagged by provenience for later analysis. Fifty-five 1 x 1 m test units were excavated. The initial units were placed in areas where high densities of artifacts were recovered during Phase I and Phase II investigations. The cluster of test units from Phase II investigations contained features and possible stratified deposits provided a general location of initial Phase III units. Units were placed to locate architectural features such as corner stones and a chimney. The chimney base was located finally in units 37 and 40. After the cellar features were located additional units were excavated to determine the boundaries. Fourteen units were excavated within the cellar. Other units were placed to determine site limits and to provide data on artifact distribution analysis.

Grid north was established at 323 degrees. The grid attempted to match the grid established in the Phase II excavations.

4.2.3 Mechanical Excavation

Mechanical excavation was used to uncover large areas with the intent being to locate features. Fourteen features were located during the back hoe excavations. The areas which comprised the side and rear yards of the house were the focus of the mechanical excavation. It was believed that these areas would have the highest probability of locating trash or architectural features.

The area was excavated by a backhoe with a smooth bucket. The area was excavated in approximately 10 to 20 cm levels to subsoil and was monitored by the field director. The excavated area was then shovel scraped by the archaeologists and features were located and mapped.

4.2.4 Features

All features identified following mechanical stripping were mapped, photographed, and excavated. Small features, such as pits and post molds, were bisected to observe and record their profiles. Larger features were subdivided into 1 x 1 m or .5 x .5 m units for better horizontal and vertical control. Soil from these features was also screened and flotation samples taken. The identification and careful excavation of these features was essential towards understanding the spatial organization of this site.

The following section includes the laboratory methods for the artifact analysis and a description of the materials recovered.

Section 5 -

Material Recovered

5.1 Introduction

In this Section, the information on the materials recovered from Site 15BB137 is presented with a description of the laboratory techniques used to analyze and present the data.

5.2 Laboratory Procedures

Artifacts recovered during field investigations were brought to the CDM Smith Archaeology Laboratory in Lexington, Kentucky, for cataloging and analysis. Materials were washed and sorted by general material type (i.e. Historic vs. Prehistoric). The artifacts were then analyzed according to specific methods. Historic artifacts were washed and sorted into major material categories. These were then cataloged according to the system of artifact-function association modified from South (1977). Since most if not all archaeologists initially classify artifacts with this functional system, results are comparable from state to state and region to region. All artifacts were assigned to the functional groups (e.g., kitchen, architecture), then to a material class (e.g., ceramic, glass, metal), then to a type (e.g., base of bottle, jar lip), and then to a subtype (e.g., color, decoration type). In the following discussion, each of the major categories of historic artifacts is defined. Table 5-1 shows the proportions of these various groups or artifact classes recovered from the mitigation of Site 15BB137.

Table 5-1. Artifacts by Functional Group.

Functional Group	Total	%
Architecture	17297	81.6
Arms	2	0.1
Clothing	36	0.2
Fuel	13	0.1
Furnishing	30	0.1
Kitchen	3548	16.7
Other	192	0.9
Personal	20	0.1
Tools/Activities	28	0.1
Transportation	31	0.1
Grand Total	21197	100.0

5.2.1 Kitchen Group

This group consists of artifacts used in the preparation, consumption, and/or storage of foods and beverages. For the most part, this group comprises container glass and ceramics. As most of these are manufactured, there is significant variation in decorative style and manufacturing techniques over time. Kitchen artifacts comprise 16.7% of the total artifact assemblage. This chronological variation forms the basis for the assignment of individual sites to historic time periods. A total of 3,548 kitchen artifacts were recovered from Site 15BB137. Of these, the majority are ceramics (n=3,176), followed by glass (n=324), metal (n=47), and biological (n=1). Table 5-2 shows the kitchen group artifacts.

Table 5-2. Kitchen Group Artifacts.

Artifacts	Total	%
Ceramics		
Creamware	240	6.8
Pearlware	636	17.9
Whiteware	268	7.6
Unidentified Refined Earthenware	441	12.4
Porcelain	84	2.4
Redware - Coarse	1474	41.5
Domestic Stoneware	32	0.9
Glass		
Bottle/Jar	196	5.5
Burned glass	21	0.6
Table Glass	27	0.8
Undetermined Glass	80	2.3
Metal		
Table Fork	2	0.1
Table Knife	4	0.1
Table Spoon	2	0.1
Hollowware, Cast or Wrought	7	0.2
Tin Can Fragment	7	0.2
Utensil Handle	1	0.0
Unidentified Kitchen Metal	24	0.7
Biological		
Bone Handle	1	0.0
Grand Total	3548	100.0

5.2.1.1 Ceramics

Ceramics are one of the most important chronologically diagnostic artifact categories on an archaeological site. In addition, these materials offer important clues to functional and social status variation among sites and cultural or ethnic components. For this reason, the ceramics are described in detail and utilized in many types of analyses including vessel analysis. Typically, ceramics are divided into two major groups: refined and unrefined earthenware (Table 5-3). Refined earthenware was primarily used as serving vessels such as dinner and tea services or toiletry items. Refined wares treated here include porcelain, creamware, pearlware, and whiteware. Unrefined or coarse earthenware was used for food preparation and storage, mixing bowls, churns, milk pans, etc. Unrefined wares treated here include coarse redware, and domestic stoneware.

Table 5-3. Kitchen Ceramics.

Type	Number	Percentage
Refined Ceramics		
Creamware	240	7.6
Pearlware	636	20.0
Unidentified Earthenware	441	13.9
Whiteware	268	8.4
Porcelain	84	2.6
<i>Total Refined Ceramics</i>	<i>1670</i>	
Coarse Ceramics		
Redware	1474	46.4
Domestic Stoneware	32	1.1
<i>Total Coarse Ceramics</i>	<i>1506</i>	
Total	3176	100.0

5.2.1.1.1 Refined Wares

Refined ceramics consisted of 1,670 specimens, totaling 53.6% of the ceramic assemblage. Refined ceramics included porcelain (n=84), creamware (n=240), pearlware (n=636), whiteware (n=268), and unidentified refined earthenware (n=441) (Table 5-4). The large number of unidentified refined earthenware was due to the large number of burned ceramics which were difficult to identify.

Table 5-4. Refined Ceramics.

Type	Number	%	Date
Creamware	239	14.3	1769-1830 Noel-Hume 1969; Miller et al. 1994
Pearlware	646	38.7	1780-1840 Noel-Hume 1969; Majewski and O'Brien 1987
Whiteware	259	15.5	1820-1890 (most popular) Majewski and O'Brien 1987
Unidentified Refined	441	26.4	
Porcelain	84	5.1	1784-1820 (most popular) Palmer 1983
Total	1670	100.0	

5.2.1.1.1.1 Porcelain

Porcelains are vitreous, white-paste, usually glazed wares of a variety of compositions. Porcelain was a very expensive ware until the late twentieth century, and therefore is typically rare on sites. Moreover, porcelain on twentieth century sites can include pieces made in North America, Great Britain, continental Europe, China, and Japan. Porcelains are divided into two basic types, hard paste and soft paste, with several varieties of each paste type. The difference between these is body composition and firing temperature. Hard paste porcelains are composed of kaolin and feldspathic clays and are fired at a high temperature. Chinese export porcelain is a hard paste variety that can be readily distinguished from other European and Japanese hard pastes. The major period of Chinese export trade to America was circa 1784 - 1820 and declined sharply after 1830 (Palmer 1983:25). Painted underglaze wares were exported to England until 1840, and painted overglaze enamels were exported into the 1820s

(Palmer 1983:16). Bone china is a type of soft paste porcelain that has been continuously produced since 1794. This ware is composed of feldspathic clays and calcined cattle bone fired at a lower temperature than hard paste porcelains. It appears with many decorative preparations including underglaze blue painted, overglaze polychrome painted, gilding, transfer printing, luster, and decals. Because of porcelain's long history of manufacture, it has limited potential as a temporal indicator (Majewski and O'Brien 1987:124-127) but is a good indicator of economic status or wealth. Small quantities of English bone china and French porcelains were imported to the United States throughout the late eighteenth and nineteenth centuries (Miller et al. 1994). According to Miller et al. (1994), these wares represent the upper range of expensive ceramics available at the time. In fact, gold banded French porcelain of the 1830s was fifteen times more expensive than creamware (Miller et al. 1994:228), and Chinese export porcelain was three times more expensive (Wall 1994).

Porcelains represent a relatively small portion of the refined ceramics (n =84 sherds or 2.6% of ceramic assemblage and 5.1% of refined assemblage). All of the porcelain sherds recovered were hard paste porcelain. Decorative techniques included blue underglaze painted Chinese Export (n=2), overglaze enamel monochrome Chinese Export (n=10), and overglaze polychrome Chinese Export (n=3). Although seemingly low in frequency, even small amounts of porcelain within assemblages have been found to be an indicator of status and class within households (see Fitts 1999; McBride and Sharp 1991). Figure 5-1 shows a sample of the porcelain artifact assemblage.

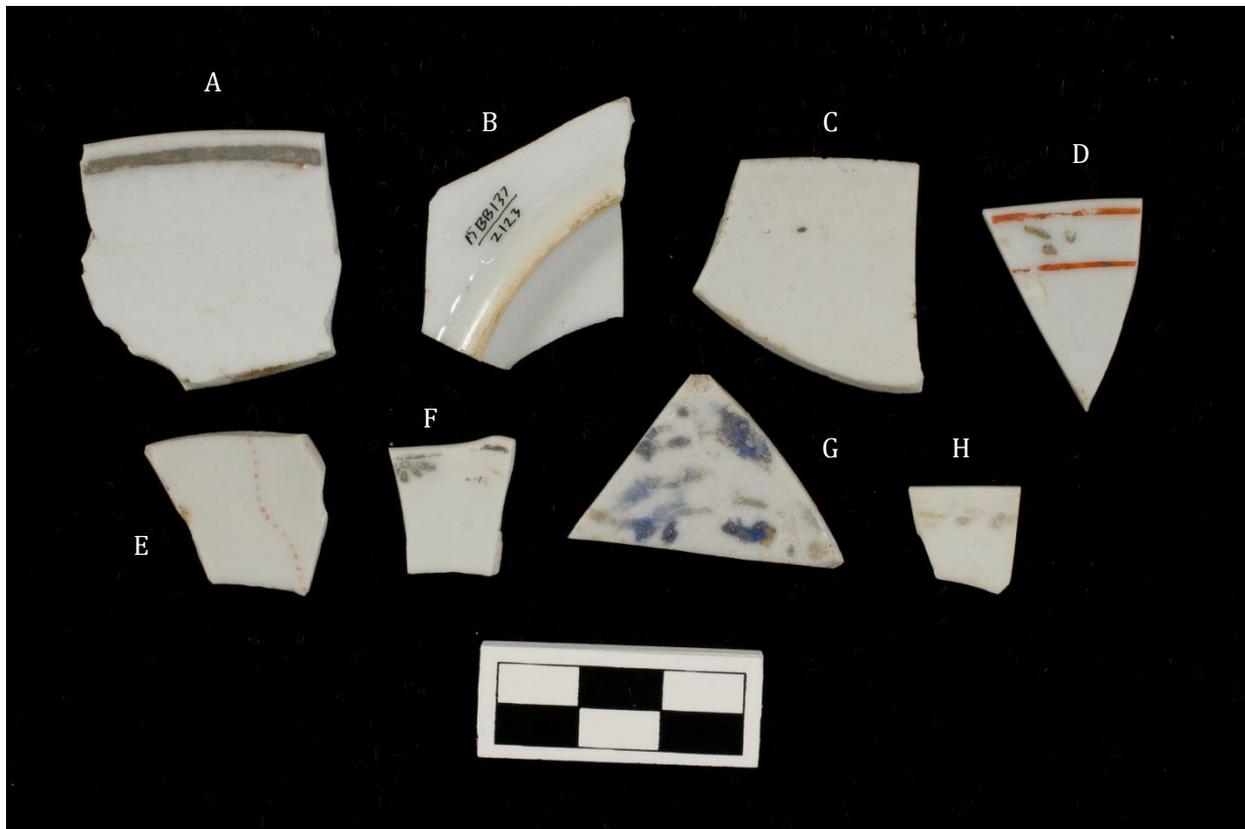


Figure 5-1. Samples of Porcelain from 15BB137. A) Overglazed enamel monochrome rim and body; B) undecorated footring; C) undecorated rim; D) overglazed enamel polychrome with floral and annual motif; E) overglazed enamel monochrome rim with red dots; F) overglazed enamel polychrome rim with floral motif; G) overglazed enamel polychrome body with floral motif; H) burned porcelain with hand painted floral motif.

5.2.1.1.1.2 Creamware

Creamware is a non-vitreous, white-paste earthenware which has a cream colored glaze. Creamware was developed in England circa 1762, and was first exported to the United States in 1769 (Noel-Hume 1969:126). By the end of the eighteenth century, creamware dominated much of the American market, but was replaced by pearlware in popularity by 1810 or 1820 on the East Coast, and by 1830 for the Midwest (see Miller et al. 1994). A variety of decorative techniques can be found on creamware and include over and underglaze transfer printing, annular or dipped preparations, over and underglaze hand painting, and molding.

Creamware within the Site 15BB137 assemblage totals 239 sherds or 7.6% of the ceramic assemblage and 14.3% of the refined assemblage. Decorative techniques included annular (n=45), and underglaze painted and overglaze enamel (n=4). There were 190 undecorated creamware sherds. Annular and other dipped wares were typical for low-cost, utilitarian forms like small bowls, chamber pots, or mixing bowls (see Miller et al. 1994). Creamware decorated with over- and underglaze hand-painted motifs were more costly and probably represent teawares (Miller 1991; Miller et al. 1994). On the whole, the vast majority of creamware was molded or undecorated (see Martin 1994; Miller et al. 1994). Figure 5-2 shows a sample of the creamware assemblage.



Figure 5-2. Samples of Creamware from 15BB137. A) Undecorated teacup rim; B) underglazed painted polychrome and overglaze enamel rim with floral motif; C) underglazed painted yellow and overglazed enamel rim; D) undecorated plate rim and body; E) annular body; F) annular bowl body.

5.2.1.1.1.3 Pearlware

Pearlwares are non-vitreous and semi-vitreous, white-pasted earthenwares which have a light blue-green tint created by the addition of cobalt to a clear lead glaze. Pearlware was developed in England circa 1780 and had become the most common tableware in the United States by circa 1810. Although pearlware may have been manufactured until the mid-1800s, its popularity had declined by 1840 (Majewski and O'Brien 1987:118-119; Noel-Hume 1969:128-132; Price 1982:10-11). Pearlware was usually decorated in some way. Decorative types include over and underglaze transfer printing, over and underglaze hand painting, annular or dipped preparations, edge decoration, and molded varieties. Because of the persistence of pearlware over time and its overall similarity to whiteware, it is more reliable to date sherds based on decorative technique and color. Before 1828, potters were unable to use bright colors under the glaze. Consequently, sherds having pink, red, purple, bright green, light blue, and light yellow date after 1828 and are considered whiteware. The pearlware color palette consisted of autumn colors like olive green, dark yellow, bronze, deep blue, black, and brown.

A total of 646 pearlware sherds (38.7% of refined assemblage) were recovered from 15BB137. Examples of pearlware recovered from the site are shown in Figure 5-3. Although pearlware is almost always decorated (Miller 1991), the majority of pearlware sherds recovered were undecorated (n=372). These sherds are likely from undecorated parts of decorated vessels rather than from undecorated vessels. Decorative types recovered included underglaze transfer printed (n=87), underglaze blue painted (n=65), underglaze painted (n=30), shell edged scalloped rim (n=27), shell edged straight rim (n=14), and banded (n=13).

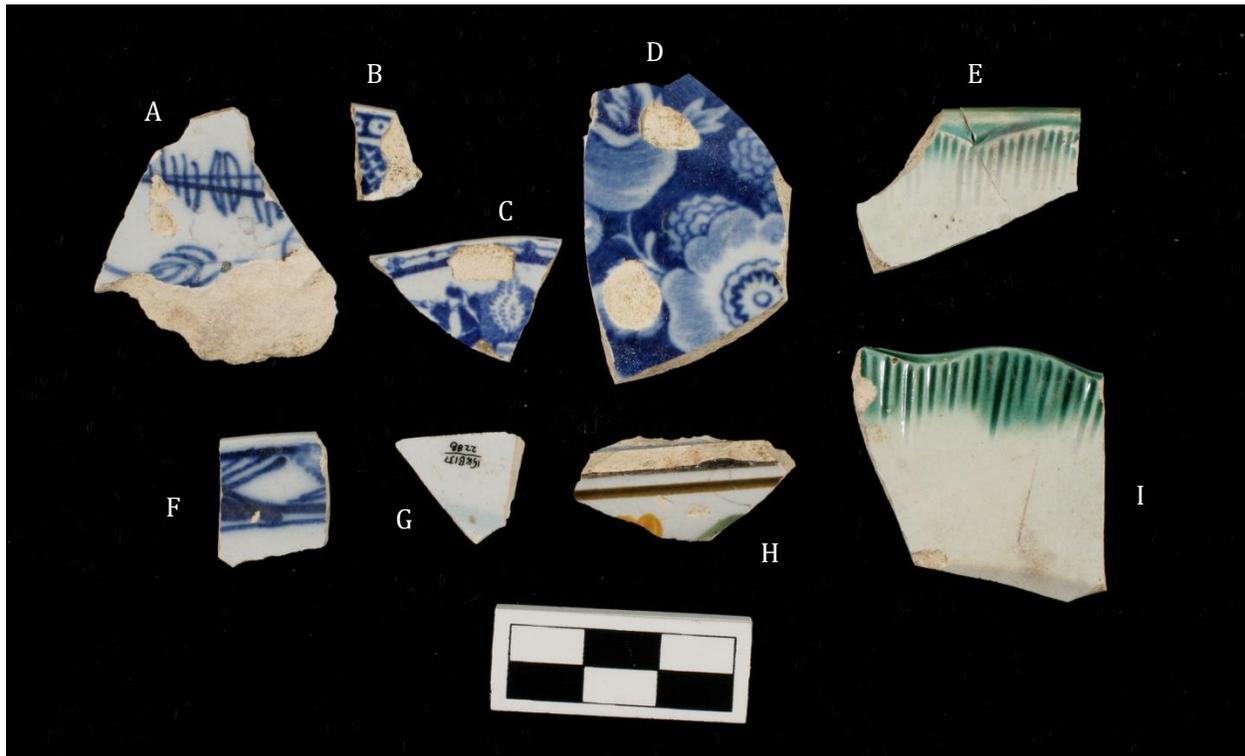


Figure 5-3. Samples of Pearlware from 15BB137. A) Underglazed blue painted plate body; B) underglazed blue transfer printed teacup rim; C) underglazed blue plate rim; D) underglazed blue transfer printed plate rim; E) green shell edge straight plate rim; F) underglazed blue painted teacup rim; G) underglazed blue transfer printed footring with body; H) underglazed painted polychrome with lines and floral motif; I) green shell edge scalloped flatware rim.

5.2.1.1.1.4 Whiteware

Whitewares are non-vitreous and semi-vitreous, white-paste earthenwares which usually have a clear, colorless glaze. Whitewares were first manufactured in England circa 1800, had become popular by the late 1820s, remained common throughout the nineteenth century, and are still being manufactured today. The period of greatest popularity of whiteware was 1830 to 1890 (Majewski and O'Brien 1987:119-125; Miller 1980:16-17; Price 1982). Whiteware occurs in virtually every decorative type that was available in the twentieth century, and decoration type and style can be used as relative temporal indicators. Recent refinements in dating whiteware using decoration and popularity (Fitts 1999; Miller et al. 1994; Wall 1994) enable tighter chronological placement of some whiteware decorative types. Early whiteware defines a decorative group that includes transfer printed, painted, cut sponged, flow-blue, annular banded, shell edge, and embossed edge pattern types. For the most part these decorative types were in limited production and were of limited popularity by 1870 (Lofstrum 1976; Majewski and O'Brien 1987; Miller and Earls 1997).

Painted and printed whitewares enjoyed considerable popularity. Prior to 1828, blue was the usual color of prints, although black and sepia were available to potters. Pastel colors like red, purple, and green were not employed on prints until 1828; these new colors did not reach America until about 1830 (Majewski and O'Brien 1987; Miller 1980). Some archaeological evidence seems to suggest that brown, green, black, and red all went out of production sometime around the middle of the century, and purple may not have outlived these colors by more than ten years (Lofstrum 1976:11). Prints began to diminish in popularity after the mid-1850s; they continued to be produced after 1860, although in such significantly smaller quantities that they do not often appear in the archaeological record after that time (Miller 1980:4). Likewise, the popularity of painted whitewares diminished by 1860.

Between 1830 and 1840, sponged wares became popular, and continued to be produced in the 1880s, typically in blue, red, or green (Robacker and Robacker 1978). Cut-sponged decorated whitewares were popular in the period circa 1840-1860 and are typically floral designs which repeat one or two very simple motifs around the vessel (Majewski and O'Brien 1987). Ray (1974:211-212) describes a variant of spatterware that she classifies as part of the Pennsylvania Dutch style, dating from about 1835 to 1885. Robacker and Robacker (1978:27-50) call this variant "true spatterware," and note that the use of spatter decoration was common from the 1820s until after 1860, but was most popular between 1830 and 1840. Cole (1967:89) suggests somewhat earlier dates (ca. 1820-1860) for this style and describes it as earthenware bordered with stippling in red, blue, and green, similar to those used on hand-painted sprig pattern white-bodied wares. Most vessels also exhibit freehand-painted center designs like peafowl, schoolhouses, or the tulip and rose.

Dipped whitewares are usually simply decorated vessels utilizing annular bands and mocha, or solid color glazes. Mocha was produced in some quantity until circa 1890, but is not common archeologically after the 1830s. Annular bands and rouletted decoration were produced until circa 1860, while solid color glazes became popular in the late nineteenth century. Slip preparations like common cable, finger-painted, and cat's eye seem to have ceased mass-production and distribution by the 1830s.

A total of 259 whiteware sherds were recovered from 15BB137. Examples of whiteware from the site are shown in Figure 5-4. The whiteware assemblage makes up 15.5% of the refined ware assemblage and 8.5% of the ceramic assemblage. Many different decorative types of whiteware were identified. The most common whiteware type from 15BB137 was undecorated whiteware, numbering 132 sherds or 50.9% of the entire whiteware assemblage. This large number of undecorated whiteware is derived from large whiteware vessels that exhibited some type of decoration.

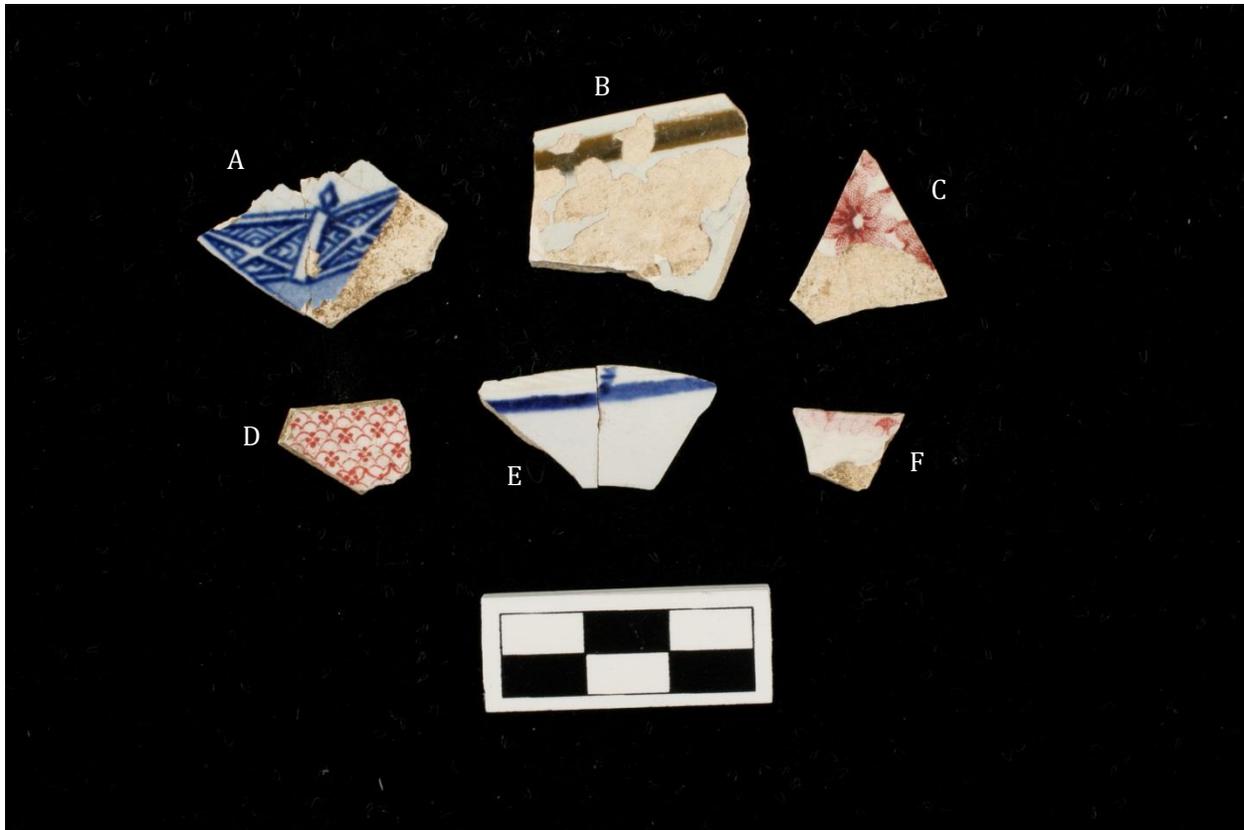


Figure 5-4. Samples of Whiteware from 15BB137. A) Underglazed blue transfer printed plate rim; B) overglazed painted rim; C) underglaze red transfer printed body; D) underglazed red transfer printed body; E) underglaze blue painted teacup body; F) underglazed red transfer printed body.

Decorative types of whiteware within the assemblage that were used primarily for food preparation and in dining contexts are embossed edge, and molded specimens. Underglaze transfer printed sherds are the second most common type in the assemblage, numbering 65 sherds or 25.1% of the whiteware assemblage. Underglaze painted decorated sherds total 27 or 10.4% of the whiteware assemblage. The presence of both expensive and inexpensive decorative types within the ceramic assemblage suggests that informal and formal meals occurred. Inexpensive dishes were likely used for family oriented meals or were utilized by servants, and expensive types were used for special occasions or holidays. More expensive teawares and tablewares, like porcelains, transfer printed pearlware, and transfer printed whiteware, were likely used for special suppers or teas where status display was important.

5.2.1.1.2 Coarseware

Coarsewares (redware and stoneware) numbered 1,506 of the ceramic assemblage from Site 15BB137 or 47.4% of the entire ceramic assemblage. Redwares are non-vitreous wares with red, buff, or brown paste. Although redwares can occur unglazed (such as flower pots), the vessels may have a clear or mottled lead glaze or a black or brown glaze resulting from iron additions to the lead glaze. Redware was manufactured in Kentucky during the early 1800s and continued to be commonly used until about the mid-1800s, when it was largely replaced by stoneware. Due to the abundance of redware makers and the lack of distinguishing characteristics that would identify the maker, redware is a poor temporal indicator.

5.2.1.1.2.1 Redware

Coarse redware represents a large percentage of the coarseware assemblage recovered from Site 15BB137: a total of 1,474 sherds, representing 97.9% of the entire coarseware assemblage from site excavations. Redware was catalogued by glaze coloration and decoration, which for the most part were clear, black, and brown tinted lead glazes. A sample of the redware assemblage is shown in Figure 5-5. The most common redware encountered on the site was redware with a clear lead glaze at 482 sherds or 42.86% of the coarse redware assemblage. Redware glazed with a green tinted glaze numbered 76 sherds or 5.2% of the coarse redware assemblage. The brown tinted lead glazed redware specimens numbered 356 or 24.2% of the redware recovered. The black tinted lead glazed specimens numbered 108 or 7.3% of the coarse redware recovered. Two slip decorated specimens, which were 0.1% of the redware assemblage, were recovered. The most common way to decorate redware is to glaze it in heavy brown or black lead glaze. As such, these wares are very difficult to date with much accuracy because potters over a wide span of time and space used this same technique. Unglazed redware numbered 23 sherds or 1.6% of coarse redware recovered. Damaged redware that had exfoliated surfaces and were eroded to rounded sherds with no glaze visible numbered 370 sherds, representing 25.1% of the coarse redware assemblage.



Figure 5-5. Samples of Redware from 15BB137. A) Clear lead glazed rim with body job/bottle; B, C) lead glazed brown tint plate/bowl rim; D) lead glazed brown tint body with handle; E) lead glazed brown tint base; F) lead glazed brown tint rim with body; G, J) clear lead glazed body with curvilinear incising; H) lead glazed green tint base; I) lead glazed brown tint rim with body; K) lead glazed brown tint base.

5.2.1.1.2.2 Stoneware

Stonewares are semi-vitreous wares, usually glazed, which were made in a great variety of thick, utilitarian forms. Stoneware paste ranges in color from red to buff to brown, and can turn grey during firing. Stoneware is primarily categorized by exterior surface treatment, the most common category of which is salt glazed. Stonewares were made in Europe by the seventeenth century, in England by the eighteenth century, and were in abundance in the United States, including Kentucky, by the mid-nineteenth century. Although salt-glazing was the most common form of glazing, natural clay glazes, known as slip-glazes, were used in America by 1800. A clay would have water added to it to create a fluid suspension into which a vessel would be dipped. The most famous of the slip glazes was Albany slip produced from superior clays in the New York area during the last quarter of the nineteenth century. Albany slip ranges in color from light brown to black, and was ubiquitous in the Midwest from 1830 to 1900 (Phillipe 1990:80). But other clays were used to produce slips almost identical to Albany slip by 1800 (Zug 1986). In the Deep South, salt-glazing and cobalt (blue) decoration was uncommon. Salt was often too expensive and scarce for utilitarian wares in rural areas of the South, making brown slip glazed vessels the most common and economical stoneware (Zug 1986). By the 1820s, southern potters were developing a form of alkaline glazing that used readily available ingredients which were inexpensive and abundant (Burrison 1983; Zug 1986). The alkaline glazes used an alkaline substance like wood-ash or lime in combination with a silica-bearing material like sand. When a clay is added to this substance to bond the suspension and contribute color, the result is a translucent, runny glaze which dripped down the ware in a wide variation of brown and green shades of color (Zug 1986). By the late nineteenth century, another glaze came to be used, often in combination with true Albany slip. Bristol glaze or slip is white and was introduced into the United States from Britain by circa 1884 (Greer 1981). Bristol slip was used in combination with Albany slip by 1920 (Lebo 1987). After 1920, Bristol slip generally occurred alone (Lebo 1987:132).

Stoneware recovered from Site 15BB137 totaled 32 sherds or 2.1% of the coarseware assemblage. Thirty-one of the stoneware specimens were salt glazed and one was unidentified. Figure 5-6 shows an example of stonewares from the ceramic assemblage.

5.2.1.2 Container Glass

Container glass, like ceramic sherds, constitutes one of the most important components of a historic assemblage. Like domestic ceramics, these artifacts convey significant chronological, functional, and social information. Analysis offers an important source of data about the period of occupation of the site, the kinds of activities undertaken there, and potentially the social or ethnic status of the occupants. Studies of bottle glass have isolated the significant chronological characteristics of these vessels.

5.2.1.2.1 Bottle/Jar Glass

European and American bottles were free blown and shaped to the vessel form, or were blown into simple dip molds. Dip molds are single component iron or wooden molds that give the body of the vessel its shape. These molds can only be square or cylindrical with the basal area being smaller or the same width as the shoulder area. Dip molds continued to be used as late as 1860 (Deiss 1981:12-18). Multipart molds having dip molded bodies (Rickett's molds) were produced into the 1920s, however (Jones and Sullivan 1985). To finish the neck of these early bottles, a glass-tipped 4.45 rod (pontil) was attached to the bottle base to provide a means of holding it. Early types of finishing included fire-polished, flanged, folded, and applied string. All of these finishes persisted until the 1840s to 1870s, when they were replaced by improved methods (Deiss 1981:18-24; Jones and Sullivan 1985; Jones 1971).



Figure 5-6. Samples of Stoneware from 15BB137. A) Salt glazed undecorated jug/jar base; B) salt glazed undecorated jug rim; C) salt glazed undecorated body; D) salt glazed undecorated body.

English bottle manufacturers used simple two-piece molds to make proprietary medicine bottles since the mid-1700s, and by 1800, American bottle makers were also using two-piece molds. These molds were hinged at the base or shoulder and may be referred to as open and shut molds. Bottles could be shaped in any form, square, round, or multi-sided. Consequently, polygonal bottle forms were very popular in the mid-nineteenth century (Deiss 1981:62).

These molds enabled embossed lettering to be put on the fronts, backs, sides, and shoulders of the bottles (Jones and Sullivan 1985) and Gothic-style lettering was the most common style used until ca. 1850 (Deiss 1981:48-49). Liquor flasks made in two-piece molds were introduced ca. 1810 and were very popular by 1830. Embellished with a wide variety of molded or pictorial images, flasks remained popular until after the mid-1800s (Deiss 1981:62-65). Removable plates or panels that could be inserted into the mold were patented in 1867 (Jones and Sullivan 1985). These panels or plates were often embossed with the manufacturer's name, product name, and city of manufacture, and could be used to personalize large shipments of bottles. This became popularly used on pharmaceutical and bitters bottles. Two-piece molds were eventually eclipsed by multipart open and shut molds by 1850. These molds are similar to two-piece molds, but have a separate base plate.

During the period 1840 to 1860, the two-piece and multi-part open and shut molds were the most popular mold types (Jones and Sullivan 1985). Vessel finishes (lip and necks) could still be hand formed by applying additional glass to the vessel and hand shaping a lip. By the 1820s, lipping shears were being used to shape the inside of the bottle, producing a standardized form known as an applied-tooled finish, which was most common from about 1840 to 1870. Open and shut molds, dip molds, and

multipart dip molds were all popularly used molds in the nineteenth century. Another mold, the turn-mold or turn-paste mold was developed and used in France on wine bottles as early as 1860 (Jones and Sullivan 1985). This mold type leaves no mold seams. In America, this mold type was most frequently used for wine and other beverages from 1870 to the 1920s (Jones and Sullivan 1985).

Even though molds are the most often used method to establish the manufacturing date of glass vessels, changes in the glass formula and innovations in overall glass vessel manufacture can aid in establishing chronology. For example, although the soda-lime formula was in use to make moderately clear glass for many centuries, a modified form of the soda-lime formula was developed in 1864 that revolutionized the glass industry in that it was less brittle and could be molded, cut, and engraved easily (Jones and Sullivan 1985). Because of this new formula, decorated and highly colored glass became cheaper and easier to produce, allowing it to be affordable and subsequently popular after the 1870s (Innes 1976; Jones and Sullivan 1985). By 1880, manganese oxide was used in molten glass as a decolorizer. Glass containers made with manganese oxide turn purple or amethyst when exposed to sunlight. Selenium began replacing manganese oxide as a decolorizer by 1915, and the replacement was complete by 1918 (Deiss 1981:78-83). Selenium glass when exposed to ultraviolet rays becomes a straw yellow color.

Another turning point in the glass industry occurred between 1850 and 1860, with the development of a device called the snap case. This implement held the vessel while the neck and lip were finished. No longer was a pontil rod attached to the base of a glass vessel. Other innovations occurred to revolutionize glass production. By the 1870s, finishes incorporated in the mold had become common. This type, involving the reheating and tooling of the finish to eradicate mold seams on the lip, is referred to as the improved-tooled finish. Improvements in annealing ovens also helped to totally fuse the lip to the neck. Bottle lips were no longer distinctly separate bits of glass. Molds with incorporated finishes predominated until the early twentieth century, when automated glass vessel manufacture replaced less efficient processes (Deiss 1981:54-59).

By 1884 and 1892, semi-automatic manufacture of wide and small mouth containers was possible. The only difference between semi-automatic manufacture and automatic manufacture is the way that the melted glass is passed to the machine. In semi-automatic manufacture, the glass is introduced by skilled laborers and in automatic manufacture; the glass is introduced mechanically to the machine. It was not until the perfection of the Owen's machine in 1903 that fully automatic bottle manufacture was possible. This machine leaves a distinct mark on the base of the vessel. By 1917, 50 percent of glass containers were machine-made using this machine (Miller and Sullivan 1984). Vessels made using the Owen's machine are not found in archaeological contexts after 1970 (Miller and Sullivan 1984). Also, during the late nineteenth and early twentieth century's, semi-automatic machines continued to be used and modified for automatic manufacture through the development of glass feeding devices like the Peeler Paddle Gob Feeder (Miller and Sullivan 1984). Vessels made by semi-automatic machines are indistinguishable from vessels made on other machines (except the Owen's machine). The precision of automatic manufacturing enabled the standardization of continuous thread finishes, and screw caps replaced other forms of non-pressurized sealing.

There were 196 glass bottle/jar fragments recovered from site 15BB137. Of these, 100 are of unknown manufacture, three are embossed with recessed panels, one is machine made and 92 are multipart mold/separate base. All of the multipart fragments are from a single vessel found in the first zone of a unit. It is probably post-occupation deposition. A sample of the bottle/jar assemblage is shown in Figure 5-7.



Figure 5-7. Sample Bottle/Jar Glass from 15BB137. A) Dark green body, unidentified manufacture; B) clear leaded, unidentified manufacture, burned; C) light aqua, leaded, base; D) dark green body, unidentified manufacture; E) light green, medicine bottle base, pontil, slighted melted; F) colorless/clear unleaded, base, unidentified manufacture.

5.2.1.2.2 Table Glass

The manufacture of glass tableware is a somewhat problematic process. In many cases, discerning the manufacture type is not helpful in answering questions concerning chronology. Processes used to make tableware were used over long periods of time. These processes include free blowing, press molding, optic molding, and pattern molding. Most of these methods are still used to lesser degrees today.

Free blowing is still used today to make tableware. Eighteenth and nineteenth century glass was also formed by hand. Usually these pieces are distinctive to specific glass houses and their age can be determined if the manufacturing house can be ascertained. For instance, table glass produced at the Stiegle glass house had a distinctive smoky color and specific stylistic motifs were patented and developed by glass houses for their use.

Although the process of press molding glass had been used to make door knobs and stemware feet, by the late 1820s, press molding hollowware became possible. Pressed glass made in the first few decades of the nineteenth century was often decorated with relief motifs, including classical busts, and a finely stippled or matte background that hid defects in the glass and mold seams. These highly decorated pieces, usually made using leaded glass, reflected light and were aptly referred to as “lacy glass”. By the 1850s, improvements in manufacturing eliminated the need to hide defects. By the 1870s, the popularity of pressed glass increased as white, multi-colored, and other new shades of glass became affordable due to improvements in the glass formula (Deiss 1981:71-76; Davis 1949; Innes 1976; McKearin and

McKearin 1948). The new glass formula resembled leaded formulas and was used extensively in press-molding after the 1870s. Consequently, press molded, leaded tableware is uncommon on American sites after 1870 (McKearin and McKearin 1948:395).

More elaborate combinations of decoration types and color became popular in press molded table glass after 1870 (Innes 1976). Carnival glass, for example, often given away as prizes at carnivals and fairs, was made by coating pressed glass with metallic paint to simulate more-expensive wares. Carnival glass was produced from the late 1890s to the 1930s (Deiss 1981:86).

Optic molding was used to make tableware during the eighteenth century. Optic molding, never a popular form of manufacture, was eclipsed by press molding early in the nineteenth century. By the late nineteenth century, optic molding had a resurgence in popularity. This molding type was used predominantly for tableware, specifically tumblers. It is a distinctive molding style involving a two-stage process. The vessel is formed by blowing glass into a part-size mold. This gives the vessel a rudimentary shape and decoration on the interior of the vessel. The vessel is then placed in another mold that provides the final shape to the vessel. This type of molding is easy to identify as the interior of the vessel will often have a totally different decoration than the exterior of the vessel.

The process of pattern molding has been used for several centuries but was most popular in the late eighteenth and early to mid-nineteenth centuries (Jones and Sullivan 1985). This method involves two stages. Glass is blown into a mold that imparts the rudimentary shape and decoration to the vessel. Usually the decorations are simple ribs, panels, and stars. The partially blown vessel is then removed from the parison and its final shape is free blown. The enlargement of the vessel causes the decorations to become very diffuse.

Although these methods of manufacture alone are not useful in determining chronology, decorative style can be used to temporally place a vessel. Decorative styles changed over time in table glass. For example, after 1870 naturalistic designs featuring animals and flowers became popular, eclipsing the geometric motifs of the earlier part of the nineteenth century (Innes 1976).

Twenty-six table glass specimens were recovered from 15BB137. Twenty of the specimens are of unknown manufacture, two are press molded, three are pattern molded and one is blown molded. Seventeen of the specimens are body fragments, one is a base fragment and eight are lip fragments. A sample of the table glass artifacts are shown in Figure 5-8.

5.2.1.3 Other Kitchen

Other kitchen material includes metal and bone artifacts such as forks and kettles. Two table forks, four table knives, and two table spoons were recovered. One kettle fragment, two pot fragments, one skillet fragment, and three hollowware fragments were recovered. Seven tin can fragments and 24 unidentified kitchen metal were also recovered. One bone handle and one metal utensil handle were recovered. A sample of the other kitchen artifacts is shown in Figure 5-9.

5.2.2 Architecture Group

Artifacts assigned to this group include all items associated with construction and hardware furnishings. The major categories of this group are described below. A total of 13,963 architectural artifacts were recovered from Site 15BB137. Table 5-5 shows all architectural artifacts recovered.



Figure 5-8. Sample Table Glass from 15BB137. A) Undetermined lip, undetermined manufacture, colorless/clear unleaded; B) body, unidentified manufacture, olive green; C) lip, press molded, shell-patterned, clear; D) body, unidentified color, leaded, molded design; E) lip, unidentified manufacture, colorless/clear unleaded.



Figure 5-9. Sample of Other Kitchen Artifacts from 15BB137. A) A cast iron kettle/pot base with leg; B) two prong fork fragments; C) utensil handle; D) knife.

Table 5-5. Architecture Group Artifacts.

Artifact	Number	Percentage
Nails	1580	9.1
Fasteners, etc.	16	0.1
Other Metal	29	0.2
Brick	1657	9.6
Burned Clay	831	4.8
Mortar	11991	69.3
Flat Glass	1182	6.8
Other	11	0.1
Total	17297	100.0

5.2.2.1 Nails

Like ceramics and glass, nails form one of the most widespread categories of artifacts recovered from historic sites. As with many other materials, increasing industrialization has had a major impact on the manufacturing of nails and associated hardware. Archaeologists have devoted considerable attention to nails in order to identify their chronologically significant characteristics (Nelson 1968). These are identified by manufacturing process (wrought, cut, wire) and, when possible, their size. The number of nails recovered totaled 1,580. Table 5-6 shows the nails recovered from the site, broken down by general type. Figure 5-10 shows an example of the nails recovered from Site 15BB137. These different types of nails are discussed below.

Table 5-6. Nails.

Type	Number	Percentage
Cut Unspecified	451	28.5
Early Cut	731	46.3
Late Cut	301	19.1
Unidentified	23	1.5
Wire	1	0.0
Wrought	73	4.6
Total	1580	100.0

5.2.2.1.1 Wrought Nails

Wrought nails are the earliest form of iron nails, and were made by hand, usually in a local smithy or forge. Typically these nails are square or rectangular in cross section, and taper on all four sides towards the point. Wrought nails were in common use until approximately the 1830s and 1840s. Seventy-three wrought nails were recovered from Site 15BB137.

5.2.2.1.2 Cut Nails

Cut nails are stamped from a sheet of steel, and consequently taper on two sides only. The artifacts show some variation between early and late forms. Early cut nails have a constricted shank just below



Figure 5-10. Sample Nails from 15BB137. A) early cut nail, 4d, unaltered; B) early cut nail, 8d clinched; C) late cut nail, 4d, unaltered; D) late cut nail, 6d, unaltered; E) late cut nail, 8d unaltered.

the head, and were first produced in the late 1790s Nelson 1968). Later cut nails are not constricted below the head, and were in general use by the late 1830s Nelson 1968). Cut nails are still made and used today for special purposes. Seven hundred and thirty-one early cut nails or 46.3% of the total nail assemblage was recovered from the site. With a total of 301, the late cut assemblage comprises 19.1% of the entire nail assemblage. Twenty-three unidentifiable cut nails were also recovered from the site. A reanalysis of a random sample of late cut nails suggests that they are more likely to be the 5c nails in Edward and Wells (1993) which date between 1810 and 1836 or Intermediate nails as identified by Phillips which date to between 1810 and 1840 (1994). They may also be the cut nails described by Nelson (1968) as cut nails that were cut from common sides and have crude machine-made heads and date to 1815 to 1830s or cut nails cut from opposite sides with crude machine-made heads and date from the 1820s to the 1830s. The typical late cut nails are described as cut from opposite sides with perfected machine-made heads and date from 1830s to present.

5.2.2.1.3 Wire Nails

Wire nails are made by cutting hardened steel wire and are round in cross-section. Wire nails were first produced in the 1850s, but were not commonly used until the 1880s. These are the dominant type manufactured today (Nelson 1968). One wire nail was recovered from the site.

Besides nail types, nail sizes can be telling as well (Table 5-7). Numerous studies over the past several years have been used to determine the types of structures at archaeological sites using nail length and type and keying these to nineteenth century building manuals (see Lees 1986; McCorvie et al. 1989;

Table 5-7. Whole Nail Type and Size from 15BB137.

Nail Type	Condition	Penny Weight									Total	
		2d	3d	4d	5d	6d	7d	8d	9d	10d		12d
Wrought	Clinched				2		3	2	1		1	9
	Pulled			3	2	1	3	2	1	1	1	14
	Unaltered			1	1	4	3	7	3		1	20
<i>Wrought Total</i>				4	5	5	9	11	5	1	3	43
Early Cut	Clinched		1	2	1	1	5	10	6			26
	Pulled	1	6	45	1	10	18	27	15	2	1	126
	Unaltered	9	24	327	3	33	31	48	12			487
<i>Early Cut Total</i>		10	31	374	5	44	54	85	33	2	1	639
Late Cut	Clinched			1	1		1	2	1			6
	Pulled		3	15	1	4	5	8	15	1	1	53
	Unaltered	6	6	103	11	9	15	8	5		1	164
<i>Late Cut Total</i>		6	9	119	13	13	21	18	21	1	2	223
Grand Total		16	40	497	23	62	84	114	59	4	6	906

Wagner and McCorvie et al. 1992; Young and Carr 1989). Nineteenth century building manuals provide corroboration of the archaeological findings (e.g. Anon 1855; Peddie 1833). A determination of log or frame structures has been noted by Lees (1986) based on nail size. This theory is that heavy framing nails such as 9 d. to 40 d. or pennyweight would most likely be used on a frame structure. A log structure would have little use for the large nails since it uses the logs themselves to frame the windows, doors, roof, and possibly a floor.

Similarly, Young and Carr, have defined two additional nail patterns for timber-frame structures and balloon frame structures (Young and Carr 1989). In timber-frame structures, large timbers were mortised and tenoned together forming the framework for the roof and weather boarding. Nails would be needed for weather boarding, roofing, windows, doors, interior woodwork, and floors. Such nails would vary in size from 4 d. to 10 d. Balloon frame structures became common after the mid-nineteenth century. Instead of the mortise and tenons which required no nails, the balloon frame used nails at the joints to form the frame. Larger heavyweight sized nails would therefore be essential for better holding and support. Unlike the log and timber frame structures, a large quantity of nails 10 d. and larger would be more common. However, the same amount of smaller nails would still be needed for weather boarding, roofing, windows, doors, interior woodwork, and floors (Young and Carr 1989).

Lastly, in all, 45 artifacts were classified as other architectural fasteners and other architectural metal. These included bolts, tacks, spikes, metal band, hinge, wire, washer, and screws.

5.2.2.2 Flat Glass

Flat glass fragments numbered 1,182 or 6.8% of the architectural assemblage (Table 5-5). Flat glass is presumed to have been used in window panes if no other function can be determined, such as for mirrors, table tops, picture frames, etc. During the eighteenth century, flat glass appropriate for windows was cut from a large disk of glass, which was then cut into panes. By the early nineteenth century, glass manufacturers produced broad glass, which may be distinguished by a slight thickening

toward the plate margin, one surface slightly more opaque than the other, and bubbles in the glass usually distorted in straight lines. In the late nineteenth century, machine-made glass, characterized by a uniform thickness, with occasional wavy lines of bubbles, was widely produced. In the early twentieth century, production of sheet pane glass eclipsed other manufacturing processes.

Studies have demonstrated that the measurement of flat glass thickness can be a useful indicator of chronology (Ball 1983b, McBride and Sharp 1991, Moir 1987, Roenke 1978). Using Moir's (1987) formula, a mean window glass date was calculated (Figure 5-11).

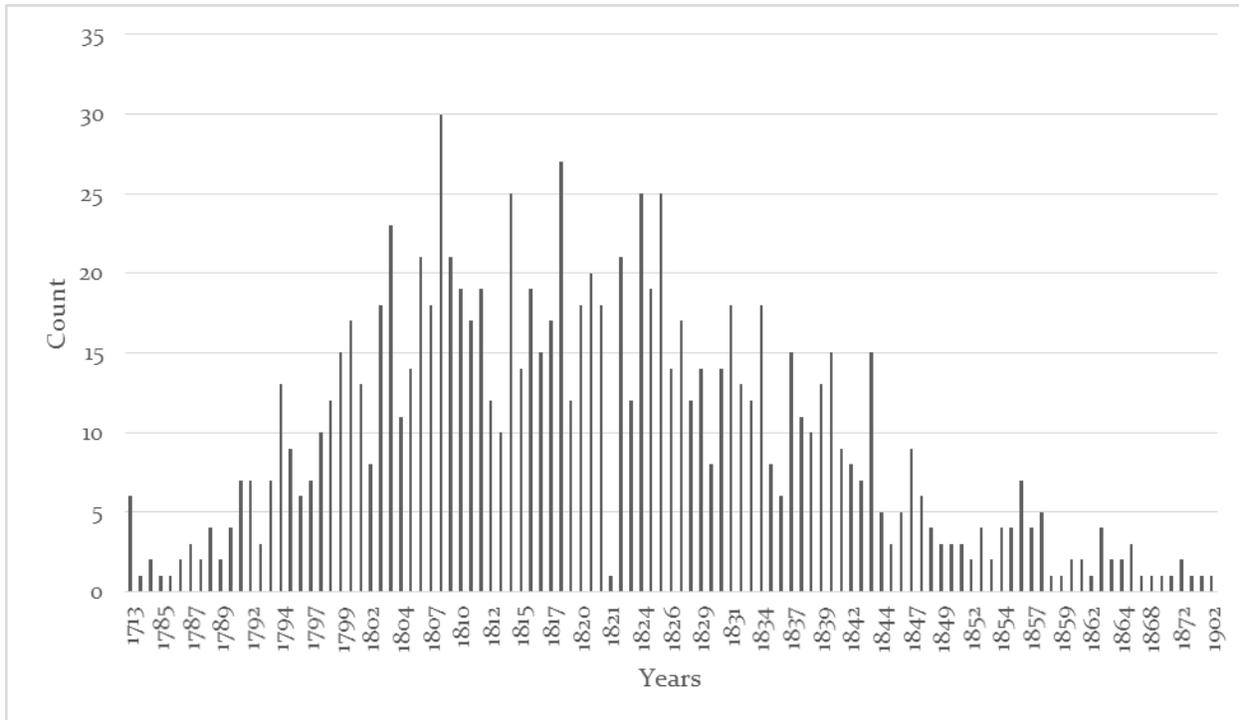


Figure 5-11. Moir Window Glass Dating.

5.2.2.3 Bricks

The manufacturing of bricks changed from locally crafted, handmade varieties to machine-produced during the nineteenth century. With this chronological information in mind, bricks are classified according to method of manufacture (Gurke 1987). The nature of most brick fragments often precludes an accurate assessment of age. However, the identifiable brick in the assemblage which appears to have been machine made.

Bricks and brick fragments numbered 1657 or 9.6% of the total architectural artifacts (Table 5-5). There were 660 fragments of unglazed handmade brick fragments and 16 handmade glazed fragments. A sample of the bricks recovered is shown in Figure 5-12.

5.2.2.4 Other Architectural Material

This category includes other architectural material. It includes burned clay (n=831), other architectural ceramic (n=479), Building stone (n=1), lumber (n=2), mortar (n=11,991), other architectural stone (n=2), roofing slate (n=5), and unidentified architectural stone (n=1).



Figure 5-12. Sample Bricks from 15BB137. A) Handmade brick; B) handmade brick.

5.2.3 Furniture Group

A variety of artifacts associated with furnishings and household fixtures are often recovered in small numbers from historic sites. Examples of these include lamp globe or chimney parts, mirror glass, faucet parts, fireplace equipment, clock parts, draw pulls, flower pots and similar items (Thuro 1976).

Glass chimney fragments comprised 29 of the 30 furniture group assemblage artifacts. The chimney glass fragments were all body fragments. The lack of later nineteenth century crimped rims is indicative of a late eighteenth/early nineteenth century occupation. All of these specimens contained lead. The presence of lead also supports the late eighteenth/early nineteenth century occupation of the site, as leaded glass was most common up until about 1864 when an inexpensive fine quality soda-lime glass was first produced and became preferred (McKearin and McKearin 1948; Thuro 1976).

The other furniture group artifact was a copper/brass ferrule.

5.2.4 Arms Group

This category includes firearm parts, lead balls or bullets, cartridge casings, percussion caps, bullet molds, lead sprue, powder horn parts, and gunflints (Brussard 1993). A total of two arms related artifacts were recovered from Site 15BB137. The arms group assemblage consists of two gunflints. One of the gunflints was made from local chert and the other from English flint. An example of the arms related artifacts recovered from the site are shown in Figure 5-13.

5.2.5 Clothing Group

This category of artifacts consists of artifacts associated with clothing, such as buttons, collar studs, buckles, shoe leather, irons, eyelets, garter snaps, thimbles, safety pins, and hooks and eyes (Luscomb 1967). The presence of clothing items in an assemblage can aid in discussing activities that might have occurred at a site, as well as discussions of lifestyle. Clothing at Champ's Farmstead consisted of 36



Figure 5-13. Gun Flint from 15BB137. A) English grey/black gunflint.

artifacts which is 0.2% of the entire artifact assemblage. Examples of clothing related artifacts from the site are shown in Figure 5-14.

5.2.5.1 Buttons

Excavation of the Champ's Farmstead yielded an assemblage of 21 buttons. Buttons represent 60% of the Clothing group assemblage artifacts. Brass and white metal buttons were identified within the assemblage. The brass buttons were flat disc types with eyelets (n=4) and four-hole stamped (n=1). The white metal buttons were also flat disc types with eyelets (n=7) and were either plain (n=3), stamped (n=3), or silver plated (n=1). Three buttons were of unidentified metal. The bone buttons were disc types with a single hole in the center (n=4) and a fragment (n=1). A shell button had four holes and a design on the front.

Based on the typology developed by Stanley South (1964) and described by Noel-Hume (1969:91) several of the buttons were dated. The bone buttons were similar to the Type 15 which dated to between 1726 and 1776. Two brass buttons were similar to the Type 18 which dated to between 1800 and 1830. A four-hole brass button was similar to Type 32 which dated to between 1837 and 1865. A brass button was similar to Type 8 which dated to between 1800 and 1830. An iron/steel button was similar to Type 24 which dated to between 1837 and 1865. A shell button was similar to a Type 22 which dated to between 1800 and 1830.

Precise dating of different types of buttons is difficult. In the decades between 1790 and 1850, there were several changes in manufacturing technology resulting in the introduction of new types of buttons. In general, the advances in button manufacture originated in England, were copied by factories in the United States, and led to increased supplies of buttons at lower prices.



Figure 5-14. Sample of Clothing Group Artifacts from 15BB137. A) Blue glass bead; B) clear, oblong, faceted jewelry bead; C) copper/brass eye of a hook and eye; D) silver plated front iron button; E) copper/brass button, 4 hole; F) copper/brass button with eyelet on back; G) one eyed bone button; H) iron buckle; I) small iron buckle.

Buttons have limited value as temporal indicators, however, because they are so readily recycled. In particular, the buttons used on everyday garments are likely to persist in a domestic economy for several decades as thrifty homemakers save and re-use them. However, particularly for men's and women's dress clothing and outer wear, styles of buttons change with fashion, and one or another type of button might be associated with a different era. Buttons or clothing, in general, has also been linked to degree of gentility (see Martin and Mansberger 1987).

5.2.5.2 Beads

Two beads were recovered from Champ's Farmstead. One bead was blue, faceted, and unleaded. The other was a clear unleaded faceted bead. The faceted beads may have been worn as jewelry.

Beads have been classified by size and manufacturing process. Seed beads are small and were usually sewn into clothing or strung together as jewelry. Standard beads are larger and had a variety of uses (White 2005:82). Four basic types of manufacturing processes were used in the late 17th to early 19th centuries. Drawn beads were made by drawing molten glass into a long tube that could be decorated with colored glass and by twisting the tube of glass. Wound beads were made by winding the molten glass around a wire of mandrel.

5.2.5.3 Buckles

Nine buckles were recovered from Champ's Farmstead. Three were described as belt buckles, one was a shoe buckle and five were described as clothing buckles. These buckles are similar to harness buckles and are undatable (Noel-Hume 1969:86).

5.2.5.4 Hook and Eye

A hook and eye was a small hook used on dresses of the early nineteenth century (White 2005:73-75). Two were recovered from the Champ's Farmstead site.

5.2.6 Personal Group

This category includes objects typically reserved for one person's exclusive use, which often could be carried in a pocket or purse, such as smoking pipes, watches, clasp knives, gaming pieces, toys, jewelry, combs and brushes, coins, etc. (Bradley 2000). Personal artifacts at Champ's Farmstead totaled 20. Examples are shown in Figure 5-15.



Figure 5-15. Sample of Personal Group Artifacts from 15BB137. A) Straight pin, spun head (round); B) copper/brass thimble; C) stoneware/earthenware smoking pipe bowl, dark brown/black glaze, linear design; D) stoneware/earthenware smoking pipe bowl, undecorated; E) toy marble; F) slate pencil; G) pocket knife; H) lead amulet; I) slate writing tablet.

5.2.6.1 Smoking Artifacts

A total of seven pipe fragments were recovered from various parts of Champ's Inn. Five of the smoking pipe bowl fragments were Stoneware/earthenware. One white clay pipe stem and one stoneware/earthenware pipe stem were also recovered.

5.2.6.2 Sewing

Three sewing artifacts were recovered from the site or 15% of the personal assemblage. Two of the sewing artifacts were pins and one was a thimble.

5.2.6.3 Toys

One toy marble was recovered from the site. Stone or calcareous limestone marbles were a popular German import from the early eighteenth century until about 1915 with a high peak around the mid-nineteenth century (Randall 1971:102). These types of marbles have been found on such sites in southern Illinois and Kentucky as the Old Landmark Tavern (Wagner and McCorvie 1992), the Davis Site (McCorvie et al. 1987), the Rose Hotel (Wagner and Butler 1999), the Enos Hardin Farmstead (Andrews and Sandefur 2003), and the Arnold Farmstead (Andrews et al. 2004).

5.2.6.4 Pocket Knife

Two pocket knives were recovered from the site.

5.2.6.5 Writing Instruments

Two slate pencil fragments and three writing slate fragments were recovered from the site.

5.2.6.6 Religious

One drilled metal disc was recovered (Figure 5-16). The disc was made of white metal. Drilled coins, often silver, have been associated with African American slaves in habitation or cemetery contexts (Davidson 2004; Young 1996). The coins were used as charms to ward off spells. The shiny metal would reflect the spells. The white metal could have been polished and served as a charm. Drilled coins used as charms were originally developed by Euro-Americans (Davidson 2004).



Figure 5-16. Obverse and Reverse of Drilled Metal Disc.

The metal disc was corroded and not patterns or decoration was visible. Baking soda and water was used to clean the artifact, but was not very successful. Electrolysis was not attempted since it could have destroyed the artifact.

The metal disc could have been jewelry, a medallion, or an identification tag. It could have been worn by a slave or a member of the Champ family. It was recovered from Test Unit 22, which was part of the cellar feature near what is believed to be the kitchen.

5.2.6.7 Other Personal

One quartz fragment was recovered from the site.

5.2.7 Transportation Group

Artifacts assigned to this category include those associated with any form of wheeled transport, and those associated with horse, mule or ox harnessing and shoeing (Light 2000). Transportation artifacts numbered 31 in all and make up only 0.2% of the entire site assemblage. A sample of the transportation group artifacts are shown in Figure 5-17.



Figure 5-17. Sample of Transportation Group Artifacts from 15BB137. A) Metal wagon part; B) large metal animal shoe.

5.2.7.1 Animal Shoe Parts

Two animal shoe fragments were recovered from the site. In addition, 24 animal shoe nails were recovered from the site.

5.2.7.2 Harness and Tackle Parts

One harness tackle item was recovered from the site.

5.2.7.3 Wagon/Carriage Parts

Two wagon and/or carriage parts were recovered from the site.

5.2.7.4 Unidentified Transportation

Two fragments of unidentified transportation metal were recovered from the site.

5.2.8 Fuel Group

This category includes items such as coal, coal cinders, ash, slag, and charcoal. Coal was adopted as a primary fuel in the middle to late nineteenth century, prior to which firewood and charcoal were used both domestically and commercially as an energy source. Thirteen fuel artifacts were recovered from the site or 0.1% of the entire site assemblage. Three artifacts were coal and ten artifacts were charcoal.

5.2.9 Tools/Activity Group

This category includes items associated with any type of job activity that occurs on a site such as tools associated with agricultural activities, woodworking, iron smithing, and general farm maintenance. A total of 28 artifacts were recovered from the site or 2.8% of the total assemblage. Figure 5-18 illustrates some examples of the artifacts from the tools and activities group.



Figure 5-18. Sample of Tools/Activity Group Artifacts from 15BB137. A, D) Unidentified machinery metal; B) plow or kettle fragment; C) unidentified plow part; E) other unidentified metal.

Tools recovered from the Champ House include bucket/pail parts (n=14) and a large hook.

Machinery artifacts recovered from the site include a plow part, two other parts and five unidentified parts.

The other category includes four chain link fragments and a rivet.

5.2.9.1 Other Group

This category includes all materials that are not readily assignable to a major group or are unidentifiable. Items in this category include, for example, unidentified rusted metal artifacts and fragments of synthetic materials such as plastic, etc.

A total of 190 artifacts in this category were recovered from site 15BB137. Of these the majority were metal (n=167; 87.9%) followed by ceramic (n=13; 6.8%), stone (n=4; 2.1%), other (n=3; 1.6%), biological (n=2; 1.1%), and plastic (n=1; 0.5%).

5.3 Summary

As noted in the historical background, Champ's Farmstead was occupied from 1787 until 1827. Artifacts are typical of late eighteenth and early nineteenth century occupations. The artifacts typical of the period of occupation are creamwares, pearlwares, redware, whiteware wrought nails, early cut nails, and late cut nails.

Artifacts also indicate that the Champ household was engaged in all manner of domestic activity from food preparation and storage, to clothing repair and manufacture, to food. The presence of harness buckles, bridle parts, and carriage and/or wagon parts suggest that the Thomas and Mary Champ owned and cared for horses.

In summary, artifacts from Champ's Farmstead indicate that the site represents the remains of a farmstead. These artifacts of material culture provide a database for the examination of many aspects of life at the farmstead. The archaeological assemblage from the features at Champ's Farmstead represents the remains of objects of material culture that were purchased by the Champ household from retailers in Paris or further abroad. Their recovery at the site provides an opportunity, explored in the following chapters, to examine both the built environment of the farmstead (Section Seven), and the role these objects played in the expression of the social relations and ideas of domestic and public life of the Champ family (Sections 8 and 9). Artifacts as objects of material culture express identity, gender, social status, gentility and breeding, as well as patterns of wealth and consumption. Their examination in the following analytical chapters illustrates both the strength of archaeological models developed for historic archaeology, and the failure of historic records to provide a complete picture of those social and economic forces that shaped American identity and social life during the post-Revolutionary period along the Maysville Road.

Section 6 -

Field Results

Phase III data recovery investigations were undertaken by CDM Smith archaeologists at the Thomas and Mary Champ House, Site 15BB137, between October 3 and December 13, 2011. Site 15BB137 was an historic farmstead dating to the early eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. Test excavation revealed evidence of a house including a chimney base and other features. Artifacts and archival information indicate that the site was the farmstead of Thomas Champ, who purchased the 200 acres of land in 1787. Thomas Champ's house and twenty-five acres of land was willed to his daughter, Mary Champ, in 1808. Mary Champ sold the land to her brother, Robert Champ, in 1827.

6.1 Location and Site Description

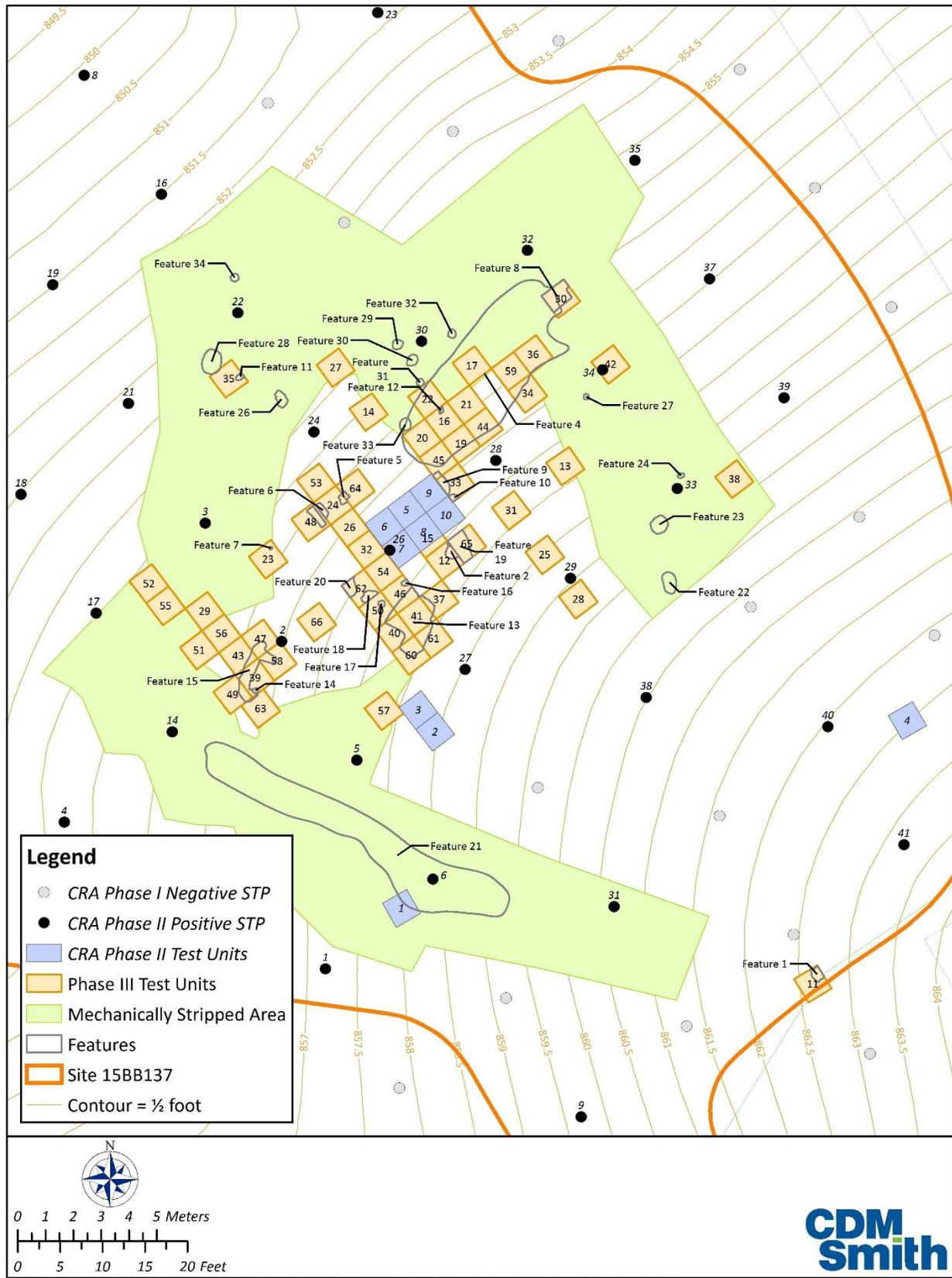
Site 15BB137, was located along Maysville Road, U.S. 68, in Bourbon County between Paris and Millersburg, Kentucky. The site is located on a level undissected upland at an elevation of 860 feet AMSL. An unnamed tributary of Flat Run Creek is located 20 meters to the north of the site. The site size is approximately 35 meters east-west and 55 meters north-south. The site consisted of the archaeological remains of a historic house and associated features.

6.2 Previous Investigations

The Thomas and Mary Champ house was initially located during Phase I archaeological survey for the U.S. 68 improvements (King 2003). The site was identified as an early nineteenth through twentieth century site located adjacent to US 68 in Bourbon County, Kentucky. The Phase I survey consisted of shovel probes at 5 m intervals (Figure 6-1). The site size was found to be .48 acres (.19 ha) and measure 35 m east to west and 55 m north to south. It is bounded by US 68 on the south and a driveway on the eastern part of the site. A total of 125 historic artifacts were recovered including cut nails, pearlware, redware, and window glass. Window glass measurements indicated an early date of 1797 and a maximum date of 1835. Phase II investigations (Bundy 2006) consisted of archival research, ten test units (Figure 6-1), and magnetic gradient survey. Features located in the cluster of units (Test Units 5 - 10) appear to be related to Features 4a and Feature 9 from the Phase III investigations. The magnetic gradient survey did not located clear evidence of structural remains or features. Artifacts recovered from the units combined with the archival information indicate that the site was abandoned by 1840 or before. A total of 2,154 historic artifacts were recovered from unit and feature excavations at Site 15BB137. Excavations and analysis of cultural material from 15BB137, as well as those from sites 15BB131, 15BB132, and 15BB133 will be used to narrow the occupation span of the sites and place the sites within the historic context of the development and demise of the Maysville Road as an immigration and commercial corridor during the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries.

6.3 Phase III Excavations

Phase III investigations were conducted between October 3rd, 2011 and December 15th, 2011. The investigations consisted of test unit excavation and mechanical stripping. Unit numbering was continued from the CRA Phase II investigations. Feature were recorded as they were encountered beginning anew with from the CRA investigations.



Legend

- CRA Phase I Negative STP
- CRA Phase II Positive STP
- CRA Phase II Test Units
- Phase III Test Units
- Mechanically Stripped Area
- Features
- Site 15BB137
- Contour = 1/2 foot

0 1 2 3 4 5 Meters

0 5 10 15 20 Feet



beverlyh: G:\Environmental\Archaeology\KYTC Statewide Projects\2011-2012\Bourbon County Phase III - I. Champs Inn\GIS\Report\Champs Inn - Phase III - Excavation Units and Features.mxd 3/19/2015

Figure 6-1. 15BB137 Excavation Units and Features.

Ten (10) 1 x 1 meter test units were excavated by CRA during the Phase II investigations. Fifty-five (55) 1 x 1 meter test units were excavated during the Phase III investigations (Figure 6-1). The area was then stripped to the subsoil by a backhoe. The limit of the mechanical striping is also shown in Figure 6-1.

The research goals for the project included understanding the site structure and how it changed over time and changes in the material culture of the Champs over time and how that reflects changes in activities and economic status. In order to accomplish those goals evidence of structures such as the house and outbuildings needed to be located. Stratified deposits in features or middens needed to be located to observe the changes in the occupation over time. The initial placement of test units was based on artifact densities and features from the previous excavations and from information from remote sensing. An anomaly, Cluster 3, was located near the cluster of six test units from the Phase II investigations. Test units were also placed to determine variation in artifacts densities and to locate features and activity areas. Once features were located additional units were excavated to determine the limits and nature of the features.

Many of the test units were placed near the possible architectural features. Twelve test units were placed at the cellar (Features 4a and 4b). Seven units were placed at the chimney foundation (Feature 13) and six units were placed at the undetermined architectural feature (Feature 15). Several test units (51, 52, 55, 56, and 57) were placed to locate building corner stones or post molds.

After the test units were excavated the area was stripped to subsoil with a backhoe. The area stripped is shown in Figure 6-1. Fourteen features were located during the stripping. Due to budget and time constraints, the entire area could not be excavated. The focus of the mechanical excavation was to locate house or cellar related features and to locate trash or privy features.

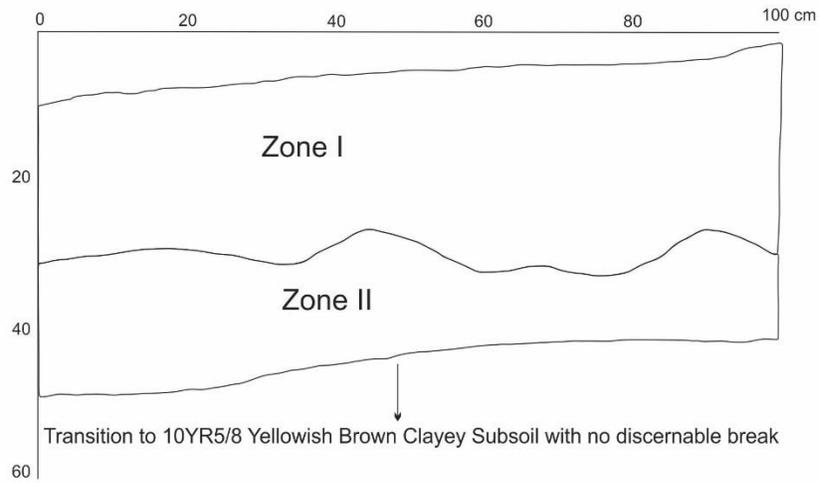
6.3.1 Stratigraphy

The soils profiles encountered at 15BB137 usually consisted of two zones. Test units which included features, such as the cellar (Feature 4a and 4b) consisted of three zones. The units had a profile that included a 20 to 30 cm consisting a brown (10YR4/3) to a dark grayish brown (10YR4/2) and very dark grayish brown (10YR3/2) to dark brown (10YR3/3) silty loam modern Ap horizon (Zone I). The second zone (Zone II) range from 10 to 20 cm and consisted of brown (10YR4/3), dark yellowish brown (10YR3/6), and very dark grayish brown (10YR3/2) silty clay loam. The subsoil consisted of yellowish brown (10YR5/6 and 10YR5/8), and brown (10YR4/3) clay.

Fifty-five (55) test units were placed throughout the site area (see Figure 6-1). Typical profiles for the site are shown in the east wall profile of Test Unit 13 (Figure 6-2 and Figure 6-3), the north wall profile of Test Unit 27 (Figure 6-4 and Figure 6-5). The north wall profile of Test Units 36 (Figure 6-6 and Figure 6-7).



Figure 6-2. Test Unit 13 East Wall Profile Photo.



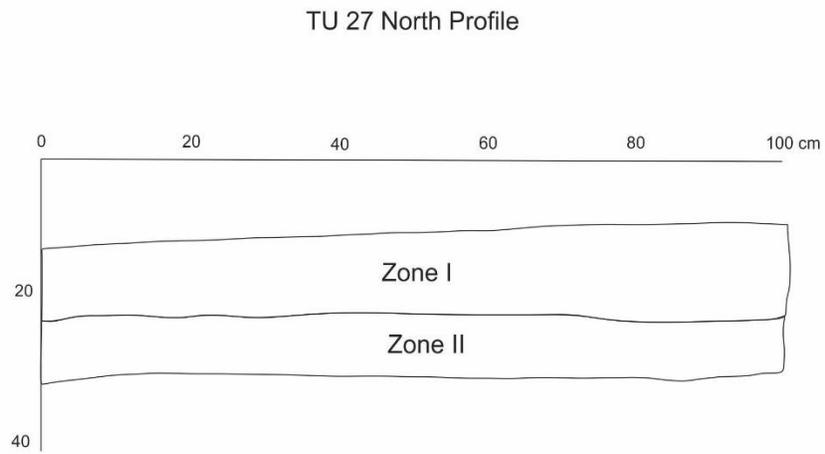
Zone I: 10YR4/2 Dark Grayish Brown Silty Loam

Zone II: 10YR3/6 with 10YR3/3 Dark Yellowish Brown mottled with Dark Brown

Figure 6-3. Test Unit 13 East Wall Profile.



Figure 6-4. Test Unit 27 North Wall Profile Photograph.



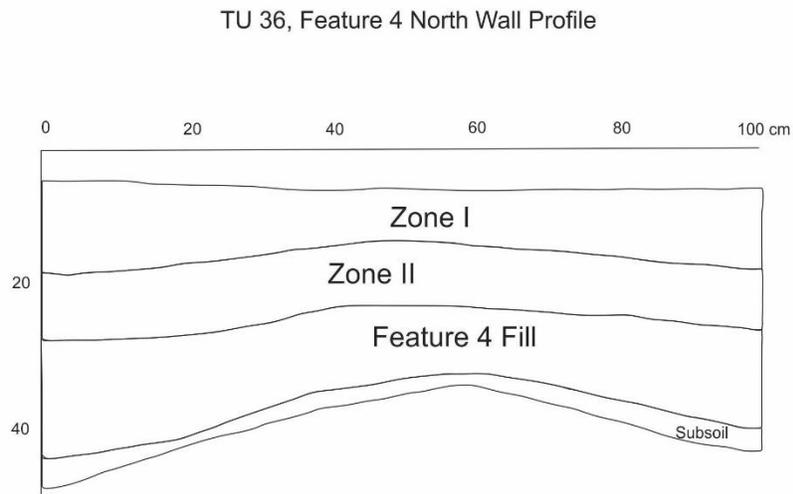
Zone I: 10YR4/3 Silt Clay Loam

Zone II: 10YR4/3 Silt Clay Loam mottled with 10YR5/6

Figure 6-5. Test Unit 27 North Wall Profile.



Figure 6-6. Test Unit 36 North Wall Profile Photograph.



Zone I: 10YR3/2 Very Dark Grayish Brown Silt Loam
Zone II: 10YR3/2 Dark Grayish Brown Silt Loam
Feature 4 Fill
Subsoil: 10YR5/6 Yellowish Brown Clay Loam

Figure 6-7. Test Unit 36 North Wall Profile.

6.3.2 Stratigraphy and Artifacts

Most of the material recovered came from mixed contexts. Sixty-one percent of the artifacts (n=13,029) were recovered from Zone I and 27 percent (n=5,725) were recovered from Zone II. Both of these zones contained artifacts that date to both periods of occupation. These artifact include wrought, early cut, and late cut nails, creamware, pearlware, and whiteware ceramics. Features contained a limited number of artifacts, except for Features 4a and 4b. Features 4a and 4b contained artifacts dating to both occupations. Architecturally related features, such as the chimney (Feature 13) and post holes (Features 26 and 19) contained primarily early cut nails indicating the construction of the buildings occurred during the Thomas Champ period. The window glass graph (see Figure 5-11) is generally a unimodal curve indicating single construction event and maintenance activities.

Table 6-1 and Table 6-2 shows the temporally diagnostic artifacts by zone. Late Cut Nails and Whiteware date to the Mary champ occupation while the other diagnostic artifacts date to both occupations. Zones 1 and 2 have all the diagnostic artifacts in high numbers indicate the assemblage is mixed. The mixing may be due to post-habitation agricultural activities such as plowing or cattle and horse grazing. Zones 3 and 4 have a limited number of artifacts, but there appears to be mixing.

Table 6-1. Temporally Diagnostic Artifacts by Zone.

Artifacts	Zone 1	Zone 2	Zone 3	Zone 4	Dates
Early Cut Nails	493	130	4	1	1790-1820, Phillips 1994, 1790-1840, Nelson 1968
Late Cut Nails*	230	53	3		1810-1840, Phillips 1994, 1840-present, Nelson 1968
Wrought Nails	57	9			1600s-1820, Nelson 1969
Creamware	166	56	5	4	1775-1820, Noel-Hume 1969
Pearlware	497	102	9	1	1779-1835, Noel-Hume 1969
Whiteware	184	56	1	1	1805-present, post-1820 in US, des Fontaines 1990

* Phillips (1994) refers to these nails as Intermediate.

Table 6-2. Temporally Diagnostic Artifacts by Zone.

Zone	TPQ	Item (Reference)	TAQ	Item (Reference)	Mean Ceramic Date	Window Glass Date
1	1775	Creamware (Noel-Hume 1969)	1840	Late Cut Nails (Phillips 1994)	1814	1819
2	1775	Creamware (Noel-Hume 1969)	1840	Late Cut Nails (Phillips 1994)	1815	1821
3	1775	Creamware (Noel-Hume 1969)	1840	Late Cut Nails (Phillips 1994)	1804	1823
4	1775	Creamware (Noel-Hume 1969)	1840	Late Cut Nails (Phillips 1994)	1804	1855

The latest artifact recovered from the site was red transfer printed whiteware date from 1828 to the present (Miller 2000). No other artifact recovered post-dates 1827 when Mary Champ sold the property to her brother Robert Champ.

The presence of temporally diagnostic artifacts within features are discussed below in the Feature subsection. At the end of the section the chronology of the site will be discussed.

6.3.3 Features

Thirty-four (34) features were recorded during the excavation of 15BB137. They range from the simple natural non-man made feature to a chimney foundation. The features will be discussed by structure. Features 4, 8, 9, 10, and 12 are related to the cellar. Features 2, 5 through 7 and 13 through 21 are related to the house. Features 1, 3 and 22 through 34 are discussed separately. Features 21 through 34 were located during the backhoe stripping.

Based on the distribution and nature of the features a map was made for the possible location of structures (Figure 6-8). The map will be discussed in Section 9.

6.3.3.1 Cellar Related Features

The cellar features consist of Feature 4b, the actual cellar (Figure 6-9 and Figure 6-10), Feature 4a, an ash zone (Figure 6-11 and Figure 6-12), Features 9 and 10, fill or midden features (Figure 6-13 and Figure 6-14), and Features 12 and 8, post molds (see Figure 6-15). The presence of post molds (Features 8 and 12) and architectural group artifacts indicate a building of some kind associated with Feature 4b. The presence of ash in Feature 4a and ash and charcoal in Features 9 and 10 indicates that a detached kitchen was nearby. It is believed that the ash and charcoal is the result of kitchen activities rather than the burning of the house.

6.3.3.1.1 Feature 4

Feature 4 consists of two components: an ashy zone later designated as 4a and a brown silty clay fill that was designated 4b. Feature 4 was identified first in Test Unit 16 as an ashy zone and found to continue in Test Units 19, 20, 21, 22, 44, and 45 (see Figure 6-1, Figure 6-9 through Figure 6-15). Feature 4b was under the ashy Feature 4a and continued in Test Units 17, 19, 20, 21, 22, 30, 34, 36, 44, 45, and 59. Feature 4b was also encountered during mechanical backhoe excavation. Feature 4b is the largest feature uncovered at the site. It measured 25 meters east-west by 10 meters north-south. It ranged in depth from 10 cm thick in Test Unit 19 to 30 cm thick in Test Unit 30 (Figure 6-16 and Figure 6-17). Feature 4a ranged in thickness from six cm in Test Unit 16 to eight cm in Test Unit 21. Feature 4a was a single soil zone and consisted of a 10YR4/3 Brown silty loam mottled with 10YR6/2 light brownish gray ash silt midden. Feature 4b was a single soil zone and consisted of a 10YR4/3 brown silty clay fill.

A total of 518 artifacts were recovered from Feature 4a (Table 6-3). Architectural group artifacts consisted of the largest group of artifacts recovered from Feature 4a (n=397, 76.6%). This is followed by kitchen group artifacts (n=104, 20.1%), other group artifacts (n=12, 2.3%), transportation group artifacts (n=2, 0.4%), furniture group artifacts (n=2, 0.4%), and lastly clothing group artifacts (n=1, 0.2%).

Botanical and faunal remains were also recovered from Feature 4a. The botanical remains included corn, ground cherry, walnut pepper, grape, and weeds. The faunal remains included domestic cow, domestic chicken, domestic pig, and squirrel.

Feature 4a appears to be a midden or sheet midden. It may represent cleaning episodes from a hearth or kitchen or represent the demolition of the kitchen. Feature 4b appears to be a cellar feature that has been filled. There are artifacts at the fill-subsoil boundary and also with in the fill. Features 8 and 12 are associated with Feature 4b and may represent post molds, which suggests there was a structure over the cellar. Features 9 and 10 are shown in Figure 6-14 and Figure 6-15 and may be related to or part of Feature 4b. Based on the location of the chimney foundation (Feature 13) Features 9 and 10 and the

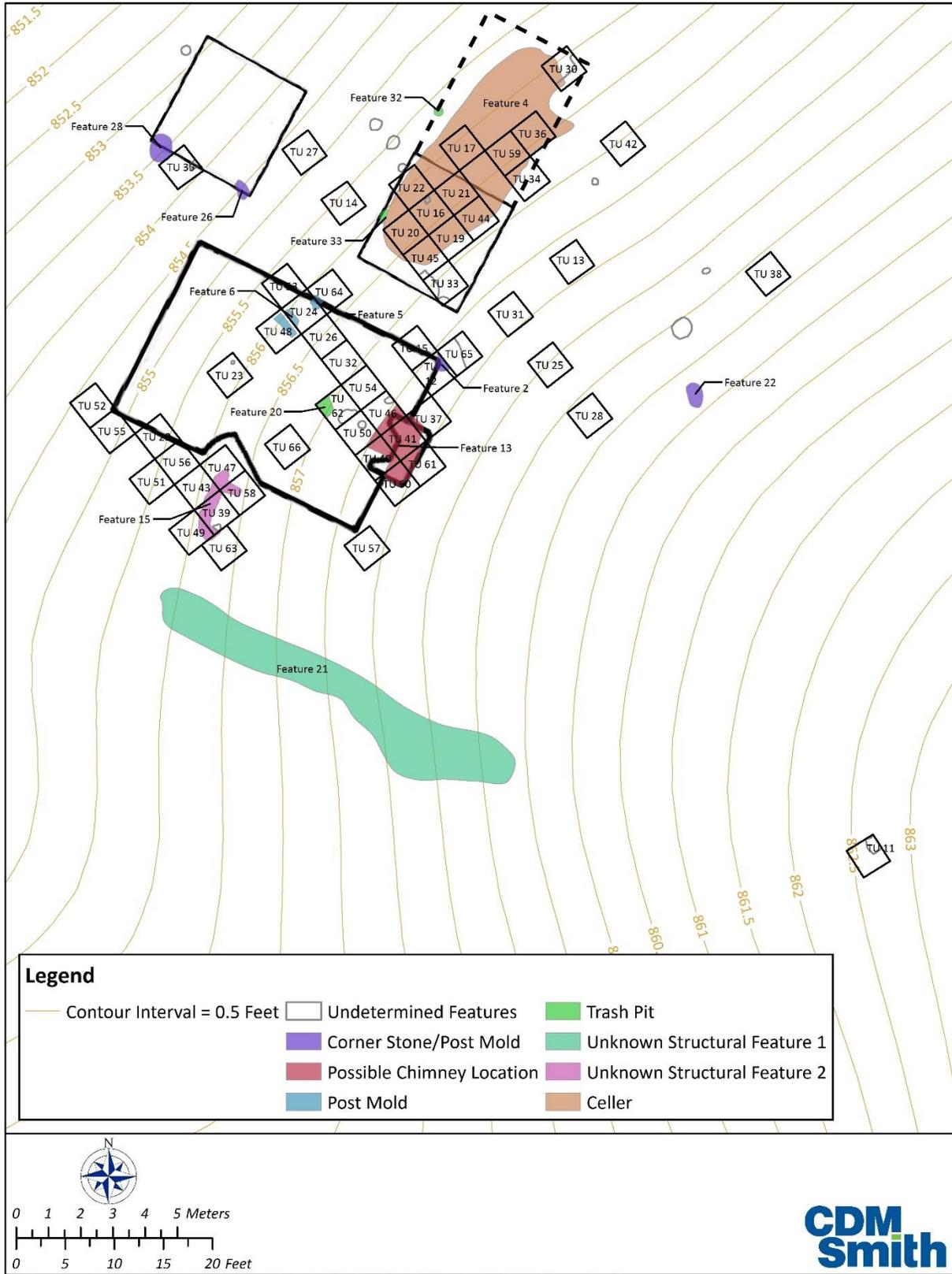


Figure 6-8. Possible House and Outbuilding Locations for Site 15BB137.



Figure 6-9. Feature 4b Looking South.



Figure 6-10. Feature 4b looking south after mechanical excavation.



Figure 6-11. Feature 4a in Test Unit 16.



Figure 6-12. Feature 4a and 4b Looking East.



Figure 6-13. Features 4a, 4b, and 9.

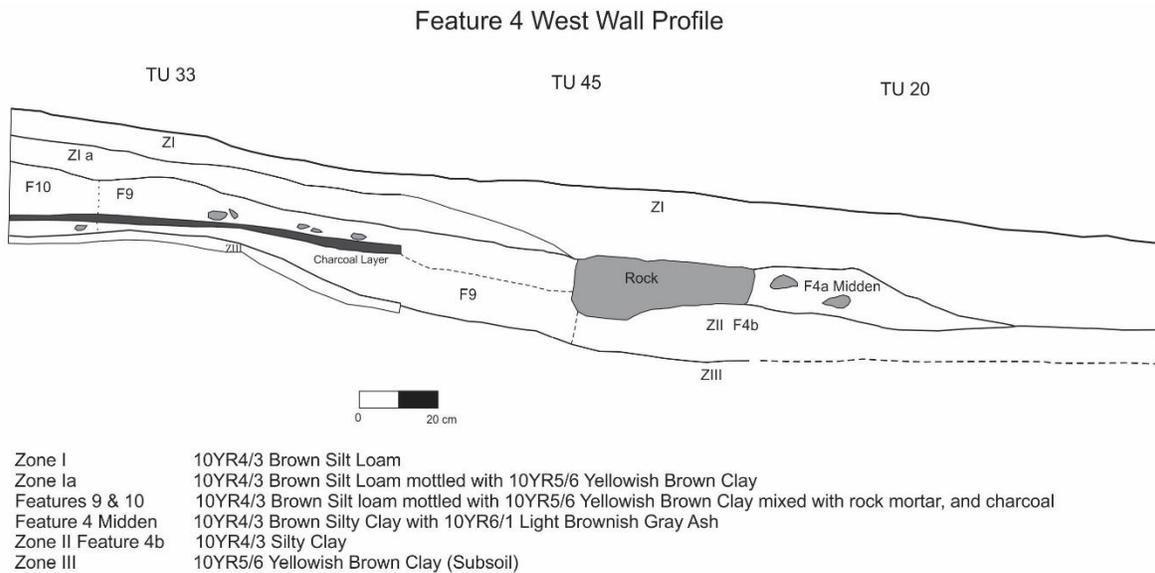


Figure 6-14. West Profile Feature 4, Feature 9 and Feature 10.



Figure 6-15. Features 4a, 4b, 9, 10 and 12 Looking West.

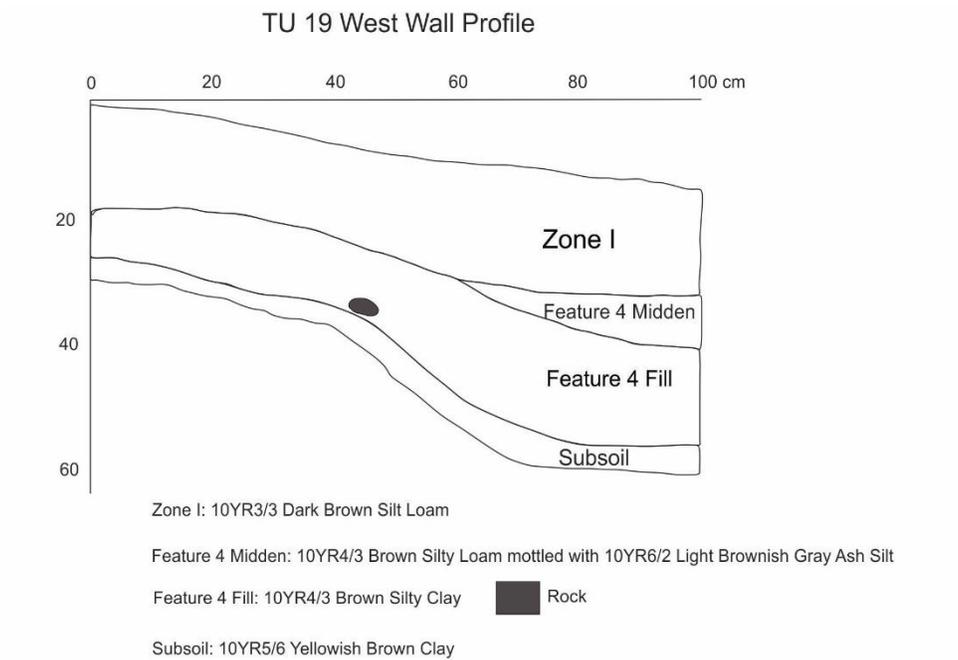
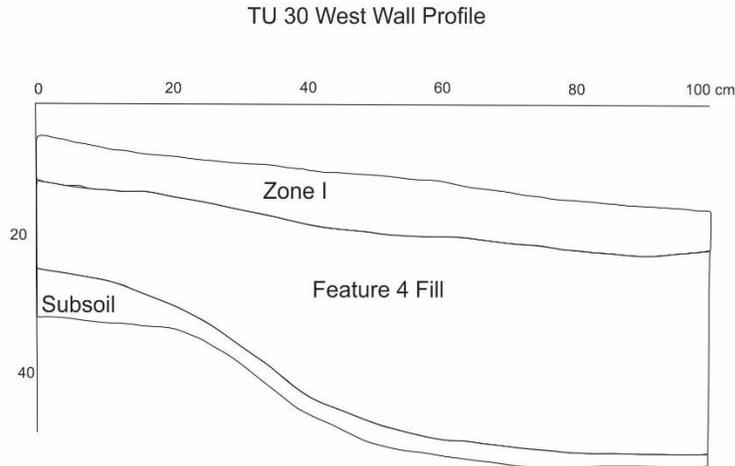


Figure 6-16. Test Unit 19, West Wall Profile.



Zone I: 10YR3/2 Very Dark Grayish Brown Silt Loam
 Feature 4 Fill: 10YR4/3 Brown Silty Clay Loam
 Subsoil: 10YR5/6 Yellowish Brown Silty Clay Loam

Figure 6-17. Test Unit 30, West Wall Profile.

Table 6-3. Artifacts from Features 4a and 4b.

Group	Type	Subtype1	Feature			
			4	%	4b	%
Architecture		Mortar	222	76.6%	89	58.0%
	Brick	Fragment (Not Identifiable)	12		19	
		Hand Made, Unglazed			1	
		Unidentified Manufacture	72			
		Fastener	Metal Tack			
	Flat Glass	-	11		12	
	Nail	Cut Unspecified	6		9	
		Early Cut	5		2	
		Late Cut	2		6	
		Wrought	4			
	Other	Metal Band			3	
		Metal Bracket	1			
		Other Architectural Ceramic	62		6	
		Unidentified Architectural Ceramic			11	
		Unidentified Metal Door Hardware			1	
<i>Architecture Total</i>			397	160		
Kitchen		Kettle	1	20.1%	40.2%	
		Pot	1			
	Bottle/Jar Base	Unidentified Manufacture				1
	Bottle/Jar Body	Unidentified Manufacture				1
	Bottle/Jar Lip	Unidentified Manufacture	1			

Group	Type	Subtype1	Feature			
			4	%	4b	%
Kitchen	Creamware	Annular			2	
		Undecorated, Light Yellow	14		8	
	Hard Paste Porcelain	Undecorated Chinese Export	1		1	
		Unidentified	1			
	Pearlware	Shell Edge Scalloped Rim			1	
		Undecorated	5		13	
		Underglaze Blue Painted			10	
		Underglaze Painted	1			
	Redware - Coarse	Underglaze Transfer Printed	1		2	
		Clear Lead Glazed	21		17	
		Lead Glazed Black Tint	8		2	
		Lead Glazed Brown Tint	21		16	
		Lead Glazed Green Tint			5	
	Table Glass Body	Unidentified Manufacture	13		9	
		Unidentified Manufacture	1		1	
	Undetermined Body	Unidentified Manufacture	3		2	
	Undetermined Lip	Unidentified Manufacture	2		1	
	Unidentifiable Refined Earthenware	Other	6		17	
		Unidentified	2		1	
	Whiteware	Embossed/Impressed and Painted Edge	1			
Undecorated				1		
<i>Kitchen Total</i>			104		111	
Other	Other Ceramic	Other Ceramic - Unidentified	6	2.3%		0.4%
	Other Metal	Other Metal - Unidentified	6		1	
<i>Other Total</i>			12		1	
Transportation	Other Metal	Animal Shoe Nail	2	0.4%	3	1.1%
<i>Transportation Total</i>			2		3	
Furniture	Lighting/Electrical	Lamp Chimney	2	0.4%		0.0%
<i>Furniture Total</i>			2			
Clothing	Other Metal	Other	1	0.2%		0.0%
<i>Clothing Total</i>			1			
Fuel	Coal	Other Coal Fuel		0.2%	1	0.4%
<i>Fuel Total</i>					1	
Grand Total			518	100%	276	100%

charcoal layer in the profile drawing (Figure 6-14) are believed to be related to a separate kitchen structure.

The Feature 4b stratigraphy consists of a single zone, suggesting a single fill episode. A total of 276 artifacts were recovered from Feature 4b (Table 6-3). Architectural group artifacts consisted of the largest group of artifacts recovered from Feature 4b (n=160, 58.0%). This is followed by kitchen group artifacts (n=111, 40.2%), transportation group artifacts (n=3, 1.1%), fuel group artifacts (n=1, 0.4%), and lastly other group artifacts (n=1, 0.4%). The limited number of artifacts in the fill suggest that it may have come from away from house, possible from an agricultural field. Based on the presence of late cut nails and whiteware, the filling of Feature 4b and the demolition of the kitchen and the formation of Feature 4a occurred during the Mary Champ occupation.

Faunal remains recovered from Feature 4b included domestic cow, domestic chicken, and domestic pig.

The diagnostic artifacts from Features 4a and 4b are limited. Late cut nails and whiteware are present and date to the Mary Champ period. The creamware, pearlware and early cut nails could date to either period of occupation (Table 6-4).

Table 6-4. Temporally Diagnostic Artifacts from Feature 4.

Artifacts	Feature 4a	Feature 4b	Zone 1*	Dates
Early Cut Nail	5	2	75	1790-1820, Phillips 1994; 1790-1840, Nelson 1968
Late Cut Nail	2	6	47	1810-1840, Phillips 1994, 1840-present Nelson 1968
Wrought Nail	4		14	1600s-1820, Nelson 1968
Creamware	14	10	71	1775-1820, Noel-Hume 1969
Pearlware	7	26	169	1779-1835, Noel-Hume 1969
Whiteware	1	1	36	1805-present, post-1820 in US, des Fontaines 1990
	1798.6	1802.7	1808.6	Mean Ceramic Date

*Feature 4 test units.

6.3.3.1.2 Feature 8

Feature 8 consists of four rocks on top of subsoil and the southwest corner of Feature 4. It is located in Test Unit 30 (see Figure 6-1, also Figure 6-18 and Figure 6-19). It measured 50 cm east-west and 78 cm north south. The soil consisted of loose 10YR4/3 brown silty loam. The rocks may represent the base of a post mold and the corner of the cellar.

No artifacts were recovered from the feature.

6.3.3.1.3 Feature 9

Feature 9 is an ash midden in the western part of Test Unit 33 and the eastern part of Test Unit 45 (see Figure 6-1, also Figure 6-20 and Figure 6-21). It is similar in structure to Zone 6 in the Phase II investigations in the adjacent units. It measured 89 cm north-south and 28 cm east-west and was 20 cm thick. The soils consisted of 10YR4/3 brown silt loam mottled with 10YR5/6 yellowish brown clay mixed with rock, mortar, and charcoal.

A total of 327 artifacts were recovered from Feature 9 (Table 6-5). Architecture group artifacts dominated the Feature 9 assemblage (n=317, 96.9%). Thirty-three nails were recovered. Sixteen were early cut nails and 11 were late cut nails. Some wood remains (n=7, 2.1%), clothing (n=1, 0.3%),



Figure 6-18. Feature 8 before Excavation.



Figure 6-19. Feature 8 after Excavation.



Figure 6-20. Feature 9 and 10 before Excavation.



Figure 6-21. Features 9 and 10 after Excavation.

Table 6-5. Artifacts from Feature 9.

Group	Class	Type	Total	%
Architecture	Ceramic	Brick	8	96.9%
	Metal	Nail	33	
	Other	Burned Clay	12	
	Stone	Mortar	264	
<i>Architecture Total</i>			317	
Clothing	Biological	Faunal	1	0.3%
	<i>Clothing Total</i>		1	
Fuel	Biological	Wood	7	2.1%
	<i>Fuel Total</i>		7	
Kitchen	Ceramic	Unidentifiable Refined Earthenware	1	0.3%
	<i>Kitchen Total</i>		1	
Transportation	Metal	Other Metal	1	0.3%
	<i>Transportation Total</i>		1	
Grand Total			327	100%

creamware (n=1, 0.3%), and transportation metal (n=1, 0.3%) were also recovered. Feature 9 is possibly related to Zone 6 identified during the Phase II testing of the site (Bundy 2006).

Botanical remains recovered from Feature 9 included carpet weed and other weeds.

Feature 9 is associated with Feature 4a, Feature 4b, Feature 10, and a charcoal layer (see Figure 6-13, Figure 6-14, and Figure 6-15). The presence of architectural artifacts in Feature 9 suggests the presence of a structure. Initially, it was thought that the burned material and ash was related to the destruction of the house. The concentration of the charcoal and ash at Feature 4a, Feature 9, and Feature 10 could be the result of fireplace or kitchen cleaning or the demolition of the kitchen. It is possible that a detached kitchen was located to the rear of the house near TU 33 and TU 45.

Artifacts recovered from the feature provided limited information on dates of construction and demolition. The presence of early and late cut nails indicates that the feature was constructed during the Thomas Champ period and used and possibly demolished during the Mary Champ period.

6.3.3.1.4 Feature 10

Feature 10 is an ash midden in the western part of Test Unit 33 (see Figure 6-1, also Figure 6-20 and Figure 6-21, above). It may also be part of Zone 6 in the adjacent Phase II units. It measured 26 cm north-south by 28 cm east-west and 20 cm thick. The soils consisted of 10YR4/3 brown silt loam mottled with 10YR5/6 yellowish brown clay mixed with rock, mortar, and charcoal.

A total of 67 architectural group artifacts were recovered from the feature. Three early cut nails (1790-1820) and one late cut nail (1810-1840) were recovered. Four artifacts is too few to say anything about the chronological position of Feature 10. It is probably related to Feature 9.

Botanical remains recovered from Feature 10 included chenopodium, mint, and other weeds.

As mentioned above, Feature 10 may be related to kitchen activity.

6.3.3.1.5 Feature 12

Feature 12 was a possible post hole located in the northeast corner of Test Unit 16 (see Figure 6-1, also Figure 6-22 through Figure 6-24). It measured 16 cm north-south by 16 cm east-west and was 66 cm deep. The soils consisted of 10YR4/4 dark yellowish brown clay loam with charcoal flecks throughout.

No artifacts were recovered from the feature.

The feature is near the center of the cellar feature and may be a center support post.

6.3.3.2 House Related Features

The house related features include a chimney foundation (Feature 13), which provides the orientation of the house, a potential cornerstone or post mold, (Feature 19), a driveway or road (Feature 21), post molds (Features 5, 6, and 7), and the apparently architecturally related Feature 15. Features 13, 15, 19, and 21 provide information on the orientation and size of the house, which will be discussed further in Section 9.

6.3.3.2.1 Feature 2

Feature 2 is an oval feature located in Test Unit 12 (see Figure 6-1, also Figure 6-25). The feature consisted of dark grayish brown silty clay loam. It measured approximately 30 cm north-south by 18 cm east-west and 7 cm thick.

No artifacts were recovered.

The feature was thought to be natural, although it could be associated with Feature 19.

6.3.3.2.2 Feature 5

Feature 5 was a circular post hole located along in the eastern part of Test Unit 24 and continued east into Test Unit 64 (see Figure 6-1, also Figure 6-26 through Figure 6-29). The feature measured 23 cm north-south by 22 cm east-west and 12 cm deep. The soils of Feature 5 consisted of 10YR5/3 brown silt loam.

No artifacts were recovered from the feature.

6.3.3.2.3 Feature 6

Feature 6 was a circular post hole located in the western part of Test Unit 24 and continued into Test Unit 34 (Figure 6-1, Figure 6-26 to Figure 6-28 and Figure 6-30). The feature measured 65 cm east-west by 48 cm north-south and 12 cm deep. The soils of Feature 6 consisted of 10YR5/3 brown silt loam.

A small number of artifacts were recovered from the feature including four shards of coarse redware and one wrought nail. Although the number of artifacts are limited from this features, it appears to be related to the early period of the site occupation.

Botanical remains included ground cherry and weeds.

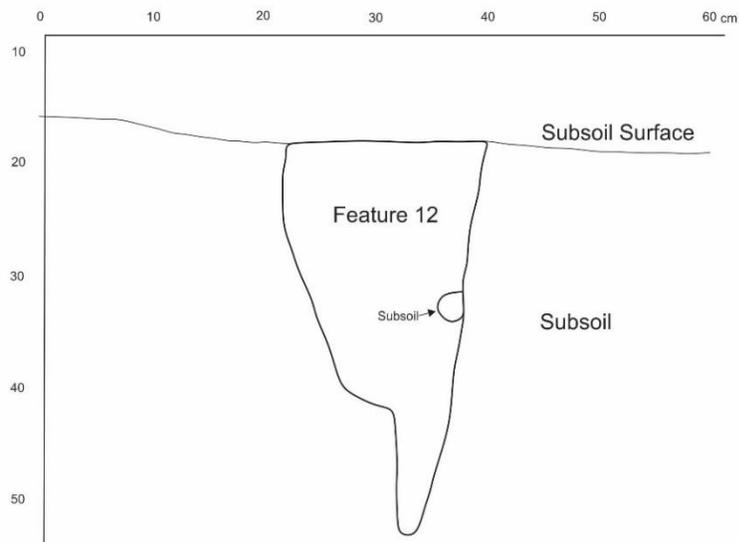
6.3.3.2.4 Feature 7

Feature 7 was a small circular feature located in Test Unit 23 (see Figure 6-1, also Figure 6-31 and Figure 6-32). It measured 10 cm north-south by 12 cm east west. The soil consisted of 10YR4/3 brown silt loam.



Figure 6-22. Feature 12 Profile.

Feature 12, East Wall Profile



Feature 12: 10YR4/4 Dark Yellowish Brown Clayey Loam with Charcoal Flecks
 Subsoil: 10YR5/8 Yellowish Brown Clay

Figure 6-23. Feature 12, West Wall Profile.



Figure 6-24. Feature 12 within Feature 4.



Figure 6-25. Feature 2, TU 12 after Excavation.



Figure 6-26. Feature 5 and Feature 6 before Excavation.



Figure 6-27. Feature 5 and Feature 6 after Excavation.

Features 5 & 6, TU 24 Plan

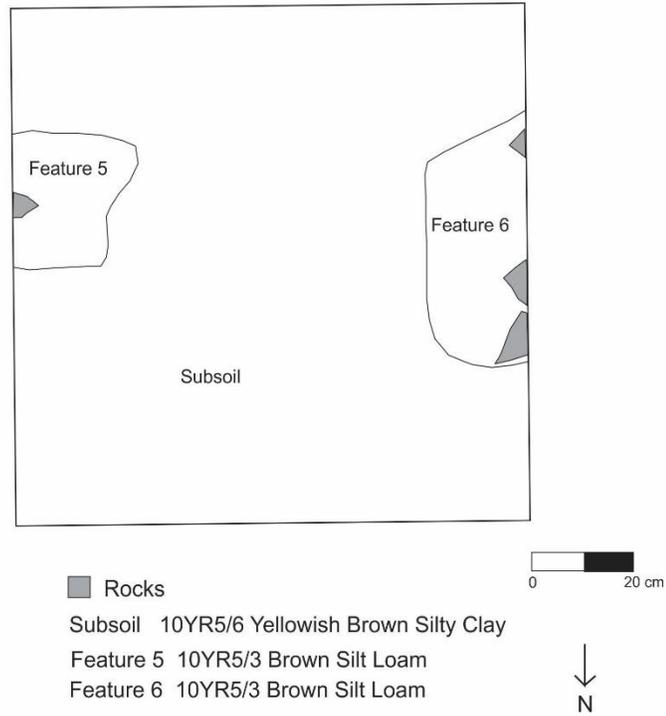


Figure 6-28. Feature 5 and 6, TU 24 Plan.

Feature 5, TU 24 East Wall Profile

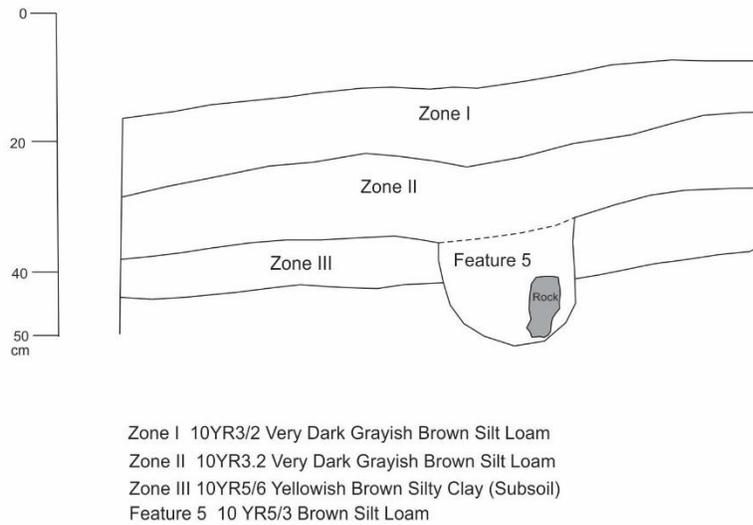
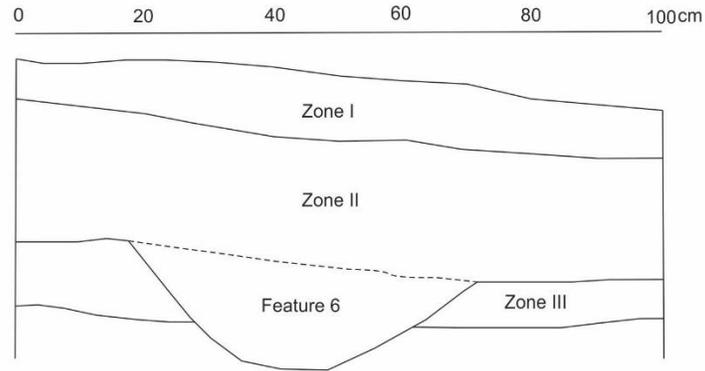


Figure 6-29. Feature 5, TU 24 East Wall Profile.

Feature 6, TU 24 West Wall



- Zone I 10YR3/2 Very Dark Grayish Brown Silt Loam
- Zone II 10YR3/2 Very Dark Grayish Brown Silt Loam
- Zone III 10YR5/6 Yellowish Brown Silty Clay
- Feature 6 10YR5/3 Yellowish Brown Silt Loam

Figure 6-30. Feature 6, TU 24 West Wall Profile.



Figure 6-31. Feature 7 before Excavation.



Figure 6-32. Feature 7 after Excavation.

No artifacts were recovered from the feature.

After careful in-field consideration, this feature was determined to be natural, possibly a root.

6.3.3.2.5 Feature 13

Feature 13 is the remains of a stone chimney foundation. It was first encountered in Test Unit 37 (Figure 6-1, Figure 6-33 and Figure 6-34) and expanded to include Test Units 40, 41, 46, 54, 60, and 61 (Figure 6-33 and Figure 6-34). It measured approximately 8 feet north-south by 4½ feet east-west. Only some of the original stones remain. The outline of the feature suggests a chimney.

A number of artifacts were recovered from the feature. A total of 475 artifacts were recovered from Feature 13 (Table 6-6). The largest group was architectural related (n=454, 95.6%), followed by kitchen group artifacts (n=19, 4.0%), activity/job (n=1, 0.2%), and finally clothing (n=1, 0.2%).

Faunal remains recovered from Feature 13 included domestic chicken, domestic pig, squirrel, rabbit, and rat.

Temporally diagnostic artifacts recovered included nails and ceramics. Thirty-nine nails were recovered and included 23 early cut nails, 22 were 4d nails, three late cut nails and one wrought nail. Two pearlware sherds and one whiteware sherd were also recovered. The presence of the large number of early cut nails and a wrought nail suggests an early construction date for the feature. The early cut nails date to between 1790 and 1820 (Phillips 1994).

6.3.3.2.6 Feature 14

Feature 14 was recorded as a large stone in Test Unit 39 (Figure 6-1, Figure 6-35 and Figure 6-36). It measured 11 cm east-west by 15 cm north-south and measured 10 cm thick.

Feature 13, Plan

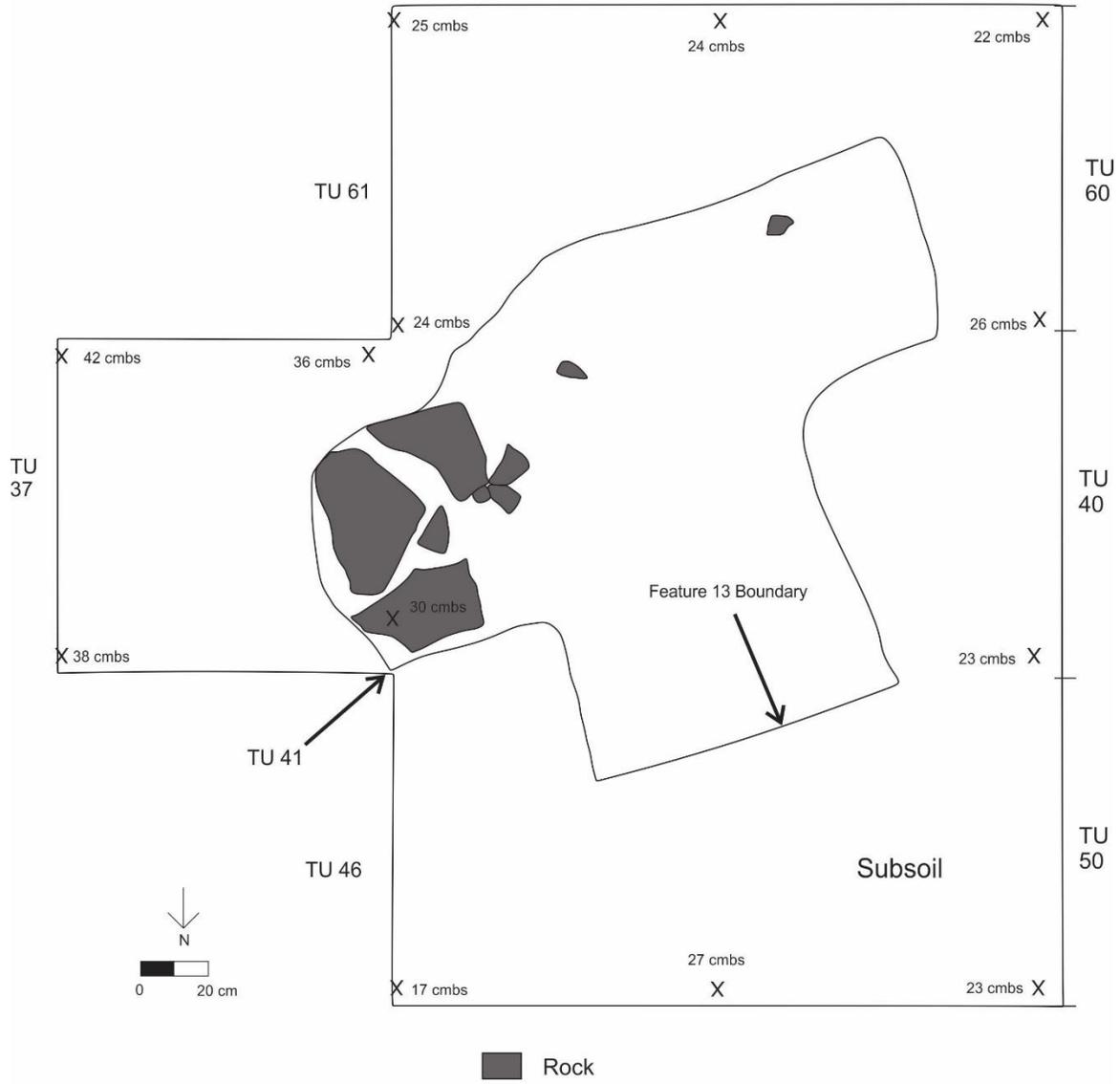


Figure 6-33. Planview of Feature 13.



Figure 6-34. Feature 13.

Table 6-6. Artifacts from Feature 13.

Group	Class	Type	Total	%
Activity/Job	Metal	Other	1	0.2%
	<i>Activity/Job Total</i>		1	
Architecture	Ceramic	Brick	31	95.6%
	Glass	Flat Glass	5	
	Metal	Nail	39	
		Other	1	
	Other	Burned Clay	48	
Stone	Mortar	330		
<i>Architecture Total</i>			454	
Clothing	Metal	Other Metal	1	0.2%
	<i>Clothing Total</i>		1	
Kitchen	Ceramic	Hard Paste Porcelain	3	4.0%
		Pearlware	2	
		Redware - Coarse	8	
		Unidentifiable Refined Earthenware	4	
		Whiteware	1	
	Glass	Bottle/Jar Body	1	
<i>Kitchen Total</i>			19	
Grand Total			475	100.0%



Figure 6-35. Feature 14 and 15 before Excavation.



Figure 6-36. Feature 14 and 15 after Excavation.

There were no artifacts associated with this feature.

6.3.3.2.7 Feature 15

Feature 15 is an unidentified structural feature located in Test Unit 39 (Figure 6-1, Figure 6-35 and Figure 6-36, above, and Figure 6-37). The feature may be associated with steps to a door or other architectural element for the house. It measured 1 meter east-west by 2.2 meter north-south and was 6 cm thick. Feature 15 was made up of a 10YR3/2 very dark greyish brown clay loam with stone rubble and a horizontal piece of wood.

A total of 223 artifacts were recovered from the feature (Table 6-7). Almost all the artifacts belonged to the architectural group (n=216, 96.6%) with the remainder belong to the kitchen group (n=4, 1.8%) and the other artifact group (n=3, 1.3%). Two hundred and four of the artifacts were mortar. One late cut nail along with one pearlware sherd, two redware sherds and one porcelain sherd were recovered. The material recovered from the units around Feature 15 may be related to a nearby door. The high density of material near the feature may have been thrown out the door. The temporally diagnostic artifact assemblage is too small to say anything about chronology for the feature.

Botanical remains recovered from Feature 15 included ground cherry and weeds. Faunal remains included bird bones.

6.3.3.2.8 Feature 16

Feature 16 is a natural feature identified in Test Unit 46 (Figure 6-1 and Figure 6-38). It measured 20 cm north-south by 24 cm east-west and 20 cm deep. The soils consisted of a 10YR3/4 dark yellowish brown silty clay loam with charcoal flecks.

No artifacts were recovered.

6.3.3.2.9 Feature 17

Feature 17 is a natural feature identified in Test Unit 50 (Figure 6-1 and Figure 6-39). It measured 23 cm north-south by 24 cm east-west and 20 cm deep. The soils consisted of 2.5Y3/3 dark olive brown silty clay loam.

No artifacts were recovered from the feature.

6.3.3.2.10 Feature 18

Feature 18 is a refuse midden identified in Test Unit 61 (Figure 6-1, Figure 6-40 through Figure 6-42). It measured 34 cm east-west by 30 cm north-south and 18 cm deep. The soils consisted 10YR4/3 brown silty loam with charcoal flecks.

A couple of artifacts were recovered from the feature. These included 13 pieces of mortar, one chunk of burned clay, and one shard of creamware. The artifact assemblage is too small to say anything about chronology for the feature.

6.3.3.2.11 Feature 19

Feature 19 is a post hole located in Test Unit 65 (Figure 6-1, Figure 6-43 and Figure 6-44). It measured 70 cm east-west by 30 cm north-south and 20 cm deep. The soils consisted of 10YR3/2 very dark greyish brown silt loam with rocks.

A number of artifacts were recovered from the feature (Table 6-8). Almost all the artifacts belonged to the architectural group (n=883, 99.1%), with the remainder belonging to the kitchen group (n=6, 0.7%)

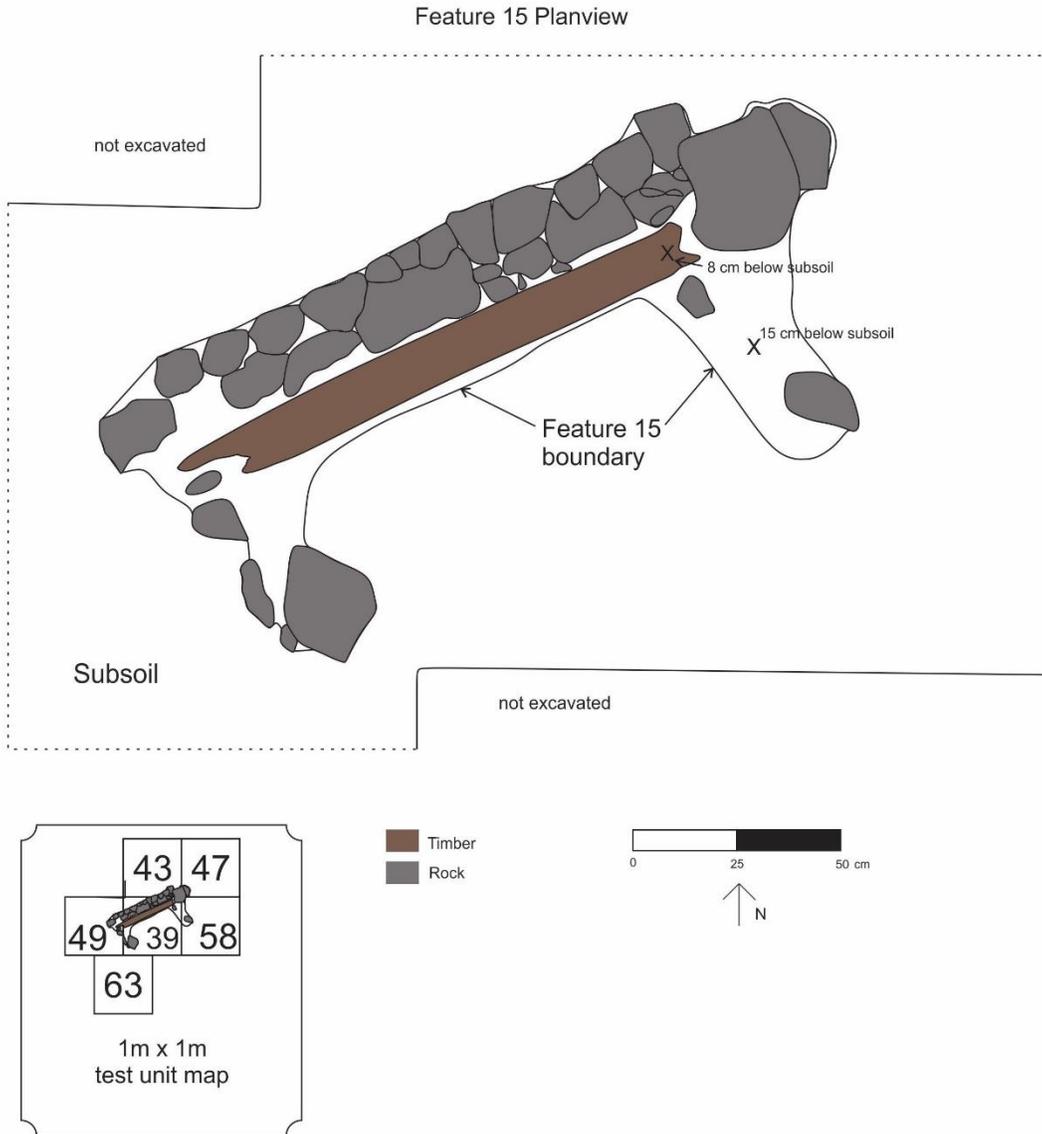


Figure 6-37. Planview of Feature 15.

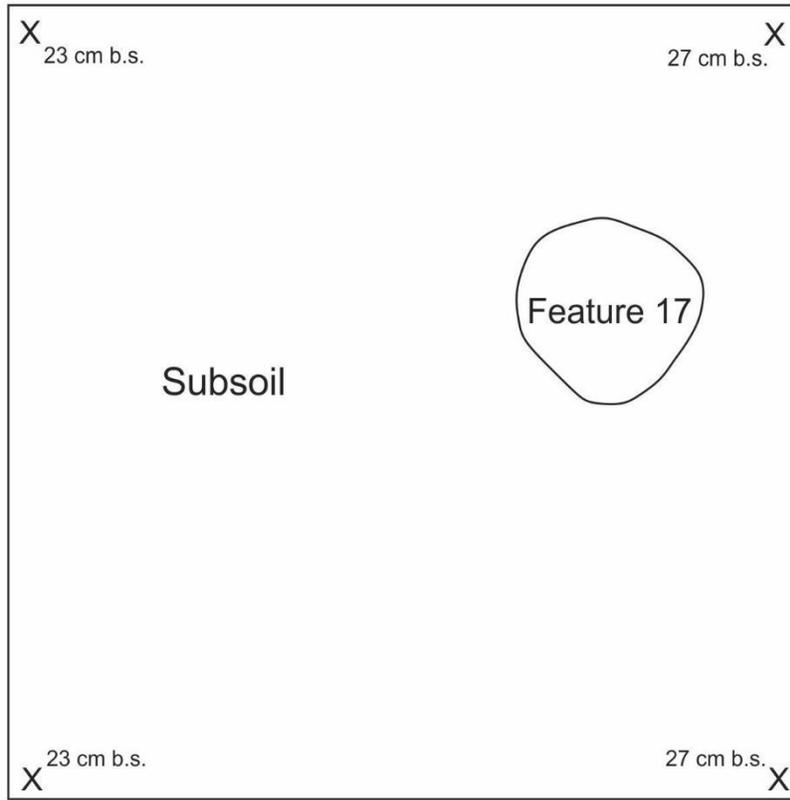
Table 6-7. Artifacts from Feature 15.

Group	Class	Type	Total	%
Architecture	Ceramic	Brick	2	96.9%
	Glass	Flat Glass	1	
	Metal	Nail	3	
	Other	Burned Clay	1	
	Biological	Lumber	2	
	Stone	Mortar	207	
<i>Architecture Total</i>			216	
Kitchen	Ceramic	Hard Paste Porcelain	1	1.8%
		Pearlware	1	
		Redware - Coarse	2	
<i>Kitchen Total</i>			4	
Other	Biological	Other Biological	1	1.3%
	Metal		2	
<i>Other Total</i>			3	
Grand Total			223	100.0%



Figure 6-38. Feature 16.

Feature 17, Plan



Feature 17: 2.5Y3/3 Dark Olive Brown Silty Clay Loam
Subsoil: 10YR5/8 Yellowish Brown Clay



Figure 6-39. Feature 17 Plan, TU 50.



Figure 6-40. Feature 18 before Excavation.



Figure 6-41. Feature 18 after Excavation.

Feature 18, Plan

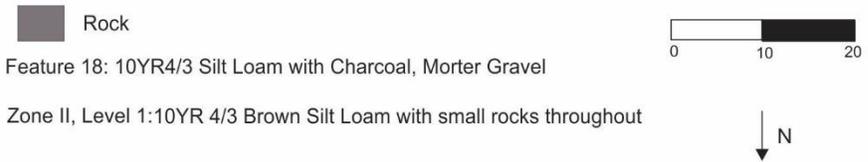
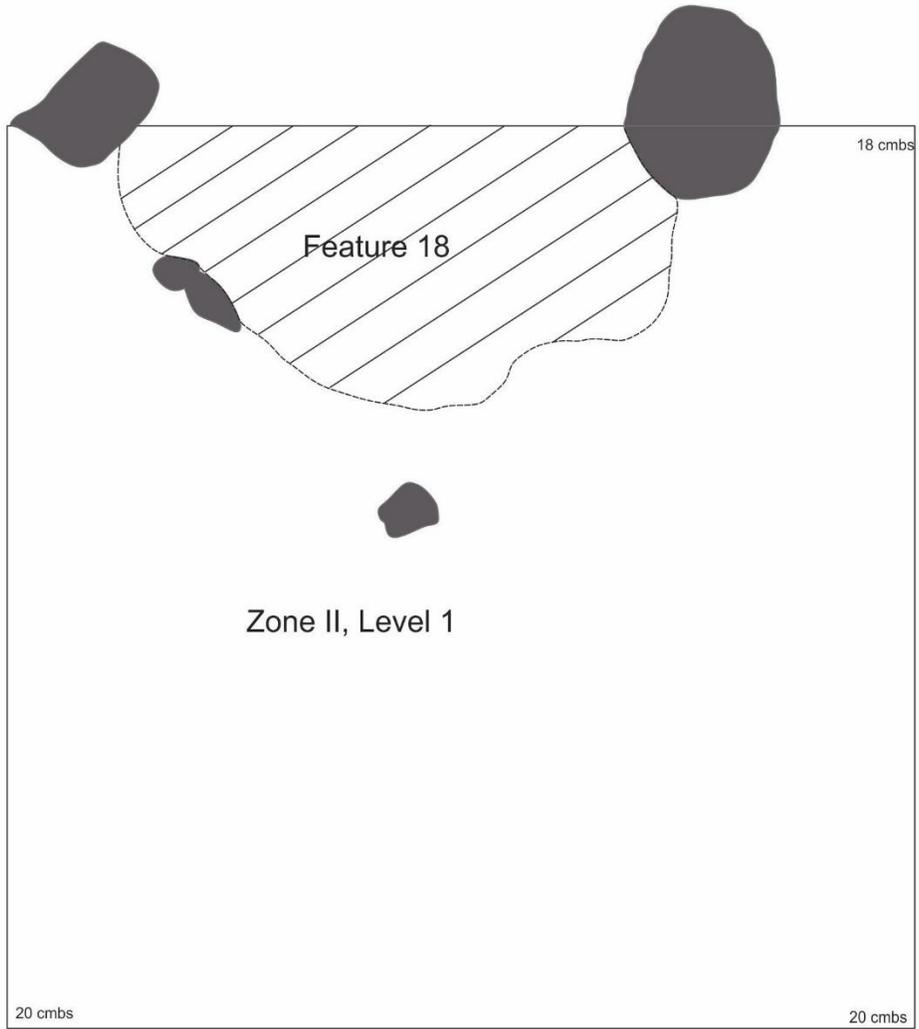


Figure 6-42. Feature 18 Plan.



Figure 6-43. Feature 19 before Excavation.

Feature 19, Plan

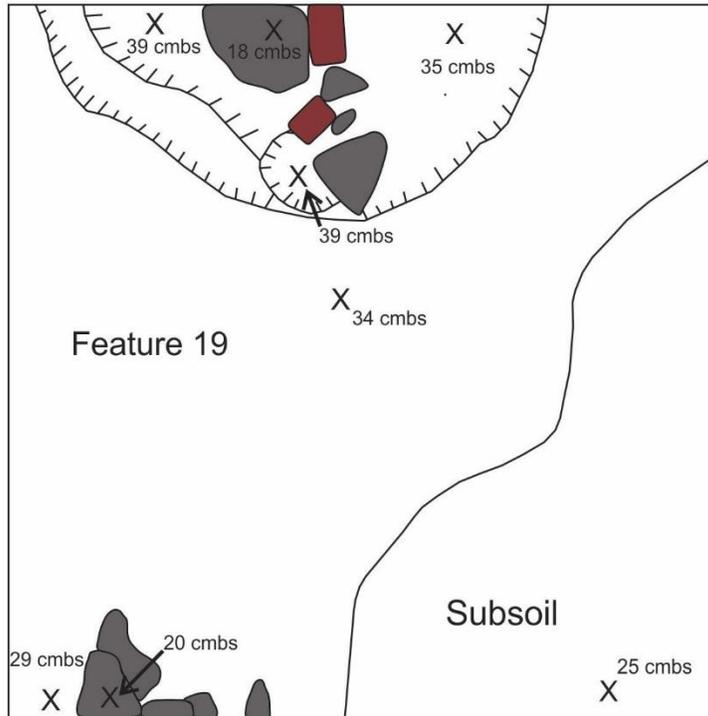


Figure 6-44. Feature 19 Plan.

Table 6-8. Artifacts from Feature 19.

Group	Class	Type	Total	%
Architecture	Ceramic	Brick	35	99.1%
	Metal	Fastener	3	
		Nail	27	
	Other	Burned Clay	17	
	Stone	Mortar	801	
<i>Architecture Total</i>			883	
Clothing	Biological	Faunal	1	0.2%
	Metal	Other Metal	1	
	<i>Clothing Total</i>		2	
Kitchen	Ceramic	Pearlware	4	0.7%
		Redware - Coarse	1	
	Glass	Bottle/Jar Body	1	
	<i>Kitchen Total</i>		6	
Grand Total			891	100%

and the clothing group (n=2, 0.2%). Twenty-seven nails were recovered and 23 were early cut nails and four unspecified cut nails. Ceramics recovered included pearlware and redware. The large number of early cut nails, which date to between 1790 and 1820, indicate that this feature was related to the initial construction of the site.

Faunal remains recovered from Feature 19 included domestic cow, domestic pig, and mole.

6.3.3.2.12 Feature 20

Feature 20 is a natural feature located in the northwest corner of Test Unit 52 (Figure 6-1). It measured 65 cm east-west by 55 cm north-south and was 30 cm deep. The soils consisted of 10YR4/3 brown silty clay loam.

No artifacts were recovered from the feature. Botanical remains included mint and red clover.

6.3.3.2.13 Feature 21

Feature 21 is a linear association of loose rocks. It was uncovered during the mechanical removal of the topsoil (Figure 6-1, Figure 6-45 and Figure 6-46). The feature measured 12 meters east-west by 2 meters north-south. Most of the feature was comprised of loose stones within a matrix of 10YR6/8 yellowish brown clay.

A total of eight (8) artifacts were observed at the feature. All eight (n=8) were nails. All of the nails were early cut and were recovered during backhoe excavations. The nail date to between 1790 and 1820 and indicate the feature may have been constructed during the Thomas Champ period. Since the artifacts were recovered from backhoe excavations there may be a biased sample.

This feature appears to be a walkway or driveway.



Figure 6-45. Feature 21 Northern end, after Mechanical Removal of Topsoil.



Figure 6-46. Feature 21 Southern end, after Mechanical Removal of Topsoil.

6.3.3.3 Other Features

This group includes features that were of unknown function and not related to or in close proximity to the house or cellar feature. Most of these features were identified during the mechanical stripping of the site.

6.3.3.3.1 Feature 1

Feature 1 was determined to be fill from utility line construction.

6.3.3.3.1 Feature 11

Feature 11 was a natural/rodent feature in the eastern part of Test Unit 35 (Figure 6-1 and Figure 6-47). It measured 30 cm east-west by 20 cm north-south and it was 18 cm thick. The soil of the feature consisted of a 10YR3/4 dark yellowish brown silty clay mottled with 10YR 3/6 dark yellowish brown clay.

No artifacts were recovered from the feature.

6.3.3.3.2 Feature 22

Feature 22 is post hole with possible corner stones. It was uncovered during the mechanical removal of the topsoil (Figure 6-1, Figure 6-48 through Figure 6-50). The feature measured 80 cm east-west by 98 cm north-south and 45 cm deep. The soils consisted of a 2.5Y3/3 dark olive brown silty clay loam mottled with 10YR4/3 dark yellowish brown clay.

No artifacts were recovered from the feature.

6.3.3.3.3 Feature 23

Feature 23 was a shallow circular ash lens. It was identified after the removal of the topsoil (Figure 6-1, Figure 6-51 through Figure 6-53). The feature measured 58 cm north-south by 63cm east-west and 8 cm deep. The soil consisted of a 10YR4/3 brown silty clay loam with ash.

A total of eight (8) artifacts were recovered. These included four (n=4) pieces of mortar, two (n=2) pieces of burned clay, and two shards of coarse redware. The artifact assemblage to too small to say anything about chronology for the feature.

6.3.3.3.4 Feature 24

Feature 24 is a shallow circular feature. It was identified after the removal of the topsoil (Figure 6-1, Figure 6-54 and Figure 6-55). The feature measured 34 cm north-south by 50 cm east-west and 5 cm deep. The soil consisted of 10YR4/3 brown silty loam.

No artifacts were recovered from the feature.

6.3.3.3.5 Feature 25

Feature 25 was a shallow natural feature. It was identified after the removal the removal of the topsoil.

One artifact was recovered, a shard of hard paste porcelain. The artifact assemblage to too small to say anything about chronology for the feature.



Figure 6-47. Feature 11 before Excavation.



Figure 6-48. Feature 22 before Excavation.



Figure 6-49. Feature 22 after Excavation.

Feature 22, Plan and Profile

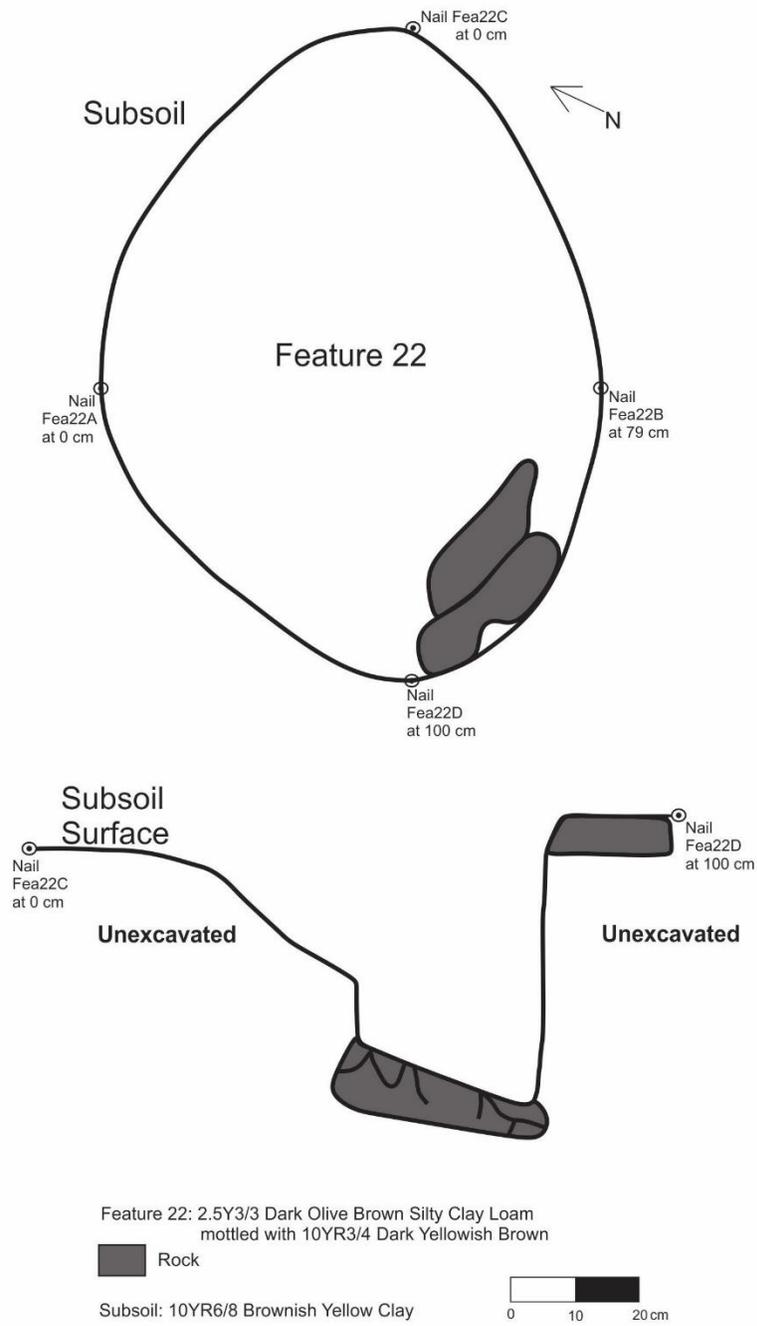


Figure 6-50. Feature 22 Plan and Profile.



Figure 6-51. Feature 23 before Excavation.



Figure 6-52. Feature 23 south wall Profile.

Feature 23, Plan and Profile

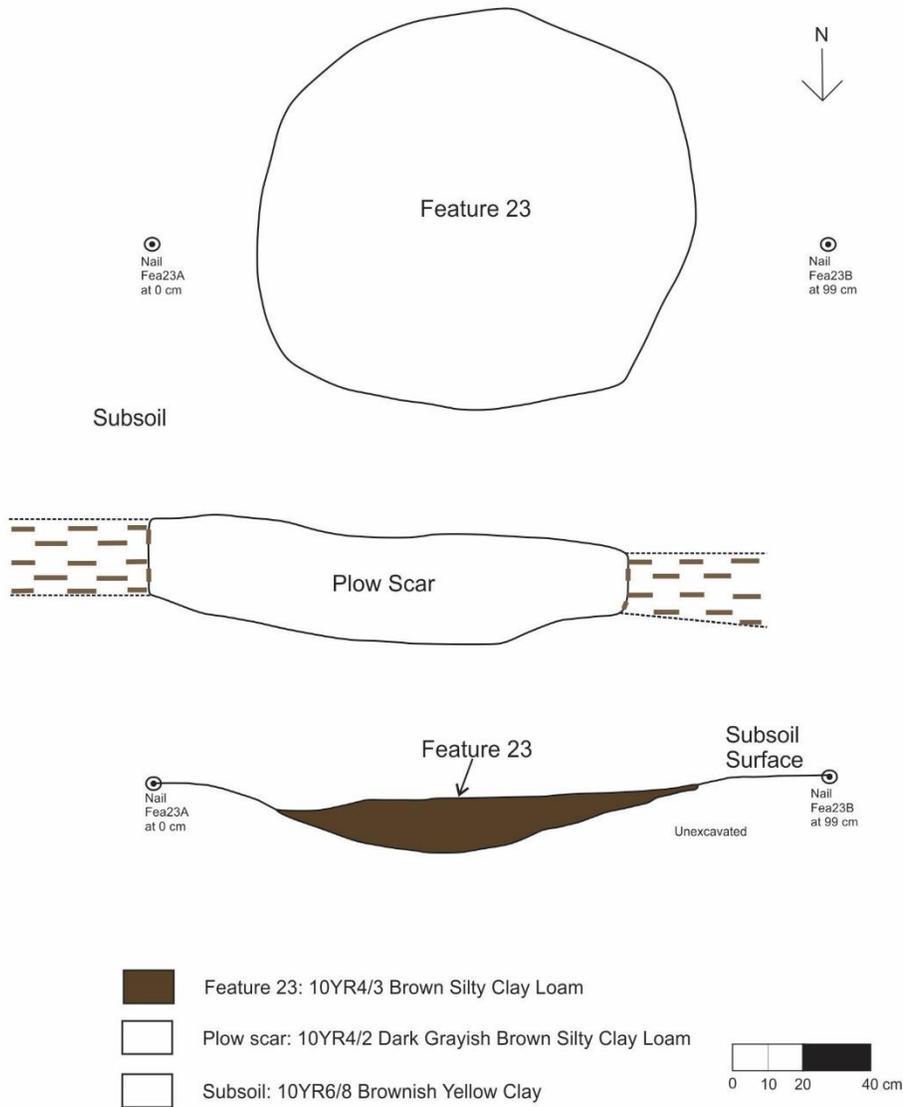


Figure 6-53. Feature 23 Profile and south wall Planview.



Figure 6-54. Feature 24 before Excavation.



Figure 6-55. Feature 24 south wall Profile.

6.3.3.3.6 Feature 26

Feature 26 is a circular post hole with possible corner stones. It was identified after the removal of the topsoil (Figure 6-1, Figure 6-56 and Figure 6-57). It measured 54 cm north-south by 44 cm east west and 14 cm thick. The soils consisted of 10YR3/2 very dark greyish silt loam with stones.

A total of thirteen (13) of artifacts were recovered from the feature. Most of these belonged to the architectural group (n=9) and the other 4 to the kitchen group (Table 6-9). One unspecified cut nail, one creamware sherd, one porcelain sherd, and one redware sherd were recovered. The limited number of diagnostic artifacts make it difficult to say anything about the chronology of the feature.

Botanical remains recovered from Feature 26 included corn, ground cherry, and weeds. Faunal remains recovered from the features included domestic cow, domestic chicken, and domestic pig.

The feature, along with Feature 28, may be corners of an outbuilding, such as a meat house.

6.3.3.3.7 Feature 27

Feature 27 is a shallow circular ash layer. It was identified after the removal of the topsoil (Figure 6-1, Figure 6-58 through Figure 6-60). It measured 44 cm north-south by 38 cm east-west and 3 cm thick. The soils consisted of 10YR4/4 dark greyish brown silty clay.

One artifact was recovered from the feature, a single shard of hard paste porcelain. It is difficult to say anything about the chronology of the feature based on one artifact.

6.3.3.3.8 Feature 28

Feature 28 was a post hole with possible corner stones. It was identified after the mechanical removal of the topsoil (Figure 6-1, Figure 6-61 though Figure 6-63). It measured 55 cm east-west by 69 cm north-south and 39 cm thick. The soil consisted of 10YR4/3 brown silt loam mixed with charcoal and ash.

A total of fifty-three (53) artifacts were recovered (Table 6-10). The majority of the artifacts belong to the kitchen group (n=46, 86.8%), with some kitchen group artifacts (n=6, 11.3%), and one personal group artifact (n=1, 1.9%). Five redware sherds were recovered. The limited number of diagnostic artifacts make it difficult to say anything about the chronology of the feature.

Botanical remains recovered from Feature 28 included squash, mint, and red clover. Faunal remains included domestic cow and domestic pig.

The feature may be a corner of an outbuilding, along with Feature 26.

6.3.3.3.9 Feature 29

Feature 29 is a shallow circular feature. It was identified after the mechanical removal of the topsoil (Figure 6-1, Figure 6-64 and Figure 6-65). It measured 40 cm east-west by 36 cm north-south and 5 cm thick. The soil consisted of a 10YR3/4 dark yellowish brown silty clay loam.

No artifacts were recovered from the feature.

6.3.3.3.10 Feature 30

Feature 30 was a shallow circular feature. It was identified after the mechanical removal of the topsoil (Figure 6-1, Figure 6-64 and Figure 6-66). It measured 49 cm east-west by 37 cm north-south and 3 cm thick. The soil consisted of 10YR3/2 dark yellowish brown silty clay loam.



Figure 6-56. Feature 26 before Excavation.



Figure 6-57. Feature 26 after Excavation.

Table 6-9. Artifacts from Feature 26.

Group	Class	Type	Total	%
Architecture	Ceramic	Brick	1	75.0%
	Metal	Nail	1	
	Other	Burned Clay	3	
	Stone	Mortar	4	
<i>Architecture Total</i>			9	
Kitchen	Ceramic	Creamware	1	20.0%
		Hard Paste Porcelain	1	
		Redware - Coarse	1	
<i>Kitchen Total</i>			3	
Grand Total			12	100.0%

**Figure 6-58. Feature 27 before Excavation.**



Figure 6-59. Feature 27 north wall Profile.

Feature 27, Plan and Profile

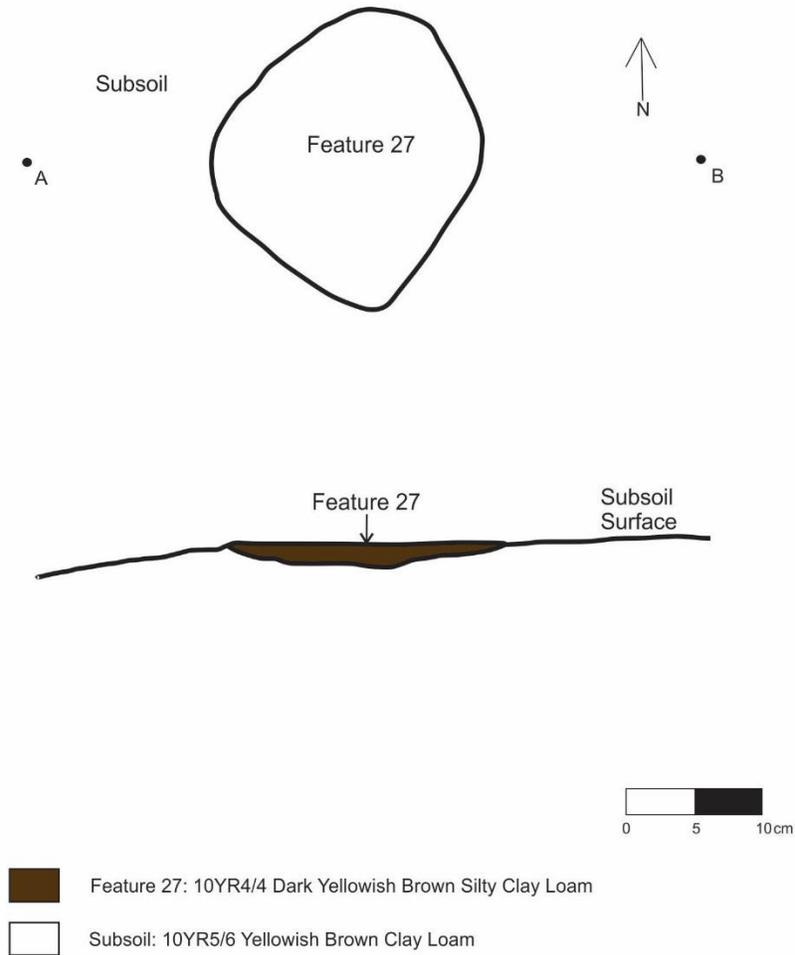


Figure 6-60. Feature 27 Plan and Profile.

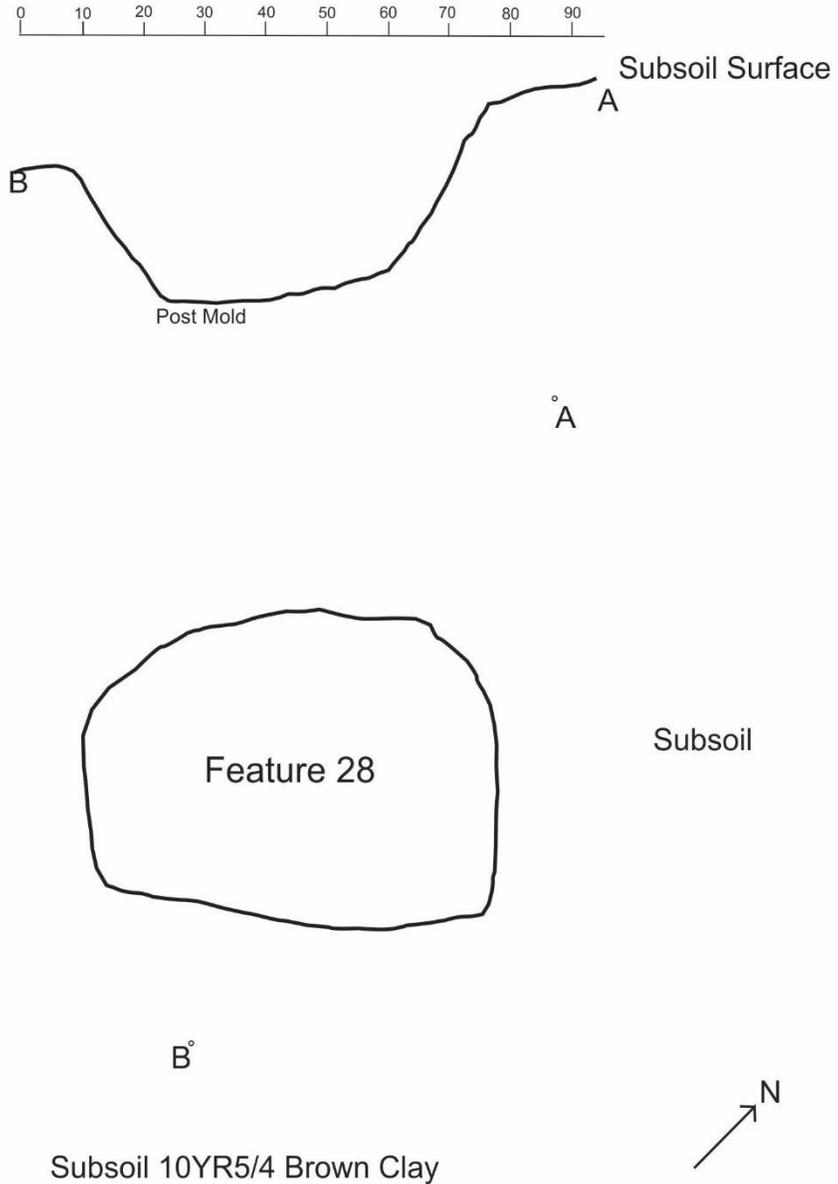


Figure 6-61. Feature 28 during Excavation.



Figure 6-62. Feature 28 after Excavation.

Feature 28 Profile and Plan



Subsoil 10YR5/4 Brown Clay

Figure 6-63. Feature 28 Profile and Plan.

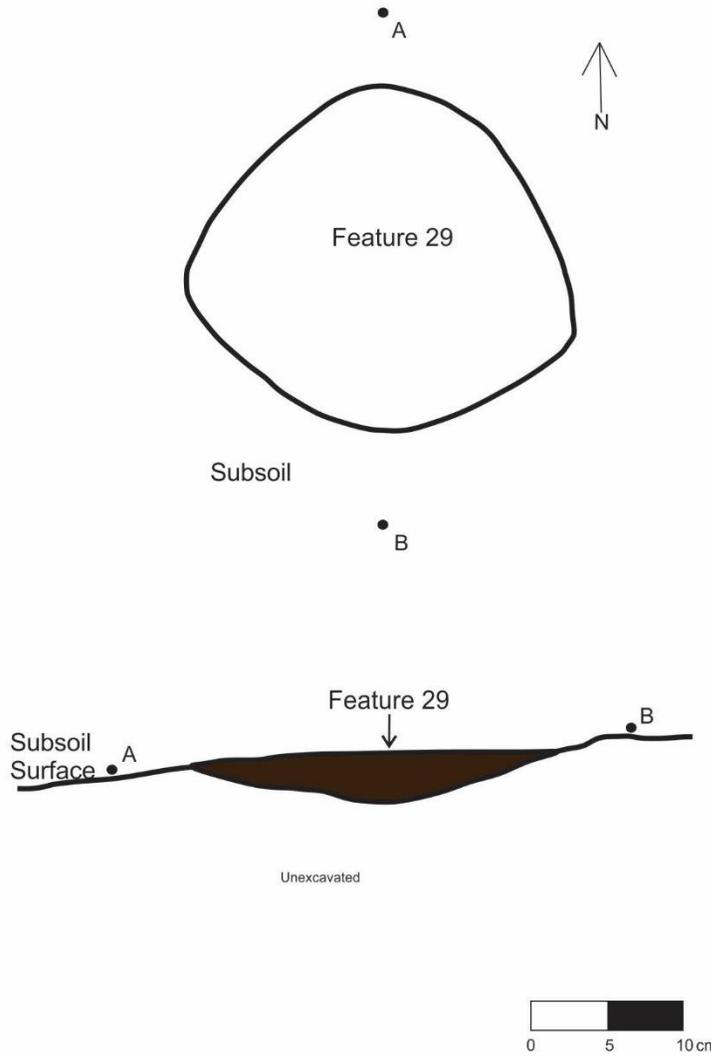
Table 6-10. Artifacts from Feature 28.

Group	Class	Type	Total	%
Architecture	Ceramic	Brick	3	86.8%
	Other	Burned Clay	10	
	Stone	Mortar	33	
<i>Architecture Total</i>			46	
Kitchen	Ceramic	Redware - Coarse	5	11.3%
	Glass	Bottle/Jar Body	1	
<i>Kitchen Total</i>			6	
Personal	Metal	Other Metal	1	1.9%
<i>Personal Total</i>			1	
Grand Total			53	100.0%



Figure 6-64. Features 29, 30, and 31 before Excavation.

Feature 29, Plan and Profile



Feature 29 :10YR3/4 Dark Yellowish Brown Silty Clay Loam

Subsoil: 10YR5/6 Yellowish Brown Clay Loam

Figure 6-65. Feature 29 Plan and Profile.

Feature 30, Plan and Profile

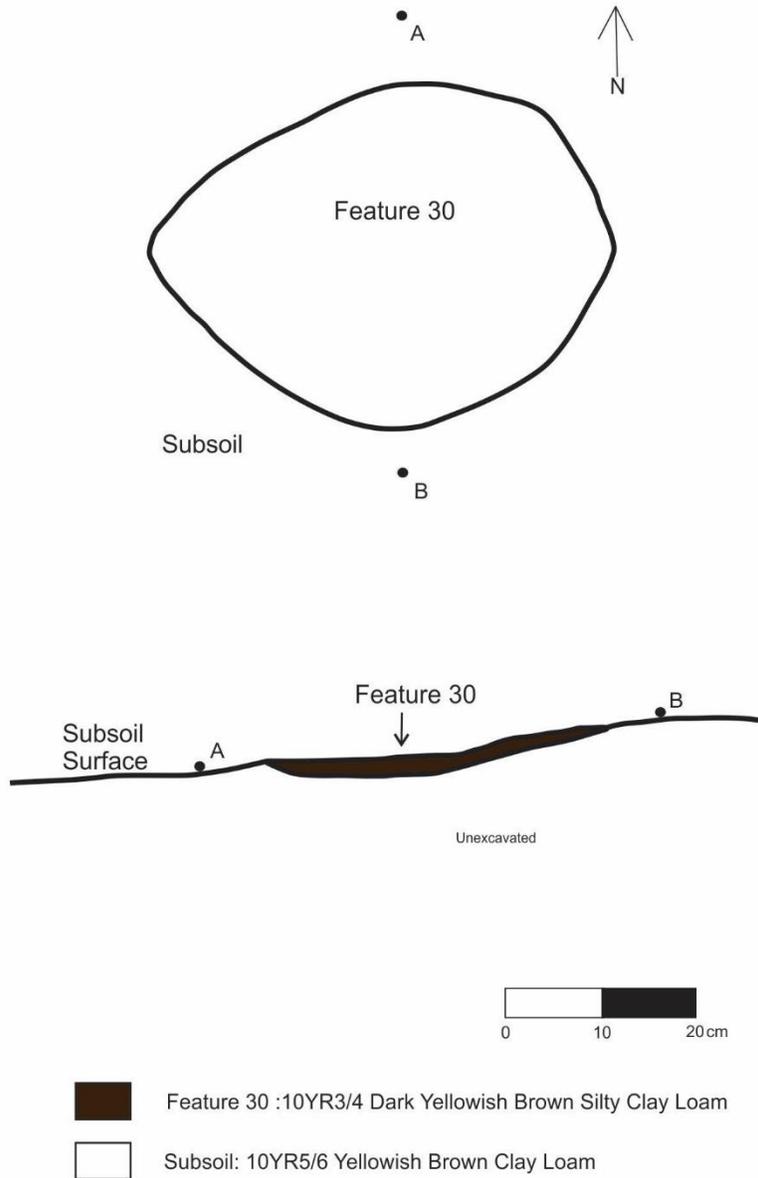


Figure 6-66. Feature 30 Plan and Profile.

No artifacts were recovered from the feature.

6.3.3.3.11 Feature 31

Feature 31 was a shallow circular feature. It was identified after the mechanical removal of the topsoil (Figure 6-1, Figure 6-64 and Figure 6-67). It measured 20 cm north-south by 24 cm east-west and was less than 1 cm thick. The soils of the feature consisted of 10Yr3/4 dark yellowish brown silty clay loam.

6.3.3.3.12 Feature 33

Feature 33 is a shallow trash pit. It was identified after the mechanical removal of the topsoil (Figure 6-1, Figure 6-68 through Figure 6-70). It measured 45 cm east-west by 45 cm north-south and 5 cm thick. The soils consisted of 10YR5/3 brown silty clay loam with charcoal flecks.

Only three artifacts were, a brick fragment and a two (2) pieces of burned clay. Faunal remains recovered included domestic pig.

6.3.3.3.13 Feature 34

Feature 34 was a shallow circular feature. It was identified after the mechanical removal of the topsoil (Figure 6-1, Figure 6-71 and Figure 6-72). It measured 28 cm north-south by 28 cm east-west and 3 cm thick. The soil consisted of a 10YR3/2 very dark greyish brown silty clay loam.

Only one artifact was recovered, a creamware rim fragment. It is difficult to say anything about the chronology of the feature based on one artifact. Creamware dates to between 1775 and 1820 (Noel-Hume 1969).

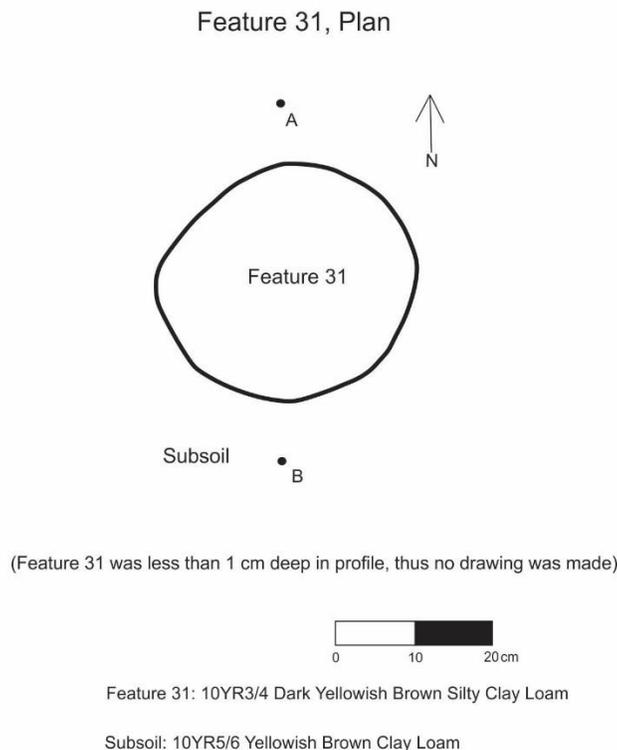


Figure 6-67. Feature 31 Planview.

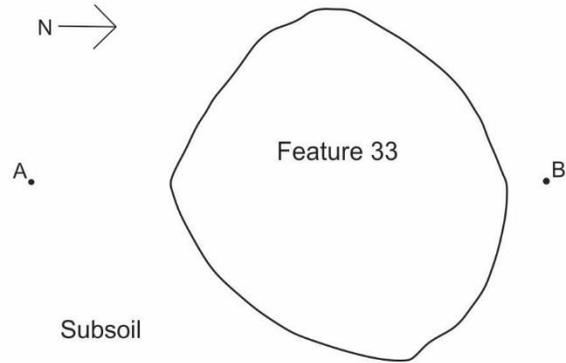


Figure 6-68. Feature 33 before Excavation.



Figure 6-69. Feature 33 after Excavation.

Feature 33, Plan and Profile



Feature 33, excavated profile



Feature 33: 10YR5/3 Brown Silty Clay Loam with charcoal flecks

Subsoil: 10YR5/4 Yellowish Brown Clay

Figure 6-70. Feature 33 Plan and Profile.



Figure 6-71. Feature 34 before Excavation.

Feature 34, Plan and Profile

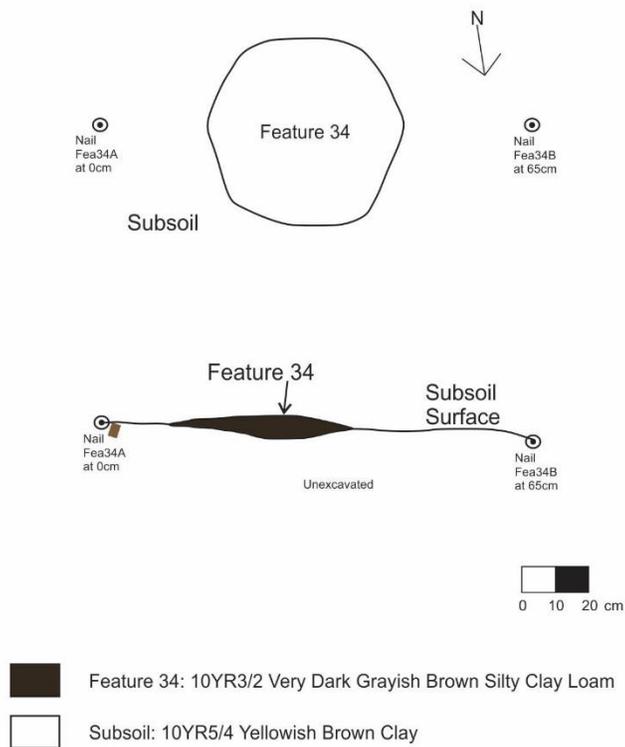


Figure 6-72. Feature 34 Plan and Profile.

6.4 Chronology

Dates for the occupation of the Champ House are based on diagnostic artifacts and documentary evidence. Both types of evidence, artifacts and archival data, have limitations. Artifacts often have manufacturing dates that are limited and are valuable for dating sites. Property deeds provide valuable data that can be precise. The artifacts used for establishing a chronology include ceramics, nails, and window glass. The documentary evidence includes deeds, tax records, and census records.

6.4.1 Archival

The dates for the occupation of Site 15BB137 based on documentary evidence are from 1787 to 1827. The 1787 date is from the deed when Thomas Champ purchased the land Bourbon County Deed Book A:90-91). Mary Champ received the house and 25 acres on the death of Thomas Champ, her father, in 1808 (Bourbon County Circuit Court Case 6129, 1811). She sold the land to her brother, Robert, in 1827 (BCDB U:348-9). There is no documentary evidence that anyone lived in the house after 1827. Tax records and census records only show the landowner or head of household. The mean date for the occupation based on the deeds is 1807.

6.4.2 Window Glass

Window glass analysis is a process for determining a relative initial construction date for historic structures by recording the thickness of window glass (Weiland 2009). The method used for this analysis was developed by Moir (1983). Moir's dating formula is $ID = 84.22 (TH) + 1712.7$, where ID is the date of construction and TH is the thickness. The sample size required by Moir was at least 15 to 20 pieces of glass for a viable result and above 30 for reliable results. The structure should be built after 1800 and before 1920. This is not the case for 15BB137. Other dating methods have similar restrictions for pre-1800 construction (Weiland 2009). Besides the mean date for the site, separate areas with also be studied.

The average date, or initial construction date, for the Champ House and outbuildings is 1820.5. Weiland (2009) tested various window glass dating methods, including Moir, and found the average date to often be later than the documented occupation dates. Looking at the window glass distribution variability around the site may be a better use of the window glass dating. The site is divided into three areas based on the concentration of units. The area near Feature 4 included units 45, 20, 19, 16, 22, 21, 44, 17, 59, 34, 36, and 30. The second area near Feature 13 consisted of units 53, 48, 24, 64, 26, 32, 54, 62, 50, 46, 40, 41, 37, 60, 61, 12, and 65. The third area near Feature 15 included units 52, 55, 29, 51, 56, 43, 47, 49, 39, 58, and 63.

The average dates were calculated for each of the three areas and distribution maps were made based on dates (Table 6-11; Figure 6-73 through Figure 6-76). The date for units near Feature 4 was 1817. The date for the units near Feature 13 was 1819, and the date for the units near Feature 15 was 1822.

Table 6-11. Average Window Glass Dates.

Area	Date
Total Site	1820
Feature 4 Area	1817
Feature 13 Area	1819
Feature 15 Area	1822

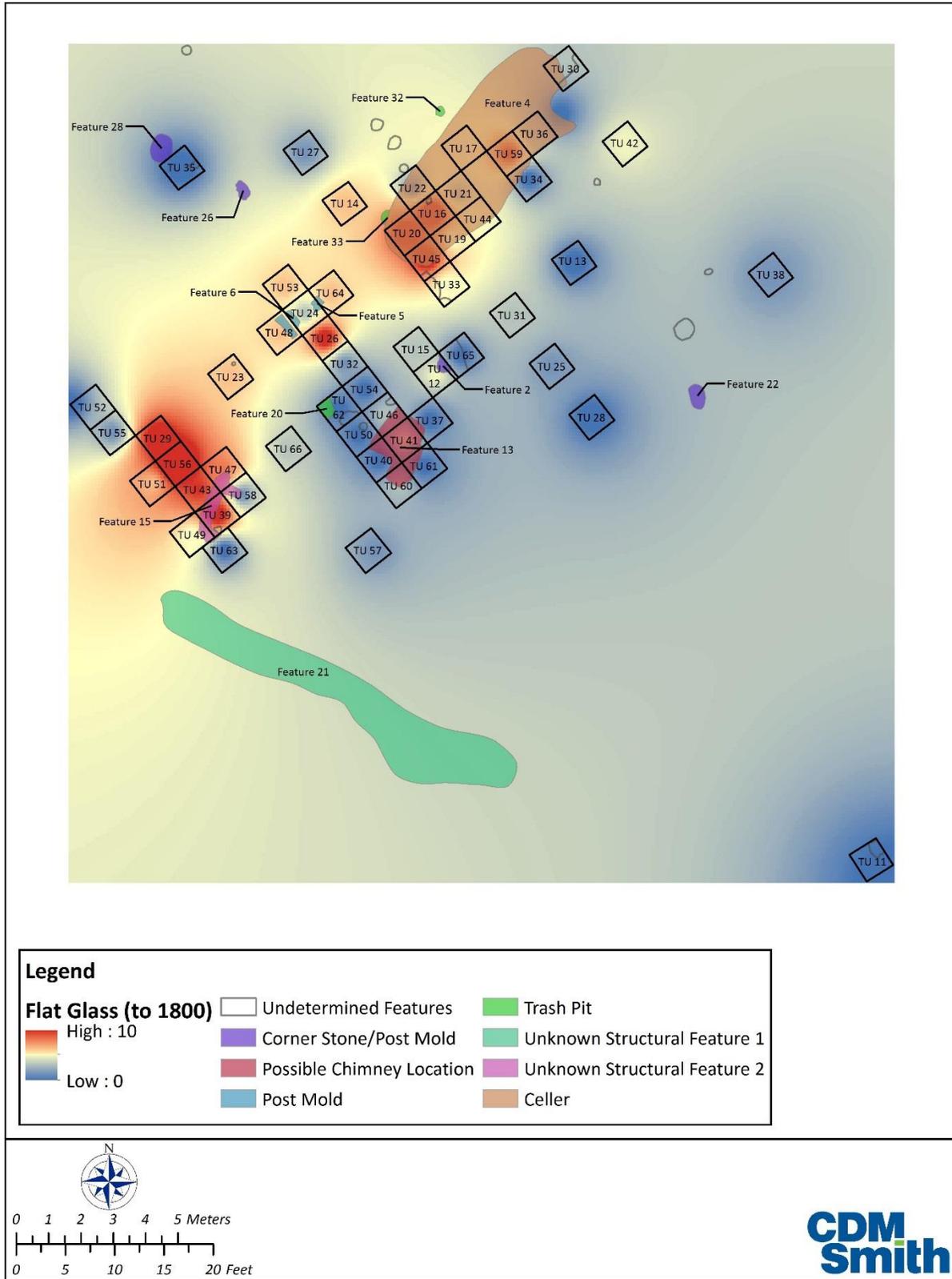


Figure 6-73. Flat Glass to 1800.

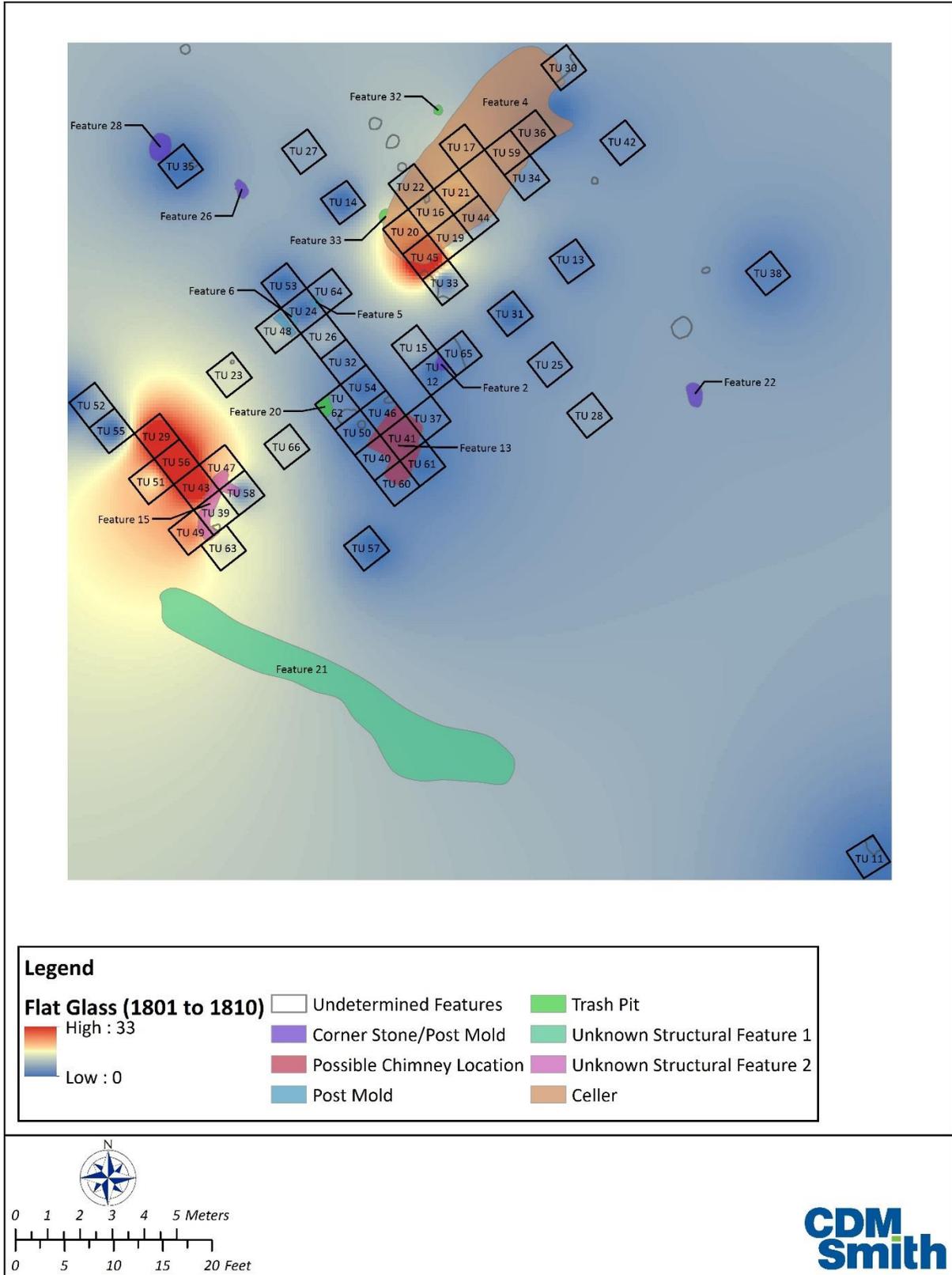


Figure 6-74. Flat Glass 1801 to 1810.

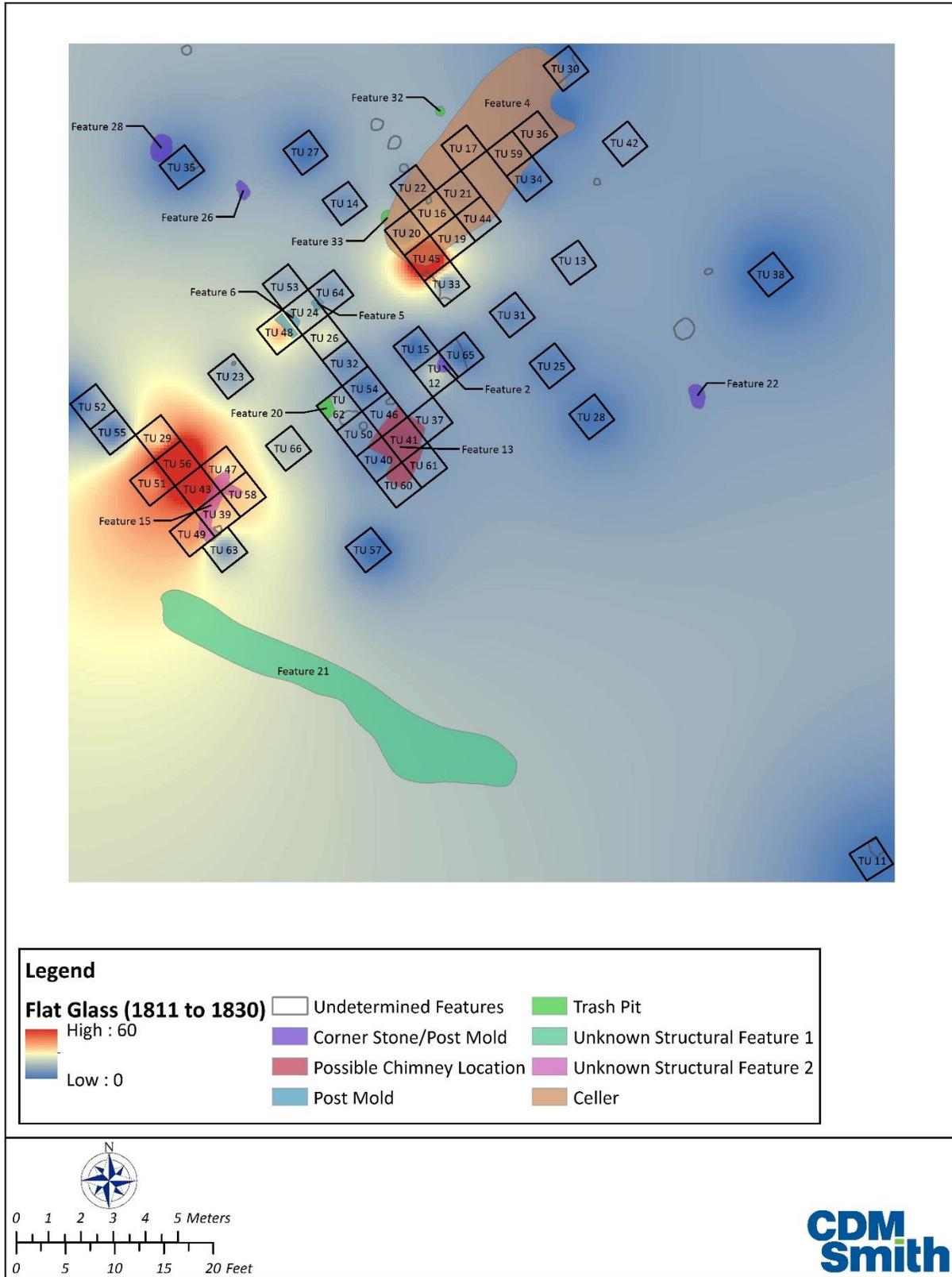


Figure 6-75. Flat Glass 1811 to 1830.

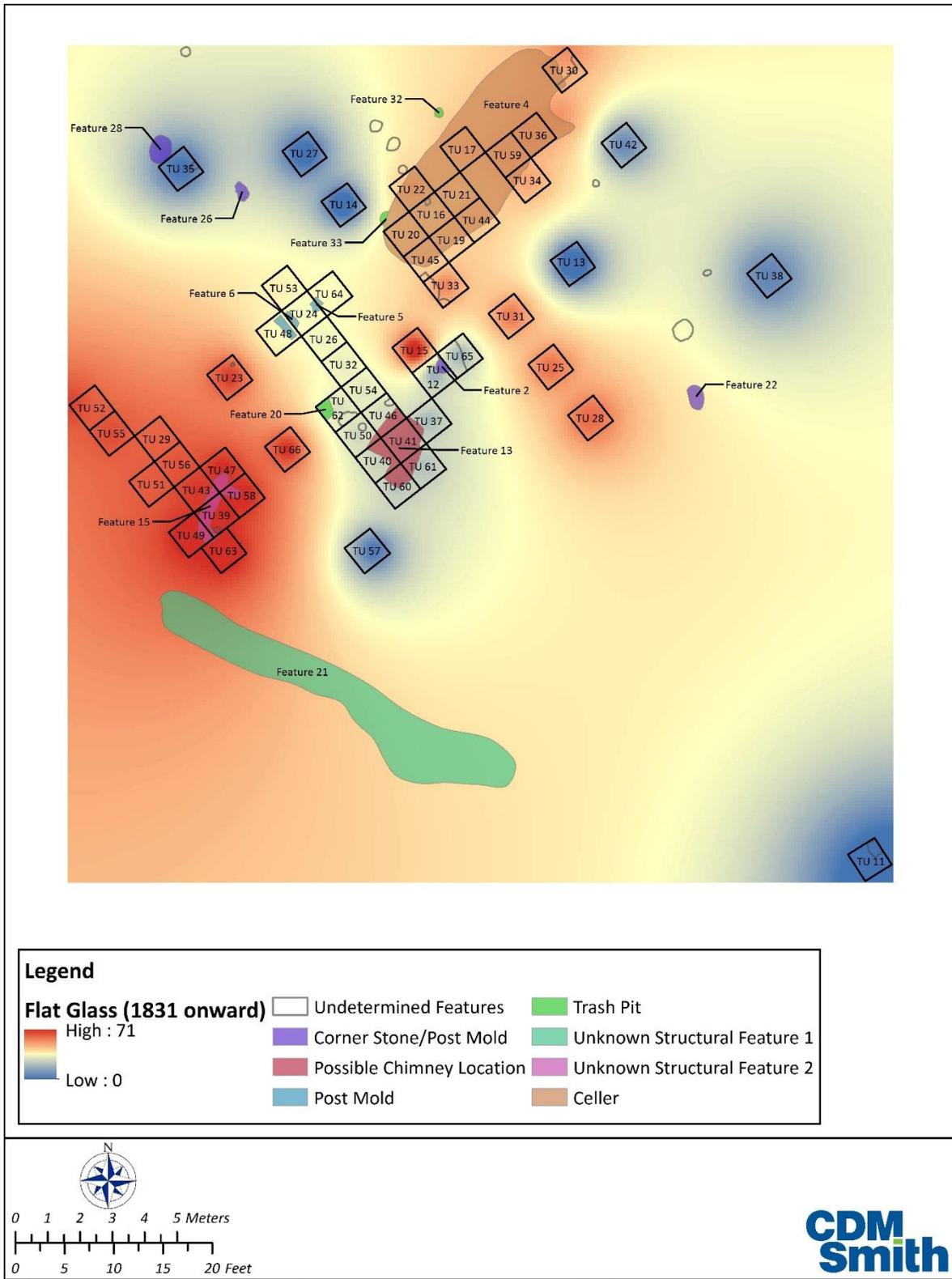


Figure 6-76. Flat Glass 1831 onward.

Figure 6-73 through Figure 6-76 show the distribution of the window glass through time. The distributions for the first three times periods are similar (Figure 6-73 through Figure 6-75). Figure 6-76 indicates an increase in window glass around the site, especially in the western part of the site near Feature 15. The area around Feature 15 is thought to be near a door and possibly a window. The concentrations on the eastern part of the site may represent window locations on the eastern side of the house and windows on the possible detached kitchen. The increase in late window glass near Feature 15 could indicate that house was occupied later than the kitchen end cellar.

It is difficult to determine the nature of the increase in window glass in Figure 6-76. I may be related to increased window replacement or remodeling. Figure 6-77 is basically a normal curve showing the distribution of window glass thickness. The curve suggests there limited remodeling and the window glass assemblage is the result of replacement. The window glass dates should be seen should be regarded more as relative dating rather than as precise dating (Weiland 2009).

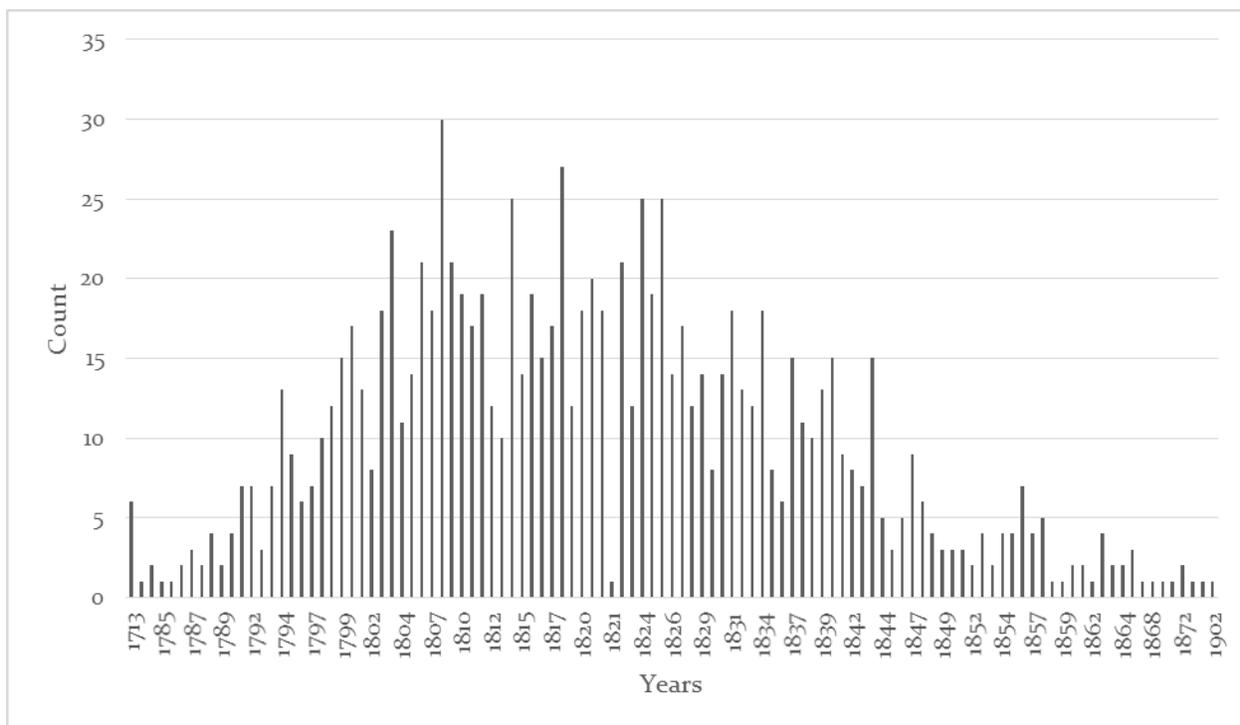


Figure 6-77. Moir Window glass Dating.

6.4.3 Ceramics

Ceramics have been important for dating and economic scaling of historic sites (Noel-Hume 1969; Miller 1991, 1980). Three ceramic types have been important for both of these studies: creamware, pearlware, and whiteware. The dates for the manufacture of the ceramics has been established (Table 6-12) (Miller et al. 2000). Other ceramics recovered from the Champ House have longer ranges of manufacture and are not as useful for dating. These ceramic types include redware, domestic stoneware, and porcelain (Miller et al. 2000). The dates of manufacture for all of the ceramic types, except whiteware, cover both the Thomas Champ and Mary Champ periods of occupation. Whiteware does not show up in the archaeological record in the United States until the 1820s (des Fontaines 1990).

Table 6-12. Ceramic Dates.

Type	Date
Creamware (light-colored)	1775-1820 Noel Hume 1969
Dipt Creamware	1790-1820 Noel Hume 1969
Pearlware, blue painted	1779-1830 Miller 1991
Pearlware, blue or green shell-edge	1800-1835 Miller and Hunter 2001
Pearlware, brown-printed	1809-1825 Miller 1991
Whiteware	1820-1890 (most popular) Majewski and O'Brien 1987
Whiteware, red, green, purple, brown printed	1828-present Miller 1991
Chinese Export Porcelain	1784-1820 (most popular) Palmer 1983
American Salt-glazed Stoneware	1705-1930 Ketchum 1991
Redware	1780-1860 Ketchum 1971

There were some issues in separating pearlware and whiteware in the assemblage. The small size of most of the sherds was part of the problem and some of the sherds were burned. During the nineteenth century pearlware became heavier and whiter with a glaze that varied from deeply blue-tinged to almost colorless. This was more noticeable after 1810. By the time the blue-tinged glaze was abandoned pearlware was indistinguishable from whiteware (Sussman 2000).

The distribution of the ceramic around the site showed some temporal and/or functional variation. The distribution of the ceramics by depth showed little variation (Table 6-13). The horizontal distribution of the ceramics across the site indicated that there was variability in the occupation of the possible structures (Table 6-14 through Table 6-16) (Figure 6-78 through Figure 6-81). The site was divided into three areas for the distribution analysis. The area including Feature 4 consisted of test units 16, 17, 19, 20, 21, 22, 30, 34, 36, 33, 44, and 45. The area including Feature 13 consisted of units 12, 24, 26, 32, 37, 40, 41, 46, 48, 50, 53, 54, 60, 61, 62, and 64. The area including Feature 15 consisted of units 29, 39, 43, 47, 49, 51, 56, 58, and 63.

Table 6-13. Ceramic Types by Zone.

Ceramic Type	Zone 1	Zone 2	Zone 3	Zone 4
Creamware	166	56	5	4
Domestic Stoneware	18	12	-	-
Porcelain	56	18	-	-
Pearlware	497	102	9	1
Redware	994	392	16	6
Unidentified Earthenware	299	118	8	-
Whiteware	184	56	1	1
Total	2214	745	39	12

Table 6-14. Ceramics from Feature 4 Area.

Ceramic Type	Number	%
Creamware	124	9.6%
Domestic Stoneware	8	0.6%
Porcelain	22	1.7%
Pearlware	237	18.3%
Redware	668	51.7%
Unidentified Earthenware	177	13.7%
Whireware	57	4.4%
Total	1293	100.0%

Table 6-15. Ceramics from Feature 13 Area.

Ceramic Type	Number	%
Creamware	35	5.0%
Domestic Stoneware	2	0.3%
Porcelain	22	1.7%
Pearlware	197	28.0%
Redware	262	37.2%
Unidentified Earthenware	92	13.1%
Whireware	91	12.9%
Total	704	100.0%

Table 6-16. Ceramics from Feature 15 Area.

Ceramic Type	Number	%
Creamware	19	6.5%
Domestic Stoneware	8	2.7%
Porcelain	7	2.4%
Pearlware	52	17.7%
Redware	118	40.1%
Unidentified Earthenware	51	17.3%
Whireware	39	13.3%
Total	294	100.0%

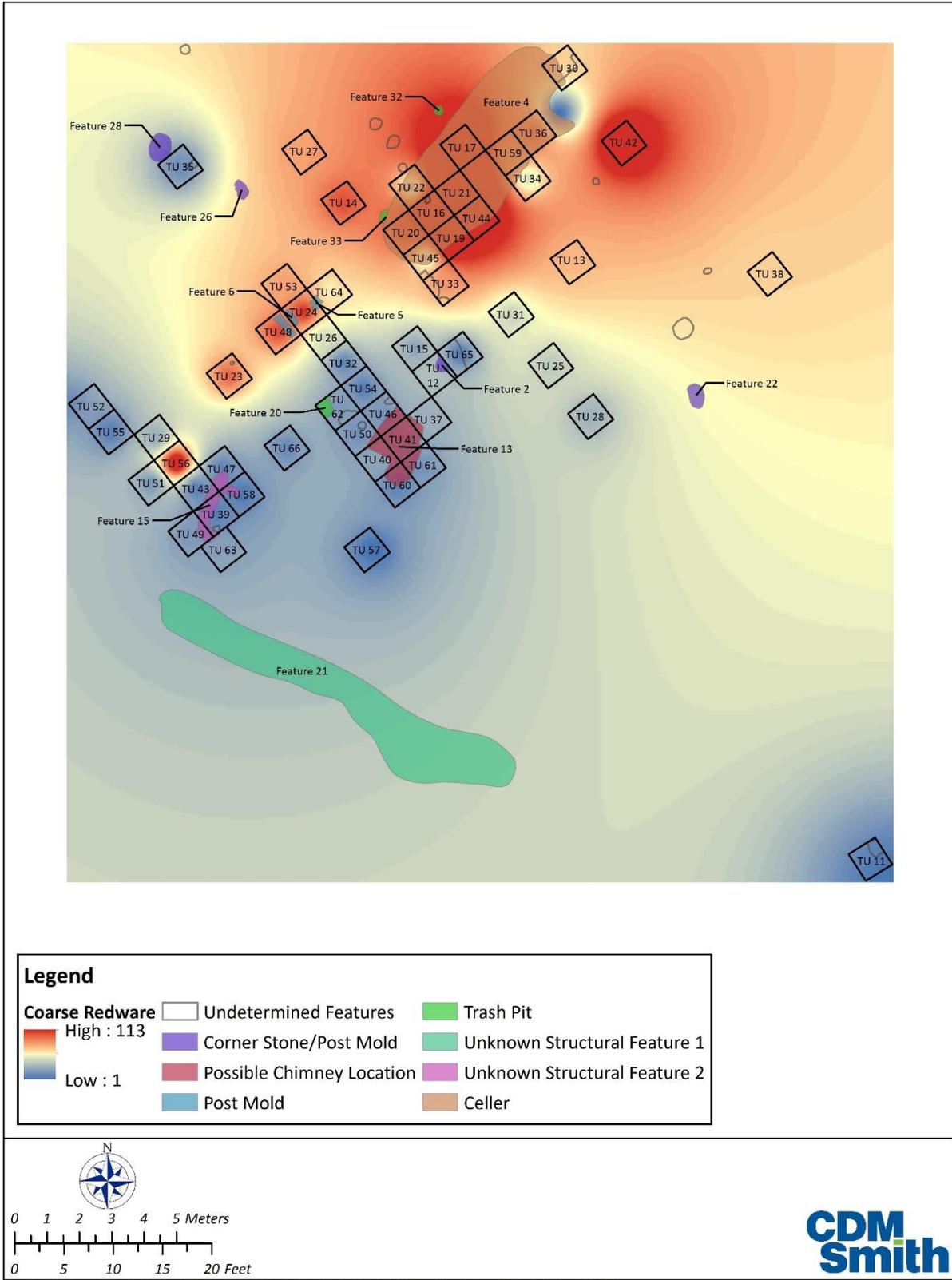
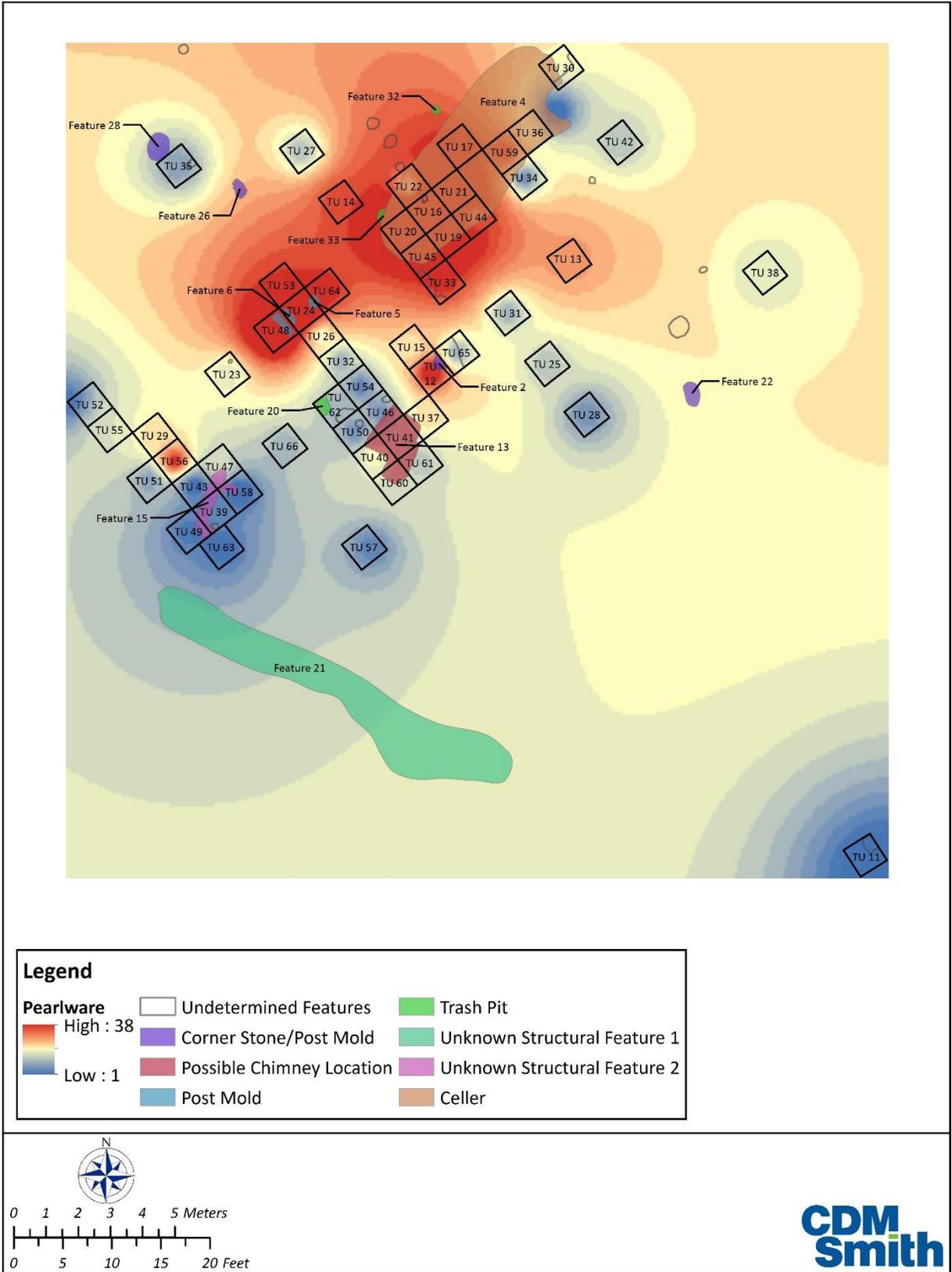
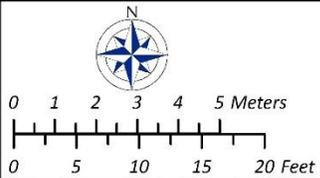


Figure 6-78. Coarse Redware Distribution.



Legend

Pearlware	High : 38	Low : 1	Undetermined Features	Trash Pit
			Corner Stone/Post Mold	Unknown Structural Feature 1
			Possible Chimney Location	Unknown Structural Feature 2
			Post Mold	Cellar



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Figure 6-80. Pearlware Distribution.

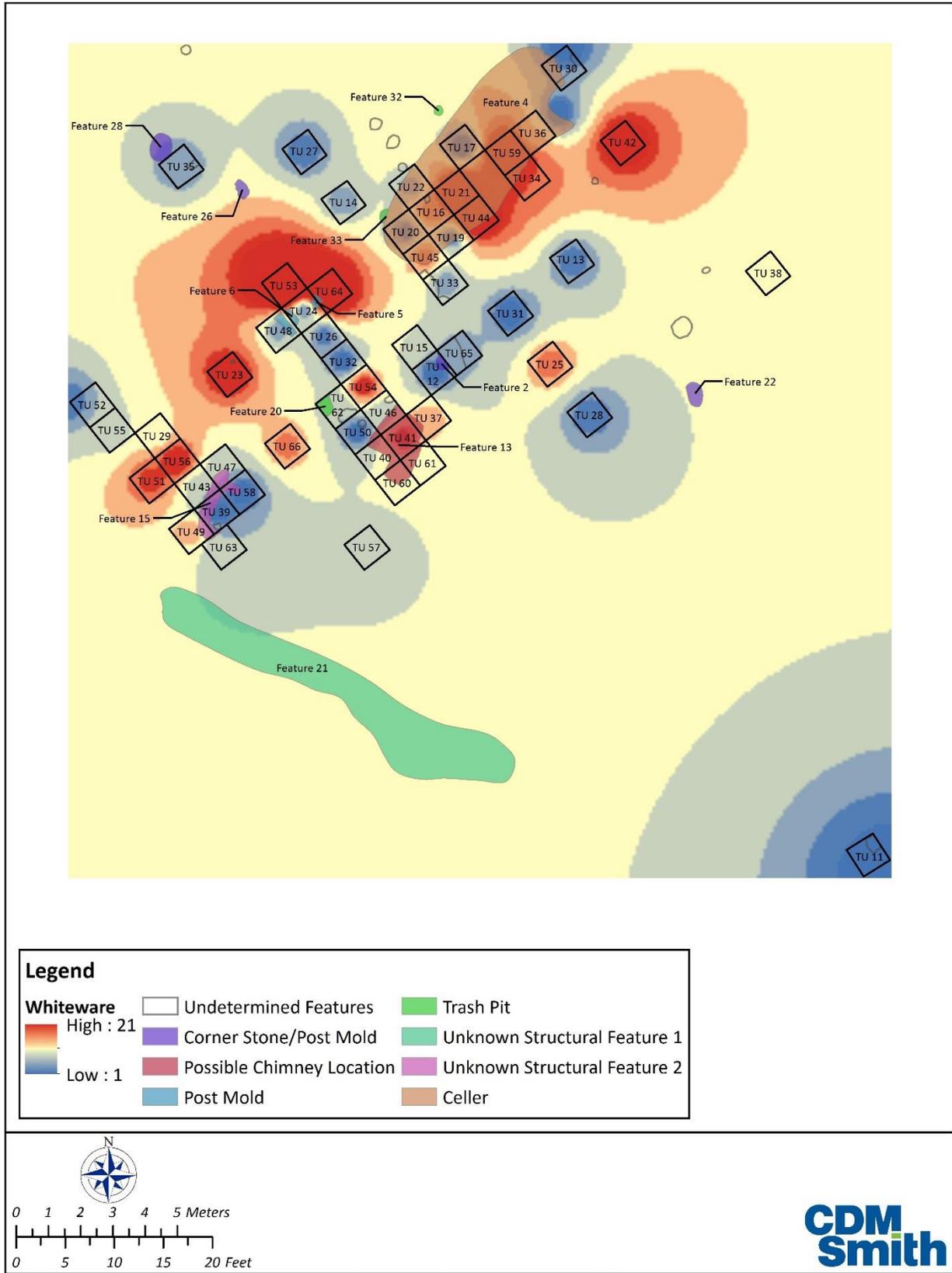


Figure 6-81. Whiteware Distribution.

Redware, creamware, and whiteware show the most variability in their distribution. Redware consisted of 1,474 specimens or 46.4 percent of the ceramic total. In the Feature 4 area the redware total was 668 or 51.7 percent. The Feature 13 area total was 262 or 37.2 percent and the Feature 15 area total was 118 or 40.1 percent. The totals for creamware was 124 (9.6%) for Feature 4 area, 35 (5.0%) for Feature 13 area, and 19 (6.5%) for Feature 15 area. This variation between the areas may be more functional than temporal. The large number of redware in the Feature 4 area is probably due to it being used in the kitchen and cellar as serving and storage vessels. Creamware vessels are also used for storage, which may explain the higher percentage in the kitchen/cellar area. The higher percentage of whiteware in the Feature 13 and Feature 15 areas could indicate that the whiteware was used and kept (or even displayed) in the main house.

Porcelain has a similar distribution pattern as whiteware. Twenty-five sherds (3.5%) were recovered from the Feature 13 area while twenty-two sherds (1.7%) were recovered from the Feature 4 area. Since the period of popularity for porcelain was 1784 to 1820 and the dates for whiteware are from 1820 to 1890, the variability in the distribution of ceramics in these three areas may be due to functional differences rather than temporal differences.

The mean ceramic date for the three areas indicates some variation. The Feature 4 area was the earliest with a date of 1808. The Feature 13 area was dated to 1818.9 and the Feature 15 area dated to 1822.1. This corresponded with the window glass averages. To determine the mean ceramic date for the areas, the number of creamware, pearlware, and whiteware was entered into the formula developed by Stanley South (1972, 1977):

$$\text{Mean Ceramic Date} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i f_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n f_i}$$

where:

x_i = the median date for manufacture of each type

f_i = the frequency of each ceramic type

n = the number of ceramic types in each sample

The mean ceramic date for the areas and for Features 4a and 4b, discussed above, indicates that the Feature 4 area is earlier than the other areas. This could support the idea that the kitchen and cellar were demolished before the house. The dates for the area (1808) and Feature 4a (1798.6) and Feature 4b (1802.7) are earlier than date of death of Thomas Champ. This could mean the kitchen and cellar were demolished before Mary Champ took over the property. The presence of whiteware suggests a post-1820 date for the demolition. The presence of nails dating to after 1810 also suggest a demolition date during the period when Mary Champ was head of household.

6.4.4 Nails

Like ceramics and glass, nails form one of the most widespread categories of artifacts recovered from historic sites. As with many other materials, increasing industrialization has had a major impact on the manufacturing of nails and associated hardware. Archaeologists have devoted considerable attention to nails in order to identify their chronologically significant characteristics (Nelson 1968). These are identified by manufacturing process (wrought, cut, wire) and, when possible, their size. The number of nails recovered totaled 1,580. Table 6-17 shows the nails recovered from the site, broken down by general type.

Table 6-17. Nails.

Type	Number	%
Cut Unspecified	451	28.5%
Early Cut	731	46.3%
Late Cut	301	19.1%
Unidentified	23	1.5%
Wire	1	0.0%
Wrought	73	4.6%
Total	1580	100.0%

The chronology of nails begins with wrought nails which were used from the 17th century until around 1830 (Nelson 1968). Early cut nails date from 1790 until the 1830s (Nelson 1968). Late cut nails date from the late 1830s to the present (Nelson 1968). Wire nails date from the 1850s to the present and began to replace cut nails by the 1880s (Nelson 1968). Later studies (Edwards and Wells 1993; Phillips 1994) suggest that there are more types of cut nails that predate the “modern” machine cut nails. Phillips intermediate type dates from 1810 to 1840 (1994). Edwards and Wells Type 5 dates from 1807 to the 1830s (1993). Nelson (1968) also has a type similar to the late cut nail but with a crude head which dates to between 1815 and 1840.

The distribution of the nails by area shows some variation (Table 6-18) (Figure 6-82 and Figure 6-83). The early cut nails are more numerous than the late cut nails in all areas. There are relatively higher numbers of late cut nails in the Feature 4 area. The numbers of wrought nails in the areas are also similar. The variation may be the result of functional differences in the areas rather than temporal differences.

Table 6-18. Nail Types by Area.

Type	F4 Area No.	F4 Area %	F13 Area No.	F13 Area %	F15 Area No.	F15 Area %
Cut unspec	121	34.5	165	29.8	104	27.7
Early Cut	121	34.5	255	46.1	196	52.1
Late Cut	84	23.9	112	20.3	52	13.8
Unid	5	1.4	1	0.2	10	2.7
Wrought	19	5.4	20	3.6	14	3.7
Wire	1	0.3	0	0	0	0
Total	351	100.0	553	100.0	376	100.0

Figure 6-82 and Figure 6-83 show differences in the distribution of early cut and late cut nails. Early cut nails have high concentrations in all three areas. Late cut nails have a high concentrations in the Feature 13 area. The distributions suggest the late cut nails were used for replacement or maintenance activities. The late cut nails in the Feature 13 area may have been used for shingle or clapboard siding replacement, especially the 4d nails. The concentration of early cut nails in the Feature 15 area probably represents the discarded material from the later replacement activities.

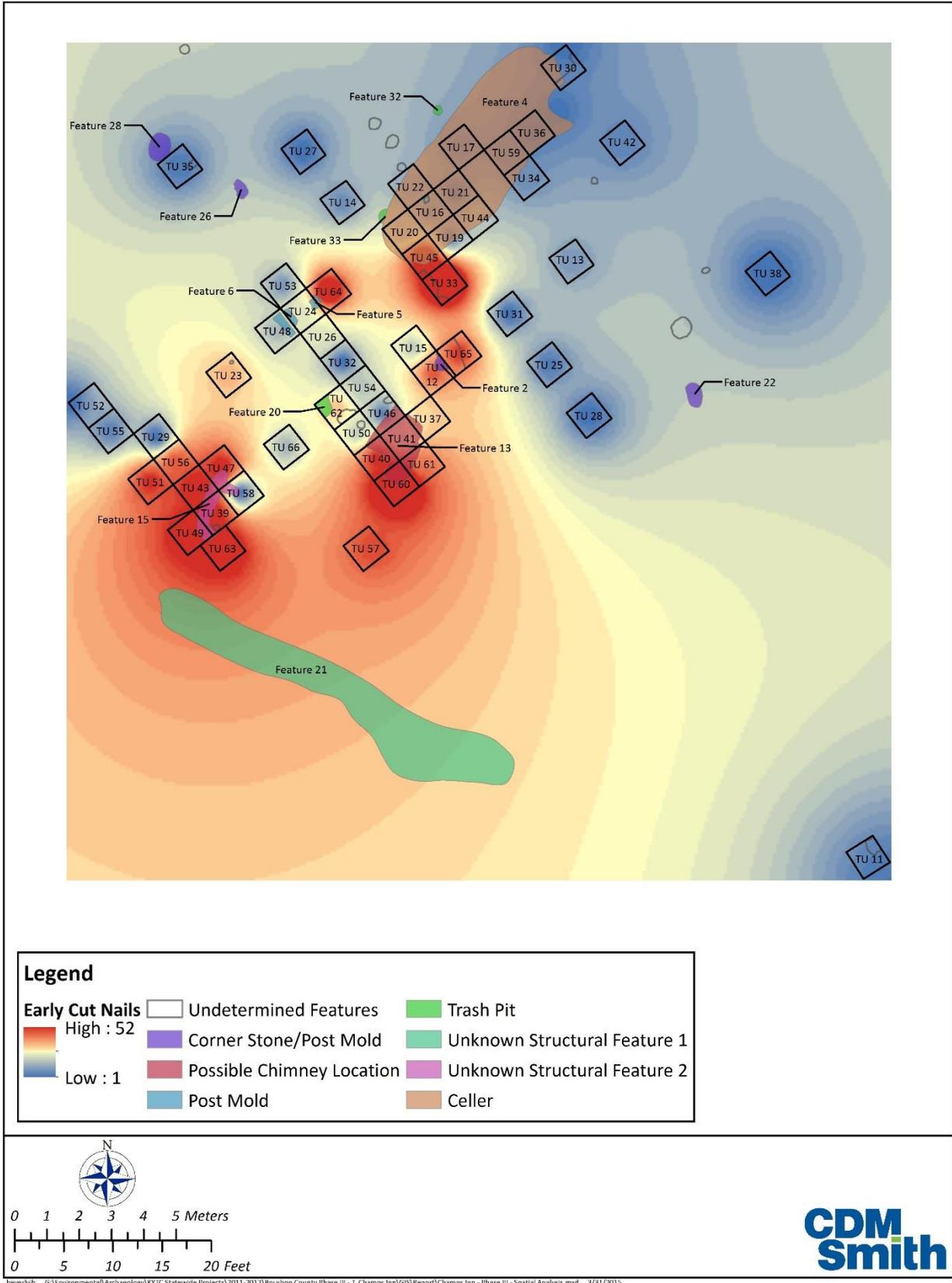


Figure 6-82. Early Cut Nail Distribution.

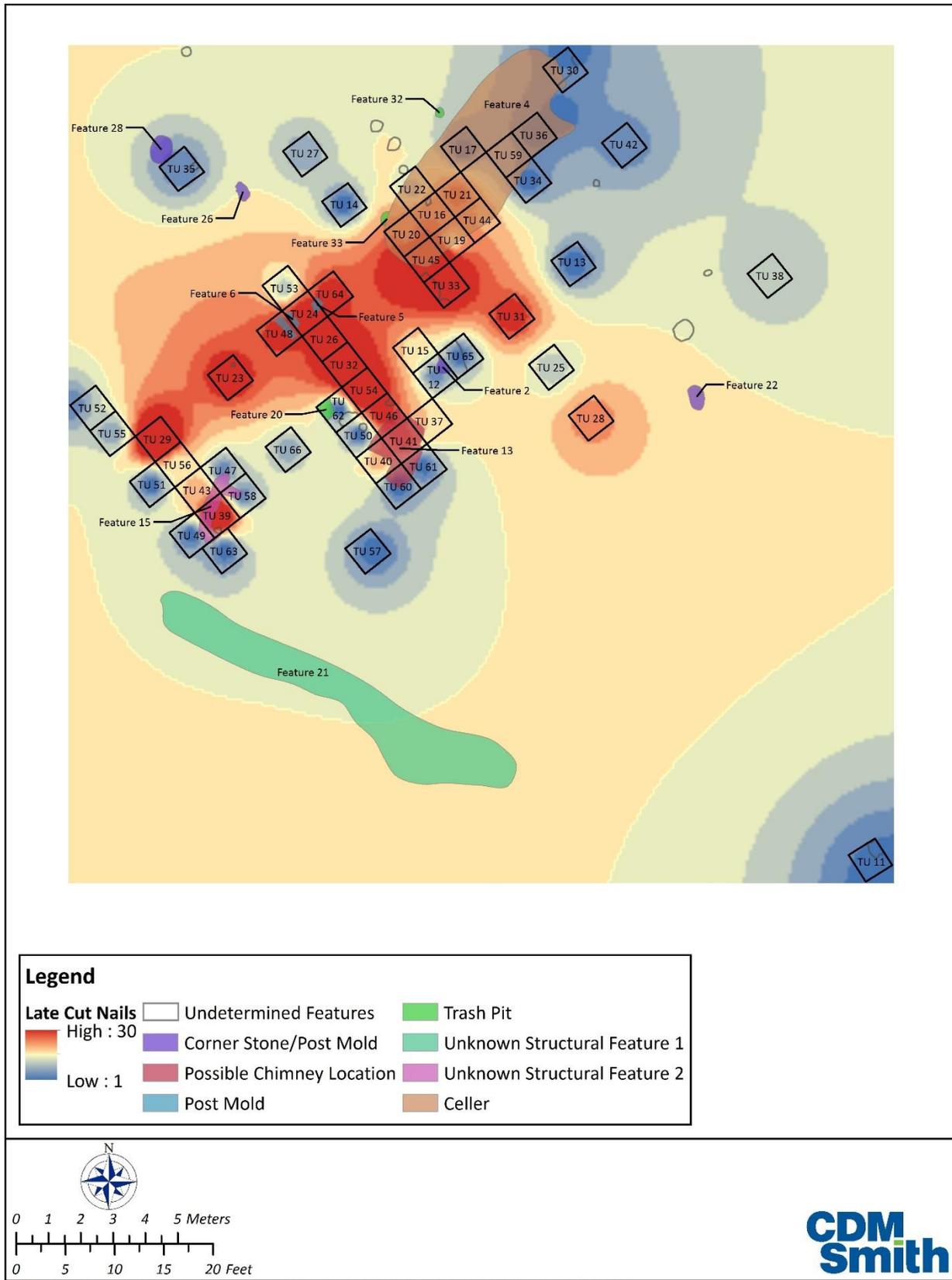


Figure 6-83. Late Cut Nail Distribution.

The distribution of the nails suggests that the identified structures were constructed around the same time. Maintenance activities took place over time. The large number of 4d nails in both early cut and late cut types suggests shingle and clapboard siding replacement was frequent. It is believed that these activities were undertaken during the occupation of the property by Thomas Champ and then Mary Champ.

The limited number of wrought nails in a late eighteenth house is somewhat unusual. This could be explained by the 1790 construction date, after the introduction of early cut nails. It is also possible that the initial log house construction was done without any significant number of nails. The early and late cut nails could represent later additions of siding, shingle roof, and interior renovations.

6.4.5 Features

Eight features (4a, 4b, 9, 10, 13, 15, 19, and 21) contained enough temporally diagnostic artifacts to analyze. The window glass counts were below the minimum recommended by Moir (1987). The analysis will focus on nails and ceramics.

6.4.5.1 Features 4a and 4b

Features 4a and 4b are believed to be related to a detached kitchen and cellar next to the Champ House. Ninety-four ceramic sherds (Table 6-19) and 11 nails (Table 6-20) were recovered from Feature 4a. The ceramic assemblage is similar to the Feature 4 area described above and the pattern suggests that the high numbers of redware and creamware was due the vessels being used for storage. The mean ceramic date for 4a was 1798.6 and 1802.7 for Feature 4b. The nail assemblage for 4a consists of five early cut nails, two late cut nails and four wrought nails. This indicates that the feature material dates from the entire occupation. One hundred and five ceramic sherds and eight nails were recovered from Feature 4b. Feature 4b had less creamware and redware and more pearlware than Feature 4a. Feature 4b had more late cut nails than early cut nails.

Table 6-19. Kitchen Ceramics from Feature 4a and 4b.

Type	4a	%	4b	%
Creamware	14	14.9	10	9.5
Pearlware	7	7.4	26	24.8
Whiteware	1	1.1	1	0.95
Redware	63	67.0	49	46.7
Porcelain	1	1.1	1	0.95
Stoneware	-		-	
Unidentified Refined	8	8.5	18	17.1
Total	94	100.0	105	100.0

Table 6-20. Features 4a and 4b Nails.

Type	4a	%	4b	%
Early Cut	5	45.5%	2	25.0%
Late Cut	2	18.2%	6	75.0%
Wrought	4	36.4%	-	
Total	11	100.0%	8	100.0%

Based on the material recovered from the features, it appears the features contain mixed deposits. Feature 4a included early material (wrought nails, early cut nails, and creamware) and late material (late cut nails and whiteware) indicating the supposed kitchen area was used throughout the occupation. Feature 4b was below Feature 4a but contained more late cut nails and more pearlware. This corresponds with the cellar being filled late in the occupation, possibly at the destruction of the structures. The fill zone does not show any stratigraphy, suggesting it was filled during a single episode with similar material, perhaps from agricultural fields.

6.4.5.2 Feature 9

Feature 9 was a midden feature related to Feature 4a. The diagnostic material recovered from the feature consisted of 16 early cut nails and 11 late cut nails. As with Feature 4a, Feature 9 has a mixed deposit dating to the entire occupation. Feature 4a and Feature 9 appear to be midden from the kitchen. It appears that the kitchen was constructed during the initial occupation and used, at least through some of the Mary Champ occupation.

6.4.5.3 Feature 10

Feature 10 was a midden deposit related to Feature 4a and Feature 9. Four diagnostic artifacts were recovered from the feature. The artifacts consisted of three early cut nails and one late cut nail. The limited number of artifacts recovered makes it difficult to say anything definitive about chronology. It appears similar to feature 9.

6.4.5.4 Feature 13

The diagnostic material recovered from Feature 13 included nails and ceramics. Twenty-three early cut nails, three late cut nails and one wrought nail were recovered. The ceramics consisted of pearlware (n=2), redware (n=8), unidentified refined earthenware (n=4), and whiteware (n=1). The assemblage is mixed, indicating the feature was used throughout the occupation. The large number of early cut nails suggests the chimney and house was built early in the occupation.

6.4.5.5 Feature 15

Feature 15 was architecturally related. The location suggests it was related to the door, perhaps a support for steps. There were only five temporally diagnostic artifacts recovered: porcelain (n=1), late cut nail (n=1), pearlware (n=1), and redware (n=2). The feature is unusual and its function is unclear. Based on the one late cut nail, one could speculate that it represented a later renovation.

6.4.5.6 Feature 19

Feature 19 was a post mold. It appears to be a corner of the main house. Twenty-eight temporally diagnostic artifacts were recovered. Twenty-three of the artifacts were early cut nails. The large number of early cut nails suggests that the feature was part of the initial construction. The other artifacts recovered consisted of pearlware (n=4) and redware (n=1).

6.4.5.7 Feature 21

Feature 21 was a stone walkway or driveway. Eight early cut nails were recovered from the feature. The presence of the early cut nails suggests a construction date early in the occupation.

6.4.6 Chronology Summary

No stratified deposits were located that allowed for the separation of occupations by Thomas Champ and Mary Champ. Most of the artifacts were recovered from Zone I. The deposits contain artifacts from both occupations. All of the ceramic types, except whiteware, could have been used during both

occupations. The window glass and nails do not provide enough information to separate the occupations. The window glass and nails also were recovered from mixed deposits.

Material recovered from some of the features provided information on chronology. Features 13, 19, and 21 had artifacts, primarily nails, which indicated that the main house and the driveway were probably constructed early in the occupation. Artifacts from features 4a and 4b suggest mixed deposits. Feature 4a contained artifacts related to a kitchen and cellar. Artifacts from 4b suggests a date later than Feature 4a, which was above it. This reinforces the idea that Feature 4b was filled late in the occupation.

The mean ceramic dates and the window glass dates show spatial variation within the site. Feature 4a and 4b have early ceramic dates of 1798.6 and 1802.7, respectively. The dates for the areas around Features 4, 13, and 15 indicate that the Feature 4 area is earliest at 1808, followed by the Feature 13 area at 1818.9 and the Feature 15 area dated at 1822.1. It is possible that the variation is due to function with the use and storage of creamware in the kitchen and cellar. It is also possible that the kitchen and cellar were demolished when Mary Champ owned the property. The presence of whiteware suggests a post-1820 date for the demolition.

The presence of early cut nails, wrought nails and early window glass in both the house area and the kitchen/cellar area indicate that both buildings were built around the same time during the initial settlement of the site. The presence of later nails and window glass around both possible structures indicate maintenance and repair activities during both the Thomas Champ and Mary Champ period. The window glass graph indicates a single construction period and maintenance rather than multiple construction episodes.

The absence of artifacts at the Champ House that were common before 1790 and after 1830 suggest that the archival data for the occupation of the site reflect the actual dates of occupation. White salt-glazed stoneware and tin-glazed Delft were common in Revolutionary War period sites, but were not recovered from the Champ House (Noel-Hume 1969). Yellow ware dates to between 1830 and 1940 and was not recovered from the Champ House (Ramsay 1939). Ironstone dates to between 1842 and 1930 and was not recovered from the site (Miller 1991).

6.5 Summary

The Phase III archaeological field investigations for Site 15BB137 consisted of the excavation of 55 test units and the mechanical removal of the topsoil. Twenty features were located during the hand excavation of the test units. An additional 14 features were located during the mechanical removal of the topsoil. The placement of the posthole features (Features 2, 5, 6, 19, 22, 26, 28, and 33) along with the chimney (Feature 13) and possible cellar fill (Feature 4) may provide information on house orientation, outbuilding location, and construction methods. Features 2/19 and feature 13 may represent a corner and chimney of the house. Features 9, 10, and the large rocks in feature 4 may be related to a detached kitchen. Posthole features 26 and 28 may be the corners of an outbuilding.

Most of the artifacts recovered from the Phase III excavation were from Zone I. The artifacts from Zone 1 and Zone 2 are mixed from the Thomas Champ and Mary Champ occupations. Artifacts from the feature excavations allow for limited chronological interpretations. Artifacts from features related to the Champ House suggest it was built during the initial Thomas Champ occupation. Artifacts recovered from Features 4a and 4b suggest that the cellar was filled in and the kitchen was demolished during the Mary Champ occupation or after the site was abandoned. Based on the presence of whiteware in the cellar and kitchen related features the filling and destruction occurred after 1820. It is possible that the kitchen

and cellar were destroyed before the house. Mean ceramic dates are older for the material recovered from Features 4a and 4b and the units associated with these features than with the areas near features 13 and 15. Window glass dating produced similar results. These dates suggest that the kitchen and cellar were demolished during the period of Mary Champ's ownership.

None of the artifacts recovered, features recovered, or historic records provide a concrete date for the abandonment of site 15BB137. Mary Champ sold the property to her brother in 1827. It is unclear if she moved or stayed in the house or if anyone else lived there. No artifacts common to the post 1830s such as yellow ware (1830-1940) or ironstone (1842-1930) were recovered (Miller 2000).

Section 7 -

Botanical Analysis

By Renée M. Bonzani, Ph.D.

This section describes and discusses carbonized and desiccated plant remains recovered from the water-separated samples collected during the excavations of an historic period farmstead, Site 15BB137 known as Champ's Inn (1787-1840s), located in Bourbon County, Kentucky. Section 7 describes the analysis of ten flotation samples representing eight features (Features 4, 6, 9, 10, 15, 20, 26, and 28) (Table 7-1 and Table 7-2). Total flotation volume from the ten samples was 92 liters. Both the light and heavy fractions from each sample were analyzed. However, for the majority of the samples, the recovered light and heavy fractions were prohibitively large for complete analysis and random sub-samples of these fractions were analyzed. Few macrobotanical remains were recovered from the heavy fractions. The flotation of the ten samples yielded 352.9 grams of light fraction with 156.7 grams (44 percent) undergoing analysis and 4,215.2 grams of heavy fraction with 1,310.1 grams (31 percent) undergoing analysis.

7.1 Field and Laboratory Processing

7.1.1 Field Processing

Flotation samples were processed by the Program for Archaeological Research (PAR), Department of Anthropology, University of Kentucky, Lexington, using the R. J. Dausman Technical Services, Inc. Flote-Tech system. Basic features of the system include a 50-gallon flotation tub. The reservoir and tub are filled with water. An electric pump circulates a controllable mixture of water and air from the reservoir to the flotation tub. Controlled flow ranges from 10-50 gallons per minute. Air bubbles function as tiny "flotation devices," aiding the flow of small particulate matter through a weir and onto a fine nylon mesh screen cover (0.33 mm diameter). Processing of this fine ("light") fraction is accomplished with a water flow of 10 gallons/minute so as not to damage fragile materials. After the lighter fraction material—referred to by Dausman's firm as "floatables"—is removed, the heavier materials, those traditionally referred to as "heavy fraction" and described in Dausman's terminology as "near floatables" and "coarse fraction," are processed by increasing system flow to 50 gallons/minute and forcing material through sluices on each side of a baffle, which increases water flow rate into the weir and onto the fine screen mesh (Pearsall 2000; Wagner 1982). The current analysis reports on botanical materials recovered from the light fraction or floatables and heavy fractions.

7.1.2 Laboratory Procedures

Both the light and heavy fractions were weighed. When the samples were excessively large for complete analysis in a timely fashion, random sub-samples of between 25 to 100 percent of weight were selected for further analysis. The initial sorting of the light fractions consisted of gently sifting the sample through a nested series of geological sieves (mesh sizes 2mm, 1mm, and 500 μ m). This procedure facilitated sorting by producing three fragment size classes: >2mm, 2mm – 1mm, and <1mm (material that was less than 0.5 mm in diameter was weighed by not analyzed). The heavy fractions were also sifted through the geological sieves using two mesh sizes (2mm and 1mm) and resulted in two size fractions, >2mm and 2mm-1mm, which were then scanned for ecofacts and other artifacts.

In general for prehistoric sites, except for those with extremely good preservation, only the carbonized botanical remains undergo full analysis. However, in the case of historic sites with a time depth of one to two hundred years, botanical remains may be preserved in a desiccated form for many plant taxa (Rossen 2000, 1992, 1991; Scarry 1993). However, as with carbonized remains, tubers and plants that have undergone extensive processing are unlikely to be preserved in either form. For the present study, therefore, both carbonized and desiccated (uncarbonized) botanical remains were analyzed, even though, it must be noted, that many of the desiccated specimens appeared to be modern in coloration and preservation. The cereals and most of the remains representing the garden crops were carbonized and probably reflect actual use or occurrence during the time of occupation at Champ's Inn.

After the carbonized and desiccated material in the >2mm size screen was sorted by count and weight into constituent material categories (e.g., nutshell, wood, seeds), the nutshell and seeds were then further quantified by genus/species. The wood fragments recovered from the light and heavy fractions did not undergo analysis for identification. In the light and heavy fractions for the site, a total of 172 pieces of carbonized wood (five grams) were recovered from the >2mm size fractions (Table 7-1). Two fragments of carbonized or desiccated nutshell remains (0.2 grams) were recovered from the analyzed samples. Carbonized and desiccated plant materials retained in the 1mm and 500µm mesh screens were then scanned using a binocular microscope at a magnification of 10x. Any seeds, fleshy fruits (e.g., *Cucurbita* rind), etc. were removed, counted, and weighted by taxon and type of material.

Identification of plant remains was done by using a binocular microscope at magnifications of 10x for materials >2mm and at 10 to 30 x for materials <2mm. Identifications were substantiated with use of the reference collection in possession of the analyst. Secondary sources included various identification manuals (D'Arcy 1986; Davis 1993; Martin and Barkley 2000; Montgomery 1977; Muenscher 1980; Panshin and de Zeeuw 1980; Steyermark 1963; Young and Young 1992).

A number of factors can affect the preservation of plant remains at an archaeological site. These include human cultural factors such as food preparation techniques as well as non-human factors including animal perturbations, soil type, post-depositional geological activities, plant preservation differences and others. To adjust for these factors a number of statistical measures are utilized when presenting the results of ecofactual analysis and these help to build the interpretations presented in any report on these types of remains. The most common statistical measures found in paleobotanical analyses include density and in some cases diversity indexes. All of these measures can be used to overcome problems in the quantification of ecofacts (Lennstrom and Hastorf 1995, 1992; Johannessen 1984; Jones et al. 1986; Lopinot et al. 1991; Pearsall 1983).

Density ratios represent the raw count of plant remains or their weight divided by the total liters of processed fill for a cultural context. They are used in an effort to standardize sample data. Density ratios give abundance values that allow for the comparison of count or weight of a plant taxon per volume of soil processed. These ratios are often used for comparisons between sites and through time to discern changing plant use strategies (Asch and Asch 1981; Hastorf and Popper 1988; Thompson 1994).

The diversity index is a measure of two factors. The first factor is the quantity of the number of types of taxa at a site, referred to as richness. The second factor, referred to as evenness, indicates how many individuals of each type occur. A diversity index can be measured by the following equation (see Magurran 1988: 39-40):

$$\text{Simpson's Index: } \frac{\sum n_1(n_1 - 1)}{N(N - 1)} \quad 1 - L$$

n_1 = number of individuals in a particular taxa, N = total number of individuals in a sample, and $1 - L$ = most diverse.

Table 7-1. Macrobotanical Remains from 15BB137.

Unit	16		20	33		39	48	62	Total	
	14	16		22	29				12	18
FS #	4	4	4 SW 1/4	10	9	15 E 1/2	6 ³	20	2	under rocks
Zone	2	2			southern bisect		2	2		
Level	1	1					1	2		
Volume	12	11	6	3	8	6	14	9	18	5
Total light frac. wt. (g)	65.5	49.5	28.9	10.9	34.4	20.6	49.9	17.4	65.1	10.7
Light frac. sample analyzed	wt	16.4	14.9	17.3	10.9	17.2	15	17.4	16.3	10.7
	%	25	30	60	100	50	30	100	25	100
Total heavy frac. wt. (g) ²	440.8	434.4	452.50	200.9	443.3	284.9	649.40	355.3	760	193.7
Heavy fraction sample analyzed	wt	110.2	108.6	113.1	100.5	110.8	162.4	106.7	190.1	193.7
	%	25	25	25	50	25	25	30	25	100
Wood > 2 mm ¹	ct	23	21	30	6	20	16	0	35	18
	wt (g)	<0.6	<0.6	1.1	0.1	0.4	<0.7	0	1	0.4
Nutshell > 2 mm	ct	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	wt (g)	0.1	0	0.1	0	0	0	0	0	0
FRUIT TREES AND SHRUBS										
Juglandaceae <i>Juglans</i> sp. (Walnut)			1							1
Solanaceae <i>Physalis</i> sp. (Ground cherry)	4	1	2			1	1		2	7
Unidentified nutshell		1 ¹								1
TOTALS		2	0	3	0	1	1	0	2	9
CEREALS										
Poaceae <i>Zea mays</i> (Maize) (wt. grams)	9	2 (<0.1) ¹							2 (<0.1) ¹	1 (<0.1) ¹
TOTALS		2 (<0.1) ¹	0	0	0	0	0	0	2 (<0.1) ¹	1 (<0.1) ¹
GARDEN CROPS										

Unit	16		20	33		39	48	62	Total	
	14	16		22	29				2	18
FS #			28			12	25	10		
Feature	4	4	4 SW 1/4	10	9	15 E 1/2	6 ³	20	26 E 1/2 + W 1/2	28
Zone	2	2			southern bisect		2	2		under rocks
Level	1	1					1	2		
Volume	12	11	6	3	8	6	14	9	18	5
Oxalidaceae <i>Oxalis stricta</i> (Wood sorrel)	3	4	5	3	1	1 ¹	4		3	21
Poaceae (3 types)	7	1 ¹	2 ⁴						3 ¹	6
Poaceae <i>Setaria</i> sp. (Foxtail)	20		1			2		1 ⁴		4
Polygonaceae cf. <i>Polygonum</i> sp. (Knotweed)	23		2 ¹							2
Polygonaceae cf. <i>Polygonum</i> sp. (Smartweed)	14		1		1 ¹					2
Polygonaceae <i>Rumex</i> sp. (Dock)	11								1	1
Portulacaceae <i>Portulaca</i> sp. (Purslane)	19	1	1			1 ¹		2 ¹		5
Rosaceae (Rose family)	27								1	1
cf. Rosaceae (Rose family)	6	1							1 ¹	2
Verbenaceae <i>Verbena</i> sp. (Vervain)	17		2 ¹	1 ¹		1 ¹				4
TOTALS	38	63	119	9	8	29	11	11	40	335
Total Fruit and Seeds	43	63	124	9	8	30	15	11	44	357
Unidentified carbonized seed fragment										1
Unidentified carbonized fragment	1	2				1			2	6
Nail					1					1
Metal fragment (wt. grams)	1 (0.1)									1
Glass						5				5
Glass/porcelain fragments			1							1
Crinoid Fossils (wt.grams)	33 (0.1)									33
Bone								3		3

The diversity index allows for the determination of the redundancy or similarity of remains (including ecofacts, features, etc) within a site or of remains between sites (Binford 1983, 1980; Bonzani 1997; Kelly 1995; Oyuela-Caycedo 1998). Redundancy or similarity of ecofacts in an assemblage would be indicated by their low diversity index. Low diversity indicates either the use of a few species to the exclusion of others or by the greater use of few species with other species occurring in lesser quantities. High diversity indicates either that many plants are being utilized or that many plants are available and are found within the plant management system of the group under study (i.e., ruderal or weedy taxa).

The following results incorporate these statistical measures in the interpretations of the data obtained.

7.2 Results

From the ten samples analyzed from the historic period Site 15BB137, 357 botanical remains, mainly of uncarbonized seeds/fruits (n=330), were recovered from the light and heavy fractions, as well as were one unidentified carbonized seed fragment, six unidentified carbonized fragments, one nail, one metal fragment, five fragments of glass and one glass/porcelain fragment, 33 crinoid fossils, three faunal bone fragments, 22 insect remains, and 1,496 shells (Table 7-1 and Table 7-2). In the light and heavy fractions for the site, a total of 172 pieces of carbonized wood (five grams) and two fragments of nutshell (0.2 grams) were recovered from the >2mm size fractions (Table 7-1). Of the seed/fruit and nutshell remains, 20 families, 19 genera, and five species were identified.

Table 7-2. Density Measures.

Volume 92 L	Numbers ¹	Density
Wood	172	1.9
Nutshell	2	<0.1
Seeds/Fruits	357	3.9
Fruit trees/shrubs	9	0.10
Crops	8	0.09
Grains	5	0.05
Weeds	335	3.64

1. Number divided by total liters of processed fill for cultural context.

The results of the botanical analysis are presented in relation to the type of plant recovered. The types of plants categorized in this report include crops and grains, fruit-bearing trees and shrubs used as food, and weeds or ruderal plants frequently associated with agriculture with known food and other uses. Crops are herein defined as those plants that are planted and tended generally on a yearly basis and result in the collection of produce. This categorization helps to illustrate the types of information that can be obtained from botanical remains and how this information can be tied to historical processes occurring in Kentucky with the arrival of Europeans (Bonzani in press; Stein 2002).

From Site 15BB137 most of the botanical remains were recovered from Feature 4 with Features 15 and 26 also having numerous remains. On the other hand Features 9, 10, and 20 had no botanical remains from fruits/shrubs, grains or crops. A relatively high diversity of plant remains was also recorded for the site (diversity index 0.71 with 1 indicating the highest diversity) and reflects the different and predominant types of weedy plants that would have been growing in the vicinity of the site during its occupation. In fact without the inclusion of carpet weed (*Mollugo verticillata*)(n=184) the diversity index is even higher at 0.89 and weedy plant seeds accounted for 335 of the 357 seeds/fruits recovered (94

percent). These plants included carpet weed, members of the pigweed (Amaranthaceae) and aster (cf. Asteraceae) families, ragweed (*Ambrosia artemisiifolia*), chickweed (*Stellaria* sp.), goosefoot (*Chenopodium* sp.), copperleaf (*Acalypha* sp.), possible members of the squash (cf. Cucurbitaceae) and mint (cf. Lamiaceae) families, medick (cf. *Medicago* sp.), red clover (*Trifolium* cf. *pratense*), mallow (*Malva* sp.), wood sorrel (*Oxalis stricta*), members of the grass family (Poaceae), foxtail (*Setaria* sp.), purslane (*Portulaca* sp.), possible knotweed and smartweed (cf. *Polygonum* sp.), dock (*Rumex* sp.), members of the rose family (Rosaceae), and vervain (*Verbena* sp.). Of these goosefoot was not well known to Europeans but was previously very important to Native Americans (Struever and Vickery 1973; Yarnell 1986). Its food status like maygrass (*Phalaris caroliniana*), amaranthus (*Amaranthus* sp.), sunflower (*Helianthus* sp.), erect knotweed (*Polygonum erectum*) and sumpweed (*Iva annua*), was relegated to that of a weed in historic period times. The use of nuts in historic times also is greatly reduced compared to its use in prehistoric time periods (Gardner 1997).

However, a few seeds that fall under the category of coming from fruit trees and/or shrubs and others which may have been crops and grains did occur at the site. Of note, all of the recovered fruit tree/shrub, crops, and grain taxa have origins in the New World. Interestingly, none of the potential food plants at the site indicates an origin or introduction from Europe and the Old World except for pepper (see below).

The fruit trees/shrubs include a few nutshell fragments such as walnut (*Juglans* sp.) and ground cherry (*Physalis* sp.). Maize (*Zea mays*) (<0.3 grams) was also recovered in the form of one highly fragmented kernel and four cupule fragments (measurements of cupule width x kernel thickness: 1.3 frag. x 1 and 2 x 1 mm [combined], 5.7 x 1.6 mm with a 45 degree angle of the sides, 5 frag. x 1.5 mm with a 45 degree angle of the sides, and 4.5 frag. x 2 mm with a 45 degree angle of the sides). The identified crops include five small fragments of squash rind (*Cucurbita* sp.), two seeds of pepper (*Capsicum* sp.), and one of grape (*Vitis* sp.). The maize, squash rind, and grape seed were carbonized adding weight to the conclusion that these plants were grown and eaten at the site, although wild or feral squashes and grape vines could have been growing in the area. This possibility would not have been the case with maize and pepper that must have been grown by the farmstead or brought to it from another farm or area. Maize is a domesticated plant and would have to have been planted at or near the site while the reason that pepper must have been a crop (either planted at the farmstead or in some neighboring area) is that it is non-native to North America, having been domesticated in South America (Pearsall 1992). Its use in the Midwest and eastern North America only began after movement of peoples from Europe and possibly Africa into the area (Brandes 1999; Davidson 1992; Freeman 1999; Heiser 1985; Morgan 1982). It reached Germany by the mid-1500's and was introduced into eastern North America most likely in historic times (Andrews 1992). Pepper seeds were recovered from excavations at the Henry Clay's Ashland Estate in privy contexts dating to approximately 1860-1920 (Scarry 1993). A fragment of a pepper seed was also recovered from the Historic Site 46HY531 located in West Virginia (Bonzani 2011).

On the other hand, types of squash (*Cucurbita pepo*) have been independently domesticated in eastern North America and possible wild or weedy forms of the plant could have existed near the farmstead without their purposeful planting. Squash is a New World domesticate with a long history of indigenous use in North America with the field pumpkin (*Cucurbita moschata*) first appearing around 1250 B.P. in the American Southwest (Cutler and Whitaker 1961; King 1985). Squash remains (*Cucurbita* sp., not identified to species) have been recovered at sites in Kentucky at Logan's Fort (1776-1790) in Lincoln County (Rossen 2000) and at the Henry Clay's Ashland Estate (1860-1920) in Fayette County (Scarry

1993) and a squash rind fragment was also recovered from Historic Site 46HY533 in West Virginia (Bonzani 2011).

Maize or corn is believed to have had its origins in Mesoamerica and spread into eastern North America in the Middle Woodland period (ca. A.D. 100-400) experiencing only a very low level use until about A.D. 1000 (Davis et al. 1997: 184). By the Late Prehistoric period it predominates the archaeobotanical record and is considered the most important crop of Native Americans (Lopinot 1994; Wymer 1992). Maize is recorded at numerous historic period sites including Logan's Fort, Site 15NE59 (a probable slave quarters) in Nelson County, Arbuckle's Fort in Greenbrier County, West Virginia, Historic Period Sites 46HY533 and 46HY531, West Virginia, the Locust Grove Plantation in Jefferson County, the Armstrong Farmstead Site, the Argosy Sites in Indiana and the Henry Clay's Ashland Estate (Bonzani 2011, 2002a, 2002b; Rossen 2000; Scarry 1993; Roberts 1993; Davis et al. 1997; Young 1995). Morphological analysis of the corn from Logan's Fort indicates that it is morphologically indistinguishable from prehistoric "Eastern Eight" rowed Late Prehistoric (Fort Ancient) corn (Rossen 2000). Rossen (2000: 99) suggests that this similarity in size and morphology indicates "a local, direct transfer of the plant to Euro-Americans." From Site 15BB137 the maize kernel and cupule remains were generally highly fragmented although three of the cupules did have side angles of 45 degrees which would be consistent with maize of the eight-rowed variety (see Wagner 1986).

Ground cherry has been recovered from historic period sites including Logan's Fort in Lincoln County (1776-1790) (Rossen 2000) and the Lextran Site (Rossen 1992). At the Lextran Site the ground cherry was found associated to a black household dating to about 1830-1890, leading to the conclusion that it was utilized predominately by black slaves (Rossen 1992). However, no ground cherry was identified at Site 15NE59, a possible slave cabin associated with the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries' occupation of the Thomas Gwynn farm in Nelson County, Kentucky (Davis et al. 1997). Ground cherry was also found at the Armstrong Farmstead site (15Fa185) in Fayette County, Kentucky, where slaves were kept (Allgood and Kirkwood 2002; Bonzani 2002a). Grape seeds are found commonly at both prehistoric and historic period sites throughout Kentucky and the Midwest (for instance see Bonzani and Haney 2009).

Many of the plants identified as weeds do have indigenous ethnobotanical uses particularly for food, drugs, and fibers (Moerman 1998). These include ragweed (*Ambrosia artemisiifolia*), purslane (*Portulaca* sp.), wood sorrel (*Oxalis stricta*), possibly knotweed (cf. *Polygonum* sp.), foxtail grass (*Setaria* sp.), and vervain (*Verbena* sp.). If these plants were being utilized at the time of site occupation, they may point to an awareness of indigenous plant uses (whether by indigenous groups living in the area or Europeans familiar with these functions).

7.3 Conclusions

From the ten samples analyzed from the historic period Site 15BB137, 357 botanical remains, mainly of uncarbonized seeds/fruits (n=330), were recovered from the light and heavy fractions, as well as were one unidentified carbonized seed fragment, six unidentified carbonized fragment, one nail, one metal fragment, five fragments of glass and one glass/porcelain fragment, 33 crinoid fossils, three faunal bone fragments, 22 insect remains, and 1,496 shells (Table 7-1 and Table 7-2). In the light and heavy fractions for the site, a total of 172 pieces of carbonized wood (five grams) and two fragments of nutshell (0.2 grams) were recovered from the >2mm size fractions (Table 7-1). Of the seed/fruit and nutshell remains, 20 families, 19 genera, and five species were identified.

The majority of the plant remains recovered were of probable weeds growing near the site during its occupation. These plants included carpet weed (*Mollugo verticillata*), members of the pigweed

(Amaranthaceae) and aster (cf. Asteraceae) families, ragweed (*Ambrosia artemisiifolia*), chickweed (*Stellaria* sp.), goosefoot (*Chenopodium* sp.), copperleaf (*Acalypha* sp.), possible members of the squash (cf. Cucurbitaceae) and mint (cf. Lamiaceae) families, medick (cf. *Medicago* sp.), red clover (*Trifolium* cf. *pratense*), mallow (*Malva* sp.), wood sorrel (*Oxalis stricta*), members of the grass family (Poaceae), foxtail (*Setaria* sp.), purslane (*Portulaca* sp.), possible knotweed and smartweed (cf. *Polygonum* sp.), dock (*Rumex* sp.), members of the rose family (Rosaceae), and vervain (*Verbena* sp.). Of these goosefoot was not well known to Europeans but was previously important to Native Americans (Moerman 1998; Struever and Vickey 1973; Yarnell 1986). Its food status was relegated to that of a weed in historic period times. The use of nuts in historic times also is greatly reduced compared to their use in prehistoric time periods (Gardner 1997).

A few other botanical remains categorized as coming from fruit trees and/or shrubs and possible crops and grains did occur at the site. These include walnut (*Juglans* sp.), desiccated remains of ground cherry (*Physalis* sp.) seeds, kernel and cupule carbonized fragments of maize (*Zea mays*), small carbonized rind fragments of squash (*Cucurbita* sp.), a grape (*Vitis* sp.) seed, and two pepper seeds (*Capsicum* sp.), the latter of which was probably introduced into North America from the Old World during the historic time period, though it is of South American origins (Andrews 1992; Pearsall 1992).

There was probably some form of cultivation of plants near the site, although this is a tentative statement since those plants listed under the categories of garden crops and grains could have been transported onto the site from elsewhere. For instance squash rind (*Cucurbita* sp.) could have ended up on the site from the transport of hard shells as carrying vessels and the grape seed recovered could have come from wild grape vines. The recovery of the five fragments identified as a maize kernel and cupules (*Zea mays*) yields good evidence of cultivation of crops but, again, it is possible that maize was being cultivated elsewhere and brought to Site 15BB137 as cobs or individual kernels for consumption or exchange. Pepper (*Capsicum* sp.) may also have been cultivated near the farmstead.

The lack of Old World-introduced grains and fruit trees such as wheat, barley, oats, pear and peach is interesting in that at many historic period sites these are plants commonly used by European immigrants (see for examples the Lextran Site [Rossen 1992], the Henry Clay's Ashland Estate [Scarry 1993], and the Armstrong Farmstead Site [Allgood and Kirkwood 2002; Bonzani 2002a; Moore and Rotman 2002] in Kentucky and the Argosy sites in Indiana [Bonzani in press; Bonzani and Haney 2009], also see Davis et al. 1997; Roberts 1993; Young 1995). It may be that the site represented herein was a small settlement that had not yet developed the use of large-scale agriculture which would have included Old World crops and fruits. Instead, reliance, though minimal from the seed quantities recovered, on New World plants for food and possible medicine, fiber, and dyes seems to be indicated at the site.

Many of the taxa recovered under what today are classified as weeds have important uses in the ethnobotany of indigenous groups. However, given the relatively small numbers of seeds recovered, their, in general, uncarbonized status, and the context of a historic period site, it is difficult to verify if any of these plants were actually being used at the site. Many of these plants are identified as "weeds" because they invade disturbed open areas and their recovery in the archaeological record does confirm a habitat at the time of site occupation that must have been relatively open without complete forest tree cover (given that the uncarbonized seeds are not modern-day contamination into the archaeological record). The majority of these plants also have flowers and fruit from summer to early – mid fall (Muenscher 1980; Young and Young 1992) and these data can give an idea of seasonality of the site's occupation.

Section 8 -

Faunal Analysis

By Jessica L. Cox, MS, RPA

Archaeological investigations at site 15BB137 yielded a moderate sample of heavily fragmented faunal materials dating to the historic period. These faunal remains provide an opportunity to evaluate subsistence patterns from this historic farmstead. This chapter summarizes results of the analysis of faunal materials recovered from the site and compares the data to other nearby farmsteads.

To date, there are several substantial subsistence studies for early settlements in Kentucky (Allgood 2002, 2003 a-, 2004; Tuma 2002). Comparison of the 15BB137 site with recent faunal analyses from the Armstrong Farmstead (15Fa185) (Allgood 2003a), McConnell Farmstead (Tuma 2002), Higbee Tavern (15Fa222) (Allgood 2003b) the Monterey Hamlet (Allgood 2003c) and other 19th century sites will allow for trends in subsistence practices in the Bluegrass Region of Kentucky at historic sites of this time period to be clarified. The Armstrong Farmstead (Allgood 2003a), the McConnell Farmstead (Tuma 2000), and the Monterey Hamlet (Allgood 2003c) represent substantial faunal analyses at residential sites in Bourbon County, Kentucky, in the antebellum period. The Higbee Tavern Site provides a comparison of subsistence practices in a social setting, rather than residential. Excavations at the William Whitley House (15LI55) recovered faunal remains associated with an early 19th to early 20th century farmstead (Linebaugh and Loughlin 2003). However, several of these sites have low numbers of identified specimens and poor context. Little can be said about the subsistence patterns of these sites (Brietburg 1990; Fay 1986; Walters 1985). This study, therefore contributes to the growing number of substantial faunal studies of subsistence behaviors in Kentucky for the Early Settlement/Frontier and Antebellum periods.

The 15BB137 assemblage is a relatively small, heavily fragmented sample of faunal remains and not completely representative of the full range of subsistence activities that occurred at the site. The analysis of faunal remains from this site allows an opportunity to evaluate socioeconomic status indications represented in the faunal remains. This can then be compared to other Kentucky antebellum residences.

8.1 Research Objectives

Research objectives were designated for the site. These objectives included:

- 1) Patterns of consumerism at 15BB137; and
- 2) Does 15BB137 conform to the Upland South Subsistence pattern, as currently defined?

8.1.1 Objective 1 – Patterns of Consumerism at 15BB137

This objective deals with the presence of exotic or purchased items in the faunal assemblage. In this context, the items that would be considered exotic in the faunal record would be food items such as marine fish, oysters, or other seafood. Atlantic cod and oysters were available in Lexington, Kentucky. The identification of exotic items in the faunal assemblage from 15BB137 could be an indication of consumerism at the farmstead.

Additionally, an assessment was made of butchering and meat processing techniques based on the types of cut, chop, and saw marks found on bones. Some cut bone attributes will allow for determination of the origin of the meat cuts, *i.e.*, whether the animals were butchered onsite or purchased from a professional butcher. Other butchery and food processing behaviors should be evident from analyzing chopped, cleaved, and knife cut bones, including the methods of carcass division, quality of meat cuts consumed onsite, secondary processing, and cooking.

8.1.2 Objective 2 – Does 15BB137 conform to the Upland South Subsistence pattern, as currently defined?

The Upland South subsistence strategy has been described a “diversified farming complex that utilized a variety of resources, enabling each homestead to be self-sufficient in relation to food production (Day 2000).” The diet exhibits a prevalence of pork over beef. Cattle from Upland South farms were usually sold for cash rather than being consumed on the farm (Martin and Richmond 1989). Interestingly, Upland South farms tend to have considerable quantities of pig cranial elements (Price 1985). The use of chicken varies considerably. Wild game is also important in the Upland South diet, but the importance of wild game declines through time (McCorvie 1987). Fish and turtles do not appear to play a major role in the Upland South diet (Martin and Richmond 1989).

8.2 Methods

8.2.1 Laboratory Methods

Bones, shells, and teeth recovered during the Phase III excavations were washed, dried, and identified to lowest taxonomic category, element, and symmetry by Jessica L. Cox, MS, RPA of Shawnee Hills Archaeological Consulting, Inc., using the comparative faunal collection housed at Shawnee Hills Archaeological Consulting, Inc.

Data recorded included sex, age, degree of epiphyseal fusion in long bones, and modifications to the bones, including carnivore and rodent gnawing, chopping and cutting marks resulting from butchery practices, and burning. Fragment size for each element was recorded and placed into the following categories: less than $\frac{1}{4}$ complete ($< \frac{1}{4}$), $\frac{1}{4}$ complete ($\frac{1}{4}$), half complete ($\frac{1}{2}$), $\frac{3}{4}$ complete ($\frac{3}{4}$), and complete. Bones were weighed to the nearest 0.01 g. Degree of fusion of the long bone epiphyses and tooth eruption and wear allowed for distinguishing between juveniles and adults.

All data were entered into Microsoft Access 2000 (*Appendix A*). From these raw data, zooarchaeological measures of species and element composition were generated using zooarchaeological quantification methods. Quantitative and statistical analyses were facilitated using Microsoft Access 2000 and Microsoft Excel 2000.

8.2.2 Zooarchaeological Quantification

A number of methods have been developed that will be used here to describe the number of animals recovered from site 15BB137, and more importantly, the relative abundance of taxa and anatomical parts. Relative abundances serve to establish the relative importance of species or animal parts to the occupants of the site, thereby offering more detailed and precise descriptions of animal usage than can be provided by a taxonomic list alone. The methods of zooarchaeological quantification that will be used in describing the faunal assemblage include:

- 1) Number of identified specimens (NISP);

- 2) Minimum number of individuals (MNI); and
- 3) Bone weight.

Each is able to measure subsistence with varying success (Grayson 1984).

NISP is the most basic measure. NISP counts all specimens alike. It is the total number of all fragments assigned to a taxonomic category. Although this is a very simple method, it is also the one most susceptible to bias. A number of problems are frequently cited (Grayson 1984). First are issues associated with depositional processes. Butchery patterns may affect NISP. Animals with greater numbers of bones or those brought back to the site whole (for example, fish) will appear to have greater importance. Those that produce fewer numbers of bones, or those that are butchered away from the site will seem to have smaller values. Processing, such as for marrow extraction, may increase bone fragmentation and thus increase the NISP value without an actual increase in importance. However, fragmentation beyond a certain point, such as might result from intensive processing, will preclude identification, and thus reduce NISP. Taphonomic processes also reduce the reliability of NISP. Differential preservation of various species/elements alters the NISP value. Denser bones, for instance teeth, large mammal long bones, and fish otoliths are more likely to survive and be counted in the NISP than fragile bones like bird and fish bones. Finally, intersite comparison of faunal samples is suspect given the variable effect of these factors in different site settings (Grayson 1984).

MNI, a measure adapted from paleontology, was applied by zooarchaeologists as a means of overcoming the problems of NISP. Researchers wanted to be able to compare samples from different sites. They also wanted to estimate the amount of meat produced by each species. MNI theoretically allows for these issues to be addressed. MNI is a minimum estimate of the number of animals necessary to account for the bones of a particular taxon in an assemblage. It is calculated by counting the numbers of each element of a single species. The element should be one that occurs singly or in pairs in the animal. The MNI for a particular species is based on the element represented by the most specimens.

Because of the variability with which different analysts calculate MNI for an assemblage, concern has been raised over the adequacy of this measure. MNI can be adjusted by taking into consideration sex, age, and portion of bone. Different MNI values can also be produced by the manner in which proveniences are partitioned. Another problem presented by MNI is its relation to the actual number of individuals that contributed to the sample. The number of elements of a taxon in the sample conditions this relationship. MNI may be approximately correct when the number of bones of a single taxon is relatively low, but as the numbers increase, it may tend to underestimate the taxon (Casteel 1978). Animals with more diagnostic elements (for instance quadrupeds versus snakes) will also produce higher MNI values. Entire classes of animals will be underestimated using the MNI to predict relative abundance of species.

A final group of measurements projects estimates of useable carcass weight (meat weight, biomass) based on measurements made on bone samples. There are several approaches to the weight methods, including MNI based meat weight estimates, linear allometry, mass allometry, all of which share the idea that relative importance of food animals should be measured in terms of pounds of useable meat or biomass (Casteel 1978; Reitz and Wing 1999). Pounds of useable meat refer to the live weight of an animal, minus the hide, viscera, and bone. Biomass usually refers to the total soft tissue weight (Reitz and Wing 1999).

The first of these approaches is estimates based on MNI. Meat weights are determined from a percentage of the total weight of an individual. This percentage multiplied by MNI produces an estimate of biomass for the particular taxon. The primary weakness of this analytical approach is that it is susceptible to the same flaws inherent in MNI (Casteel 1978; Reitz and Wing 1999).

Another method for deriving meat yield estimates is linear allometry. The relationship between body size and skeletal dimensions is non-linear. As weight increases, there is a disproportionate increase in skeletal dimensions. The formula for allometry predicts original body size from the measured dimension of an archaeological specimen, thus estimating the meat weight contributed by a single individual. While this method is probably pretty accurate for estimating the size of individuals, the primary flaw with this approach is that you cannot compare the contributions of all taxa (Reitz and Wing 1999).

A final weight projection approach estimates the dietary contribution based on specimen weight. It is based on the relationship of a live individual's bone weight and biomass, which being non-linear with respect to animal size, is described in an allometric formula ($\log y = \log a + b \log x$), where x = the observed weight of the bone, y = estimated weight or biomass. The factors a and b are coefficients that are determined for each taxon. Moreover, these coefficients have been determined for higher phylogenetic levels allowing the use of less well-identified bone. This formula is applied to summed bone weights for a particular taxon by substituting total archaeological bone weight for x as described above (Jackson 1989; Reitz and Wing 1999).

These methods of estimating pounds of useable meat and biomass were designed to provide a means of facilitating comparison of taxonomic groups within assemblages and to compare assemblages from different archaeological sites. Unfortunately, several distinct problems are inherent in these methods, particularly mass allometry. Allometric equations for different taxa respond differently to sample size. Meat weight estimations based on mass allometry may be a product of sample size. The difference between actual weight and estimated weight may also be a dependent of the size of the individuals. Also, bone weight from archaeological sites is likely to be different from reference collection weight. Leaching and mineralization alter the weight of archaeological bone, making comparisons with fresh bone inaccurate. In mass allometry, all elements are treated alike, regardless of the different amounts of meat likely to be supported by each element. In this instance, non-meat bearing elements are treated similarly to meat bearing parts. Another problem is that allometry was designed for estimating meat yields of an individual, but mass allometry is applied to aggregations or fragments from an unknown number of individuals. Sample size, aggregation of sampling units, and size of the animals in the sample has been shown to affect the product of mass allometry (Jackson 1989; Reitz and Wing 1999).

A conservative approach is to simply compare the relative weights per taxon in the assemblage without transforming the data into estimates of contributing meat. It does not rely on transformations such as MNI, and fragmentation has less effect on the representation of the quantity of bone of a particular taxon. This approach seems to only be affected by mineralization and incrustation. Mineralization and incrustation are not present on the faunal remains from 15BB137, so it will not affect weight. While dispensing with the estimates of meat contribution, the weight method does allow for the relative abundance of taxa to be compared and importantly, it allows shifts in relative abundance over time to be examined. It also allows faunal assemblages from different sites to be compared without the problems inherent in MNI or other methods that allow latitude in calculation.

In terms of ease of use and accuracy, bone weight is probably the best indicator of species importance in regards to biomass or the amount of meat provided by the animal. Generally speaking, larger animals that yield more meat have larger, more massive bones than do animals that yield less meat. Because of

this relationship, bone weight may be used as a rough estimate of the relative importance that each taxonomic category had in the diets of the occupants of a site. Using bone weight as an estimator of meat weight is far easier than calculating “meat weight estimates” through multiplying MNI by the amount of meat on a carcass (*c.f.*, White 1953). Furthermore, bone weight may be more accurate than meat weight estimates, as smaller individuals contribute less meat than larger individuals. Some meat weight estimates fail to account for this. Bone weight, like meat weight, is proportional to the size of the animal and, therefore, should not overestimate the amount of meat available from an animal.

NISP, MNI, and weight measures were calculated for this analysis. Despite the many biases that effect NISP values, it can be a useful measure to evaluate the degree of fragmentation of taxa. For example, if large mammal bones are highly fragmented, they may have been intentionally broken for marrow extraction. MNI also has potential for bias; however, it is a useful measure to look at the contribution of individual animals to the sample. The way MNI estimates are made should reflect the research question addressed. To prevent overestimation of MNI for the site as a whole, this measure was only calculated for the assemblage as a whole, not as provenience subsets. Calculating MNI for provenience subsets can be particularly misleading for historic sites. The materials represented at historic sites accumulate over a short period of time. Supposing butchery occurred on site, the butchery remains could be deposited in a separate provenience than food refuse, resulting in inflated estimates.

In some analyses, highly fragmented bone identifiable only to broad taxonomic categories (for example unidentifiable large mammal) have been incorporated into identifiable categories (pig). Tuma (2002) combined unidentifiable large mammal bone with the pig bone, as pigs were the only large mammal present at the site. Unfortunately, in the 15BB137 assemblage, this was not possible. The identifiable large mammal remains recovered from site 15BB137 included pig, sheep/goat, and deer. Because the identifiable large mammal bone had the potential to be from any of these species, including unidentifiable large mammal into identifiable categories was not justified. It should be noted that for this reason, the highly fragmented remains of these large-bodied domesticates would be underrepresented in the analysis.

8.3 Taphonomic and Cultural Effects on Faunal Assemblages: Theoretical Considerations for Zooarchaeological Research

Zooarchaeologists are ultimately concerned with interpreting the human behaviors that lead to the selection, modification, and inclusion of faunal remains recovered from archaeological sites. Conducting zooarchaeological research involves much more than just identifying, counting, and describing diversity of bones within a recovered faunal assemblage, as many factors contribute to its composition, deposition, and condition. In order to make sound and accurate interpretations concerning the characteristics of the faunal assemblage, all factors that might influence its properties must be considered.

Inclusion of animal bones into the archaeological record can be described as a step-wise process, with different factors influencing the assemblage at each step. These different stages of the assemblage, according to Klein and Cruz-Urbe (1984), can be divided into five distinct groups: the sample assemblage, the fossil assemblage, the deposited assemblage, the death assemblage, and the life assemblage. Each assemblage is acted upon by different factors that change its properties as it passes through each step in the process of inclusion into archaeological remains.

8.3.1 The Sample Assemblage

The sample assemblage is the sample of faunal remains that are excavated by the researcher, and it is from this collection that deductions about past human behavior are made. The sample assemblage is (usually) just a part of the fossil assemblage, which is the total collection of bones that occupies an archaeological site.

8.3.2 The Fossil Assemblage

The fossil assemblage is the portion of the deposited assemblage that has survived in the ground. Many factors, including biological, chemical, and geophysical forces, act upon the deposited assemblage, so that the fossil assemblage is some fraction of what the original deposited assemblage was.

8.3.3 The Deposited Assemblage

The deposited assemblage is the collection of remains that becomes buried by sediments. It, like the fossil assemblage, is only a fraction of the assemblage preceding it. Also, like the fossil assemblage, the deposited assemblage has many factors that influence it, changing its properties in relation to the death assemblage. Most of the factors affecting the deposited assemblage are cultural, although dogs, rodents, or other scavengers may alter the assemblage as well. Differential treatment of animal remains through cultural, canine, and rodent behaviors could have resulted in altered characteristics of the bones.

Cultural behaviors that likely influenced the characteristics and distributions of the deposited assemblage include butchering, processing, and cooking practices, and differential disposal of bone refuse. Butchery and the processing of animal parts fractures bone, making it less identifiable. Burning bone may also influence its preservation, and cause further fracturing.

Natural forces affect the characteristics and distribution of bones before they are deposited as well. The activities of dogs and rodents, in particular, can have serious consequences for the inclusion of faunal remains in the deposited assemblage.

8.3.4 The Death Assemblage

The death assemblage is the group of animals that past humans have selected to kill, which is different from the life assemblage, the total population of animals that was available to the humans. Most of the vertebrate animal remains from site 15BB137 were domesticated; however, a few wild species were identified. The species selected and the proportion of wild vs. domestic species may differ depending on socioeconomic status, ethnicity, and access to wild and domesticated resources.

8.4 Taphonomy: Natural and Cultural Modifications to Bone

A number of factors influenced the faunal assemblage recovered from site 15BB137, including natural and cultural processes. These processes affected the faunal remains at each stage of its history, including the sample, fossil, deposited, and death assemblages.

8.4.1 The Sample Assemblage

Site 15BB137, as with most archaeological sites, was not completely excavated. Therefore, the sample assemblage should be considered incomplete in relation to the total collection of bones at the site. Because of the innate biases discussed above, the interpretations provided in this report should be considered only a partial picture of the total subsistence activities that occurred at the site.

8.4.2 The Fossil Assemblage

The faunal assemblage recovered from 15BB137 was well preserved, strongly suggesting that taphonomic effects were minimal from time of deposition to time of recovery. Weathering to bone was not observed. No leaching to bones was observed, probably due to low acidity in the soils, and relatively short duration (100-200 years) the bones spent in the ground.

8.4.3 The Deposited Assemblage

Several cultural and natural processes influenced the characteristics of the deposited assemblage, including food processing behaviors, disposal behaviors, and the actions of carnivores and rodents.

Food processing (including butchery), secondary processing, and cooking fragments bones. A portion of the bones was burned or calcined, including 660 fragments (34% of the bone/teeth sample). Burning of bone has a tendency to make bone fracture, making it less identifiable. These bones were likely burned in fireplaces within the structures or represent refuse that was burned after disposal. Burning bone was a common practice as a matter of reducing household pests and maintaining a clean yard as stated in Wright 1879:

“..She explained a terrible smell of smoke in the kitchen, by saying that she was burning up the bone and skin and trimmings of ham because if she threw them out, it made the rats worse,” and “old bones do not lie around, unsightly litter, but there is a ‘bone heap,’ which is burned every year.”

The actions of scavengers appeared to have had a minimal effect on the recovered bones. Eight bones exhibited signs of rodent gnawing. These bones were likely initially deposited as they fell through the floorboards of the structures. Beneath the floorboards, the bones were subject to a considerable amount of scavenging by rats living under the houses.

Dogs living at the site likely removed a considerable amount of bone from the archaeological record by eating bones. They may also have been responsible for removing animal remains from certain areas of the site, scattering them elsewhere, and thereby changing the distribution of the deposited bones. A small amount of carnivore gnawing was evident, including two bone fragments.

8.4.4 The Death Assemblage

Describing the death assemblage will be the focal part of this analysis. As per the research questions, it will be important to know how socioeconomic status and ethnicity shape the species composition, relative species proportions, and animal part representation at the site. The goal of this analysis, therefore, is to describe the animals and animal parts that were selected and included in the diets at the site, and to determine how socioeconomic status and ethnicity played a role in shaping their selections.

8.5 Identifications

Investigations at the site recovered a total of 1,934 faunal specimens weighing 2,081.84 g (Table 8-1). The bones were recovered in ¼ inch screens. The MNI for the assemblage included only 23 individuals. Of the 1,934 (2,081.84 g) bones recovered, a large percentage of the bones were burned or calcined. One hundred and thirty-two, or 6.8 percent were burned and 528 of the bones, or 27.3 percent, were calcined.

Mammals comprised 92.14 percent of the sample NISP, 96.96 percent of the sample weight, and 60.8 percent of the MNI. Mammals species identified in the sample included domestic horse, domestic dog,

Table 8-1. Species Identified in the 15BB137 Sample.

Class	Common Name	Species	NISP	%NISP	N burned	N calined	Weight	%Weight	MNI	%MNI
Invertebrate	Indeterminate Gastropod	Gastropoda	1	0.05%			0.07	0.00%	1	4.35%
	Indeterminate Bivalve	Bivalvia	7	0.36%		1	16.74	0.80%	1	4.35%
	Indeterminate Vertebrate	Vertebrata	1	0.05%			0.33	0.02%		
	Indeterminate Mammal	Mammalia	2	0.10%			0.47	0.02%		
	Indeterminate Very Large Mammal	Very Large Mammalia	15	0.78%			124.21	5.97%		
	Domestic Horse	Equus caballus	1	0.05%			1.85	0.09%	1	4.35%
	Bovines	Bovidae	1	0.05%			0.5	0.02%		
	Domestic Cow	Bos taurus	41	2.12%			493.07	23.68%	1	4.35%
	Indeterminate Large Mammal	Large Mammalia	1274	65.87%	121	495	651.33	31.29%		
	Domestic Pig	Sus scrofa	371	19.18%	4	15	702.05	33.72%	3	13.04%
	Domestic Sheep/Goat	Ovis/Capra sp.	8	0.41%	1		15.99	0.77%	1	4.35%
	Whitetailed Deer	Odocoileus virginianus	1	0.05%			1.99	0.10%	1	4.35%
	Indeterminate Medium Mammal	Medium Mammalia	16	0.83%		5	4.04	0.19%		
	Domestic Dog	Canis familiaris	2	0.10%			2.17	0.10%	1	4.35%
	Indeterminate Small Mammal	Small Mammalia	19	0.98%	1	3	4.36	0.21%		
	Eastern Cottontail Rabbit	Sylvilagus floridanus	5	0.26%			6.05	0.29%	1	4.35%
	Eastern Gray Squirrel	Sciurus carolinensis	20	1.03%			8.21	0.39%	3	13.04%
	Norway Rat	Rattus norvegicus	3	0.16%			0.99	0.05%	1	4.35%
	Eastern Mole	Scalopus aquaticus	3	0.16%			1.18	0.06%	1	4.35%
	Indeterminate Large Bird	Large Aves	3	0.16%			0.95	0.05%		
	Indeterminate Medium Bird	Medium Aves	69	3.57%	3	6	7.94	0.38%		
Bird	Domestic Chicken	Gallus gallus	60	3.10%	2	3	36.02	1.73%	4	17.39%

Class	Common Name	Species	NISP	%NISP	N burned	N calcined	Weight	%Weight	MINI	%MINI
	Indeterminate Small Bird	Small Aves	2	0.10%			0.13	0.01%		
		Bobwhite Quail	1	0.05%			0.16	0.01%	1	4.35%
Reptile	Snapping Turtle	Chelydra serpentina	1	0.05%			0.35	0.02%	1	4.35%
Fish	Bony Fishes	Osteichthyes	5	0.26%			0.43	0.02%		
		Bullhead Catfish	2	0.10%			0.26	0.01%	1	4.35%
	Total		1934	100.00%	132	528	2081.84	100.00%	23	100.00%

domestic pig, domestic sheep/goat, whitetailed deer, Eastern cottontail rabbit, Eastern gray squirrel, Eastern mole, and Norway rat. The most abundant mammal species are domestic pig and domestic cow (Figure 8-1). Domestic horse bones included one incisor. Domestic cow bones included six mandibles, one mandibular 1st premolar, one mandibular 2nd molar, two maxillae, two maxillary 1st molars, one maxillary 3rd molar, one indeterminate 1st molars, two premolars, ten indeterminate molars, six teeth, one cervical vertebra, one rib, one hyoid, two innominates, three 1st phalanges, and one 3rd phalange. Domestic pig bones included 60 cranial fragments, three maxillary fragments, four mandibles, two mandible/maxilla fragments, 40 canine teeth, 44 incisors, three maxillary 2nd premolars, one maxillary 3rd premolar, one maxillary 1st molar, six maxillary 2nd molars, two mandibular 1st premolars, one mandibular 2nd premolar, one mandibular 1st molar, four mandibular 2nd molars, one mandibular 3rd molar, 19 premolars, eight 1st premolars, five 2nd premolars, two 3rd premolars, four 1st molars, two 2nd molars, 64 indeterminate molars, eight indeterminate teeth, two cervical vertebra, three lumbar vertebra, two vertebra, 23 ribs, one scapula, two humeri, one ulna, four metacarpals, four innominates, one femur, one tibia, three fibulae, one calcaneum, one lateral metatarsal, seven metapodials, six lateral metapodials, two 2nd carpals, 12 1st phalanges, five 2nd phalanges, four 3rd phalanges, one indeterminate phalange. Domestic sheep/goat bones included three incisors, two molars, one tooth, one innominate, and one metapodial. Whitetail deer bones included one mandibular 1st molar. Domestic dog bones included one canine tooth and one 3rd premolar. Eastern cottontail rabbit bones included one innominate, one femur, two tibia, and one metapodial. Eastern gray squirrel was represented by four cranium, one mandible, two humeri, two radii, one ulna, one innominate, one femur, five tibia, one calcaneum, and two long bones. Norway rat bones included two femora and one calcaneum. Eastern mole bones included one cranium, one scapula and one femur.

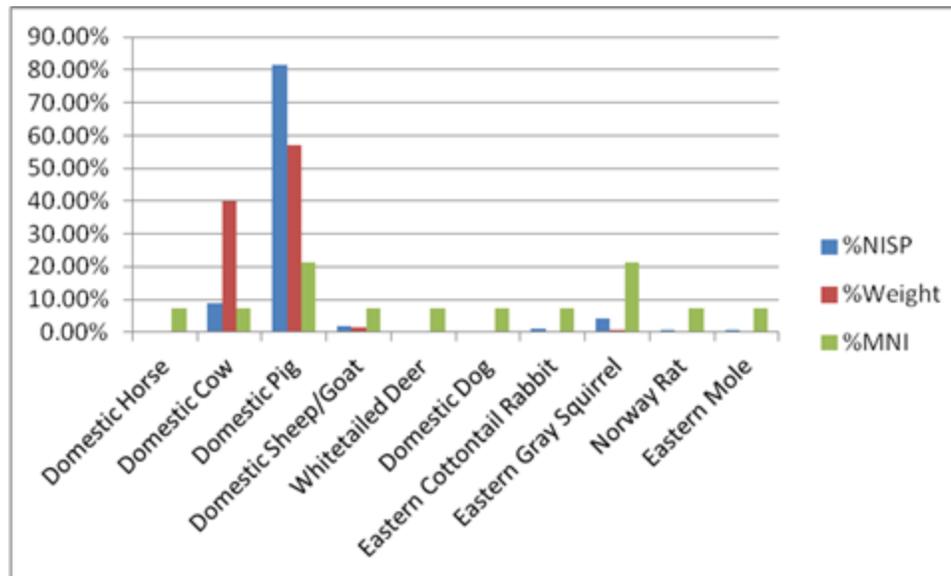


Figure 8-1. Mammalian Species Utilization.

Birds comprised 6.98 percent of the sample NISP, 2.17 percent of the sample Weight, and 21.7 percent of the sample MNI. Bird species identified in the sample included domestic chicken and bobwhite quail. The most abundant bird in the sample was domestic chicken (Figure 8-2). Domestic chicken bones included five coracoids, three furculae, four scapulae, eight humeri, three radii, seven ulnae, two carpometacarpia, one vertebra, one lumbar vertebra, one rib, five innominates, two femora, three tarsometatarsia, seven tibiotarsia, six 1st phalanges, one 2nd phalange, and one 3rd phalange. One tarsometatarsus was identified as bobwhite quail.

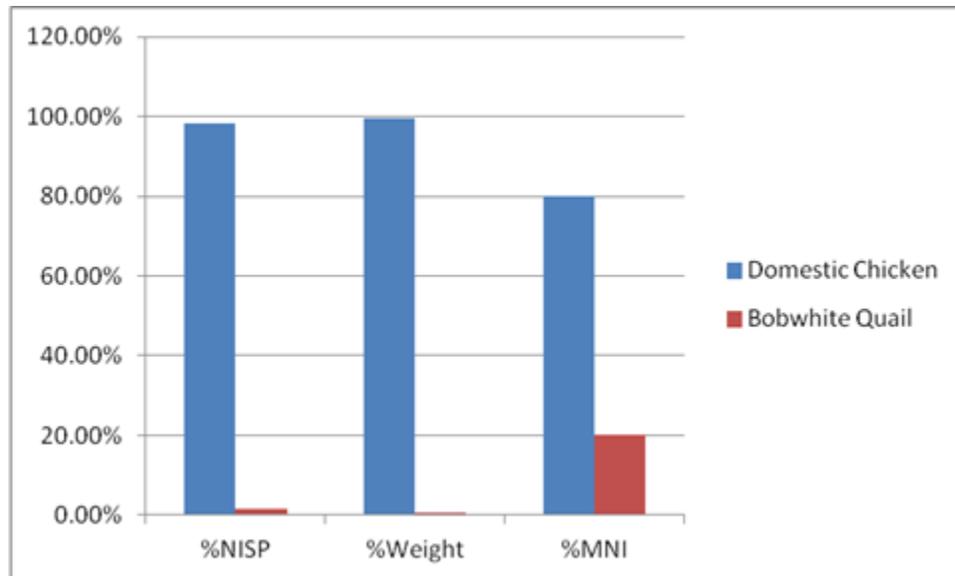


Figure 8-2. Avian Species Utilization.

Reptiles comprised less than one percent of the sample NISP and weight and 4.35 percent of the sample MNI. Only one reptile was identified in the sample. One carapace fragment was identified as snapping turtle.

Fish comprised less than one-half percent of the sample NISP and weight and 4.35 percent of the sample MNI. Indeterminate bony fish and bullhead catfish were identified in the sample. Indeterminate bony fish bones identified included two brachiostigeals and three dorsal spines. Bullhead catfish bones included two lateral ethmoids.

Additionally, shells from freshwater mussels and gastropods were also recovered. Seven shell fragments were identified as indeterminate bivalves and one was identified as an indeterminate gastropod.

Modification observed on the bones included both natural and cultural modifications. Two of the bones had been gnawed by carnivores and eight were gnawed by rodents. Cut marks were observed on two bones. Bones with cut marks included one cow hyoid and one large mammal rib.

8.6 Comparison to Other Sites

A few sites are available for comparison to the 15BB137 faunal assemblage. Because NISP was provided for each of these sites except for the John Dortch site, relative NISP was the basis of comparison for these assemblages. It should be noted that NISP is susceptible to a number of biases discussed in the analytical measures section. Comparative faunal data was available from a few other farmstead sites including the Armstrong Farmstead in Fayette County, Kentucky; the Monterey Hamlet and McConnell Farmstead sites in Bourbon County, Kentucky; the William Whitley house in Lincoln County, Kentucky; the Elijah Foley House in Fayette County, Kentucky; the Fair View Farm, Huggins, and Davis sites in southern Illinois; the southeastern Missouri Widow Harris farmstead; the Johnson/Bates farmstead near Louisville, Kentucky; and the Washburne farmstead in northwestern Illinois. Comparisons are also made with the Higbee Tavern site in Fayette County, Kentucky; the Rose Hotel, the Young and Old Landmark tavern sites in Southern Illinois; the Jackson House inn and tavern in southeastern Wisconsin, and the John Dortch site in Louisiana (Table 8-2).

Table 8-2. Summary of Selected 19th Century Faunal Assemblages.

Site	Swine	Cattle	Sheep/Goat	Deer	Small Mammals	Chicken	Other Birds	Other taxa
15BB137	70.4%	7.78%	1.52%	0.19%	4.74%	11.39%	0.19%	0.57%
Monterey- Robison (N=479)	38.20%	4.59%	4.18%	0.21%	19.83%	15.45%	12.11%	5.43%
Monterey- Hufford (N=131)	59.54%	7.63%	1.53%	0.00%	10.69%	10.69%	9.16%	0.76%
Monterey- Outbuilding (N=162)	16.67%	22.22%	4.32%	0.00%	11.11%	16.67%	25.31%	3.70%
Monterey- Martin/Crandle (N=322)	46.89%	23.91%	7.45%	0.00%	8.70%	5.59%	5.59%	1.86%
Monterey- Tollhouse (N=880)	28.30%	3.07%	1.70%	0.00%	10.45%	10.45%	34.66%	11.36%
Monterey- Dorsey (N=774)	12.27%	2.45%	0.26%	0.00%	53.36%	8.91%	15.37%	7.36%
Monterey- Slave quarter (N=1048)	28.72%	6.87%	0.38%	0.10%	23.66%	28.72%	8.30%	3.24%
Monterey- Cellar (N=221)	50.68%	19.46%	0.90%	0.00%	13.12%	2.71%	8.60%	4.52%
Monterey- Anderson/Moore (N=650)	19.85%	11.23%	1.23%	0.00%	6.77%	4.46%	6.46%	50.00%
Monterey- AME Church privy (N=167)	25.15%	1.80%	0.00%	0.00%	16.17%	17.37%	1.80%	37.72%
Armstrong Farmstead (N=2068)	38.30%	4.40%	1.31%	0.53%	13.93%	26.60%	8.08%	6.87%
Higbee Tavern (N=3203)	49.75%	11.18%	1.95%	2.66%	8.45%	6.13%	3.99%	15.85%
Jenkins House (N=598)	47.16%	32.61%	0.33%	1.00%	5.35%	2.68%	1.17%	9.70%
Reynolds Mansion (N=3516)	17.58%	8.82%	0.28%	9.50%	12.29%	7.34%	2.99%	41.21%
Rose Hotel (N=2744)	12.65%	24.34	0%	0.11%	7.11%	36.84%	3.24%	15.71%
Young (N=563)	28.8%	22.4	0.2%	17.9%	0%	0.2%	0.9%	30%
Old Landmark (N=352)	51.1%	9.7%	2.1%	20.1%	4.6%	5.9%	3.4%	3.1%
Jackson House (N=878)	25.9%	29.5%	8.5%	0%	0.3%	28.5%	4.7%	2.6%
McConnell (N=1140)	50.18%	3.95%	4.3%	0%	10%	16.05%	13.77%	1.75%
William Whitley (N=115)	70.43%	8.7%	0%	0.87%	9.57%	2.61%	0%	7.83%
Foley (N=140)	46.43%	9.29%	3.57%	0%	7.86%	27.14%	5%	0.71%
Fair View Farm (N=223)	80.3%	2.7%	1.3%	4.5%	2.2%	2.7%	4.9%	1.3%
Huggins (N=466)	61.8%	4.7%	0.6%	10.7%	7.1%	4.7%	2.1%	8.3%
Davis (N=544)	36.8%	1.5%	0.4%	11.4%	28.7%	7%	2.3%	11.9%
Widow Harris (N=1669)	72.3%	1.1%	0.1%	5.4%	6.7%	8.7%	2.8%	2.9%

Site	Swine	Cattle	Sheep/Goat	Deer	Small Mammals	Chicken	Other Birds	Other taxa
Johnson/Bates (N=218)	44.5%	3.2%	0%	0%	15.1%	22.5%	1.4%	13.3%
Washburne (N=568)	20.8%	44%	9.7%	0.2%	0.4%	7.7%	4.9%	12.3%

The Monterey Hamlet site was comprised of a number of residences and associated outbuildings dating to the 19th century. Most of the inhabitants of Monterey were low-middle class. The community was comprised of Anglo, slave, and free African American people. The Robison House in Monterey was associated with the occupation of a free African American of little affluence. The residence was representative of the Upland South tradition in terms of the use of pigs, some use of cattle, little use of sheep/goats, and chickens. Wild taxa were utilized as well. In terms of relative use of wild and domestic taxa, the Robison residence appears to be affluent, as it exhibits a lower percentage of domesticates (87.93% at Armstrong and 63.62% at Robison). The Robison House used a single or few taxa much more extensively than more affluent sites. Additionally, the beef cuts and elements represented demonstrate that the Robison residence had little access to high quality meat (Allgood 2004).

The Hufford residence/outbuilding had a limited sample size, therefore it is not likely representative of foodways associated with the residence. At face value, it does appear to conform to the Upland South tradition, with pig providing the highest relative counts for the sample. In terms of the relative use of domestic and wild species, domestic species comprised nearly all of the sample NISP and weight. This would mark it as low status. Low equitability and low diversity indices confirmed this. Cattle elements and beef cut marks appeared to represent either butchery remains or low status consumption. Pig remains were mainly those from the ham and head of pork. The foodways from this structure likely represent either a low status residence that conformed to the Upland South tradition, or had a different function, such as an outbuilding (Allgood 2004).

The Martin/Crandle House unfortunately didn't provide a very representative sample size, and the sample recovered did not conform to the Upland South tradition. In terms of NISP, cattle comprised 23.91% of the NISP and pigs comprise 46.89%. When relative weight is evaluated the, the contribution of cattle becomes more apparent (81.65% cattle, 15.66% pig). The use of domestic and wild species indicated moderate status compared to the other residences of Monterey. The sample produced a moderate diversity and high equitability index. Though the sample is probably too small for diversity to be an accurate measure, the Martin/Crandle house has moderate status compared to the other residences. Cattle remains in the residence suggested butchery and food remains were deposited there. High, moderate and low ranking cuts of beef were represented. This residence reportedly functioned as a store, and could have also housed a butcher. Pork consumption was primarily pork shoulder and ham cuts, but a few head/foot elements were recovered as well (Allgood 2004).

The tollhouse provided a moderate sample that appears to conform to the Upland South tradition. Pigs were the dominant species used. Pig element representation indicated fairly even use of pigs, but higher proportions of cranial elements. Possibly hogs heads were being used for head cheese or souse production. Pig's feet, ham and shoulder bones were also relatively common. Cattle remains at the tollhouse included no low ranking cuts or butchery remains. There was a good deal of variety in the high to moderate ranking beef cuts and elements present. The use of domestic species compared to wild species confirms a higher status at the Tollhouse compared to other Monterey residences. This was confirmed with high diversity and high equitability indices (Allgood 2004).

The Dorsey House provided a moderate sample. The relative use of wild and domestic species indicated high status subsistence. This residence had a great deal of wild game, including upland and aquatic species. In terms of domestic species use, pig provided the highest contribution to the sample in terms of NISP and weight. Chickens were also well represented. The Dorsey House had moderate-high diversity and high equitability, indicating higher status than the other Monterey residences. The indices were relatively comparable to those generated at Higbee Tavern and the Jenkins House site. Beef cuts and

elements represented were of good quality, as were the pork remains. Interestingly, one sawn horse tibia was recovered in the cistern. This is unusual because Horse is not generally a culturally accepted food in the US. Horse would be expected in low status or slave contexts. Its presence in a middle-lower class Anglo context seems unusual. The bone was recovered in the cistern so could post-date the Dorsey occupation of the residence (Allgood 2004).

The slave quarter produced a moderate sample of faunal remains, and also appears to conform to the Upland South tradition. The dominant taxon was pig, with some cattle, limited chicken, and sheep/goat. The contribution of domestic taxa was moderate compared to the other Monterey residences. The diversity and equitability indices were high. This is aberrant, as this indicates high status, comparable to the Dorsey structure, Higbee Tavern, and the Jenkins House. Additionally, the cattle representation and beef cuts indicated there was a lot of variety. Some of the beef bones were from very good cuts of meat. Pig bones also were mainly those in the ham, shoulder, and feet. It is possible that the Dorsey's provided the slaves with bones from their table to be used in soups/stews for seasoning, the Dorsey slaves were provided good portions of meat, or that this structure isn't a slave quarter at all (Allgood 2004).

The Anderson/Moore residence produced a moderate sample that did not appear to conform to the Upland South tradition. Though pigs were the dominant taxon in terms of %NISP (19.85% pig, 11.23% cattle), cattle dominated the relative weight (46.14% cattle, 34.38% pig). Additionally, the beef cuts present were of good value. This residence yielded the most beef cuts of all the residences. The relative use of wild and domestic species indicated that status at the Anderson/Moore residence was moderate, compared to the other Monterey residences. This is likely due to the high contribution of beef. The diversity index was moderate and the equitability was high. Again, this indicated that the status of this residence was moderate compared to the rest of Monterey. Pig element representation indicated that heads were the best represented portion, followed by pork shoulders. Ham portions and feet were present in lower amounts. Another interesting contribution to the Anderson/Moore diet was horse. As with the Dorsey residence, this is unusual because Horse is not generally a culturally accepted food in the US. Horse would be expected in low status or slave contexts. Its presence in a middle class Anglo context seems unusual. The bone was recovered in Features 71 and 120 (Allgood 2004).

In the McConnell Farmstead, deer and elk were absent. Similarly to site 15BB137, McConnell was dominated by pork. Cow, chicken, and sheep were also important, but in much smaller amounts. Small wild game was present at McConnell, but in lower numbers than at site 15BB137. At the McConnell Homestead, the presence of game interpreted as a result of hunting and leisure activities. The dominance of domestic to wild resources was explained as a cultural preference by Tuma (2000).

Several accounts by early explorers and settlers in the region noted the abundance of deer. Imlay (1792:90) observed that "the mountains, hills, and uninhabited parts are abound in deer..." and that "deer abound in extensive forefts" (Imlay 1792:94). Thomas Ashe noted that the deer population was "relatively scarce," however he reported seeing and killing several while in Kentucky (Ashe 1809:129, 155, 211). Deer were no doubt available in the Bluegrass Region in the late 18th and early 19th centuries.

The white tailed deer population had declined in Kentucky, presumably due to the rise of market hunting. Market hunting had reached its climax after the civil war. Market hunting for deer declined at the turn of the century as a result of their reduced numbers and as a result of state and federal conservation laws. Early conservation efforts began in 1861, with a harvest season set for does (Halls 1984).

Accounts from the local area and throughout the South during this time period tell that early 19th century southerners preferred salted pork over fresh meat, including venison. Frederick Law Olmstead noted that a farmer in east Texas owned land which was abundant with game, including deer, but “he never shot any; ‘twas too much trouble. When he wanted ‘fresh’, ‘twas easier to go out and stick a hog.” This cultural attitude may have been prevalent in Kentucky in the early 19th century as well. In addition to the ease of killing a domestic hog over hunting a deer, Kentuckians may have preferred salted pork over fresh venison. Ashe (1809:216-217) noted that Kentuckians “have an aversion to fresh meat... they find it unwholesome... they eat salt meat 3 times a day...” Michaux (1805:238-239) reported that Kentuckians’ “use of salted meats give them a distaste for fresh meat.” Thus, the presence of deer in the faunal record may reflect a divergence from cultural traditions regarding meat consumption in place not only in Kentucky, but also throughout the South (Tuma 2000). The presence of deer at 15BB137 is possibly a reflection of its rural setting. Hunting may have been a sport that the site’s occupants engaged in as a leisure activity and to procure meat for the kitchen.

The Armstrong Farmstead faunal assemblage showed a moderately diverse range of taxa used; however, the biomass available was dominated by domesticated species in general, and pork specifically. The use of wild animals was limited. The status of the occupants of Armstrong Farmstead appears to be relatively high. Most of the biomass consumed at the site was from domesticated species. Although pig was the dominant species, there is a higher amount of purchased beef at Armstrong than at McConnell farmstead and the Johnson Bates site. Wild species recovered in the faunal assemblage suggested that most of the wild resources selected were upland game species. These were likely hunted for sport/leisure activity. Interesting, cranial elements of an elk were also recovered at Armstrong Farmstead, and interpreted as a possible trophy/curated item from an earlier hunt (Allgood 2003a).

The presence of sawn pig and cow bones indicated that some of the pork and most of the beef consumed at the farmstead was purchased. The Armstrong Farmstead fits well with the Upland South subsistence pattern, as it is expressed in Kentucky and the Bluegrass Region. The use of pig is slightly less at Armstrong than at other Kentucky sites, perhaps because of the contribution of purchased food resources. The application of diversity and equitability further demonstrated the specialized strategy that Bluegrass farmsteads utilized, especially with regard to the use of pigs (Allgood 2003a).

The Reynolds Mansion site yielded a moderate sample (N=3948) of faunal remains associated with an antebellum farmstead. The site’s faunal assemblage was dominated by domestic species (78.2%), including cows (50.42% weight), pig, (49.1% weight), chicken (<1% weight), and sheep/goat (<1% weight). The Reynolds Mansion site assemblage has mainly choice beef cuts. There appears to be no preference evident in the anatomical representation of pigs. Wild species were also present including deer, freshwater mussels, squirrel, and catfish. The species present at Reynolds Mansion site suggested that hunting and fishing might represent a leisure activity, engaged in out of sport rather than necessity. The Reynolds Mansion site had high diversity and high equitability indices (Allgood 2002).

The faunal assemblage recovered from the Jenkins House site was significantly large to make observations about the subsistence strategy of the site’s historic residents. The site conformed to the Upland South subsistence strategy, with the largest contribution to the site’s biomass was from domestic animals, especially pigs and cattle. Cows were potentially useful for beasts of burden (oxen), dairy, and leather goods as well. Chickens were also numerous, and although they did not supply large quantities of meat, they may have also produced eggs and feathers. Wild animals, particularly deer, shellfish, squirrel and fish, provided sport and variety in the diet of the site’s occupants (Allgood 2003b).

The meat utility indices indicated that high utility portion of cattle were the primary anatomical units consumed at the site. There appeared to be a preference for axial portions of the cow. Foot, head, hindlimb and forelimb portions were the most common anatomical unit for pigs. The large quantity of pig foot elements could be exaggerated due to the high frequency of bones contained within the foot. Again, pigs are a poor indicator of status, as all social groups consumed the entire animal. Similarly to site 15BB137 assemblage, the Jenkins House site had high diversity and high equitability indices (Allgood 2003b).

Excavations at the William Whitley House recovered a modest sample of faunal remains (N=1362, 2,047.38 g) dating to the Pennington occupation of the site from 1827 to 1919. This faunal assemblage was also dominated by domestic species, including chicken, cow, and pigs. Wild species were present, and included woodchuck, rabbit, and opossum. One fish, largemouth bass, was present as well as a few gastropods and bivalves (Linebaugh and Loughlin 2003).

The Foley House site in Fayette County, Kentucky, produced a modest sample of faunal remains (N=1,383), few of which (N=140) could be identified to at least the family level. Nearly half of the Foley faunal specimens were pig, and about one-third was chicken. About 10 percent of the Foley faunal specimens were from cattle, eight percent from small mammals such as rabbit and muskrat, and five percent from turkey. Sheep or goat comprised four percent of the specimens. It appears that many animals were grown and harvested onsite, including pigs and chickens. Wild game was also utilized to a considerable degree, though deer was noticeably absent. It could not be determined if cattle were raised onsite or purchased (Haskins 1998).

The Fair View Farm site was overwhelmingly dominated by pig (80.3%), with less than 10 percent of any other taxa. Interestingly, deer and birds (excluding chicken) comprised nearly five percent of the NISP each. About three percent of the specimens were identified as cattle and three percent as chicken.

The Huggins site had a slightly lower proportion of pigs at 62 percent. Deer made a fairly interesting contribution to the Huggins assemblage at 10 percent of the NISP. All other taxa contributed less than 10 percent of the assemblage.

The Davis site has the lowest NISP values (36.8%) for pigs among the southeastern Illinois sites. Interestingly, a large proportion of the specimens (28.7%) were from small mammals, nearly 12 percent from deer, and nearly 12 percent from other taxa. Wild species made a significant contribution to the diet at Davis. As with site 15BB137, it was hypothesized that the high frequency of wild species was due to the early occupation of the site (Martin and Richmond 1989).

Similarly to the Fair View Farm site, pig dominated the assemblage from the Widow Harris site in southeastern Missouri, with all other taxa contributing less than 10 percent to the NISP.

Interestingly, the Johnson/Bates house site in a rural community near Louisville, Kentucky, is fairly similar to the McConnell farmstead and the Foley house site in the proportion of pigs (44.5%) and chickens (22.5%).

The Johnson/Bates house differs from Foley and McConnell in the higher proportions of small mammals and other taxa. Cattle are more important at Foley than at Johnson/Bates.

The Washburne house site in northwestern Illinois is an example of the Northeastern subsistence pattern, with a predominance of cattle over pork. Sheep or goat (9.7%) and chicken (7.7%) also

demonstrate a reliance on domestic species over wild. Deer and other small mammals make up less than one percent of the assemblage (Martin and Richmond 1989).

Six taverns provide comparisons for the farmstead diet and tavern diet. Higbee Tavern was an Antebellum Tavern located in Fayette County, Kentucky. The Rose Hotel was a tavern and boarding house from 1842 to 1970 (Wagner and Butler 1999). The Young Tavern and Old Landmark Tavern sites were both 19th century tavern sites. The Jackson House inn and tavern in southeastern Wisconsin dates to 1840, and was set up as a waystation for travelers (Martin and Richmond 1989). The John Dortch site was a late 18th century residence that functioned as a relatively wealthy rural inn, and possibly as a tavern operated out of the home of John Dortch. The site was occupied for a brief period of time, allowing for a snapshot of subsistence activities at the site. Both sites produced large samples.

Pigs and cows dominated the diet of the Higbee's Tavern, each contributing nearly 30 percent of the weight. The weight of pig bones (29.99%) and cows (28.47%) recovered from the phase III excavation was far greater than that of any other species. Thus, the amount of meat weight contributed by pigs and cows to the diets of the occupants and clientele of the tavern was most significant. Wild species contributed nearly seven percent of the entire weight of the sample. Half of this was from deer, but the diversity of other mammals, birds, turtles, and fish indicated that these game animals were important to the diet at Higbee (Allgood 2003c).

The Rose Hotel assemblage consisted of faunal specimens from the 1847 east wing of the hotel and from the 1867 north wing dining hall areas. The Rose Hotel diet consisted mainly of pig, but had large numbers of chickens as well. Cows were present. They were likely purchased and brought to the site, and limited to axial, hind, and forequarter portions. Sheep and goats were noticeably absent. The agricultural census for the county indicated that pork was the most important food staple, and this was reflected in the Rose Hotel assemblage. Rats were very abundant at the Rose Hotel, and are a good indication that the site had open refuse disposal (Wagner and Butler 1999).

The Young site produced 1,277 faunal remains, most of which were recovered from a cistern and several pit cellars. Species diversity at Young was low, with most of the specimens identified as pig. Martin and Richmond's (1989) calculation of biomass determined cattle provided the highest meat yield for the site. The site appeared adhere to the Northeastern subsistence tradition, as the original owner of the tavern was from New York (Martin and Richmond 1989).

The Old Landmark Tavern produced 1,725 faunal remains, primarily from midden context. The diversity of species present at Old Landmark is greater than at Young. Also, the biomass and number of specimens from pigs is significantly greater at Old Landmark (Martin and Richmond 1989).

The Jackson House in Wisconsin is a good example of the Northeastern tradition, as the assemblage was dominated by beef and chicken over pork, with low numbers of other taxa such as small mammals. Deer are absent from this site (Martin and Richmond 1989).

The John Dortch Site in Louisiana was also dominated by pigs. Although pigs were mainly represented by elements from low utility cuts of meat, the authors suggest that this did not necessarily mean low status. Cattle were represented by purchased elements, including those of the cranium. It was suggested that cow heads were also purchased cuts of meat that were used as presentation dishes. Trace quantities of other species, including wild mammals, birds, and fish, were present (Ryan et al. 2003).

The Kentucky farmsteads, including 15BB137, McConnell, Foley, and Johnson/Bates have lower proportions of cattle. Deer is present in a few assemblages (15BB137, Higbee, Armstrong, Jenkins,

Reynolds) in low amounts. Small mammals, like rabbit and squirrel, were used at 15BB137, but not as high as they were at the Monterey Dorsey House and slave quarter. Use of pigs is similar at 15BB137 compared to the Martin/Crandle House of Monterey, Jenkins House, Higbee, McConnell, Foley, and Johnson Bates. The use of pigs is similar between 15BB137, Johnson Bates, and McConnell Homestead.

8.7 Chronology and Spatial Analysis

The material recovered from Site 15BB137 came from the first zone, which was a general midden over the entire site. Most of the features contained limited amounts of temporally diagnostic artifacts. Features 4a and 4b, possibly a detached kitchen and cellar, contained diagnostic material, primarily ceramics, and gave early dates. The area near Feature 15, which is believed to be a midden outside the house door, produced dates that were more recent than the kitchen and cellar location (Table 8-3).

Table 8-3. Mean Ceramic Dates.

Area	Dates
Feature 4a	1798.6
Feature 4b	1802.7
Feature 4 Area	1808
Feature 13 Area	1818.9
Feature 15 Area	1822.1

The faunal material recovered from these areas indicate variation, which may be related to changes in consumption over time. It should be noted that the areas differ in function, which may be related to the variation. Feature 4a faunal assemblage consisted of 134 specimens (Table 8-4). Five species were identified: domestic cow (*Bos Taurus*), domestic chicken (*Gallus gallus*), boney fish (*Osteichthyes*), eastern gray squirrel (*Sciurus carolinensis*), and domestic pig (*Sus scrofa*). The Feature 4b faunal assemblage consisted of 35 specimens (Table 8-5). Three species were identified: domestic cow, domestic chicken, and domestic pig. The Feature 4 area, which consisted of Zone I of the units around Feature 4, consisted of 493 specimens (Table 8-6). Eight species were identified: domestic cow, domestic dog (*Canis familiaris*), domestic chicken, sheep/goat (*Ovis/Capra* sp.), rat, (*Rattus norvegicus*), eastern gray squirrel, domestic pig, and eastern cottontail rabbit (*Sylvilagus floridanus*). The Feature 13 Area, which consisted of Zone I of the units around Feature 13, consisted of 174 specimens (Table 8-7). Five species were identified: domestic chicken, domestic cow, eastern mole (*Scalopus aquaticus*), eastern gray squirrel, and domestic pig. The Feature 15 Area, which consisted of Zone I of the units around Feature 15, consisted of 92 specimens (Table 8-8). Two species were identified: domestic cow and domestic pig. The species recovered from the features, other than 4a and 4b, are listed in Table 8-9. Feature show the same pattern pig utilization. All element of the pig were consumed.

Faunal studies from historic house sites have provided insights into intra-site variation related to different activity areas around the site (Martin 1990; Price 1985; Lyman 1977). Price (1985) found that pig skull, teeth, and innominate bones are associated with butchering and processing and pig foot bones reflect table refuse. Pig foot bones, ribs, and long bones are used in soups or stews and are found with the food refuse near the house (Price 1985:50). The bones of small mammals and birds are also found with the food refuse rather than in the butchering and processing areas (Price 1985:50). Faunal material recovered from site 15BB137 appears to fit with the patterns described by Price (1985).

Table 8-4. Fauna from Feature 4a.

Species	Element	Total
Bivalvia	Shell	1
<i>Bivalvia Total</i>		<i>1</i>
Bos taurus	Mandible	1
	Mandibular Premolar 2	1
	molar	1
<i>Bos taurus Total</i>		<i>3</i>
Gallus gallus	Coracoid	1
	Humerus	2
	Innominate	1
	phalanx 1	1
<i>Gallus gallus Total</i>		<i>5</i>
Large Mammalia	Indeterminate	61
	Long Bone	36
	Rib	1
	Tooth	1
	vertebra	1
<i>Large Mammalia Total</i>		<i>100</i>
Medium Aves	Eggshell	1
	Long Bone	1
	Sternum	1
<i>Medium Aves Total</i>		<i>3</i>
Medium Mammalia	Rib	1
<i>Medium Mammalia Total</i>		<i>1</i>
Osteichthyes	Spine Support	2
<i>Osteichthyes Total</i>		<i>2</i>
Sciurus carolinensis	Long Bone	2
	tibia	2
<i>Sciurus carolinensis Total</i>		<i>4</i>
Sus scrofa	Calcaneum	1
	Cranium	4
	maxillary Premolar 2	1
	Metacarpal	1
	molar	1
	phalanx 1	2
	Phalanx 2	1
	Premolar	1
vertebra	1	

Species	Element	Total
<i>Sus scrofa</i> Total		13
Vertebrata	Indeterminate	1
<i>Vertebrata</i> Total		1
Very Large Mammalia	Humerus	1
<i>Very Large Mammalia</i> Total		1
Grand Total		134

Table 8-5. Fauna from Feature 4b.

Species	Element	Total
Bos taurus	Maxilla Molar 1	1
<i>Bos taurus</i> Total		1
Gallus gallus	Femur	1
<i>Gallus gallus</i> Total		1
Large Mammalia	Cervical Vertebra	1
	Indeterminate	7
	Long Bone	15
<i>Large Mammalia</i> Total		23
Medium Aves	Indeterminate	1
<i>Medium Aves</i> Total		1
Medium Mammalia	Rib	2
<i>Medium Mammalia</i> Total		2
Small Mammalia	Long Bone	2
<i>Small Mammalia</i> Total		2
Sus scrofa	Incisor	1
	Mandible/Maxilla	2
	Mandibular Molar 2	1
	Metapodial	1
<i>Sus scrofa</i> Total		5
Grand Total		35

Table 8-6. Fauna from Feature 4 Area, Zone 1.

Species	Element	Total
Bivalvia	Shell	3
<i>Bivalvia</i> Total		3
Bos taurus	molar	1
	molar 1	1
	Premolar	2

Species	Element	Total
	Tooth	2
<i>Bos taurus Total</i>		6
Canis familiaris	canine	1
	Premolar 3	1
<i>Canis familiaris Total</i>		2
Gallus gallus	Innominate	1
	phalanx 1	1
	Phalanx 2	1
	Rib	1
	ulna	1
<i>Gallus gallus Total</i>		5
Large Mammalia	Indeterminate	232
	Long Bone	127
	Rib	4
	Sternal Vertebra	1
	Tooth	6
<i>Large Mammalia Total</i>		370
Medium Aves	Indeterminate	1
	Long Bone	7
<i>Medium Aves Total</i>		8
Ovis/Capra sp.	Incisor	2
	Metapodial	1
	molar	1
	Tooth	1
<i>Ovis/Capra sp. Total</i>		5
Rattus norvegicus	Calcaneum	1
<i>Rattus norvegicus Total</i>		1
Sciurus carolinensis	Humerus	1
	ulna	1
<i>Sciurus carolinensis Total</i>		2
Small Mammalia	Innominate	1
	Long Bone	3
<i>Small Mammalia Total</i>		4
Sus scrofa	canine	8
	Cranium	3
	Fibula	1
	Incisor	9
	lateral metapodial	5

Species	Element	Total
	Mandible	1
	Mandibular Molar 1	1
	Mandibular Molar 2	2
	Metapodial	2
	molar	33
	phalanx 1	3
	Phalanx 2	2
	Premolar	9
	Premolar 1	1
	Premolar 2	1
	Rib	1
	tibia	1
	Tooth	1
<i>Sus scrofa Total</i>		84
Sylvilagus floridanus	Innominate	1
	Metapodial	1
<i>Sylvilagus floridanus Total</i>		2
Very Large Mammalia	Long Bone	1
<i>Very Large Mammalia Total</i>		1
Grand Total		493

Table 8-7. Fauna from Feature 13 Area, Zone 1.

Species	Element	Total
Bivalvia	Shell	2
	<i>Bivalvia Total</i>	
Bos taurus	molar	1
	<i>Bos taurus Total</i>	
Gallus gallus	Carpometacarpus	1
	Coracoid	1
	Humerus	1
	Phalanx 1	2
	Phalanx 3	1
	Radius	1
	Scapula	1
	Tibiotarsus	3
	ulna	2
<i>Gallus gallus Total</i>		13

Species	Element	Total
Large Aves	Long Bone	2
<i>Large Aves Total</i>		2
Large Mammalia	Indeterminate	31
	Long Bone	54
	Rib	3
<i>Large Mammalia Total</i>		88
Medium Aves	Eggshell	11
	Femur	1
	Indeterminate	1
	Long Bone	4
	Rib	1
<i>Medium Aves Total</i>		18
Medium Mammalia	Long Bone	3
	Rib	3
<i>Medium Mammalia Total</i>		6
Scalopus aquaticus	Cranium	1
	Femur	1
<i>Scalopus aquaticus Total</i>		2
Sciurus carolinensis	tibia	2
<i>Sciurus carolinensis Total</i>		2
Small Aves	Long Bone	2
<i>Small Aves Total</i>		2
Small Mammalia	Long Bone	2
	Rib	1
<i>Small Mammalia Total</i>		3
Sus scrofa	canine	2
	Cranium	1
	Femur	1
	Fibula	1
	Humerus	1
	Incisor	7
	Indeterminate Molar	2
	Mandible	1
	mandibular premolar 1	1
	Mandibular Premolar 2	1
	maxillary Premolar 2	1
	Metacarpal	1
molar	4	

Species	Element	Total
	Molar	1
	Phalanx	1
	Phalanx 1	1
	Phalanx 3	1
	premolar	1
	Premolar 1	2
	Rib	3
	Tooth	1
<i>Sus scrofa Total</i>		35
Grand Total		174

Table 8-8. Fauna from Feature 15 Area, Zone 1.

Species	Element	Total
Bos taurus	maxilla	2
	Maxillary Molar 1	1
<i>Bos taurus Total</i>		3
Large Mammalia	Indeterminate	44
	Long Bone	18
<i>Large Mammalia Total</i>		62
Mammalia	Indeterminate	1
<i>Mammalia Total</i>		1
Medium Aves	Long Bone	1
<i>Medium Aves Total</i>		1
Medium Mammalia	Rib	1
<i>Medium Mammalia Total</i>		1
Sus scrofa	canine	3
	Cranium	4
	Incisor	5
	Metapodial	1
	molar	7
	molar 1	1
	Premolar	1
	Premolar 1	1
Premolar 2	1	
<i>Sus scrofa Total</i>		24
Grand Total		92

Table 8-9. Fauna from All Other Features.

Species	Element	Feature							Total
		13	15	19	23	26	28	33	
Bos taurus	Mandibulary Molar 2			1					1
	Phalanx 3						1		1
	Rib					1			1
<i>Bos taurus Total</i>				1		1	1		3
Gallus gallus	Coracoid	1							1
	furculum	1							1
	Humerus	1							1
	Scapula					1			1
	Tibiotarsus	1							1
	ulna	1							1
<i>Gallus gallus Total</i>		5				1			6
Large Mammalia	Indeterminate	9			1		12	1	23
	Long Bone	2		5	4	2		1	14
	Rib	5				1			6
<i>Large Mammalia Total</i>		16		5	5	3	12	2	43
Medium Aves	Eggshell	1							1
	Long Bone	1	2						3
<i>Medium Aves Total</i>		2	2						4
Medium Mammalia	Long Bone	1							1
<i>Medium Mammalia Total</i>		1							1
Osteichthyes	Brachioistigeal		1						1
<i>Osteichthyes Total</i>			1						1
Rattus norvegicus	Femur	1							1
<i>Rattus norvegicus Total</i>		1							1
Scalopus aquaticus	Scapula			1					1
<i>Scalopus aquaticus Total</i>				1					1
Sciurus carolinensis	Cranium	4							4
	Radius	1							1
<i>Sciurus carolinensis Total</i>		5							5
Small Mammalia	Long Bone	1							1
<i>Small Mammalia Total</i>		1							1
Sus scrofa	canine			1					1
	Cranium	1		2					3
	Incisor	2							2
	Innominate	1							1
	Lumbar Vertebra	2							2

Species	Element	Feature							Total
		13	15	19	23	26	28	33	
	maxilla	1							1
	maxillary molar 2			1					1
	Metapodial							1	1
	molar	1		2					3
	molar 1						1		1
	phalanx 1					1	2		3
	Premolar					1			1
	Premolar 2						1		1
	Rib	9					1		10
	<i>Sus scrofa</i> Total	17		6		2	5	1	31
Sylvilagus floridanus	Femur	1							1
	Sylvilagus floridanus Total	1							1
	Grand Total	49	3	13	5	7	18	3	98

Table 8-4 through Table 8-8, above, show the faunal material recovered from three areas and two features. The Feature 4 Area and the Feature 13 Area contained evidence of bones related to food refuse. Feature 4 Area contained domestic pig phalanx and metapodial bones along with fibia, ribs and tibia bones. The later bones may have used in soups and stews. Feature 4 area is believed to be a detached kitchen and cellar where where food refuse would be expected. Domestic pig cranial bones (including teeth) were also recovered from the area, suggesting butchering and processing activities also occurred near or in the detached kitchen. Squirrel, rabbit, and chicken remains were also recovered from the Feature 4 Area (Table 8-6). The Feature 13 Area contained similar elements which consisted of phalanx and metacarpal bones along with fibula, humerus, femur, and rib bones. Domestic pig cranial bones consisted primarily of teeth (Table 8-7). Squirrel, mole, and chicken were also recovered. Feature 13 area is within and adjacent to the Champ House and should contain primarily food refuse. The Feature 15 Area is believed to be a trash midden area near the house. The Feature 15 Area domestic pig assemblage consisted of one foot bone and 23 cranial bones and teeth. The only other identified specie was domestic cow (Table 8-8). Feature 4a contained six cranial bones and teeth and one foot bone. The other identified species from the feature consisted of squirrel, chicken, and domestic cow. Features 4a and 4b also contain skull and foot elements from domestic pigs (Table 8-4 and Table 8-5).

The distribution of skull and foot elements from 15BB137 differs from the patterns discussed in Price (1985) and Lyman (1977) (Figure 8-3 and Figure 8-4). Those studies indicated that the different elements indicated different activities and different use of the elements. At 15BB137, it is difficult to separate the butchering, processing, and food refuse activities. It appears that the Champs are consuming the entire pig, and cow too. The presence of the skull and teeth suggest that the champs were eating the brains and tongue. The presence of foot bones and large mammal long bones indicates they were also eating hams and ribs. If this was the case, it would be difficult to separate butchering areas from food refuse areas.

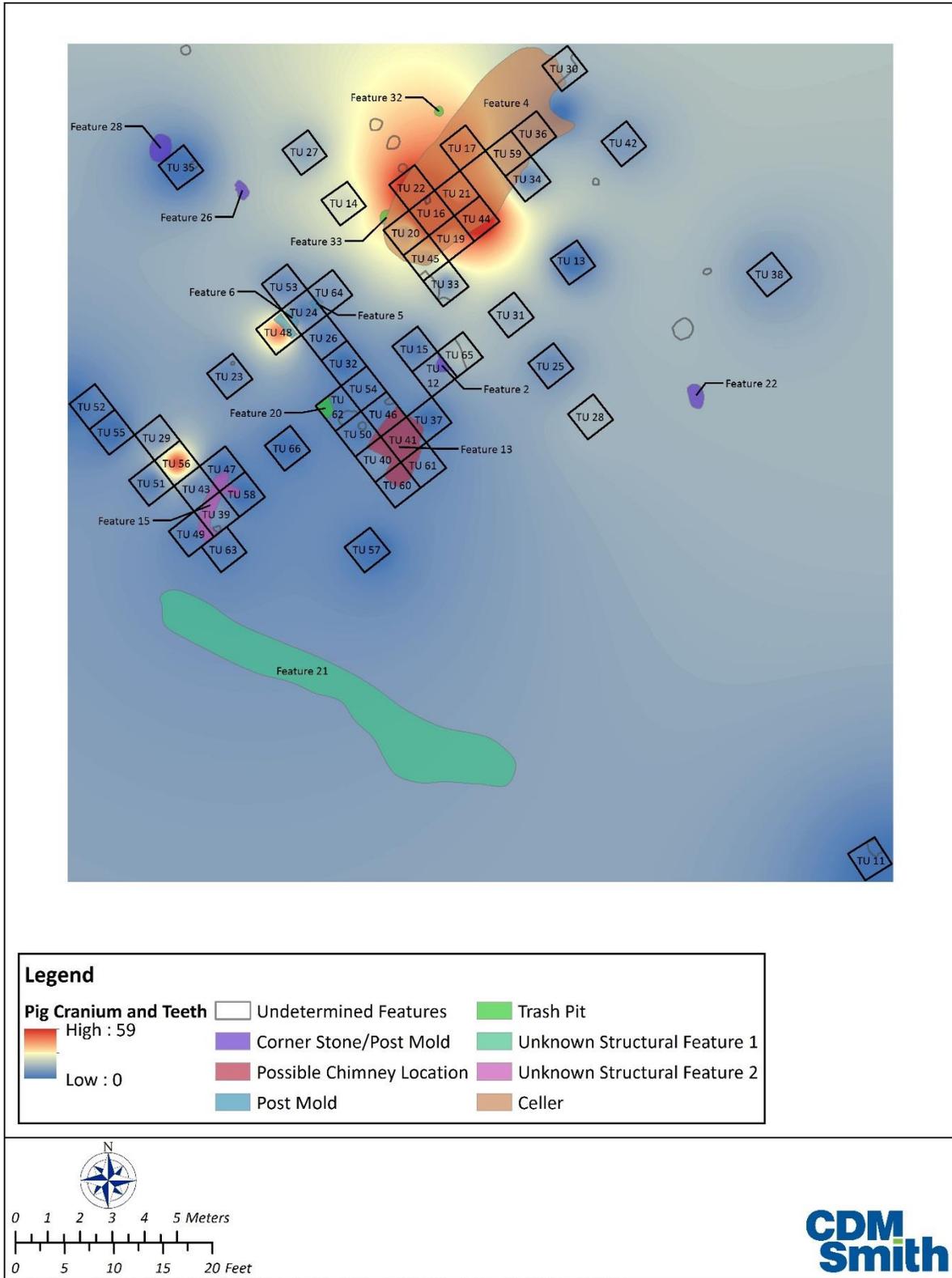


Figure 8-3. Distribution of Pig Cranium Elements and Teeth.

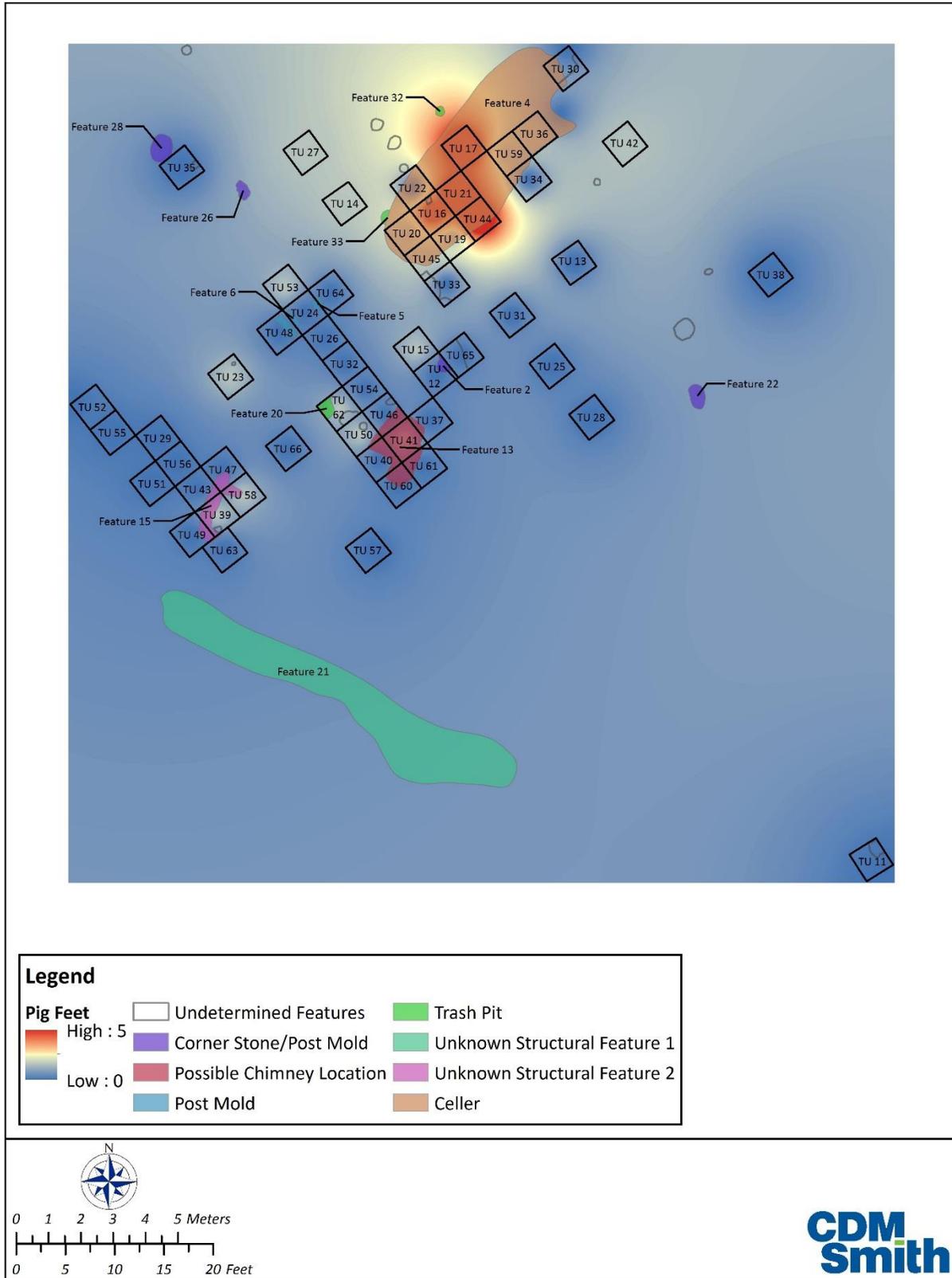


Figure 8-4. Distribution of Pig Feet Elements.

The distribution of the faunal material by period of occupation was similar. The earlier area, the Feature 4 Area, was dominated by various domestic pig elements, domestic cow, and domestic chicken. The later area, the Feature 13 Area was also dominated by domestic pig, domestic cow and domestic chicken. This is typical for the Upper South foodways pattern. It also suggests that there was not a change in subsistence patterns between the periods of occupation at site 15BB137.

8.8 A Recipe

The eating of brains and the tongue was more common in the South than the North (Hooker1981). A recipe for shote's head from *The Virginia Housewife or, Methodical Cook* by Mary Randolph (1993:53), first published in 1824, suggests it was a standard fare and is shown below:

“Take out the brains, and boil the head till quite tender, cut the heart and liver from the harslet, and boil the feet with the head: cut all the meat from the head in small pieces, mince the tongue and chop the brains small, take some of the water the head was boiled in, season it with onion, parsley and thyme, all chopped fine, add any kind of catsup – thicken it with butter and brown flour, stew the whole in it fifteen minutes, and put it in the dish: have the heart roasted to put in the middle, lay the broiled liver around, and garnish it with green pickle.”

8.9 Summary and Conclusions

As stated earlier, several research objectives were designated for the site. It was assumed that some of these objectives could be addressed through analysis of the faunal materials recovered from the site. These objectives included:

1. Patterns of consumerism at site 15BB137;
2. Social relations: the class and ethnicity displayed at the farmstead;
3. and Spatial analysis of the farmstead layout.

8.9.1 Objective 1- Patterns of consumerism at site 15BB137.

The faunal assemblage recovered from Site 15BB137 showed a moderately diverse range of taxa used; however, the biomass available was dominated by domesticated species, in general, and pork specifically. The use of wild animals was fairly limited. Little evidence for consumerism was represented in the assemblage. There is little evidence any of the meat consumed at the farm was purchased, as no bones exhibited saw marks. It is likely that animals were butchered at the site. Possible butchery refuse (cattle and pig heads and feet) were recovered. Site 15BB137 appears to represent a self-reliant farmstead, raising and consuming stock on the site.

8.9.2 Objective 2- Does 15BB137 conform to the Upland South Subsistence pattern, as currently defined?

Site 15BB137 fits well with the Upland South subsistence pattern, as it is expressed in Kentucky and the Bluegrass Region. Pig is the dominant taxa used. There is no evidence that meat was purchased. It appears that cattle and pigs were butchered on site. This self-sufficient farmstead is a clear example of the Upland South subsistence model.

8.9.3 Objective 3- Spatial Analysis of the Farmstead Layout.

The faunal assemblage was dominated by domestic pig. The domestic pig bone elements were distributed throughout the site indicating suggests that the entire animal was consumed, including brains, tongue, ham and ribs. The distribution of skull and foot elements throughout the site also made it difficult to identify specific butchering and processing areas. The use of pig, cow, and chicken as the dominate meat choice continued throughout the occupation of the site.

Section 9 -

Site Layout

9.1 Introduction

In 1787 Thomas Champ purchased a 200 acre tract along the Maysville Road in Bourbon County from James Parbery. Champ was one of the early settlers along the Maysville Road and would have built his farm in the wilderness. He would have had to cut down trees for fields and pastures, and for his house and other buildings. Thomas Champ lived in his log house until his death in 1808 and his daughter Mary lived in the house until at least 1827. His son Robert built his own house and expanded the farm and his son Thomas built a brick house and expanded the farm to over 400 acres and 17 slaves. In this section we will attempt to locate the Champ house and outbuildings from features and artifact distributions and to understand the construction methods. We will also look at changes in the farmstead over time and compare it to the upland south model.

9.2 Upland South Farm Model

The investigation of houselot and farmyard spatial patterning, particularly the identification of specialized activity areas, swept areas, outbuildings, and refuse disposal areas is a primary topic of interest in historical archaeology. This approach embraces the idea of a cultural landscape, the modification of land according to a set of cultural plans, embodying often-inseparable technological, social, and ideological dimensions. People used these created landscapes in a planned and orderly manner for everything from food production to formal design to explicit statements about their position in the world. Archaeology has consistently underscored the highly specialized and intensively used nature of houselots and work yards – that area around, between, and beneath the work structures. The work yard, surrounding the outbuildings, was the scene of intense activities, including food preparation, cleaning, laundering, and livestock maintenance. The archaeological record reflects the butchering of pigs and cattle and the cleaning of fish for example. Informal hearths to heat water or cook have been encountered in work yards as well as sheet middens containing quantities of discarded animal bone fragments and other refuse. The work yard was often the locus of refuse disposal and has been documented in many studies focusing on different time periods within rural or urban contexts. Previous farmstead studies have had success in identifying activity areas, such as living areas, blacksmithing areas, and storage areas, as well. Outbuildings of various functions have also been identified (Moir and Jurney 1987; Price 1985).

Archaeological evidence for the evolution of cultural landscapes or houselots may generally be divided into four categories: architecture, material culture, stratigraphy, and plant and animal remains. Of the former it is often the first and second that come most easily to mind but all contribute significant data essential to houselots and work yard studies. Identification of these activity areas and outbuildings is critical to understanding the spatial orientation, what functions were performed, and if the spatial patterning can shed light on outbuilding function or changing landscape and outbuilding functions over time. The Upland South model hypothesizes that the layout of structures are generally characterized by some of the following features: house oriented toward a path of human approach; somewhat or seemingly randomly clustered structures reflecting individualistic notions of convenience; an array of functionally specific buildings; a yard area comprised of the house and various outbuildings considered the female activity area; male activity areas farther from the house and comprised of the barn, animal

pens, forges, and tool sheds; a technology heavily dependent on wood; and an architecture generally dominated by log and frame construction.

McBride and McBride (1990:685) have identified spatial orientation as a specific research issue within historical archaeology. Orientation is generally defined as the direction of the house front and important in understanding the overall domestic layout (i.e. domestic associated features, side yards, and back yards). Approaching roads and natural features such as rivers or creeks or slope can have a significant influence on determining the orientation of the dwelling. Nineteenth century dwellings usually face the main approach or road. The front yard, visible from the road and to visitors, would have been kept clean. Consequently, few artifacts should be recovered in this area. Activities related to household chores or discard would have occurred in the side or rear yards of the dwelling. Previous research has shown that on eighteenth and nineteenth domestic sites in rural and urban contexts, the side yard or backyard is often used as the work yard (Andrews 1992a, 1992b; King 1990; Pogue 1988; Keeler 1978; Zierden 1996).

Architectural features and artifacts, particularly nails and window glass will be used to postulate the size and construction of the Champ residence. Location and morphology of outbuildings and features will provide important information on defining the types of activities occurring at the site and their relationship to the Upland South model ideal (Emerson and Rohrbaugh 1986; Journey and Moir 1987; Moir and Journey 1987; Smith et al. 1982).

According to the Upland South model, as derived from research in the hearth areas and the Midsouth and Midwest, the dwelling, by the nineteenth century, will face the main approach. Although not exclusively a trait of Upland South farmsteads, it does aid in determining activity and dumping areas around the main house. The front yard, visible from the road and to visitors, would have been kept clean, especially after the mid-nineteenth century when issues of cleanliness and class coalesced. Consequently, few artifacts should be recovered in this area. Female activities related to household chores or discard would have occurred in the back or side yards of the dwelling. In eighteenth and nineteenth century farmsteads, one side yard is often used as the dominant work or activity area (Andrews 1992a; 1992b; Keeler 1978; King 1990; Pogue 1988). Male activities related to agriculture, farm maintenance, and livestock tending would have occurred in areas farther from the house. Fewer artifacts would be expected to be recovered from these outer yard areas.

Both the domestic area and the agricultural area were often separated by a natural feature (i.e., a creek) which might in turn dictate the arrangement of fields. How and to what degree site layout will be affected by commercial agriculture and concomitant capitalist values and ideals can be speculated upon. Commercial agriculture, especially in areas of mixed farming, would have required good management and coordination of equipment, labor, and processing to produce surplus grain and grain products for market. To this end one may expect a centralized houselot that contained the main dwelling and numerous functionally specific outbuildings. Quarters for enslaved laborers would be relatively close to the main house for control and management. Outbuildings for processing and storage of food and other female-oriented activities would be present on the houselot in close proximity to the main dwelling.

The spatial arrangement of outbuildings seems disordered with structures placed on upland areas and ridges around the main dwelling. Although seemingly orderless, the arrangement is determined by the owner's ideas about the importance of the structure in relation to the house. Outbuilding placement is defined by structure function, proximity to the dwelling and changing ideas of convenience. In many cases, outbuilding location and placement is determined by gender specific functions, i.e. those activities usually accomplished by females are situated closer to the house. Outbuildings within the female

domain would include poultry house, meat or smoke house, laundry house, wells, and privies. Conversely, the barn, storage sheds, granaries, and stables were considered male oriented areas and are usually some distance from the dwelling.

On Upland South farmsteads, the dwelling will face the main approach or road. This placement aids in determining activity areas and dumping areas. The front yard, visible from the road and to visitors, would have been kept clean. Consequently, few artifacts should be recovered in this area. Activities related to household chores or discard would have occurred in the back or side yards of the dwelling. In 18th and 19th century farmsteads, one side yard is often used as the dominant work or activity area (Andrews 1992a, 1992b; King 1990; Pogue 1988; Keeler 1978).

9.3 Construction of the Thomas and Mary Champ House

Numerous studies over the past several years have been used to determine the types of structures at archaeological sites using nail length and type and keying these to 19th century building manuals (see Lees 1986; McCorvie et al. 1989; Wagner and McCorvie et al. 1990; Young and Carr 1989). Nineteenth century building manuals provide corroboration of the archaeological findings (e.g. Anon 1855; Peddie 1833). A determination of log or frame structures has been noted by Lees (1986) based on nail size. This theory is that heavy framing nails such as 9 d. to 40 d. or pennyweight would most likely be used on a frame structure. A log structure would have little use for the large nails since it uses the logs themselves to frame the windows, doors, roof, and possibly a floor.

Similarly, Young and Carr, have defined two additional nail patterns for timber-frame structures and balloon frame structures (Young and Carr 1989). In timber-frame structures, large timbers were mortised and tenoned together forming the framework for the roof and weather boarding. Nails would be needed for weather boarding, roofing, windows, doors, interior woodwork, and floors. Such nails would vary in size from 4 d. to 10 d. Balloon frame structures became common after the mid-nineteenth century. Instead of the mortise and tenons which required no nails, the balloon frame used nails at the joints to form the frame. Larger heavyweight sized nails would therefore be essential for better holding and support. Unlike the log and timber frame structures, a large quantity of nails 10 d. and larger would be more common. However, the same amount of smaller nails would still be needed for weather boarding, roofing, windows, doors, interior woodwork, and floors (Young and Carr 1989). Table 9-1 is a compilation of archaeological findings of nail pattern usage on 19th century sites.

A large assemblage of nails (n=1580) were recovered from 15BB137. Early cut nails dominate the assemblage with 46.3% (n=731), followed by unspecified cut nails at 28.5% (n=451), late cut nails 19.1% (n=301), wrought 4.6% (n=73), unidentified 1.5% (n=23), and wire 0.1% (n=1). The collection whole wrought, early and late cut nails recovered from 15BB137 and may assist in determining the nature of the building construction (i.e. log or frame).

Analysis of the whole nails (wrought, early and late cut) from 15BB137 indicates that many were 9 d or less (Table 9-2). The remaining 11 nails (1.1%) were 10 d and 12d, both which have multiple uses. Following the nail size and use chart seen in Table 9-1, it would appear that the T. Champ Inn was a frame structure or log structure with frame addition with siding and wooden shingles.

Young and Carr (1989) and Young (1994) have examined the condition of nails on construction sites and refuse dump sites and noticed significant differences. In particular, they found that the ratio of unaltered (straight) nails to pulled (slightly bent) was 3:3:1 on construction sites and from 1:3:1 on dump sites. The higher proportion of unaltered nails on construction sites was due to nails being lost during

Table 9-1. Nail size and Use (adapted from Wagner et al. 1992).

Nail Size	Use	Reference
2 d	Wall and Ceiling lathing	Lees 1986
	Lathing	Young and Carr 1989
3 d	Shingling, ceiling lathing, and thin tongue and groove paneling	Lees 1986
	Lathing	Young and Carr 1989
4 d	Singling and slating	Fontana and Greenleaf 1962
	Wood shingling, cabinet work, molding, and other finishing work	Walker 1971
	Clapboard siding and shingles	Lees 1986
	Shingles and shakes	Young and Carr 1989
5 d	Molding finish work and ornamentation	Walker 1971
	Light framing (1 - 1½ " boards)	Lees 1986
	Shake and siding	Young and Carr 1989
6 d	Clapboard and finishing	Fontana and Greenleaf 1962
	Light framing, clapboard, bevel siding and wood grounds	Walker 1971
	Clapboard siding, exterior trim (1"), flooring (1")	Lees 1986
	Siding and ceiling	Young and Carr 1989
7 d	Siding and wallboarding	Young and Carr 1989
8 d	Finishing and flooring	Fontana and Greenleaf 1962
	Flooring, furring strips, wood grounds, and interior fittings	Walker 1971
	Flooring, sheathing, boarding, and exterior trim (1")	Lees 1986
	Flooring and siding	Young and Carr 1989
9 d	Flooring and boarding	Fontana and Greenleaf 1962
	Flooring and siding	Young and Carr 1969
10 d	Boarding	Fontana and Greenleaf 1962
	Furring strips, flooring, boarding and interior fittings	Walker 1971
	Sheathing and window trim (1")	Lees 1986
	Flooring and siding	Young and Carr 1989
10+ d	Flooring and siding	Young and Carr 1989
12 d	Wooden studding	Walker 1971
16 d	Studding rafters and heaving framing	Walker 1971
20 d	Heaving framing	Walker 1971
40 d	Framing	Fontana and Greenleaf 1962

Table 9-2. Whole Nail Type and Size from 15BB137.

Nail Type	Condition	Penny Weight									Total	
		2d	3d	4d	5d	6d	7d	8d	9d	10d		12d
Wrought	Clinched				2		3	2	1		1	9
	Pulled			3	2	1	3	2	1	1	1	14
	Unaltered			1	1	4	3	7	3		1	20
<i>Wrought Total</i>				4	5	5	9	11	5	1	3	43
Early Cut	Clinched		1	2	1	1	5	10	6			26
	Pulled	1	6	45	1	10	18	27	15	2	1	126
	Unaltered	9	24	327	3	33	31	48	12			487
<i>Early Cut Total</i>		10	31	374	5	44	54	85	33	2	1	639
Late Cut	Clinched			1	1		1	2	1			6
	Pulled		3	15	1	4	5	8	15	1	1	53
	Unaltered	6	6	103	11	9	15	8	5		1	164
<i>Late Cut Total</i>		6	9	119	13	13	21	18	21	1	2	223
Grand Total		16	40	497	23	62	84	114	59	4	6	905

construction, while on dump sites the greater proportion of removed (pulled) nails was due to the demolition of a building and deposition of nails and boards in a different location (Young and Carr 1989; Young 1994). As seen in Figure 9-1, the nail ratio from 15BB137 does not match the expected ratio. Looking at Table 9-2 the number of unaltered 4d nails dominate the assemblage at 48% (n=431). This would seem to indicate that the structure was not torn down and removed to a secondary location, but allowed to deteriorate in place.

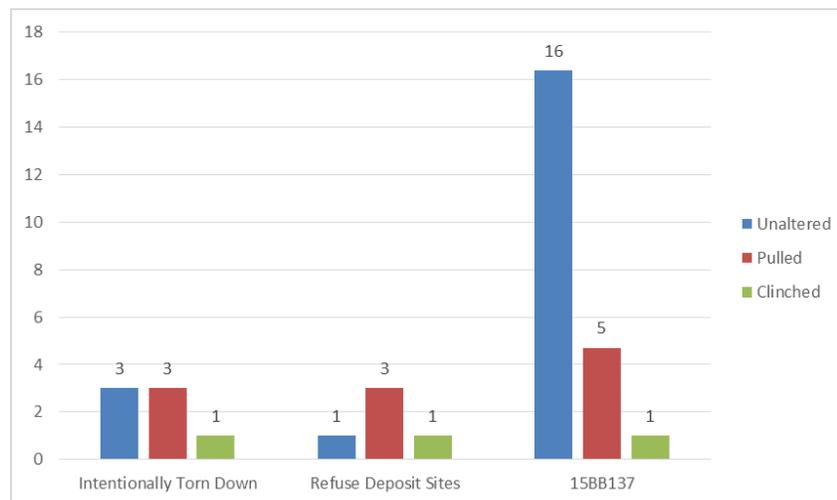


Figure 9-1. Comparison of Ideal Nail Ratios with 15BB137 Nail Assemblage (Young 1994).

Table 9-3 through Table 9-5 show the distribution of nails by nail type, condition and penny weight in structure locations. Table 9-3 shows the nails for the detached kitchen and cellar area. One hundred and seven (58.5%) early cut nails, 69 (37.7%) late cut nails, and seven (3.8%) wrought nails were recovered from that area. In the kitchen and cellar area 4d nails accounted for 58.5 % of the nails and 8d nails accounted for 7.1% of the nails. Table 9-4 shows the nails for part of the house near Feature 13. Two hundred and forty-eight (71.1%) early cut nails, 87 (24.9%) late cut nails and 14 (4.0%) wrought nails were recovered from the Feature 13 area. In the area 4d nails accounted for 64.5% of the nails and 8d nails accounted for 8.0% of the nails. Table 9-5 shows the nails for part of the house near Feature 15. One hundred and seventy-five (80.6%) early cut nails, 33 (15.2%) late cut nails and 9 (4.1%) wrought nails were recovered from the Feature 15 area. In the area 4d nails accounted for 38.7% of the nails and 8d nails accounted for 20.3% of the nails.

Table 9-3. Whole Nail Type and Size from 15BB137, Feature 4 Area (Kitchen/Cellar).

Nail Type	Condition	Penny Weight										Total
		2d	3d	4d	5d	6d	7d	8d	9d	10d	12d	
Early Cut	Clinched											0
	Pulled		1	4		1	2	2	2			12
	Unaltered	2		71		8	8	4	2			95
<i>Early Cut Total</i>		2	1	75		9	10	6	4			107
Late Cut	Clinched			1				2				3
	Pulled		1	3	1		4	3	4			16
	Unaltered	3	2	28	5	3	3	2	3		1	50
<i>Late Cut Total</i>		3	3	32	6	3	7	7	7		1	69
Wrought	Clinched				1							1
	Pulled				1		2		1			4
	Unaltered				1	1						2
<i>Wrought Total</i>					3	1	2		1			7
Grand Total		5	4	107	9	13	19	13	12		1	183

Table 9-4. Whole Nail Type and Size from 15BB137, Feature 13 Area (House).

Nail Type	Condition	Penny Weight										Total
		2d	3d	4d	5d	6d	7d	8d	9d	10d	12d	
Early Cut	Clinched		1				3	4	4			12
	Pulled		2	20	1	3	9	8	4		1	48
	Unaltered	2	3	153	1	9	9	7	4			188
<i>Early Cut Total</i>		2	6	173	2	12	21	19	12		1	248
Late Cut	Clinched						1		1			2
	Pulled		1	7		2	1	3	3	1	1	19
	Unaltered	2	2	45	1	3	9	3	1			66
<i>Late Cut Total</i>		2	3	52	1	5	11	6	5	1	1	87
Wrought	Clinched				1		3	1	1		1	7

	Pulled				1		1			1		3
	Unaltered					1		2	1			4
	<i>Wrought Total</i>				2	1	4	3	2	1	1	14
	Grand Total	4	9	225	5	18	36	28	19	2	3	349

Table 9-5. Whole Nail Type and Size from 15BB137, Feature 15 Area (House).

Nail Type	Condition	Penny Weight										Total
		2d	3d	4d	5d	6d	7d	8d	9d	10d	12d	
Early Cut	Clinched				1	1	1	5	1			9
	Pulled	1	4	14		6	3	12	5	2		47
	Unaltered	4	16	55	1	11	10	21	1			119
	<i>Early Cut Total</i>	5	20	69	2	18	14	38	7	2		175
Late Cut	Clinched						1					1
	Pulled			1		1		2	6			10
	Unaltered		1	13	2	1	2	2	1			22
	<i>Late Cut Total</i>		1	14	2	2	3	4	7			33
Wrought	Clinched											0
	Pulled			1				1		1	1	4
	Unaltered					2	1	1	1			5
	<i>Wrought Total</i>			1		2	1	2	1	1	1	9
	Grand Total	5	21	84	4	22	18	44	15	3	1	217

Based on the numbers for the nail types, there may have been differences in initial construction dates or later repair rates. The kitchen/cellar area had relatively more late cut nails than the other areas, but about the same number of wrought nails. The house areas had more early cut nails. All of the areas had about the same percentage of wrought nails which suggests the house and kitchen could have been constructed at the same time.

The differences in percentages for 4d and 8d nails in the different areas may indicate nail use. Based on the proposed location of the structures the kitchen/cellar area and the Feature 13 house area are primarily inside the structures, while the Feature 15 house area is outside the structure. This suggests that the higher percentage of 4d nails inside the structure represent shingle nails rather than clapboard nails. Of course, the 4d nails could be used for both. The higher percentage of 8d nails in the Feature 15 area suggest their use for siding and exterior trim. They may have also been use for flooring.

Although the nail information suggests that the house was of log or frame construction, log cabins were common during this period. The lack of foundation stones or corner stones may be the result of removal during dismantling of the house. Log houses often were built on corner stones and naturally occurring rocks are common on the surface at the site and have been displaced. Log cabins or houses were common in Pennsylvania in the areas settled by Germans in the eighteenth century (Weslager 1969:214). Log cabins and log houses were defined as different structures. Thaddeus M. Harris described the structures in 1803 (quoted in Hutsler 1992:77):

“The temporary buildings of the first settlers in the wilds are called Cabins. They are built with unhewn logs, the interstices between which are stopped with rails, calked with moss or straw, and daubed with mud. The roof is covered with a sort of thin staves split out of oak or ash, about four feet long and five inches wide, fastened on by heavy poles being laid upon them. If the logs be hewed; if the interstices be stopped with stones, and neatly plastered; and the roof composed of shingles nicely laid on, it is called a log-house.” A log-house has glass windows and a chimney; a cabin has commonly no window at all, and only a hole at the top for the smoke to escape.”

Log cabins or houses were built when the farmer first settled the land. Sometimes frame, brick, or stone houses replaced the log structure. According to Alex de Tocqueville (quoted in Weslager 1969:21):

“And in fact the log cabin is only a temporary shelter for the American, a concession circumstances have forced on him for the moment. When the fields that surround him are in full production, and the new owner has time to concern himself with the amenities of life, a more spacious dwelling and one better adapted to his needs will replace the log-house and make a home for those numerous children who will go out one day to make themselves a dwelling place in the wilderness.”

Log houses were also lived in for long periods of time. Solomon Fisher, who grew up in a log house in Hardy County, (now) WV, moved to Frankford, Missouri in the early 1800s. Solomon’s niece Louisa Dazerine Petty Milburn reminiscences (quoted in Hart 2009:191):

“The land where Frankford is built was owned by my old Uncle Solomon Fisher, (an Uncle of my father who was Absolom Petty.) The town was laid out in 1818, nine years before I was born. Uncle Solomon had father clear and fence a whole block in the southeast part of town: he built a log house and lived there until he died in 1865.”

In his study of Indiana log houses, Roberts (1996) found that the most common design for a log house was a one and a half story. The house consisted of a single room on the ground floor with a sleeping loft overhead (Roberts 1996:128). The typical size for the house would have been 24 feet long and 18 feet wide (Roberts 1996:129). In their study of the Reed farmstead in Hardy County, Hinks et al. (2006:385) found that 35% of the recognizable log houses were one and a half story single pen and 47% were two story single pen.

9.4 Use of Space at Thomas and Mary Champ House

Creating artifact density maps using data from systematic collection or excavation is a type of intrasite analysis to delineate activity areas, discard areas, and outbuilding placement on plantations, farmsteads, and houselots. While a considerable amount of research has been conducted on houselots and plantations in the Tidewater area of Virginia and Maryland (Keeler 1978; King and Miller 1987; King 1988; Riordan 1988; Pogue 1988) considerable work has been instigated in the South (Neiman 1980; Wesler 1984; Roberts 1986; Zierdan and Calhoun 1986). Intrasite comparisons of artifact distributions have been conducted at sites within Kentucky by O’Malley (1987), Andrews (1998), Andrews and Stetar (1995), Andrews and Sandefur (2003), and McBride and Fenton (1996). These studies have demonstrated the informative potential of this approach to examining site function and building configuration.

Artifact density maps were generated using ArcGIS and the Spatial Analyst extension. Artifact density maps were created by using the optional Spatial Analysis extension and performing an Inverse Distance Weighted measurement to interpolate a raster surface. ArcGIS plots overlapping concentrations of artifact types. Artifacts that were used to examine the layout were broken down by functionally

related categories to define activity areas and by temporal range to date the deposits. For example, kitchen-related artifacts can be used to delineate a domestic dwelling or activity, and architectural related debris indicates the location of structures or refuse disposal due to structural dismantling. Artifact distributions can be useful in delineating house orientation. An examination of the spatial distribution of temporally sensitive artifacts can aid in defining changes in the house/lot over time. For example, finding a concentration of earlier refuse in one area of the site and later refuse in another suggests changes in the dwelling location, or an addition and/or alteration to the original dwelling.

The distribution maps were constructed from artifacts collected from test units. A total of 21,197 artifacts were recovered from the test units. Artifacts include architectural debris (81.6%), kitchen-related refuse (16.7%), clothing items (0.2%), personal items (0.1%), furnishing items (0.1%), transportation items (0.1%), tools and activity items (0.1%), arms related refuse (0.1%), fuel debris (0.1%), and other miscellaneous artifacts (0.9%). The material from the test units included temporally and functionally diagnostic artifacts like hard paste porcelain, creamware, pearlware, whiteware, empontiled bottle/jar bases, unfused bottle necks, and cut nails. These artifacts suggest that the site was occupied from the early nineteenth century. The analysis of the collected material was then used to construct artifact density maps.

9.4.1 Architectural Group Artifacts

The architectural group consisted of 17,297 artifacts. The largest categories are mortar (n=11,991), followed by brick (n=1,657), nails (n=1,580), flat glass (n=1,182), and burned clay (n=831). The distribution map for the architectural group artifacts had two concentrations (Figure 9-2). The largest is east of and includes the chimney (Feature 13) around Test Units 23, 24, 26, 29, 32, 37, 39, 40, 41, 43, 46 - 52, 54 - 58, 60 - 63, and 66. Along with the chimney location, this group also contains a possible post mold (Feature 6), and two unknown structural features (Feature 15 and 21). The other concentration is east of Feature 13, around test units 1, 15, 19, 20, 21, 31, 33, 44, 45, and 65 and includes a possible corner stone/post mold (Feature 2) and a possible cellar (Feature 4).

9.4.1.1 Mortar

The distribution map for mortar shows two concentrations, one each falling with the two architectural group concentrations (Figure 9-3). Test Unit 49 had the largest concentration of mortar. It was located in the architectural group cluster west of the chimney (Feature 13). The next two test units with the highest concentration of mortar are 33 and 65. Both of these units are located in the architectural group cluster located to the east of the chimney foundation (Feature 13). Mortar was also recovered from Features 5, 9, 10, 13, 15, 18, 19, 23, 26, and 28.

9.4.1.2 Nails

The distributional map for nails shows one large general concentration that incorporates the two separate architectural group artifact concentrations (Figure 9-4). The two units with the highest concentration of nails fall into the architectural group cluster east of the chimney foundation (Feature 13). The unit with the third highest concentration is between the two concentrations. Most of the remaining units with high concentrations of nails fall within the architectural group cluster that is west of the chimney (Feature 13). Nails were also recovered from feature 4, 9, 10, 13, 15, 19, 21, and 26.

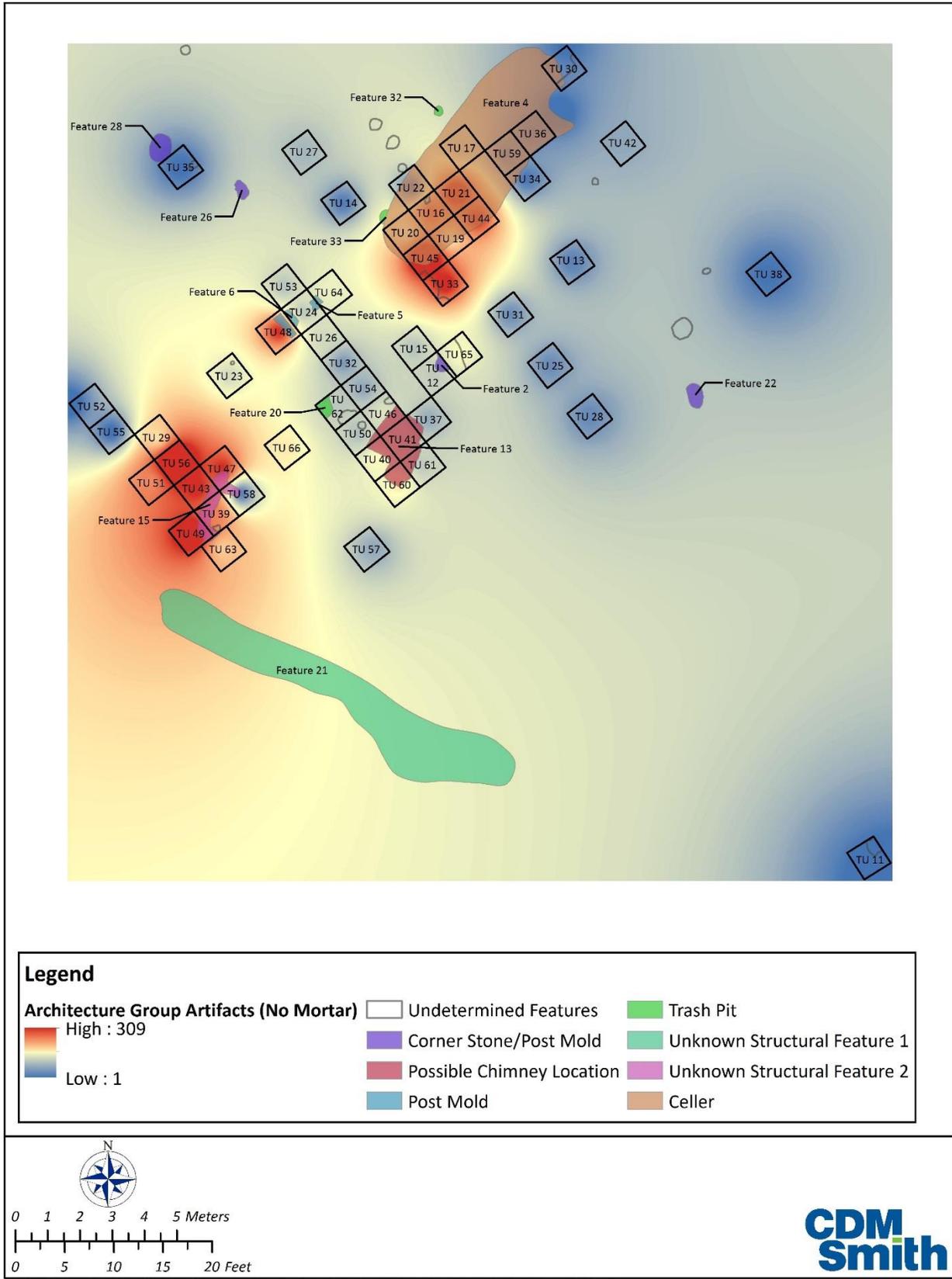


Figure 9-2. Distribution of Architectural Group Artifacts.

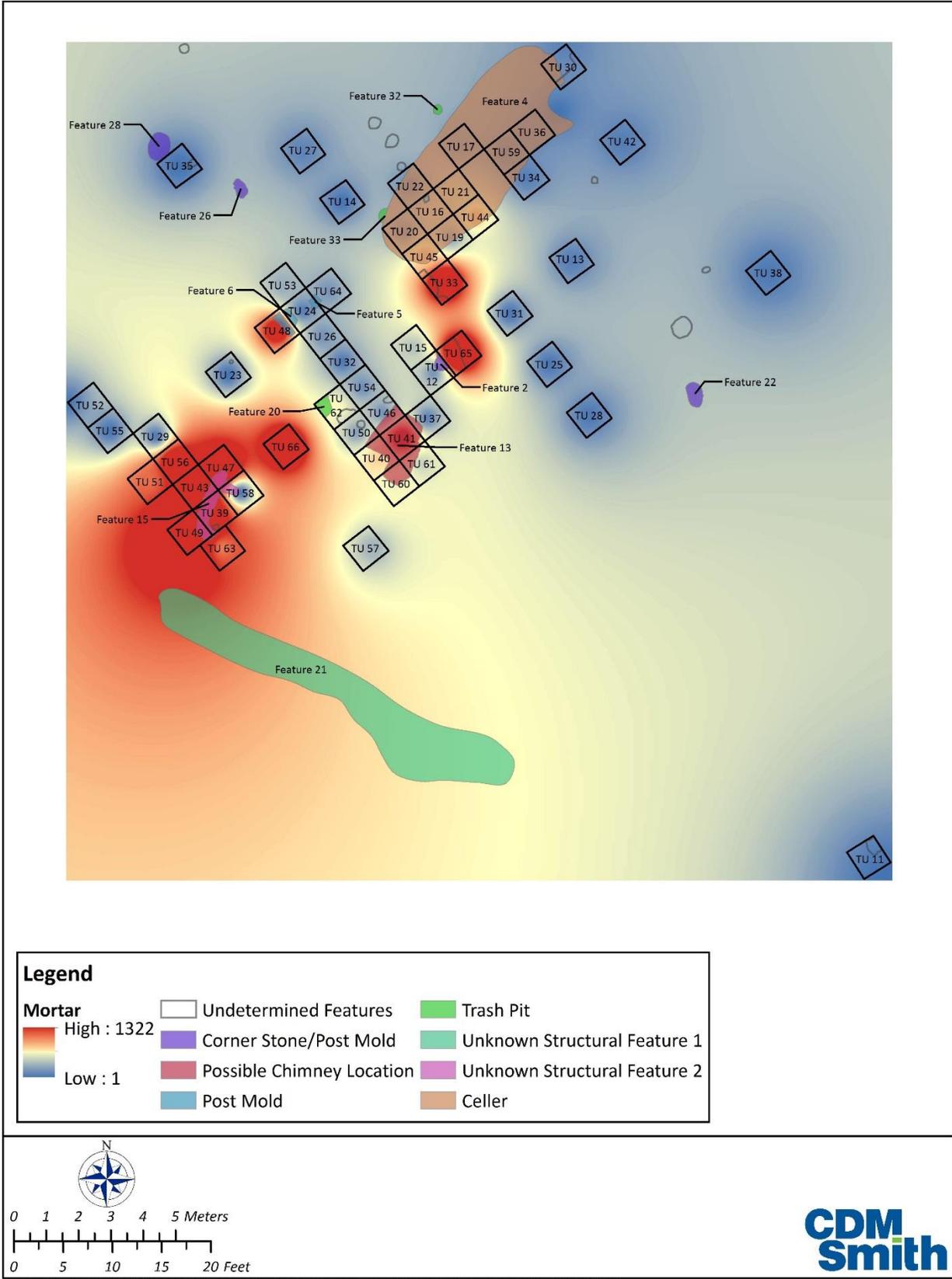
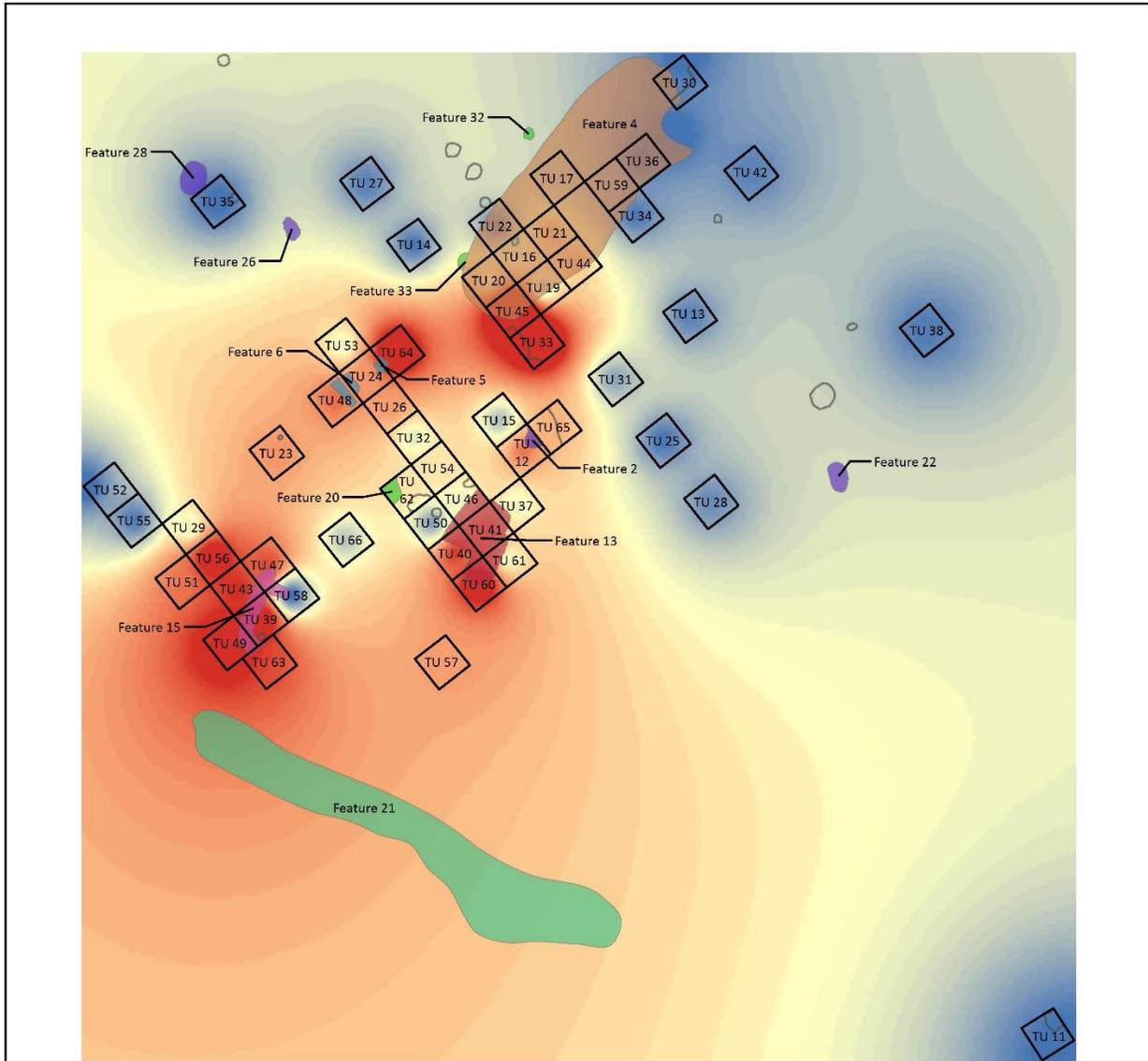
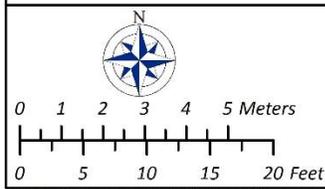


Figure 9-3. Distribution of Mortar.



Legend

All Nails	Undetermined Features	Trash Pit
High : 93	Corner Stone/Post Mold	Unknown Structural Feature 1
Low : 1	Possible Chimney Location	Unknown Structural Feature 2
	Post Mold	Cellar



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Figure 9-4. Distribution of All Nails.

The distribution of early cut nails (Figure 9-5) and late cut nails (Figure 9-6) shows a distribution that is similar for the overall nail group. However there is a difference between the distributions of cut nails. The distribution map for early cut nails shows a distribution trending to the south of the chimney foundation (Feature 13) while late cut nails shows a more northerly trending distribution. This may reflect different periods of construction.

The distribution for unaltered, pulled, and clinched nails is shown in Figure 9-7, Figure 9-8, and Figure 9-9 respectively. The distributions of these three morphological nail types are fairly even between the two architectural group artifact clusters. One difference between the observed distributions is between unaltered and pulled nails. There are more unaltered nails in the eastern architectural artifact group cluster than there are pulled nails. This difference may reflect that more dismantling of structural components took place in the western architectural artifact group cluster than in the east.

9.4.1.3 Flat Glass

The distribution of flat glass is shown in Figure 9-10 to Figure 9-14. The distribution is similar to the overall architectural artifact group distribution. However, a large cluster of window glass is in the vicinity of the unidentified structural feature (Feature 15) located on the western side of the chimney foundation (Feature 13). Flat glass was recovered from most of the test units except for 11. Features 4, 13, and 15 also contained flat glass. This type of distribution may reflect the discard of broken that fell on the outside of a structure. The distribution map by date indicate that the areas near Features 13 and 15 (believed to be the house) was occupied later than the Feature 4 area (the detached kitchen and cellar).

9.4.1.4 Burned Clay

The last of the architectural group artifacts to be examined spatially is burned clay. The distribution for burned clay generally falls within the two architectural artifact group clusters (Figure 9-15). Within these clusters though are pockets burned clay. Burned clay was recovered from all units except for thirteen (11, 12, 13, 26, 32, 47, 51, 52, 54, 55, 59, 63, and 64). Features 4, 9, 13, 15, 18, 19, 23, 26, 28, and 33 also contained burned clay. The distribution of burned clay may reflect the use of heated sources directly on clay subsoil or the use of clay in chinking between logs. The distribution of burned may also be influenced by in-field observation and collection.

9.4.2 Kitchen Group Artifacts

The kitchen group of artifacts consisted of 3,487 artifacts including 635 pearlware sherds, 235 creamware shards, 252 whiteware shards, 81 shards of hard paste porcelain, 30 shards of domestic stoneware, 1,442 shards of coarse redware, 196 bottle/jar fragments, and 27 table glass fragments. The distribution map for the kitchen group artifacts indicated one primary of concentration (Figure 9-16). This concentration is located in the northern part of the site encompassing 34 of the 56 units (Test Units 12 – 27, 30 – 36, 38, 42, 44, 45, 48, 53, 54, and 59). This also includes Features 2, 4 – 12, 19, 23, 24, 26 – 34. One feature is a corner stone/post mold (Feature 2) and a possible cellar (Feature 4).

9.4.2.1 Creamware

The distribution for creamware is mostly contained within the kitchen group artifact cluster (Figure 9-17). Forty-four of the fifty-six test units had at least one shard of creamware. Only Test Units 11, 12, 39, 46, 47, 49, 57, 58, 61, 65, and 66 did not contain any. Creamware was recovered from Features 4, 18, 26, and 34. The cluster of creamware seems to be located around Feature 4, the possible cellar.

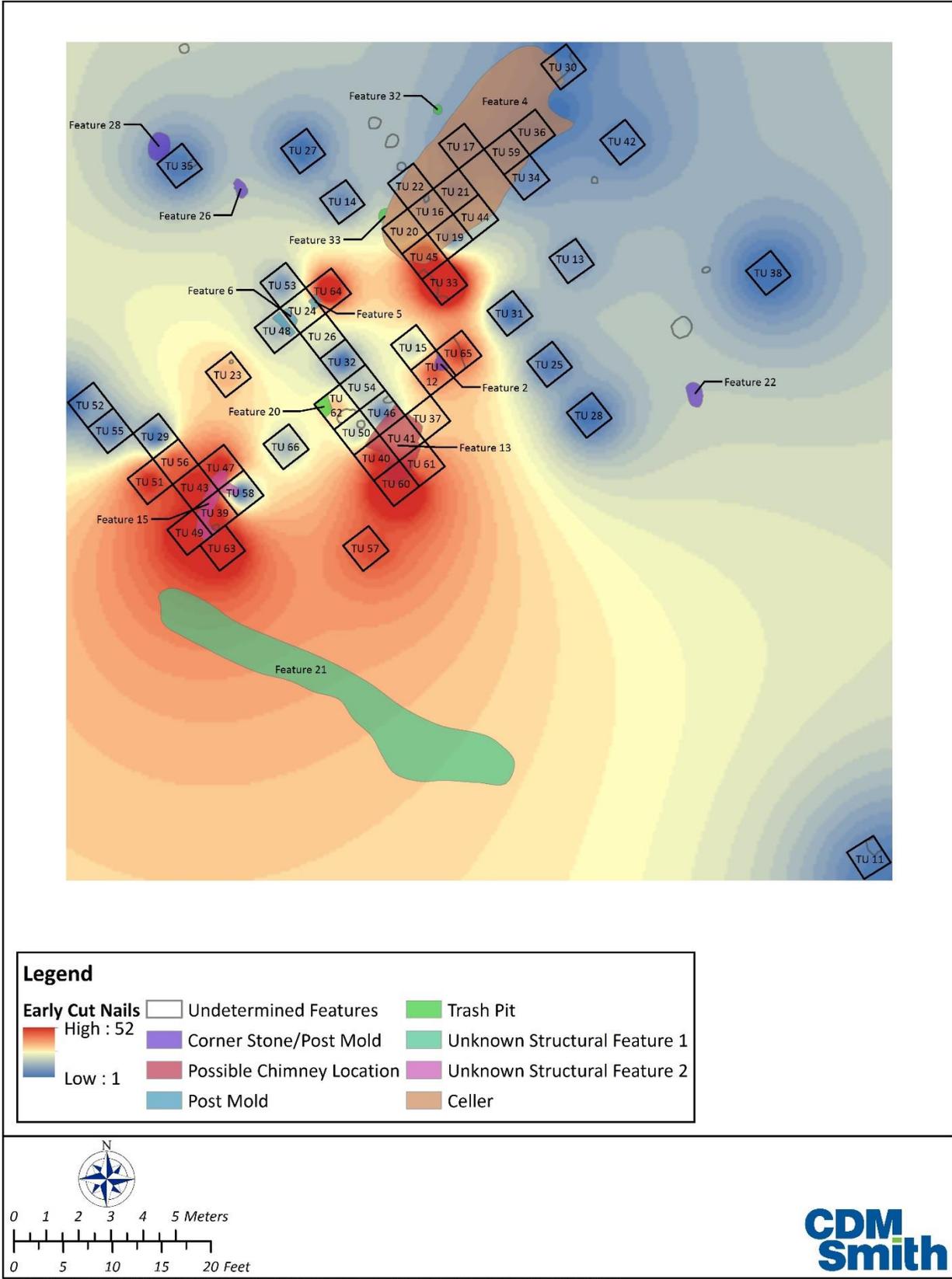


Figure 9-5. Distribution of Early Cut Nails.

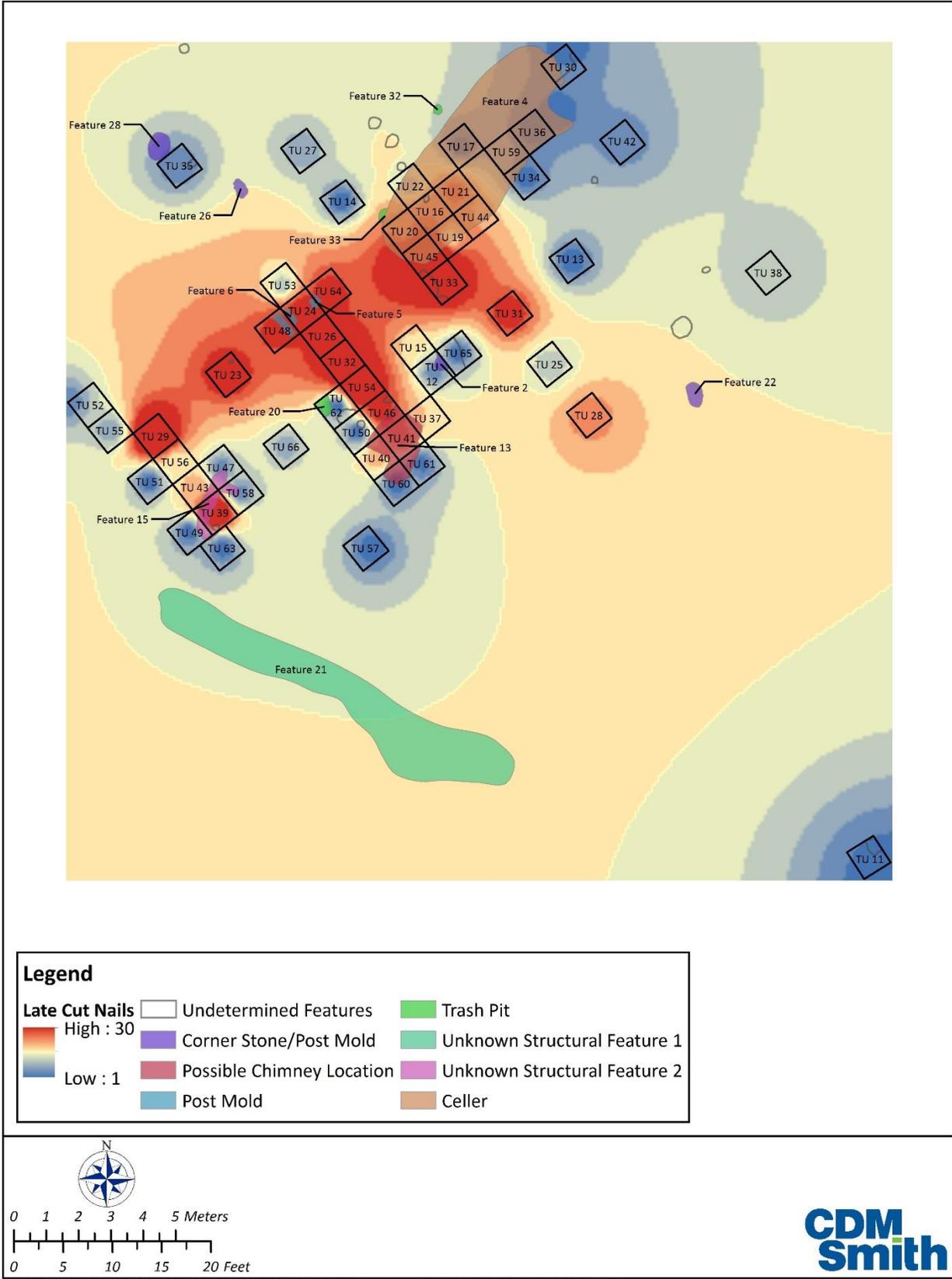


Figure 9-6. Distribution of Late Cut Nails.

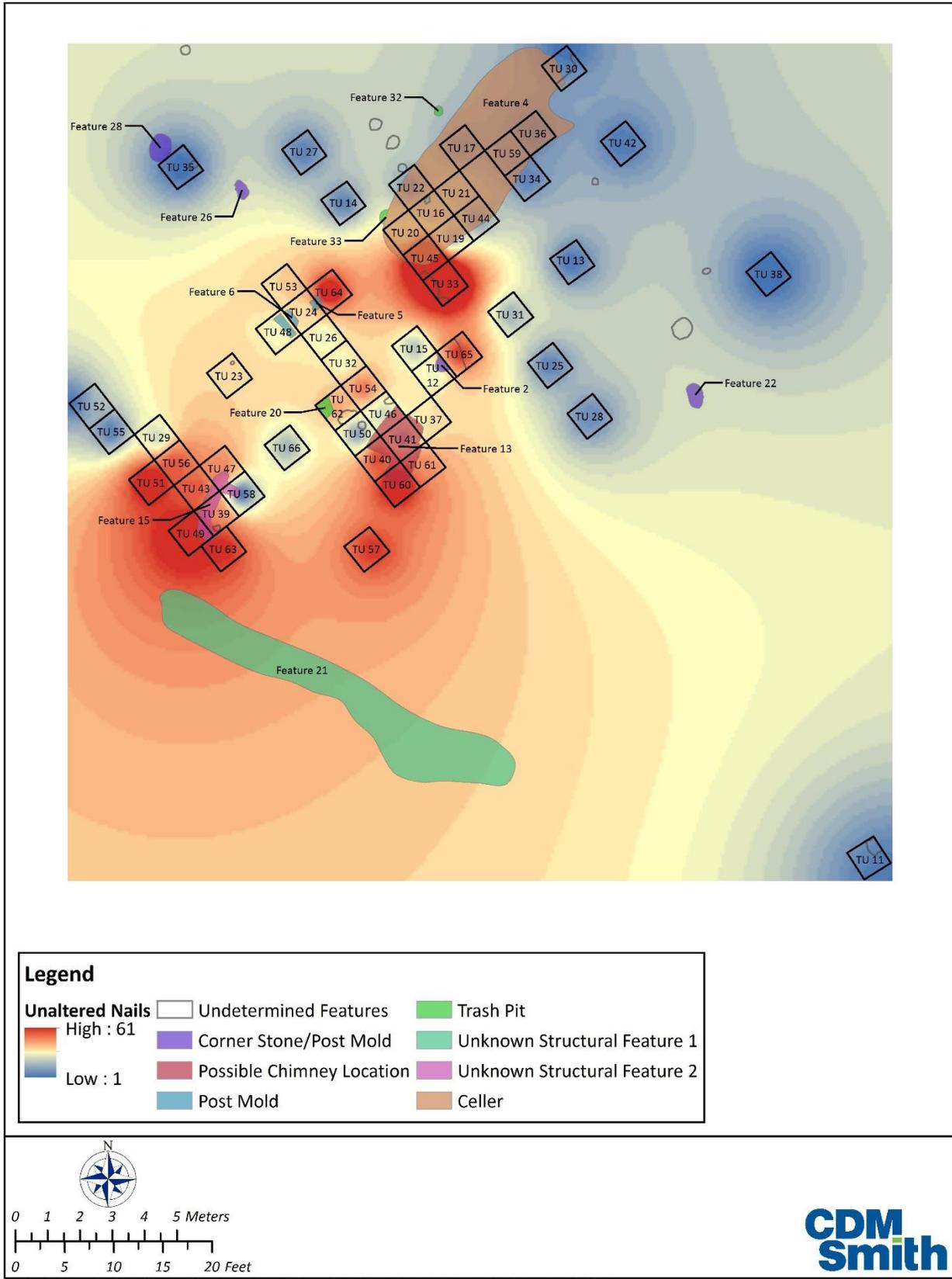


Figure 9-7. Distribution of Unaltered Nails.

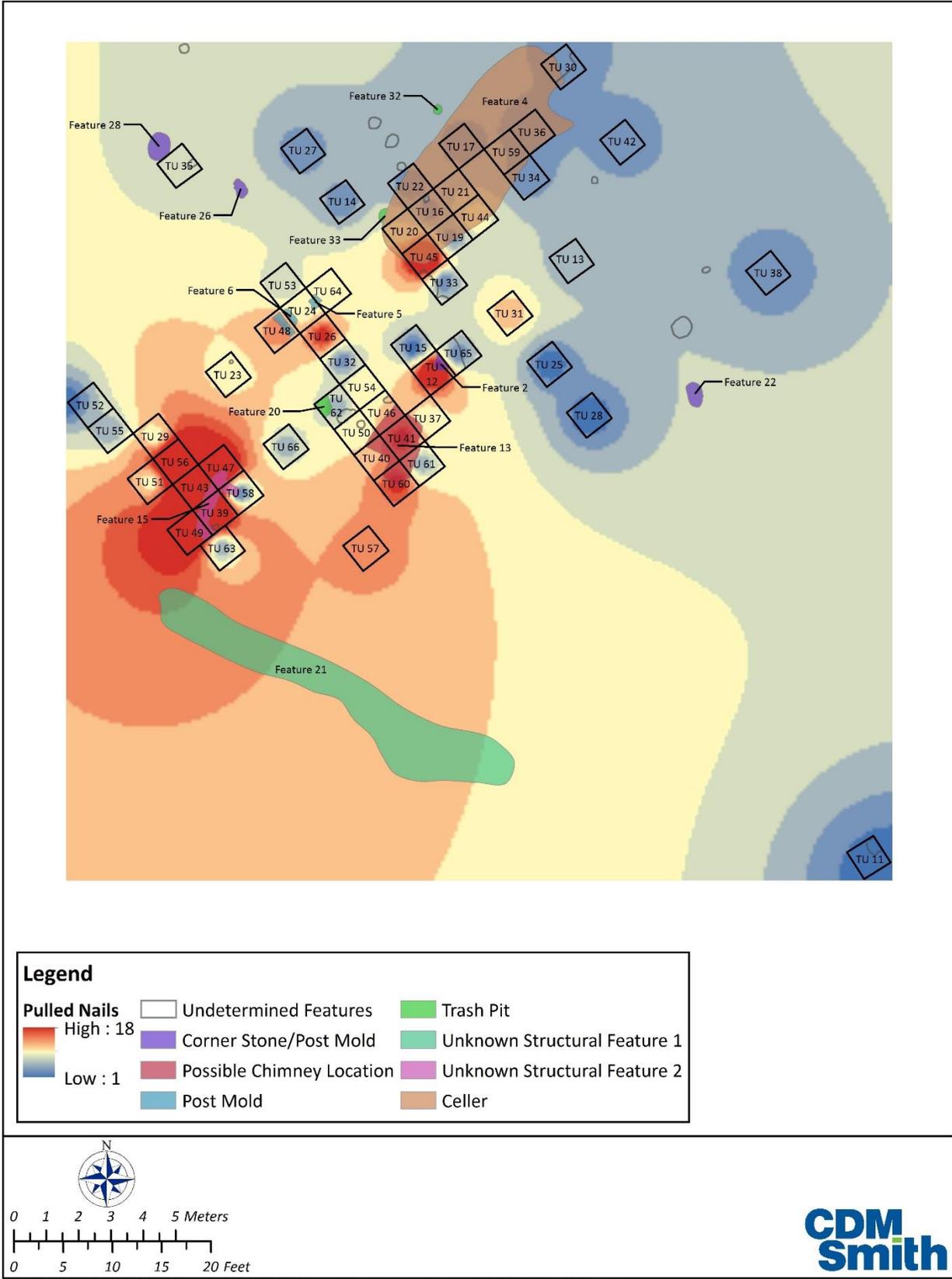
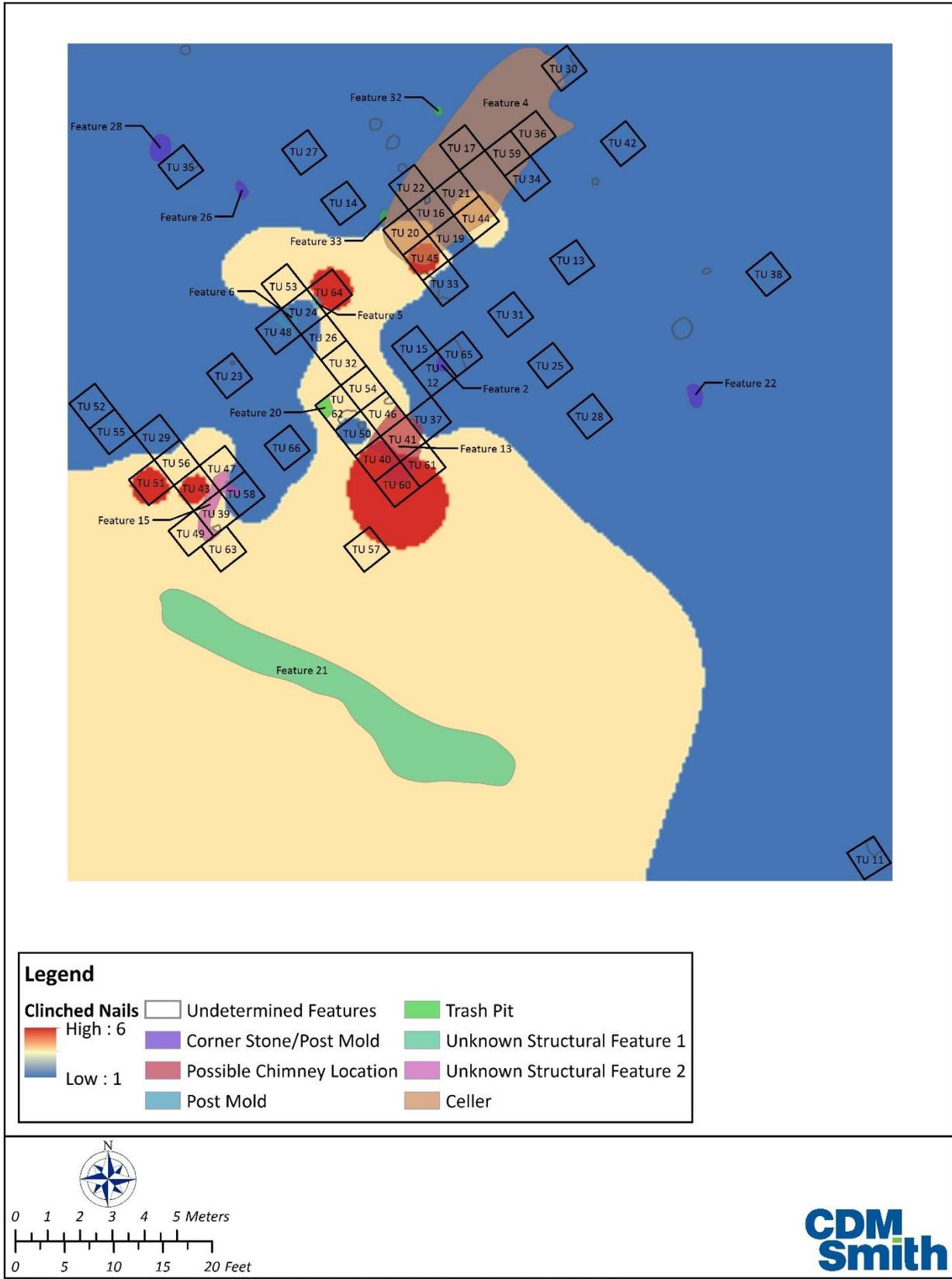


Figure 9-8. Distribution of Pulled Nails.



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Figure 9-9. Distribution of Clinched Nails.

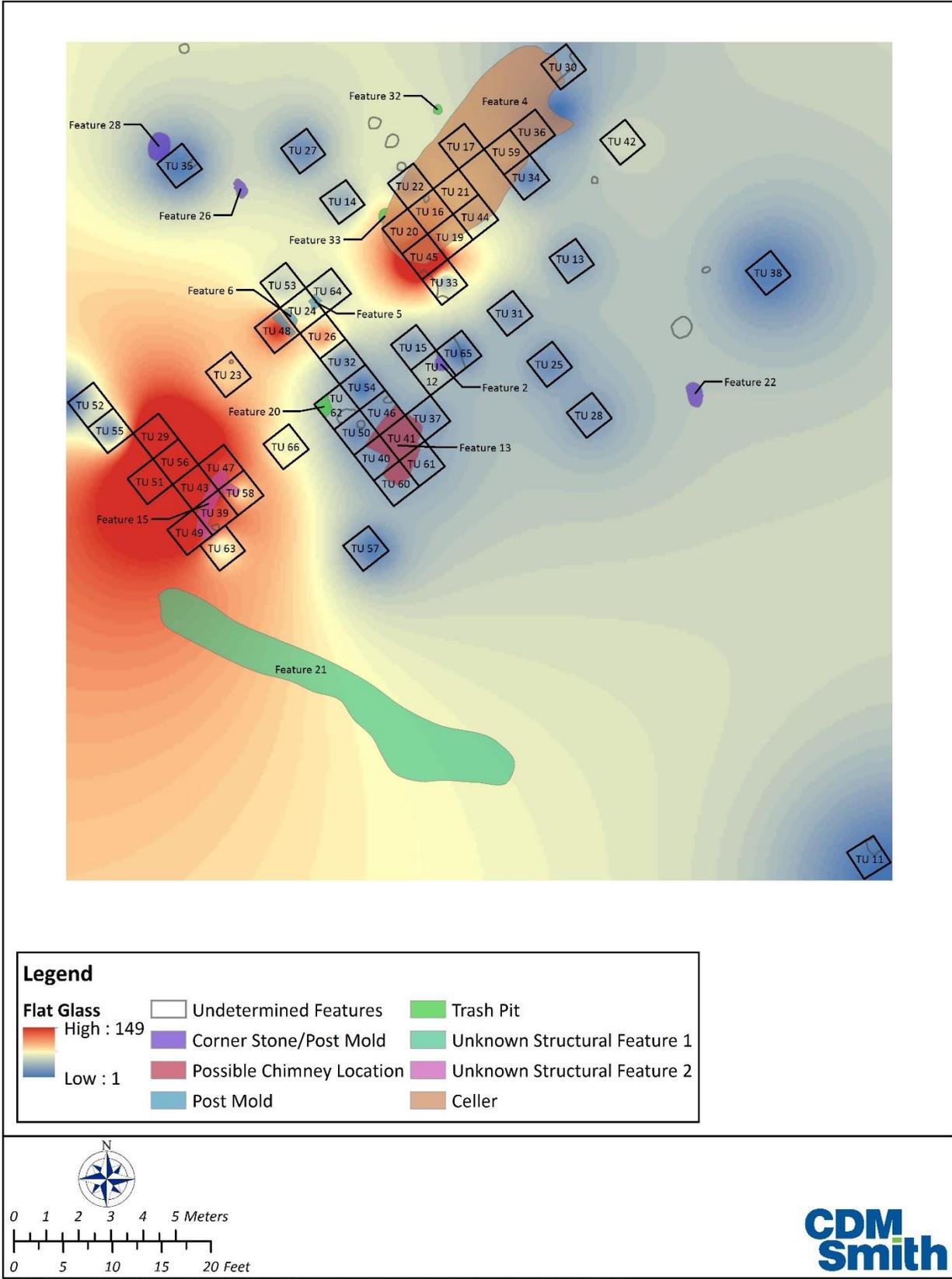


Figure 9-10. Distribution of Flat Glass.

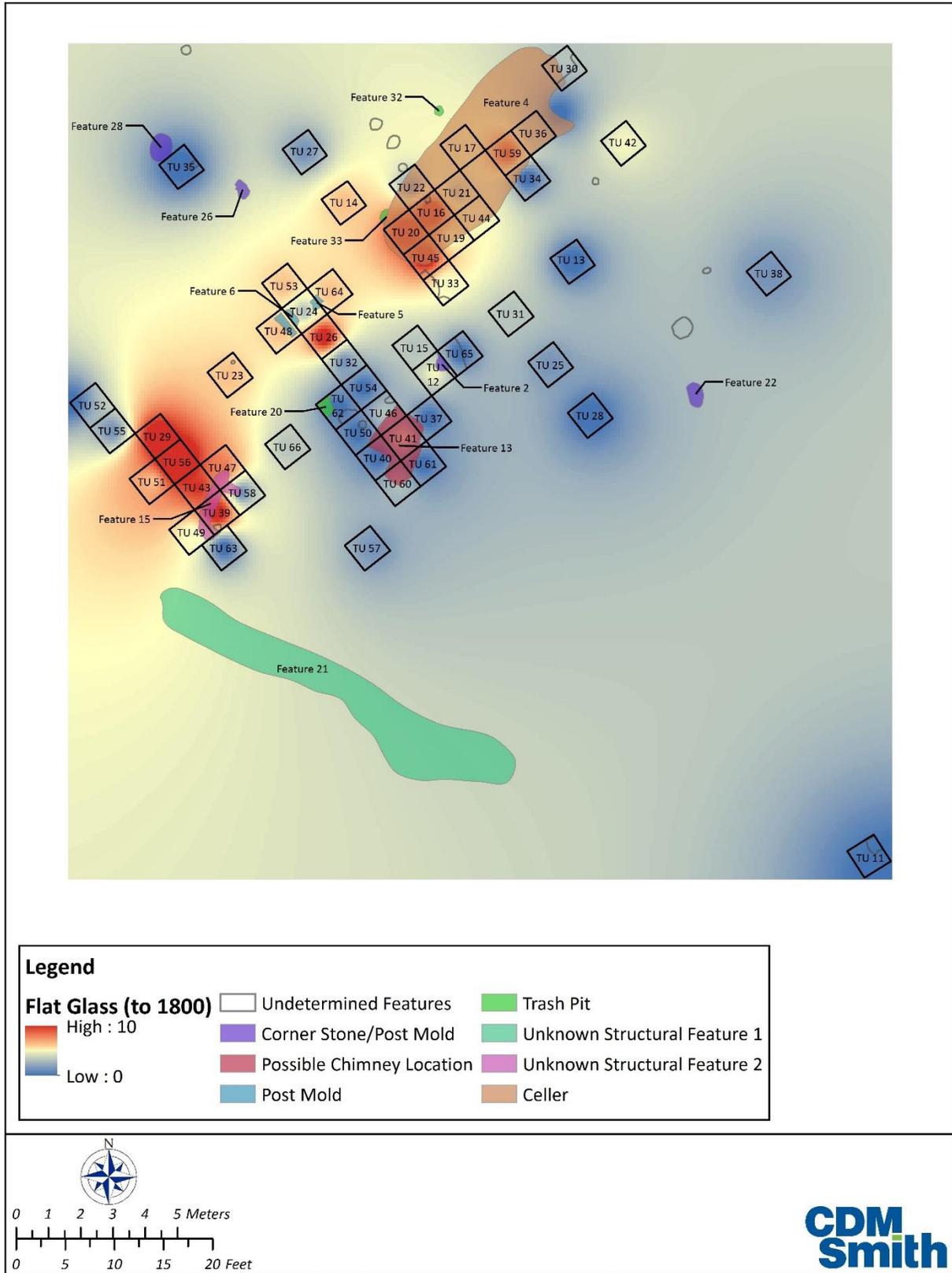


Figure 9-11. Distribution of Flat Glass to 1800.

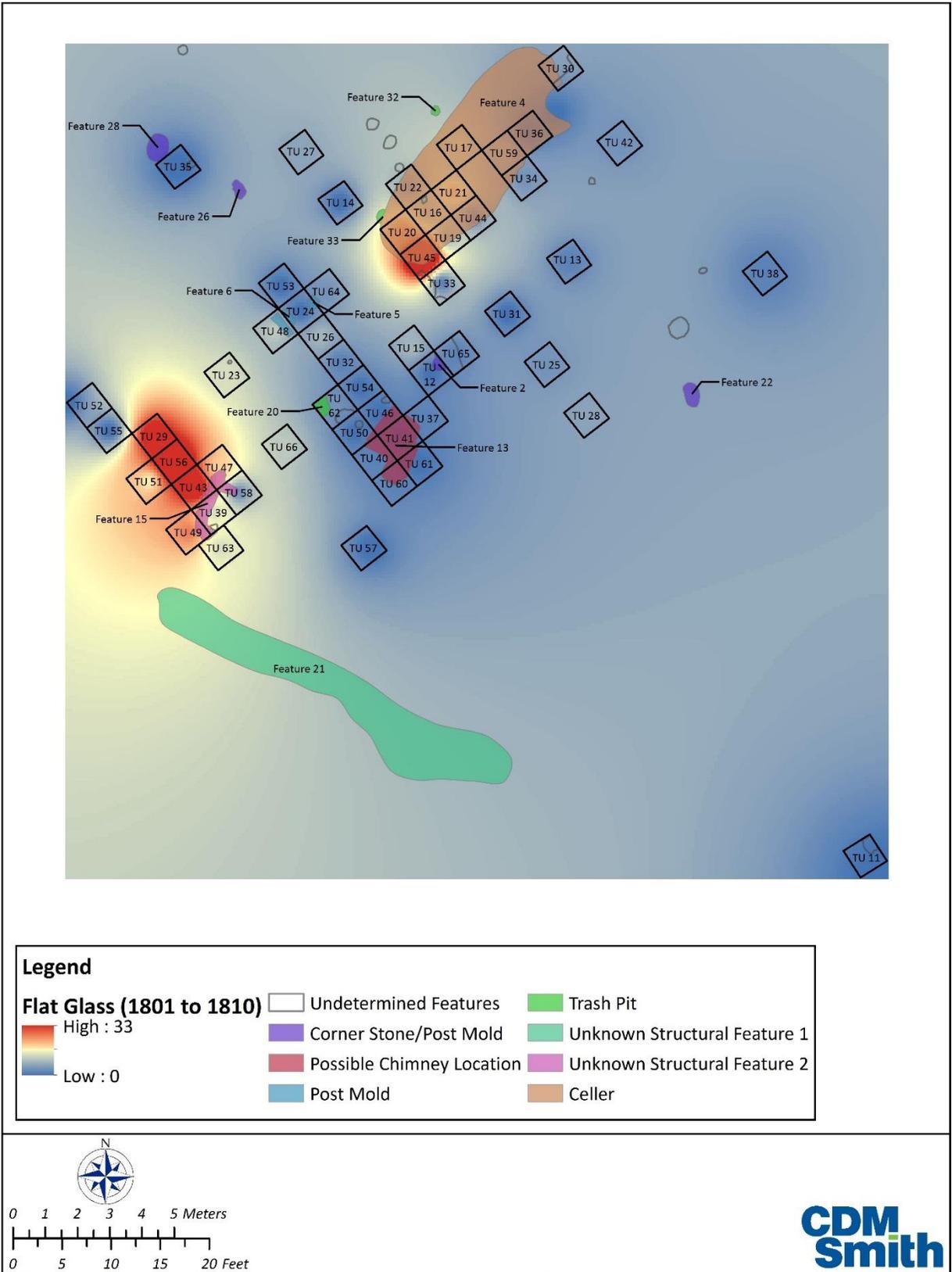


Figure 9-12. Distribution of Flat Glass 1801 to 1810.

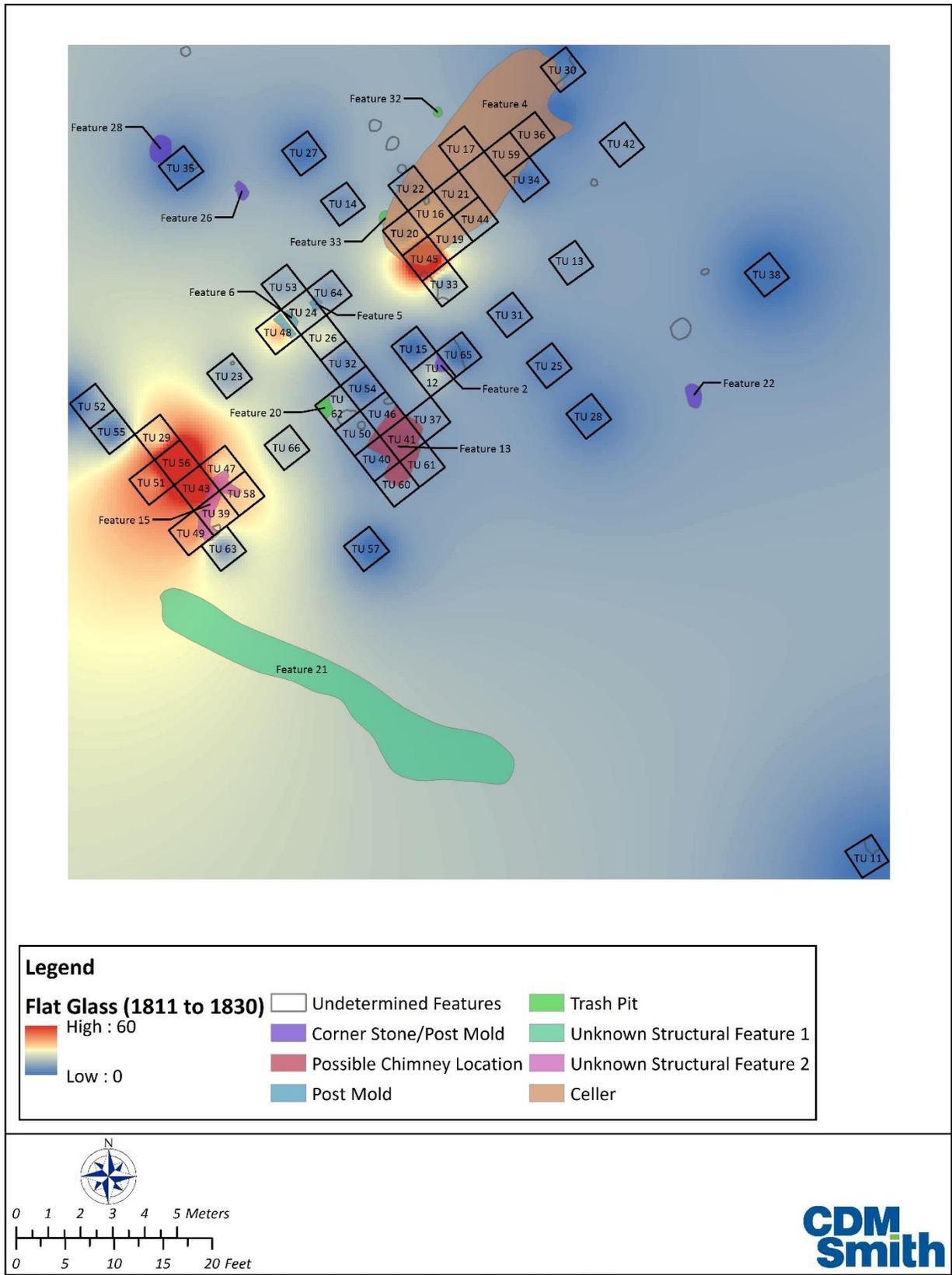
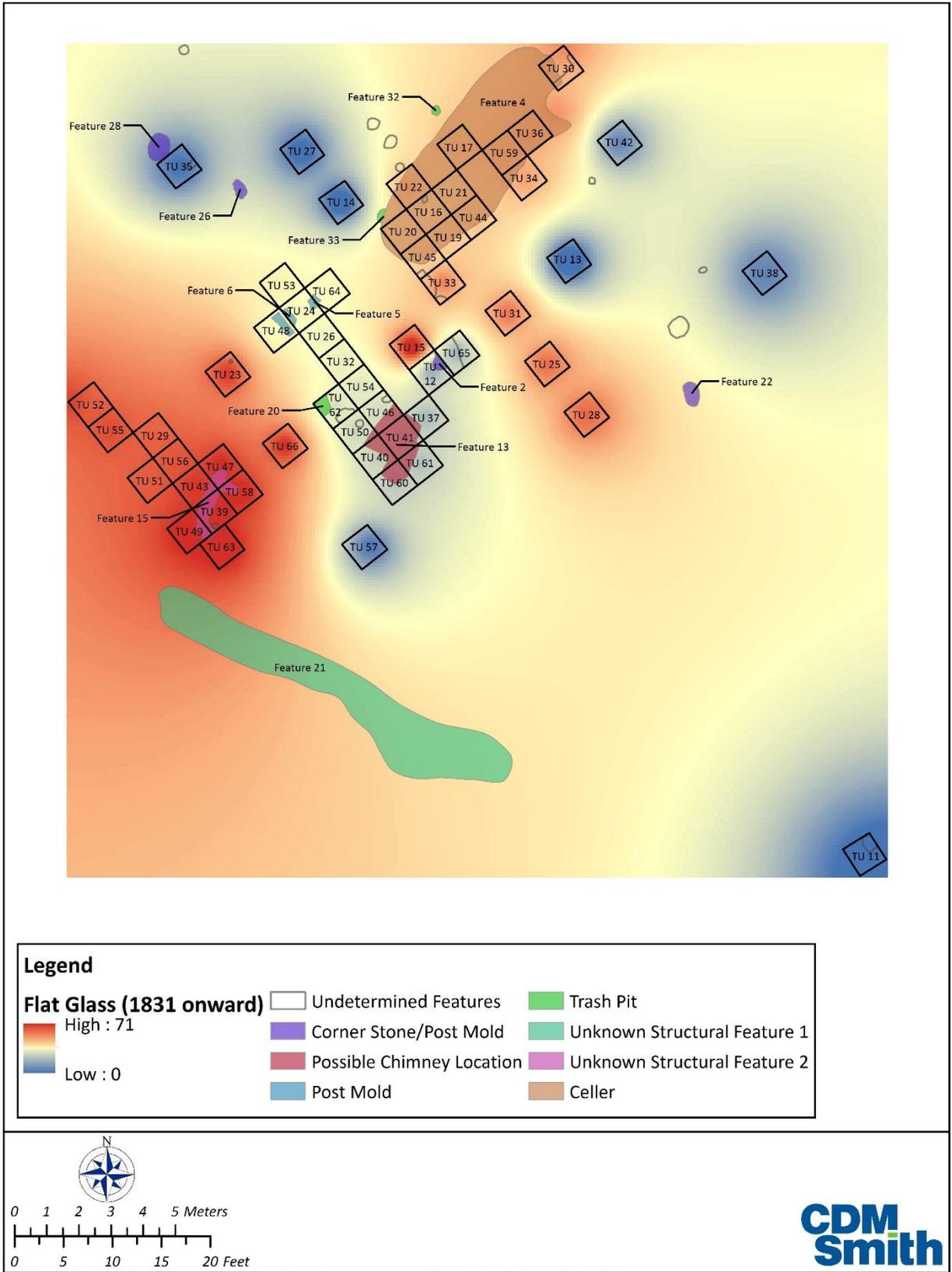


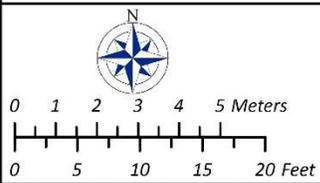
Figure 9-13. Distribution of Flat Glass 1811 to 1830.



Legend

Flat Glass (1831 onward)
 High : 71
 Low : 0

	Undetermined Features		Trash Pit
	Corner Stone/Post Mold		Unknown Structural Feature 1
	Possible Chimney Location		Unknown Structural Feature 2
	Post Mold		Celler



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Figure 9-14. Distribution of Flat Glass 1831 onward.

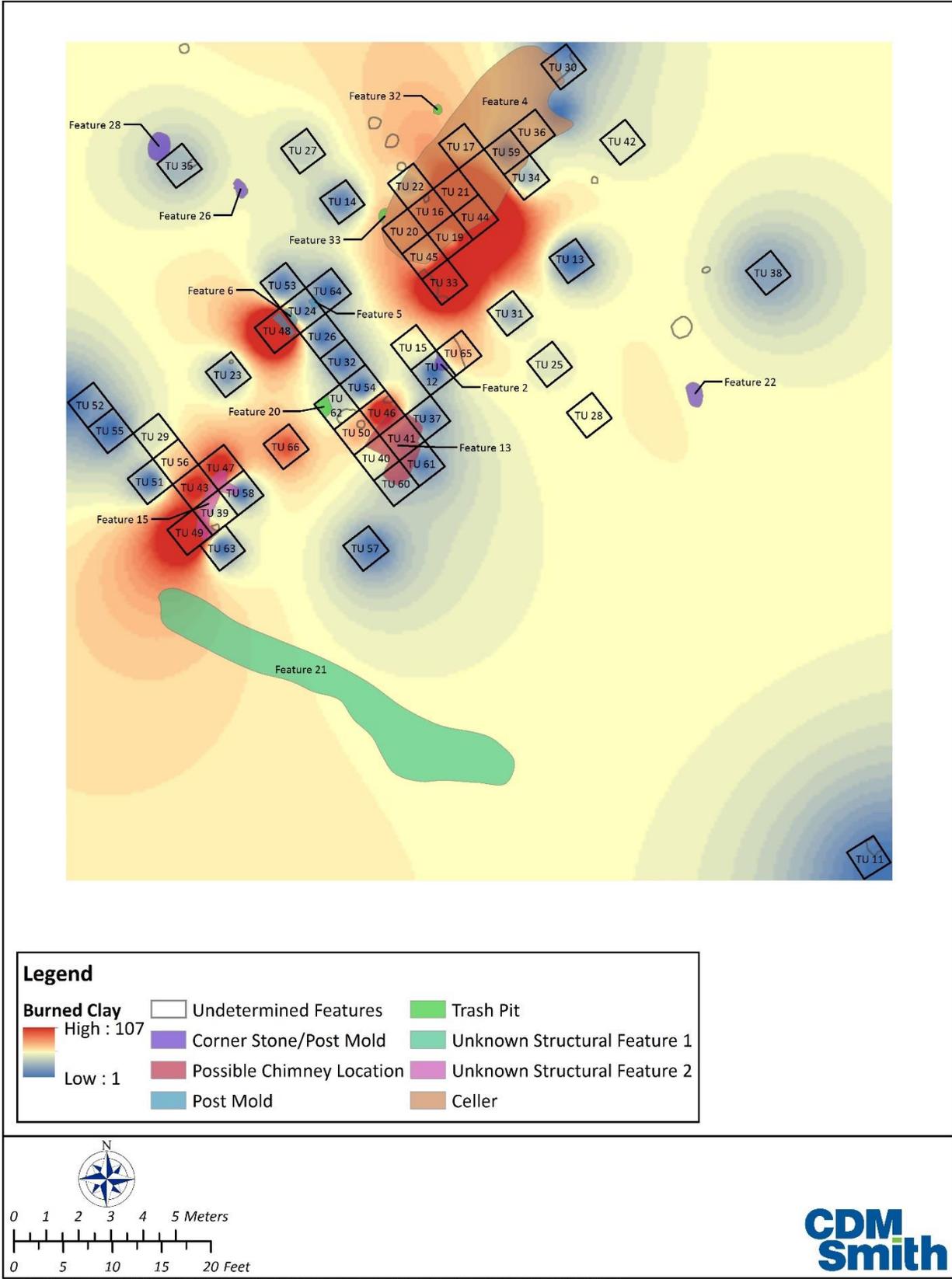


Figure 9-15. Distribution of Burned Clay.

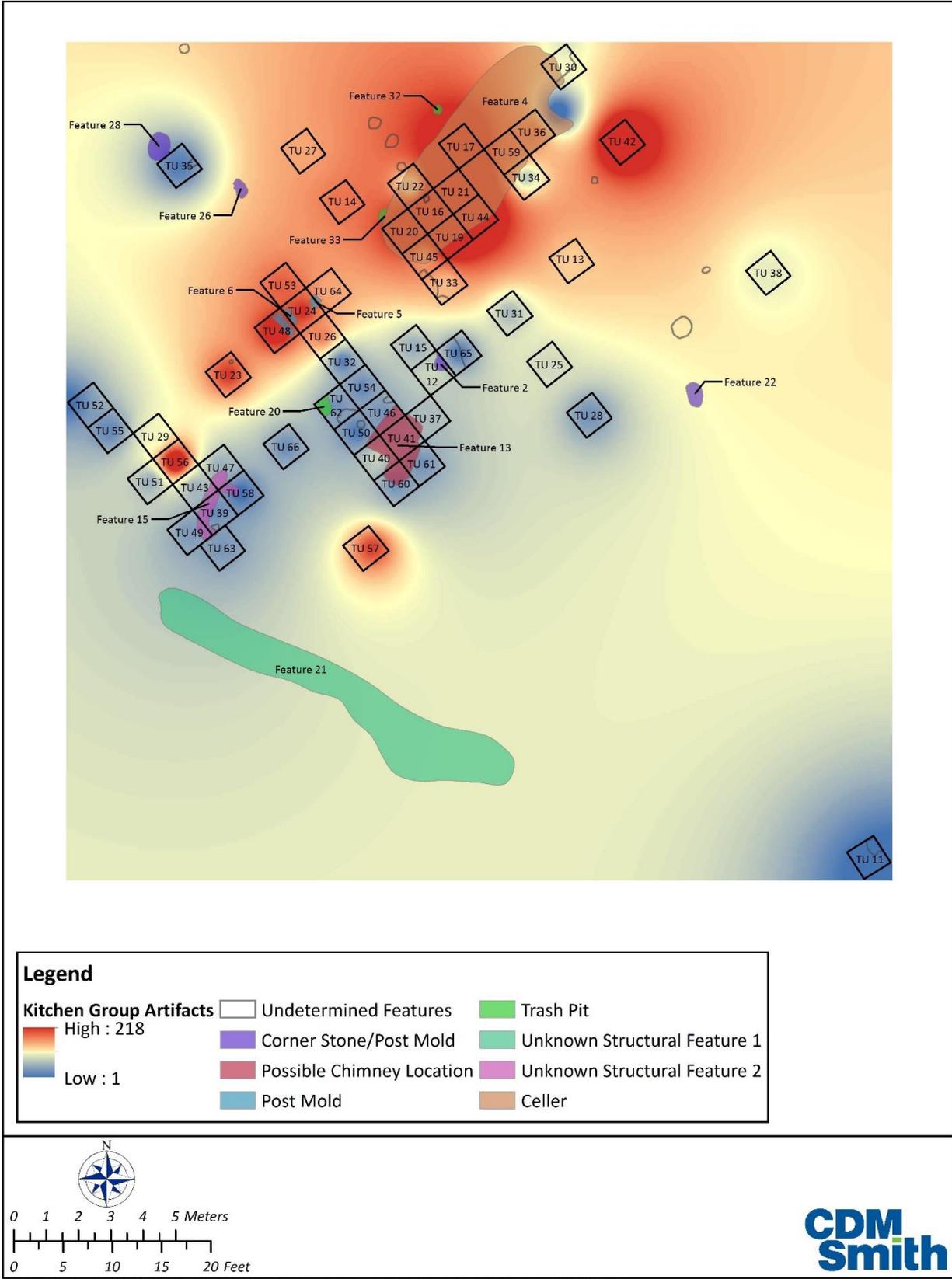


Figure 9-16. Distribution of Kitchen Group Artifacts.

9.4.2.2 Pearlware

Similar to creamware, the distribution of pearlware is mostly contained within the kitchen group artifact cluster (Figure 9-18). Almost all test units contained at least one shard of pearlware. Only Test Units 11, 18, and 47 did not have any. Shards of pearlware are also present in Feature 4, 13, 15, 19, and 27. The cluster of pearlware seems to be located around Feature 4, the possible cellar.

9.4.2.3 Whiteware

The distribution pattern for whiteware is different from that for creamware or pearlware (Figure 9-19). Although mostly located within the kitchen artifact group distribution cluster, the distribution for whiteware shows two distinct clusters, one around the possible cellar (Feature 4), and the other near two post holes (Feature 5 and Feature 6), and an unknown feature (Feature 15). Whiteware sherds were recovered from all test units except for 10 (Test Units 11, 12, 17, 30 – 32, 39, 47, and 50). Whiteware sherds were recovered from only two features, Feature 4 and Feature 13.

9.4.2.4 Hard Paste Porcelain

The distribution for hard paste porcelain also falls within the kitchen artifact group cluster (Figure 9-20). Hard paste porcelain seems to be fairly evenly distributed within the group cluster. Hard paste porcelain was recovered from thirty-seven test units (Test Units 12 – 17, 19, 21 – 24, 26, 27, 29, 33, 40 – 46, 48, 50, 51, 53 – 60, and 62 – 65). It was also recovered from Features 4, 13, 15, and 25.

9.4.2.5 Domestic Stoneware

Only twenty-five shards of domestic stoneware were recovered (Figure 9-21). Although this sample size is quite small compared to the other kitchen ceramics, the distribution of these domestic stoneware shards may help identify some specific areas where stoneware were used. Interestingly, most of the sherds were recovered in units outside of the kitchen artifact group cluster. Three of the 4 test units with the highest occurrence of domestic stoneware occur outside the kitchen artifact group cluster.

9.4.2.6 Coarse Redware

Shards of coarse redware were recovered from all test units except for two (Test Unit 18 and 57). The distribution of coarse redware (Figure 9-22), however, shows a strong concentration within the kitchen artifact group cluster around the possible cellar (Feature 4). Coarse redware was recovered from Features 4, 6, 13, 15, 19, 23, 26, and 28. The high concentration may be related to redware being stored with food in the cellar.

9.4.2.7 Kitchen Bottle and Table Glass

Kitchen bottle and table glass are lumped together because their distributions are very similar to each other (Figure 9-23 and Figure 9-24). Bottle glass was recovered from the same test units as the table glass with the addition of two more test units (22 and 43). Table glass was recovered from thirty-three test units (13, 16, 17, 19, 21, 23 – 28, 30, 36, 40, 42, 45, 47 – 51, 53, and 56 – 66). Both were recovered from Features 4, 13, 19, and 28. Similar to the distribution for hard paste porcelain, both bottle and table glass is found south of the kitchen artifact group cluster.

9.4.3 Clothing Group Artifacts

A small number (n=34) of clothing group artifacts were recovered from twenty-five test units (12, 16, 19, 21 – 24, 26, 32, 33, 38 – 43, 45, 46, 48 – 50, 58, 60, 64, and 65). Clothing group artifacts were also recovered from Features 4, 9, 13, and 19. Test Units 21 and 23 both contained three clothing group

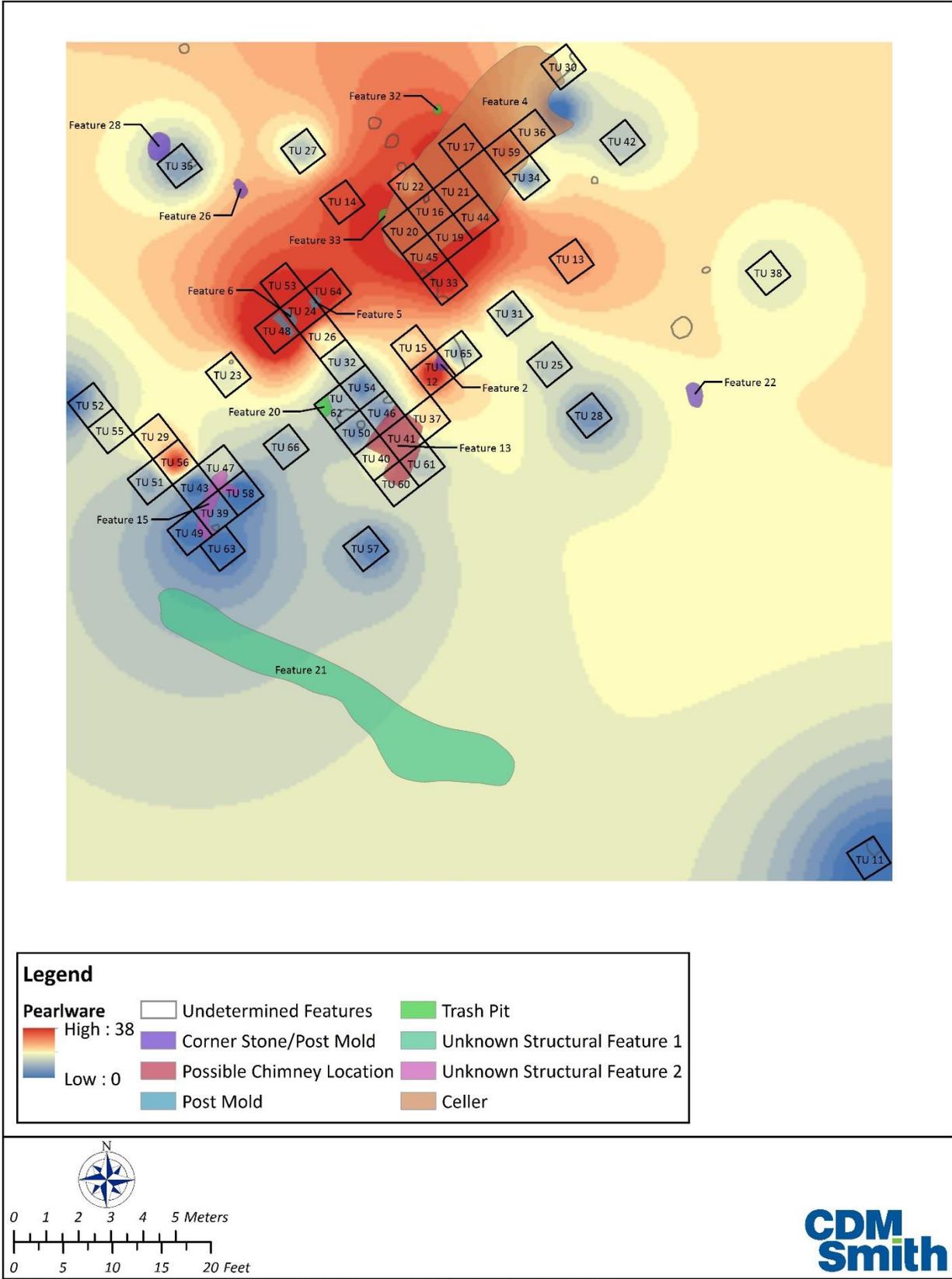


Figure 9-18. Distribution of Pearlware.

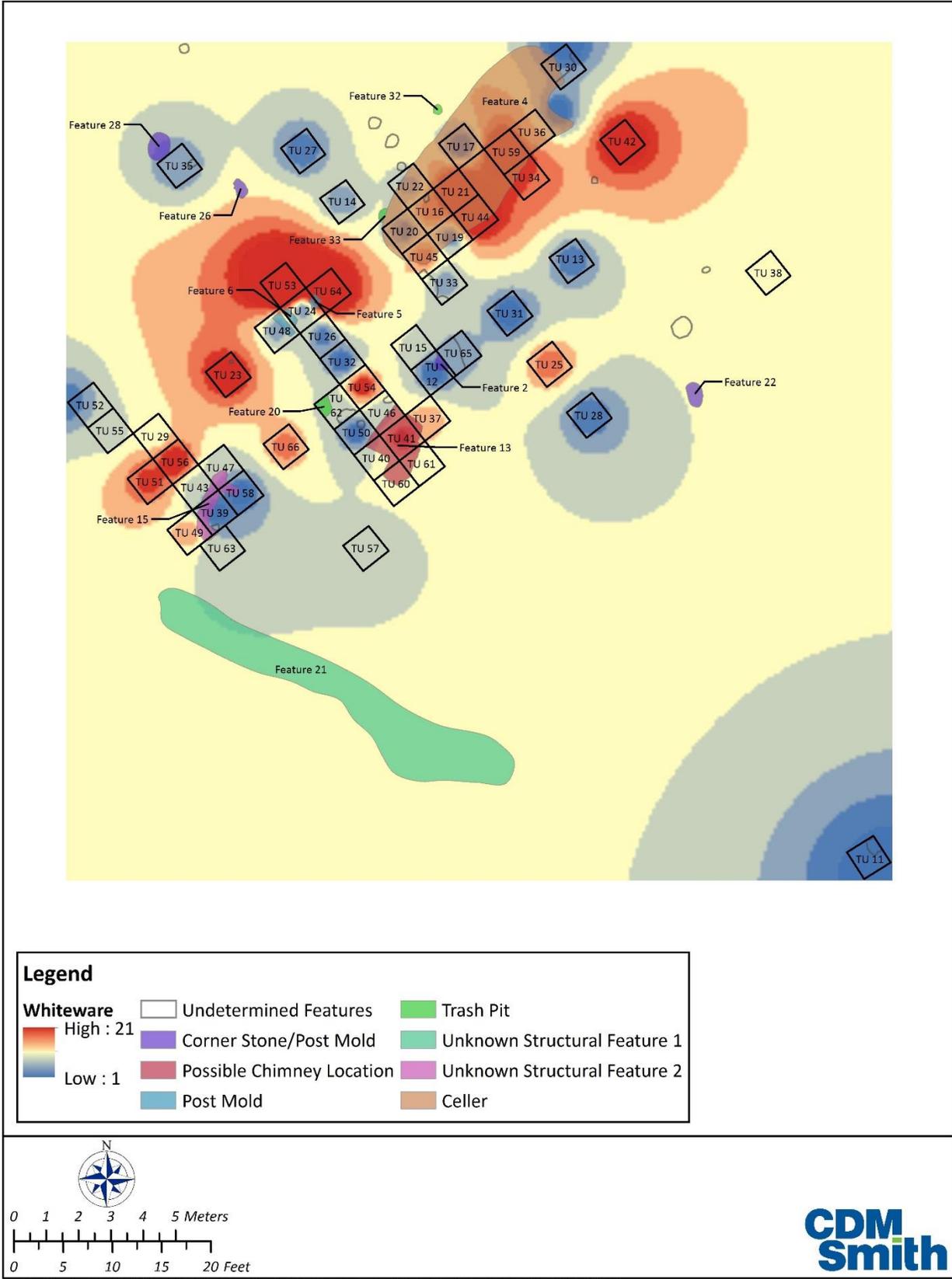
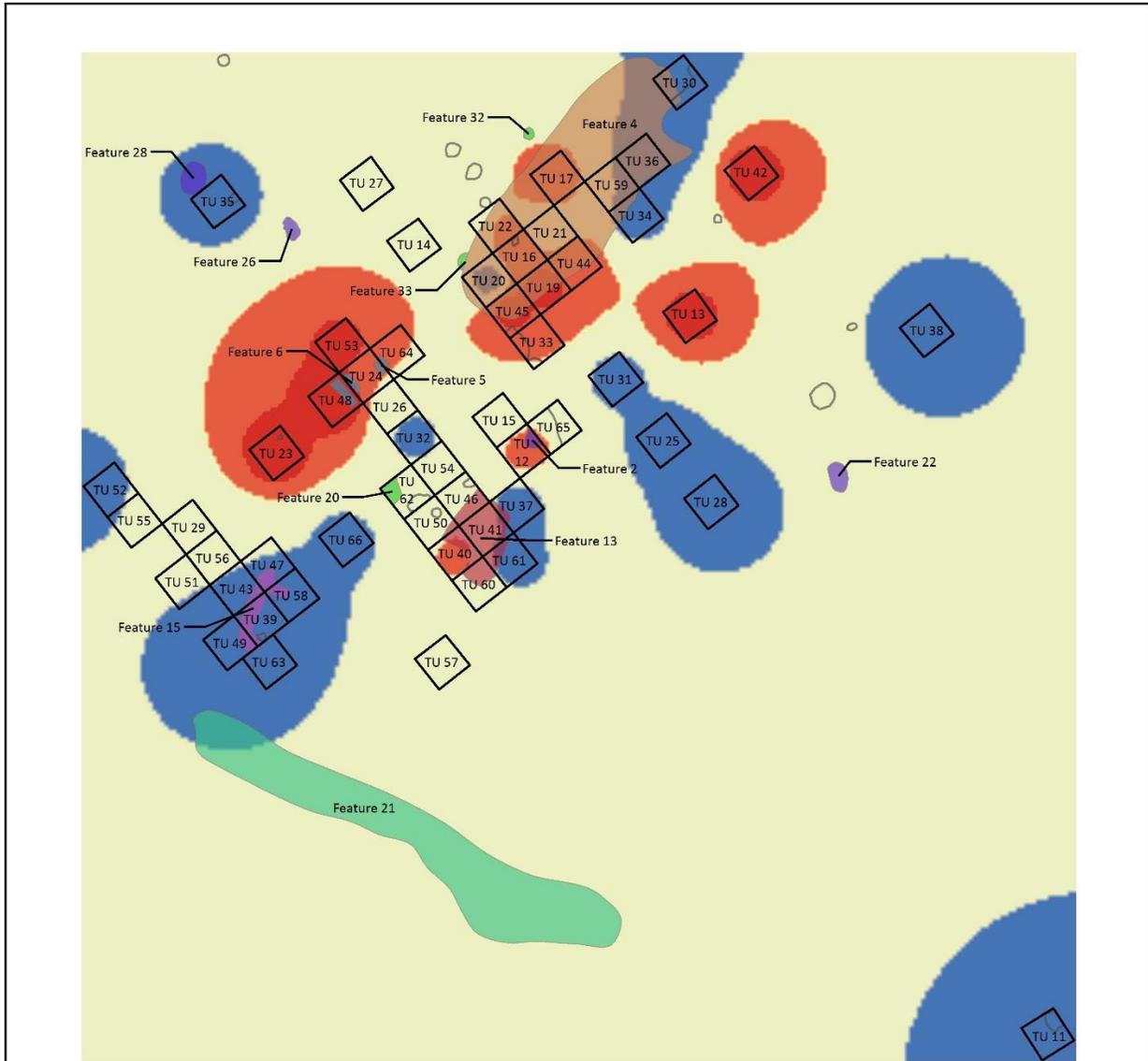
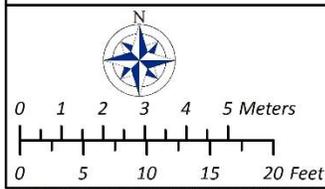


Figure 9-19. Distribution of Whiteware.



Legend

High : 6	Undetermined Features	Trash Pit
Low : 1	Corner Stone/Post Mold	Unknown Structural Feature 1
	Possible Chimney Location	Unknown Structural Feature 2
	Post Mold	Cellar



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Figure 9-20. Distribution of Hard Paste Porcelain.

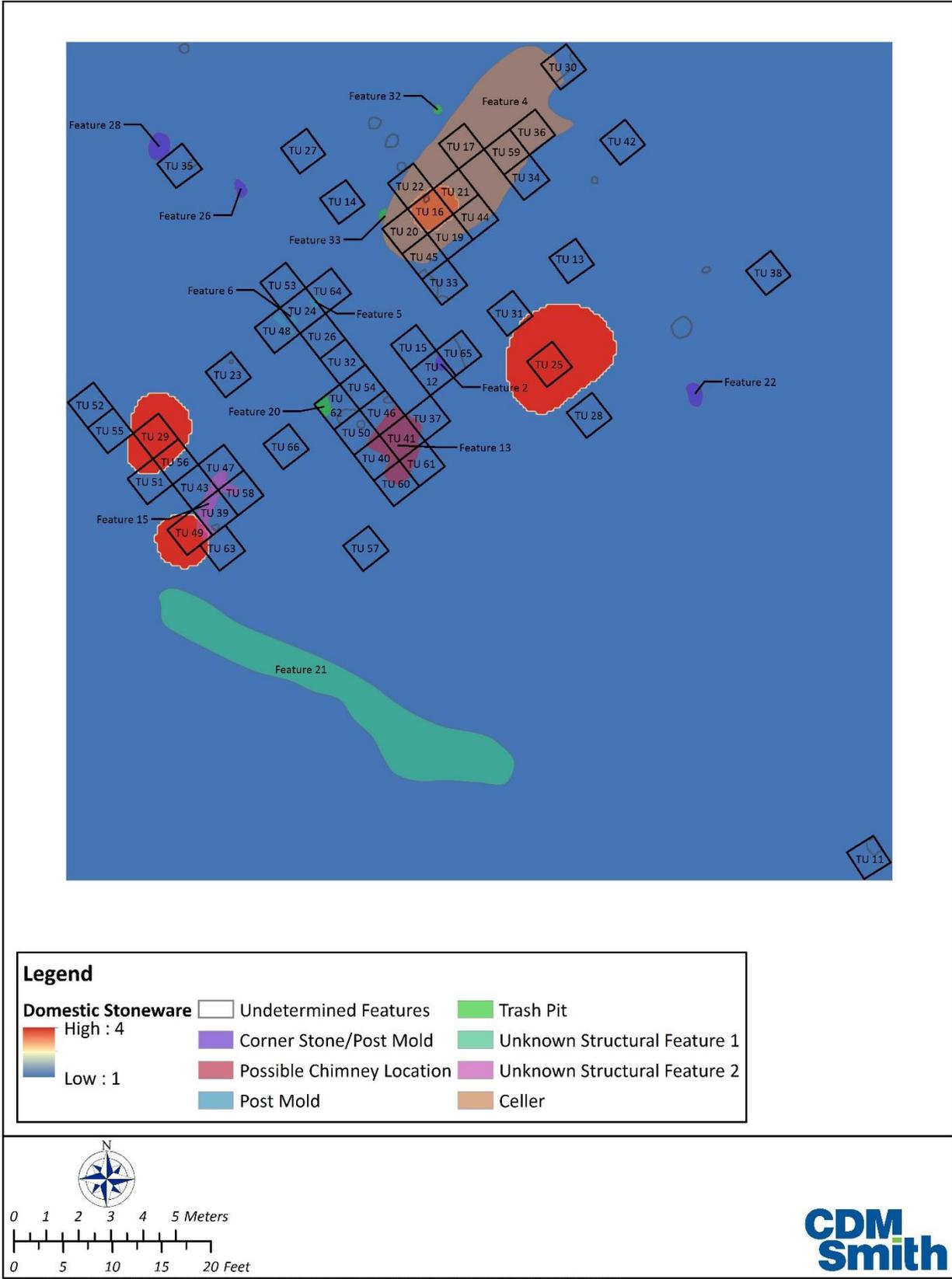
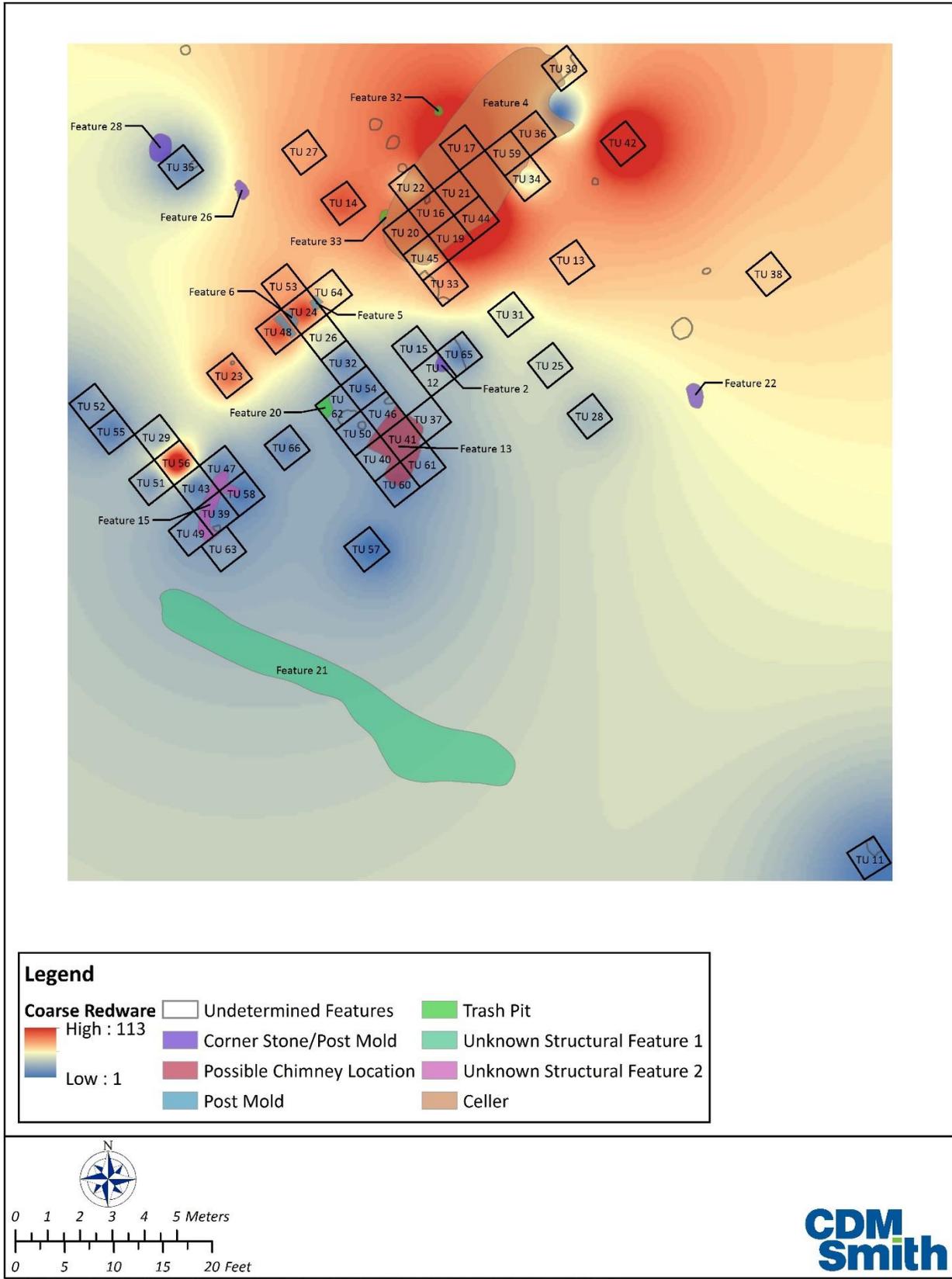
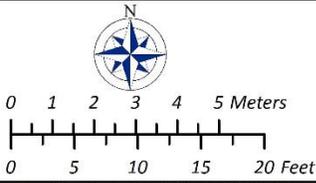


Figure 9-21. Distribution of Domestic Stoneware.



Legend

Coarse Redware	□ Undetermined Features	■ Trash Pit
High : 113	■ Corner Stone/Post Mold	■ Unknown Structural Feature 1
Low : 1	■ Possible Chimney Location	■ Unknown Structural Feature 2
	■ Post Mold	■ Celler



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Figure 9-22. Distribution of Coarse Redware.

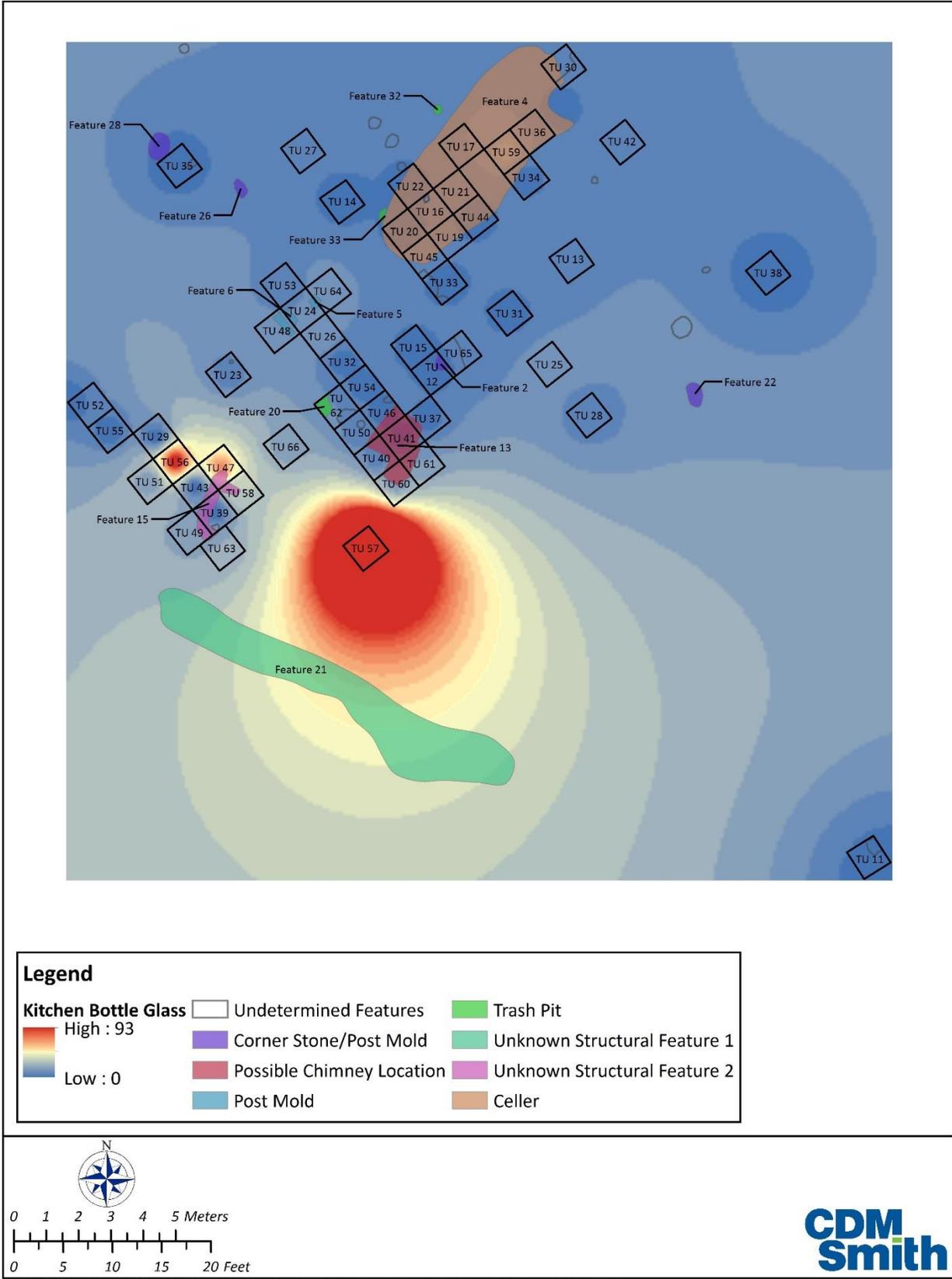


Figure 9-23. Distribution of Kitchen Bottle Glass.

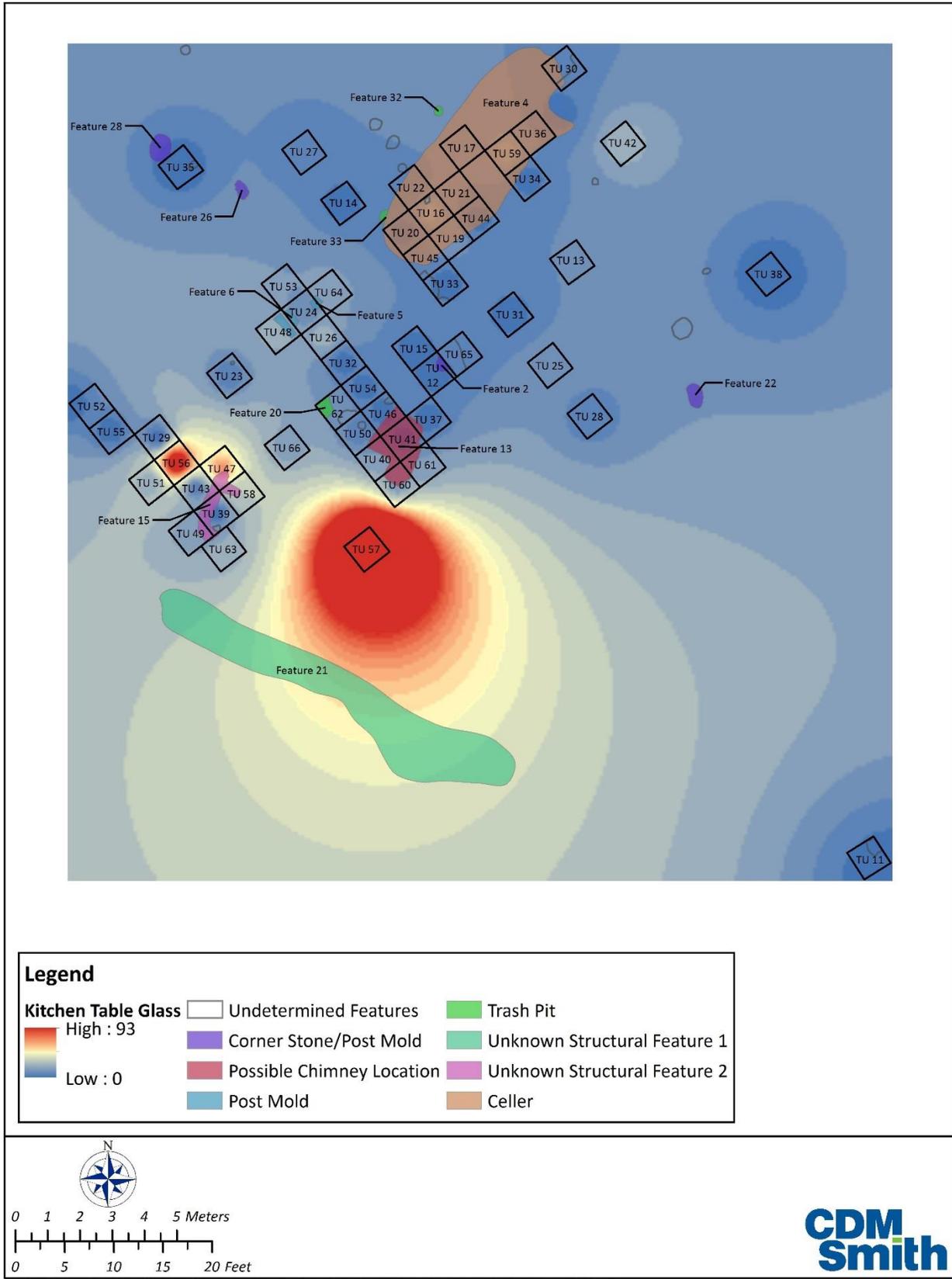


Figure 9-24. Distribution of Kitchen Table Glass.

artifacts; Test Units 33, 40, 45, 48, and 65 each contained two, and the remaining test units contained one each. The distribution of the clothing group artifacts show three general clusters (Figure 9-25).

9.4.4 Furniture Group Artifacts

A small number (n=30) of furniture group artifacts were recovered from fifteen test units (14, 19, 20, 21, 26, 29, 39, 44, 45, 51, and 53). Only Feature 4 contained furniture group artifacts. The distribution map for furniture group artifacts consisted of two clusters (Figure 9-26). One cluster is near Feature 4 and one near Test Unit 29.

9.4.5 Transportation Group Artifacts

A total of twenty-nine (29) transportation group artifacts were recovered from eighteen test units (16, 17, 19 – 23, 27, 29, 33, 35 – 38, 40, 41, 44, and 45). Two items were recovered from Feature 4 and Feature 9. The distribution map for transportation group artifacts shows three concentrations (Figure 9-27). Clusters are seen around Test Units 23 and 29, and around Feature 4.

9.4.6 Activity/Job Group Artifacts

A small number (n=27) of activity/job group related artifacts were recovered from ten test units (12, 16, 19, 30, 32, 38, 45, 56, 60, and 61) and one feature (Feature 13). The distributional map for activity/job group artifacts shows three clusters (Figure 9-28). One cluster is around Test Unit 56, one around 32, and the largest around Feature 4.

9.4.7 Personal Group Artifacts

A total of nineteen (19) personal group artifacts were recovered from sixteen (16) test units (12, 19, 21, 22, 26, 29, 38, 39, 43, 44, 47, 59, and 63 – 66) and one feature (Feature 28). The distributional map for personal group artifacts shows three clusters (Figure 9-29). Two clusters around Feature 4 are close together and may be considered one group. The other cluster is around Test Unit 65 near Feature 2.

9.4.8 Fuel Group Artifacts

Thirteen (13) fuel group artifacts were recovered from six (6) test units (12, 13, 17, 20, 40, and 45) and one feature (Feature 9). The distributional map for fuel group artifacts shows two small clusters, one near Feature 4 and one around Test Unit 13 (Figure 9-30). Both of these may be considered one concentration.

9.4.9 Arms Group Artifacts

The amount of arms group artifacts are too small to map. Two gun flints were recovered. One came from Test Unit 11 and one from Test Unit 56.

9.4.10 Botanical and Faunal Assemblages

The botanical assemblage was recovered entirely from features (see Section 7). The total fruits and seeds for Feature 4a was 230 (64.4%), for Feature 9 was 8 (2.2%), for Feature 10 was 9 (2.5%), for Feature 15 was 30 (8.4%), for Feature 6 was 15 (4.2%), for Feature 20 was 11 (3.1%), for Feature 26 was 44 (12.3%), and for Feature 28 was 10 (2.8%). Feature 4a, 9, and 10 were located at the detached kitchen and cellar area. Feature 15 was located next to the house and may be associated with a midden. Features 6 and 20 were located within the house. Features 26 and 28 were post molds that may represent an outbuilding and processing area.

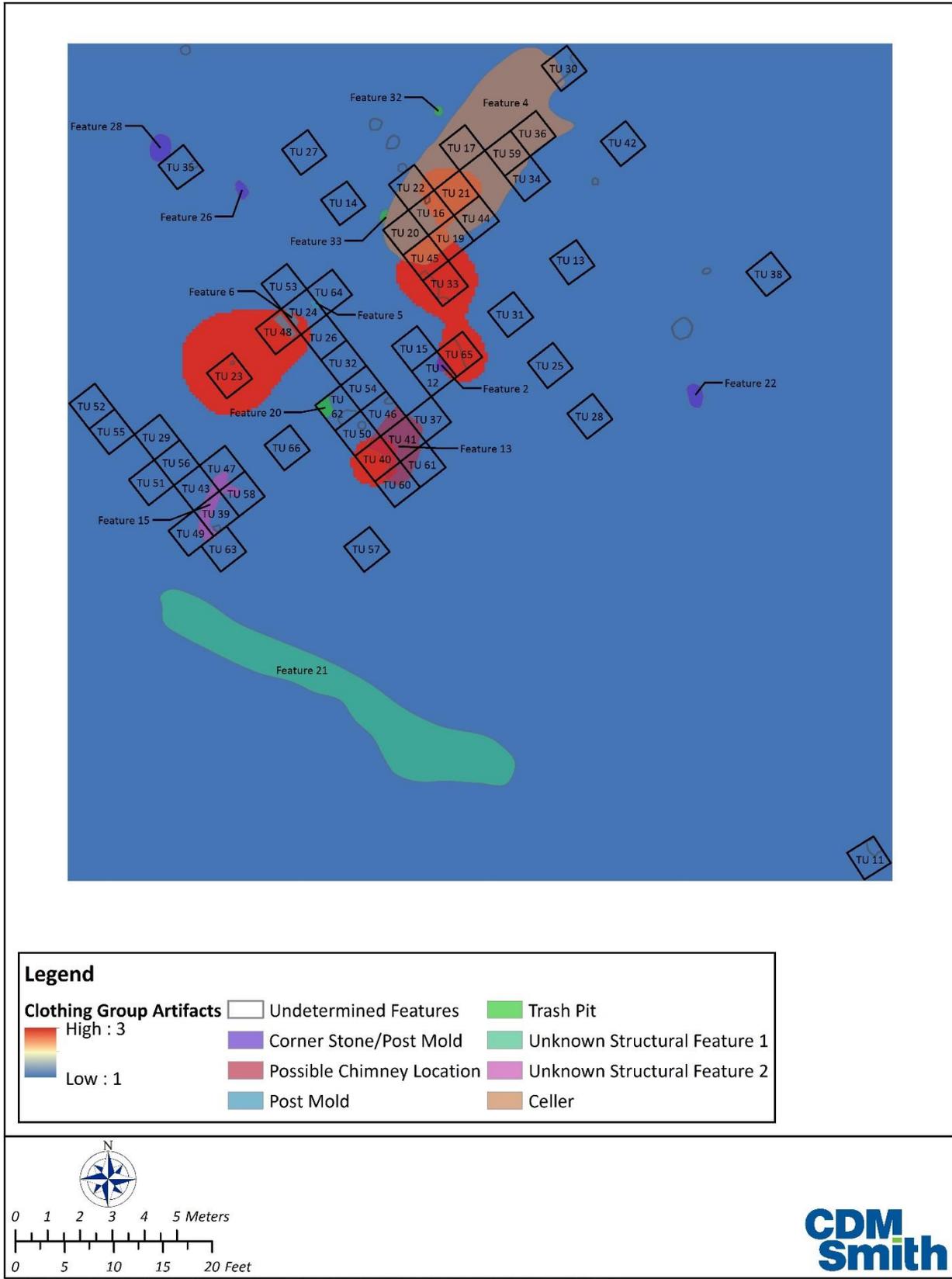


Figure 9-25. Distribution of Clothing Group Artifacts.

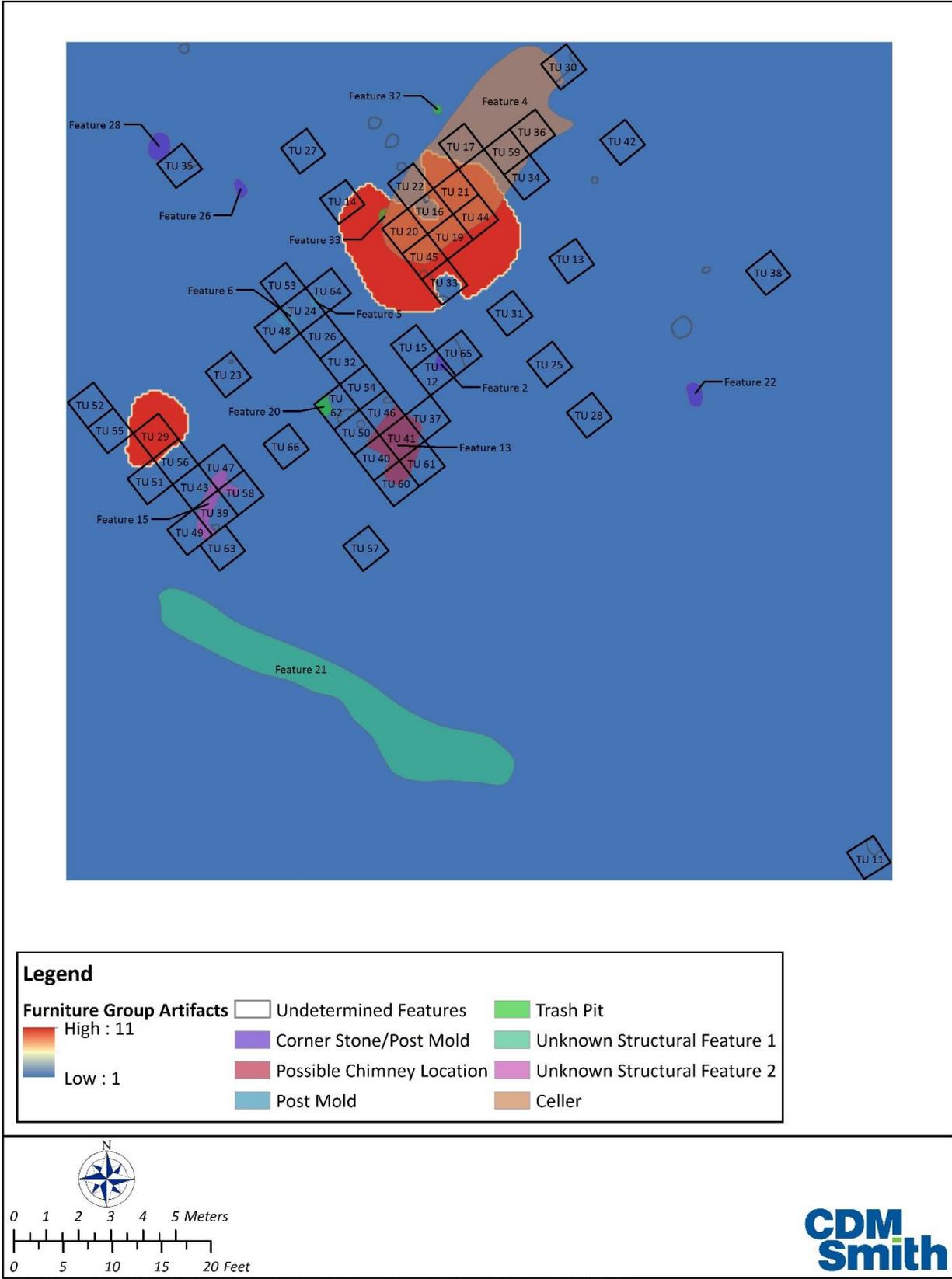


Figure 9-26. Distribution of Furniture Group Artifacts.

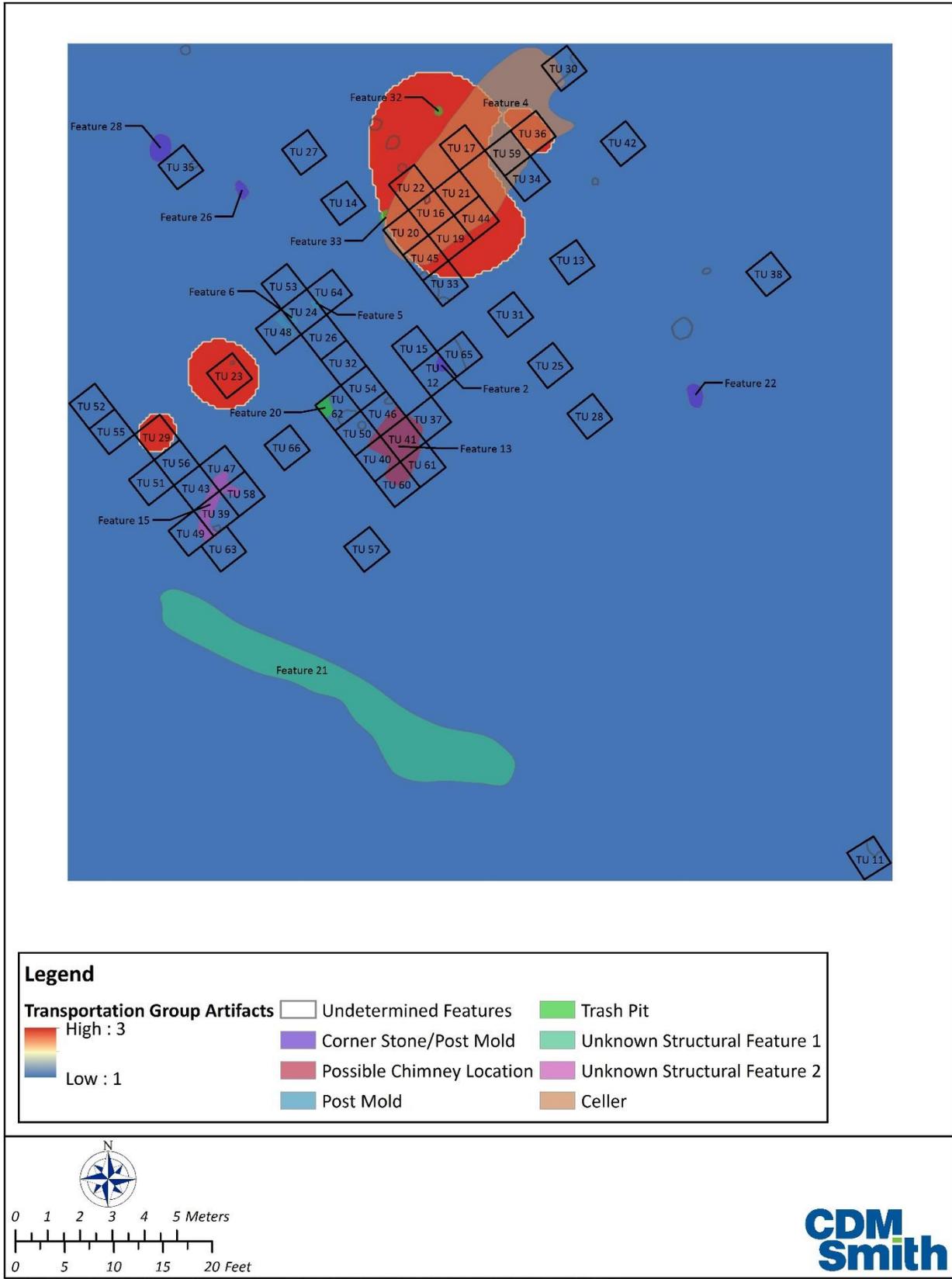


Figure 9-27. Distribution of Transportation Group Artifacts.

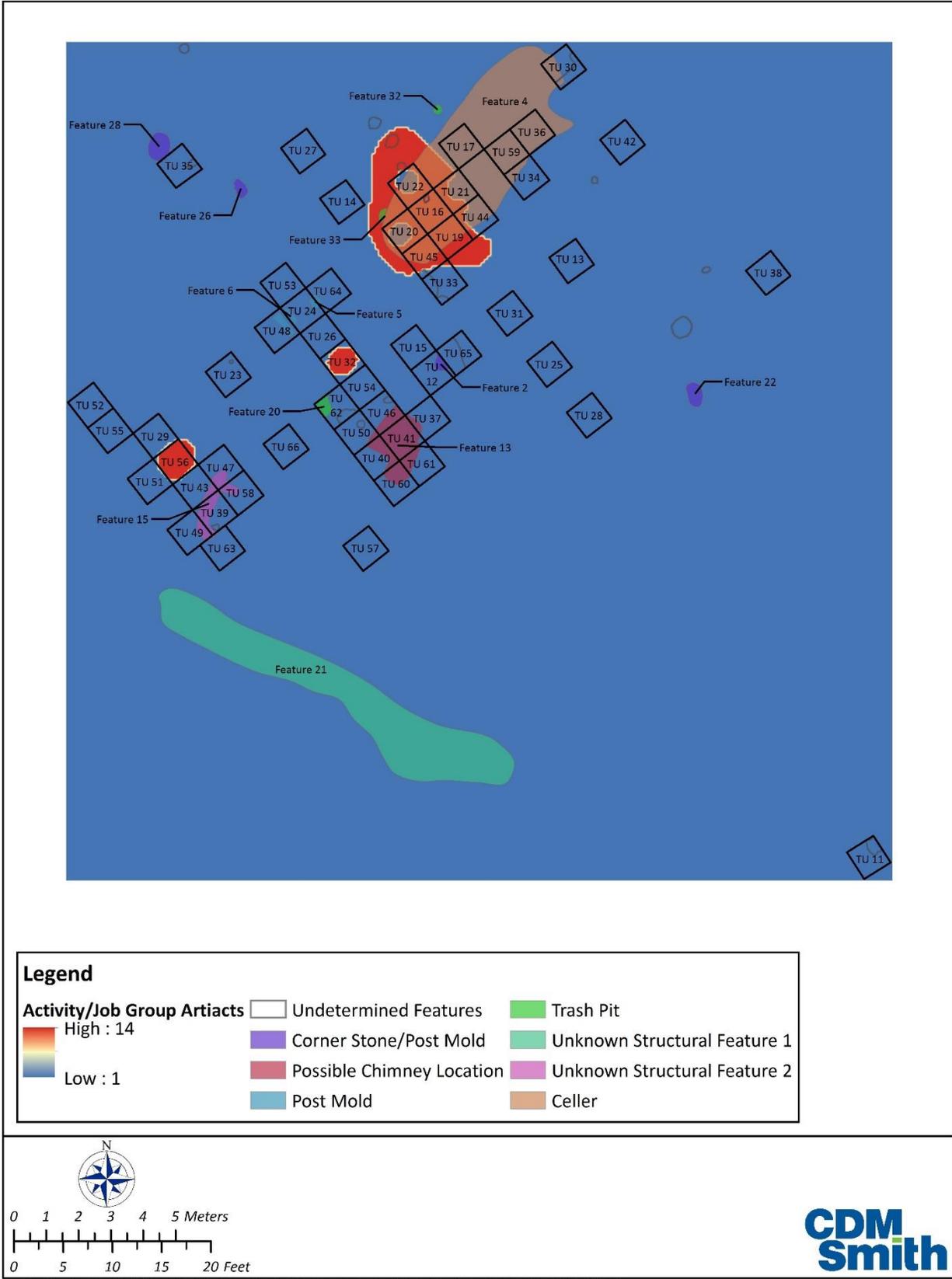


Figure 9-28. Distribution of Activity/Job Group Artifacts.

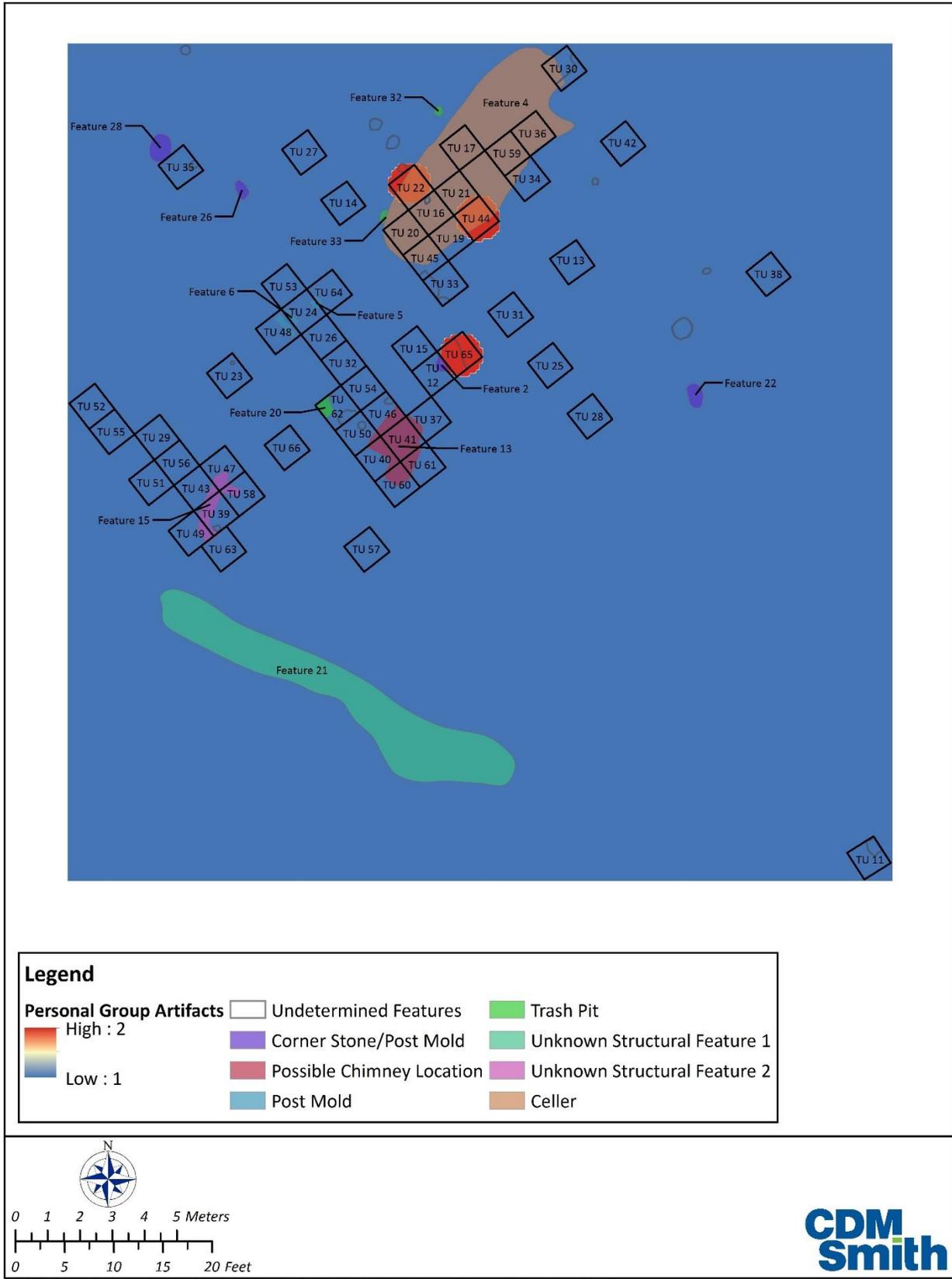


Figure 9-29. Distribution of Personal Group Artifacts.

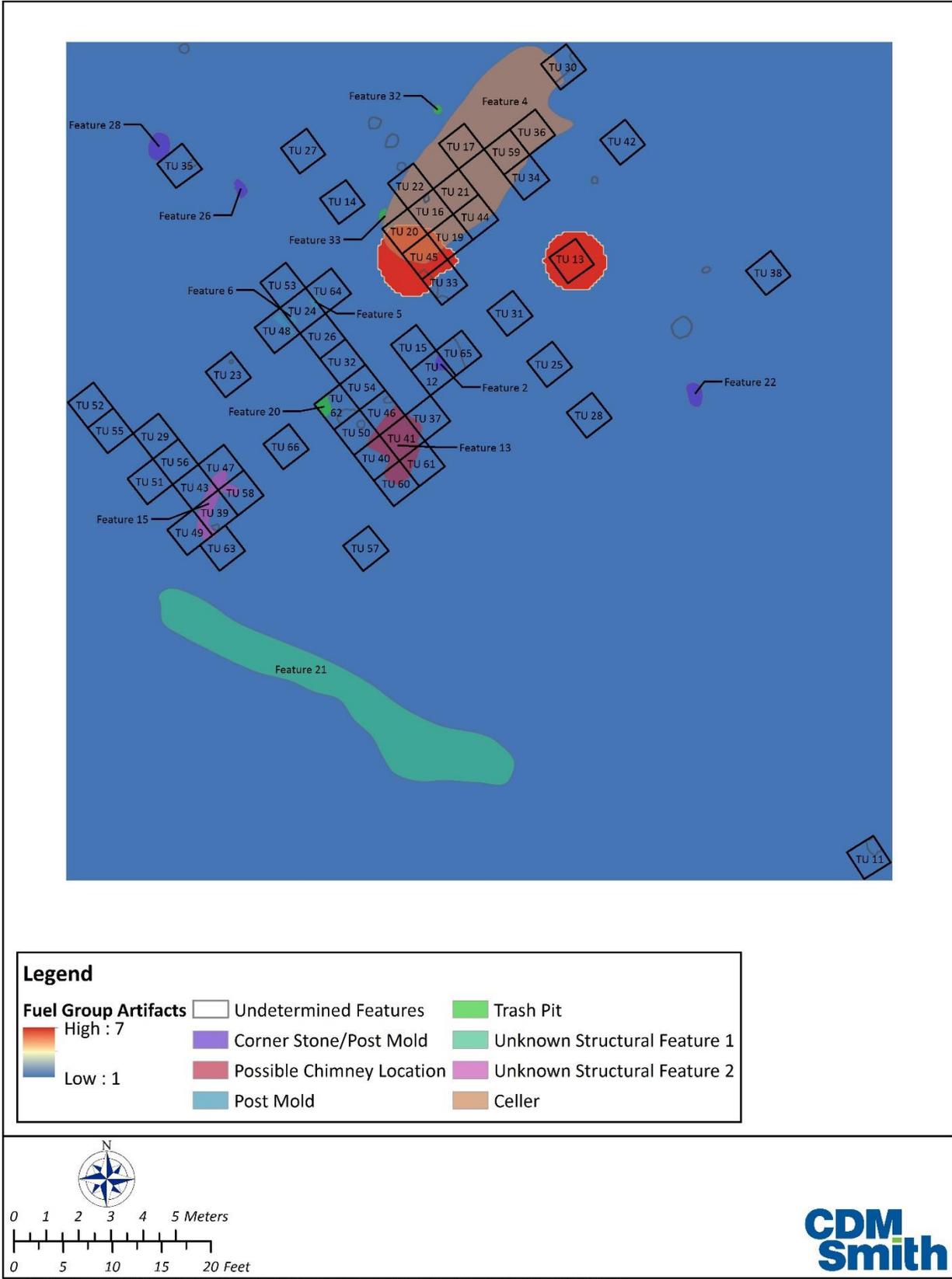


Figure 9-30. Distribution of Fuel Group Artifacts.

The faunal assemblage was distributed throughout the site (see Section 8). It was dominated by domestic pig, domestic cow, and domestic chicken. Squirrel, rabbit, and sheep were also recovered. The reliance on pork is part of the Upland South subsistence pattern. The distribution of the pig bone elements suggests that the entire animal was used for food. The use of all of the elements made it difficult to separate butchering and processing areas from food refuse areas. The highest concentration of the faunal remains is in the Kitchen/Cellar area (Figure 9-32).

9.5 Discussion

The features and artifact distribution suggest that the Thomas and Mary Champ House was oriented to the southwest (i.e. the front faced to the southwest) (Figure 9-32). The outline for the house is based on a plan for a single-pen Midland House (McAlister and McAlister 1984:82). A number of factors have helped to determine this. The first factor is the placement and alignment of the chimney (Feature 13). Another factor determining the orientation of the house is the location of a corner stone/post mod feature (Feature 2/19). The distribution of the architectural group artifacts provided information for the location of refuse areas or structures. Using these features as locational points, it is possible that a structure roughly 20 feet by 30 feet might have been in this area (Figure 9-32).

The southwest orientation of the Thomas and Mary Champ House also helps to identify possible functions for Feature 15 and Feature 21. The construction of the house is anchored by the placement of the chimney. From this location the inn was oriented down slope causing the northwest end to be four (4) feet above grade. The northwest corners of the inn were probably supported by stones, thus partially explaining the lack of structural post molds. The drop in elevation from the two ends of the house would have required steps, either made of wood or stone, to enter. Feature 15 was found just outside the structure and may have functioned as a foundation for the first set of steps needed to reach the cabin door. The recovery of wood from this feature may suggest that the steps were built out of wood. Leading to the steps (Feature 15) is an elongated course of loosely placed stones (Feature 21). Feature 21 may have served as a walkway or driveway. These two features help to identify the front yard of the house.

The orientation of the Thomas and Mary Champ House is similar to that of Mefford's Fort in Mason County, Kentucky. The chimney of the house faced the road (Figure 9-33). The size and construction of Mefford's Fort may be similar to the Thomas and Mary Champ House (Figure 9-34). The construction of log houses on slopes, as suggested for the Thomas and Mary Champ House, has been demonstrated on other upland South locations (Figure 9-35).

The concentrations of architectural and kitchen group artifacts on the northeast side of the structure along with the presence of Feature 4, Feature 9, Feature 10, Feature 26, and Feature 28 suggests that additional structures may have been in this area. One of the structures may have been a semi-subterranean cellar. Cellars are sometimes dug along hillsides (Figure 9-36 and Figure 9-37). The kitchen could have been attached to cellar and detached from the house. There could have been an entrance to the cellar from the kitchen (Figure 9-38). One problem with this interpretation, though, is that no weight bearing features such as large structural post holes or corner stones were not found in this area nor was there any indication that a fireplace outside of Feature 13. An alternative interpretation is that this area served as a refuse area for material thrown out the back door of the house into the backyard.

Spatial patterning from artifact distribution maps has provided information by defining the activity areas associated with the house. The northeast yard was the main area of refuse disposal and domestic activities. Such domestic activities would entail food processing, such as butchering and curing of hogs,

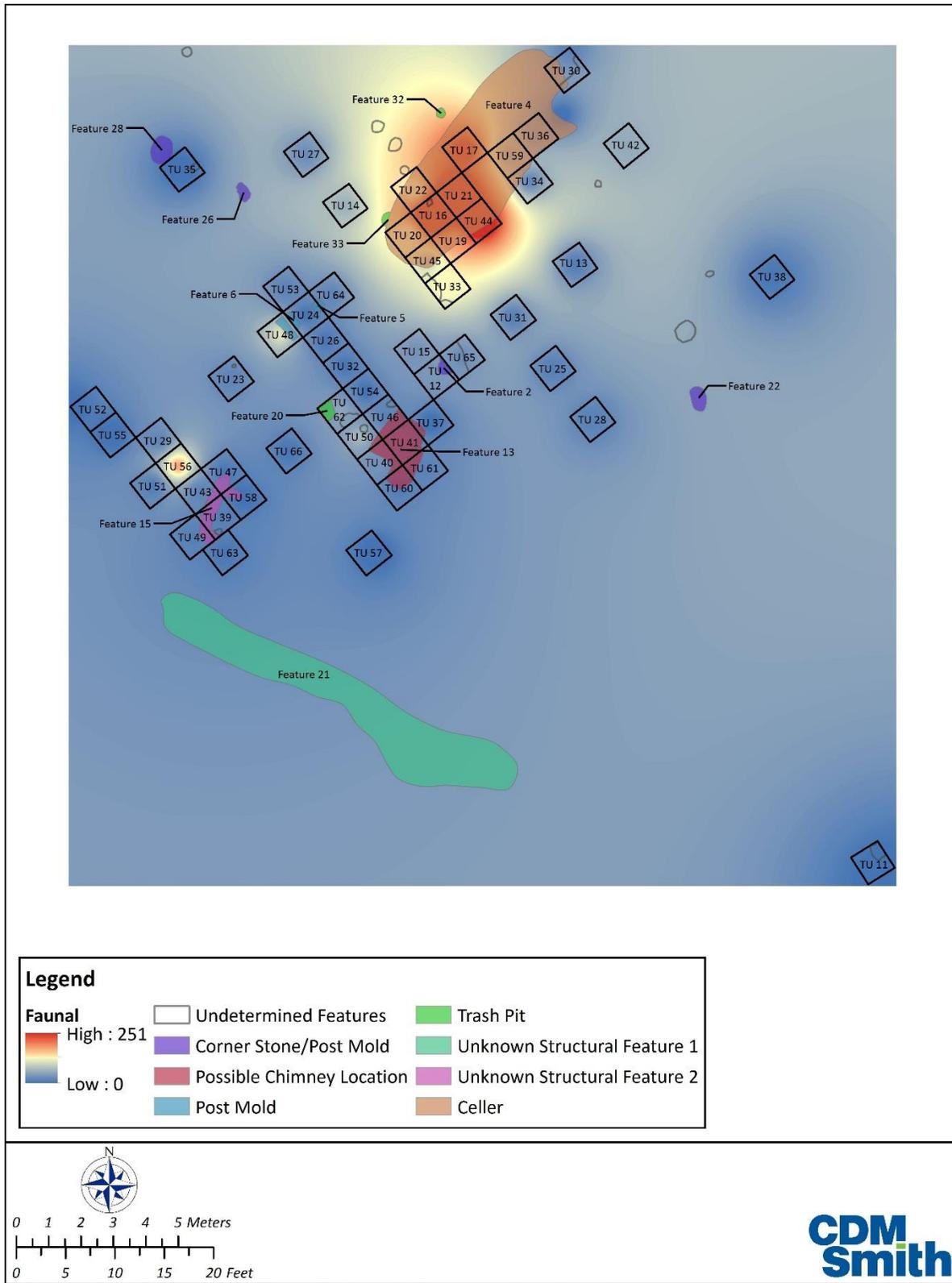


Figure 9-31. Distribution of Faunal Remains.



Figure 9-33. Mefford's Fort, Mason County, Kentucky.



Figure 9-34. Mefford's Fort.

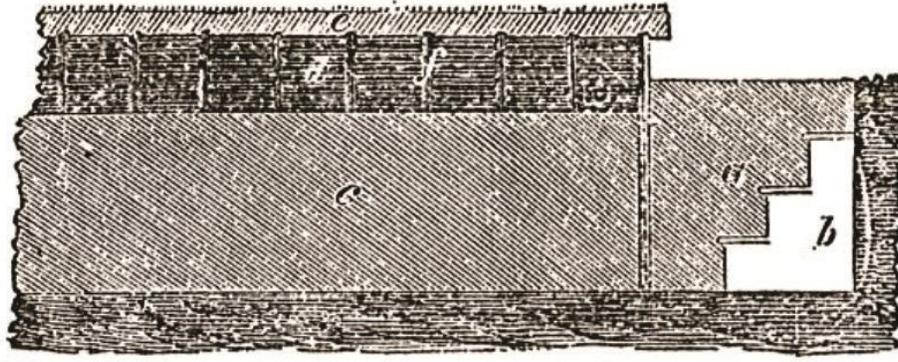


Figure 9-35. Cellar Profile a,b) steps; c) earthen wall; d) board roof; e) earth covering; f) rafters (Halsted 1977:228).

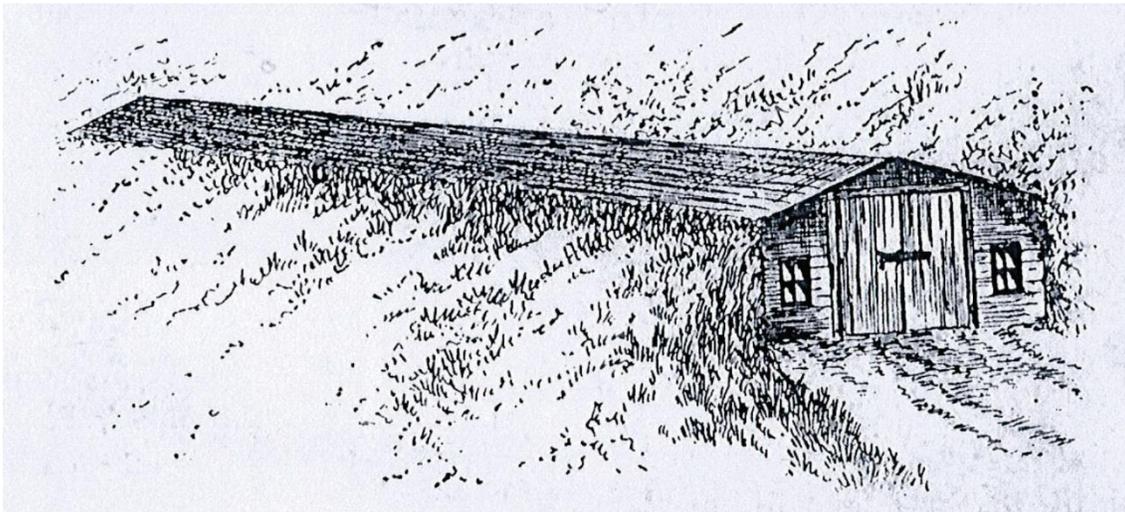


Figure 9-36. Fruit Cellar (Hiles 1893:97).

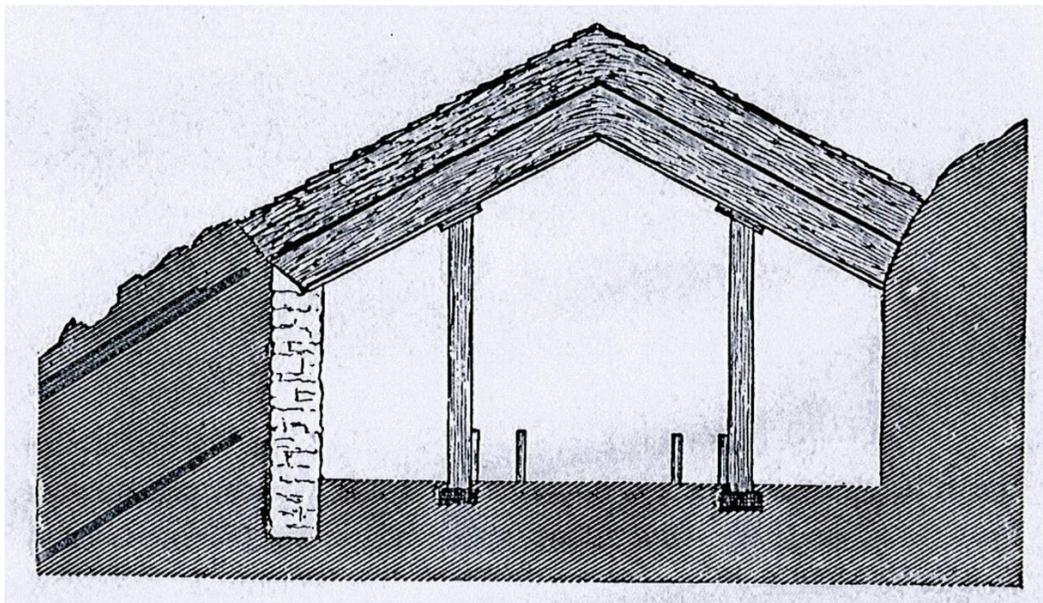


Figure 9-37. Fruit Cellar Profile (Hiles 1893:98).

or cattle. Like most farms, a smoke house was essential to curing, processing and storage of meat. Corn shucking and grain storage also probably occurred at the farm. Corn produce was probably sold at the market and used for personal household consumption in many forms. Corn could be ground for meal or processed into whiskey. The cobs and shucks also provided excellent fodder for livestock. Food preparation in the form of cooking and baking might also have occurred near the dwelling. Other activities associated with cleaning, laundry and soap making might have occurred near the house. Maintenance of structures, hearths and tools were also important and contributed to the archaeological record (Gibb and King 1991).

Food preservation and storage also occurred as evidence by Feature 4 and the numerous redware vessels. If Feature 4 functioned as a cellar, it might have stored consumer products such as milk, potatoes, meat, other root crops and fruit (Adams n.d.; Faulkner 1986). Vegetables, like potatoes, carrots, squash, or turnips would have come from a kitchen garden. Gardens were common and a necessity on eighteenth and nineteenth century farmsteads and provided the household with a variety of nutritious vegetables, whether they were pickled, preserved or stored, for household consumption and for sell at the inn. For convenience, gardens were usually found close to the dwelling.

Travel along a turnpike was a dusty undertaking. Not only were travelers subjected to the dirt and dust coughed up by man and beast traveling along the turnpike, but so were the denizens along the thoroughfare. Early farmers who had settled along the Maysville Road invested in more substantial dwellings, moving from their rudimentary log structures into more permanent and costly brick structures. These new structure were located set back from the road providing better protection from the din and grime pitched up along the Maysville Road.

The landscape change also indicated changes in economic status and social class. Instead of the vernacular log cabins or houses and frame houses the new houses were made of brick in the new Federal style. Thomas Champ, the son of Robert Champ, built his house in this style in the late 1820s, using the same builder or designer as the The Grange (BB502), which was across the road. Jefferson Scott built his house, New Forest in the early 1820s. The three houses are shown on the Hewitt map of 1861 and the Beers map of 1877 (Figure 9-39 and Figure 9-40).



Figure 9-38. Log House with Kitchen and Stone Foundation (Morgan 1990:66).

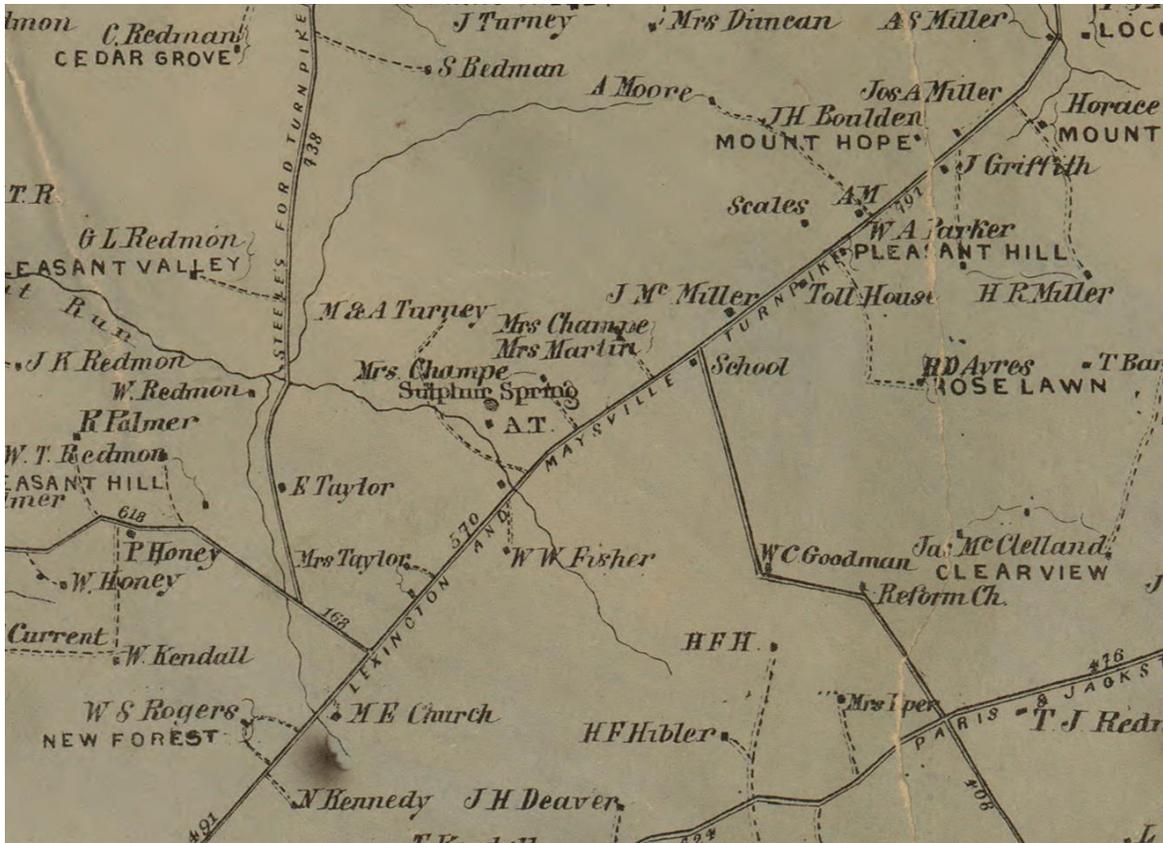


Figure 9-39. Hewitt Map (1861), showing Mrs. Champ, W.W. Fisher (The Grange), and W.S. Rogers (New Forest).

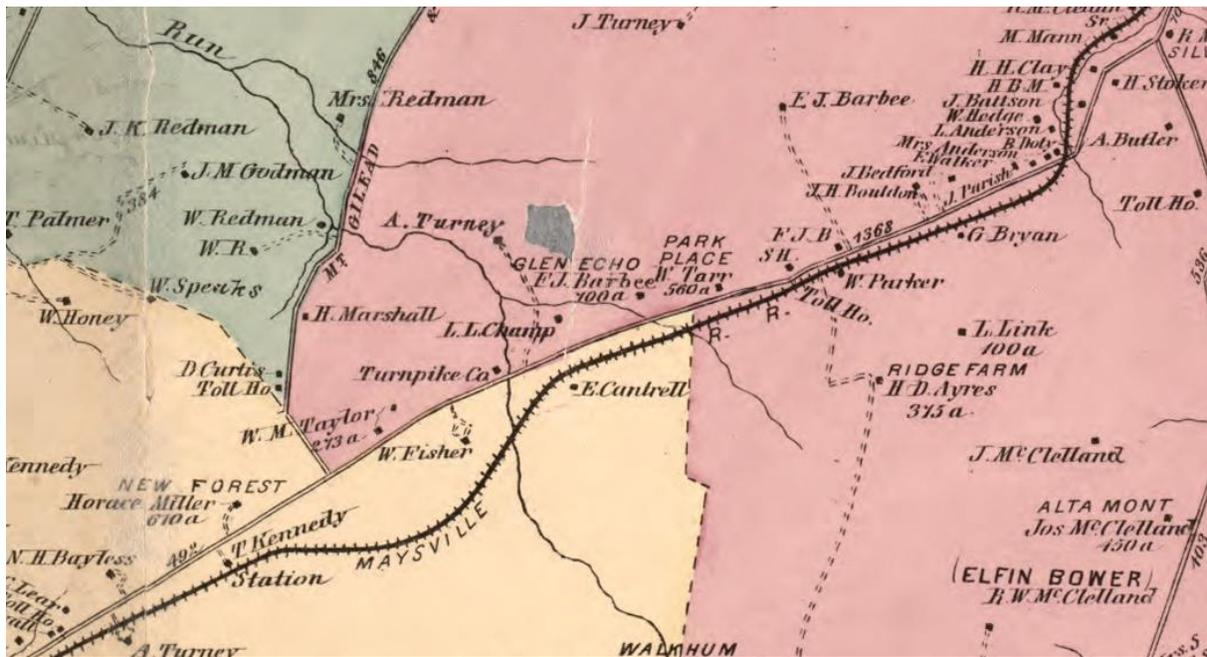


Figure 9-40. Beers Map (1877) Showing L.L. Champ, W. Fisher (The Grange), and Horace Miller (New Forest).

It is unclear when the Thomas and Mary Champ House was abandoned or destroyed. Based on the archaeology, the detached kitchen and cellar were demolished after 1820, but perhaps before the house was abandoned. Mary Champ sold the property to her brother in 1827. There is no archival evidence to indicate she was living anywhere else when she died. Since the Champ House was a log structure and located close to the road, it may have detracted from the effect Thomas Champ want to achieve with his Federal style brick house, pictured in Figure 9-41 as it exists in the present day, and could have been destroyed by Thomas after his father Robert Champ's death in 1828. Based on the nail pattern the house may have deteriorated in place. Based on the lack of artifacts dating after 1840 from the site, the house could have been converted to an outbuilding. After the death of Thomas Champ in 1832, the fortunes of the family declined. The land was divided or sold and slaves were also divided among family members or sold. It is unlikely that Mary Champ's house was used as a slave house under the circumstances. It is also possible that the house was abandoned after Mary Champ left and eventually deteriorated.



Figure 9-41. Thomas Champ House and Outbuildings.

9.6 Comparisons with other Maysville Road Sites

Two other house sites were excavated along with the Thomas and Mary Champ House during Phase II testing along the Maysville Road (Bundy 2006). “Neal’s Old House” (15BB131) was owned by John Neal from 1793 until 1824, when he died (Andrews et al. 2010:19). The other house is referred to as “Eli Currents’ Inn” (15BB133). The property was owned by Thomas Current between 1794 and 1827 when it passed to his son Eli Current (Andrews et al. 2010:29). The information from the Phase II investigations of these sites will be used to compare the construction methods with those of the Champ House.

The two house sites (15BB131 and 15BB133) stripped by a backhoe after a limited number of hand units were excavated. This resulted in considerably less artifacts recovered and limited information on artifact distributions compared to a more extensive test unit excavation during Phase III investigations. The whole nails recovered from the two sites can provide comparative information on construction methods and house type. The condition of the nails can provide information on how the house became part of the archaeological record (Young and Carr 1989).

Table 9-6 and Table 9-7 illustrate similar patterns for both the Neal house and Eli Current's Inn. Both sites have very few wrought nails and Eli Current's Inn had more late cut nails. The Champ House had more early cut nails than the other two sites (Table 9-2, above). The most striking difference in the nail assemblages is the number of 4d nails at the Champ House. At the Champ House 4d nails comprised over 50% of the total nails while at Eli Current and Neal 4d nails comprised about 10% of the total. A log house at Locust Grove had a large number of 4d nails similar to the Champ House (Young and Carr 1989). The 4d nails were used for shingles and clapboard siding (Wagner et al. 1992). The differences in the uses of 4d nails could indicate that the Champ House was a log house while the Neal House and Eli Current's Inn were brace frame buildings. The variation in the use of certain nail sizes may also indicate different building techniques for the same type of structures. The use of 4d nails was not mentioned in other log house studies (Hutslar 1992; Roberts 1996).

Table 9-6. Whole Nail Type and Size from 15BB131.

Nail Type	Condition	Penny Weight								Total	
		3d	4d	5d	6d	7d	8d	9d	10d		
Wrought	Pulled			2	1	1	1				5
	Unaltered				1						1
<i>Wrought Total</i>				2	2	1	1				6
Early Cut	Pulled			1	1	1			1		4
	<i>Early Cut Total</i>				1	1	1		1		4
Late Cut	Clinched		1			1	1	2	1		6
	Pulled	1	1	2	1	1	1	1			8
	Unaltered	1	1	2					1		5
<i>Late Cut Total</i>		2	3	4	1	2	2	3	2		19
Grand Total		2	3	7	4	4	3	4	2		29

Table 9-7. Whole Nail Type and Size from 15BB133.

Nail Type	Condition	Penny Weight													Total
		2d	3d	4d	5d	6d	7d	8d	9d	10d	12d	20d	30d	40d	
Wrought	Pulled					1	1					1	1		4
	<i>Wrought Total</i>						1	1					1	1	
Early Cut	Pulled		1		1	1		1	3	1					8
	Unaltered	1		1											2
<i>Early Cut Total</i>		1	1	1	1	1		1	3	1					10
Late Cut	Pulled	1	2	4	4		4	4	3	1	1				24

Nail Type	Condition	Penny Weight														Total
		2d	3d	4d	5d	6d	7d	8d	9d	10d	12d	20d	30d	40d		
	Unaltered		5			1		1	1	1				1	10	
	<i>Late Cut Total</i>	1	7	4	4	1	4	5	4	2	1			1	34	
	Grand Total	2	8	5	5	3	5	6	7	3	1	1	1	1	48	

The Thomas and Mary Champ House was also unique among the Maysville Road houses in its use of mortar. Large amounts of mortar were recovered from the site. The mortar may have been used as chinking for the logs. The differences in mortar amounts between the sites may represent collection biases by the archaeologists. If the Neal House and Eli Current Inn were log they may have been chinked by other material such as mud and straw, which were more typical materials (Hutslar 1992; Roberts 1996).

The analysis of nail condition for the Neal House and Current Inn show a pattern of a structure that was demolished and material was removed from the site (Young and Carr 1989). The larger number of pulled nails indicate that the wood and nails may have been removed or salvaged after the house was torn down (Figure 9-42). The larger number of unaltered nails indicate that the Thomas and Mary Champ house left in place after it was abandoned. The number of unaltered nails was considerably higher than the model as developed by Young and Carr (1989).

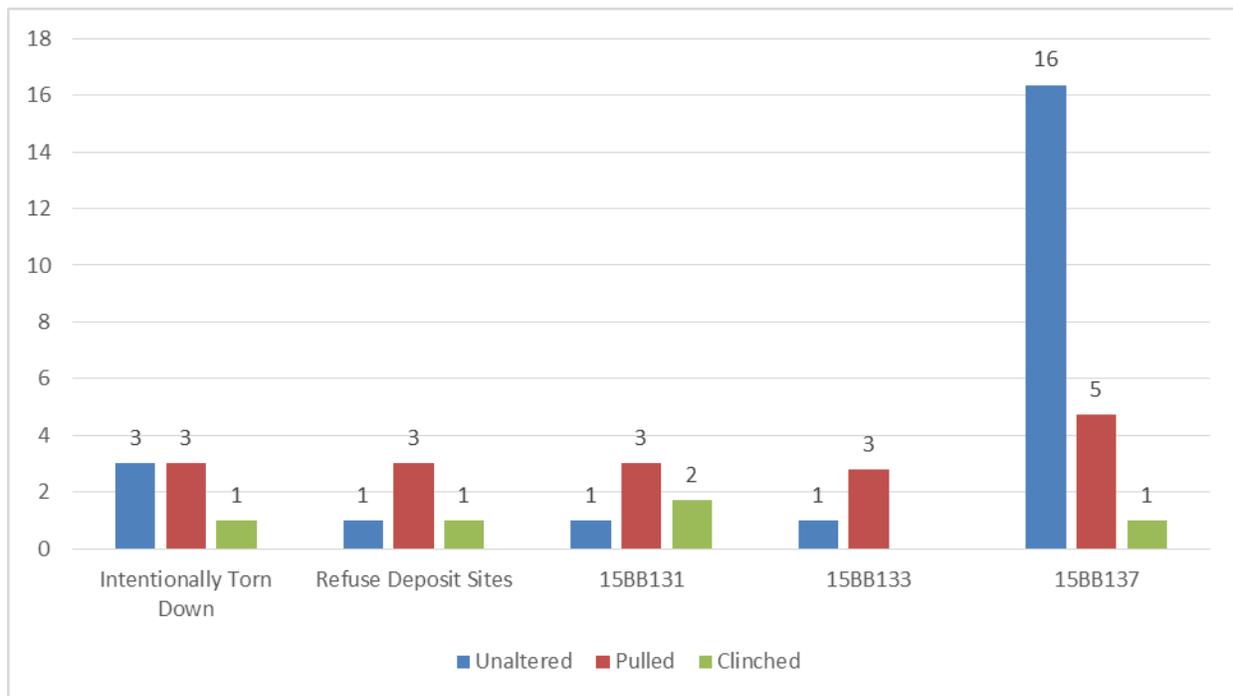


Figure 9-42. Comparison of Idea Nail Ratios with of 15BB137 with 15BB131 and 15BB133.

9.7 Summary

In comparing the Thomas and Mary Champ House layout with the Upland South model, we can see several similarities. According to the Upland South Model, the dwelling should face a path of approach.

We now know, based on feature layout and artifact distributions, that the inn faced southwest with the chimney toward the historic Maysville Road, which is now U.S. 68.

Much of what we can define of the Thomas and Mary Champ House so far mirrors the Upland South model, which can be summarized into several elements including the orientation of the dwelling toward the path of human approach; wood construction for the structure, and recognition of a yard area comprised of the house and considered the female activity area.

At the Thomas and Mary Champ House site, the houselot and yard areas are physiographically defined by the presence of features and the frequencies of functional artifacts. The domestic dwelling was located in the southwestern portion of the site and the house faced the walkway leading from the historic Maysville Road. The northeastern side of the structure appears to have been the main area for domestic activity and discard. The western side and front yard appeared to have been the main area for domestic activities and discard. This main activity area would have been centrally located within the inner yard adjacent the house. Female oriented activities dominated by food preparation and storage activities would have taken place within this inner yard.

Although the Thomas and Mary Champ House adhered to the Upland South model, it was operated as commercial enterprise. The operation of the 200 acre farm during the Thomas Champ occupation went well beyond neighborhood self-sufficiency or household production, yet the spatial organization of the site fits the Upland South model as it has been defined in the literature. This suggests that some characteristics touted as Upland South are not confined to one model but may be typical of many eighteenth and nineteenth century farmsteads throughout the South and Midsouth. Instead of placing farmsteads into such a broad model, terms like agrarian capitalism, commercial farming, self-sufficiency, and household production need to be understood in historical and chronological context to avoid biases generated by romantic and largely mythic assumptions about the sturdy, frugal yeoman farmer, who operates successful business.

After the death of Thomas Champ, Mary Champ lived in the house until at least 1827. Her land holding was reduced to 25 acres after the land was divided among the 10 children or heirs. Unfortunately the deposits at the site could not be separated by different occupations. Twenty-five acres was not enough land for a successful profit making farm operation. It appears that the cellar and detached kitchen were filled in and demolished during the occupation of Mary Champ, perhaps after 1820.

The Thomas and Mary Champ House may have been constructed of logs, while the neighboring houses of John Neal and Eli Current may have been of braced frame construction. The condition of the nails at the Neal and Current sites indicates that the nails and wood from the sites were salvaged. The Champ House nails were unaltered and indicate that material was not salvaged and may have collapsed after abandonment.

The changes in the Champ Farmstead follow the changes in the fortunes of the different generations. Thomas Champ came to Bourbon County with his family and built a log house on 200 acres of land along the Maysville Road. At his death in 1808 the focus of the farmstead shifted to his son, Robert, and his house. The original Thomas Champ House was occupied by Thomas' daughter Mary. She owned 25 acres of the old farmstead. Robert bought Mary's 25 acres in 1827. Robert Champ died in 1828 and the focus of the farm shifted to his son Thomas who lived in a brick house, which is now on the Nation Register. Thomas expanded his land holdings to over 400 acres and owned 17 slaves. The farm was divided among family members when Thomas died in 1832. By 1850 his son Thomas Jefferson Champ, aged 23, owned 212 acres and seven slaves. In 1870 the farm was divided between Thomas Jefferson Champ's

children. His son Levi received the house and 94 acres. The farm left the Champ family in 1911 when Levi's son John K. Champ sold the house and 94.09 acres to James S. Clark.

Section 10 -

Market and Household Production

10.1 Introduction

Many early settlers to Kentucky came because of the need for new, fertile land. Kentucky became the “land of milk and honey” and a place where one could “work and become rich” (Aron 1996). Today, historians continue to debate whether farmers of the early republic were actively engaged in capitalism and raising surplus for sale at local and national markets or whether they were engaged in household production and self-sufficiency (Appleby 1982:833-849; Clark 1979:169-189; Faragher 1985:233-258; Friend 1999; Kulikoff 1993; Lemon 1972; Shammass 1982:247-272; Weiman 1987:627-647). Self-sufficiency is where the members of the household produced much of what they consumed and wore. Historians, however, are limited in that they use incomplete, biased, and often inaccurate documents to address these debates. Archaeology provides a more fruitful inquiry -- material culture. Our contextual approach juxtaposes various types of material culture and documentary data through time and across space, to provide a much richer picture of human behavior in the nineteenth century. In order to understand the archaeology of the Champ Farmstead, it is necessary to examine and describe the early nineteenth century world of which it was part. In this chapter we develop this context, identify the motivation, activities, and measures of success that characterize the period from 1780s to the 1850s. In this way, Champ’s ambitions and choices of material culture can be seen for what they represent - efforts by a farming family to improve their social standing by converting farm produce to consumer wealth on the national and international markets. The Champ’s worked their farm to obtain luxuries and improvements. In this chapter, we will place the Champ household and farmstead within the context of nineteenth century Kentucky and compare his acreage of improved land, his commercial and household production efforts, livestock, and enslaved labor force as assessments with temporally similar farmers in Bourbon County to determine if Thomas Champ and his descendants were successful farmers engaged in commercial production or a marginalized self-sufficient farmer. Comparisons will also be made farms and inns in Bourbon County, Kentucky and other parts of Kentucky.

10.2 Early Farming in Kentucky

In a recent article, Friend (1999) outlines the arguments of two schools of thought; one group contends that early American farms were subsistence oriented and isolated from market networks of the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries until a market revolution upset these agrarian patterns in the early antebellum years. This interpretation promotes the farm as a bulwark of household economy where the ideals of yeoman farming held sway, including notions of independence, local self-sufficiency or household production, accumulation of land to support future generations, and attention to debt and credit relations (Friend 1999:127). The second school maintains that early American farms assumed the role of leadership in the economic formation of a capitalistic nation and that “farmers actively pursued profit as budding capitalists” (Friend 1999:127). According to Winters (1994), “Virtually all farmers participated at some level in the pursuit of profitable ventures. They understood that to realize their ambition to improve their own material well-being and that of their offspring required involvement in a commercial world beyond the farm. Though their success varied widely, they shared a commitment to the business of farming.” In fact, most farmers simultaneously produced for the family and for the market (Bushman 1998).

In Trans-Appalachian lands like Kentucky, only a third of all landholders owned more than thirty acres of land by 1800 (Friend 1999:112). For many emigrants, the ownership of enough land to accommodate a family gave economic freedom and autonomy. Newly arrived settlers hindered by youth, poverty or both were often unable to find the capital necessary to purchase land. Thousands of pioneers migrated to Kentucky in search of cheap land in the 1790s and early 1800s only to lose their dreams in land disputes. By 1800, only 49.2 percent of Kentucky heads of household owned land (Friend 1999:129). Not only was land very expensive but the land distribution was the least egalitarian of the western settlements and “ranked with the more stratified societies” in the east (Friend 1999:129). Land was bought and farmed by wealthy, older, more established residents, while many emigrants were forced to become tenants or laborers. These tenants and laborers were seen as lazy and indolent by many landowners, attitudes that continued to shadow tenants into the twentieth century. Often emigrants would move, leaving their place of tenancy, if an opportunity of land ownership presented itself. Farm ownership represented upward mobility, and was equated with profits, good management, security, and autonomy from creditors (Stine 1990). Farmers, who owned their property, no matter how small the acreage, had higher social status than those farmers who were mortgaged or tenant farmers.

In addition to the economic factors shaping land ownership, cultural behavior influenced farming. Although land had a monetary association as speculators used land as a commodity exchange, it also held a premarket value in that familial and communal obligations required older residents to pass property onto the next generation (Friend 1999). In short, the need for capital to purchase land and create a viable farm militated against attempts by settlers to live solely on household production. Many items that farms could not produce had to be bought or traded. Although tenancy could operate as a bridge to ownership, they were seen as undesirable, unreliable and were encouraged to migrate to cheaper lands in the southwest. Consequently, cash was needed to buy and secure title to the land, as well as to clear forests, construct farm buildings, and the dwelling and to buy livestock. This need for cash hastened the capitalist bent of the agrarian economy of early Kentucky.

According to Friend (1999:138) the production of corn strongly influenced the pursuit of profit. Its production dominated rudimentary commercial or marketing activity in Kentucky and became imbedded in the state’s economy. Although Kentuckians consumed much of their corn crop, money could be made from raising and either bartering or selling corn, grinding corn, marketing cornmeal, and distilling whiskey (Friend 1999; Otto 1989). Although the success of corn cultivation raised expectations of profit among farmers, household production (self-sufficiency) was important to the total success of the farm. Corn was unequaled in household consumption, appearing in some form or another at every meal on most nineteenth century dinner tables. Johnny cake, dodgers, pone, hoecake, ashcake, fritters, hominy, spoonbread, Indian pudding, and hasty pudding are some of the many ways it was consumed as food. Early nutritionists even believed corn to be of higher nutritional value than wheat (Hardemen 1981). Besides household consumption, corn was important to livestock feed. In an endless cycle, horses, mules, and oxen produced corn and corn in turn produced horses, mules, and oxen. Nearly half of the nutritional value of the corn plant was in the plant itself (leaves, stalks, husks, and cobs). Fodder was heavily relied upon to feed livestock (Hardemen 1981; Otto 1989).

In addition to corn, the Bluegrass elite depended on hemp and stock raising for their well-being (Aron 1996:128). The Bluegrass elite had modeled themselves on the Tidewater gentry, but the adoption of a more diversified economy and the distance from Atlantic markets turned the Bluegrass planters away from the Tidewater outlooks.

Together with land acquisition and crop production, livestock was important to the diversified farmer. Livestock held premarket and market value. Not only were livestock important for profit on the open market, but also served as sustenance to the family and labor. Always, attention to household production and the pursuit of profit went hand in hand in the Bluegrass.

The flexibility of mixed or diversified farming enabled farmers to vary the mix of crops in response to price changes and to protect themselves from sudden drops in the price of commodities. Market crops were only a part of this farming system that included other grains, grasses, fruits, vegetables, livestock, and animal products that provided for the household, supported the livestock, paid for local services (i.e., grist milling) and labor, and provided income from sales in local markets (Schlotterbeck 1982). It was not uncommon for local merchants to purchase produce from farmers to sell in their stores and for farmers to sell their produce through the merchant's general store. Such products included apple cider, butter, candles, cloth, honey, distilled whiskey, maple sugar, salted or smoked pork, and tobacco (Winters 1994). Local processors also bought produce from farmers. Sheep wool was sold to a clothing tailor, hemp sold to a rope maker, grain sold to gristmills or breweries, and livestock sold to packing houses and various other processors. Farmers even took advantage of selling produce to people passing through. Drovers herding their livestock to market would have needed feed and pasture (Winters 1994).

Kentucky farmers recognized the profits to be made by participating in these local, regional, national, and European markets. In the early nineteenth century, Kentucky merchants sent foodstuffs, livestock, hemp, tobacco, and cotton on flat boats and later steam boats down river to New Orleans to be sold. Kentucky and other trans-Appalachian states also supplied commodities to both American and European markets. Despite the poor transportation between these states and the eastern coastal states, southern commodities reached the Atlantic states and Western Europe. Tobacco and cotton were popular in the European markets during the early nineteenth century and, except for an oversaturation in the markets twice in the early nineteenth century, they thrived within the foreign market (Otto 1989). Improvements in transportation such as the railroad made trading easier and more profitable. To imply, as some scholars have, that farmers participated in the market only to relieve themselves of surplus products is to disdain the time, effort, and expertise necessary for successful farming (Friend 1999). These surpluses (i.e. whiskey, beeswax, flour, salt, butter, lard, cloth and firewood) were intentionally produced and used as barter or sold for profit, and supported a growing social economy, a dense network of trade and exchange within the local community.

Slavery in the Bluegrass was a significant part of the agricultural economy and significant part of the wealth of the individual farmers. Although diversified farming did not require the large number of workers that tobacco or cotton farmers required in the lower south, it still required the efficient use of slave labor to ensure economic success. The demands of the cultivation cycle under mixed farming required a versatile labor force and skill in farm management if surplus was to be produced for the market. Crop diversity, lack of a single staple crop that monopolized labor, and small labor forces limited specialization of tasks (Schlotterbeck 1982).

On large plantations in the lower south that relied on cotton or tobacco, slaves were more likely to have specialized roles. There would be overseers and the plantation owner may have only limited contact with most of the slaves. On small plantations and farmsteads with fewer than 30 slaves, masters took on a more active role in management by personally supervising the slaves. Knowing the slaves and their individual abilities made for a less formal atmosphere and often less regimented labor. With farmsteads that had less than 10 slaves, masters actually participated in the work, which allowed for even more

interaction between the master and the slave. On these smaller plantations and farmsteads, there were not enough slaves to spare for specialized roles. Instead, most slaves had to be able to perform multiple jobs (Kolchin 1993; Lucas 1992).

Although the South was a slaveholding society, we know that most southerners owned few to no slaves. The few slaveholding as well as non-slaveholding whites lived mostly in rural areas of the South, including Kentucky. In the South, as a whole, slaves made up about one third of the population. Where the slave population comprised nearly half the population of the Deep South, the slave population only comprised one fifth to one third of the population of the Upper South. In Bourbon County, the slave population in 1810 was 19.4%, the slave population was 37.5%, and in 1850 the slave population was 48.8% (U.S. Census, 1810, 1830, 1850).

The household succession and family cycles of the Champ's is important to understand the changes that the Champ family and farm underwent. The role of paternalism was important to family marriages and land inheritance. The marriage of sons depended on parental consent and support. The son needed the means to support a wife which often meant the father had to allow the son to leave the parental homestead and establish a house built on family land designated as the married son's responsibility (Greven 1970:75). The married son would sometimes remain a tenant for his parents until the estate was settled or the son made enough money to buy his own land. Sometimes fathers would give or sell land to their sons (Greven 1970; Lemon 1972).

Typically a man of thirty would be starting a family, with a house and starting a career as an independent farmer or tradesman. Between thirty and forty-five the value of his holdings would increase perhaps two or three fold and continue to increase through his fifties. After sixty, old age, his wealth would decrease and his oldest children would require land and other property (Demos 1986).

The description of women is typically in terms of their roles as wives and mothers. Women are seen as raising children, teaching their daughters, and performing her manifold duties. Besides the more typical domestic duties on a farm women would engage in community service and activities. Women would also be midwives and assist the menfolk in running taverns, inns, and small shops (Demos 1986).

10.3 Production on the Champ Farmstead

In 1787, Thomas Champ and his wife and children moved to Bourbon County, bought a 200 acre tract and built a log cabin (15BB137). Champ had brought his family from Loudoun County, Virginia. The only information about Thomas Champ in Loudoun County was a deed and his father's will. He had leased 152 acres in 1771 and farmed the land (Loudoun County Deed Book H: 297-300). In 1777, Thomas Champ signed over the lease of the 152 acres to John Gunn (LCDB L: 389-391). In 1763, John Champ, Thomas' father, made a will in which he left a roan mare to Thomas (LCWB A: 96-97). John Champ willed possessions to three daughters, Sufy Champ, Elizabeth Jones, and Ann Champ. He also left possessions to his grandson John, son of John Champ, Thomas' brother (LCWB A: 96-97). There was no mention of land owned by the senior John Champ.

Thomas Champ came to Bourbon County with a wife and ten children. The oldest son, Thomas, was born around 1761 and was twenty-six and single, the second son Robert Champ was twenty-two years old and Mary Champ was twelve years old (U.S. Census, 1810, 1820). In 1795, Thomas Champ, the elder, was listed on the Bourbon County Tax Assessment Books in 1795 with three horses, three cattle, and 200 acres of first rate land on Flat Run (BCTA 1795). In November of 1795, Thomas Champ purchased three slaves, a man named Isaac, a woman named Amy and a child (BCDB C: 484). Around the time

Thomas Champ purchased the slaves, his sons, Thomas and Robert, were married and moved into their own houses on the Champ family 200 acres (Bourbon County Circuit Court Case 6129, 1811).

In 1795 Thomas Champ was about 67 years old. His sons Robert and Thomas were married and lived in their own houses on the farm. They were probably farming the land and taking in some of the profits. Mary Champ continued to live in the house and probably take care of her father. Mary Champ probably performed various household chores along with the female slaves. It appears that her mother died at some point, but there is not any surviving records.

As Thomas Champ grew older, Robert Champ probably took on more responsibility on the farm. Thomas, Robert's brother, became more involved in the Baptist Church and moved to Carlisle, Kentucky. All of Thomas' children, except Mary, were married by the time he died.

Thomas Champ died in 1808 at the age of 80. No will was recovered and the land was divided to the heirs based on the outcome of a court case (BCCC Case 6129, 1811). There was an inventory of the estate of Thomas Champ, which provided insights into his activities and socio-economic status (BCWB A: 385-389). According to the inventory Champ had eight cattle, 14 horses, 77 sheep, 15 swine, and 20 geese. There was also a spinning wheel, wool, shoe leather, two beehives, 30 bushels of wheat and a stack of rye. There were also tools that indicated that they had raised tobacco and hemp in the past. Three slaves were also listed, a man and two girls. Four bedsteads, beds and furniture were listed, also with 63 gallons of whiskey in barrels. The number of beds and the amount of whiskey has been used for evidence that Thomas Champ was operating an inn (Andrews et al. 2010, Bundy 2006). However, it was not uncommon for households not associated with inns to have several beds listed and whiskey was used as currency or as barter (Friedlander 1991; McBride et al. 2013; Crowgey 2008; Veach 2013).

After the death of Thomas Champ, there appears to be a disagreement on the distribution of the land to the heirs. In the 1809 tax assessment Robert Champ has 200 acres on Flat Run, which is the Thomas Champ estate, and 100 acres on Smith Run. Robert Champ also has six slaves and 10 horses (Table 10-1). The 1811 tax assessment for Robert Champ has the same amount of acres and number of horses and a total of seven slaves. There is a significant change in 1812 after the circuit court case. Robert Champ has 50 acres on Flat Run and 100 acres on Smith Run. He also has seven slaves and 12 horses. Mary Champ has 25 acres and two horses. Polly Champ has 25 acres and four slaves. Polly is also a nick name for Mary, as is Molly. No other Polly was located in the documents. We are not sure who Polly Champ is. Thomas Champ, the son of Thomas Champ, has 25 acres, 15 slaves, and seven horses (BCTA, 1809, 1811, 1812).

Table 10-1. Bourbon County Tax Assessment Records.

Year	Tax Payer	Acres	Total Slaves	Horses	Cattle	Value
1795	Thomas Champ	200	-	3	2	
	John Neal	150	10	2	14	
1809	Robert Champ	200/100	6	10		
1811	Robert Champ	200/100	7	10		
1812	Robert Champ	50/100	7	12		
	Mary Champ	25		2		
	Polly Champ	25	4			
	Thomas Champ	25	15	7		

Year	Tax Payer	Acres	Total Slaves	Horses	Cattle	Value
1814	Robert Champ	58.5/100	5	14		3,384
	Mary Champ	25.5		4		384
	Polly Champ	25.5	4			1,300
1818	Robert Champ	50/100	8	8		5,300
	Mary Champ	25		2		100
	Polly Champ	25		2		475
1819	Robert Champ	75	6	6		3,620
	Molley Champ	25				550
1821	Robert Champ	75	7	5		3,350
	Thomas Champ	100	5	3		3,420
	Thomas Current	640/105	12	8		19,032
1823	Robert Champ	75	9	5		3,900
	Mary Champ	25				450
	Thomas Champ	127.5	6	4		4,885
	Thomas Current	915*	12	6		21,252
1825	Robert Champ	159	9	6		9,334
	Thomas Champ	127	5	8		8,030
	Eli Current			5		100
1827	Robert Champ	75/127	11	7		6,160
	Eli Current	100	2	6		2,790
1831	Thomas Champ	438*	17	28		10,700
1835	Jefferson Scott	426	22	40	20	32,905
1836	Sarah Champ	105	4	3		5,900
	Louisa Champ	42	5	3		3,700
	GW & HC Champ		12			7,525
	Eli Current	225	10	9		11,229
1839	Eli Current	340	10	15	5	
1848	Eli Current	325	10			17,000
	Sarah Champ	105	1	1		7,300
	Thomas J. Champ	6	4	4		4,220

*Multiple tracts.

In 1808, the Champ Farmstead became centered on the Robert Champ house, located to the north of the original Champ house (15BB137). The original Thomas Champ house became the Mary Champ house (15BB137). There were minor changes in the properties over time until Mary Champ sold her 25 acres to her brother Robert in 1827. Based on court records, Mary Champ was living in Thomas Champ's log house (15BB137). In 1818 Polly Champ has 25 acres and two horses valued at \$475.00. Mary Champ has 25 acres valued at \$100.00. Robert Champ has 50 acres on Flat Run, 100 acres on Smith Run, eight slaves, eight horses, with a total value of \$5,300.00. In 1819 Robert Champ has 75 acres on Flat Run, six slaves and six horses with a total value of \$3,620.00. Molly Champ has 25 acres valued at \$550.00. The

changes in property in 1819 may have been related to the Panic of 1819. Property values increased and banks and creditors were calling in loans, which may have forced the Champs to sell property. In 1827, Mary (Molly) Champ sold her 25 acres to her brother Robert for \$300.00 (BCDB U: 345-347). In 1827, Robert Champ was listed with 127 acres on Stoner Creek, 75 acres on Flat Run, 11 slaves and seven horses with a total value of \$6,160.00 (BCTA 1818, 1819, 1827).

Robert Champ died in 1828. Robert left most of the land to his son Thomas, including the land where Thomas lived. Robert left 105 acres and the house where he lived to his wife Sarah. After Sarah's death the land and house would go to Thomas and after Thomas' death it would go to Thomas Jefferson Champ (BCWB H: 53).

Thomas Champ, son of Robert Champ, expanded the farm considerably. In 1831 tax assessment records Thomas Champ has 435 acres, 17 slaves and 28 horses. The land was in multiple tracts along flat Run and Hinkson Creek. The total value for the property was \$10,700. Thomas built the brick house which is now on the National Register (BB204).

In 1832, Thomas Champ died at the age of 37. This left his wife, mother, and young children as heirs. The oldest son, Robert, received 127 acres. His son, Thomas, would receive the plantation and house, where his grandmother Sarah Champ lived. Thomas willed his wife, Louisa, the house and plantation where she lived. He also wished his wife would finish the house in a decent manner (BCWB J: 82-83).

In the 1836 tax assessment, Sarah Champ was listed with 105 acres, four slaves, and three horses. The total value was \$5,500.00. Louisa Champ was listed with 42 acres, five slaves, and three horses, with a total value of \$3,700.00. She was also listed and the guardian for George W. and Henry C. Champ. They had 12 slaves and property with a total value of \$7,525.00.

In 1848, Sarah Champ was listed with 105 acres with a value of \$5,000.00, a slave values at \$100.00, and one horse. Thomas J. Champ was listed with Sarah Champ. He has six acres worth \$1000.00, four slaves worth \$400.00, and four horses. The total value for Sarah Champ's property was \$7,300.00 and the total value for Thomas J. Champ's property was \$4,220.00.

In the 1850 U.S. Census of Agriculture, Thomas J. Champ was listed with 212 acres. He raised 40 bushels of wheat, 1,000 bushels of corn, 200 bushels of oats, two bushels of peas/beans, and 10 bushels of potatoes. Champ owned six horses, five cows, four other cattle, and 30 swine. Three hundred pounds of butter and one ton of hay were produced.

Thomas J. Champ died in 1853 at age 26. In 1870 the Thomas J. Champ estate was divided between his son Levi L. Champ and his daughter Sarah T. Champ (Bundy 2006; BC Estate Settlements G: 555).

In the 1880 U.S. Census of Agriculture, Levi L. Champ owned about 50 acres of tilled land and about 40 acres of meadows or pastures valued at \$6,850 He paid \$225 in wages and farm production was valued at \$1,100. He owned two horses, six cows, 10 other cattle, 67 sheep, 21 swine, and 225 chickens all values at \$1,000. The farm produced 600 bushels of corn, 775 bushels of wheat, and 10 bushels of potatoes. Six hundred pounds of butter and 20 pounds of hay were produced. There were also 50 apple trees (Bundy 2006).

Levi Champ died before 1900 and left his estate to his three children. John K. Champ bought the two-thirds interest from his siblings, Harry L. Champ and Leila B. Smith in 1907 for \$7,840.82 (Bundy 2996; BCDB 89: 617-618; 78: 402,404). In 1910, John K. Champ was living alone on the farm and he sold the farm to James Clarke in 1911 (U.S. Census 1910; BCDB 95: 436). The Champ's had owned the property for 124 years and six generations.

Based on the tax and census records Thomas Champ was a successful farmer with a two hundred acre farm. According to Soltow (1983) Champ was in the middling class and a member of the elite, the top 30 percent. His son Robert continued farming the Champ property. In 1795 Thomas Champ had 200 acres and three horses. In 1812 Robert Champ had probably increased the value of the farm with 150 acres, seven slaves and 12 horses. At this time Mary and Polly Champ, combined, had 50 acres four slaves and two horses. By 1825 Robert Champ's farm was worth \$9,335.00 and included 159 acres, nine slaves and six horses. In 1831, a year before he died, Thomas Champ's farm was worth \$10,700.00 and included 438 acres, 17 slaves, and 28 horses. Mary Champ's property was worth \$450.00 and included 25 acres.

Thomas Champ's inventory of 1808 indicates that he was involved in market production and a household production that resembles the Upland South model. The crops mention in the inventory include rye and wheat. Tools related to agricultural production include a grinding stones, plow, mill stones, hoes, spinning wheel, a tobacco horn, and a hemp brake. The 63 gallons of whiskey in barrels was probably for consumption and barter. The 11 pounds of shoe leather was probably for market production and household production. The livestock production was focused on pigs. Other animals included cattle, horses, geese, sheep, and bees.

After the death of Thomas Champ, Mary Champ lived in his house and owned a 25 acre tract and may have had access to another 25 acre tract based on tax records. Unfortunately, there was no inventory of her estate recorded after her death and tax records and census records are limited. While Robert Champ reestablished the family farm and his son Thomas expanded it, Mary Champ's economic status declined. In 1823 Mary Champ had 25 acres of land, no slaves and no horses with a total value of \$450.00 (Table 10-1, above). Also in 1823 Robert Champ and his son Thomas were probably classed as middling farmers. Robert had 75 acres, nine slaves and five horse and Thomas had 127.5 acres six slaves and four horses.

Kitchen group, personal group, and clothing group artifacts are typically purchased rather than made on the farm. The kitchen group artifacts are the most numerous and the most useful in looking at economic status differences and temporal changes. A more detailed description of the ceramics can be found in Section 11. The ceramic assemblage consists of plates, bowls, and tea sets of different types and styles. The manufacture and purchase of the ceramics indicates the rise of a consumer society (Martin and Garrison 1997; Martin 1994, 1996). The presence of the ceramics in the Champ assemblage not only indicates their interaction in the market economy but indicates economic status and class position (Warde 1997). The other artifacts, including buttons, smoking pipes, and pocket knives, also indicate that the Champs were involved in the market economy.

Faunal and botanical remains recovered from the Champ farmstead reflect the Southern tradition and Upland South Pattern of a reliance on pork and corn (Hilliard 1972). The faunal assemblage (see Section 8) consisted of pig, cattle, sheep/goat, horse, rabbit, squirrel, chicken, boney fishes, and other animals in small numbers. Pig bones were the most numerous followed by chicken, cattle, squirrel, and sheep/goat (see Table 8-1). The Thomas Champ inventory indicates that there were significant numbers of pigs, sheep, geese, and cattle on the farm. Wool was also listed on the inventory.

The hypothetical annual production of an average farm of 125 acres in Chester County, Pennsylvania provides an idea of how much livestock would provide subsistence and profit (Lemon 1972:152). The farm had seven head of cattle, three to four horses, eight pigs, 10 sheep (which provided 30 lb. of wool), and one to two bee hives. Thomas Champ had 13 horses, 77 head of sheep, 15 pigs, 11 head of cattle, 20 head of geese, and two bee hives (Figures 3-1 to 3-7). Champ probably used more pigs and less cattle for household production than the farms in Pennsylvania which suggests he had a surplus of horses, cattle, geese, and

wool. The surpluses could have been sold for profit. The German and Scottish immigrants in Chester County used rye to make whiskey (Lemon 1972).

The grain crop production is more difficult to determine due to limited archival and archaeological data. The inventory mentions wheat and rye, but does not have an amount. It does not mention corn, which should have been the major grain crop. Corn would have been the main source of food for the livestock and a main source of grain and flour for the Champs (Hardeman 1981; Hilliard 1972). Wheat and rye would have been raised for market production as could surplus corn (Gray 1941; Friend 1999).

Wheat, rye, corn, and other European grains we typically consumed as flour and do not show up in the archaeological record in this form (Holt 1991). The grain could have been milled at a commercial mill or an area away from the house. It is also possible that the European grains were used for the market and not for household production.

Another indication of market participation is the presence of slaves (Baptist 2014; Dunaway 2003). Thomas Champ bought three slaves in 1795 and in the 1808 inventory “one negro man and two girls” are listed with a value of \$650.00. Slaves were important in making a profit and in the development of capitalism in the United States (Baptist 2014).

The 1808 inventory also listed agricultural related tools that provide information on market and household production. Typical farming tools listed include a sickle, plows, hand mill stones, and two hoes. Two tools on the inventory are related to cash crop production: a hemp brake and a tobacco horn. Hemp and tobacco production were for the market and often involved slave labor (Hopkins 1951).

10.4 Production on Other Maysville Road Sites

Three other sites along the Old Maysville Road were excavated during the Phase II investigations (Bundy 2006). Archival research by Bundy (2006) and Andrews et al. (2010) will be used to compare these sites with Champ’s Inn. The sites from the Phase II investigations are Neal’s Old Place (15BB131), an early farmstead, site 15BB132, an early homestead and later a possible tenant or slave house, and Eli Current’s Inn (15BB133).

John Neal bought 66 acres on the Limestone Road from James Otley (BCDB M: 255). In the 1793 tax assessment, Neal was listed as owning three slaves, two horses, and 13 cattle. Two years later Neal has 10 slaves, two horses, 14 cattle and 150 acres of first rate land (BCTA 1795). In 1822, Neal had 157 acres on Stoner Creek, eight slaves and 12 horses (BCTA 1822).

John Neal died in 1824 and Jackey S. Hitt bought 160 acres from the Neal estate in 1829. Hitt had five different tracts in Bourbon County, including a town lot in Paris. Hitt owned nine slaves and 26 horses (Andrews et al. 2010; BCTA 1829). Hitt sold 134 acres of the tract to Samuel M. Hibler in 1842 (Bundy 2006; BCDB 43: 242).

Based on the artifact assemblage for site 15BB131 it is doubtful that Samuel Hibler lived there. It is not known if a tenant or slave may have lived there after John Neal. The house is drawn on the 1827 map by Darnaby and Ellis and labeled “Neal’s Old Place.” It is not known if it was occupied at the time.

Information on Site 15BB132 is even more limited than for Neal’s Old Place (Andrews et al. 2010; Bundy 2006). According to Andrews et al. (2010) 15BB132 is the remains of William Scott’s homestead. He purchased the property in 1820 and died in 1822. Scott left the estate to his son, Jefferson Scott, who built a brick house that the New Forest Farm evolved around. After 1824, site 15BB132 could have been used as

slave or tenant housing. It is also possible that site 15BB132 was built by an earlier land owner (Andrews et al. 2010).

According to the tax assessment records, William Scott owned a fair amount of property and was apparently involved in raising horses. In 1821, Scott owned a 114 acre tract and a 186 acre tract on Stoner Creek. He owned seven slaves and 55 horses. The next year, Scott owned 235 acres, eight slaves and 125 horses.

Jefferson Scott may have reached a peak in his wealth in Bourbon County in 1835 and there was a decline in 1850. He owned 426 acres in 1835. He also owned 22 slaves, 40 horses, 20 cattle, with a total value of \$32,905.00. In 1850, Scott owned 395 acres, eight slaves, eight horses and one mare, a pleasure carriage and a piano. The total value of his property in 1850 was \$22,200.00 (BCTA 1835, 1850).

Jefferson Scott sold New Forest farm to William Rogers in 1851, who then sold it to Horace Miller in 1870. In 1851, William Rogers owned 497 acres, 19 slaves, 17 horses, 30 cattle, a pleasure carriage, and a piano. The total value of the property was \$26,360. In 1880, Horace Miller owned 300 acres of tilled land and 310 acres of meadows or pastures valued at \$61,000. He paid \$1,200.00 in wages to 52 “colored” laborers. He owned one horse, six mules, six ox, five cows, 55 other cattle, 400 sheep, 20 swine, and 46 chickens. He grew 5,000 bushels of corn, 1600 bushels of wheat, and had 200 apple trees (Andrews et al. 2010; BCTA 1851; U.S. Census of Agriculture 1880).

The third site from the Phase II investigations is Eli Current’s Inn, 15BB133. The site is located on the 1827 Darnaby and Ellis map and is labeled Eli Currant’s Inn. Thomas Current initially owned the land in 1821 and gave a 105 acre tract to his son Eli in 1827. In 1822, Thomas Current owned 640 acres on Stoner Creek valued at \$18 per acre and 105 acres valued at \$25 per acre and a town lot valued at \$500. He also had a tavern license, 12 slaves and eight horses. In 1839, Eli Current owned 340 acres, 10 slaves, 15 horses, and five cattle (Bundy 2006; BCDB T: 189; BCTA 1822, 1839).

Based on the archival and archaeological data, Neal’s Place (15BB131) and Eli Currant’s Inn (15BB133) were contemporary with the Champ Farmstead. John Neal owned 157 acres eight slaves and 12 horses, which made him a successful middling farmer. Eli Current owned 340 acres, 10 slaves and 12 horses, which also made him a successful middling farmer (Soltow 1983). Ceramic analysis (see Section 11) indicates both Neal and Current were part of the developing consumer society. Parts of the faunal and botanical assemblages from the Neal, Current and Champ sites are shown in Table 10-2 and Table 10-3.

Table 10-2. Faunal Assemblages (from Bundy 2006).

	15BB131 %NISP	15BB133 %NISP	15BB137 %NISP
Indeterminate Large Mammal	19.2	34.3	63.3
Pig	14.1	22.9	11.3
Cattle	3.1	6.6	1.1
Birds	24.3	18.1	9.8
Chicken	2.7	0.8	2.1
Sheep/Goat	0.5		1.1
Deer	0.2		
Boney Fish	0.2		

Table 10-3. Botanical Assemblages (Phase II from Bundy 2006).

	15BB131 (Phase II)	15BB133 (Phase II)	15BB137 (Phase III)
Corn	X		X
Walnut	X		X
Groundcherry		X	X
Squash			X
Weeds	X	X	X
Wheat	X		
Elderberry	X		

The faunal material in Table 10-2 is from the Phase II investigations. The Eli Current (15BB133) and Champ (15BB137) assemblages are dominated by pig while the Neal (15BB131) assemblage is dominated by bird. The Current assemblage had a higher percentage of cattle, which may be related to his higher wealth during the later stage of the site occupation. The high number of indeterminate large mammals in the Champ assemblage may be related to post-depositional processes.

The botanical material in Table 10-3 is from the Phase II investigations from 15BB131 and 15BB133 and the Phase III investigations from 15BB137. The Phase II assemblages were limited so the material was compared based on presence and absence of plant species and groups. All of the sites had weeds. The Eli Current Inn (15BB133) had a rather limited assemblage with only weeds and groundcherry. The Neal site (15BB132) had corn and also wheat. The lack of corn and other grain crops at 15BB133 is interesting, but it is difficult to draw and conclusions (see Section 7).

10.5 Discussion

Thousands of families like the Champs came to Kentucky after the Revolutionary War. Kentucky was thought of or advertised as “the land of milk and honey” or the “New Canaan.” People came for the opportunity to buy land, although many became tenants and laborers. The dream to buy land usually meant being a farmer. Being a successful farmer involved having enough land to provide for his family, either to provide a surplus to be able to expand or to allow children enough land to be successful. Farmers in Bourbon County in the late eighteenth century and early nineteenth century were involved in diversified agriculture. They grew several crops, the most important was corn, and raised livestock, including cattle, sheep, and swine. In order to operate farms in the hundreds of acres successfully farmers needed large families, hired farmhands, or slaves. The Champ family owned the farm for six generations, while the other farms, discussed above, were owned by no more than two generations. Household succession and family cycles were very important in the changes of the Champ farm.

The inventory left by the Thomas Champ estate provides information on his farming and household activities (BCWB C: 385-389). The Champ’s raised corn and wheat, which was typical for farmers in Kentucky and was present in the agricultural census for the farmers along the Maysville Road. Champ also raised swine, cattle, horses, and sheep. The number of sheep, the presence of wool and a spinning wheel in the inventory, suggest that they were raised for wool rather than meat. The presence of shoe leather, tobacco knife, and hemp brake indicate that the Champs were producing goods for the market as well as for home. The inventory also provides information on the common household goods. The inventory listed furniture such as chairs, cupboard, chest, bedsteads, bed, and furniture. There were also pots, Dutch oven,

flat iron, and various tools. Sixty-three gallons of whiskey in barrels, which was valued at \$23.62, was also listed. Thomas Champ had three slaves, listed as one Negro man and two girls and valued at \$650.

At the time of his death in 1808, Thomas Champ was 80 year old. He was probably too old to actively farm his property. Farmers often had their sons farming as tenants (Greven 1970; Lemon 1972). In the Bourbon County Circuit Court case (6837, 1811), the property for both Thomas Champ and Robert Champ indicate that they had their own houses on their respective lots. This indicates that they were probably involved in farming their father's farm.

Champ's Farmstead provided an opportunity to study the changes in the property over six generations. Thomas Champ brought his wife and children to Bourbon County in 1787. Thomas Champ was 59 years old and his son Thomas was 26 and his son Robert was 22. Both Thomas and Robert were married in the 1790s and established their own households on their father's land (Bourbon County Circuit Court Case 6129, 1811). They were both probably farming the land as tenants. Thomas Champ bought three slaves in 1795, when he was 67 years old. Since Thomas Champ was advancing in age, he may have needed help for farming and household chores. All of Thomas Champ's daughters, except Mary, were married. Apparently Mary stayed with her father to keep house and take care of him. She received the house and 25 acres of land after the court settlement.

Mary Champ lived in the original Champ house (15BB137) for at least 19 years after the death of her father, Thomas Champ. There was no archival information on how she farmed the property or otherwise made a living. The archaeological deposits, although mixed from her occupation and her father's occupation of the site, indicate she followed the traditional Southern foodways, which was based on pork and corn. For part of the time Mary Champ had slaves and horses, which would have allowed her to farm the 25 or 50 acres and provide enough at least for household production. Towards the end of her occupation of the house, she no longer had slaves or horses, which could have made household production and market production difficult.

Robert Champ attempted to reestablish the family farm after the court settlement. He bought several of the tracts, including Mary Champ's tract in 1827. Robert died in 1828 leaving property to his wife Sarah, his son Thomas, and his grandson Thomas Jefferson Champ (BCWB H: 53). Thomas Champ expanded the farm and had 438 acres, 17 slaves and 28 horses by 1831 (BCTA 1831). He also built the Federal style house, which still stands today. Thomas' son Thomas Jefferson Champ inherited the property and was listed in the U. S. Census records with 200 acres in 1850.

10.6 Summary

In this section we have used census data and archival documents to understand the changes and developments Champ's property and to compare it to other farmsteads and plantations along the Maysville Road and to determine if Thomas Champ and his descendants were successful farmers engaged in commercial production or marginalized self-sufficient farmers.

The documentary evidence indicated significant changes in the organization of the Champ property from generation to generation. Thomas Champ, the elder, was a successful middle class farmer with 200 acres of good farm land, cattle pigs, and sheep. He also raised corn, wheat, and rye. He practiced diversified farming using family members as tenants and later, slave labor to have a successful farmstead operation. Champ's farmstead compared favorably to John Neal's farm, which consisted of 150 acres, 10 slaves and 14 cattle. Neal also was engaged in diversified farming, but used slaves rather than a large family to maintain a successful farmstead operation.

Eli Current also improved his property going from 105 acres and one slave in 1827 to 340 acres, 10 slaves, 15 horses and five cattle in 1839. Based on the tax assessments, Current was also involved in a diversified farming strategy and slaves were important for his successful farming operation. No other archival evidence, other than the 1827 Darnaby and Ellis map, indicated that there was an inn on the property.

The original Thomas Champ farmstead was divided among the 10 heirs. Robert Champ purchased the 25 acre tracts from several of the heirs, including Mary Champ in 1827. Robert's son Thomas expanded the farm and had 438 acres, 17 slaves, and 28 horses. The Thomas Champ farmstead (BB204) had expanded to the limits of the middling class (Table 10-1). Mary Champ received 25 acres from her father and was listed on the tax assessments as having two horses. She was listed on the 1820 U. S. Census. The census listed two free white females over 45 years of age, one free white female under 10 years of age and one free white female between 10 and 15 years of age. This was the only time Mary Champ was listed in the census.

After 1808, the Thomas and Mary Champ House was no longer a middling class farm. The definition for the middling farm is 100 acres (Soltow 1989). In the 1812 tax records Mary Champ had two horses and in 1814 Polly Champ had four slaves. By 1823 Mary Champ no longer had any horses or slaves. It was difficult to separate the archaeological deposits for the Thomas Champ and Mary Champ occupations. Pig was the dominate species recovered from the site, which reflects the Upland South subsistence pattern and appeared to be part of the diet of both Thomas and Mary Champ (see Section 8). The tax records suggest that Mary Champ may have been a more marginalized self-sufficient farmer, but the archaeological record is not clear.

The three farms along the Old Maysville Road were successful middling farms and were involved with both household and market production. All three followed the Upland South Pattern in food production with a focus on pork and corn. After the death of Thomas Champ, the farm was continued by his son Robert and then his grandson Thomas. Robert and Thomas lived in their own house on the original Champ farm to the north and northeast of Thomas Champ's original house (15BB137). Mary Champ continued to live in the original Champ log house until at least 1827, when she sold the property to her brother Robert. Mary Champ's 25 acre farm was not considered a middling farm. The lack of archival information and the nature of the archaeological data it is difficult to determine if Mary Champ was involved in anything more than household production.

Section 11 -

Consumer Behavior

11.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter we have presented a documentary comparison of Thomas Champ and later Mary Champ to other family member and neighbors and to other sites explored through archaeology. Census records and historic documents pertaining to Thomas Champ, his family, and his neighbors in Bourbon County indicate that he was a moderately successful farmer. After Thomas Champ's death, Robert Champ bought several of the family tracts to continue farming. Mary Champ received Thomas Champ's house and 25 acres. Based on tax records Mary Champ may have been using another 25 acre tract from a sibling. Her wealth declined significantly from that of her father and her brother. Examinations of the ceramics suggest that the Champs followed the current styles in ceramics during their occupation of the site. Like the previous chapter, our approach is contextual and comparative and draws on a wide range of historic and archaeological records.

11.2 Archaeology and the Consumer Revolution

A social revolution was well underway with the emergence of a large, newly formed middle class and the redefining of gentility in Post-Revolutionary War America. It was a time that saw a domestic revolution as the commoditization of labor, and changing ideas about the role of women acted together to restructure the American family, and the burgeoning middle class. Historians, economists, sociologists, and archaeologists debate the origins and trajectory of these sweeping changes. The effects on people like the Champs are complex and syncretistic. Circumstances combined so that with the emergence of the middle class there arose a pervasive materialism, and a universal ambition for personal advancement (Persons 1973). The disappearance of hereditary privilege coupled with the diffusion of knowledge and social mobility in post-Revolutionary War America fueled what Person's called "The gospel of success and the myth of upward mobility (1973:6-7)." Thomas Champ bought the 200 acre farm in 1787 and farmed it with his family until his death in 1808. Robert Champ and his son, Thomas continued the farm and eventually built a federal style house that reflects in material culture the notions of success, wealth and class, and upward mobility. For Mary Champ, her landholdings were the house and 25 acres, and perhaps an additional 25 acres. How the early settler, Thomas Champ, and a single woman, Mary Champ, may have participated in this consumer revolution in Bourbon County, Kentucky is the focus of this chapter.

Archaeologists have always used material culture as their dominant avenue of inquiry. Material culture studies have become an increasingly important and viable area of study over the past 20 years. Approaches to material culture studies have been analytical, anthropological, and historical in scope and are focused on exploring the lives and experiences of many groups, and individuals omitted from traditional historical and cultural narratives and archives. Two trends have emerged that are shaping historical archaeological inquiry: the first trend is the notion that material objects function as a kind of text. What functions did these material objects perform and what behaviors did they enable? Historians and anthropologists read the meanings of objects and place them in a context, in order to decipher their messages. The second trend in material culture studies is an emphasis on developing a contextual understanding of human behavior (Martin and Garrison 1997). Martin and Garrison (1997) suggest that cultural meaning depends on the context in which social relationships occur; the meanings of things

cannot be gleaned from discrete, observable phenomena but as connected patterns of behavior. A contextual approach unites material culture and documentary data through time, across space, to explore new avenues of inquiry -- particularly, what meanings objects may have had to those who made, purchased, used, and witnessed them (Martin 1996:74). For example, to study the lives and households of Thomas Champ and Mary Champ using their material culture, we developed a contextual approach that allows us to show how larger social trends of the late eighteenth to early nineteenth centuries affected the production, marketing, value, use, and discard of material objects, particularly ceramics. In this way, we will not only document Thomas Champ's and Mary Champ's occupations, but illuminate social behavior in late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries Kentucky in general.

In studying the rise of a consumer society, economic and culture historians have identified several catalysts. One of these, social emulation, has received the most attention historically. However, social emulation in consumerism, while useful and important, is not an accurate description of consumer behavior or material culture. In many disciplines, including anthropology, material culture studies have concentrated on defining differences between regions and on tracing the spread of amenities from one status group to another. Material goods not only served as markers of status, but as socially important symbols or props in defining relationships and performing everyday social rituals (Martin and Garrison 1997; Martin 1994, 1996; Matthaei 1982; and Roth 1961).

Recently, attention has shifted from producer centered explanations of social change to an emphasis on cultural meaning and symbolic communication (Fitts 1999; Martin and Garrison 1997; Martin 1994; Yamin and Matheny 1996). The portrayal of consumer culture and consumer society, as a world of signs and images challenges materialistic approaches that concentrate on labor and production, consumption as a function of production, or as a corollary of class position (Warde 1997:7). In our study of the Champ's material culture we adopted a contextual, symbolic perspective as it appears to better explain the Champ's consumer behavior within the household and the community as an aspiring member of the middle class.

Consumer decisions are directly influenced by concern with the symbolic meaning of goods beyond any consideration of cost. The sociological elaboration of this notion has typically been concerned with the processes of distinction and exclusion, so that an impression of social superiority can be conveyed through the purchase and display of expensive goods (Warde 1997:97). Symbolic class differentiation can also be conveyed through the manipulation and use such symbols that imply good taste or affiliation with knowledgeable or influential social groups. Membership in such groups is acquired by buying the necessary props (material goods) and by performing the correct behavioral scripts (manners). As Martin has maintained it is not only a question of the have and have-nots but the know and the know-nots (Martin 1994, 1996).

The cultivation of aesthetic sensibilities and the promotion of civilized modes of conduct or manners are elements that differentiate and promulgate social groups or classes (Warde 1997:113). Individuals used a variety of strategies for economic security and to transmit privileges to their children, such as education. Education, in the home or in separate institutions was used to perpetuate the genteel modes of conduct that defined the middle class from other classes (Ryan 1981). Throughout the nineteenth century middle class values were promulgated in advice literature that outlined the correct behaviors for every instance. Class/wealth differences constitute the elements of a hierarchical system of taste or manners that intrinsically exhibit social prestige. As one author maintains, however, "While processes of distinction almost always depend upon excluding others, and though this is largely achieved in complicated ways by symbolic means, cost still remains one of the ways of denying access and achieving

the distinction of exclusivity (Warde 1997:124).” Through symbolic means and cost, ceramics and dining behavior can exhibit and reinforce a household's membership within a particular social group, as well as make strong statements about individuality (personal taste), and social superiority (inter-group distinctions). Class is not just a matter of money, but also style, aesthetic sensibilities, fashionable manners, and knowledge of the correct situational behaviors. Style relates to visual appearances and involves the use of stylized items to express in an aesthetic manner, group membership (Warde 1997:184). Fashionable manners act as scripts that allow individuals to enter or participate in social groups or particular lifestyles. As long as the correct text to go with the appropriate props is known one can claim and maintain membership in a chosen group. However, attempts at self-representation will fail without a shared understanding of the symbolic significance of particular attributes of material possessions. This shared understanding is evident in literature of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. By the eighteenth century individuals believed that, the self is built through consumption and that consumption expresses the self (Campbell 1983:288 in McCracken 1988:20) suggesting the importance that material culture played and plays in class formation, membership, and negotiation.

Thomas Champ was a middling farmer, he had a land grant of 150 acres, in Loudoun County, Virginia in the early 1770s and then moved his family to Bourbon County to improve his condition. He bought 200 acres and raised corn, wheat, rye, and sometimes hemp and tobacco. He also had cattle, horses, swine, and sheep. In 1795, he bought three slaves. When Thomas Champ died his property was divided among his ten children. Mary Champ received the farmhouse and 25 acres. This would have been a significant decrease in income in terms of farming. Tax assessment records indicate a decline in wealth over time for Mary Champ. Owning a farm of 25 or 50 acres placed Mary Champ in the lower 50 percent in the early nineteenth century (Soltow 1983). In rural Kentucky during the early nineteenth century land was important measure of class and success. Cultural capital was also sought after and obtained, legitimizing his family's membership in a class that wealth alone could not guarantee.

To participate in this form of social interaction and class affiliation, nineteenth century custom was beginning to call for certain proscribed behaviors including complex dining rituals, gender differentiation, and the knowledge and presentation of genteel manners. Many recent scholars have focused on the cult of domesticity, the related concept of gentility, and class distinction or formation as topics of study. Social historians have used probate records, etiquette literature, and even fiction to shed light on these complicated topics (Williams 1987; Kassin 1987; Wall 1994a, 1994b). Although this literature is biased, when combined with archaeology, it provides compelling arguments for class. Drawing on this literature as well as archaeology recent efforts in New York City by Fitts (1999) and Wall (1999) have examined these issues. Questions concerning middle class membership, consumer behavior, and the cult of domesticity have been examined in mid-century rural America (Andrews et al. 2004). The study of the Champ house will look at a late eighteenth and early nineteenth site to see how Thomas Champ and Mary Champ used material culture to define themselves and maintain and create class boundaries.

In this chapter we use a contextual and symbolic approach to show how Thomas Champ and Mary Champ used material culture to define their membership in the middle class. Ceramics are used to show the economic status of the household and show if the Champ's participation in aspects of genteel dining. These activities suggest that the Champs were actively participating the consumer revolutions of the nineteenth century.

11.3 Ceramics and the Study of Consumerism

Much research has been conducted using ceramics. In a recent article, Klein (1991) outlined four models that have been used in historic archaeological research to provide a context or organizational framework for ceramic analysis. These models are the status-oriented model, the accessibility model, the ceramic market model, and the gender model. Klein (1991) and others (Martin 1994, 1996; Miller 1991; Miller et al. 1994; Wall 1994a) have concluded that these models are intertwined and virtually impossible to separate cause from effect in any meaningful way. Because these models are systemic they will be considered together. The status-oriented model has been used most frequently with variable results. The model maintains that the economic level and/or social affiliation of a household will determine the quality and quantity of ceramics purchased (Shephard 1987). Households in the upper income and social categories will purchase and use more expensive ceramics, while those in lower categories can only afford the cheaper ceramics. The household is usually the unit measured and includes other distantly related or unrelated individuals that would be living in the home and contributing to ceramic purchase, use, and discard. Using the household as the starting point takes into account extended family relationships that characterized families of different ethnic groups and social class in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. The status-oriented model is heavily entwined with the accessibility model and the ceramic market model. Issues of ceramic availability, cost, production, and consumer choice are bound together in what one scholar has called a Gordian knot. For this analysis, all three aspects will be taken into account together within the social and economic status discussion. Frequently, ceramic cost indices developed by Miller (1980, 1991) are used in discussions of economic strata or class (Adams and Boling 1989; Wall 1991, 1994a, 1994b; Spencer-Wood 1987). Ceramic forms, including the presence of sets, and serving vessels are also important when considering issues of status and economic level (McBride and Esarey 1995; Otto 1980a, 1984; Miller et al. 1994; Wall 1991, 1994a, 1994b). Statements concerning economic cost and status/class are complex ones mingled with issues of accessibility of goods and consumer choice.

The gender model discussed by Klein (1991) was developed by Wall (1987) and involves the domestic revolution that occurred in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. Historians have identified the period, 1780-1850 as a time of change in the structure of the American family (cf. Ryan 1981; Coontz 1988). After the American Revolution, work for men and women was family-based and agrarian in nature. By the early nineteenth century, however, the country's economy began to change resulting in a large middle class that was becoming increasingly stratified. In cities and towns, wage labor began to replace family labor and men began to leave home to work. The urban family became at least two spheres, according to Wall (1994a, 1994b) one in which the male head of household devoted his time to earning a living outside the family, and one in which the married women's work remained tied to the home. Specifically, Wall (1987, 1994a) identifies an elaboration through time in the vessels purchased and used at meals. The elaboration is reflected in an increase in decorated styles, how much decoration, the relative cost of ceramic vessels, and the use of contrasting dinnerware sets in a single household (Martin 1994, 1996; Wall 1987, 1994a, 1994b). Etiquette books of the day made it clear that women were to cultivate domestic piety at home while their husbands were to face and conquer the competitive world of commerce (Douglas 1975:57). Women became increasingly responsible for the raising of children and the keeping of the household. Instead of community values being instilled in children, values became more class based. This equivalency of the family and the women's sphere, more pronounced in the middle class became popularized in the literature of the early nineteenth century as the cult of domesticity (Coontz 1988; Fitts 1999; Plante 1997; Strasser 1982; Wall 1999). Characteristics that signal ceramic elaboration will be documented in the Champ assemblage to examine whether this

farm family aspired to the divided eating practices (formal/family) of urban, wealthy and middle class families.

Tied to the domestic revolution is the development of the middle class in nineteenth century America. The cult of domesticity espoused in varying degrees by the middle class helped to define ideas and values that shaped everyday life in many households. Even the styles and decorative motifs were influenced by the ideas and values couched within this new cult of domesticity. The proximity to nature was thought to be healthy and Godly and this idea combined with the notion of home as a sanctuary greatly influenced material culture. Fitts (1999) found a high concentration of flower pots in middle class homes in New York City. Plants were commonly incorporated into interior decorative schemes and their use in creating a tranquil sanctuary from the outside world within the home was expounded upon in advice literature of the day. Natural motifs were so popular that they could be found to influence almost any material culture including furniture, wall paper, ceramics, and table glass. While no flower pots were identified in the Champ assemblage ceramics with natural motifs were recovered. According to Fitts (1999) and Wall (1999) motifs having to do with Christian values were also prominent among the nineteenth century middle class, particularly the Gothic pattern and complimentary patterns in ironstone or white granite occurring about 1850. Thus morality and respectability became intertwined with gentility and the middle class. While a family must have a certain amount of wealth in order to purchase the appropriate material culture (props) membership in the burgeoning middle class depended on attitudes and behaviors defined as civilized or genteel. These behaviors have been shown to be embodied in the increasing elaboration and segmentation of dining throughout the nineteenth century. By the mid-nineteenth century, dining had become increasingly formalized into a ritual where middle and upper classes displayed their knowledge of the etiquette of gentility (Williams 1987; Kasson 1987). In short, “table manners emerged as the supreme test of refinement, character, and ... good breeding” (Kasson 1990:200).

The evidence for genteel dining at the Champ House was limited. The lack of stratified deposits made it difficult to look at the changes from the Thomas Champ period and the Mary Champ period. Many of the changes in genteel dining were taking place in the 1820s and 1830s in New York (Wall 1994). The changes described by Fitts (1999) were taking place in 1860s urban New York. Mary Champ’s economic status appeared to be in decline during this period which may have prevented adoption of certain genteel dining rituals. There is also the question of how a single woman in her forties and fifties would accept aspects of genteel dining and the “cult of domesticity.” Rural Kentucky farmers were buying the current styles of ceramics but they may not have been using the same strategies and middle class values at the same time as documented in middle class assemblages from New York City.

11.4 Ceramic Protocol and Results

Ceramic analysis for the Champ House consisted of cataloguing and sherd identification with the construction of a minimum vessel list. Only material from the Phase III investigations were used, unless noted. The vessel list was used to calculate a mean ceramic date that enabled us to identify changes in ceramic style, decoration, and vessel form over time. Miller's ceramic price scaling indices (1980, 1991) were calculated for teawares and tablewares determining the material wealth of the Champs. Discussions of wealth using the ceramics serve as a corollary to the documentary data described in the previous chapter. Frequencies of vessel forms and functions are described for the Champ assemblage and compared with other archaeological sites of similar time period to show how the Champs created social meaning and communicated middle class values through his ceramics use.

Vessel reconstruction and minimum vessel counts are the only way to explore issues of wealth and class discussed earlier. Minimum vessel counts allow the archaeologist to study and reconstruct contextual meaning including variations in the cultural organization of activities at a functional level and at a symbolic one (Yentsch 1990). Minimum vessel lists have several advantages over sherd-based analysis. Sherd counts have less utility than minimum vessel counts because they eliminate vessel form and avoid subtle variations in decoration. The reliability of sherd counts to the number of vessels discarded on a site can be quite variable and really tell us very little about the vessels and how people used them. Other problems arise in comparing the utility of sherd counts and vessel counts. When a ceramic index is calculated from a sherd count, the resulting index value is usually low and not comparable with vessel-derived index values (Spencer-Wood and Heberling 1987:75; McBride and McBride 1987; Andrews 1997). Although some archaeologists estimate dates based on sherd identification, these dates are usually best when discard occurs over a short period of time and involve ceramics with short manufacture ranges; otherwise, dates can be skewed by depositional patterns, abandonment processes, and differential breakage patterns. For instance, breakage patterns of soft bodied wares vary from harder bodied wares like whiteware and ironstone. Consequently, soft bodied wares such as creamware and pearlware tend to break into smaller sherds -- which when sherds are used to calculate mean dates and establish scaling indices could skew dates and cause fewer accurate index values to be used in interpretations.

A minimum vessel count is defined as a count of the minimum number of ceramic vessels recovered from archaeological contexts, and can be calculated for individual features, and periods of occupation. The minimum count expresses how many vessels (that can be positively identified) were discarded on a site. The protocol to reconstruct vessel counts is based on unique rims, bases, and, in few instances, body sherds. Using ceramics from the Phase II and Phase III attempts to reconstruct vessels began by cross-mending sherds within units and features and between units and features. The resulting vessels were fragmentary with many vessels represented by only one distinct sherd. Vessel form, function, ware, decoration, decoration motifs, diameters (where appropriate), provenience, and number of cross mends were recorded for each vessel.

Sherds were generally in poor condition at the Thomas and Mary Champ house site. Most sherds were recovered from plowzone contexts and had undergone damage associated with freeze/thaw and frequent plowing like exfoliation, trampling, and burning. Due to environmental and post-depositional processes, soft bodied wares fared more poorly than other wares. Coarse redware was often exfoliated, broken into more and smaller fragments and worn-down into rounded sherdlets with little analytical value. Within plowzone context, refined, soft bodied wares like creamware and pearlware also occurred in smaller sherds than those of whiteware or ironstone. As a result, soft-bodied wares like redware, creamware, and pearlware are more accurately represented by a vessel count than through analyses of sherds alone which would inflate counts due to greater fragmentation rates (Spencer-Wood and Heberling 1987).

The Thomas and Mary Champ house site assemblage yielded 3,176 sherds from the Phase III excavation. Refined earthen wares consisted of 1,670 sherds and 53% of the ceramic assemblage. Pearlware accounts for 39% (646 sherds) of the total refined wares. Whiteware (259 sherds) is the second most frequent refined ware, and represents 15%. Creamware accounts for 14% (239 sherds), hard paste porcelain accounts for 5% (84 sherds), and unidentifiable refined earthenware accounts for 26% (442 sherds) of the refined ceramics. Fifteen-hundred and six (47%) coarse ware sherds were recovered including 32 stoneware sherds and 1,474 redware sherds.

A minimum vessel count yielded a total of 54 refined ware and 18 coarse ware vessels (Table 11-1). Identified vessels include nine Chinese Export porcelain and refined earthen wares including eight creamware, 23 pearlware, and 12 whiteware.

Table 11-1. Kitchen Ceramics by Type, Decoration, and Function.

Type	Decoration	Function	Sum
Creamware	Annular	Bowl	2
	Undecorated, Light Yellow	Plate	1
		Plate	1
		Serving Dish	1
		Tea Cup	1
	Underglaze Painted and Overglaze Enamel	Tea Cup	1
		Tea Cup	1
<i>Creamware Total</i>			8
Hard Paste Porcelain	Overglaze Enamel Mono. Chinese Export	Saucer	2
		Tea Cup	4
		Tea Cup	1
	Overglaze Enamel Poly. Chinese Export	Tea Cup	1
	Undecorated Chinese Export	Saucer	1
		waste bowl	1
<i>Hard Paste Porcelain Total</i>			10
Pearlware	Annular	Bowl	2
	Banded	Tea Cup	1
	Embossed/Impressed edge	Plate	1
	Shell Edge Scalloped Rim	Plate	3
	Shell Edge Straight Rim	Plate	2
		Platter	1
	Undecorated	Tea Cup	1
	Underglaze Blue Painted	Plate	3
		Serving Dish	1
		Tea Cup	1
	Underglaze Painted	Tea Cup	1
	Underglaze Painted Fine Line	Saucer	1
	Underglaze Transfer Printed	Plate	2
Plate		1	
Tea Cup		2	
<i>Pearlware Total</i>			23
Whiteware	Banded	Tea Cup	1
	Blue Shell Edge Straight Rim	Plate	1
	Green Shell Edge Scalloped Rim	Plate	1

Type	Decoration	Function	Sum
	Green Shell Edge Straight Rim	Plate	1
	Mocha-dendritic	Hollowware	1
	Undecorated	Hollowware	1
		Tea Cup	1
	Underglaze Painted	Serving Dish	1
		Tea Cup	1
	Underglaze Transfer Printed	Hollowware	1
		Plate	2
		Tea Cup	1
	<i>Whiteware Total</i>		
Grand Total			54

Coarse ware vessels consist of stoneware and redware. Redware vessels number 14 and are generally in poor condition. For the most part the redware vessels are utilitarian hollow wares except for three plates, a jug, and a bowl. There were four stoneware hollowware vessels identified.

Vessel decoration on refined earthen wares ranged from plain/molded to transfer printed and overglaze painted (See Figures 11-1 and 11-4 for examples). Chinese Export porcelain vessels included overglaze enamel vessels (eight vessels) and plain or undecorated vessels (two vessels). Pearlware and whiteware vessels included specimens that were transfer printed (nine vessels), plain/molded (four vessels), underglaze painted (nine vessels), or shell edge decorated (nine vessels).

Coarse ware vessels, redware and stoneware were undecorated for the most part. Incised lines near rims or collars were the only decoration on some redware vessels. Brown-tinted and clear lead glaze interior treatments on redware were most common on the redware assemblage. Most of the coarse redware vessels were glazed on the exterior. The surface treatment on the stoneware vessels was salt glazing. Interiors of the stoneware vessels were unglazed.

Vessel form was divided into six functional categories. The categories are not only functionally specific but also refer to manufacture, price, and marketing differences (see Miller et al. 1994). These categories consist of tableware, teaware, table and tea service, food preparation and storage, household utilitarian, and utilitarian undetermined for those hollowware forms that could not be relegated to kitchen or household use. The refined wares are represented predominantly by teaware and tableware forms. Teawares make up 33.3% of the total vessels, while tablewares comprise 30.5% of the assemblage. Table 11-2 shows the relative frequencies of teawares and tablewares.

Ceramic indices were calculated for teawares and tablewares separately to get an idea of the variability between forms and sets, and the concomitant economic status implied by sets of teaware and tableware. Tea- and tablewares were separate purchases for most consumers till the late nineteenth century. Manufacturing, pricing, and marketing of tea and tableware was also distinct throughout the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Typically, consumers purchased teaware of a higher cost than tableware, so ceramic indices for teaware will often be higher than for tableware. Using primary sources Miller et al. (1994) found that tea cups and saucers were sold in sets of six, while tableware was sold by the piece with varying numbers being purchase at one time. Since differences in manufacture, marketing, pricing



Figure 11-1. Examples of Teaware Body and Rim Ceramic Sherds from 15BB137 (Champ House).



Figure 11-2. Examples of Teaware Base and Foot Ring Ceramic Sherds from 15BB137 (Champ House).



Figure 11-3. Examples of Creamware Body Sherds from 15BB137 (Champ House).



Figure 11-4. Examples of Pearlware and Red Transfer Printed Whiteware Rim Ceramic Sherds from 15BB137 (Champ House).

Table 11-2. Form/Function Categories for Champ House Ceramics.

Vessel Function	Vessel Count	Percentage
Teaware	24	33.3%
Tableware	22	30.5%
Tea and Table Service	4	5.6%
Food Storage and Preparation	9	12.5%
Utilitarian Undetermined	13	18.1%
Total Vessels	72	100.0%

affect the overall cost of tea and tableware averaging indices or failing to separate these specific ware types results in a great loss of information pertaining to wealth, status, or class. Although plate prices were dependent upon the size of the plate, no plate diameters were measured due to the small sherd sizes.

Table and tea service-oriented vessels numbered four or 5.6% of the minimum vessels. At mid-nineteenth century sites such as Hardin (Andrews et al. 2004) chronological changes in the morphology and style of service vessels were noted indicating increased elaboration of dining behavior. (Cummings 1940; Fitts 1999; Hooker 1981; Kasson 1987; Wall 1994a, 1994b, 1999; Williams 1987). At Champ's Inn these changes were not noted and may be related to time period or economic status (Wall 1994a, 1994b, 1999).

A total of 22 utilitarian vessels was determined through vessel analysis. Utilitarian vessels included coarse wares and refined earthen wares in forms used for food storage and preparation, household, and utilitarian undetermined categories. Thirteen vessels (18.1%) were designated utilitarian undetermined or vessels that could not be differentiated into household or kitchen-oriented vessels. Vessels used in food storage and preparation were 12.5% (nine vessels) of the overall assemblage. This category included coarse ware jars, crocks, and bowls.

11.4.1 Mean Ceramic Date

Mean ceramic dating for Champ's Inn was accomplished using 54 refined ware ceramic vessels (i.e. only those vessels that could be reliably dated were used in the calculation). Wares that have known beginning manufacturing dates were used while calculations using wares with long manufacture ranges used the end date for the site (1840). The end date for the site was based on historic documents and supported by the archaeological assemblage. A mean ceramic date of 1815 was calculated for the site (Table 11-3). Although ceramic chronologies are used to date archaeological deposits and consequently occupations, the mean date is specifically used as a starting point to assign ceramic index values.

11.4.2 Social and Economic Status at Thomas and Mary Champ House

Miller's ceramic indices have been used for many years as a method to measure attributes related to socioeconomic status. Several studies have established strong relationships among occupation, income, wealth, and amount of consumer expenditure for durable goods and ceramics in both the twentieth and nineteenth centuries. But even more than wealth, ceramic forms and decorative types through price and fashion distinctions convey information about social stratification. Although the utility of Miller's ceramic indices (1980, 1991) has been questioned in recent years, when combined with other measures of wealth and status, it is still a useful measure. In this research, vessels and detailed attributes of the

Table 11-3. Mean Ceramic Date Using Vessels for Champ House (15BB137).

Ware	Frequency	Date Range	Mean Date	Product
Chinese Porcelain	10	1780-1840	1810	18100
Creamware	8	1780-1830	1805	14440
Pearlware	18	1780-1840	1810	32580
Pearlware, Transfer Print	5	1795-1840	1818	9050
Whiteware	13	1830-1840	1835	23855
<i>Total Vessels</i>	<i>54</i>	<i>Total Product</i>		<i>98025</i>
Mean Ceramic Date: 1815				

vessels like size were used in calculating indices. Tea- and tableware was kept separate for calculations also. The resulting indices were used to form a scale of sites ranked according to relative mean value (Spencer-Wood and Heberling 1987). Comparable sites from Kentucky, the Midwest, and South were added to this ranking of sites.

Tea- and tablewares were separate purchases for most consumers until late in the nineteenth century. Manufacturing, pricing, and marketing of tea and tableware was also distinct during the late eighteenth through the nineteenth centuries. Consequently, ceramic index values for teaware and tableware were calculated separately for this site (Table 11-4 and Table 11-5). As Table 11-4 shows, the teaware index value for Champ's Inn is 1.87. Compared with other sites (Table 11-6) this index is higher than many farmsteads and very close to the index value of the Arnold site in Kentucky (Andrews et al. 2002). The two Illinois tavern sites are higher than Champ's Inn, however (Wagner and McCorvie 1992). The Champ's Inn teaware value suggests that attempts were made to buy, use, and display some of the latest in fashionable teas.

Tea cups and saucers and teapots or other tea service forms would not match in decoration or ware. The most common practice was for consumers to purchase teaware of a higher cost than tableware, so ceramic indices for teas will often be higher than for tableware. According to Miller et al. (1994:242-243) primary sources indicate that teas were usually sold in sets of six cups and saucers, with tableware sold by the piece with varying numbers being purchased at one time. As the price of decorated wares declined and standardization in production increased, the purchase of matched sets became more affordable and readily available. Matching sets of teaware and tableware were not purchased by the average consumer until late in the nineteenth century (Miller et al. 1994). According to recent research (Fitts 1999; Praetzillis and Praetzillis 1992; Wall 1999) the middle class in the 1860s considered groups of vessels sharing the same basic shape and motifs to be a matching set.

Archaeological and documentary research has resulted in identifying some chronological trends in tea- and tableware. Tea- and tableware in the last decades of the eighteenth century typically consist of creamware plates, painted pearlware or porcelain teas, with dipt creamware or even delft bowls (Miller et al. 1994). After 1790, blue and green shell edge plates begin to replace plain/molded creamware as the popular tableware. In the 1820s, painted or printed teas with dipt or painted bowls were common. By the 1830s printed plates are seen in combination with shell edged whiteware plates. Teaware during this time was painted and/or printed. By the 1840s one could have printed tea- and tableware, but usually in different patterns (Miller et al. 1994). Although these collections of wares and decorative types would vary by economic class, new ceramic styles would become popular, replace earlier styles and then fall into disuse (Miller et al. 1994; Wall 1994b). The degree to which households pursued these

Table 11-4. Teaware Ceramic Index Values for Champ House (15BB137).

Decoration	Vessel	Total	Index Value (1814)	Produce
Undecorated	Tea Cup	3	1.0	3.0
Overglazed Enamel	Tea Cup	2	3.0	6.0
Underglazed Painted	Tea Cup	4	1.5	6.0
Underglaze Painted	Saucer	1	1.5	1.5
Underglaze Transfer	Tea Cup	2	3.0	6.0
<i>Totals</i>		12		22.5
Teaware Ceramic Index Value				1.87

Table 11-5. Tableware Ceramic Index Values for the Champ House (15BB137).

Decoration	Vessel	Total	Index Value (1814)	Produce
Undecorated	Plate	3	1.0	3.0
Shell Edge	Plate	8	1.64	12.12
Underglazed Painted	Plate	3	1.5	4.5
Underglazed Printed	Plate	2	3.33	6.66
Underglaze Printed Willow	Plate	3	2.67	8.01
<i>Totals</i>		19		34.29
Tableware Ceramic Index Value				1.87

Table 11-6. Teaware Ceramic Index Value for Several Sites.

Site, Occupation, State	Cup and Saucer Ceramic Index Value	Number of Vessels	Index Year
Diaz, merchant, CA	3.59	35	1846
Green, merchant, VT	3.04	40	1833
B. Robson, physician, NYC	2.97	53	1836
Walker Tavern, MI	2.31	35	1846
P. Warren, merchant, MS	2.26	83	1846
Cannon's Point, overseer, GA	2.24	35	1824
Franklin Glass Factory, worker, OH	2.15	33	1824
Black Lucy, freed slave, MA	1.68	17	1833
L. Drake, farmer, IL	1.62	42	1845
J. Hale, farmer, OH	1.45	17	1824
M. Tabbs, tenant farmer, MD	1.44	16	1846
J. Arnold, farmer, KY	1.90	47	1836/38
E. Hardin, farmer, KY	2.77	67	1845/46
Young Tavern, IL	2.3	35	1814
Old Landmark, Tavern, IL	2.14	82	1823-1832
Champ House, KY	1.87	12	1814

changing styles would depend upon their economic and social status (social emulation), the accessibility of the styles within the area (supply), regional tastes (demand), and cultural processes associated with the commoditization of labor occurring throughout the late eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

The changes in ceramic types at the Champ House are difficult to demonstrate chronologically since no stratified or temporally distinct deposits were excavated. The chronological trends mentioned above appear to be present in the Champ ceramic assemblage. Plain Creamware tableware, overglaze enamel creamware teacups and annular creamware bowls were part of the earliest assemblage. Thomas Champ could have bought the creamware when he arrived in Bourbon County or he may have brought the ceramics from Loudoun County, Virginia. The shell edged pearlware ceramics could have been purchased around the turn of the nineteenth century. The edge decorated ceramics could have been purchased by Thomas Champ or by Mary Champ after her father's death. Printed and painted ceramics became common in the 1820s, and these could have been purchased by Mary Champ, although they could have been purchased earlier by Thomas Champ. Only the red transfer printed earthenware was manufactured after the death of Thomas Champ.

As mentioned above, teaware was purchased separately from tableware. In addition to the pearlware and creamware teaware vessels, there were also porcelain tea cups and saucers. Porcelain would have been more expensive than creamware or pearlware, but Miller (1991) does not have prices for sites this early. The porcelain teaware could have been purchased by either Thomas Champ or Mary Champ. The presence of the porcelain teaware and the pearlware and creamware teaware suggests that there were multiple tea sets for different occasions.

The ceramic assemblage and the ceramic index for the Champ House appears to represent a higher economic status than was expected based on the economic data described above. In 1820, Mary Champ lived on 25 acres with another adult woman and two children (U.S. Census, 1820). Based on tax assessment records, Mary Champ no longer had any slaves. This would have made it difficult to have a profitable farm (Lemon 1972). The ceramics may have been purchased by Thomas Champ before he died. It is also possible that Mary's brother Robert provided her some financial help.

Only four serving vessels, consisting of two vessel forms, were recovered from the Champ House. The serving vessels consisted of a plain creamware serving dish, a shell edged pearlware platter, a painted pearlware serving dish, and a transfer printed whiteware serving dish. Research has shown that the frequency of certain vessel forms, generally serving vessels and particularly single function vessels are indicative of high economic or social status. Otto, in his research on Cannon's Point Plantation (1980, 1984) found that bowls were present in higher frequencies at slave sites while plates and other serving vessels dominated assemblages from the main house. McBride and Esarey (1995) found high frequencies of serving vessels and single function vessels including sauce boats, platters, and serving bowls/tureens at Ashland, home of a wealthy landowner and community leader. The limited number of serving vessels at the Champ House suggests a limited attempt to adhere to early principles of genteel dining. The notions of genteel dining may not have been completely developed in the 1820s and Mary Champ may not have been able to afford the more specialized serving vessels.

Price information on serving forms is scant. However Miller provides prices for one service form, platter and several large sized plates (1990). Not surprising, it is the most expensive form in Miller's indices being priced 50% more than regular dinner plates (McBride and Esarey 1995). As serving vessels are often larger, decorated, and more ornate, assuming they would be more expensive to purchase is reasonable. Therefore, the presence of serving vessels and specialized vessels in an assemblage suggests wealth, as well as, genteel dining indicative of social and economic success.

By the late 1850s a shift in the type of ware and decoration to plain/molded whiteware and ironstone (white granite) occurred on many sites. Fitts (1999) and others (Praetzellis and Praetzellis 1992; Wall 1999) have provided research that plain or simply molded ironstone (white granite) and porcelain were popular among middle class urban households. Ironstone was an expensive ware in 1840 and would have been considered the latest in fashionable tableware. As it became more popular throughout the mid to late nineteenth century, prices on ironstone dropped as the ware became more available to consumers.

11.4.3 Genteel Dining and Middle Class Membership

As the middle class developed in the nineteenth century, its members adopted a distinctive world view and ideologies which distinguished them from the working class. While documented archaeologically in cities, the development of the middle class in a rural, agrarian setting has not been examined through material culture. Membership in the middle class demanded that certain values, appearances, and even morals be exhibited. One of the most important values was the concept of gentility. Middle class Americans believed that a person's table manners were a direct reflection of their moral character and genteel dining quickly became a class marker. According to one scholar "A mastery of dining etiquette thus became a prerequisite for becoming respectable in middle class social circles" (Fitts 1999:49). To follow genteel dining properly, the table had to be set in a precise manner with certain ceramic and glass wares.

Genteel dining etiquette dictated that tables be set with matching wares and specialized vessel forms for specific functions. These specialized forms were produced in ceramics, and in table glassware. Not surprisingly, it is during the mid-nineteenth century that there is a virtual explosion in the variety of patterns and vessel forms in tableware. Eating was no longer a one-pot, one-dish meal of soup and bread in nineteenth century middle class homes. According to the cult of domesticity it was essential that each food be served from its own vessel. Also, foods were not to be mixed together and, as a result, vessels with specific functions were required of genteel dining if one was to follow proper manners and one's place in society. To eat certain foods out of sequence in improper vessels was considered ill bred and low (Frost 1869).

In the 1820s, Mary Champ may have set a table with stylish tableware. The serving vessels were limited in form and may have been supplemented by utilitarian ware. Mary Champ may not have been able to purchase many specialized vessels and during the 1820s and this may have reflected negatively on her genteel dining in Bourbon County. Unfortunately, it is impossible to separate the assemblages of Thomas Champ from those of Mary Champ. Many of the ceramics could have been purchased by Thomas Champ.

11.5 Discussion of Comparative Material from Sites on the Old Maysville Road

Four sites, the Thomas and Mary Champ House (15BB137), Eli Current's Inn (15BB133), Neal's Old Place (15BB131), and site 15BB132 underwent Phase II archaeological testing. The ceramics recovered from the excavations from these sites are limited in quantity from the Phase II investigations and may present sampling biases, but should provide information on the variability in settlements along the Old Maysville Road. A minimum vessel list was constructed for each site and ceramic indexing was also completed. The analysis is based on research by Andrews et al. (2010).

11.5.1 Site 15BB131 (Neal's Old Place)

John Neal bought 66 acres in Bourbon County from James Otley in 1793 (Bundy 2006). In the 1822 Bourbon County Tax Assessment Neal owned 157 acres. Neal died in 1824 and Jackey S. Hitt bought 160 acres from John Neal's estate (Bundt 2006). There is no evidence from deeds of anyone living in the house after Neal's death. The presence of whiteware may indicate that a tenant may have occupied the site for a short period. The other artifacts date to the Neal occupation. On the 1827 map by Darnaby and Ellis, the house is labeled as "Neal's Old Place."

A total of 120 refined ware and two coarse ware vessels were identified during the vessel analysis. Mean dates were calculated for functional categories as well as for the entire assemblage. The refined ware vessels were divided by function into teaware, tableware, serving vessels, and utilitarian hollowware (Andrews et al. 2010).

The teaware assemblage for Neal's Old Place (15BB131) consisted of 68 vessels. The ware types in the teaware assemblage consisted of bone china (n=6), Chinese export porcelain (n= 9), creamware (n=5), pearlware (n=47), and whiteware (n=1). The mean date for the teaware assemblage is 1810.8. The ceramic index for the teaware used only the creamware and pearlware vessels since dates for porcelain has not been established for this period and the whiteware is from a separate occupation. The ceramic index for the teaware is 1.91 (The Neal ceramic assemblage also included porcelain and hand painted tableware. The presence of the plates suggests multiple sets of plates and a nuanced differentiation in economic and social status if dinner guests in the Neal Household (Andrews et al. 2010).).

Table 11-7. Teaware Vessels and Ceramic Index for Neal's Old House (15BB131).

Ware Type	Decoration Type	Vessel Form	Manufacture Dates	Mean	Total	Index	Index x Total
Bone China	Underglaze Paint w/ Lustre	Saucer	ca. 1794-1860	1827	1	-	-
	Undecorated	Cup	ca. 1794-1860	1827	3	-	-
		Saucer	ca. 1794-1860	1827	2	-	-
Chinese Export Porcelain	Overglaze Painted	Cup	ca. 1780-1840	1810	1	-	-
		Saucer	ca. 1780-1840	1810	1	-	-
	Overglaze Painted	Cup	ca. 1780-1840	1810	1	-	-
	Overglaze Painted, Polychrome	Saucer	ca. 1780-1840	1810	2	-	-
	Overglaze Painted, Polychrome (Ribbed)	Saucer	ca. 1780-1840	1810	1	-	-
	Undecorated	Cup	ca. 1780-1840	1810	2	-	-
		Saucer	ca. 1780-1840	1810	1	-	-
Creamware	Overglaze Painted, Polychrome	Cup	ca. 1762-1820	1791	1	3.0	3.0
		Saucer	ca. 1762-1820	1791	2	3.0	6.0
		Waste Bowl	ca. 1762-1820	1791	1	3.0	3.0
	Undecorated	Saucer	ca. 1762-1820	1791	2	1.0	1.0
Pearlware	Transfer Print	Cup	ca. 1780-1840	1813	1	3.0	3.0
	Transfer Print, Blue	Cup	ca. 1780-1840	1813	2	3.0	6.0

		Saucer	ca. 1795-1840	1813	7	3.0	21.0
	Transferprint, Blue (Stippled)	Saucer	ca. 1795-1830	1813	1	3.0	3.0
	Underglaze Handpainted	Cup	ca. 1795-1830	1810	1	1.5	1.5
	Underglaze Handpainted, Blue	Cup	ca. 1795-1830	1810	1	1.5	1.5
		Saucer	ca. 1795-1830	1810	1	1.5	1.5
	Underglaze Handpainted, Polychrome	Cup	ca. 1780-1840	1810	2	1.5	3.0
		Saucer	ca. 1780-1840	1810	3	1.5	4.5
		Waste Bowl	ca. 1795-1830	1810	1	1.5	1.5
	Underglaze Painted, Blue	Cup	ca. 1780-1840	1810	1	1.5	1.5
		Saucer	ca. 1780-1840	1810	1	1.5	1.5
	Underglaze Painted, Polychrome	Cup	ca. 1780-1840	1810	17	1.5	25.5
		Saucer	ca. 1780-1840	1810	13	1.5	19.5
Whiteware	Transfer Print, Brown	Cup	ca. 1828-1860	1844	1	-	-
Mean Date and Total Vessels				1810.7	68(59)		1.82

The tableware from Neal's Old Place consisted of 37 vessels with a mean date of 1809.7 and a ceramic index of 1.75. The assemblage consisted of two bone china vessels, two Chinese Export vessels, two creamware vessels, 15 shell edged pearlware vessels, 10 pearlware transfer print vessels, and one undecorated vessel (Andrews et al. 2010).

The serving vessels from Neal's Old Place consisted of 11 vessels (Table 11-8). Ten of the vessels are pearlware and one is creamware. The mean date for the serving vessels is 1812.9.

Table 11-8. Serving Vessels from Neal's Old Place (15BB131).

Ware Type	Decoration Type	Vessel Form	Manufacture Dates	Mean	Total
Creamware	Undecorated	Shaker	ca. 1762-1820	1791	1
Pearlware	Impressed/Painted	Hollowware	ca. 1780-1830	1805	1
	Shell Edged, Blue	Serving Vessel	ca. 1820-1845	1833	2
	Shell Edged, Blue, Impressed Straight Lines	Platter	ca. 1795-1840	1813	1
	Transfer Print, Blue	Hollowware Serving	ca. 1795-1840	1813	3
		Serving Vessel	ca. 1795-1840	1813	1
	Underglaze Painted, Blue	Hollowware Serving	ca. 1780-1840	1810	1
		Pepper Shaker	ca. 1780-1830	1805	1
Mean Date and Total Vessels				1821.9	11

The ceramic assemblage follows the changes in decoration types described by Wall (1994) for sites in New York. Creamware was popular before 1790, edge decorated pearlware was popular until around 1820 when transfer print ware supplanted them. It is possible that the older dishes were used in less formal occasions, such as private family dining where status display was not important.

The shell edged pearlware assemblage consisted of several plate sizes. This indicates that multiple courses of food were served during dining which suggests formal or genteel dining. The shell edged plate might have been used in private family dining and suggests that individual place settings and courses of food were served in family settings. The popularity of shell edged ceramics from the late 1790s to the 1820s suggests that the Neal household embraced formal or genteel dining.

Transfer printed pearlware followed shell edged pearlware as the preferred style and was present in the Neal ceramic assemblage. There was more shell edged vessels and variety than in the transfer printed ceramics. This could be related to the death of John Neal in 1824 than in wealth or popularity factors. The presence of transfer printed vessels indicates the Neal Household's interests in owning the latest style of ceramics.

The Neal ceramic assemblage also included porcelain and hand painted tableware. The presence of the plates suggests multiple sets of plates and a nuanced differentiation in economic and social status if dinner guests in the Neal Household (Andrews et al. 2010).

Another indicator of economic status and social class is the presence of serving vessels. Eleven serving vessels were identified from the Neal assemblage (see Table 11-8, above) (Andrews et al. 2010). One undecorated creamware vessel, three shell edged pearlware vessels, one impressed and underglazed painted, four transfer printed vessels, and two hand painted pearlware vessels were identified. The presence of transfer printed serving vessels indicates a high social status and economic class of the Neal Household. The diversity of the serving forms also indicates higher status since the diversity of forms is an indicator of segmented dining (Fitts 1999; Wall 1999).

The Neal household ceramic assemblage and the archival information indicate a middling class status (Soltow 1983). In the 1822 Bourbon County Tax Assessment John Neal owned 157 acres, eight slaves and 12 horses. The ceramics indicate that Neal followed the current styles of the day with creamware, shell edged pearlware, and transfer printed pearlware. The presence of serving vessels in multiple forms and decorative types also indicate middle class status (Fitts 1999; Wall 1999, 1994b).

11.5.2 Site 15BB132

Site 15BB132 was originally part of the James Little patent of 490 acres in 1799 and passed through several owners before Horace Miller bought the property in 1864. The occupants of the house appear to have been tenants based on the material recovered from the site. William Scott bought the property in 1821 and sold it to his son Jefferson Scott in 1822. Jefferson Scott built this residence, known as New Forest in 1824. The mean dates for the 15BB132 teaware was 1842 (Table 11-9). The mean dates for the ceramics and the manufacture date suggest an occupation of the site during the period it was owned by Jefferson Scott, William Rogers, and Horace Miller. During this period the landowners were living in New Forest (Bundy 2006; Andrews et al. 2010).

According to Bundy (2006) and Andrews et al. (2010) the variety of wares and decoration suggests that the site was occupied over a long period. An examination of the artifacts from features, units, and machine removal suggests that there was mixing consistent with a demolition and site clean-up that occurred when the house was demolished (Andrews et al. 2010:69).

The assemblage is diverse with bone china, Chinese Export Porcelain, ironstone and whiteware. Most of the whiteware is not very expensive, with only one transfer printed teaware vessel (Table 11-9). The serving vessels consist of only four vessels of various ware types (Table 11-10). The utilitarian vessels show even more variation in ware types and manufacture dates (Table 11-11).

Table 11-9. Teaware Vessels and Ceramic Index for 15BB131 (Neal's Old Place).

Ware Type	Decoration Type	Vessel Form	Manufacture Dates	Mean	Total	Index	Total x Index
Blue Gray Ironstone	Overglaze painted	Saucer	ca. 1840-1880	1860	1	2.08	2.08
Bone China	Molded	Cup	ca. 1794-1860	1827	1	-	-
Chinese Export Porcelain	Undecorated	Saucer	ca. 1780-1840	1810	1	-	-
Whiteware	Flow Blue	Cup	post 1840	1865	1	2.83	2.83
	Handpainted Underglaze	Saucer	ca. 1820-1870	1844	1	1.5	1.5
	Sponge Blue	Cup	ca. 1830-1890	1860	1	1.5	1.5
	Sponge Blue w/ Underglaze Painted Polychrome	Saucer	ca. 1830-1890	1860	1	1.5	1.5
	Transfer Print, Brown	Cup	ca. 1820-1870	1844	1	3.0	3.0
	Undecorated	Cup	ca. 1828-1870	1844	3	1.0	3.0
	Underglaze Painted Polychrome	Saucer	ca. 1828-1870	1844	2	1.5	3.0
Mean Date and Ceramic Index				1842	13		18.41

Table 11-10. Serving Vessels from 15BB132.

Ware Type	Decoration Type	Vessel Form	Manufacture Dates	Mean	Total
Blue Gray Ironstone	Overglaze Painted	Hollowware/Bowl	ca 1798-1840	1819	1
Ironstone	Molded	Tureen	ca. 1840-1880	1860	1
Whiteware	Flow Blue	Serving Vessel	ca. 1840-1880	1860	1
	Underglaze Painted	Small Serving	ca. 1828-1860	1844	1
Mean Date and Total Vessels				1846.3	4

Table 11-11. Utilitarian Vessels from 15BB132.

Ware Type	Manufacture Dates	Mean	Total
Domestic Stoneware	ca. 1780-1900	1840	2
Pearlware	ca. 1780-1840	1810	1
Redware	Ca. 1780-1850	1815	1
Staffordshire	Ca. 1780-1820	1800	2
Yellowware	Ca. 1830- 1880	1855	3
Mean Date and Total Vessels		1830	9

It is believed that the site was occupied by tenants (Bundy 2006). If this was the case, the site could have been occupied by various households over at least 60 years. The ceramic assemblage could have been given to the tenants by the owners of the New Forest Farm. This could explain the variation in the ceramics and the presence of some of the more expensive wares. The mixed nature of the deposits and the limited information on the occupants make the validity of further analysis suspect.

11.5.3 Site 15BB133 (Eli Current's Inn)

Eli Current's Inn was shown on the Darnaby and Ellis map of 1827 about a mile and a half from Champ's Inn. The structure does not show up on the 1861 Bourbon County map (Hewitt and Hewitt 1861). The property was purchased by Thomas Current in 1821 and the Bourbon County Tax Assessment indicates that he owned 745 acres. Thomas Current gave the property to his son Eli in 1827. In 1827 Eli Current owned 105 acres. In 1839 Eli Current owned 340 acres. Eli Current sold 105 acres to his brother Elijah Current in 1839. It is not known if Elijah lived on the property. Elijah Current sold 60 acres, which included 15BB133, to David Leer in 1855 (Bundy 2006; Andrews et al. 2010).

Thomas Current had a tavern license for 1821, but no later license was found. Besides the property on Stoner Creek, Thomas Current also owned a town lot in Paris valued at \$500, 12 slaves and eight horses. No tavern license was found for Eli Current. In 1828, Eli Current had 105 acres, one slave, and six horses (Bundy 2006; Andrews et al. 2010; BCTA 1821, 1822, 1828).

The only evidence that there was an Inn on the Eli Current property was the 1827 Darnaby and Ellis map. In 1839 Eli Current owned 340 acres, 10 slaves, 15 horses, and five head of cattle (BCTA 1839). In the 1860 U.S. Census, Eli Current was listed as a farmer with \$34,200 worth of real estate and \$9,000 worth of personal estate and the 1860 Slave Schedule listed 11 slaves for Eli Current.

The ceramic vessel assemblage from the Phase II excavations at 15BB133 consisted of 39 teaware vessels, two bowls, 35 tableware vessels, and 14 serving vessels. The teaware consisted of bone china (n=8), Chinese Export Porcelain (n=5), ironstone (n=1), pearlware (n=17), and whiteware (n=8). The bowls were annular polychrome pearlware. The tableware consisted of blue gray ironstone (n=2), creamware (n=1), ironstone/white granite (n=1), pearlware (n=19), whiteware (n=11), and yellowware (n=1). Serving vessels consisted of blue gray ironstone (n=1), bone china (n=1), ironstone/white granite (n=2), pearlware (n=9), and whiteware (n=1). The ironstone vessels have a beginning date of 1840, suggesting that the site was occupied briefly after Eli Current sold the property to his brother Elijah.

The teaware vessels have a mean date of 1827.7 and a ceramic index of 2.39 (Table 11-12). The high ceramic index reflects the 16 transfer printed vessels. There were also bone china and Chinese export porcelain teas, which made at least two sets and were expensive. It is not clear how long Eli Current ran an inn. The expensive tea set could have been used for family and neighbors or for high status clientele. Based on archival material and the ceramic assemblage, Eli Current was a successful farmer of a high middle class economic status and social class.

The tableware consists of 35 vessels that include creamware, edge decorated pearlware, transfer printed pearlware, edge decorated whiteware, transfer printed whiteware, flow blue whiteware, yellowware, and ironstone (Table 11-13). The different decorative types indicate that the Current's followed the popular styles of the day. The different transfer printed and painted types suggest that they may have had multiple sets and different plate sizes suggests that the Currents were practicing some form of segmented dining in which multiple plates were used for various courses of food.

The serving vessels identified from the Eli Current Inn included specialized forms such as pearlware tureens (Table 11-14). Fourteen serving vessels were recovered, which was more than any of the other Phase II Maysville Road sites. The presence of serving vessels is an indicator of social class and economic status. The diversity of serving forms is also suggestive of higher status since a diversity of forms is an indicator of segmented dining (Fitts 1999; Wall 1999). The serving vessels consisted of molded blue gray ironstone and bone china, and white granite. There was also painted, transfer printed, molded and

Table 11-12. Teaware Vessels and Ceramic Index for Eli Current's Inn (15BB133).

Ware Type	Decoration Type	Vessel Form	Manufacture Dates	Mean	Total	Index	Index x Total
Bone China	Undecorated	Cup	ca. 1794-1860	1827	6	-	
		Saucer	ca. 1794-1860	1827	2	-	
Chinese Export	Overglaze Enameled	Cup	ca. 1780-1840	1810	1	-	
	Overglaze/Underglaze Enameled	Cup	ca. 1780-1840	1810	1	-	
	Undecorated	Cup	ca. 1780-1840	1810	1	-	
		Saucer	ca. 1780-1840	1810	2	-	
Ironstone/White Granite	Undecorated	Saucer	ca. 1840-1880	1846	1	2.08	2.08
Pearlware	Hand Painted Underglaze	Cup	ca. 1780-1840	1810	1	1.5	1.5
	Hand Painted Underglaze, Blue	Cup	ca. 1795-1840		1	1.5	1.5
	Hand Painted Underglaze, Polychrome	Saucer	ca. 1780-1840	1810	1	1.5	1.5
			ca. 1780-1840	1810	1	1.5	1.5
			ca. 1780-1840	1810	1	1.5	1.5
		Waste Bowl	ca. 1780-1840	1810	1	1.5	1.5
	Transfer Print, Black	Saucer	ca. 1795-1840	1818	1	3.0	3.0
	Transfer Print, Blue	Cup	ca. 1795-1840	1818	2	3.0	6.0
		Saucer	ca. 1795-1840	1818	5	3.0	15.0
		Waste Bowl	ca. 1795-1840	1818	1	3.0	3.0
	Transfer Print, Green (Stippled)	Saucer	ca. 1795-1840	1818	1	3.0	3.0
	Transfer Print, Polychrome	Cup	ca. 1795-1840	1818	1	3.0	3.0
	Edge Decorated, Blue	Saucer	ca. 1820-1870	1849	1	1.0	1.0
	Transfer Print, Blue	Cup	ca. 1830-1860	1845	1	3.0	3.0
		Saucer	ca. 1830-1860	1845	1	3.0	3.0
	Transfer Print, Green	Saucer	ca. 1830-1860	1845	1	3.0	3.0
	Transfer Print, Green (Stippled)	Saucer	ca. 1834-1860	1850	1	3.0	3.0
Transfer Print, Hand Painted Overglaze, Polychrome	Saucer	ca. 1834-1860	1850	1	3.0	3.0	
Undecorated	Saucer	ca. 1830-1880	1855	2	1.0	2.0	
Mean Date and Ceramic Index				1827.7	26		2.39

Table 11-13. Serving Vessels from 15BB133 (Eli Current's Inn).

Ware Type	Decoration Type	Vessel Form	Manufacture Dates	Mean	Total	Index	Index x Total	
Blue Gray Ironstone	Molded	Plate	ca. 1840-1880	1860	1	1.93	1.93	
		Small Plate	ca. 1840-1880	1860	1	1.93	1.93	
Creamware	Undecorated	Plate	ca. 1762-1814	1788	1	1.0	1.0	
Ironstone/White Granite	Undecorated	Plate	ca. 1840-1880	1860	1	1.93	1.93	
Pearlware	Edge Decorated, Blue	Plate	-		1	1.33	1.33	
			ca. 1780-1820	1800	1	1.33	1.33	
	Edge Decorated, Embossed, Green	Plate	ca. 1780-1840		1810	1	1.33	1.33
			Edge Decorated, Green	Plate	ca. 1780-1840	1810	1	1.33
	Edge Decorated, Green	Small Plate		ca. 1780-1840	1810	1	1.33	1.33
		Edge Decorated/Embossed	Flatware	ca. 1780-1860	1810	1	1.33	1.33
	Hand Painted Underglaze, Blue, Molded	Flatware	ca. 1780-1860	1810	1	2.17	2.17	
	Shell Edge Decoration, Green	Plate	-		1	1.33	1.33	
		Flatware	ca. 1780-1820	1800	1	1.33	1.33	
	Shell Edge Decoration, Blue	Plate	ca. 1780-1820	1800	1	1.33	1.33	
	Transfer Print, Blue	Flatware	ca. 1795-1840	1817.5	2	3.0	6.0	
		Plate	ca. 1795-1840	1817.5	5	3.0	15.0	
	Transfer Print Blue, Scalloped Edge	Plate	ca. 1795-1840	1817.5	1	3.0	3.0	
Undecorated	Flatware	ca. 1780-1840	1810	1	1.5	1.0		
Whiteware	Flow Blue, Molded	Plate	ca. 1840-1880	1860	1	2.64	2.64	
	Molded	Plate	ca. 1830-1880	1855	1	1.0	1.0	
	Shell Edge Decoration, Blue	Flatware	ca. 1830-1845	1837.5	1	1.33	1.33	
		Plate	ca. 1830-1840	1835	1	1.33	1.33	
	Transfer Print, Brown	Plate	ca. 1830-1860	1845	1	2.67	2.67	
	Transfer Print, Cranberry Red (Stippled)	Flatware	ca. 1830-1860	1845	1	2.67	2.67	
	Transfer Print, Polychrome	Flatware	ca. 1830-1860	1845	1	2.67	2.67	
		Transfer Print, Purple	Plate	ca. 1830-1860	1845	1	2.67	2.67
Small Plate	ca. 1830-1860		1845	1	2.67	2.67		
Transfer Print, Purple (Stippled)	Flatware	ca. 1830-1860	1845	2	2.67	2.67		
Yellowware	Rockingham	Mug/Tankard	ca. 1830-1880	1855	1	-	-	
Mean Date and Ceramic Index				1828	35		1.27	

Table 11-14. Serving Vessels from Eli Current's Inn (15BB133).

Ware Type	Decoration Type	Vessel Form	Manufacture Dates	Mean	Total
Blue Gray Ironstone	Molded	Hollowware Serving	ca. 1840-1880	1860	1
Bone China	Molded	Hollowware Serving	ca. 1794-1860	1827	1
Ironstone/White Granite	Molded	Serving Dish	ca. 1840-1880	1860	1
	Undecorated	Platter	ca. 1840-1880	1860	1
Pearlware	Hand Painted Underglaze, Blue, Molded	Serving Vessel, tureen	ca. 1780-1840	1810	1
	Molded	Tureen	ca. 1780-1840	1810	1
	Transfer Print, Blue	Hollowware	ca. 1795-1840	1818	1
		Hollowware Serving	ca. 1795-1840	1818	1
		Platter	ca. 1795-1840	1818	2
		Serving Dish/Bowl	ca. 1795-1840	1818	1
	Trans Print, Blue, Molded	Hollowware Serving	ca. 1795-1840	1818	1
Undecorated	Pitcher	ca. 1780-1840	1810	1	
Whiteware	Transfer Print, Blue	Hollowware Serving	ca. 1830-1860	1845	1
Mean Date and Total Vessels				1828	14

undecorated pearlware and transfer printed whiteware. The vessel forms showed more diversity than any of the assemblages from the other sites. There were platters, pitchers, tureens, and hollowware.

The ceramic vessel analysis indicates that Eli Current was a high middle class economic status and social class. The archival information also indicates that Eli Current was a successful farmer. What is uncertain is the nature of Eli Current's Inn. The 1827 Darnaby and Ellis maps described the house as Eli Current's Inn. Document show that Eli's father Thomas had a license in 1821 and owned the property at this time. Eli Current became the owner of the House or inn in 1827 along with 105 acres. Eli may have continued the inn for a short period or the entire period he owned the property.

11.5.4 Site 15BB137 (Thomas and Mary Champ House)

T. Champ's Inn was shown on the 1827 Darnaby and Ellis map. Thomas Champ bought the property in 1787. When he died in 1808 the land went to his children after a court settlement. Mary Champ received 25 acres and the Thomas Champ house. As with Eli Current's Inn, it is difficult to determine when the site was actually an inn. It appears that T Champ's Inn refers to Thomas Champ's grandson's house. It was not mandated to have a license for an inn during the period Thomas Champ owned the property. Items on Champ's inventory, the 63 gallons of whiskey in barrels and the four bedsteads, suggested to Bundy (2006) and Andrews et al. (2010) that Champ was running an inn. Multiple bedsteads show up on inventories of households with large families (McBride et al. 2013). Whiskey was also used for barter in this early period when cash was in short supply.

The vessel assemblage for the Champ House consisted of 12 teaware vessels, 10 tableware vessels, 11 utilitarian vessels and two unknown vessels. The number of vessels at Champ's Inn was considerably less than at the Eli Currents Inn or Neal's Old Place. This could reflect differences in economic status and social class or it could be the result of sampling bias from the Phase II excavations.

The teaware vessels from the Champ House consisted of 12 vessels (Table 11-15). Seven of the vessels were Chinese export porcelain saucers that were hand painted overglaze enamel. Three of the vessels were pearlware. Two of the pearlware were hand painted and one was transfer printed. Two vessels were hand painted whiteware. The number and variety of the teaware indicated that taking tea was important for the Champs. The hand painted vessels were less expensive wares while the transfer printed and porcelain vessels were more expensive and may have been used for special occasions or for high paying clients. The ceramic index for the teaware was 1.86, which is a relatively high number. Based on the archival information on Mary Champ, one would expect a lower number. This may be because the assemblages of Thomas Camp and Mary Champ could not be separated.

Table 11-15. Teaware Vessels and Ceramic Index for Champ House (15BB137).

Ware Type	Decoration Type	Vessel Form	Manufacture Dates	Mean	Total	Index
Chinese Export	Hand Painted Overglaze, Blue	Saucer	ca. 1780-1840	1810	1	-
	Hand Painted Overglaze, Polychrome	Saucer	ca. 1780-1840	1810	6	-
Pearlware	Hand Painted Underglaze, Polychrome	Cup	ca. 1780-1840	1810	1	1.5
	Transfer Print, Blue	Saucer	ca. 1795-1840	1813	1	3.0
	Transfer Print, Polychrome, Scalloped Rim	Cup	ca. 1795-1840	1818	1	3.67
Whiteware	Hand Painted Underglaze, Cran-Red	Cup	ca. 1830-1860	1845	1	1.5
		Saucer	ca. 1830-1860	1845	1	1.5
Mean Date and Ceramic Index				1816.75	12	2.23

The tableware from the Phase II excavations consisted of 10 vessels (Table 11-16). Three edge decorated pearlware vessels, one hand painted pearlware vessel, and three transfer printed pearlware were identified. Two hand painted whiteware vessels and one annular polychrome vessel were also identified. The different decorative styles in the Champ assemblage indicate that they were buying the current styles. The presence of hand painted and transfer printed pearlware also suggest multiple sets. The presence of the hand painted whiteware indicates that the site was occupied after the sale to Robert Champ in 1827.

No serving vessels were identified during the Phase II excavations, although there were some identified during the Phase III investigations. In general the vessels from the Champ house site were too fragmentary to identify vessel forms. The utilitarian vessels identified from the Phase II were also too fragmentary.

The ceramic assemblage from three of the sites along the Old Maysville Road, Neal's Old Place, Eli Current's Inn, and the Champ House, provide information of the economic status of the inhabitants and how they showed their membership in the developing middle class. The ceramic index from the sites are shown in Table 11-17 as comparison with other sites dating to the nineteenth century. The Neal farm and Eli Current's Inn have relatively high numbers which correspond to the archival evidence that they were both successful middle class farmers. The archival and ceramic index information indicated that the Champ farm had been successful until the death of Thomas Champ. As Thomas Champ aged the responsibilities for running the farm probably shifted to his son Robert. It is possible that more of the profits also went to Robert Champ over time. Mary Champ's economic condition declined after the property of divided based on tax and census records. The ceramic assemblage was from both the Thomas Champ and Mary Champ occupations and difficult to separate.

Table 11-16. Tableware from Champ House (15BB137).

Ware Type	Decoration Type	Vessel Form	Manufacture Dates	Mean	Total	Index
Pearlware	Edge Decorated, Green	Flatware	ca. 1795-1840	1818	1	1.33
		Plate	ca. 1795-1840	1818	1	1.33
	Hand Painted Underglaze, Polychrome	Small Plate	ca. 1780-1840	1818	1	2.17
	Shell Edge Decoration, Green	Plate	ca. 1795-1840	1818	1	1.33
	Transfer Print, Blue	Flatware	ca. 1795-1840	1818	1	2.67
		Plate	ca. 1795-1840	1818	1	2.67
Whiteware	Annular, Polychrome	Cup	ca. 1830-1860	1845	1	1.2
	Hand Painted Underglaze, Cran-Red	Flatware	ca. 1830-1860	1845	1	2.17
	Hand Painted Underglaze, Cran-Red, Scalloped Rim	Flatware	ca. 1830-1860	1845	1	2.17
Mean Date and Ceramic Index				1826.1	10	1.97

Table 11-17. Teaware ceramic Index Value for Several Sites.

Site, Occupation, State	Cup and Saucer Ceramic Index Value	Number of Vessels	Index Year
M. Tabbs, tenant farmer, MD	1.44	16	1846
J. Hale, farmer, OH	1.45	17	1824
L. Drake, farmer, IL	1.62	42	1845
Black Lucy, freed slave, MA	1.68	17	1833
Champ House, KY, Phase II	1.86	12	1814
Champ House, KY, Phase III	1.87	12	1814
J. Arnold, farmer, KY	1.90	47	1836/38
Neal's Old Place, farmer, KY, Phase II	1.91	54	1814
Old Landmark, Tavern, IL	2.14	82	1823-1832
Franklin Glass Factory, worker, OH	2.15	33	1824
Cannon's Point, overseer, GA	2.24	35	1824
P. Warren, merchant, MS	2.26	83	1846
Young Tavern, IL	2.3	35	1814
Walker Tavern, MI	2.31	35	1846
Eli Current's Inn, KY, Phase II	2.39	26	1825
E. Hardin, farmer, KY	2.77	67	1845/46
B. Robson, physician, NYC	2.97	53	1836
Green, merchant, VT	3.04	40	1833
Diaz, merchant, CA	3.59	35	1846

11.6 Discussion and Conclusions

Consumer decisions are among the cultural formation processes responsible for the archaeological record (Spencer-Wood and Heberling 1987:58). In selecting or acquiring goods, consumers shape and define their world. As Wall (1991:69) maintains “goods do not merely reflect various aspects of culture; rather, they constitute the very fabric of culture itself.” Social historians and archaeologists (see Martin 1994) see consumer demand as influenced and even driven by two distinct models. Most studies of factors that caused changes in ceramic consumption patterns have described in varying degrees a social emulation model where consumer demand is driving production. Other historians maintain those advances in machinery and factory organization increased the supply of cheaper goods that lowered prices further making goods available to the general populace. Whether supply or social emulation were the dominant drivers of consumption patterns, has been described by one scholar as a Gordian knot (Martin 1994, 1996). It is likely that many factors contributed to this perplexing problem and argues for using multiple models or contexts in describing and deciphering culture change.

Economic status or wealth has been found by researchers to include occupation, income, aggregate wealth, level of education, and religious affiliation. Archaeological studies have relied upon comparisons of ceramic cost indices (Miller 1980; 1991; Henry 1987; Wall 1994a; 1994b), frequencies of preferred cuts of meat or species (Ewen 1986; Huelsbeck 1991; Otto 1984; Reitz 1987), frequencies of artifact groups other than kitchen-related items (Mansberger 1987; Martin and Mansberger 1987), occupation of head of household (Stine 1990) and the amount of improved acreage a household owned (Andrews 1997; Stine 1990; Blanton 1989) to establish the social and economic rank of various sites. Current research suggests that a more refined ceramic vessel analysis can yield important information in reconstructing class or status positions of households (see Fitts 1999; Wall 1999).

Documentary research indicates that the Champs were initially of the middling class. Thomas Champ owned 200 acres, which was enough to develop a successful farm and land for his children. His son Robert farmed the land as Thomas became too old. Robert Champ had his own house and continued to farm after his father’s death. The land was divided among the ten heirs in 1811. Mary Champ received the house and 25 acres and lived there at least until she sold her 25 acres to her brother Robert in 1827.

Many recent scholars have focused on the “cult of domesticity”, the related concept of gentility, and class distinction or formation as topics of study. Social historians in the past have used probate records, etiquette literature, and even fiction to shed light on these complicated topics (Fitts 1999; Kasson 1987; Wall 1991, 1994a, 1994b, 1999; Williams 1987). Although this literature is biased, combined with archaeology, it does provide compelling arguments for class construction and the development of the middle class in nineteenth century America. Drawing on this literature and archaeology, recent efforts using data collected in New York City have proven fruitful (Fitts 1999; Wall 1999). Research on the Hardin farmstead in Owen County, Kentucky has been successful in looking at these questions in rural areas (Andrews et al. 2004). This study on rural sites along the Maysville road has provided more information on class construction and the development of the middle class in nineteenth century America.

Prevailing attitudes of the early to mid-nineteenth century embodied in the cult of domesticity were followed especially through dining and table etiquette based on research in urban areas (Fitts 1999; Wall 1999, 1994b). The vessel analysis of the Champ house assemblage was used to define economic status and wealth. The Champ’s purchased the latest in tea- and tablewares. Through symbolic means and cost, ceramics and dining behavior can exhibit and reinforce a household’s membership within a particular group, as well as, make strong statements about individuality (personal taste), and social

superiority. Class is not just a matter of money, but also style, aesthetic sensibilities, fashionable manners, and knowledge of the correct situational behaviors. Based on tax and census records Thomas Champ was a middling class farmer. His purchase of creamware and shell edged pearlware corresponded with the prevailing styles of the day. Mary Champ received the family home and at least 25 acres at her father's death. It may have been difficult to maintain her status by farming.

Based on the comparisons of the Phase II assemblages from the four Maysville sites and the Phase III investigations, the Champ House show elements of genteel behavior with the presence of fashionable ceramic styles. The comparisons also indicated that there was variability within the middle class. The variety and number of decorative styles and vessel forms at the Neal household and at the Eli Current Inn suggests that they were higher in economic status and social class than the Champs. The teaware ceramic index value (see Table 11-17, above) gives a number of 1.91 for John Neal and 1.87 for the Champs. Eli Current had an index value of 2.39 and in 1839 he owned 340 acres and ten slaves. John Neal owned 150 acres and ten slaves and Thomas Champ owned 200 acres and three slaves. Many of the studies of gentility and the cult of domesticity (Fitts 1999; Andrews et al. 2004) looked at sites that date to the 1850s and 1860s. Sites dating to the 1820s in rural areas like Bourbon County may not follow the same notions as urban sites in the 1860s.

11.7 Summary

In this section the ceramic analysis provided additional information on the comparative wealth of the Champs and how they participated in the developing consumer society. The economic measures based on tax and census records placed Thomas Champ in the middling class. Mary Champ owned 25 acres and was no longer in the middling class. The ceramic analysis indicates that the Champs purchased fashionable ceramic styles and showed elements of genteel behavior. The Champs did not seem to participate in the cult of domesticity. This lack of participation may be the result of the decline in economic status of Mary Champ or that it was not part of the behavior of Bourbon County farmers before 1830.

Section 12 -

The Archaeology of Inns

On the 1827 map of the Maysville road there are seven inns on the Paris to Millersburg section (Darnaby and Ellis 1827) (Figure 12-1). These inns include T. Champ's Inn (BB204) and Eli Currant's Inn (15BB133). The nature of these rural inns is difficult to determine. The names of public establishments varied often by region and were called inns, taverns, ordinaries, grog shops, and hotels. Travelers on the Maysville road in the years after the Revolutionary War not only stopped at inns, but also expected hospitality at farm houses (Yoder 1969).

According to tradition, frontier hospitality was boundless and the pioneer settler's latchstring was always out. Probably more often than not the hospitality was not free and the farmers often accepted remuneration for food and lodging (Yoder 1969). The transition from farmer to innkeeper may be as simple as writing inn on the side of the house (Yoder 1969). Latchstring inns have been described as private inns providing room and board for travelers (Andrews et al. 2010; Wagner and McCorvie 1992). This is in contrast to commercial inns which had licenses and offered a variety of activities including eating, drinking, smoking tobacco, informal information exchange, and overnight accommodations (Coleman 1935; Yoder 1969).

In this section previous historical and archaeological research will be discussed and the material from the excavations at 15BB137 and 15BB133 will be analyzed and discussed. The discussion of historical research will focus on definitions and descriptions of inns and taverns. The previous archaeological research will be used for comparisons with the Champ House (15BB137) and Eli Current's Inn (15BB133). Analysis of the archival material and archaeology of 15BB137 indicates that the T. Champ's Inn in the Darnaby and Ellis map referred to the house of Thomas Champ, grandson of the initial settler of 15BB137. The basic research question is to determine if latchstring inns have a specific archaeological signature that is different from farmsteads or other types of taverns.

12.1 Latchstring Inns, Taverns, and Hotels

Public establishments, places where one could receive food, lodging, and other services, have gone by different names and have also varied by the services provided. Early public establishments were referred to as ordinaries in 17th century Virginia and Massachusetts. By the late 18th and early 19th century public establishments were referred to as inns or taverns. The terms inns and taverns have been used interchangeably in historical reports and travelers accounts (Yoder 1969; Earle 1969). Archaeological studies have found differences between rural taverns and urban taverns and have described latchstring taverns and hotels (Sandefur et al. 2008; Wagner and McCorvie 1992; Rochman and Rothchild 1984). In order to better understand Champ's Inn, we will now look at latchstring inns, taverns, and hotels.

When travelers and settlers headed west after the Revolutionary War, there were few, if any, inns or taverns along the early trails or roads. Instead they stayed at farmhouses along the way. Although there was a popular concept for free and unrestrained of the early settler whose latchstring was always out, many traveler accounts mentioned that payments were expected for services rendered. The services rendered may have been only floor space and a meal (Yoder 1969).

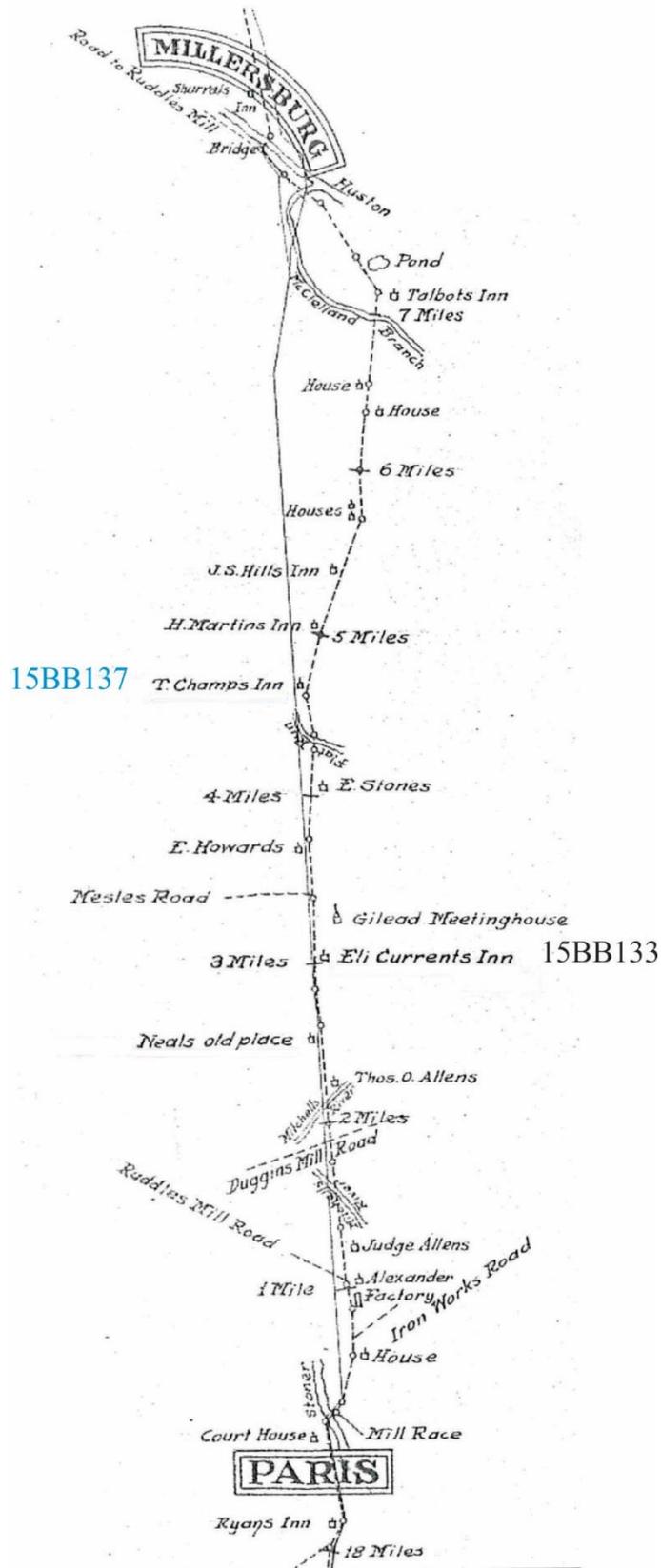


Figure 12-1. Darnaby and Ellis 1827.

Latchstring inns represent a type of inn that was not historically distinct from private hospitality (Yoder 1969:14). Accounts by travelers state that farmers usually charged for food and lodging, making the commercial differences difficult to establish. Some accounts did not make clear-cut designations of houses, calling them “quasi-hotels,” “a log tavern or dwelling,” or “a stopping place” (Yoder 1969). Yoder (1969:13-14) put forth a method for distinguishing between taverning and private hospitality by asking three questions:

1. Did he charge for his services, and if he did, were his rates “commercial” or did they merely constitute a kind of payment-for-cost-incurred?
2. Was his entertainment casual and unplanned, or was it systematic? What was the intent of the householder?
3. Did he have a tavern license issued by county or town officials?

For Yoder (1969) the householder was an innkeeper if he qualified under at least two of the above questions. According to Yoder (1969:15) the problem of differentiating between tavern and private dwelling was not a highly critical one. There interval of time that a house defied classification as either a dwelling or tavern was usually only a few years. Some inns began as settler cabins and became inns by circumstances rather than by the design of the householder.

The archaeological evidence to answer any of the above questions would exist only for question 2. Evidence of drinking, gaming, and smoking have been recovered from inn related sites. Whiskey and wine bottles are typical in inn sites along with drinking glasses. Evidence of gaming would be dice, pool related artifacts and poker chips. Evidence of smoking would include pipes. Evidence of the other two questions would be archival evidence of the license in court house records and advertisements in local newspapers (Day 2004; Rochman and Rothchild 1984; Wagner and McCorvie 1992).

Frontier inns developed by different processes. Settler’s cabins evolved into taverns sometimes by the design of the householder and sometimes by circumstances, such as location. Some modest taverns were built by men of small means to go into business. A number of taverns were built by venture capitalists and leased to the innkeeper (Yoder 1969). Architecturally, the first two types were farmsteads and during this early period were typically log houses. The most common types of log houses were a single pen story and a half and single pen two story structures (McAlister and McAlister 1984; Roberts 1996; Hinks et al. 2006). Structures built as taverns were usually larger than a typical farmstead, and often two stories with multiple rooms (Wagner and McCorvie 1992; Yoder 1969).

Starting an inn on the Maysville road or other frontier road was not difficult. The Maysville Road had numerous travelers that needed a place to stay the night (Friend 2005). An early settler of Wisconsin noted that all that was necessary for first rate establishment was the ability to raise a barrel of flour, pork, and whiskey (Yoder 1969). Running an inn also provided the farmer with a way to sell his surplus without paying for transportation. Being an innkeeper was one of the few respectable occupations open to women who had to support themselves. Although most innkeepers were men, it was common for women, often widows, to be innkeepers (Rochman and Rothchild 1984).

Latchstring Inns provided the innkeeper with a potentially lucrative occupation that required little investment. An early traveler named Welby described one inn as a rude log hut with a board inscribed with “Tavern” or “House of entertainment” (Yoder 1969:18). Inside the inn is sparingly furnished, but if the innkeeper has fowls and spirits and he minds, his fortune is made (Yoder 1969:18). A blind frontier preacher described his stay in a cabin: “After a substantial meal, a general talk, and evening prayers, all

got ready for bed. Mattresses are spread upon the floor and eight, ten, or twenty people, old and young, male and female, stow themselves away under cover in one room; how I never could precisely tell” (Yoder 1969:6).

The third type of tavern described by Yoder (1969) was built specifically as a tavern. These taverns were usually in villages or in urban areas and offered other services beyond food and lodging. Taverns/inns were among the most important social, political, and economic institutions in early American life. For instance, Thomas Jefferson wrote the Declaration of Independence in the Indian Queen Tavern in Philadelphia, and Frankfort was chosen as Kentucky’s seat of government in the Brent and Love’s Tavern in Lexington (Lathrop 1937:ix). Because they were so important, taverns were plentiful across the backcountry as well as in towns. According to one English traveler, “We can scarcely pass ten or twenty miles without seeing an ordinary. They all resemble each other, having a porch in front, the length of the house ... They take their names from the person who keeps the house, who is often a man of consequence” (Lathrop 1937:217). Yoder found a similar pattern in early nineteenth-century taverns in the Midwest, where he noted that tavern keepers were frequently more than businessmen; they were often leading citizens of their communities, frequently being appointed or elevated to important local positions (Yoder 1969). Wagner and McCorvie’s findings in Illinois (1992) support Yoder’s observations.

Multiple activities at taverns or inns included eating, drinking, banquets, tobacco smoking and chewing, gaming, informal information exchange, formal meetings, business dealings, political debates, union halls, post offices, news bureaus, and overnight accommodations (Coleman 1935; Rochman and Rothchild 1984; Thorp 1996; Yoder 1969). To get a license, the tavern keeper had to provide overnight accommodations, normally for four or more people (Wagner and McCorvie 1992; Yoder 1969), although many taverns operated without benefit of license (Thorp 1998; Yoder 1969). In providing overnight accommodations, the tavern, inn, or hotel became a unique institution separated from more lowly saloons and eating houses. These latter establishments offered alcoholic beverages and occasionally some food (see Lathrop 1937; Powers 1998; Williamson 1930; Yoder 1969).

According to Coleman (1935), little variability existed between Kentucky taverns during the eighteenth to early nineteenth centuries. Yoder’s review of tavern life and its transformation into hotel society presents some of the major developments involved in this transformation. Taverns as local institutions in the early nineteenth century involved the interaction of at least three types of people: landlord and his family and slaves or employees, local professional or urban patrons who lived in the town or village, and people who were classified in the nineteenth century as ‘movers’ (i.e., immigrants, a generally despised group). While members of each group were clearly self-defined, social and class differences cross cut these groupings.

By the early to mid-nineteenth century, more towns and cities developed and the variability in quality between different establishments increased greatly as entrepreneurs and businessmen began to cater to specific clientele. Fare might consist of a variety of meats (wild and domestic), fish and fowl, breads, vegetables, and fruits. In fancier taverns, food would be prepared and presented according to the latest recipes and fashions (Hooker 1981). Fancy mixed drinks and foreign beverages were also offered at expensive taverns (Coleman 1935; Hooker 1981). A typical tavern might have two to four rooms on the first floor and sleeping accommodations upstairs. Williamson (1930:21) mentions that many of the taverns on the frontier and in undeveloped sections of the country still clung to the multiple use of space and that “the entire upstairs of the inns was usually one room filled with beds.” In some improved inns or taverns, small rooms with single beds were also attainable (Williamson 1930). Downstairs rooms

often included the taproom or bar, dining room, sitting or newsroom, and an attached (or detached) kitchen (Coleman 1935:65). Some taverns were less elaborate, with one or two multipurpose rooms downstairs, such as a combination kitchen, dining room, and taproom (McBride and Fenton 1996).

Meals usually consisted of bread, butter, potatoes and fried pork; now and then you might get a few eggs, but not as far west as Michigan City. Such were the accommodations travelers had to put up with in those early days. If they could find a tin wash basin and clean towel for the whole party to use, generally used standing on a bench outside the back door, they considered themselves fortunate. For such occurrences, as the one-horse wagon was filled with mattresses, blankets, pillows, cloaks and other articles to make a comfortable bed on the floor, which was done according to circumstances, sometimes in the bar room, sometimes in the dining room (David 1934).

This dismal scene of crowding and bedding down wherever space was available appears to epitomize tavern life during the first forty years or so of the nineteenth century. Privacy and the social divisions that went with it were not often provided for in tavern stays. Beds were shared with strangers, often several to a bed and several beds to a room, with more people sleeping on the floors or in the lofts of the building. Often members of the opposite sex shared a room, although apparently not a bed unless they were related or married.

Seating at the dining table usually took no regard for social class either, and offers of more money, as many aristocratic foreigners found, did not always secure the privileges of class that they were used to. Often, all ate together, slept together, and suffered the consequences. Private rooms or private toilet facilities were usually not provided, and in fact tavern keepers seemed to prefer that no private facilities be provided. Water for washing was often provided in the yard of the house, and was usually not made available in bedrooms (Yoder 1969).

As the nineteenth century progressed, cultural changes and changes in transportation significantly impacted inns. The cultural change consisted of the transformation from the tavern society to the hotel society. A feature of the tavern was the table d'hôtel with its common menu and fixed eating hours which was symbolic of the spirit of democracy (Yoder 1969:178). By the middle of the nineteenth century hotel managers were printing menu sheets and advertising meals at all hours. Hotels had abandoned the American Plan, where lodging and meals were sold as one package, and adopted the European Plan (Yoder 1969:178). Classes of hotels were created, each catering to a preferred clientele. The moneyed class was able to pay five dollars for a meal a la carte which would have cost fifty cents at the table d'hôtel (Yoder 1969:179).

The changes in transportation consisted of the construction of weatherproof roads and the construction of railroads. Maysville road was completely macadamized by 1835 (Friend 2005). Tavern owners at other locations along the National Road were generally against road improvement since it would speed up traffic and cost them business. Improved roads and bridges increased traffic overall, although specific taverns may suffer. Taverns that were able to have stage coaches stop at their establishment were able to continue in business (Raitz and O'Malley 2012). The construction of railroads had a negative impact on rural inns and taverns. Inns were able to persist where railroads did not penetrate and stage coaches continued to be used (Yoder 1969:177).

Information on specific inns along the Maysville Road in Bourbon County is limited. The Western Citizen, the Paris, Kentucky newspaper contained advertisements for tavern and inns. In the December 10, 1831 edition of the paper there was an advertisement for Bell's Tavern. The tavern is described as a hotel and house of entertainment. In the same edition a tavern and farm is listed for sale. It is located on the road

from Paris to Georgetown. The house is described as large and the farm contains 370 acres. In the October 25, 1828 edition there is an advertisement for Throckmorton's Inn, located on Limestone Road between Millersburg and Blue Licks. It is described as a house of entertainment for travelers. The advertisement also mentions that the mail stage stops twice a day at breakfast and dinner and once on Sunday and Monday.

12.2 Previous Archaeological Research

Rochman and Rothchild (1984) analyzed four colonial tavern sites in urban and rural locations to determine if there were any differences between them. Two of the sites were in urban areas and two were in rural areas and they were compared using a statistical test, the Brainerd-Robinson Coefficient of Agreement. The urban sites had artifact assemblages that suggested activities related to drinking and socializing while the rural site had assemblages related to food consumption (Rochman and Rothchild 1984).

The four taverns dated to the 17th century. The taverns in the study consisted of Wellfleet Tavern near Wellfleet, Massachusetts, John Earthy's Tavern in Pemaquid, Maine, a tavern in Jamestown, Virginia, and the Lovelace Tavern in New York City.

For the study, artifact categories were selected to differentiate the activities of smoking, drinking, and food consumption. Smoking and drinking are associated with urban taverns, while the central activity at rural taverns was eating. The artifact categories selected were tobacco pipes, drinking and bottle glass, and ceramics.

The Higbee Tavern (15FA222) was a roadside tavern and residence in Fayette County, Kentucky excavated by Cultural Resource Analysts (Day 2004). The tavern was operated by John Higbee from 1796 until his death in 1823. The inn continued to be operated until it burned in 1855. Besides the tavern, Higbee also owned 270 acres of land, 17 slaves, 17 horses, a mill and a distillery. Higbee Tavern was well known in the Bluegrass as not only a place for eating, drinking, and sleeping, but for conducting business, convening court, holding political meetings, and socializing.

From the artifacts recovered from the excavations, it appears that John Higbee was middle class to upper middle class. There were a high percentage of service vessels as would be expected at a tavern. The artifact assemblage also included tumblers and stemware suggesting that Higbee's clientele drank beer, liquor, and wine. Faunal remains were dominated by pork and beef, but also included wild game such as venison.

Young's Tavern and The Old Landmark Tavern were excavated by Wagner and McCorvie (1992). The two nineteenth century taverns were located along the St. Louis-Vincennes Trace in Southern Illinois. Young's Tavern was described as a latchstring inn, which was basically a residence that also functioned as an inn. The structure was a log cabin with few nails used in the construction. Samuel Young squatted on the property. The quality of service at Young's tavern appears to have been dubious and other unlicensed taverns may have been dangerous to travelers. The Young family appears on a list of bad tavern keepers along the St. Louis-Vincennes Trace. Besides being a bad tavern keeper, Young was also indicted on various charges, including assault and battery in 1826, 1828, and 1830 (Wagner and McCorvie 1992:72). The ceramic index for Young's ceramic assemblage was high for his economic status. Wagner and McCorvie (1992) believe young was able to purchase the more expensive ceramics with the inn keeper income. Young's Tavern lasted from 1813 to 1819.

The Old Landmark Tavern located near Young's Tavern. Lemuel Lee bought the property in 1819 and built a single-pen log cabin. Benjamin Vermillion bought the Old Landmark Tavern in 1825. He expanded the structure and by the mid-nineteenth century the tavern was a large two story log and frame structure. The artifact assemblages from the Young's Tavern and the Old Landmark Tavern do not appear to be indicative of specialized tavern function. The assemblage appears to be represent generalized domestic homes and farmsteads. Wagner and McCorvie (1992) found that certain artifacts appear more frequently at tavern sites. These include ceramic serving vessels, chamber pots, alcohol related glassware, and lantern glass.

The Baber Hotel (15McL137) was located in the town of Rumsey in McLean County, Kentucky (Sandefur et al. 2008). The site was an early to late nineteenth century hotel/tavern. During the excavation 244 features were discovered, including postmolds, brick chimney, brick piers, six cellars, eight privy vaults, and two possible cisterns.

The archaeological excavation also yielded artifact assemblages dating to the early and middle nineteenth century consistent with domestic or residential hotel occupation. The presence of liquor bottles, tumblers, smoking pipes, billiards, and other male-related game pieces suggest Baber had a tap or bar room in his house. The presence of artifacts related to female activities suggests the presence of a female space or parlor. Baber's hotel appeared to meet the needs of both working and middle classes (Sandefur et al. 2008).

12.3 Inn Assemblage Comparisons

In previous studies by Sandefur et al. (2008) and Wagner and McCorvie (1992) ceramic and glass assemblages were compared. Wagner and McCorvie (1992) also compared tavern assemblages and household assemblages by functional categories to determine if any patterns were observed. The methodology used for this analysis is described in Section 11.

In their study of the Baber Hotel, Sandefur et al. (2008) noted the high frequency of serving vessels and high frequency of liquor bottles and drinking glasses are common at tavern sites. An urban hotel would be expected to have higher numbers than rural inns, especially those early sites on the frontier. Table 12-1 compares the ceramics from various tavern sites.

Table 12-1. Vessel Function Comparisons for Several Sites.

Vessels	Champ		Current		Baber		Higbee		Young		Landmark		Hardin		Neal	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Teaware	24	33.3	37	43.0	222	34.0	146	27.0	37	41.6	97	36.7	75	35.0	68	55.7
Tableware	22	30.5	35	40.7	242	37.2	223	41.3	37	41.6	106	40.2	67	31.3	37	30.3
Serving	4	5.6	14	16.3	107	16.4	74	13.7	3	3.4	18	6.8	20	9.3	14	11.5
Storage	9	12.5			40	6.2			9	10.0	26	9.8	12	5.6	3	2.5
Utilitarian Undetermined	13	18.1			41	6.3					13	4.9	31	14.4		
Utilitarian Household					4	0.6	4	0.7			2	0.8	3	1.4		
Unidentified					2	0.3	93	17.3	3	3.4	2	0.8				
Total	72	100	86	100	652	100	540	100	89	100	264	100	214	100	122	100

There are patterns that emerge from Table 12-1 that separate latchstring inns from more established inn and inns from residences. Baber Hotel is an urban hotel and has more serving vessels and more vessels than any of the other sites. The variety of vessels from Baber Hotel was also greater than the other inns mentioned (Sandefur et al. 2008). Baber Hotel, Higbee Tavern, and the Old Landmark Tavern have more tableware vessels than teaware vessels. This may be the result of more use by guests and the need for more tableware for guest in an inn or hotel. The percentage of serving ware at the Hardin farmstead and the Neal farmstead indicate that wealth was also a factor in the ceramic assemblage (Andrews et al. 2010, 2002; Fitts 1999). Neal was a successful farmer with 150 acres of land and slaves (BCTA 1822). Hardin was also a successful farmer and slave owner and spent more than would be expected for his ceramic assemblage in order to establish and maintain his economic status and social class (Andrews et al. 2004).

The patterns for the Champ and Current properties were more ambiguous. Both have more teaware than tableware, suggesting residences rather than inns. The number of serving vessels varied between the two households. The Champs had four serving vessels, which was similar to the number for Young's Tavern (n=3). Eli Current had 14 serving vessels which was 16.3% of the total vessels which similar to the percentage of serving vessels for the Baber Hotel. It should be noted that the Current and Neal assemblages were from Phase II investigations rather than Phase III investigations. Eli Current was a successful farmer when he sold the house site in 1839. Mary Champ, in 1827, owned 25 acres of land no slaves and no horses.

Although the ceramic vessel assemblages of Young's Tavern and the Champ House are similar, their histories are very different. Thomas Champ established the farm in 1787 and Mary Champ, his daughter, continued living in the house at least until 1827 when she sold the property to her brother Robert. The Champs had lived in the house for 40 years. The decorative ware types are consistent with this occupation and were similar to the Neal assemblage. Young lived in the log cabin for six years.

In 1827, when Darnaby and Ellis published their map, Eli Current owned 100 acres of land, two slaves and six horses. His father, Thomas Current owned 915 acres, 12 slaves and six horses in 1823, two years after he had a tavern license. In 1825, Thomas Champ owned 125 acres of land five slaves, and eight horses (BCTA 1827, 1825, 1823; Bundy 2006; Andrews et al. 2010).

Sandefur et al. (2008) established several activities at Baber Hotel based on various artifacts. For the Baber Hotel the activated were separated by gender. Men's activates consisted of drinking, gaming and smoking and women's activities focused on sewing. Sandefur et al. (2008) believed that the men's activities were taking place in a barroom, while the women's activities were taking place in a parlor.

The amount of material at the Baber Hotel and Higbee Tavern show the different function of the sites compared to the others in Table 12-2. The number of tumblers, stemmed glasses, and liquor bottles at those two sites indicates the importance of drinking at these establishments. Both sites also had a large number of smoking pipes indicating the importance of smoking. The number of pins and thimbles at Baber and Higbee also indicated the presence of women, perhaps in parlors at both places. The presence of tumblers and liquor bottle at the Old Landmark suggest that drinking was taking place but not at the scale of the activities at Baber and Higbee. The artifacts recovered from Young, Current, and Champ indicate various activities were undertaken by the household. A frontier tavern site such as Young's did not have the specialized sites functions of Higbee or even Old Landmark, so the assemblage would be similar to a home or farmstead (Wagner and McCorvie 1992; Martin 1977).

Table 12-2. Inn Related Artifacts at Various Sites.

Artifacts	Baber	Higbee	Landmark	Young	Champ	Current
Tumbler	39	51	11	3		2
Stemmed	6	6				1
Whiskey Flask	6	6	6	2	1	
Whiskey Plain	1	5				
Wine	2	7	6	3		1
Medicine	43	17			1	1
Vial/Medicine	27		8			1
Thimbles	10	3	1		1	
Pin	99	50			2	
Smoking Pipe	84	90	4	4	7	
Marbles	83	18	4	2	1	
Billiard Related	2					
Domino	3					
Dice	1					
Totals	406	253	40	14	13	6

The artifacts on Table 12-2 for Champ and Current do not provide conclusive evidence for being inns, although small early inns could be indistinguishable from farmsteads. All of the artifacts from the Current site are common on middle class farmsteads. The Champ artifacts are not out of place. Tobacco was grown on the farm and some of the Champs could have used pipes. Children grew up in the house and could have played with marbles. Mary Champ, her mother, and her sisters would have been involved in sewing.

Although it is difficult to distinguish latchstring inns from farmsteads, hotels, like Baber and taverns like Higbees contain artifact assemblages that are very different from middle class farmsteads. The large numbers of ceramics, bottle glass, and table glass are not found on the Maysville Road sites or farmsteads like Hardin.

Wagner and McCorvie (1992) looked at tavern site by functional artifact categories and found that the percentages for kitchen artifacts were higher than the percentages for architecture artifacts. There was some variation with Old Landmark having 52.6% kitchen artifacts to 43% architecture artifacts and Young's Tavern having 82.2% kitchen artifacts and 12.8% architecture. Young's Tavern was a log cabin with very few nails used in construction (Wagner and McCorvie 1992). In Table 12-3 we look at functional artifact groups, kitchen and architecture, for inns and farmsteads.

The functional artifact group percentages do not provide difference between inns and farmsteads. Champ has the percentage of architecture artifacts, which is in part due to the large number of mortar recovered. Taking the mortar out the numbers would be 57% architecture and 38% kitchen. The Young numbers relate to the log construction and lack of nails and other architectural artifacts. Neal's high percentage of architectural artifacts was based on a high quantity of brick recovered. Wagner and McCorvie (1992) and Martin (1977) believed that the high frequency of kitchen artifacts, especially ceramics and glass, was based on the need for tableware, teaware, and serving dishes for their guests.

Table 12-3. Functional Artifact Groups for Inn and Farmsteads.

Artifact Group	Champ	Current	Baber	Higbee
Kitchen	16%	39.8%	52.8%	33.5%
Architecture	81%	48.9%	36.4%	35.7%

Artifact Group	Landmark	Young	Hardin	Neal
Kitchen	52.0%	82.2%	61.2%	18.8%
Architecture	43.0%	12.8%	34.1%	69.7%

Hardin was particularly interested in purchasing ceramics to portray his economic status and social class (Andrews et al. 2002).

12.4 T. Champ's Inn and Eli Current's Inn

In 1827, Darnaby and Ellis make a map of the Lexington-Maysville Turnpike. The section shown in Figure 12-1 between Paris and Millersburg has about six inns, several houses, the Paris Courthouse, and the Gilead Meetinghouse. A house that does not appear on the map is Jefferson Scott's New Forest farmstead. Scott was one of the wealthiest farmers between Paris and Millersburg. The map was made to show proposed improvements to the road, which were completed in 1835. During this period mapmakers may have charged to put people houses and business on their maps (Andrews et al. 2010). The innkeepers may have considered the map as an excellent chance to advertise their inns. The map may have been made to enhance the possibilities of constructing the Maysville Turnpike by showing the possible economic opportunities along the road. Although the map provides important information for historians, geographers, and archaeologist, it should not be seen as a completely accurate representation.

T. Champ's Inn was believed to be the site 15BB137. This site was believed to be the original farmstead for Thomas Champ, who bought the property in 1787. In 1808, Thomas Champ died and his property was divided among his heirs. Mary Champ was given Lot 6 which was along the Maysville Road. She sold this property to her brother Robert in 1827. Nancy Champ McKinney and her husband were given Lot 4, which was along the road next to Lot 6. They sold the lot to Robert Champ in 1819. This may have been the property listed for Polly Champ in the Bourbon County Tax Assessment records. In Robert Champ's 1828 will he leaves his house and about 100 acres to his wife Sarah. He leaves his son Thomas the property where he lives. In 1828 there are two houses described on the Champ property and neither one are 15BB137. The house where Thomas Champ, son of Robert, lived is the brick house that still stands. It is described as the Thomas Champ house or Sulpher Spring Farm in the National Register of historic Places application form. The site was listed as BB204.

It seems more likely that the T. Champ's Inn on the 1827 map referred to the Thomas Champ house (BB204) rather than Mary Champ's house. It is possible that T. Champ's Inn was located at 15BB137. If 15BB137 was a latchstring inn it would be difficult to document from the archaeological record (Wagner and McCorvie 1992). Champ's Inn could have become an inn during the elder Thomas Champ occupation. The presence of 63 gallons of whiskey and four bedsteads lead Bundy (2006) and Andrews et al. (2010) to believe there was an inn at 15BB137. The presence of multiple bedsteads at farmsteads with large families was not uncommon (McBride et al 2010; 2013; Friedlander 1991). Whiskey was used as barter in early Kentucky (Veach 2013, Crowgey 2008). The descriptions of latchstring inns have

guests sleeping on beds or floors, whatever was available (Yoder 1969). With four beds and 63 gallons of whiskey, one might expect the artifact assemblage of Champ's Inn to be more like Higbee's Tavern or at least the Old Landmark.

Latch string inns were simple operations that usually lasted for a short period of time. All one needed for a successful operation was flour, meat, and whiskey, according to a source in Yoder (1969). All one need to call one's house an inn was a sign or to just paint inn on the wall (Yoder 1969). It is possible that the landscape depicted in the Darnaby and Ellis map lasted only a short period. As the improvements to Maysville Road were completed transportation was improved. Stagecoaches, horses, and wagons were able to get from Maysville to Lexington more quickly, eliminating the need for so many inns (Raitz and O'Malley 2012). The nature of inns and travelers were changing too. Latchstring inns would soon disappear to be replaced by taverns and hotels with more comfort and more privacy (Yoder 1969).

The archaeological evidence does not support the theory that Champ's Farmstead (15BB237) and Eli Current's Inn (15BB133) were latchstring inns. The artifact assemblages from 15BB137 and 15BB133 resemble farmsteads. Eli Current had more ceramics and a higher ceramic index (see Section 11). Current had 14 serving vessels which could represent inn activity or could represent his economic status and social class. Current had over 300 acres in the 1830s as opposed to Mary Champ's 25 acres. If T. Champ's Inn was at the Thomas Champ house (BB204) we don't have data on his artifact assemblage. His economic status in 1827 was similar to the status of Eli Current (see Section 10).

12.5 Summary

In this section we have described early inns, particularly latchstring inns and how Champ's Farmstead and Eli Current's Inn can be described archaeologically. Latchstring inns do not differ from farmsteads based on historic accounts and archaeological investigations. Urban inns and hotels, such as the Baber Hotel, have distinctive artifact assemblages indicating specialized activities, such as drinking and gaming. Rural inns such as Higbee Tavern also show an extensive artifact assemblage that also indicates specialized activities. Other rural inns, such as the old Landmark was built specifically as an inn but did not show the range of activities as at Higbee's Tavern or the Baber Hotel. Archival documents do not provide information if the sites 15BB137 or 15BB133 were inns. Eli Current sold the property in 1839 and in the 1850 and 1860 census records he was described as a farmer and there was no mention of tavern licenses. If T. Champ's Inn was at 15BB137, it may have ceased operation soon after Mary Champ sold the property to her brother in 1827. If the inn was on Thomas Champ's farm it may have ceased operation soon after his death in 1832. In the 1861 Hewitt map there are no inns mentioned and the Thomas Champ house (BB204) is owned by Mrs. Champ (Figure 12-2).

Section 13 -

Summary and Conclusion

13.1 Introduction

Thomas Champ and his family left Loudoun County, Virginia and headed west to Kentucky along with thousands of others after the Revolutionary War. Land was becoming scarce in Loudoun County and for many, Kentucky represented a land of milk and honey and a place where one can become a freehold with plenty of rich land and be able to settle his children around him (Friend 1999:126). In 1787 James Parberry sold Thomas Champ 200 acres along what would become the Maysville Road. A log house was built by Thomas Champ and fields were cleared and planted. Thomas Champ died in 1808 and the property was divided among his children. It appears that Mary Champ, Thomas's daughter, inherited the house and lived in it until she sold her property to her brother Robert in 1827. Robert continued the Champ family farm and his son, Thomas expanded it and built a brick house (BB204). The log house was apparently abandoned and demolished during the late 1820s or 1830s. During this period, there were changes to the landscape and the economic and social systems which are important to understanding this archaeological site.

13.2 Summary of the Archaeological Investigations at 15BB137

The Phase III archaeological field investigations consisted of the excavation of 55 test units the mechanical removal of the topsoil. Twenty features were located during the hand excavation of the test units. An additional 14 features were located during the mechanical removal of the topsoil. The placement of the posthole features, along with the chimney and possible cellar fill provided information on house orientation and construction methods. Trash pits provided important faunal and botanical information. The artifacts recovered from the features and units provided information to answer research questions.

Based on the Phase II investigation the Thomas and Mary Champ House was thought to be of log or frame construction. In the Phase III investigations research questions involved house construction, orientation and site layout. The nail assemblage suggests the house was constructed of logs. The house, kitchen, and cellar were built about the same time in the late eighteenth century. The Kitchen and cellar were filled in by Mary Champ after 1820. The house lot and yard areas are physiographically defined by the presence of features and the frequencies of functional artifacts. The domestic dwelling was located in the southwestern portion of the site and the house faced the walkway leading from the historic Maysville Road. The northeastern side of the structure appears to have been the main area for domestic activity and discard. The western side and front yard appeared to have been the main area for domestic activities and discard. This main activity area would have been centrally located within the inner yard adjacent the house. Female oriented activities dominated by food preparation and storage activities would have taken place within this inner yard.

Although the house construction and aspects of the focus raising corn and pork fit with the upland south pattern, the market production as seen from the inventory of Thomas Champ indicates that the Champs were interested in profit and increasing the value of their farm. Based on the amount of land Thomas Champ owned and his personal estate, he was a successful middling farmer. Thomas Champ, like most of the settlers that arrived to Kentucky after the Revolutionary War, was looking to work and get rich (Aron 1996; Friend 2005).

Mary Champ continued to live in the Champ log house until at least 1827. Based on the tax records, Mary Champ was not a middling farmer with only 25 acres. By the time she sold her property to her brother Robert, it consisted of 25 acres, no slaves, and no horses and valued at \$450, less than a tenth of the value of Robert's property. Based on the archival evidence Mary Champ may have become a marginalized self-sufficient farmer rather than being engaged in commercial production.

The most popular forms of ceramics of the period were found at Neal's farmstead (15BB131), Eli Current's Inn (15BB133), and at T. Champ's Inn (15BB137). The ceramic analysis indicated that the Neal and Current households were wealthier than the Champ household, although they all could be described as middling class and part of the elite. The 1808 inventory for Thomas Champ and the tax assessment lists for John Neal and Eli Current also indicate they were all successful middle class farmers. The ceramic analysis shows elements of genteel behavior with the presence of the most fashionable ceramic styles and serving vessels at the three sites. It was not possible to separate the Thomas Champ occupation and the Mary Champ occupation.

The 1827 map Lexington to Maysville Road by Darnby and Ellis shows several inns between Paris and Millersburg. On the map, T. Champ's Inn was located near 15BB137 and Eli Current's Inn was 15BB133. Based on earlier research the two inns were believed to be latchstring inns, a more informal type of inn, which was located at a house or farmstead and usually not modified. The analysis of artifacts and site structure was focused on determining if latchstring inns could be distinguished from farmsteads or other types of inns. Earlier work by Wagner and McCorvie (1992) and Martin (1977) indicated that latchstring inns were similar to farmsteads and house. The results of the analysis on the Current's Inn found that it was similar to farmsteads. There is no documentation to indicate that the house occupied by Thomas Champ and Mary Champ (15BB137) was an inn.

Additional analysis of archival data indicated that Thomas Champ, son of Robert Champ, had built his brick house before 1827. Thomas Champ's economic status was similar to that of Eli Current around 1827. It is possible, even more likely that T. Champ's Inn referred to Thomas Champ's house rather than Mary Champ's house or Old Thomas Champ's place.

The 1827 Darnby and Ellis map may have been a picture show the end of an era. By the time the improvements to the Maysville Road were completed all the inns shown on the map may have been gone. By the middle of the nineteenth century the nature of inns had changed. Privacy was important, the style of dining had changed, and the frontier had moved far to the west. Transportation was changing with the improvements of river travel, railroads, and roads. Maysville Road was no longer the major trade and transportation route from the Ohio River to Lexington, although this had occurred before 1827.

The Champ Farmstead began by Thomas Champ with a 200 acre farm and a log house in 1787. It expanded to 438 acres and brick house in 1831 under Thomas Champ, the grandson of Thomas Champ. Levi Champ, great-great-grandson of Thomas Champ was farming about 90 acres on 1880. Levi Champs' son John K. Champ sold the property to James Clark in 1911.

The Thomas and Mary Champ House was built as the frontier moved to the west and settlers were coming down the Maysville Road by the thousands. The Champs had cut trees for the house and to clear the field for agriculture. Mary Champ lived in the house until at least 1827 when she sold her property to her brother Robert. The house eventually collapsed or was demolished sometime after 1827.

13.3 Conclusion

This section summarizes the study of the Thomas and Mary Champ House (15BB137). The site was an early farm along the Old Maysville Road. It appears that T. Champs' Inn was BB204 rather than 15BB137. The study does provide information on the settlement and development of the road during the late eighteenth century and early eighteenth century. Thomas Champ and his decedents farmed the property for 124 years. The Champ House and other sites also provided information on changes in market production and farming along the Maysville Road in early Bourbon County.

Section 14 -

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Appendix A -

Artifact Inventory

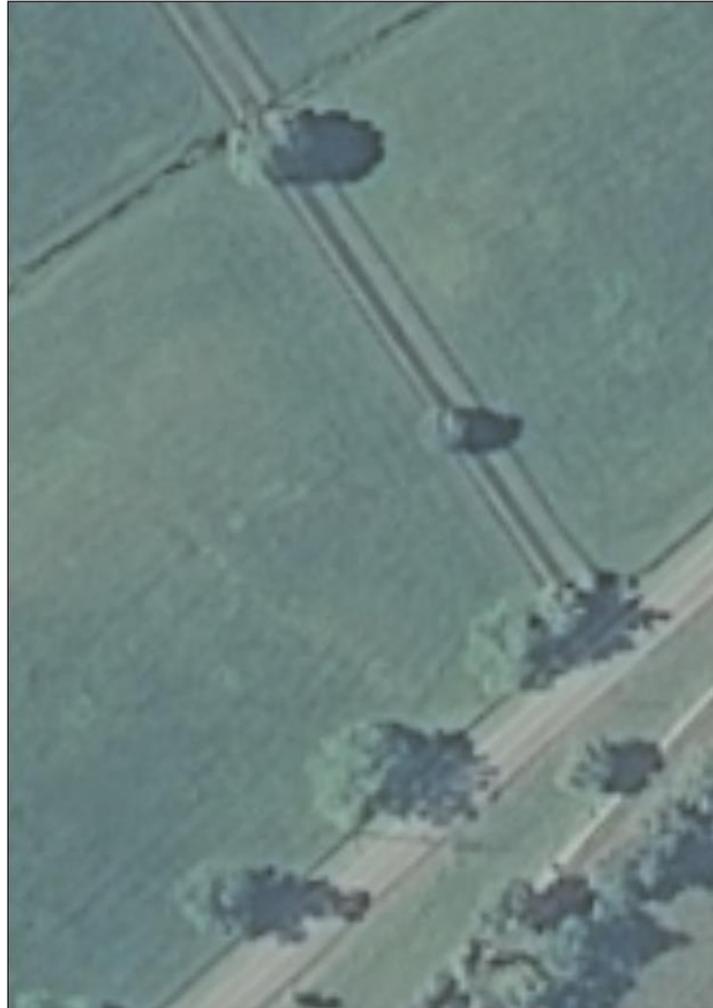
Historic and Prehistoric Artifact Inventory on CD

Appendix B -

Geophysical Investigation of Site 15BB137, an
Historic Site in Bourbon County, Kentucky

Geophysical Investigation of Site 15BB137, an Historic Site in Bourbon County, Kentucky

By
Donald L. Handshoe





Letter Report
Kentucky Archaeological Survey
Jointly Administered By:

University of Kentucky
Kentucky Heritage Council

October 2011

INTRODUCTION

On October 4, 2011, the Kentucky Archaeological Survey (KAS) conducted a geophysical survey, at the request of Wilbur-Smith Associates, of Site 15BB137. Site 15BB137, is an historic site in Bourbon County, Kentucky, that was occupied beginning in the late 1700s and through the mid-1800s. Previous archaeological investigations had identified concentrations of historic artifacts that were thought to be associated with a domestic structure (Bundy 2006 & King 2003). The purpose of this study was to evaluate the geophysical properties of the site in order to locate any extant architectural or historic features.

For this survey, electrical resistance was employed. Electrical resistance is greatly affected by features such as buried walls and foundations because they restrict the flow of ions and produce a resistance maxima. The author was assisted by David McBride, Henry W. Goodman, and Meredith Bergen, and the crew spent 24 hours at the site.

Four grids (Figure 1) were investigated within the project area. Processing of the collected data resulted in the identification of several anomalies that have a high likelihood of representing historic features. Of these, two areas were selected as having high potential while a third, though less likely, was also selected for further investigation. These selections were based on the intensity of the data, the patterning of the anomalies, and features of the terrain such as location and exposed stone possibly relating to a structure.

BACKGROUND

Geophysical methods of investigation were initially developed for the study of subsurface geological features. In recent years, however, they have become more and more important for the detection of archaeological features (Smekalova et al. 2005). Geophysical remote sensing technology has been applied to archaeological research in North America since the 1930s (Aitken 1961). During the 1980s, geophysical surveys in archaeology intensified as commercial equipment and software became more readily available, a trend that continues today. The increasing availability of commercial equipment amplified the quality and quantity of data collected, and the more intensive usage by archaeologists has resulted in theoretical and methodological advancements (Clark 1996; Conyers 2004; Gafney and Gater 2003).

Electrical resistance surveys work on the principle that anomalies beneath the ground can be detected by differences in their resistance to the flow of an electrical current. These surveys measure the distortion of an induced electrical field caused by something below the surface of the ground.

To cause a charge to flow, a voltage must be applied. Voltage is also referred to as potential difference (a measure of the energy used to move the charge). As the voltage is applied and the current flows, a resistance is encountered to the movement of the charge. The resistance is dependent on the physical characteristics of the medium in which the charge flows. These three quantities (current, voltage, and resistance) are related by Ohm's law where resistance is measured in Ohm's (Ω), voltage in volts (V), and current in amperes or amps (A) (Rapp and Hill 1998).

$$\text{Resistance} = \frac{\text{Voltage}}{\text{Current}}, \quad \text{or} \quad R = \frac{V}{I}$$

If the sediments are completely uniform, there will be no contrast in the electrical data and the resulting map will be featureless. When an archaeological feature (or geological feature) differs from the sediments in various properties (moisture content, electrolytes, and permeability), then the induced electrical field is no longer uniform and the resistance either increases or decreases. The differences in the electrical properties or contrast combined with the size and depth of archaeological features produces a record that can be mapped (Somers 1998).

The resistance to the flow of electrical current in sediments and soils depends on several variables, including soil moisture, soluble salts (mobile ions), soil permeability and temperature (Somers 1998). There is rarely a one-to-one correspondence between an individual variable and the resultant resistance data. On the contrary, these variables show wide spatial variation depending on environmental conditions. Therefore, the resistivity of different archaeological sites changes accordingly. Because no two archaeological sites possess the same subsurface properties, the resistivity data from different archaeological sites will vary as well. It is entirely possible that a feature that is easily found by resistivity survey in one location may be imperceptible in another.

Resistivity and resistance surveys are dependent on the underlying sediments, which themselves differ in their resistant values. Loams have the lowest resistivity and crystalline rocks the highest. It should be apparent that knowing as much as possible about the matrix of the archaeological site and the types of features that might be encountered is necessary for accurate data interpretation. Geologic strata produce strong electrical resistance contrasts, which could effectively wash out the lower contrasting archaeological features. Archaeological features that typically produce resistance maxima are buried walls and features that restrict the flow of ions. Ditches and pits that were later filled, even with the same sediments or soil from the surrounding area, will result in resistivity minima. Lower resistivity may result from loosely packed fill, which is more permeable, retains more moisture, and has organic matter creating more ions (Rapp and Hill 1998).

METHODOLOGY

A GeoScan RM15-D resistance meter configured using the MPX15 multiplexer with a parallel twin array on a 1m beam was used to complete the resistance survey. The depth below surface in which the resistance meter collects data is proportionate to the distance between the probes so a 1m beam with probes spaced at 50 cm was chosen to achieve a depth of 50 cm. The survey area was divided into four 20 x 20 m grids (Figure 1). Data were collected using the zig-zag method on 50 cm transects with 50 cm meter intervals. Following collection, the data were downloaded to a computer using Geoplot 3.0 software, which presents the quantified data as a grayscale image. The data were despiked to eliminate high responses likely due to the probes coming into contact with metallic objects. Next, a high-pass filter was applied to remove low-frequency background noise so as to provide a greater contrast between anomalies. The data were then interpolated to provide more aesthetically presentable images and finally mapped using the Surfer 10.0 software.

RESULTS

The geophysical survey conducted by KAS revealed several interesting anomalies (Figure 2). High or low resistance values (anomalies) are represented by darker or lighter spots on gray-scale images. After reviewing the data, three clusters were chosen for further investigation (Figure 3). These anomalies are thought to have the highest probability of representing historic features.

Cluster 1, located in Grid 4, represents the highest potential. Grid 4 is located at an optimal location within Site 15BB137 for containing historic residential features as it is located on the highest and flattest portion of the site. In addition, several moderately sized stones were exposed on the surface in the vicinity of Cluster 1. While they may be natural, they could also be the remnants of an historic structure. Most of the survey area averaged an electrical resistance of approximately 25 ohms. Other high resistance anomalies averaged approximately 30 ohms but Cluster 1 averaged 35-40 ohms. This is a statistically significant increase in electrical resistance. Finally, the soil associated with Cluster 1 was considerably more compact than other areas (as determined by the resistance to inserting the machine probes into the ground

Cluster 2, located in Grid 2, had the second highest potential for historic features. This cluster is also situated on high ground that would be suitable area for a house or an out building. The resistance data in this cluster represent areas of both high resistance values (possible architecture features) and low resistance values (possible ditches or other disturbances which would cause the soil to be more loosely compacted).

Cluster 3, located in Grid 3, represents the third most probable area for historic features. The data values within this cluster are somewhat less resistant than the others, but it still falls within an acceptable range of what one would expect on an historic site. If it is indeed a cultural feature, it may represent an outbuilding.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

An electrical resistance survey conducted by KAS of Site 15BB137 resulted in the identification of three concentrations of anomalies that have a high potential to represent late 1700s to mid-1800s structural remains. Of these, Clusters 1 and 2 contain highly resistant anomalies. Such anomalies are often the trademark of buried architectural remains. It should be noted, however, that both clusters are situated around large trees. Thus, the possibility exists that the identified anomalies may not represent structural remains but are the result of a combination of tree planting, tree root massing, and the presence of buried posts for the wooden fences. These activities can, and often do, produce high electrical resistance values.

Cluster 3, while less substantial than the others, may also be a cultural feature. It has considerably higher resistance values than its surrounding soil and appears to be loosely patterned in a way not typically found in natural soils.

While this investigation found anomalies consistent with historic features, it is only with ground-truthing that the cause of a given anomaly can be determined with any certainty. It is highly

recommended that these anomalies be further tested through soil coring or careful excavation to determine their true nature.



Figure 1. Aerial Photo of Survey Area with Grids Overlain.

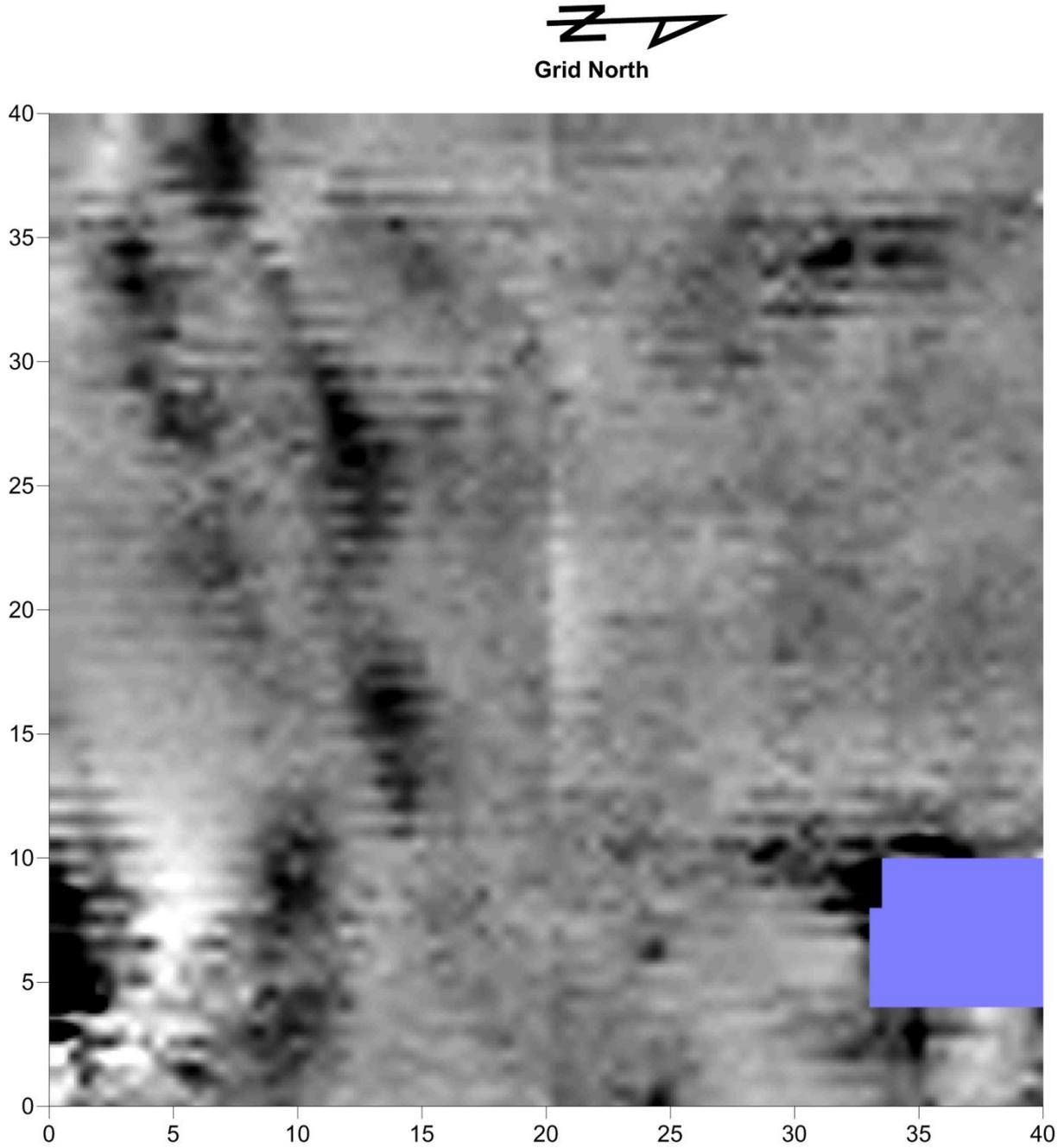


Figure 2. Results of the Electrical Resistance Survey

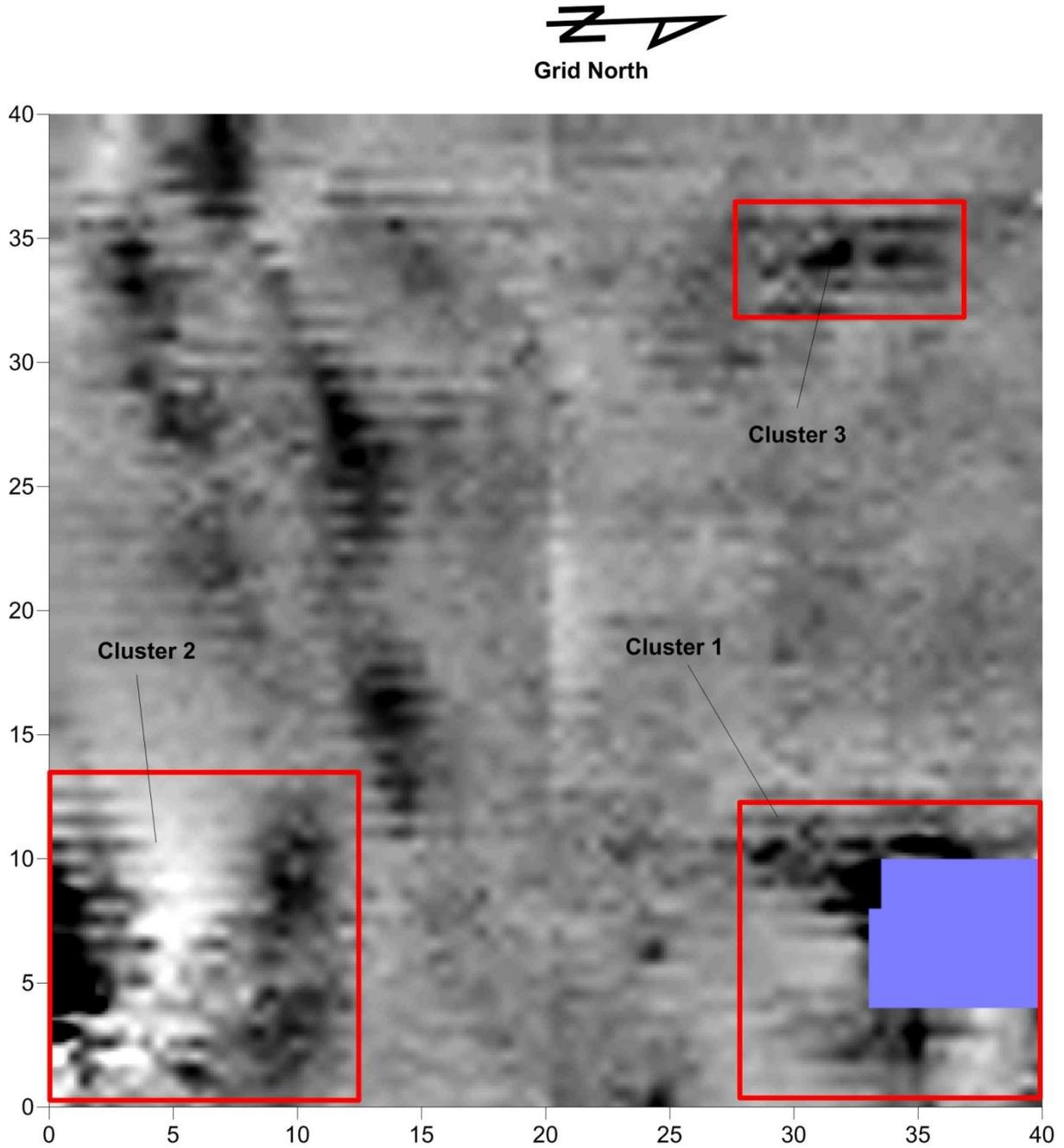


Figure 3. Resistance Survey with Clusters Demarcated

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Appendix C -

Prehistoric Component

C.1 Introduction

Site 15BB137 produced a low-density prehistoric component, consisting entirely of lithic artifacts (n=48), that was present in an even distribution across the entire site area. These artifacts were recovered from 29 one-meter-square test units and two general surface proveniences. There were no subsurface features associated with this component and 75 percent of the prehistoric artifacts (n=36) were recovered from a plowzone context. Twenty-one percent of the prehistoric artifacts (n=10) were recovered from an unplowed cultural level (with a predominant historic component), and two lithic artifacts (five percent of the prehistoric assemblage) were recovered from historic features. The limits of the prehistoric component beyond the APE are unknown.

C.1.1 Prehistoric Interpretation

The prehistoric component consists of 48 lithic artifacts, including one diagnostic Kirk projectile point that dates to the Early Archaic (Justice 1995). The complete lithic assemblage consists of two (n=2) pieces of undetermined debitage, nine (n=9) pieces of shatter, eleven (n=11) undetermined flakes, one (n=1) early stage flake, two (n=2) retouched flakes, five (n=5) biface thinning flakes, one (n=1) utilized thinning flake, three (n=3) utilized flakes, one (n=1) end scraper, one (n=1) biface blank, one (n=1) midsection of a biface blank, four (n=4) projectile point tips, two (n=2) projectile point mid-sections, two (n=2) projectile point bases, and three (n=3) complete projectile points. Twenty different chert types are represented.



Figure C-1. Projectile Points collected from Site 15BB137.



Figure C-2. Biface Fragments and an Endscraper Collected from Site 15BB137.

C.1.1.1 Discussion

Because of the low-density of prehistoric lithics at 15BB137, the percentage of the prehistoric assemblage that comprises projectile points or projectile point fragments, 27 percent (n=13), seems surprisingly large and leads to the interpretation that some of these more impressive tools were collected and brought to the site during the historic Champ occupation. If the projectile points and fragments are removed from consideration, the remainder of the assemblage could be considered a short-occupation, limited-activity site due to the low density of artifacts and limited variety of debitage and tool types. These factors could also suggest that this area represents the outer fringe of a site centered nearby, perhaps at the higher elevations surrounding the project APE. The lack of midden and other features also suggests a limited duration and activity occupation for this area. Based on the limited data, the prehistoric component of Site 15BB137 is considered a limited activity, short term occupation from an undetermined cultural and temporal affiliation (the diagnostic Early Archaic point being interpreted as part of an historic deposit).