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The University of Southern Mississippi

**THE OAKS: INTERPRETATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE SUPPORT
STRUCTURES OF A 19TH CENTURY URBAN FARMSTEAD**

by Justin Dwayne Beavers

August 2013

by

Justin Dwayne Beavers

A Thesis

Submitted to the Graduate School
of The University of Southern Mississippi
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Master of Arts

Approved:



Dean of the Graduate School

August 2013

ABSTRACT

THE OAKS: INTERPRETATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE SUPPORT STRUCTURES OF A 19TH CENTURY URBAN FARMSTEAD

by Justin Dwayne Beavers

August 2013

This thesis documents the results of excavation in 2004 and 2005 of an urban farmstead in Jackson, Mississippi, called The Oaks. This research was conducted in order to find the functions of the various outbuildings at The Oaks. All the artifacts were analyzed at The University of Southern Mississippi and then placed into various models to find any correlations between the buildings at The Oaks and those of other sites like Johnson/Bates in Kentucky.

The kitchen was found to contain various architectural features as well as artifacts that corresponded with the normal findings of an 1800s detached kitchen. The barn was also positively identified by using nail, artifacts, and glass frequencies which were found to compare favorably with those seen at the Johnson/Bates site. The building initially believed to be a privy at The Oaks yielded unusual results by the location of a brick slab as well as metal and glass. The structure also did not fit the model of a privy based on Johnson/Bates. The building most likely is to be that of a coldframe (greenhouse). An unidentified building on the site remained undetermined due to a lack of both architectural and artifact data.

The creation of a model based on findings from this site allows for the observation of an urban landscape and its effects on a farmstead that existed

along the periphery. When goods were unavailable from the urban environment, they were acquired by other means. The urban farmstead provided this by blending the urban and agricultural environments through a complex localized production, allowing the creation of these needed goods and services. This model has applications to other similar farmsteads in the Southeast.

"And all I ask is a tall ship and a star to steer her by"
By John Macmillan (1870-1937)

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my two unborn children who died before I ever got to see them born and also to their great-grandmother who is with them in heaven. Nana, thank you for all the support and encouragement you gave me to always reach for my dreams. I Love You!

“And all I ask is a tall ship and a star to steer her by”

By John Masefield (1878-1967).

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION: URBAN FARMSTEAD AND GOALS

An urban farmstead is described by Stewart-Abernathy (1986) as a type of model for the parallels that existed between rural and urban occupation as well as the alien elements that were in conflict with strictly urban living. These differences are highly noticeable today where the ideas of urban and rural have zero similarities within the modern mindset. During the nineteenth century, however, there were not only degrees of being urban but also differences in urbanism based upon geographic location. The northern cities were urban in much the same way as they are seen today, whereas southern cities such as Jackson or Atlanta were highly different, with many rural elements only within a larger population center.

The urban farmstead from its inception was that of a lot consisting of not only the residence, but also many service buildings divided into various fenced or unfenced spaces connected together by a series of paths. Stewart-Abernathy (1986) gives a list of the typical types of service buildings one would expect to find on an urban farmstead. These would include the kitchen, wash room, privy, well house, spring house, wood/coal shed, equipment shed, repairing facility, servant quarters, space for poultry, swine, cows, and horses, carriage/wagon house, harness room, granary, potato house, hay barn, and general storage shed. There could also be various types of storage and refuse pits. Some of these tasks could be placed within the same building while others, like the kitchen, wood/coal shed, and privy, require separate structures due to their

nature. Young (2004) suggested however, that when there was only one slave at a house, they likely lived in the kitchen area. This argument makes sense given the nature of the types of work that a solitary slave would have undertaken.

The most frustrating aspect of the urban farmstead is its continuous adaptation to the world around it (Stewart-Abernathy 1986). The residence and out buildings were in a constant state of change influenced by both natural (weather) and unnatural elements. While some changes may be difficult or impossible to detect others, are easily recognizable. These recognizable changes could be additions onto the house due to family growth or the addition of more prestigious architectural items as the family's prosperity rises. Adaptive changes are needed due to several factors including technology, available resources, social organization, the natural environment, and the changes in public/private services.

According to Charles Faulkner one of the most significant changes in towns as they moved toward bustling urban environments was the transition from family produced goods and services to those of public provision. This shift is an important part of the study of urban archaeology and especially that of the urban farmstead. Faulkner (1987) conducted work in and around historic downtown Knoxville, Tennessee. Thanks to work done on construction sites as well as testing around historic homes Faulkner and others were able to study the cause and effect changes of the urban environment and the urban farmstead.

Faulkner observed this correlation when examining the various government rules established by the city in 1802. These rules were the

prohibition of slaughter houses, wooden chimneys, privies with pits less than six feet deep, and the digging of a well without an enclosure. This showed evidence that by 1802 the urban environment was providing slaughtered meats for the houses in the area.

According to Stewart-Abernathy's (1986) work at the Sanders urban farmstead, these adaptive changes can be categorized in three ways: additions, substitutions, or subtractions. Additive changes occur when new landscape features are added to the lot. An example would be the addition of a chicken house (for meat, eggs, and/or cash) or that of a second privy due to family growth. Substitutive changes are governed by the need to replace service buildings and activity spaces. The introduction of the automobile is a perfect example of this concept. The automobile replaced the need for horses and carriages as a means of transportation, which led to either an expansion of the barn's entrance or its complete destruction and replacement with a garage. Subtractive changes are usually governed by the addition of public/private services into the surrounding area. Subtractive changes occur when one destroys an outbuilding either deliberately or through neglect. Examples would be the introduction of milk delivery leading to the demise of dairy sheds. Another is the eventual rise of the grocery store destroying almost all needs for lot service buildings. These last two factors (substitutive and subtractive) are most responsible for the urban farmstead's transformation into a twentieth century residence.

There are five factors which account for the abandonment of farmstead outbuildings on urban lots. The first is that the division of larger lot holdings allowed more residential structures to be built within the area. The second factor is due to the development of public utilities such as gas, electricity, sewage, and water. This led to the disappearance of the privy and wood/coal shed, along with a decrease in the use of the lot's well/cistern. Zoning is the third factor, with city ordinances leading to the banishment of chickens, cows, pigs, and other fowl. The supporting buildings and spaces once required for these animals would be converted to storage or more likely abandoned. Stewart-Abernathy (1986) notes that the implementation of these ordinances also led to the establishment of street cleaning services to collect all the trash previously cleaned by scavenger animals. The fourth were changes in transportation due to city growth extending beyond pedestrian limits. This began with the installation of streetcar railways followed by the introduction of the personal automobile. The final factor was the introduction of new technologies for storage and transportation of goods. Refrigeration was by far the largest of these new innovations leading to the demise of the smokehouse. This also allowed grocery stores to store more fresh produce therefore eliminating the need for household garden plots.

Jackson Mississippi is home to one of these urban farmstead sites known as The Oaks. James H. Boyd and his wife Eliza built the Oaks around 1853. Mr. Boyd by this time had already served as mayor of Jackson three times along with Alderman twice. He was also a local multi business owner and a prosperous middle class Jacksonian. The Oaks was a main four room house built with many

detached support structures such as a kitchen, barn, privy, as well as several others. The site was excavated during two field sessions from 2004-2006.

This study will focus on determining the function of the various support structures at The Oaks. The first goal is to use The Oaks as a case study in what types of artifacts and artifact frequencies represent various outbuildings in an urban farmstead landscape. The second goal is to attempt to use archaeological data from either urban or non-urban farmsteads to run a comparison between buildings at The Oaks and similar buildings located on these other sites. This would allow for the determination of building functions based on archaeological similarities. The hypothesis is that given these buildings are generally constructed in the same way regardless of urban or rural environment that the artifact frequencies, especially architecturally, should show relative matches.

CHAPTER II

JACKSON, MISSISSIPPI: AN HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

Jackson is located near the center of the state of Mississippi (Figure 1). With the admission of Mississippi into the Union in 1817, an unprecedented period of growth was initiated for the new state. Settlers and slaves streamed into Mississippi from the east as lands ceded by the Choctaw Indians in the Treaty of Doak's Stand along the Mississippi, Yazoo, Big Black, and Pearl Rivers were opened for white settlement. Geographic factionalism soon developed between the older, wealthy river districts such as Natchez and Greenville and the newly expanding areas of the state. As a result of this controversy, in January 1821, the state General Assembly voted to provide for the location of a permanent capital near the geographic center of the state. Several spots were considered, including Columbia in Marion County, which was selected as a temporary capitol. In November of 1821 a spot on the Western side of the Pearl River at LeFleur's Bluff, a small trading post, was selected as the site of the permanent state capital of Mississippi.

Individuals commissioned by the state's General Assembly chose the site at LeFleur's Bluff carefully; the close proximity to the Pearl River and the Natchez Trace would allow for the transportation and shipping of goods necessitated by a political and commercial center, and the climate and soil of the area would appeal to those interested in participating in the state's growing plantation economy. On November 28, 1821, Thomas Hinds, William Lattimore, and Peter A. Van Dorn were commissioned to provide plans for the new capital that would

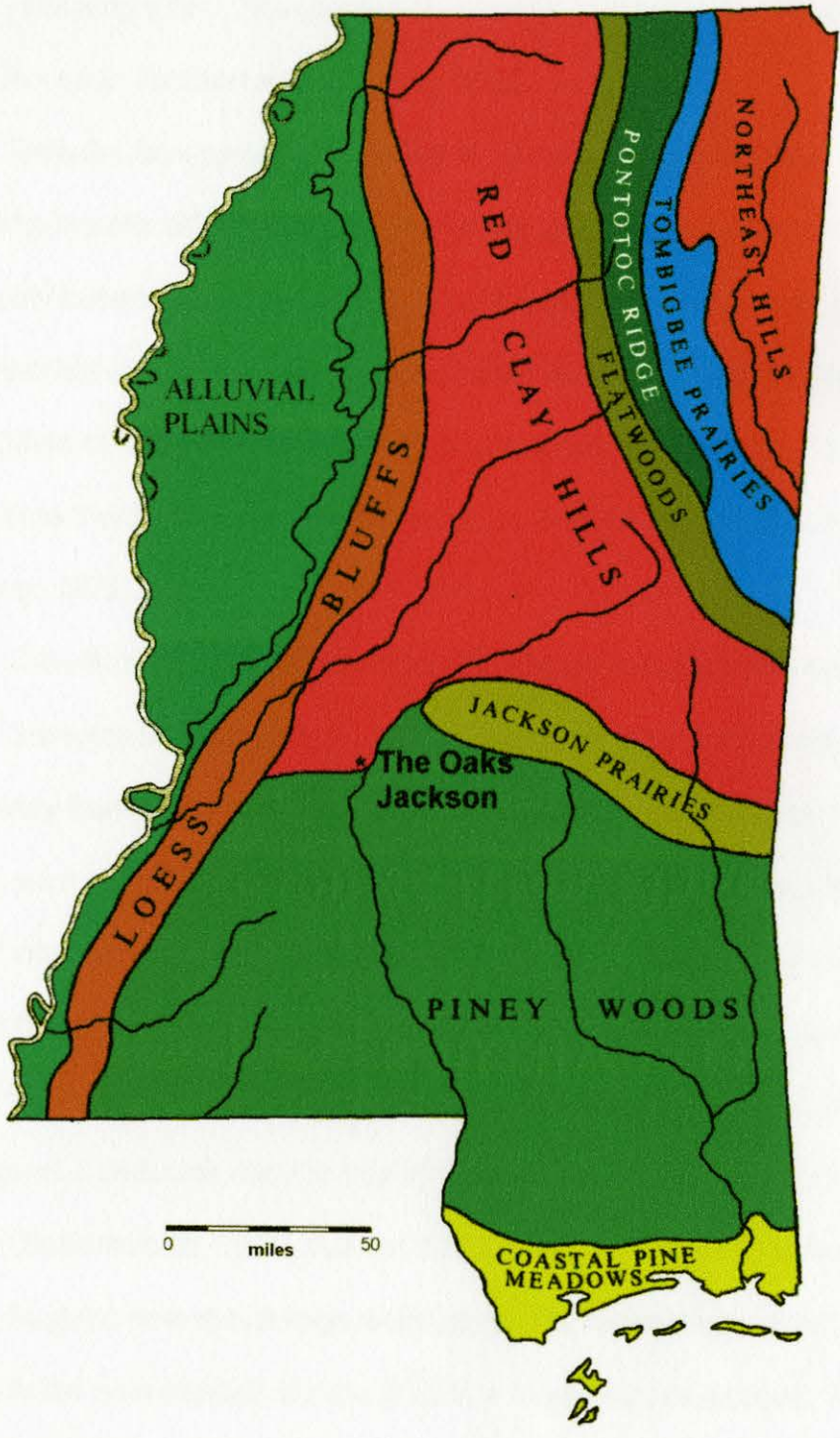


Figure 1. Map of Mississippi Showing Location of The Oaks in Jackson.
<http://www.southbear.com/geologymississippi>

be named in honor of General Andrew Jackson. Construction of the new city began, not long after. The General Assembly first met in the newly completed State House in Jackson in December 1822.

Despite the apparent suitability of Jackson as state capital, the matter of changing the site of the state capital resurfaced repeatedly in the General Assembly between 1822 and 1832. There was no general consensus, however, as to another site for the capital. The matter was finally settled when the state constitution of 1832 provided that Jackson remain the state capital until 1850, at which time the matter could be reviewed once again by the state legislature (Fortune, 1973).

The Growth and Development of Jackson in the Antebellum Period

Contemporary visitors to Jackson may find it difficult to imagine the rough and rowdy frontier town that characterizes Jackson's years. The 1820s and 1830s were a time of frenzied population growth; easterners and immigrants sought out rich virgin soil in which to grow cotton and corn, while profit-seekers sought fortunes in banking, trade and land speculation. Although actual money was not plentiful in early Jackson, credit was easily had from the state's banking institutions. Land was easy to buy throughout Mississippi from government land offices (Bettersworth, 1973; Burrus, 1973; Gonzales, 1973; Scarborough, 1973).

As government buildings went up, so did residences, storefronts and offices in the new capital. By the 1830s, a bi-weekly newspaper, *The Mississippian*, was filled with advertisements and announcements. Jacksonian merchants advertised as jewelers, druggists, clothiers, lawyers, and land dealers.

They advertised partnerships with other local businessmen, and the dissolution of these partnerships. Notices of financial scams, runaway slaves and lost horses filled the pages of the small bi-weekly.

The mid-1830s were known as the *Flush Times* in Mississippi. It was a time of rapid population growth, a proliferation of business ventures, large-scale land speculation and expanding frontier towns. Mississippi banks had, however, like many state banks across the United States, loaned more money than their reserves could cover. In an attempt to remedy the situation, in 1836 President Andrew Jackson issued the Specie Circular, which mandated that payments for loans to purchase public lands be made in only gold or silver. The deflationary effect of the Specie Circular was at least partially responsible for the panic of 1837, which ended the *Flush Times* and left many Mississippians in especially difficult financial situations. A number of Mississippi planters avoided payment of their debts by abandoning their plantations and relocating entire households, often including large numbers of slaves, to Texas (Gonzales, 1973). Others weathered the depression by switching to alternate crops and modifying their farming methods, both of which led to the greater sustainability of Mississippi's agricultural economy in later decades (Scarborough, 1973).

The Railroad and Prosperity

Despite a long period of economic depression, Jackson's population continued to increase in the decades prior to the outbreak of the Civil War. Concurrently so did the city's demand for reliable transportation-related services. When the site of Jackson was selected, the location was situated near a major

waterway and the Natchez Trace, however, roads were very bad and proved to be a risky means of transporting goods to the Mississippi River or between waterways. When railroading reached the United States in the late 1820s, Mississippi was quick to jump on the bandwagon. The first functioning rail line in the state was the West Feliciana Railroad, chartered in 1831 and operational by 1836, which bridged the gap between Woodville, Mississippi, and St. Francisville, Louisiana. A line connecting Vicksburg and Jackson was chartered in 1831 as the Vicksburg and Clinton Railroad Company, later re-chartered as the Commercial and Railroad Bank of Vicksburg, and completed in 1840 (Gonzales, 1973). Although rivers were still very important trade routes, railroads were so crucial to the economic prosperity of Mississippi that the framework of the state's modern rail system was already in place by 1861 (Moore, 1973). By 1927, Jackson was directly connected by railroad to at least nine other cities in the region (Table 1) (McCain, 1953).

Table 1

Cities Connected to Jackson by Rail Line, 1840-1927

Location	Year
Vicksburg	1840
Canton	1856
New Orleans, LA	1858
Memphis, TN	1861

Table 1 (continued).

Location	Year
Meridian	1861
Natchez	1882
Yazoo City	1884
Gulfport	1900
New Orleans, LA (II)	1909
Union	1927

Life in Antebellum Jackson

The antebellum social landscape of Jackson can be roughly divided into a five-tiered hierarchy: elite society, the middle class, white laborers, free people of color, and slaves. The urban elite group in any given Mississippi city was small in comparison with the general population. They were, however, significant property owners, perhaps politically connected to state or national government, and sufficiently financially secure to support a large household including family members and servants. Members of the large middle class in Jackson would have consisted of successful merchants, doctors, lawyers, and other skilled specialists who gained some degree of social prominence from their profession or public service. White laborers would have had less economic and social power than the Jackson middle class. Within the city, they would have held both supervisory and subordinate positions in construction, manufacturing, and with

the railroad companies. Free persons of color were an extreme minority in Hinds County in the antebellum period. According to the U.S. Census, from 1830 to 1860, between fourteen and 36 free blacks were counted in Hinds County. These individuals may or may not have resided within the city of Jackson. Further information regarding the livelihood of free blacks in the Jackson area is not available at the current time. Black slaves lived and worked both in the city of Jackson and the surrounding rural area, although many more lived outside the city. Slaves in Jackson, in addition to being domestic servants, often worked in the shops of local merchants, in manufacturing yards, or for railroad companies. Planters often traded slave labor for railroad stock, and slaves were often employed in laying railroad track or as brakemen (Moore, 1973).

Jackson's entrepreneurs offered many amenities to citizens who could afford the price. As early as the 1830s, one could purchase fine silver, jewelry, clocks, clothing and furniture in Jackson's shops. Fraternal lodges were popular meeting places for men in Jackson's middle class. Hotels such as Jackson House and the Magnolia Cottage addressed the needs of visitors to the city. Restaurateurs promised patrons lavish meals of fresh wild game prepared in the European style at any time of day or night. At least two shops in antebellum Jackson offered imported ales, coffee and chocolate. Ice and ice cream were available in Jackson by the late 1850s (McCain, 1953). By 1860, three newspapers were printed in Jackson: the *Eagle of the South*, the *Mississippian* and *Mississippi Baptist*, a denominational newspaper. These were printed

weekly, semi-weekly and, in the case of the *Mississippian*, daily when the legislature was in session.

Officials in the growing capital city sought to bring many distinguished visitors to Jackson as guests of the state in the years before the Civil War. These state visits were grand celebrations, accompanied by parades, parties, balls, speeches and other festivities. These were possibly the most important social events in antebellum Jackson, often with thousands of people from surrounding areas crowding the streets to enjoy the festivities. Among distinguished visitors to Jackson were former president Andrew Jackson, presidential candidate Richard M. Johnson, and a famous Hungarian exile named Louis Kosuth.

As Jackson made the transition from a frontier town to a more urban environment, churches served a role of increasing importance in society. In an urban setting, churches and pastors tended to become more tolerant of moral shortcomings and also more in touch with the secular interests of the people in their congregations. In addition to providing for matters of faith, the many churches in Jackson provided crucial social networks for men, women and children (Pillar, 1973).

War and Reconstruction

Soon after the election of Abraham Lincoln in the 1860 presidential election, events in Mississippi began to move rapidly in the direction of the state's secession from the union. Many Mississippians believed that the very safety of the state was at stake and that the newly elected administration would, through

the limitation of slavery as an institution, destroy the foundation of Mississippi's economy and social structure. The majority of white Mississippians considered slavery to be absolutely necessary both as a labor system and as a means of maintaining social control over blacks. Thus, when a convention was convened to address the issue in Jackson in January 1861, it had a clear secessionist majority. An ordinance to dissolve the union between Mississippi and the United States was drafted and accepted with a vote of 84 to 15 on January 9th, 1861.

News of the passed ordinance of secession was met with an outpouring of patriotism in the state. Jackson saw patriotic demonstrations, including cannon fire and the ringing of bells. A Jacksonian woman even made a flag for the new *nation* of Mississippi, a white star on a field of blue, which would come to be called the *Bonny Blue Flag*.

Through the fanfare, the Jackson convention remained in session, revising the state constitution and making plans to attend a meeting in Montgomery, Alabama, for the purpose of organizing a confederacy of southern states. The convention reconvened later that month to ratify the constitution of the Confederate States of America (Moore, 1973). As the constitution of the Confederate States of America was ratified, war fever spread throughout the South and, although Jackson itself did not feel battle until 1863, many of its citizens had, either directly as soldiers or indirectly through wartime shortages. As the war raged throughout the south, Jackson became a target of the Federal army in a campaign to divide the Confederacy which included the disabling of towns such as Vicksburg, Port Gibson, and Raymond. By taking Jackson, the

Federal troops would damage an important supply line of the Confederacy, the railroad line connecting Vicksburg to Jackson. When Jackson was taken, not only were the railroad lines disabled, but factories, shops, homes, hotels, farms, and churches were burned. The destruction of Jackson was so extensive that the pillaged capital became known as *Chimneyville* because charred chimneys were all that could be seen after the fires went out. Few pre-Civil War buildings remained intact (Bettersworth, 1973).

The people of Jackson emerged from the Civil War defeated and poverty stricken. Many livelihoods had been destroyed as the Southern agriculturally-based infrastructure collapsed. Despite the diversified crops and labor saving techniques that had come into practice after the Panic of 1837, and the promise of high cotton prices, Mississippi's farmers struggled to recover from the war. However, slowly, Mississippi's agricultural economy strengthened as the twentieth century approached. At the same time, former slaves were struggling to find employment and security. Many freedmen joined the Federal army and were stationed in Jackson for a time shortly after the war had ended. Others sought employment with former owners, often merchants or planters, but few formerly wealthy whites could afford to pay even low wages while the economy floundered.

Despite the challenges of recovery that lay ahead for Jackson, the state of Mississippi, and the region, the city continued to grow. The population of the city grew from roughly 1,800 people in 1850 to over 7,800 in 1900. Only a few years after the Civil War, citizens of Jackson were able to use natural gas provided by

the Jackson Gas Light Company. In 1878, the same company was authorized to provide electricity within city limits. The Louisiana Telephone Company was granted permission in 1882 to locate a telephone in the Mayor's office.

Telephones may have been available to the general public as early as 1907. The Light, Heat, and Water Company of Jackson began providing water services to the city by 1889 and sewer services by 1899. The city began paving the streets in 1903 (McCain, 1953).

Archaeology in Southern Cities

Charleston, South Carolina, archaeology dates back to the early 1980s and has been conducted under an explicit and well-designed archaeological preservation plan. Specifically, ten middle- and upper-class residences have been investigated as well as ten additional sites that have some public or commercial component. Charleston's slave inhabitants have not been neglected. Other public sites that are not associated with private residences include two public waterfront wharves, the public market, and the powder magazine. In short, (Figure 2), Charleston urban archaeology is quite well-developed and shows considerable sophistication in the kinds of questions being considered (Garrow, 2000).

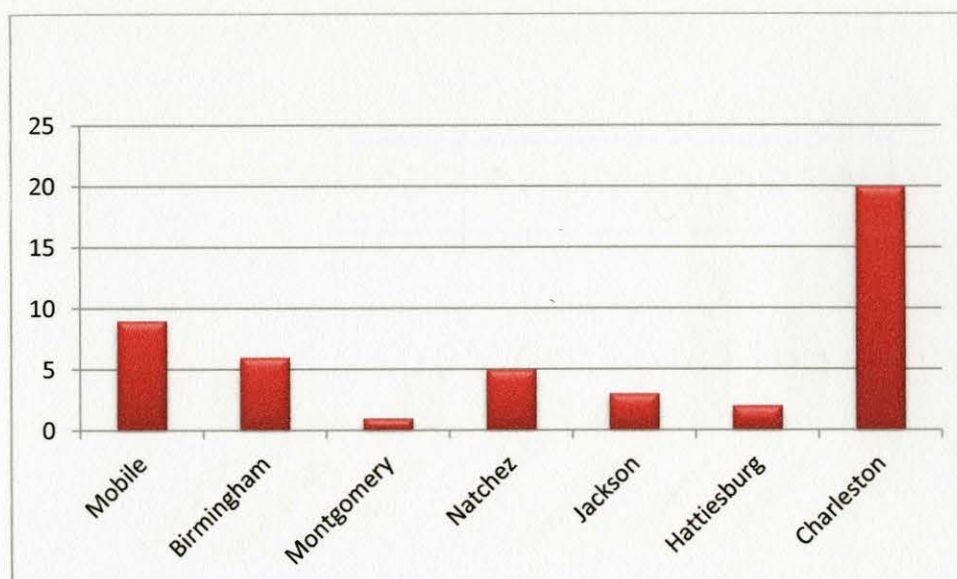


Figure 2. Number of Urban Archaeological Projects in the Gulf South and Charleston, SC.

Perhaps a more reasonable comparison of the development of urban archaeology is that conducted in Tennessee, specifically in Knoxville and Memphis (Garrow, 2000) (Figure 3). Both cities have seen quite a bit of urban archaeology, dating from the 1980s and continuing in the present. As of 2000, Knoxville saw 15 significant urban sites investigated. Most sites are residential, however many other site types have been studied as well, including commercial, industrial, and military. Memphis has seen nine large-scale projects which investigated residential, commercial, military, and industrial sites. In the Gulf South area, it is clear that, especially in the diversity of urban sites investigated, urban archaeology falls short of the intensity, and in most cases number, of projects in the South.

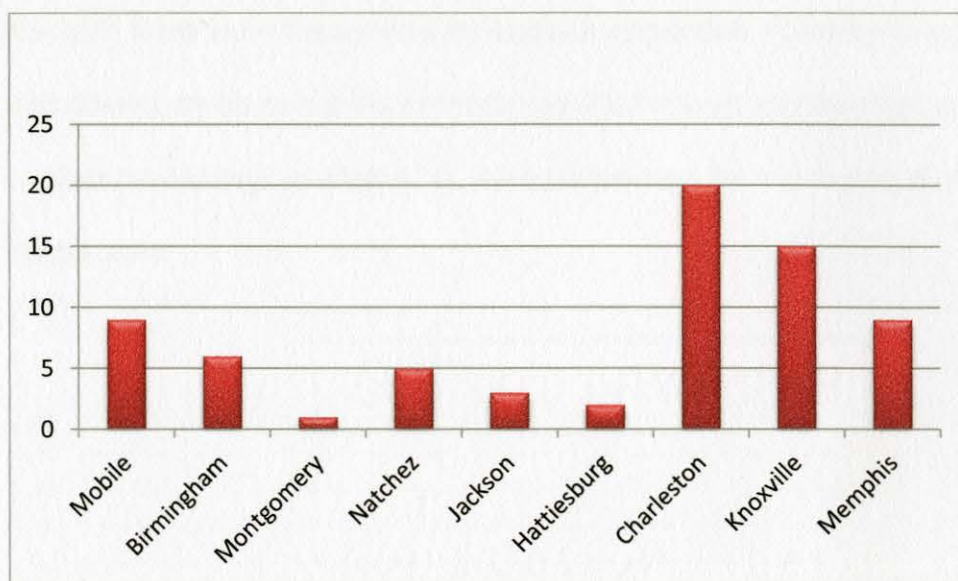


Figure 3. Comparison of Urban Archaeological Projects in the South.

Urban archaeology in the Gulf South has not progressed to the same degree as in the rest of the United States, and lags behind the Southeast generally, for several reasons. First, despite publications since the 1970s, archaeologists here still assume that nothing is left in built-up urban environments. Second, most of the materials, sites, features, and artifacts are rather late because urbanization in the U.S. is largely a late nineteenth and twentieth century development. Late sites traditionally do not receive the attention they deserve. American archaeology still suffers from the popular notion that first and early sites have more potential to provide important information than late sites. In fact, one could argue that early sites are less knowable than late sites. Third, typical archaeological surveys used by prehistorians and other uninformed archaeologists do not work in urban environments. Dickens and Bowen, in their 1980 publication in *Historical Archaeology* (Figure 4) show that in their large-scale Atlanta project, only 19% of

the total sites were discovered by surface inspection. Twenty-five percent were discovered by historical documents and 2% through archaeological testing. The largest percentage of sites 47% were discovered by monitoring during construction.

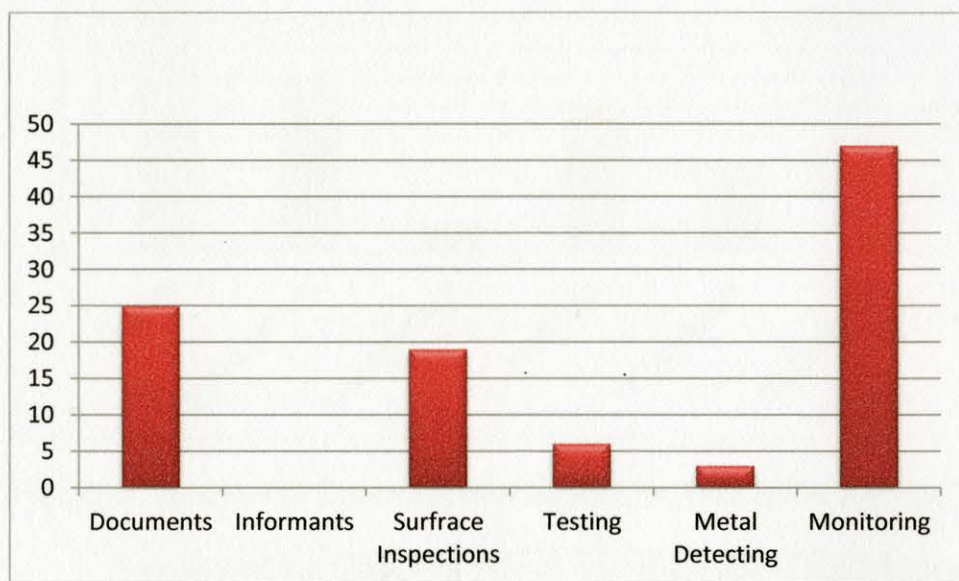


Figure 4. How Urban Sites are Discovered (after Dickens and Bowen 1980).

Very little urban archaeology, particularly urban projects that examine urban processes, has been conducted in the state of Mississippi as a whole. A simple graph shows the limited urban archaeology that has been conducted in Mississippi and Alabama (Figure 5). Clearly, Mobile has received more urban archaeology than any of the other cities examined here (Gums, 1998, 2001; Gums & Shorter, 1998; Gums, Waselkov, & Mattics, 1999; Silvia & Waselkov, 1993; Waselkov, 1991; Waselkov, Shorter, Carruth, & Henderson, 1996; Wilkie & Shorter, 2001). This chart does not reflect the lack of diversity in the site types investigated. In Natchez, the diversity is a little better, but clearly a lot more work

on residential and commercial sites should be conducted. Hattiesburg, Jackson, and Montgomery basically lack urban archaeology.

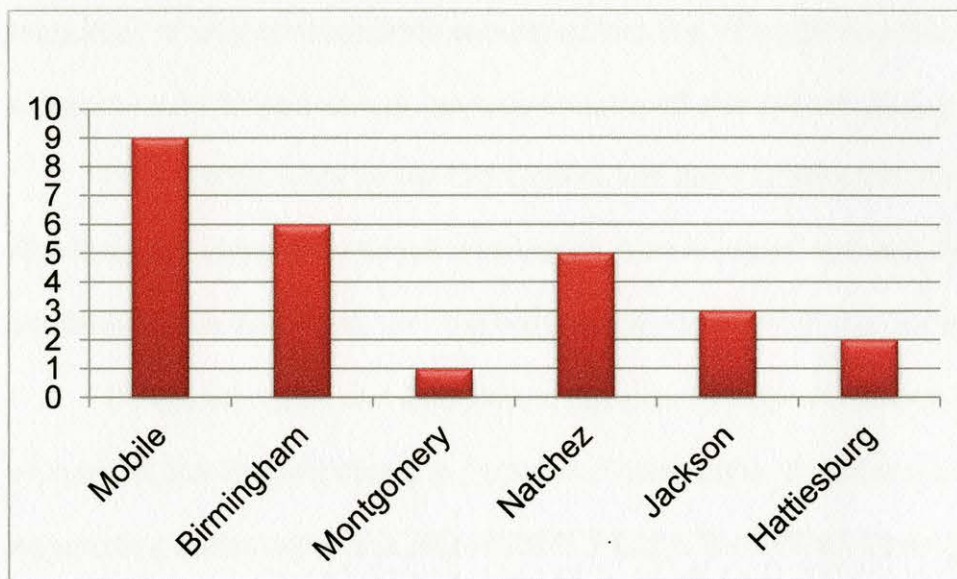


Figure 5. Number of Urban Archaeological Projects in the Gulf South Region.

A search of the state site files at the Mississippi Department of Archives and History (MDAH) in Jackson indicates that virtually no urban archaeology has been conducted in Jackson, particularly archaeology that is geared toward understanding urbanization and urban processes (i.e., archaeology of the city rather than in the city). In the late 1970s, limited work at the Charles Manship House was conducted to aid in reconstruction of this museum home. This late 1850s house was originally in a rural setting outside of the town, but now is at the corner of a busy intersection in north Jackson, and therefore relates only in a limited way to the understanding of urban processes.

Limited work was conducted by James Lauro in the 1990s at the Battlefield Park site in what is now the city of Jackson. This work was done in an effort to contribute to a management plan for the continued development of the

park for public recreational use. While earlier work conducted in 1971 suggested the possibility of intact archaeological deposits, Lauro concluded that no cultural resources of any consequence remain at this site. The testing strategy was extraordinarily limited so it is not safe to write off this potentially important site.

Very limited work at the Old Capital has been conducted as part of Mississippi Archaeology Week and Month, but no report of these investigations is available. This was done with the help of volunteers from the general public.

Obviously much can and should have been done in the way of archaeological investigations in Jackson. In this case, the potential has not been adequately assessed of the record itself, though the history of the development of the pioneer town into a twentieth century city hints that we can learn much from such investigations. Town residences of blacks and whites and of all classes need to be investigated, as well as commercial and more government and possibly military sites.

Clearly, urban archaeology in the Gulf South lags in quantity and quality. The reasons are complex, but are not because there is nothing buried to excavate. We need to educate ourselves about the conduct of modern urban archaeology. Much urban knowledge is now easily accessible in journals, books, and edited volumes that can stand as excellent examples to guide urban archaeology in Mississippi and Alabama in the future.

As this research will demonstrate, much lies buried in urban context that can shed light on the transition to an urban lifestyle in Mississippi. Modern excavations need to be conducted at both the Battlefield Park site as well as the

Manship House. The archaeological testing at The Oaks has shown the potential of Jacksonian sites with many intact features, excellent faunal preservation, and a good possibility of reconstructing the activities of a typical middle class urban farmstead.

CHAPTER III

THE BOYDS AND THE OAKS

This section presents a sketch of the Boyd family as revealed in documents and oral tradition in the family, as well as a diachronic examination of the property known as The Oaks in order to provide sound context for the archaeological examination presented in the following sections.

The Boyd Family

James Hervey Boyd was born in Mason County, Kentucky, on November 14, 1809, and spent his early years on his father's farm. When he was eighteen years old, Boyd first traveled to Mississippi to help his older brother, Gordon Boyd, operate a newspaper in the town of Woodville. Soon after, James and Gordon moved to Bayou Sara, Louisiana, and there operated a drugstore for several years. In 1832, at the age of twenty-three, James Hervey Boyd settled in Jackson (McCain, 1953).

A Mind for Business

Not long after settling in Jackson, Boyd opened the city's first drugstore, James H. Boyd & Co. An advertisement from an 1835 issue of the bi-weekly *Mississippian* newspaper read:

DRUG STORE

The subscribers having permanently established themselves in Jackson in the above business, have now on hand and will constantly keep stock of Drugs, Medicines, Paints, Oils, Dyestuff, Perfumery, Glassware, &c. Physicians and planters supplied on as good terms as they can be procured in the country.

--JAMES H. BOYD & Co.,
Jackson, March 5, 1835
(Boyd, 1935, n.p.).

That same year, Boyd's drugstore changed locations, as is indicated by an advertisement for William McCay, a jeweler, appearing in the *Mississippian* from November 20. The advertisement states that McCay is offering goods for sale at the location previously occupied by "...Mr. Boyd as a druggist and apothecary..." (McCay, 1835, n.p.). In January of 1836, another advertisement for Boyd's drugstore appeared in the *Mississippian*, this time advertising the services of a dentist, Dr. R. S. L. Benson, a "surgeon dentist from Louisiana" at the drugstore of J. H. Boyd & Co. (Boyd, 1936, n.p.)

James H. Boyd, like many early Jacksonians, hoped to become established in the business life of the fledgling capital city. The drugstore was only the first of his many business ventures. Boyd also owned the first furniture store in Jackson, built a reputation as an auctioneer and merchant in the 1840s, and owned a *cheap cash store* (loan provider) in the 1850s. In 1850, Boyd was one of thirty-eight Jackson businessmen named as incorporators of the Pearl River Steam Navigation Company and was briefly owner of two Pearl River steamboats *Pearl Plant* and *Bloomer*.

A Place in Society

James H. Boyd lived the life of the prosperous, but not wealthy, middle class in Jackson. In addition to Boyd's many business ventures, he was a part of establishing several institutions important to the social life of the developing capital. In 1836, J. H. Boyd is known to have helped to organize Jackson's first militia, the Capitol Guards, and to have held the rank of First Lieutenant. In 1844, he was a founding member of Silas Brown Lodge #65, the second fraternal

lodge to be established in Jackson. That same year, he was a founding member of the First Presbyterian Church in Jackson, of which he remained an elder until his death. Boyd was also a politician, elected to the office of mayor 1842, 1843, 1852, and 1858. He served on the board of aldermen in 1844, 1847, 1862, 1863, 1865 and 1866 (McCain, 1953).

In 1843, J. H. Boyd did what was expected of a young and successful bachelor: he married. Eliza Ellis, like Boyd, was a native of Kentucky with Kentucky connections. Her mother, Sarah Morehead, was sister to a governor of Kentucky. Eliza was born in Barren County in 1823, the youngest of ten children. In 1840, at the age of seventeen, Eliza moved to Mississippi with her brother, Turner E. Ellis. In 1843, she and James H. Boyd were married. The Boyds had six children; Haley Newton, Sarah, Mary, James, Sue, and Jonnie. The youngest three of the Boyd children were likely born at The Oaks ("The Oaks," 2006).

An Urban Home

Ten years after the marriage of Eliza and James H. Boyd, deed records indicate that Mrs. Eliza Boyd purchased four acres of the five-acre Lot 7 North in Jackson (McCain, 1953). It is unknown if a dwelling or other structures existed on the property before it was purchased by Eliza. However, the Greek revival-style cottage that exists on Jefferson Street today was probably not built until after the 1853 purchase.

The original structures probably consisted of the main four-room house (about 34.5 ft X 46.5 ft) with a bisecting hallway and double coal-burning fireplaces, and a detached kitchen with assorted out buildings. Later

modifications include the front gallery with plaster ceiling, the back porch, and the modern kitchen on the northwest corner of the residence. Receipts included with the Boyd Family Papers in the Mississippi State Archives indicate that some of these later renovations may have been made by Eliza Boyd after the death of her husband in 1877. The receipts, which span from 1878 to 1883, record purchases of everything from gutter pipe, nails, lumber, and brick, to labor payments for bricklaying, painting, whitewashing and plaster work.

Other receipts found in the Boyd Family Papers are not related to construction, but give insights into foodways of the late nineteenth century. These receipts show the bulk purchase of goods such as sides of bacon, hams, lard, flour, white sugar, syrup, coffee and tea. These slow-perishing bulk goods were probably supplemented by foods produced on the property or purchased at market or from street vendors in smaller amounts when other foodstuffs were seasonally available ("The Oaks," 2006).

Beginning in the 1870s, it seems as though pieces of the original four acres of five-acre Lot 7 north began to be sold to the grown Boyd children. The first seems to be an 1873 sale of property to the oldest of the Boyd children, Haley. Another sale of property is to the youngest child, Jonnie, in 1887. The most significant sale of property took place in 1885 when Eliza Boyd sold the remaining property and house to her married daughter Mary Boyd McGill ("The Oaks," 2006). By 1904, the Sanborn map shows most of the original lot had been heavily subdivided. Mary continued to sell pieces of the property until

1960, when the house and current grounds were sold to the Colonial Dames of America ("The Oaks," 2006).

Oral histories, diaries, and other documents that could give first-hand insights into life at The Oaks in the nineteenth century are not plentiful, however, some Civil War reminiscences of Mary Boyd McGill do remain, possibly recorded by two of her nieces in the 1930s. McGill recalled that Federal troops camped on a wooded lot just to the north of the Boyd home during the occupation of Jackson and that one of the Union soldiers stabbed the Boyd hogs with his bayonet as he rode through the yard, enraging Mary's father. McGill also discusses an incident in which some of the Boyd children were sent to a relative's house in the country before Federal troops reached Jackson. The children were delivered safely to the relative, but the *old family servant* to whom they were entrusted was never seen again.

The Boyd family appears in the 1850 population census of Hinds County, in the town of Jackson (United States Bureau of Census, Hinds County, 1850). James H. Boyd, aged 40 is listed as Mayor. His family includes Eliza Boyd, aged 26, along with children Newton H. (aged 5) and Sarah E. (aged 3). The 1850 slave schedule shows James H. Boyd with one slave, a female aged 22. In the 1860 population schedule, J. H. Boyd (brick merchant) is listed with E. Boyd, and children N.H., S., B., and James Boyd, Jr., and Susan. In the same household, a Mr. J. Hardgrove (aged 40) is also living, but no occupation is shown for him. There is no listing of the Boyds in the 1860 slave schedule. It may be that by this time they owned no slave, or perhaps they hired a domestic slave, but did not

own one. The 1870 census also shows the Boyd family in Jackson. James H. Boyd Sr. is listed as an auctioneer for his occupation ("The Oaks," 2006) .

Another important source of information for this project is the series of historic maps of Jackson showing the property. One fairly early map with detail is the 1875 Map of Jackson available at MDAH (Figure 6). A close-up of Lot 7 shows that the five acre block was occupied by Jas. H. Boyd and Miss Russell (Figure 7). Although the Boyd house appears to be two separate structures represented by what appear to be two unattached rectangles, it is likely that this represents a single structure with a central hall. A close examination of Lot 66 to the north of the Boyd property shows a similar situation, yet the lines connecting the darker rectangles are barely discernible.

Far more important for this study is the series of Sanborn Fire Insurance Maps showing The Oaks. Unfortunately, the earliest map dates to 1904. Prior to that time, the property was just outside of the area covered by the Sanborn Fire Insurance Company.

The 1904 Sanborn Map (Figure 8 & 9) shows that the original four acres purchased in 1853 by Eliza Boyd was considerably subdivided (Sanborn, 1904). Eliza Boyd's property apparently consisted of a long and narrow lot that fronted on Jefferson, but extended to North Street, with an extension to the north. This map shows a front porch as well as several rear additions that connected to an open-sided shed that covered the cistern.

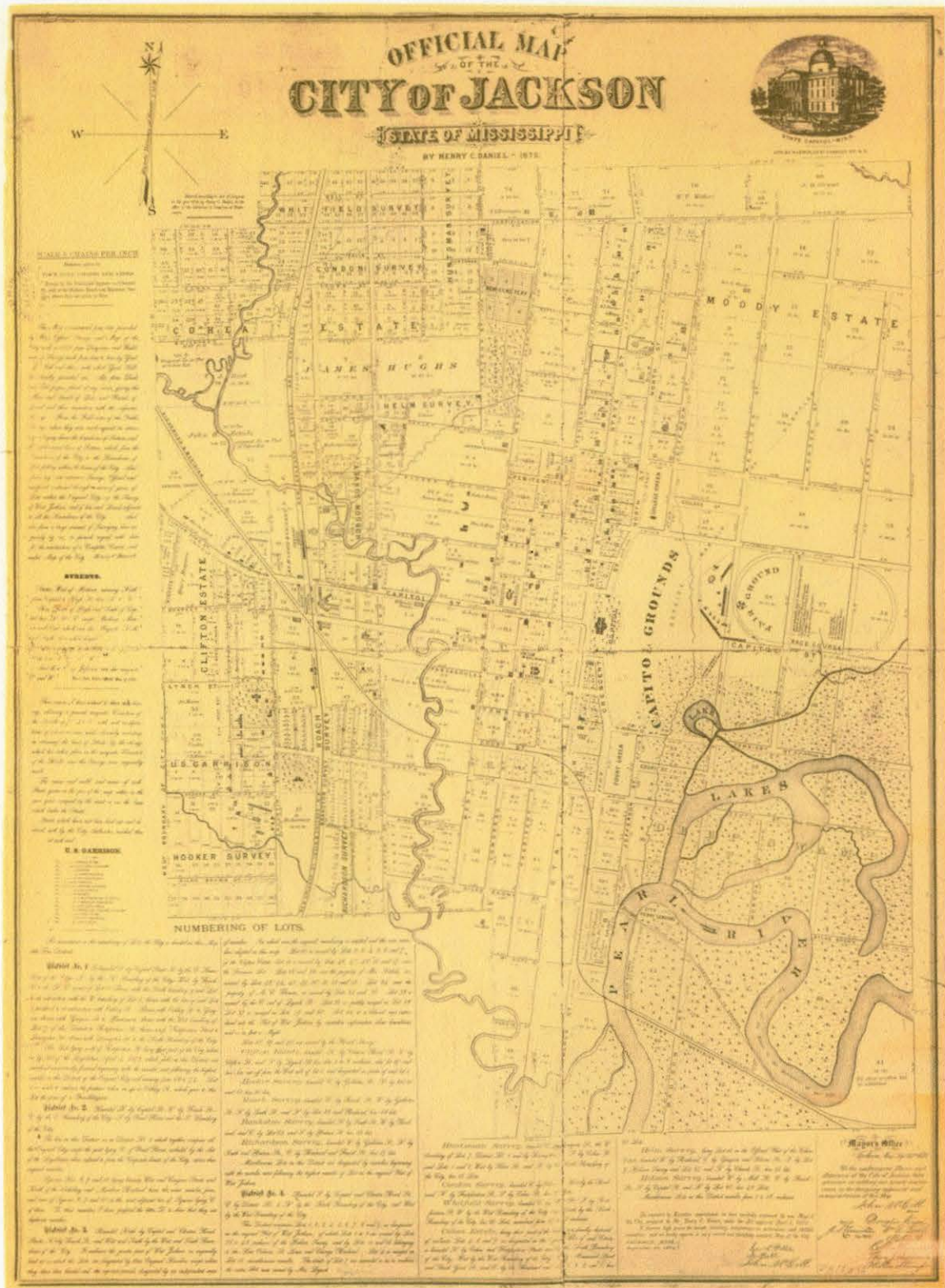


Figure 6. 1875 Map of Jackson, Mississippi (MDAH), Boyd Property Indicated with Arrow. (Daniel, 1957).

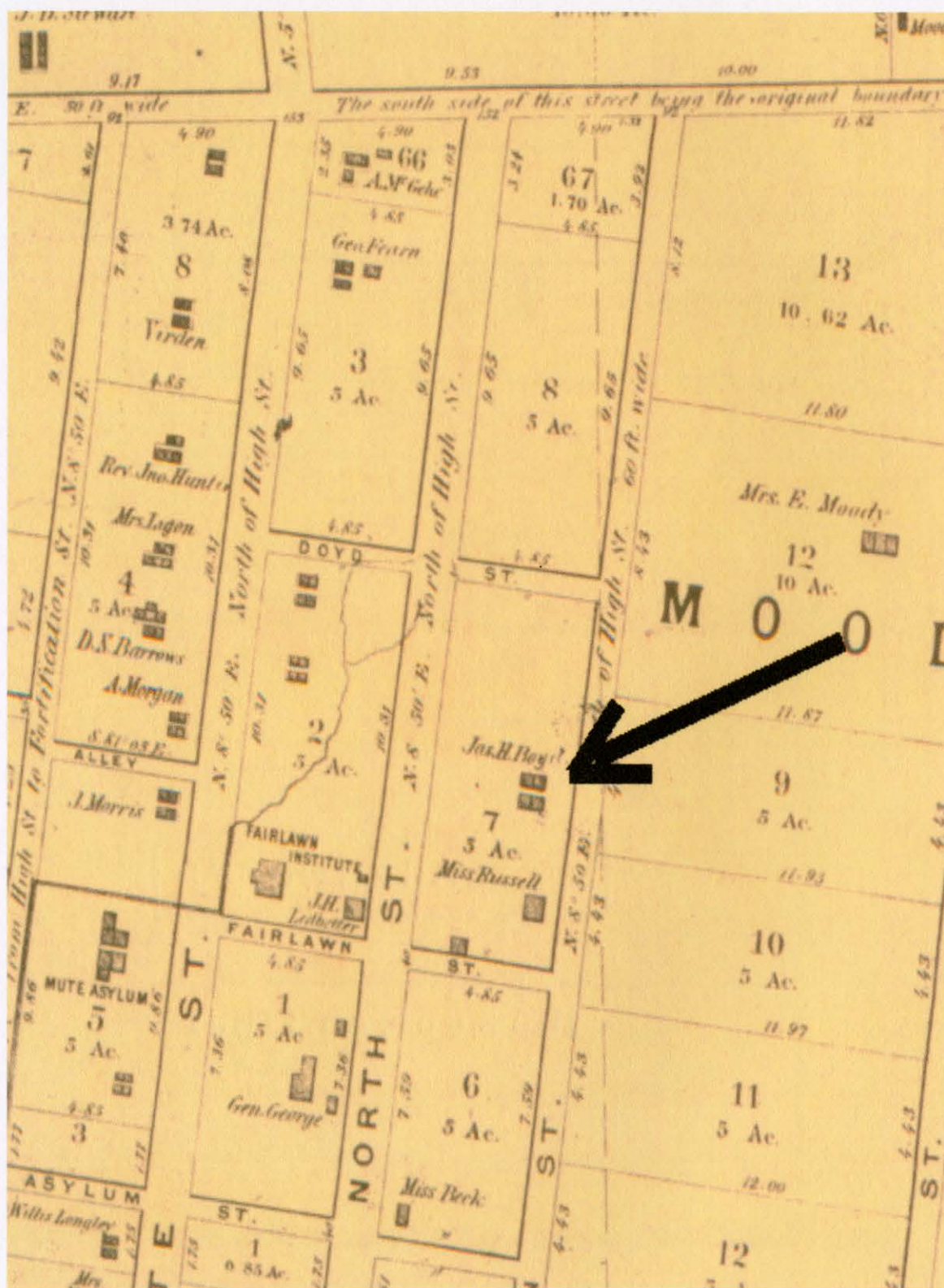


Figure 7. Close-up of 1875 Map of Jackson Showing Boyd Property. (Daniel, 1957).

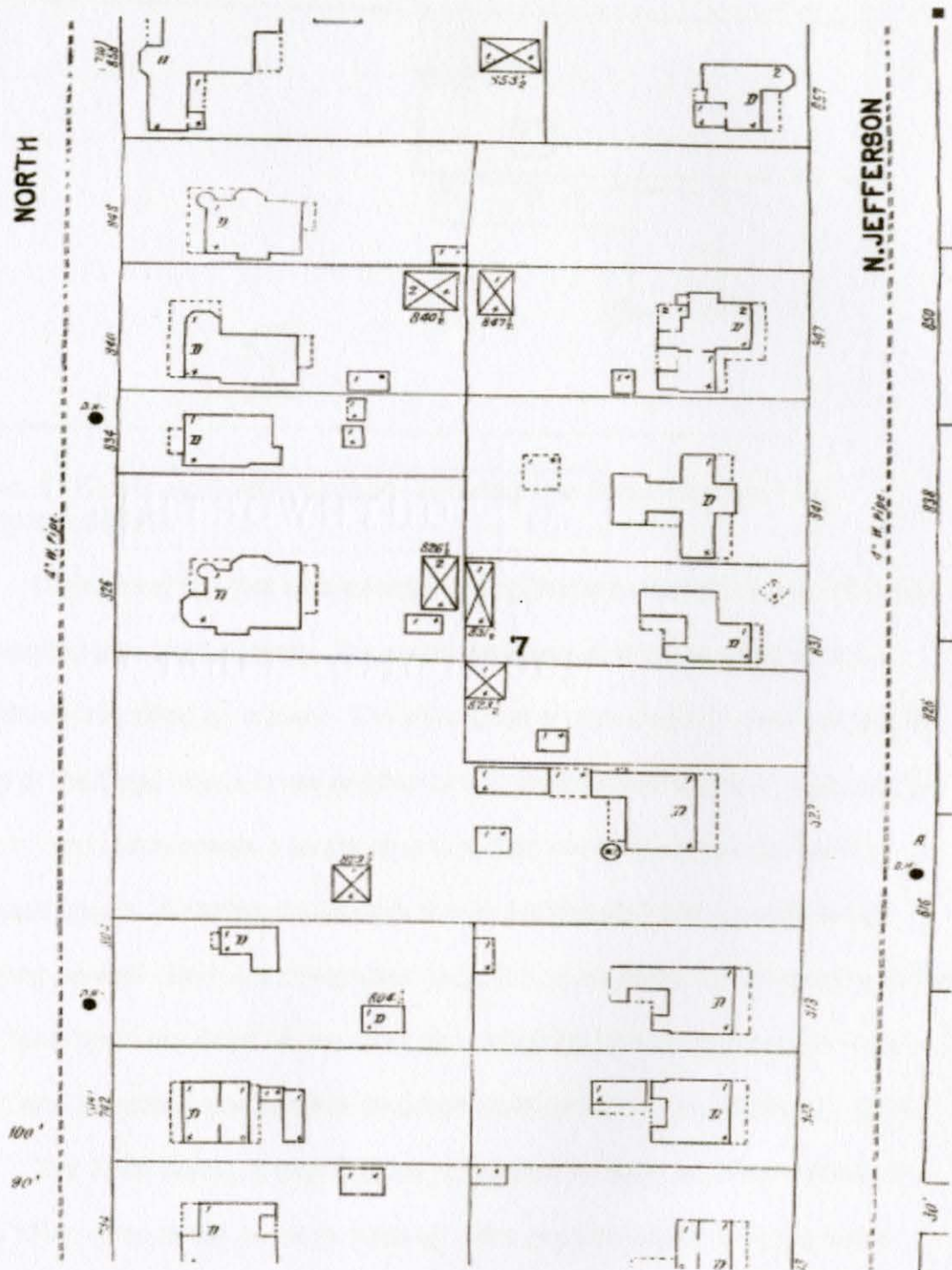


Figure 8. 1904 Sanborn Showing The Oaks. (Sanborn Map Company, 1904).

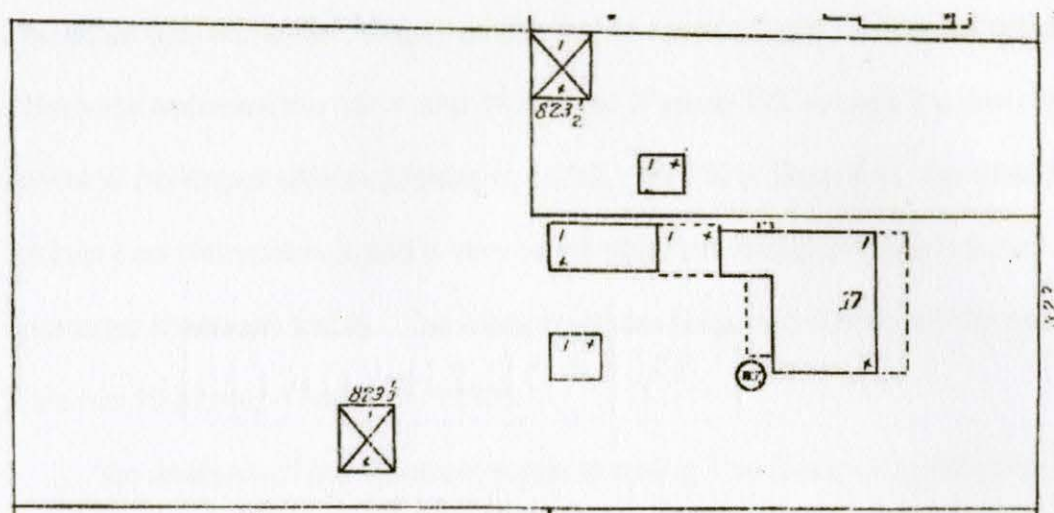


Figure 9. Close-up of 1904 Sanborn Showing The Oaks. (Sanborn Map Company, 1904).

Directly behind that was a long building that was tentatively identified as the original detached kitchen. The small structure south of the kitchen was tentatively identified as a privy. The structures on the small lot extension to the north of the Boyd house show another small, unidentified structure, opposite the cistern, and in the corner a larger structure that many recall was the barn or carriage house. A similar structure is shown behind and to the south of the dwelling as well. Both are designated as 823½ as an address. Original to the lot may have been the Boyd house itself, the detached kitchen, the two barns, a privy, and the small, unidentified structure north of the cistern (Sanborn, 1904).

The 1909 Sanborn map (Figure 10) shows a single significant change from 1904. One of the barns is missing. Also possibly significant, the small round structure at the southwest corner of the house is no longer shown (Sanborn, 1909).

The 1914 Sanborn (Figure 11) shows little change, except the long, narrow lot was subdivided and a dwelling was added that faced North Street.

The other ells and outbuildings remain the same (Sanborn, 1914). There is little difference between the 1914 and 1918 map (Figure 12), except the barn in the corner is no longer shown (Sanborn, 1918). By 1929 (Figure 1), the detached kitchen had disappeared and a very small structure along the south fence appeared (Sanborn 1929). The 1962 Sanborn (Figure 14) shows little difference from the 1929 map (Sanborn, 1962).

An analysis of the Sanborn maps showing The Oaks suggests that the core of the property is still largely intact. The original lot in the 1850s after Eliza Boyd purchased the property probably contained the dwelling, the detached kitchen, two barns (or one barn and one carriage house), the cistern and a privy, along with one or two small sheds. The rear lot with the second barn has likely been destroyed through subdivision construction, but most of the other buildings should have left traces in the archaeological record.

The Oaks site is significant to the history of Jackson, Mississippi, for several reasons. First it is representative of what was a very common home type along the urban periphery. Today it remains as one of the only original urban farmsteads in Jackson to have survived the burning of the city during the Civil War. The Oaks also served as the residence of one of the most instrumental men in the history of Jackson. The history and archaeology of The Oaks is the history and archaeology of Jackson.

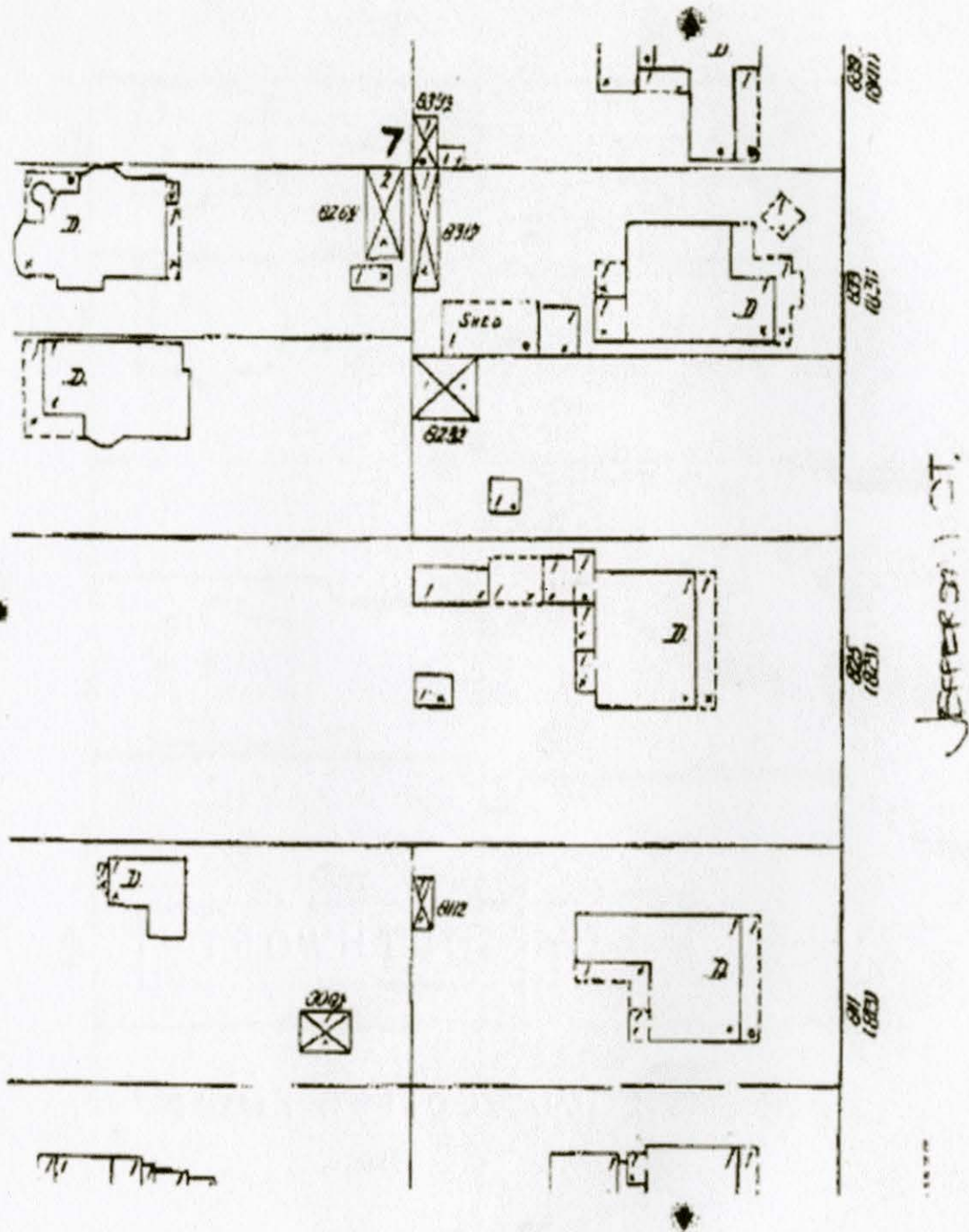


Figure 10. 1909 Sanborn Showing The Oaks. (Sanborn Map Company, 1909).

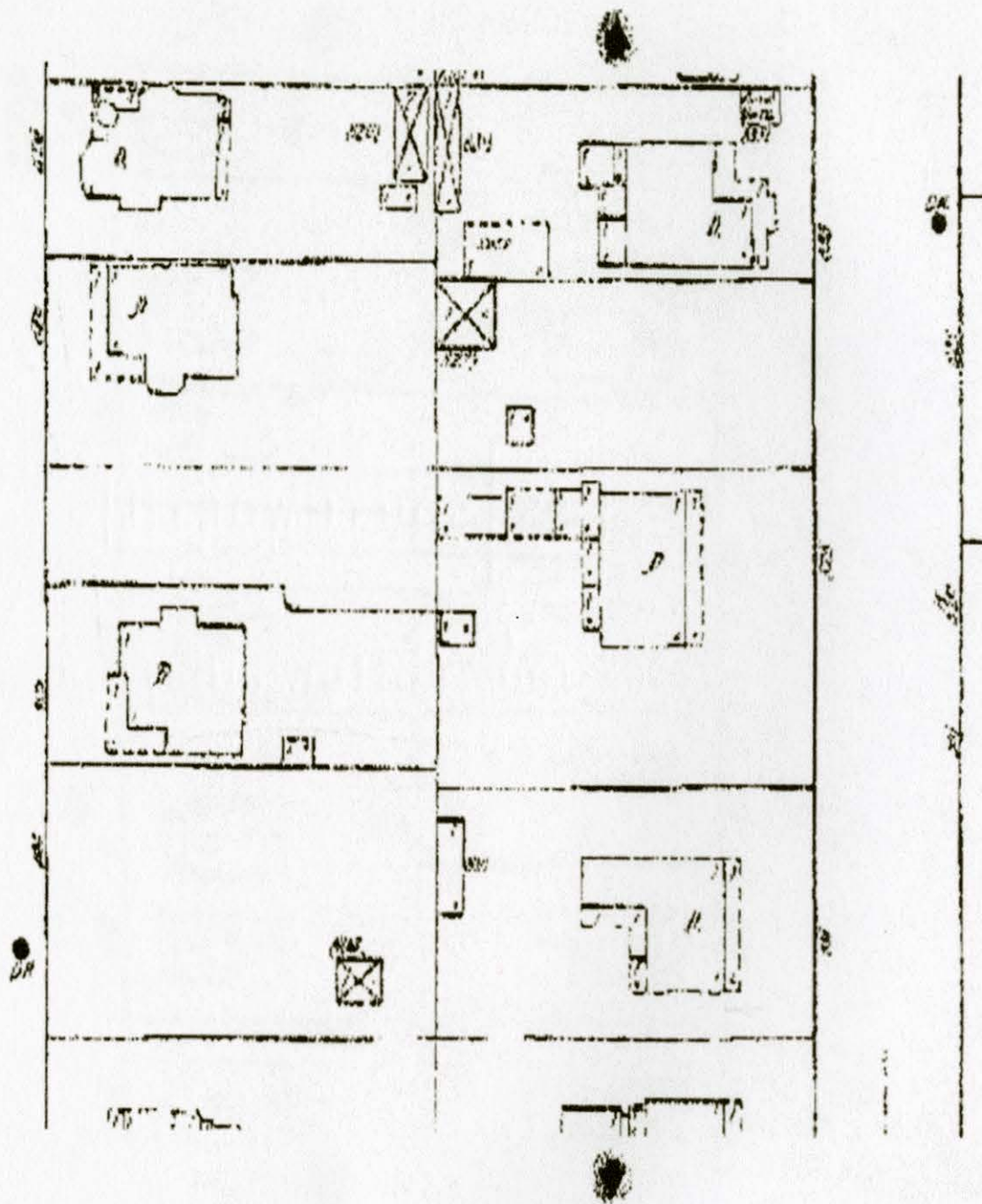


Figure 11. 1914 Sanborn of The Oaks. (Sanborn Map Company, 1914).

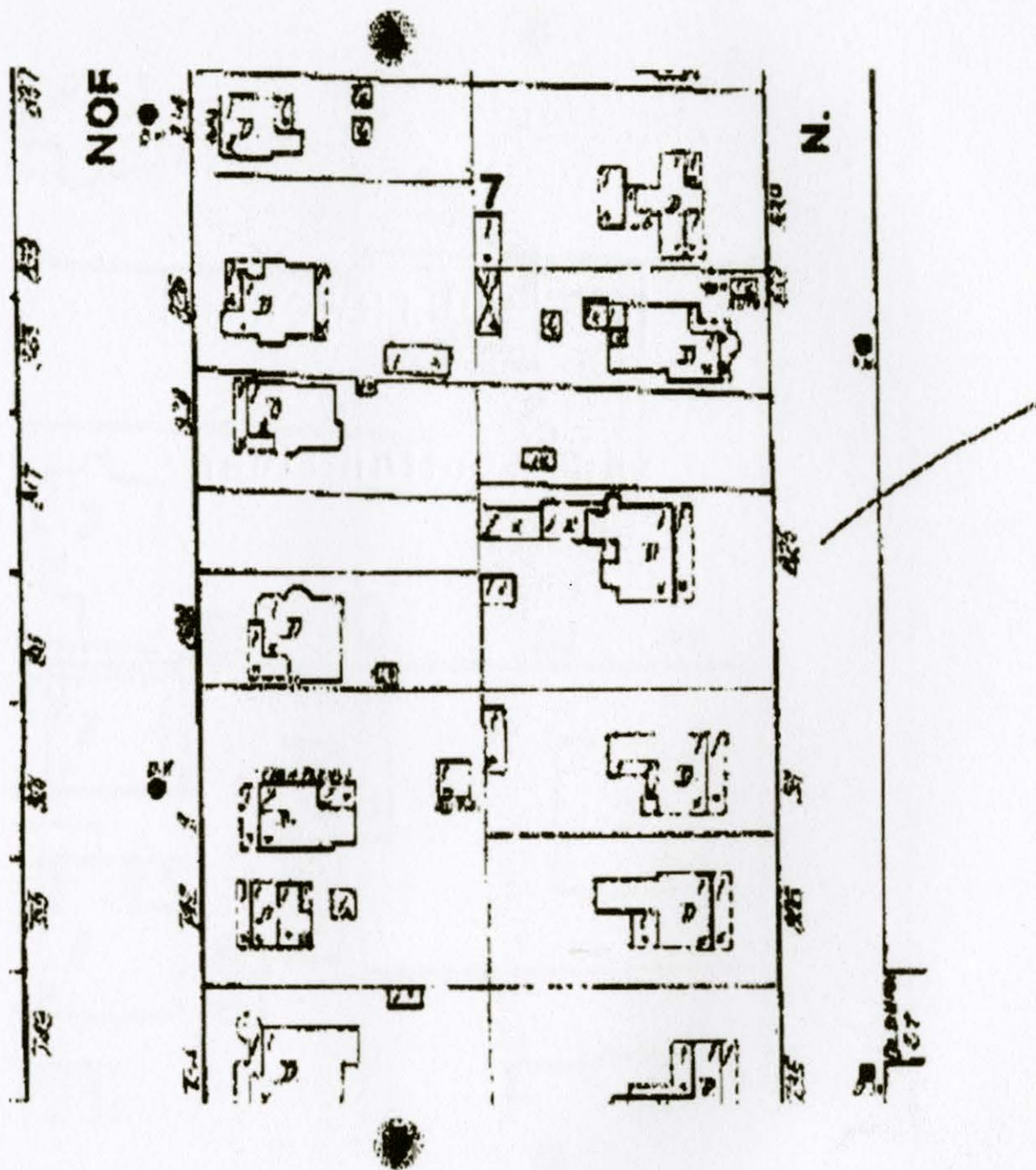


Figure 12. 1918 Sanborn Showing The Oaks. (Sanborn Map Company, 1918).

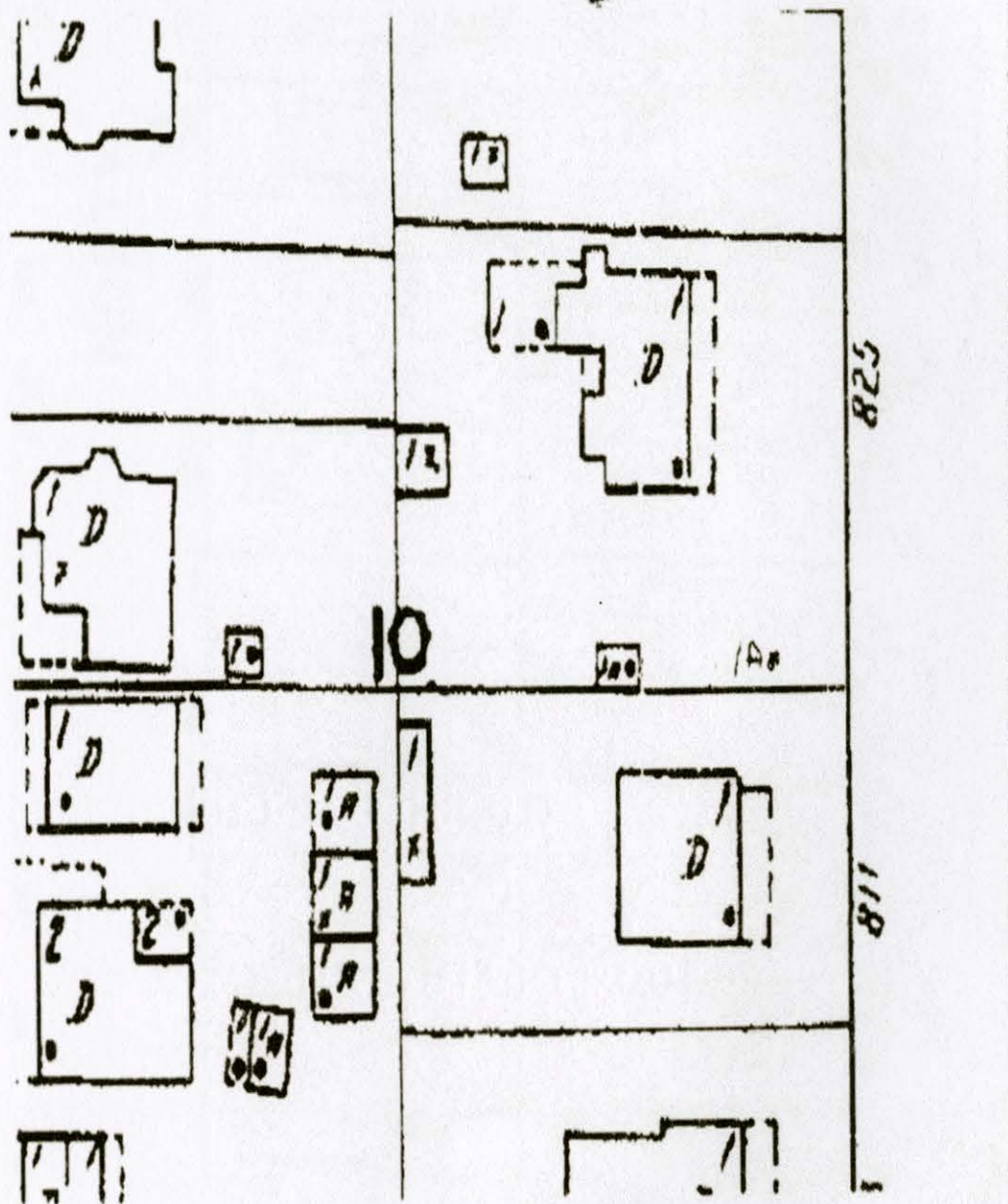


Figure 13. 1929 Sanborn Showing The Oaks. (Sanborn Map Company, 1929).

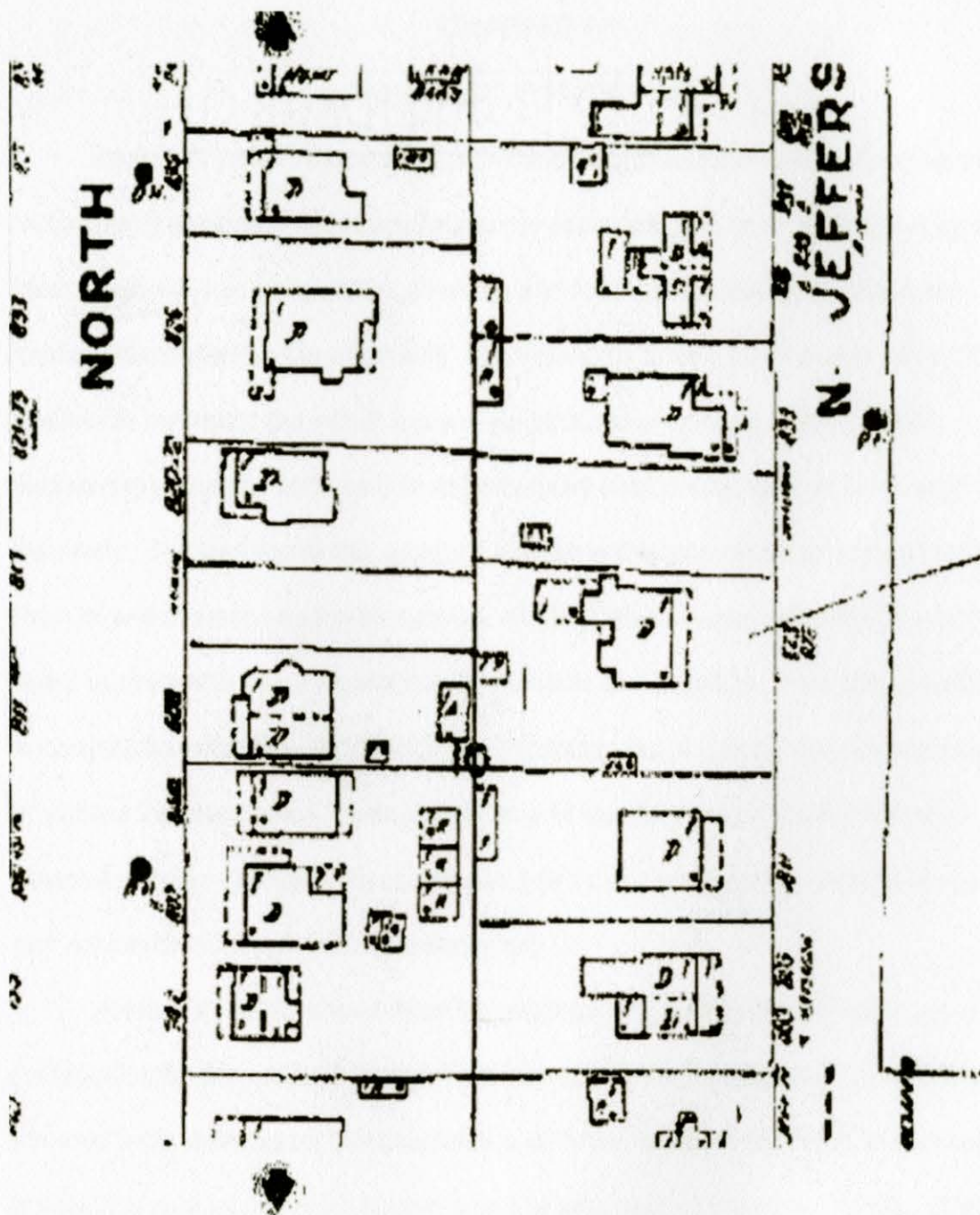


Figure 14. 1962 Sanborn Showing The Oaks. (Sanborn Map Company, 1962).

CHAPTER IV

HOUSELOT PATTERNING

Houselot patterning analyses forms one of the important backbones of historic archaeology. While this has been accomplished to some degree by the labor intensive use of surface collection and test unit excavations, there are easier alternatives to the approach. According to Susan C. Andrews while these traditional methods can result in variable success (Andrews, 1992) those successes are overshadowed by the intensive cost, labor, and invasiveness of the work. The answer to this problem comes in the form of augering and coring, each of which were used with success at The Oaks. Auger sampling is used in order to delineate site size along with possible unit location. This auger testing, in conjunction with the SURFER mapping program, can show the representation of artifact frequency along with temporal and spatial changes within the site. By observing these changes, functions such as houselot dumping, activity areas, and structure locations can be determined.

Andrews (1992) shows how this method was used with success to test artifact distribution at the Brabson Ferry plantation in Tennessee. The results showed brick and mortar concentrations in three main areas, those of the main house, the rear of the main house, and the rear yard of the slave house. The distribution of cut nails reinforced the brick and mortar pattern. Given that oral history states the original house was razed, it would appear that these concentrations are in fact pointing to its location. Even without knowing the direct

relation of these artifacts the fact remains that this method does in fact give greater insight into artifact distribution patterns within a houselot.

O'Malley (1987) approached the artifact distribution idea by listing artifacts strictly according to functional typology as a way of discerning site spatiality. When looking at areas like the privy or dumps, the categories of architectural, hardware, domestic, personal, and other were used and then separated by each unit and level within the given area. This allows the archaeologist to view the artifact distributions for each typology side by side on a graph so that similarities can be observed. It should be mentioned however that within these functional typologies they did not ignore the significance that certain specific artifacts could represent. By observing these functional trends varying patterns can be observed. Domestic artifacts tend to be concentrated around the main house area of the cellar door and the rear service area (O'Malley, 1987). Faulkner (1994) also observed this concentration of kitchen group artifacts around the Ramsey House cellar. He noted that the proximity of the kitchen rear service door to that of the cellar entrance probably resulted in broken kitchen items being swept or thrown into the cellar during ground area cleaning (Faulkner, 1994).

The reason for the existence of all these outbuildings is due in part to the limited availability of goods and services in early urban areas. As observed at Blount Mansion in Knoxville, Tennessee, the rear yard of these urban farmsteads appear to have provided these needed services at home. Cisterns would have provided a much needed water source while the various buildings provided the needed space for food production and storage in both the forms of crops and

animals. These buildings began disappearing as urban public and private services became available to replace them (Faulkner, 1998).

Hopefully by focusing on site layout, site stratigraphy, and analysis of the artifact assemblages, a greater determination can be reached on the specific purpose of the various outbuildings located at The Oaks. This shall be determined by examining the distribution of artifacts by unit and level across the entire site in an attempt to develop a houselot patterning. Distinctive artifact concentrations will also be used to derive building function. Also by identifying these functions a better understanding can be gained into everyday life on the periphery of the newly settled capital of Mississippi.

Artifact Patterning

According to Joseph (1989) and South (1978) artifact patterning is related to the types of excavations employed at a site. South (1978) argues that a true artifact pattern can only be achieved by analyzing the site as a whole. This type of analysis would require that units or shovel tests be placed in both architectural and non-architectural locations. Other factors beyond the excavation techniques include cultural differences such as status and ethnicity and technological innovations. When examining architectural and kitchen artifacts, South (1977) suggested leaving certain items out of the pattern analysis. This suggesting is made due to the variability of certain artifacts (bone, shell, brick, mortar, and daub) to remain preserved for the archaeological record. The exclusion of these artifacts leaves two primary types (nails and window glass) for architectural analysis, however this can lead to its own problem depending on the type of

construction (non-framed) used on a site. Another problem that is often encountered is that of the reuse of certain architectural resources like handwrought nails.¹ Post-Industrial Revolution cut nails dominated architecture by the early nineteenth century and were considered so cheap and replaceable that little attempts were made to save them for reuse. Brick and mortar were found in abundance at The Oaks. Due to the highly fractured and brittle nature of the bricks and mortar, they were weighed in sets (unit/level) instead of individually counted. These weights will be applied to the counted artifact distributions spatially across the site to help determine any artifact patterns.

Archaeological Field Season One

During the 2004 field season at The Oaks a total of 11 one by one meter units were excavated (Young, 2004). Two units were placed in the vicinity of the outbuilding believed to be the outhouse. Another unit was placed near the small outbuilding north of the cistern while another one was placed in the extreme rear corner of the side yard near a larger outbuilding thought to be the barn. The final six units were in the vicinity of the detached kitchen (Figure 15).

¹ Handwrought nails were commonly used before the Industrial Revolution.

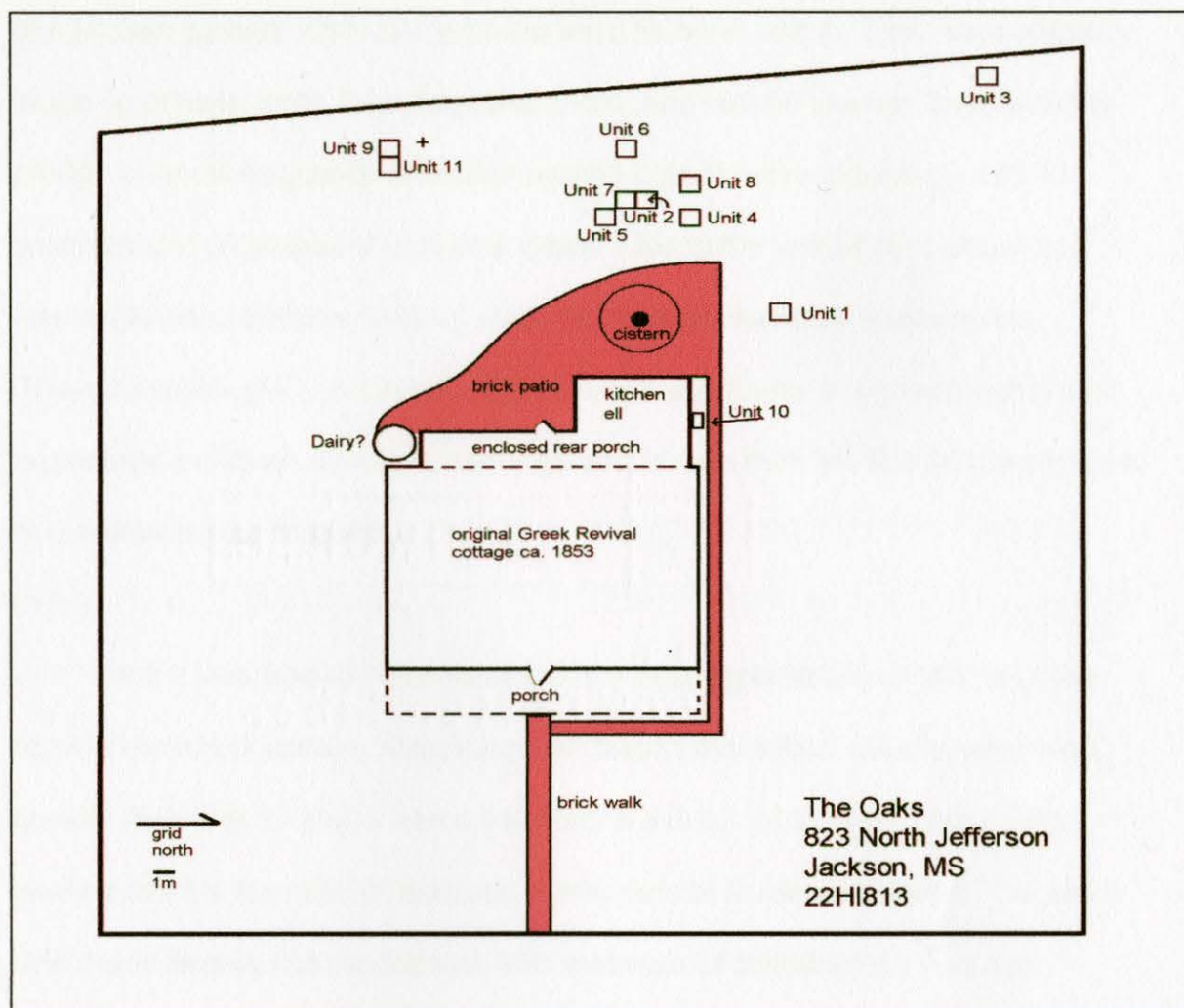


Figure 15. Map of The Oaks Showing Unit Placement and Location of Primary Datum "+".

Unit 1

Unit 1 was placed in the side yard near the location shown on the Sanborn maps where a small unidentified building was placed. An excavation in Unit 1 was carried out in 5 cm levels and was excavated to a depth of 20 centimeters below surface (cmb). The first two levels of the unit showed a uniform color and consistency. Unit 1 showed a high level of disturbance that appeared to be indicative of plowing leading to the suggestion that this may have once been part

of a kitchen garden. Only 247 artifacts were found in Unit 1. They were primarily made up of nails, slate, brick fragments, iron, and mid-nineteenth century sandy mortar. A small frequency of kitchen related objects were recovered, with 17 ceramics and 27 pieces of container glass. Due to the lack of ashy deposits it was determined that this building could not have served as a smokehouse.

Given the building's location near the barn/carriage house it is possible that this represents a chicken house, however given the data from the first field season no conclusion can be reached.

Unit 2

Unit 2 was placed in the vicinity of the building believed to be that of the original detached kitchen. Beginning with level 1 the artifact density was much heavier than Unit 1. Unit 2 was excavated to a depth of 38 cmbs using 5 cm levels except in the case of features, where natural levels were used. The soil in Unit 2 was heavily compacted with little evidence of disturbance. The only recorded disturbance was a narrow trench dug for the laying of a sprinkler system's water lines for the rear gardens. Two major features were discovered within this unit. The first was that of the kitchen's brick hearth foundation, while the second was the builder's trench used during its construction. Part of the significance of this builder's trench is that it dates the construction of the kitchen at around the same time as that of the main house. Artifacts were dense throughout Unit 2 with a total of 425 artifacts recovered. Brick dominated

the assemblage but also kitchen-related artifacts were present in high frequency, leading more evidence to the conclusion that this was indeed the unattached kitchen.

Unit 3

Unit 3 was placed in the vicinity of the barn/stable in the northwest corner of the site. The original placement of this building is taken from Sanborn maps and oral histories. Due to a high degree of disturbance within the unit, no determination could be made as to the building's functions. Modern debris littered the unit from dumping, planting, and fence replacements. Most of the 299 artifacts recovered from the unit represent architectural associations (brick, mortar, and nails).

Unit 4

After the discovery of the hearth foundation in Unit 2, Unit 4 was placed near a possible brick foundation found by tile probing. By level 1 a brick feature, later determined to be a brick pier of the kitchen, was uncovered. The unit was excavated to 35 cmbs where at the base of Level 7, feature 8 was discovered. Feature 8 consisted of a dense concentration of burned materials on sterile soil. A total of 3,258 artifacts were recovered from the unit with architectural materials (brick, nails, and window glass) dominating the assemblage. The unit also contained a high frequency of ceramics (n=163), animal bones (n=184), container class (n=309), and other artifacts reflective of kitchen activities. Additionally sewing equipment and buttons were found which could represent the

workings of the Boyds' slave. Unit 4 also had a significant degree of ash and charcoal along with many burned artifacts scattered throughout.

Unit 5

This unit was placed in an attempt to find a second brick pier for the kitchen. This was a success and feature 5 was identified as a brick pier for the kitchen. Unit 5 yielded 457 artifacts with architectural artifacts (brick, nails, mortar, window glass, and paint chips) dominating the assemblage. Kitchen related items (ceramics, container glass, and faunal remains) were also present in relatively high frequency.

Unit 6

Unit 6 was placed in an attempt to discover the size of the fireplace and chimney in the kitchen. Unfortunately no base was discovered in relation to the kitchen's fireplace and chimney. Only 36 artifacts were discovered in this unit with some of the artifacts representing modern materials such as aluminum pop-tops, and a plastic cap.

Unit 7

This unit was placed next to unit 2 in order to determine the size of the kitchen hearth. The hearth extended across nearly the entire unit. Unit 7 shared a similar artifact assemblage to Unit 2 with a total of 470 artifacts recovered.

Unit 8

Unit 8 was placed just west of Unit 4 after finding a brick concentration. Another brick pier of the kitchen was discovered 12 cmbs. A total of 3,651

artifacts were uncovered. Among some of the artifacts were window glass (n=175), buttons, a hook and eyes, and a single straight pin.

Unit 9

Unit 9 was placed in the area of the reported privy. No evidence for a privy was located, however, a brick foundation was found along with a posthole. Only 157 artifacts were recovered and most consisted of architectural materials (brick, mortar, window glass, and nails). The function for this building could not be fully determined.

Unit 10

This unit was placed abutting one of the brick piers of the kitchen ell. The purpose of this was to discover the date for its construction using the builder's trench. A determination could not be made using this method, however, due to a thick layer of concrete in the builder's trench. A total of 75 artifacts were recovered from the unit including 43 nails, several of which were wire nails placing the possible construction of the kitchen ell in the late 1880s or 1890s when wire nails became widely available.

Unit 11

Unit 11 was placed directly east of Unit 9 abutting it. A brick pavement was encountered in level 1 with a total of 71 artifacts. Given the high degree of window glass (n=49) encountered in the unit, it is possible that this building could represent a cold frame used to store plants and vegetables during the winter.

Archaeological Field Season Two

The season 2 archaeological testing at The Oaks was conducted in December 2005 and June and July 2006. The purpose was to identify locations and functions of former outbuildings and activity areas, especially those relating to the occupation period of James Hervey Boyd and family, and to provide a basic understanding of the potential of these areas for future research on the property. This was accomplished by using the maps and data gathered from season 1 (Figure 16)

A total of 10 one-by-one meter units were excavated at the Oaks during season 2. Two units (Units 20 and 21) were placed in the vicinity of the detached kitchen that was excavated the previous year. Unit 19 was placed in the rear of the property but still close enough to the kitchen to yield useful information. Units 12, 15, 16, 17, and 18 were placed in the vicinity of building B (Figure 17) in an attempt to locate the remains of one of the known barns on the property. Unit 13 was placed in the area of the supposed privy. Unit 14 was placed north of the cistern and one meter south of Unit 1. The purpose of this unit was to ascertain more possible information on the location and function of unidentified building A.

Unit 12

Unit 12 was located two meters east of Unit 3 in the location of the barn. The excavation of Unit 12 was carried out in 2005 with 5 cm levels and excavated to a depth of 25 cmbs. A consistency was seen between artifacts from Unit 3 and those recovered in Unit 12. A total of 468 artifacts were recovered from Unit 12. Primarily nails were the most common artifacts as they

were the previous season in the surrounding area. Only low to moderate frequencies of kitchen-related artifacts such as ceramics (n=50) and container glass (n=67) were recovered.

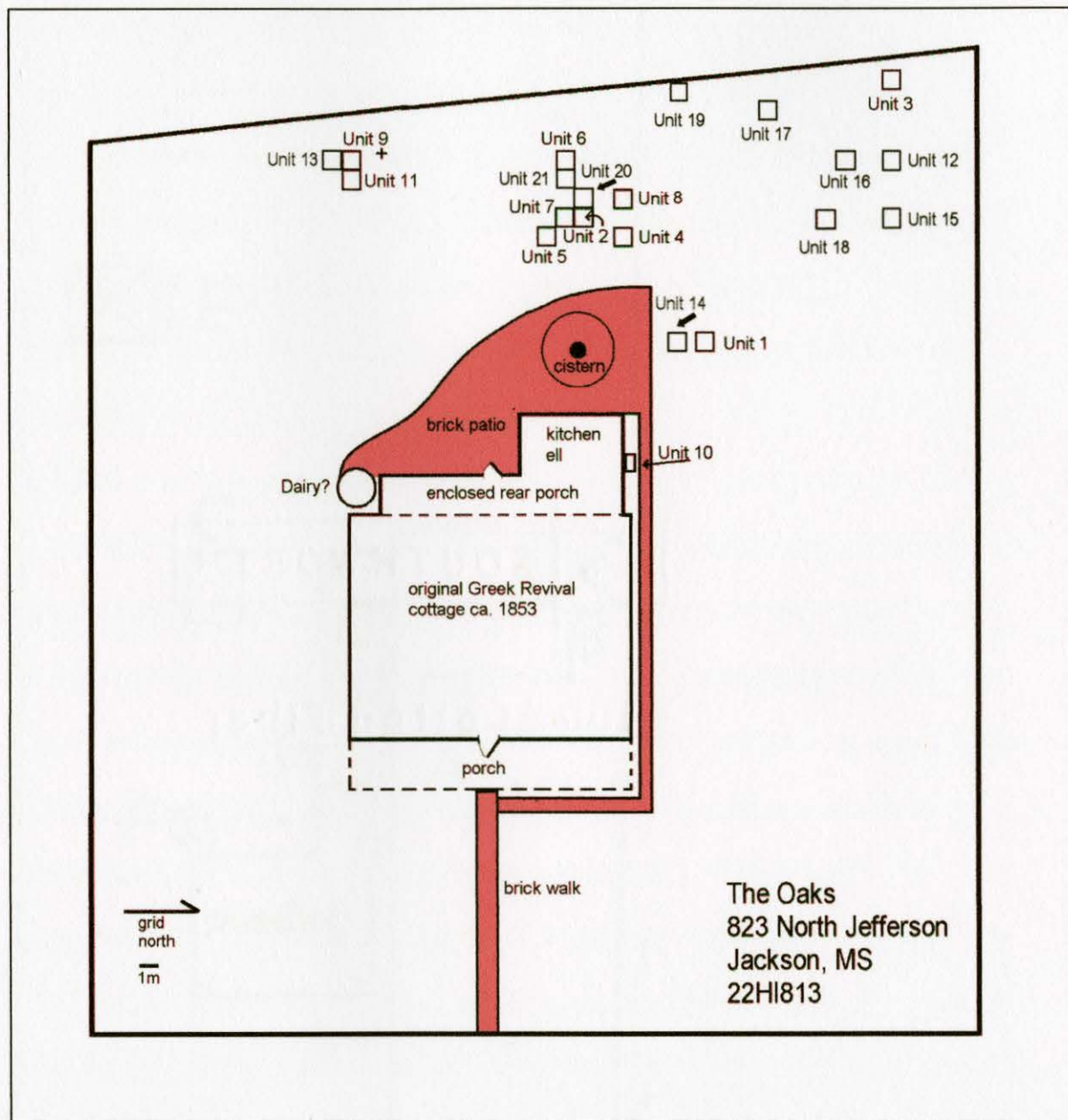


Figure 16: Map of The Oaks Showing Unit Placement.

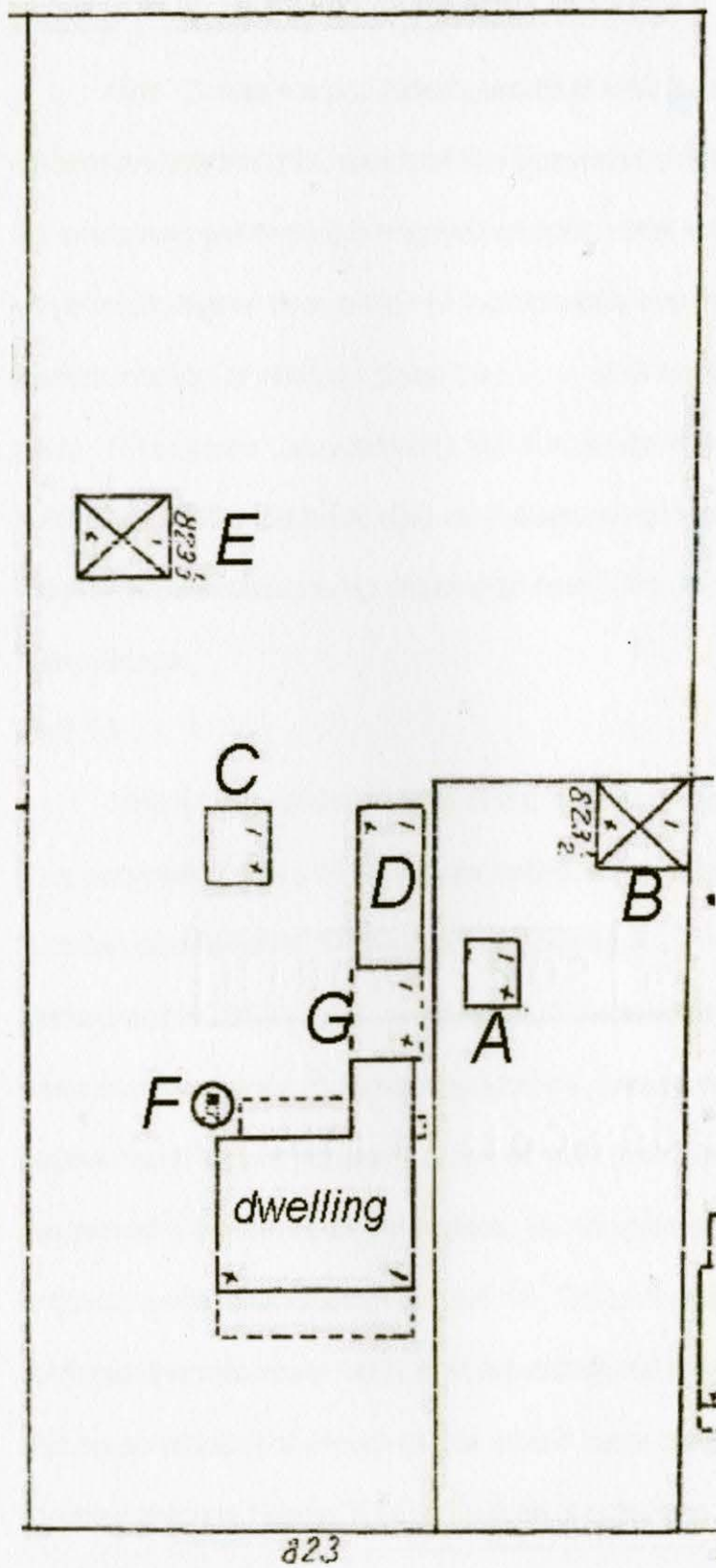


Figure 17. 1904 Sanborn of the Oaks with Structures Labeled. (Sanborn Map Company, 1904).

Unit 13

Unit 13 was placed directly south of Unit 9 in order to gain more understanding into the nature of the supposed privy. The unit was taken down to 35 cmbs and yielded high degrees of both metal and window glass. These levels were much higher than either of the previous two units. Given the high representation of window glass it is highly unlikely that this could represent a privy. Even given the possibility that the window glass is from dumping and fill (O'Malley, 1987) the brick slab on the site is not indicative of known privies. A total of 1085 artifacts were recovered from Unit 13 with nails dominating the assemblage.

Unit 14

Unit 14 was placed north of the cistern and one meter south of Unit 1. The purpose of this unit was to ascertain more possible information on the location and function of unidentified building A. The excavation for Unit 14 was carried out in 2005 with 5 cm levels and excavated to a depth of 20 cmbs. There were no metal artifacts located in Unit 14, however, the unit's assemblage did reveal much higher concentrations of nails than Unit 1. Also the unit only contained 8 pieces of window glass, as compared to 18 in Unit 1. A total of 178 artifacts were recovered from Unit 14. Given these high numbers of architectural artifacts it would seem likely that a building did exist here at one time. Also given the small amount of windows that would have been present in a nineteenth century chicken house, it would not be too hard to make the assumption that that was its possible function.

Unit 15

Unit 15 was placed in the area of the barn, labeled "E" in Figure 17. A relatively high frequency of metal and nails is associated with this unit. Also Unit 15 yielded feature 12 for the site in the form of a post support, post mold, and post hole. This could be part of the original post used to hold up the barn when it was still standing (O'Malley 1987). A total of 420 artifacts and 8,785 grams of brick and mortar were recovered from Unit 15. While brick, nails, and metal account for the majority of the artifacts, the frequency of ceramics (n=58) and container glass (n=46) cannot be ignored.

Unit 16

Unit 16 was placed in the area of the barn south of Unit 12. Out of all the units located within the barn area, Unit 16 sports the highest amount of metal and second highest amount of nails next to Unit 12. Unit 16 yielded 688 artifacts and 8,310 grams of brick and mortar. Architectural artifacts brick, nails, and mortar dominate the assemblage along with that of ferrous metals (n=342). The Unit also contained a fair amount of container glass (n=66).

Unit 17

Unit 17 was placed on the extreme north east side of the barn area. Unfortunately the unit yielded little information for the site and was abandoned after going down 15 cmbs. Only two artifacts were recovered within the unit along with 140 grams of brick.

Unit 18

Unit 18 was located north east of Unit 16 and two meters south of Unit 15 within the barn area. There is not much to note about Unit 18 except that it kept the normal barn unit pattern of high nails and ferrous metal content. It is possible due to the low number of nails and ferrous metal that this unit could be close to the southern edge of the barn. The artifact assemblage from Unit 18 is similar to that of the other barn units if in a lesser degree. A total of 250 artifacts and 3,780 grams of brick and mortar were recovered from Unit 18.

Unit 19

Unit 19 was located in the rear of the backyard along the fence. It was placed north of the detached kitchen and south-west of Unit 17 and was excavated to a depth of 40 cmbs. Given the close proximity of Unit 19 to the area of the detached kitchen, its assemblage should be added to the kitchen's total artifact assemblage for The Oaks. A total of 1,748 artifacts and 12,325 grams of brick and mortar were recovered from Unit 19. Container glass was heaviest (n=1127) in this unit followed by ceramics (n=301).

Unit 20

Unit 20 was placed directly west of Unit 2 and north of Unit 21 and was excavated to a depth of 35 cmbs. It contains the third highest frequency of nails (n=239) and the fourth highest frequency of metal (n=129) within the unattached kitchen area. The unit contained few ceramics (n=11) but a fairly nice amount of container glass (n=70). A total of 449 artifacts and 11,625 grams of brick and

mortar were recovered from Unit 20. This concentration of bricks was the second highest of the season following Unit 19.

Unit 21

Unit 21 was placed directly east and abutting Unit 6. It was excavated to a depth of 25 cmbs. The unit as a whole yielded moderately low concentrations of metal (n=120) and nails (n=134) while yielding an extremely low concentration of window glass (n=10). It should be mentioned that when compared to Unit 6, Unit 21 fell more into the range for the other kitchen units. This could possibly lead to the conclusion that Unit 6 represents the western boundary of the detached kitchen. Given the scale of the Sanborn maps it is difficult to judge the actual size of the various outbuildings including the kitchen. Once again the ceramic count is low, however this time the container glass is equally low. A total of 295 artifacts were recovered from Unit 21, along with 6,660 grams of brick and mortar.

Unit Placement by Structure

Barn

Units 3, 12, 15, 16, 17, and 18 were placed in the vicinity of building B (Figure 18) in an attempt to locate the remains of one of the known barns on the property. These six units represent three separate excavation years at The Oaks (2004, 2005, 2006). Hopefully with enough data a full determination can be made on the building.

Unit 3 was placed in the vicinity of the barn/stable in the northwest corner of the site. The original location of this building is taken from Sanborn maps and

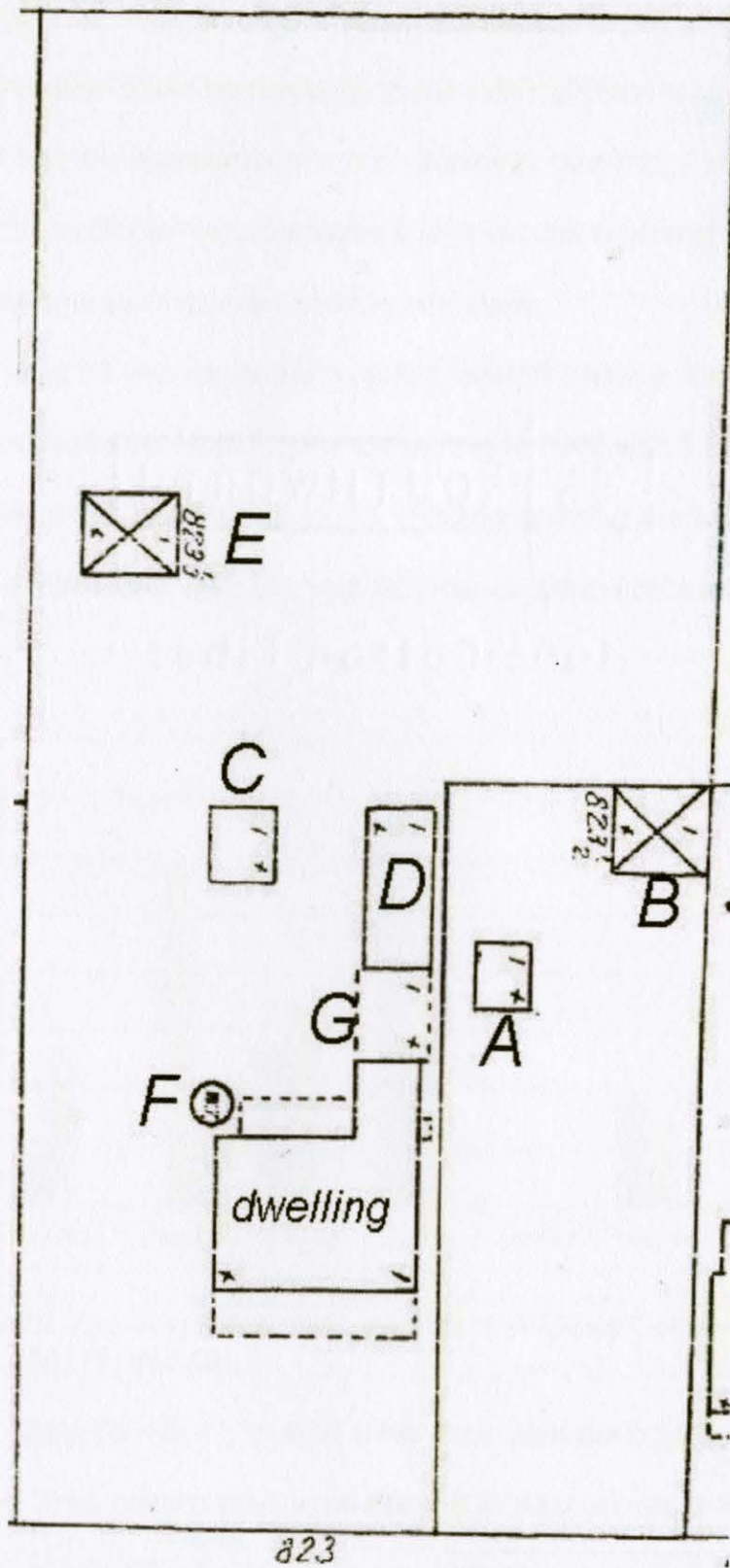


Figure 18. 1904 Sanborn of the Oaks with Structures Labeled (Sanborn Map Company, 1904).

oral histories. Due to a high degree of disturbance within the unit, no determination could be made as to the building's functions in the first season. Modern debris littered the unit from dumping, planting, and fence replacements. Most of the 299 artifacts recovered from the unit represent architectural associations such as brick, mortar, and nails.

Unit 12 was located two meters east of Unit 3 in the location of the barn. The excavation of Unit 12 was carried out in 2005 with 5 cm levels and excavated to a depth of 25 cmbs. When examining the field catalog for The Oaks excavations, Unit 12 appears to have yielded the same artifact types as did Unit 3.

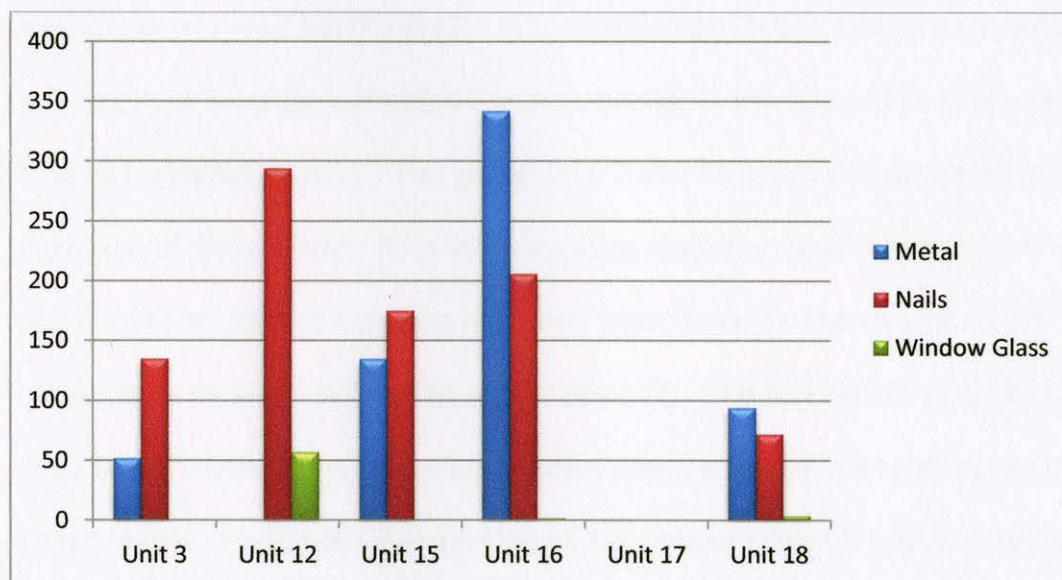


Figure 19. Showing Metal, Nail, and Window Glass Concentrations for Units 3, 12, 15, 16, 17, and 18.

Units 15, 16, 17, and 18 were excavated during the 2006 summer field school. They were placed in an attempt to discover more information on the barn. Units 3, 12, 15, and 16 have a high frequency of nails (this being over $n=100$), while Units 15 and 16 have a high frequency of metal along with nails

(Figure 19). The only unit to show any true amount of window glass was Unit 12 which also had the highest frequency of nails out of all the units for the barn. Unit 15 yielded feature 12 for the site in the form of a post support, post mold, and post hole. This could be part of the original post used to hold up the barn when it was still standing (O'Malley, 1987). While disturbance was still noticeable in these units, the concentration of nails, metal, and window glass is not uncommon for that of a barn structure.

Kitchen

Unit 2 was placed in the vicinity of the building believed to be that of the original detached kitchen (Figure 18 building D). Beginning with Level 1 the artifact density was much heavier with Unit 2 than Unit 1. Unit 2 was excavated to a depth of 38 cmbs using 5 cm levels, except in the case of features, where natural levels were used. The soil in Unit 2 was heavily compacted with little evidence of disturbance. The only recorded disturbance was a narrow trench dug for the laying of a sprinkler system's water lines for the rear gardens. Two major features were discovered within this unit. The first was that of the kitchen's brick hearth foundation, while the second was the builder's trench used during its construction. Part of the significance of this builder's trench is that it dates the construction of the kitchen at around the same time as that of the main house. Artifacts were dense throughout Unit 2 with a total of 425 artifacts recovered. Brick dominated the assemblage, but also kitchen related artifacts were present in high frequency, leading more evidence to the conclusion that this was indeed the unattached kitchen (Young, 2004).

After the discovery of the hearth foundation in Unit 2, Unit 4 was placed near a possible brick foundation found by tile probing. By Level 1 a brick feature later determined to be a brick pier of the kitchen was uncovered. The unit was excavated to 35 cmbs where at the base of Level 7 Feature 8 was discovered.

A total of 3,258 artifacts were recovered from the unit, with architectural materials (brick, nails, and window glass) dominating the assemblage. The unit also contained a high frequency of ceramics (n= 163), animal bones (n= 184), container glass (n= 309), and other artifacts reflective of kitchen activities. Additionally sewing equipment and buttons were found, which could represent the workings of the Boyd's slave. Unit 4 also had a significant degree of ash and charcoal along with many burned artifacts scattered throughout.

Unit 5 was placed in an attempt to find a second brick pier for the kitchen. This was a success and Feature 5 was identified as a brick pier for the kitchen. Unit 5 yielded 457 artifacts with architectural artifacts (brick, nails, mortar, window glass, and paint chips) dominating the assemblage. Kitchen related items (ceramics, container glass, and faunal remains) were also present in relatively high frequency.

Unit 6 was placed in an attempt to discover the size of the fireplace and chimney in the kitchen. Unfortunately no base was discovered in relation to the kitchen's fireplace and chimney. Only 36 artifacts were discovered in this unit with some of these artifacts representing modern materials such as aluminum pop-tops, and a plastic cap.

Unit 7 was placed next to Unit 2 in order to determine the size of the kitchen hearth. The hearth extended across nearly the entire unit. Unit 7 shared a similar artifact assemblage to Unit 2 with a total of 470 artifacts recovered (Young, 2004).

Unit 8 was placed one meter west of Unit 4 after finding a brick concentration. Another brick pier of the kitchen was discovered 12 cmbs. A total of 3,651 artifacts were uncovered. Among some of the artifacts were window glass (n= 175), buttons, a hook and eyes, and a single straight pin.

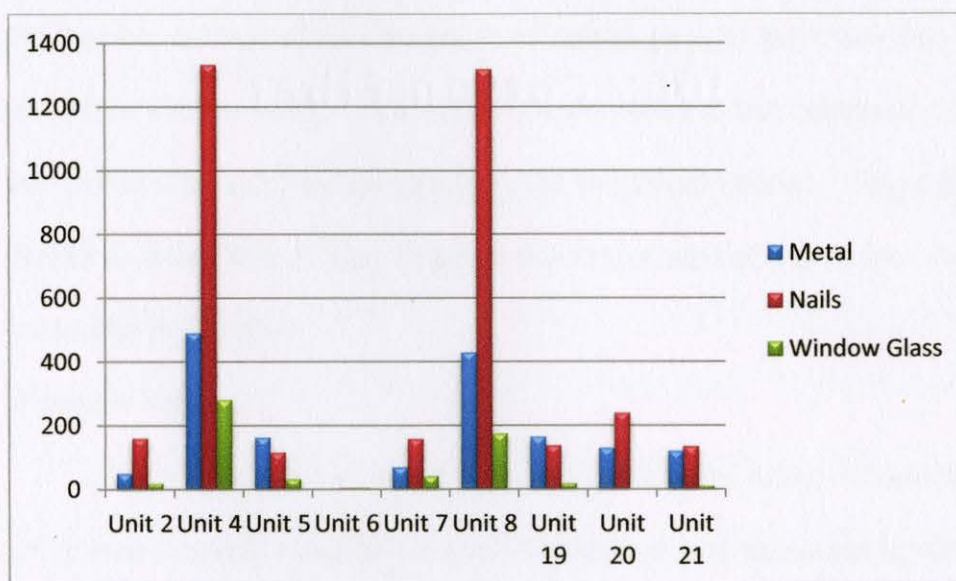


Figure 20. Showing Metal, Nail, and Window Glass Concentrations for Units 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 19, 20, and 21.

Unit 19 was excavated during the 2006 season and located in the rear of the backyard along the fence. It was placed north of the detached kitchen and southwest of Unit 17 and was excavated to a depth of 40 cmbs. Given the close proximity of Unit 19 to the area of the detached kitchen, its assemblage was added to the kitchen's total artifact assemblage for The Oaks.

Unit 20 was placed directly west of Unit 2 and excavated during the 2006 season to a depth of 35 cmbs. It contains the third highest frequency of nails (n=239) and the fourth highest frequency of metal (n=129). The unit contained zero window glass fragments.

Unit 21 was also excavated in the 2006 season and placed directly east and abutting Unit 6. It was excavated to a depth of 25 cmbs. The unit as a whole yielded moderately low concentrations of metal (n=120) and nails (n=134) while yielding an extremely low concentration of window glass (n=10). It should be mentioned that when compared to Unit 6, Unit 21 fell more into the range for the other kitchen units. This could possibly lead to the conclusion that Unit 6 represents the western periphery of the detached kitchen. Given the scale of the Sanborn maps it is difficult to judge the actual size of the various outbuildings including the kitchen.

Possible Privy

Unit 9 was placed in the area of the reported privy. No evidence for a privy was located; however, a brick foundation was found along with a posthole. Only 157 artifacts were recovered and most consisted of architectural materials (brick, mortar, window glass, and nails). The function for this building could not be fully determined from the excavations carried out in 2005 (Young, 2004).

Unit 11 was placed directly east of Unit 9 abutting it. A brick pavement was encountered in Level 1 with a total of 71 artifacts. Given the high degree of window glass (n= 49) encountered in the unit, it is possible that this building

could represent a cold frame used to store plants and vegetables during the winter.

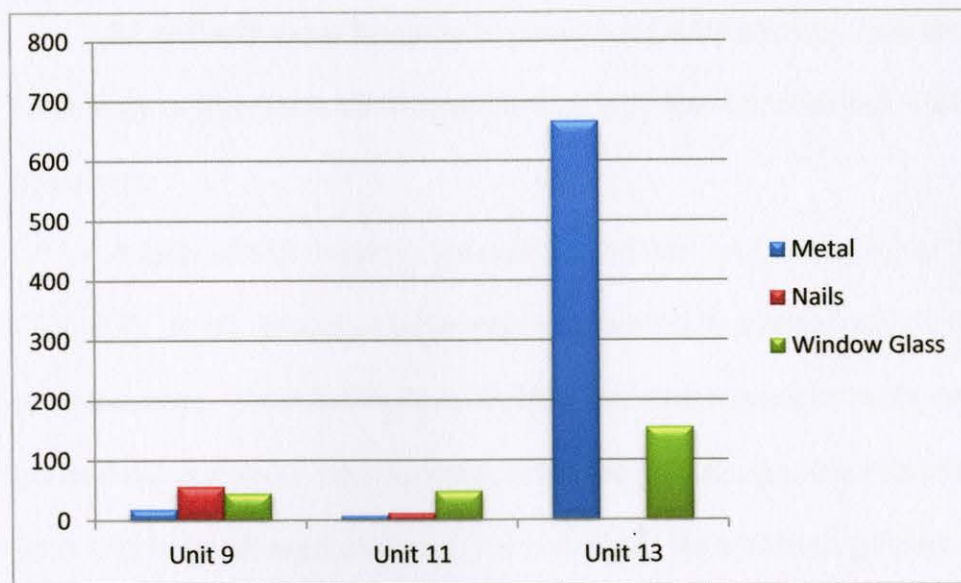


Figure 21. Showing Metal, Nail, and Window Glass Concentrations for Units 9, 11 and 13.

Unit 13 was placed directly south of Unit 9 in order to gain more understanding into the nature of the supposed privy. The unit was taken down to 35 cmbs and yielded high degrees of both metal and window glass. These levels were much higher than either of the previous two units. Given the high representation of window glass it is highly unlikely that this could represent a privy. Even given the possibility that the window glass is from dumping and fill (O'Malley, 1987), the brick slab on the site is not indicative of known privies.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

All artifacts were taken to the Historical Archaeology laboratory at The University of Southern Mississippi where they were processed, identified and analyzed.

A total of 600 artifacts was recovered from auger testing at The Oaks (Table 2). In all, 48 auger tests were excavated to subsoil and all but six (87.5%) were positive. This distribution, and the fact that the auger tests suggested subsoil did not occur until approximately 20 cmbs suggests that this part of the yard had been plowed and was possibly used as a kitchen garden during the antebellum and early postbellum period and that the residents at The Oaks were relatively self-sufficient in subsistence, with little reliance on food purchases in the market place.

Table 2

Artifact Frequencies in Each Auger Test at The Oaks

North	East	Frequency
139	97	14
139	101	0
139	105	82
139	109	46
139	113	23
139	117	6

Table 2 (continued).

North	East	Frequency
139	121	0
139	125	12
139	129	1
139	133	11
139	137	9
139	141	13
135	97	0
135	101	0
135	105	4
135	109	52
135	113	15
135	117	4
135	121	3
135	125	0
135	129	2
135	133	3
135	137	6
135	141	9
131	97	9

Table 2 (continued).

North	East	Frequency
131	101	0
131	105	32
131	109	2
131	113	11
131	117	7
131	121	4
131	125	6
131	129	10
131	133	5
131	137	5
131	141	5
127	97	49
127	101	52
127	105	19
127	109	1
127	113	17
127	117	8
127	121	9
127	125	5

Table 2 (continued).

North	East	Frequency
127	129	2
127	133	4
127	137	22
127	141	1
Total		600

The predominant type of artifact (Table 3) recovered from the auger tests was coal and cinders (n=202). Brick was also recovered at high frequencies (n=199). None of the nails from the auger tests could be identified as to type (cut, wire, wrought) and were heavily corroded. This relatively poor preservation of metal characterizes the entire site.

Table 3

Artifact Type Frequencies in Auger Tests at The Oaks

Artifact Types	Frequency
Ceramics	3
Container glass	28
Window Glass	13
Nails	26

Table 3 (continued).

Artifacts Types	Frequency
Metal	35
Brick	199
Faunal	4
Mortar	42
Cinders	202
Slate	5
Other	43
TOTAL	600

The data from the auger tests were used to generate a Surfer map that shows the basic distribution of artifacts in the side yard at The Oaks. Figure 23 presents a graphic which overlays the surfer map with the 1904 Sanborn map of The Oaks. As can be seen in the figure, most of the artifacts are concentrated in the rear yard. It also looks as though a midden was deposited around the possible barn and the unidentified structure near the cistern. Since the 1 x 1m unit placed in the barn location looks heavily disturbed, it might prove fruitful to excavate in the midden associated with the barn in order to ascertain the function more accurately.

Bricks and Mortar

Due to the fragile nature of brick and mortar these artifacts were only weighed instead of being individually counted. One way to analyze these objects is to see their relative weight percentage next to that of artifact distributions across the site (Table 4).

Table 4

Brick/Mortar Weight and Artifact Frequency at The Oaks

Unit	Brick/Mortar Weight	Artifact Frequency
1	4857	247
2	19412	425
3	9697	299
4	58806	3258
5	14749	457
6	2337	36
7	25460	470
8	27606	3651
9	10723	157
10	230	75
11	1134	71
12	0	468
13	0	1085

Table 4 (continued).

Unit	Brick/Mortar Weight	Artifact Frequency
14	0	178
15	8785	420
16	8310	688
17	140	2
18	3780	250
19	12325	1748
20	11625	449
21	6660	295
Auger Test	842	600
Total	227478	15329

To better understand the distribution of artifacts from the excavation units at the Oaks, Figure 22 presents the percentages of artifacts and bricks. In most cases, the relative frequencies of bricks exceed that of the relative frequencies of the other artifacts. The most notable exception to this is found in Unit 19 where more artifacts than bricks were recovered.

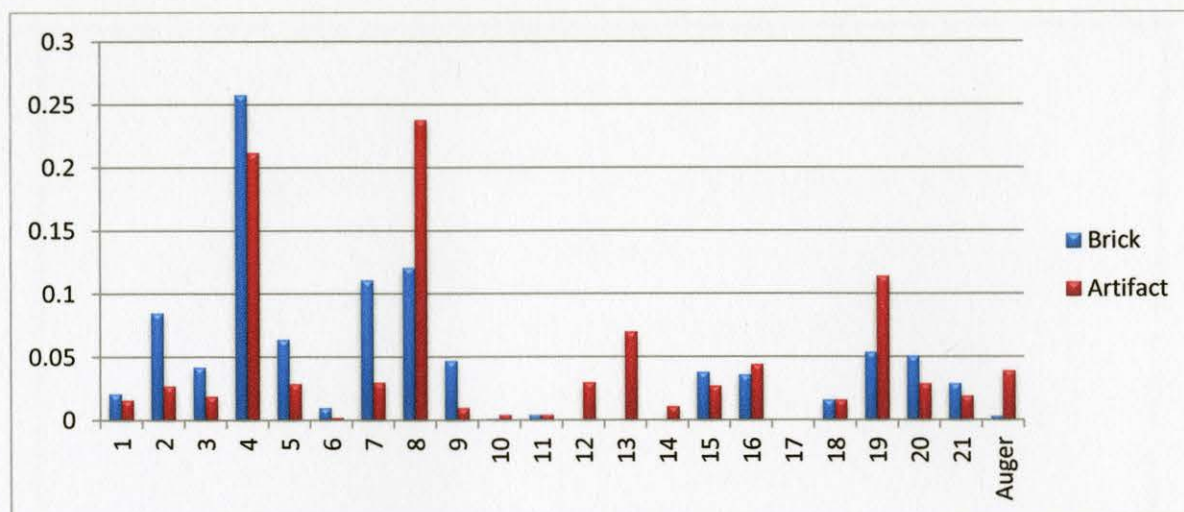


Figure 22. Relative Frequencies of Artifacts and Bricks Recovered in Unit Excavations and Auger Testing at The Oaks

Site Function

The next level of artifact analysis was geared primarily at understanding and interpreting site function. Many archaeologists have utilized South's (1977) artifact pattern as a basic and rational procedure for organizing artifacts. Many use this model to investigate the function of associated deposits across the site, while others use the model for discerning ethnicity (Garrow, 1982; Wheaton, Friedlander, & Garrow, 1983). Probably the most compelling reason to adopt this model is to make comparisons with other sites. This is essentially one way to organize and compare massive data sets.

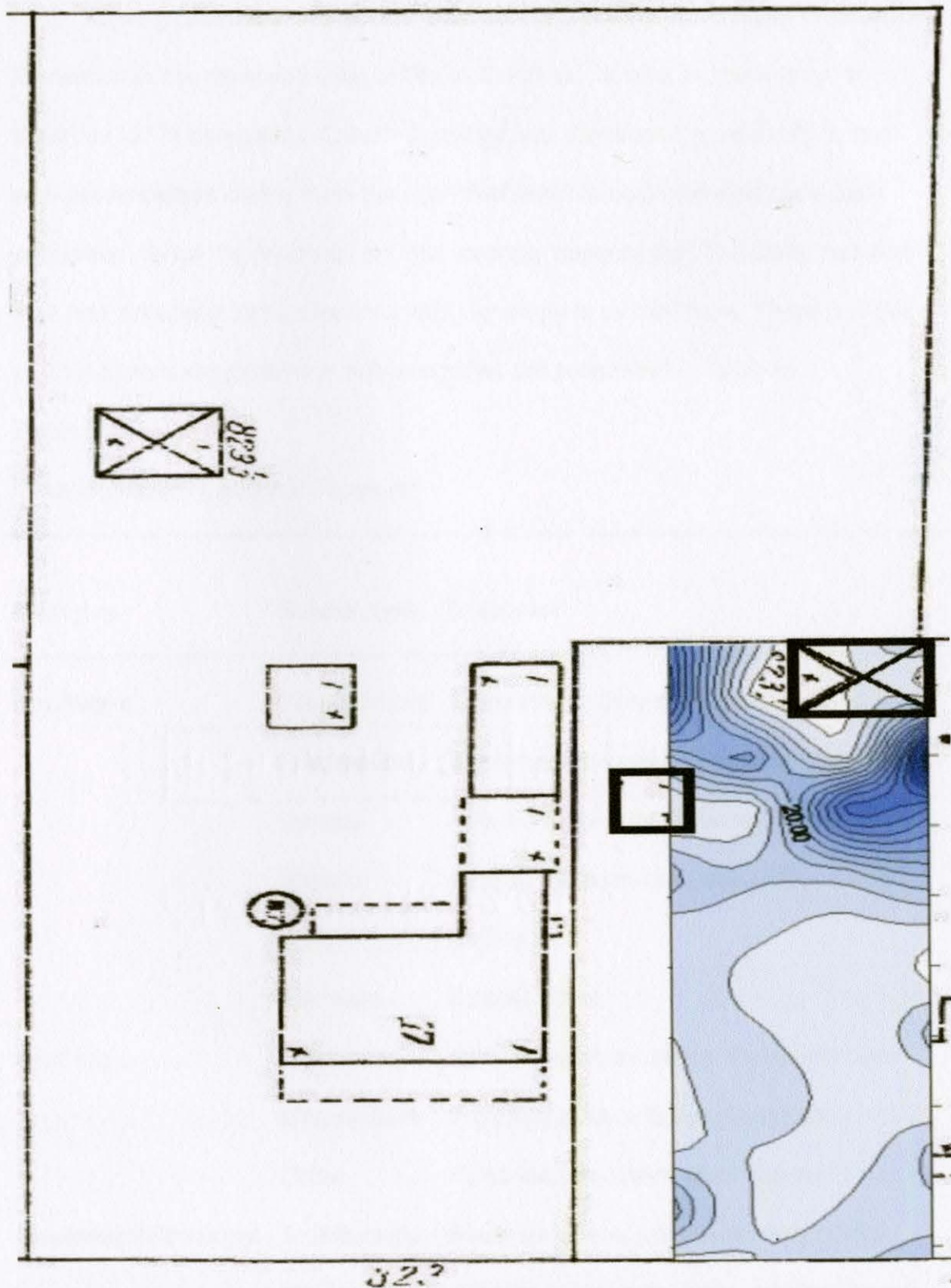


Figure 23: Surfer Map of Artifacts Recovered from Auger Tests in the Side Yard Overlain with 1904 Sanborn Map (Sanborn, 1904).

Orser (1988) also developed a functional typology in his study of Millwood Plantation in the piedmont area of South Carolina. Similar in some ways to South's (1977) categories, Orser's typology was developed specifically to deal with assemblages dating from the mid-nineteenth through the early twentieth centuries. Since the historical records strongly suggest that The Oaks was first built and occupied 1853, Orser's (1988) typology is utilized here. Orser's (1988, p. 233) basic categories and subcategories are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Orser's (1988) Functional Typology

Category	Subcategory	Examples
Foodways	Procurement	Ammunition, fishhooks, fishing weights
	Preparation	Baking pans, cooking vessels, large knives
	Service	Fine earthenware, flatware, tableware
	Storage	Coarse earthenware, stoneware, glass bottles
	Remains	Faunal, floral
Clothing	Fasteners	Buttons, eyelets, snaps, hook and eyes
	Manufacture	Needles, pins, scissors, thimbles
	Other	Shoe leather, metal shoe shanks
Household/Structural	Architecture	Nails, flat glass, spikes, mortar, bricks
	Hardware	Hinges, tacks, nuts, bolts, staples, hooks

Table 5 (continued).

Category	Subcategory	Examples
	Furnishings	Stove parts, furniture pieces, lamp parts, coal
Personal	Medicinal	Medicine bottles, droppers
	Cosmetic	Hairbrushes, hair combs
	Recreational	Smoking pipes, toys, musical instruments
	Monetary	Coins
	Decorative	Jewelry, hairpins, spectacles
	Other	Pocketknives, pencils, inkwells
Labor	Agricultural	Barbed wire, horse shoes, harness buckles, hoes, plow blades
	Industrial	Tools

Ceramic Analysis

A variety of ceramic wares was recovered from The Oaks and resembles other mid-nineteenth through early twentieth century ceramic assemblages. The ware types are divided into refined earthenwares, ironstones and semi-vitreous wares, porcelains, yellowware, coarse earthenwares, and stoneware. Where possible, vessel forms were identified (Table 6), along with decorations, size categories of sherds, and cross-mending completed.

Table 6

Vessel Forms from The Oaks

Vessel Form	Frequency	Percent
Plate/Flat	49	8.1
Hollow	43	7.1
Cup	13	2.1
Saucer	5	0.8
Bowl	8	1.3
Jar/Jug	1	0.2
Unidentified	489	80.4
Total	608	100

Refined Earthenwares

Refined earthenwares are the most common tablewares found on eighteenth through early twentieth century sites. First made in England in the Staffordshire district in the 1740s, by the mid-nineteenth century a number of important American manufacturers had also appeared (Majewski & O'Brien, 1987).

Creamware and Pearlware

The earliest refined earthenware tablewares appearing in the latter part of the eighteenth century were creamwares and pearlwares. Creamware was introduced around 1762 and became very common until the introduction of

pearlwares around 1780 (Majewski & O'Brien, 1987). Creamwares and pearlwares are found with a variety of decorations including transfer-printing (less common on creamware), dipped, painted, and edge decorated. Undecorated pearlware vessels are very uncommon. No creamware was recovered from The Oaks, but a single sherd of pearlware that typically dates before 1830 was recovered from The Oaks.

Whiteware

Whiteware was developed from creamware and was very common between 1830 and 1900 (Garrow, 1982). Whiteware is lighter and whiter than creamware and pearlware and not fired at as high a temperature as ironstone, making it more porous. Whitewares were decorated in a variety of ways, including transfer printing, painting, edge decorated, dipped, flown, and decal.

A total of 477 whiteware sherds were recovered from The Oaks. A significant portion (n=307, 64.4%) of the sherds were too small to allow for the assignment of vessel form. Those that were identified were primarily plates/flatwares and hollowares (Table 7).

Most of the whiteware from The Oaks was undecorated. Only 96 sherds were decorated on their interiors (Table 8) with 42 decorated on the exteriors (Table 9). Thirty five of the sherds were transfer printed. The majority of the transfer printed pieces also exhibited various floral scenes which were popular during the time.

Table 7

Whiteware Vessel Forms from The Oaks

Vessel Form	Frequency	Percent
Plate/Flat	108	22.6
Hollow	41	8.6
Cup	3	0.6
Saucer	14	2.9
Bowl	4	0.8
Jar/Jug	0	0
Unidentified	307	64.4
Total	477	99.9

Table 8

Interior Decoration on Whiteware

Decoration	Frequency
Black Glaze	2
Black Glazed Band	1
Blue and White Glaze	1
Blue Transfer Print	1
Brown Glaze	5

Table 8 (continued).

Decoration	Frequency
Brown Transfer Print	1
Brown Transfer Print Floral	12
Dark Green Glaze	1
Dipped	5
Embossed	1
Embossed Blue Edge	1
Embossed Blue Shell Edge	20
Geometric and Floral Design	1
Green Glaze	8
Green Transfer Print	1
Green Transfer Print Floral	2
Green Floral/ Enameled/Shell Edge	1
Painted	9
Pink and Green Transfer Print Floral	1
Pink Transfer Print	1
Red and Green Transfer Print Floral	1
Reddish Brown Transfer Print Floral	1
Red Transfer Print Floral	2
Red Transfer Print Floral/Shell Edge	7

Table 8 (continued).

Decoration	Frequency
Yellow Glaze	10
Total	96

Table 9

Exterior Decorations on Whiteware from The Oaks

Decoration	Frequency
Black Glaze	2
Black Transfer Print	2
Blue and Green Transfer Print Floral	1
Blue Glazed	1
Brown Glaze	2
Brown Glaze/Floral/Light Brown	1
Brown Glaze/Floral/Geometric designs/Light brown	1
Brown Glaze/Geometric Designs/Light Brown	1
Brown Transfer Print	1
Dipped	5
Embossed Flower	1
Gold Gilt	2

Table 9 (continued).

Decoration	Frequency
Light and Dark Green Glaze	1
Painted	5
Painted Face Picture	2
Red Band	1
Red Strips	1
Red Transfer Print	1
Yellow Glaze	9
Total	42

Ironstone and Semi-Vitreous Wares

Ironstones and semi-vitreous wares were common in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Fired at higher temperatures than earthenwares, these are non-porous. Majewski and O'Brien (1987, p. 120) suggest that ironstone originated in the early nineteenth century with the production of "Stone China" introduced by Josiah Spode in 1805. The manufacturing methods improved around 1840 to produce what has been termed "ironstone" or "white granite" (Majewski & O'Brien, 1987, p. 121). Early ironstones and whitewares manufactured between the 1840s and 1890s often contained molded panels, scalloped rims, and relief decorations (Miller, 1991). Thick varieties of ironstone referred to as *hotel ware* were popular between 1875 and 1950 (Miller 1991, p.

7). Ironstones may be plain or embossed, but were often decorated like whitewares. A total of 39 sherds of ironstone were identified (Table 10).

Table 10

Ironstone vessel forms from The Oaks

Vessel Form	Frequency	Percent
Plate/Flat	12	15.4
Hollow	21	26.9
Cup	4	5.1
Saucer	1	1.3
Bowl	1	1.3
Jar/Jug	0	0
Unidentified	39	50
Total	78	100

Most of the ironstone sherds (n=57) were undecorated, though many were molded in a panel or Gothic patterns. No transfer-printed ironstone was recovered. The decorations consisted of glaze, painting, and gilt. Table 11 presents the interior decorations while Table 12 shows the exterior decorations on ironstones recovered from The Oaks.

Table 11

Interior Decorations on Ironstone from The Oaks

Decoration	Frequency
Blue Painted	1
Dark Brown Slip	1
Embossed/Shell Edge	1
Gold Gilt	1
Polychrome (green/red)	1
Total	5

Table 12

Exterior Decorations on Ironstone from The Oaks

Decoration	Frequency
Blue Paint on Rim	3
Blue Painted Design	1
Dark Brown Slip	1
Embossed	5
Gilt on Handle	1
Green Glaze	1
Green Leaf, Black Stem, Red Flower	2

Table 12 (continued).

Decoration	Frequency
Maroon Stripes	1
Molded Leaf Pattern	1
Total	16

Porcelains

Porcelain became an important export from China in the fourteenth century and was used in England and America until the late eighteenth century, when English potters were able to produce similar wares (Pietak, Holland, & Benyshek, 199, p. 34). Bone china, a variety of porcelain, was made in England beginning in the 1790s, and hard paste porcelains were available from England in the nineteenth century (Pietak et al., 1999, p. 34). American potters began producing porcelains and competing with the British potters in the late nineteenth century (Majewski & O'Brien, 1987, pp. 125-127; Pietak et al., 1999). A total of 305 sherds of porcelain was recovered from The Oaks (Table 13). Most identified forms were either flatware/plates or tea cups.

Table 13

Porcelain vessel forms recovered from The Oaks

Vessel Form	Frequency	Percent
Plate/Flat	70	23
Hollow	21	6.9
Cup	17	5.6
Saucer	4	1.3
Bowl	5	1.6
Jar/Jug	0	0
Unidentified	188	61.6
Total	305	100

Porcelains were manufactured with underglaze enamel decoration (blue and sometimes polychrome) and overglaze enamel, gilt, and decals. Most of the porcelain recovered from The Oaks exhibited no decorations (n=205) (Table 14 and 15). The most popular form of decoration on porcelain was a form of gilt, either on the interior or the exterior of the vessel. Although not always identifiable, the most common type was a gilt band. As with the whiteware many floral patterns can be seen on the porcelain sherds.

Table 14

Interior Decorations on Porcelain from The Oaks

Decoration	Frequency
Blue and Red Transfer Print Floral/Shell Edge	1
Blue Transfer Print	1
Blue, Green, and Cream Transfer Print Floral	1
Blue, Green and Red Transfer Print	1
Brown Transfer Print Floral	1
Embossed	3
Embossed Blue Glaze	1
Embossed/Shell Edge	1
Floral Underglaze	1
Gilt Band	6
Gold Gilt	11
Green Transfer Print	4
Green Transfer Print Floral	4
Pink and Brown Transfer Print	1
Pink and Green Transfer Print Floral/Gilt	7
Pink and Green Transfer Print Floral	5
Pink and Green Transfer Print Floral/Embossed	2
Pink Transfer Print Floral	1

Table 14 (continued).

Decoration	Frequency
Pink, Green, and Brown enamel Floral	3
Red And Green Transfer Print Floral	4
Red And Green Transfer Print Floral/Gilt	5
Red And Green Transfer Print Floral/Embossed	1
Red Enamel	1
Blue Glaze	3
Yellow and Red Transfer Print Floral	1
Total	70

Table 15

Exterior Decorations on Porcelain from The Oaks

Decoration	Frequency
Blue Underglaze	1
Embossed	6
Pink and Green Transfer Print Floral/Embossed	1
Etched Lines	2
Gilt	8
Gilt Band	2

Table 15 (continued).

Decoration	Frequency
Pink and Green Transfer Print Floral	1
Pink and Green Transfer Print Floral/Gilt	1
Pink, Brown, and Green Enamel Floral	2
Pink Floral with Yellow Band	1
Pink, Green, and Red Transfer Print Floral/Embossed	1
Red and Green Transfer Print Floral	1
Red Enamel	1
Scalloped Flower Embossed	1
Total	30

Stoneware from The Oaks

Utilitarian stonewares are found in a variety of shapes with a variety of glazes. Alkaline glazed stoneware is a Southern invention and appears circa 1815 and disappears circa 1900 (Greer, 1981, p. 264). Stoneware that is salt-glazed on the exterior but unglazed in the interior generally dates between 1830 and 1860 (Carnes, 1977; Greer, 1981). Salt-glazing on the interior and exterior was common from the mid-nineteenth century until around 1875 (Lebo, 1987, p. 130). Albany slip (often a chocolate brown natural slip) appears circa 1840 and continued in popularity into the twentieth century. Bristol glaze dates after 1880 and continues into the twentieth century (Greer, 1981).

Table 16

Stoneware recovered from The Oaks

Vessel Form	Frequency	Percent
Plate/Flat	0	0
Hollow	31	44.9
Cup	0	0
Saucer	0	0
Bowl	13	18.8
Jar/Jug	1	1.5
Unidentified	24	34.8
Total	69	100

A total of 69 sherds of utilitarian stoneware was recovered from The Oaks (Table 16). Most (n=26) are salt glazed, with 24 exhibiting interior slip glazing or salt glazing. Six sherds were yellow glazed, presumably from mixing bowls or pitchers (Table 17 and 18).

Table 17

Interior Decoration of Stoneware

Decoration	Frequency
Albany Slip	5

Table 17 (continued).

Decoration	Frequency
English Brown Salt Glaze	10
Glazed	1
Green Glaze	1
White Glaze	1
Yellow Glaze	6
Total	24

Table 18

Exterior Decoration of Stoneware

Decoration	Frequency
Albany Slip	3
English Brown Salt Glaze	17
Gray Salt Glaze	1
Salt Glaze	25
Salt Glaze with Cobalt	3
White Glaze	1
Yellow Glaze	5
Total	55

Container Glass Analysis

Container glass comes in a variety of forms, but most commonly bottles and jars. Container glass has been used to address a variety of issues including social status and consumer choice, but is also useful in dating mid-nineteenth through early twentieth century sites.

Identifying maker's marks and techniques of manufacture on glass bottles is especially useful for dating archaeological deposits, since changes in manufacturing technology are well documented (Lorrain, 1968; McKearin & McKearin, 1950; McKearin & Wilson, 1978). By the last quarter of the nineteenth century, many bottles carried maker's marks that can be used to generate dates much like ceramic maker's marks (Toulouse 1970).

At the beginning of the nineteenth century, the most common methods of bottle manufacture were free-blown and dip-molded. Free-blown bottles required a blowpipe to expand the glass to the desired shape and a pontil rod that was attached to the base of the bottle to finish the neck. Free-blown bottles are somewhat asymmetrical and seamless, but show a pontil mark on the base. Free-blown bottles were not commonly produced after 1860 (Kendrick, 1971, p. 25).

Dip mold bottles were blown into a mold and the neck finished by hand. These bottles often display a seam around the bottle near the shoulder. Hand finishing required a pontil like free-blown bottles. Dip-mold bottles were most commonly produced from 1790 to well into the nineteenth century (Lorrain, 1968).

Three piece molds were also common, and include dip mold forms with a hinged top that finished the neck. Lorrain (1968) suggests that this type of mold appeared circa 1810 and disappeared circa 1840, but Toulouse (1969) suggests that three-piece molds were common between 1870 and 1910.

Bottom molds, a type of hinged mold, were also common in the nineteenth century. Cup mold bottles are characterized by the entire bottom formed by a mold plate shaped as a slight depression or cup. Cup-bottom mold bottles have a horizontal seam just above the heel, but no seams on or at the bottom of the bottle. Post-bottom molds have a raised central platform (the post) which forms a ring seam on the bottom of the bottle and appear slightly later than the cup mold. Cup molds were common on machine made bottles dating after 1880 (Munsey, 1970, p. 2409).

Free-blown, dip-mold, three-piece molds, cup molds, and post-bottom molds all required the lip to be finished by hand. This was done with a pontil rod prior to 1857, or a snap case after 1857. The earliest type of pontil was a rod or blowpipe that was attached to the bottom of the bottle with a small piece of molten glass. When the pontil was removed, it left a rough scar and is common on bottles manufactured before 1850 to 1860 (Kendrick, 1971, p. 26). An improved pontil came into use in the 1840s through 1860s, which was coated with lead or iron oxide, and left a smooth circular depression and a residue of the oxide on the base of the bottle.

The snap case was developed in 1857 and replaced the pontil rod for holding the bottle as the lip was finished. No marks are left with the use of the

snap case, so that a complete bottle with a hand finished neck is the only way to identify the use. It should be noted that the pontil rod continued to be used after the introduction of the snap case.

In the 1880s, a semi-automatic bottle making machine was introduced (Kendrick, 1971), but the first commercial automatic bottle machine was developed in 1903 by Michael Owens. The automatic or semi-automatic machines did not immediately replace all mold-made bottles until circa 1920.

Neck and lip finishes represented in archaeological assemblages can be used to derive approximate dates. The earliest form of lip finish involved applying a string of molten glass around the lip. These are often referred to as string lips, applied lips, or laid-on lips (Munsey, 1970, p. 32). This type generally disappeared around 1840 (Kendrick, 1971, p. 44).

Lipping tools were used in England in the 1820s and developed in the United States in the 1850s. Kendrick (1971, p. 43) suggests that this technique was most common between 1860 and 1880, but continued into the twentieth century. Tooled lips are characterized by the lack of mold seams across the lip. Machine made lips, however, have seams that run the entire length and date after 1900 (Kendrick 1971, p. 43).

A total of 2,998 sherds of container glass, primarily bottles, was recovered from unit excavations at The Oaks (Table 19). The majority of the container glass is clear, colorless glass (n=2143) (Table 20). Curiously, relatively few olive glass sherds (n=119), typically associated with containing alcoholic beverages or medicines with high concentrations of alcohol, were recovered at The Oaks.

Apparently alcohol was not often consumed there. Unfortunately, most of the bottle and other container glass was too fragmented and/or burned to ascertain the function of the container or the method of manufacture (free-blown, mold-blown, three-piece mold, cup mold, post-bottom mold, machine made).

Table 19

Container Glass Vessels from The Oaks

Form	Frequency
Bottle	316
Holloware	121
Jar	8
Lamp Chimney	39
Panel Bottle	10
Pitcher	1
Stemware	1
Tableware	4
Unidentified	2498
Total	2998

Table 20

Container Glass Color Frequencies from The Oaks

Color	Frequency
Amber	105
Amethyst	33
Aqua	365
Black	1
Burned	48
Colorless	2143
Cobalt	7
Decayed	34
Green	20
Light Aqua	60
Milk	56
Olive	119
Pink	7
Total	2998

The container glass was unevenly distributed among the excavation units at The Oaks. Tables 21 and 22 break down the frequencies of container glass of different color by unit. Clearly Unit 19 (n=1125) contained the heaviest concentration of container glass, followed closely by Unit 8 (n=557). Unit 19 was

excavated during the 2006 season and located in the rear of the backyard along the fence. Given its location north of the detached kitchen along with its close proximity, its artifacts should be considered part of the kitchen's assemblage. This would correspond with previous works at The Oaks (Young, 2004) where the two highest concentrations were parts of the detached kitchen proper.

Table 21

Container Glass Color Frequencies by Provenience (1-11) at The Oaks

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Amber	2	3	2	8	0	4	7	22	3	0	0
Amethyst	0	0	1	3	0	0	1	6	1	0	0
Aqua	4	0	5	28	4	0	7	77	4	0	0
Black	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Colorless	18	37	46	220	31	9	67	557	12	3	0
Cobalt	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
Green	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Lt. Aqua	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Milk	1	0	2	0	0	0	2	10	0	0	0
Olive	2	2	0	39	0	1	4	31	0	1	0
Pink	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0
Total	27	42	56	298	35	14	91	705	20	4	0

Table 22

Container Glass Color Frequencies by Provenience (12-21) at The Oaks

	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
Amber	1	16	2	2	6	0	1	16	5	5
Amethyst	0	1	2	0	2	0	1	15	0	0
Aqua	1	8	1	16	10	0	8	183	5	4
Black	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Colorless	47	92	38	14	32	1	24	837	46	12
Cobalt	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Green	3	3	1	0	3	0	3	6	1	0
Lt. Aqua	4	15	3	2	4	0	1	28	3	0
Milk	2	11	4	0	1	0	1	22	0	0
Olive	9	5	0	1	3	0	1	18	1	1
Pink	0	1	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
Total	67	158	51	37	62	2	40	1125	61	22

Container glass color reflects, to some degree, technological change in manufacturing through time. Colorless glass tended to be more common in the late 19th and 20th centuries. Amethyst glass is typically dated between about 1880 and 1920. Amber glass also grew in popularity over time. A look at how different colored container glass is distributed in the different levels at The Oaks clearly shows this (Table 23). Colorless, amethyst, and amber glass are most

common in the earlier levels (with the exception of Level 7, n= 532) with mixed concentrations represented in the mid levels. Conversely, olive and aqua glass are quite common in lower (older) levels. All major concentrations disappear after Level 9 across the entire site.

Table 23

Frequencies of Colored Container Glass by Level at The Oaks

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Amber	17	17	21	17	9	8	10	5	1	0	0	0
Amethyst	3	10	3	1	12	2	2	0	0	0	0	0
Aqua	18	32	61	36	80	16	96	15	8	1	0	0
Black	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Colorless	223	334	305	162	299	195	532	68	10	0	0	0
Cobalt	0	0	1	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Green	2	0	7	2	1	4	2	1	1	0	0	0
Lt. Aqua	2	1	11	7	6	31	0	2	0	0	0	0
Milk	8	4	9	11	11	4	8	1	0	0	0	0
Olive	2	6	23	15	24	19	10	6	0	0	0	1
Pink	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Total	54	40	205	114	376	205	574	42	12	1	0	1

Window Glass Analysis

Window glass is used to address issues of socioeconomic status, but is also useful in assigning dates to archaeological deposits (Roenke, 1978; Young, 1995). Studies suggest that window glass increased in thickness throughout the 19th century.

Roenke (1978) was one of the first to develop a method to determine the age of flat glass. Orser (1983) suggests mean dates and thicknesses for the southeastern United States (Table 24).

Table 24

Window Glass Thickness and Associated Mean Dates (after Orser 1983)

Thickness (mm)	Mean Dates
< .649	--
.650-.849	1819.61
.850-1.049	1830.49
1.050-1.249	1840.44
1.250-1.449	1850.45
1.450-1.649	1860.50
1.650-1.849	1870.61
1.850-2.049	1880.78
2.050-2.249	1891.00

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1.450-1.649	1860.50
1.650-1.849	1870.61
1.850-2.049	1880.78
2.050-2.249	1891.00

Orser's (1983) method does not seem to work as well on assemblages after 1870. This is likely due to the fact that during the late nineteenth and the early twentieth centuries manufacturers developed machines for blowing glass cylinders that were thicker and had greater strength. This would mean that late 19th and 20th century glass would be consistently thick regardless of the date. This hypothesis, however, needs additional testing.

A total of 944 sherds of window glass was recovered from unit excavations at The Oaks (Table 25). Around 77.2% of the shards fit within Orser's range and the highest frequencies occur in categories measuring between 1.250 and 2.249 mm, which date between 1850 and 1891.

Table 25

Window Glass Frequency in Thickness, Categories, Associated Dates

Thickness (mm)	Thickness category	Mean Dates	Frequency
< .649	1	--	0
.650-.849	2	1819.61	0
.850-1.049	3	1830.49	6
1.059-1.249	4	1840.44	42
1.250-1.449	5	1850.45	148
1.450-1.649	6	1860.50	168
1.650-1.849	7	1870.61	121
1.850-2.049	8	1880.78	130

Table 25 (continued).

Thickness (mm)	Thickness category	Mean Dates	Frequency
2.050-2.249	9	1891.00	144
2.3-2.4	10		94
2.5-2.6	11		56
2.7-2.8	12		12
2.9-3.0+	13		23
TOTAL			944

These data can be presented graphically to better demonstrate the possible times when windows were added or replaced at The Oaks (Figure 24). Clearly, the first peak at Categories 5 and 6 coincided with the 1850's and 1860's, when The Oaks kitchen was likely being built and completed. This can also be seen in Figure 25 where the frequencies are separated by date. The next highest frequency of window glass appeared in Categories 8 and 9 which corresponds with 1880-1891. It should be noted that according to Young and Ponder (2002), Orser's method does not work on all post-1870 assemblages, likely due to the introduction of machines for blowing glass cylinders during the later nineteenth and early twentieth century. Thus glass produced after these times would be thicker regardless of production date.

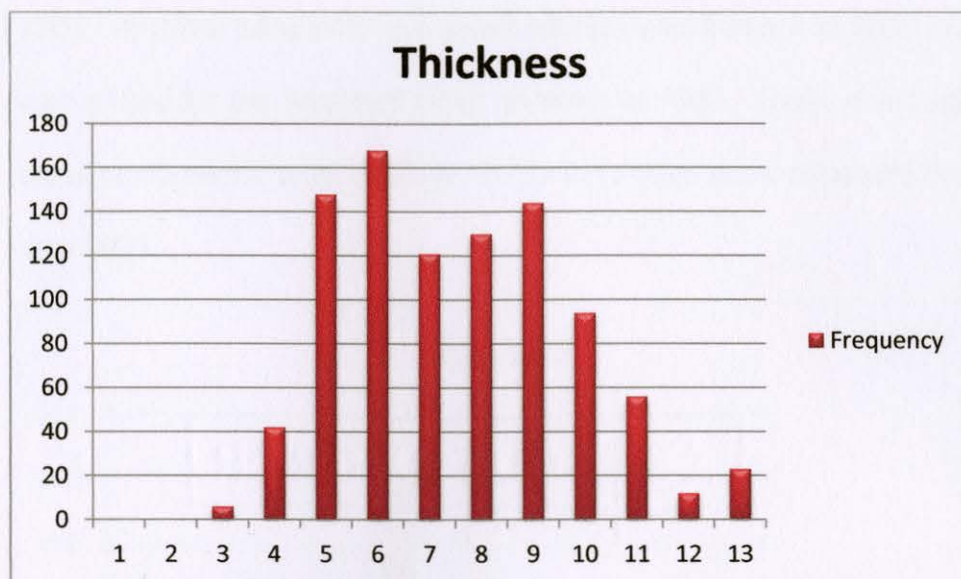


Figure 24. Window Glass Frequencies in Thickness Categories at The Oaks.

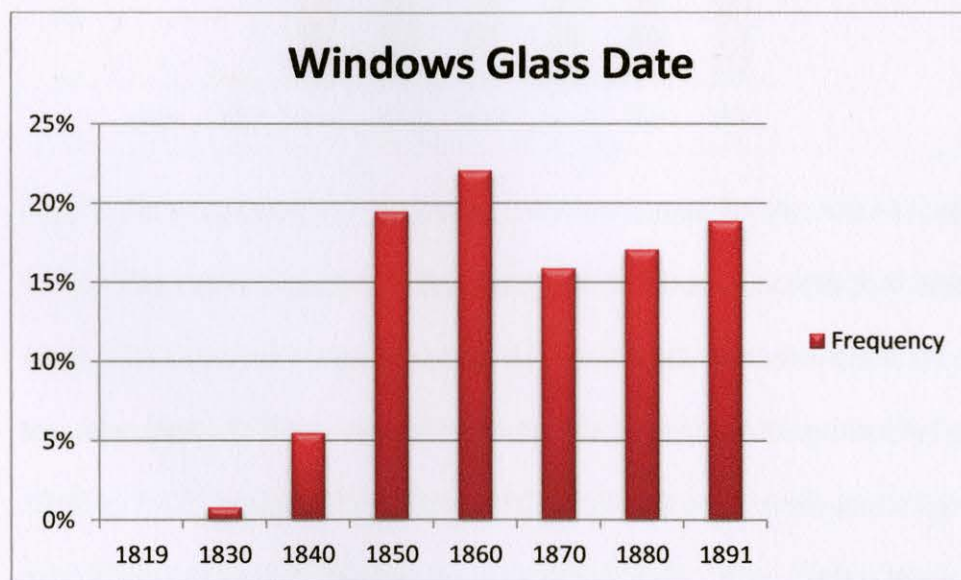


Figure 25. Window Glass Frequencies by Date at The Oaks.

The window glass frequencies can also be represented for each of the corresponding buildings to gain a better idea of when these buildings were being constructed, as well as times of repair. According to these data (Figure 26), the kitchen was probably begun around the mid to late 1850s and continued into

1860. Another possibility is a small kitchen was laid out in 1850 and the addition was added for the attached living quarters in 1860. There also appears to have been some repair work done in 1870s with other work conducted between 1880 and 1891.

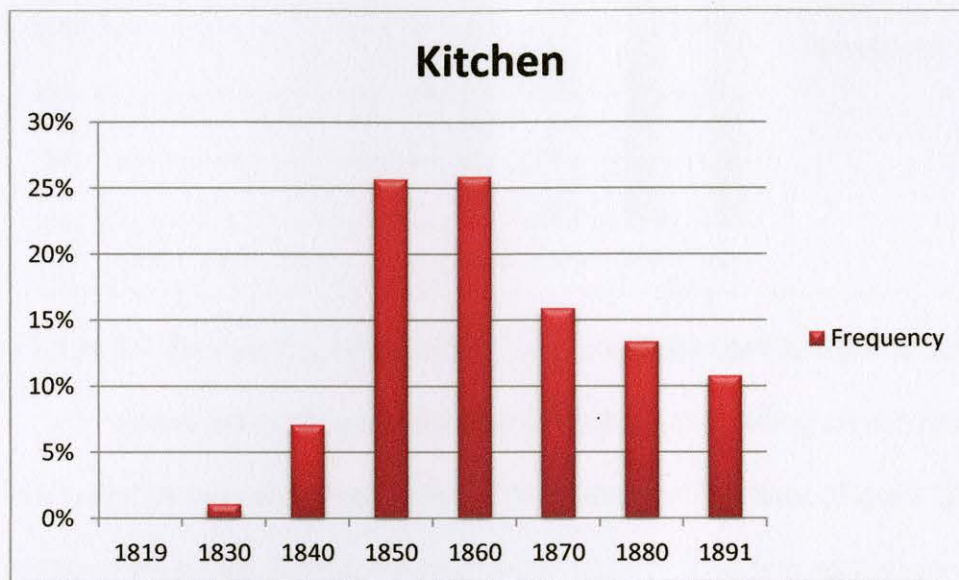


Figure 26. Frequency of Dateable Window Glass for the Kitchen at the Oaks.

The barn (Figure 27) has two high frequency points that date from 1880 to 1891. This probably corresponds to some work that was done on the barn during this later period. The original barn on the property was probably built within the 1860 to 1870 period. The high 1880 to 1891 frequencies could also represent a rebuilding of the barn during those later periods. Also during the excavations it was noted that the barn area was heavily disturbed in some areas, probably due to dumping around the time the barn was abandoned, which could explain the higher glass levels for 1880 to 1891.

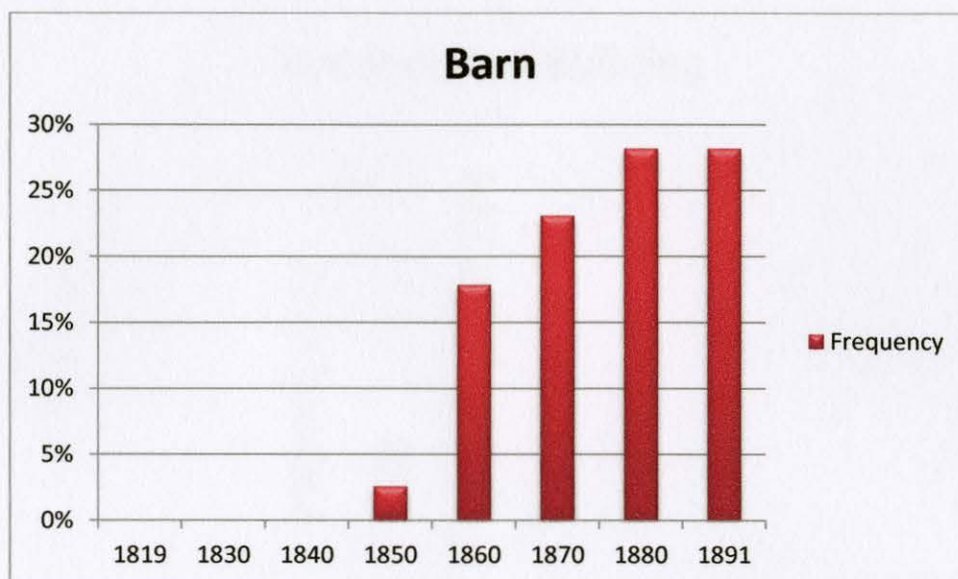


Figure 27. Frequency of Dateable Window Glass for the Barn at the Oaks.

When attempting to date the Unidentified Building an interesting set of frequencies revealed themselves. According to the data (Figure 28) there were three main peaks during the building's history. The first appears in 1840 (which marks the highest 1840 percentage across the entire site) with the second in 1860 and the third in 1891. The 1840 date could be due to the relatively small sampling size for this particular building; however, it is interesting that it would have such a high percentage of glass that predates every other building. The highest peak in 1860 is more of what would be expected given the building date of the kitchen and probable building date for the barn. The 1891 date probably represents repair or reconstruction of the building.

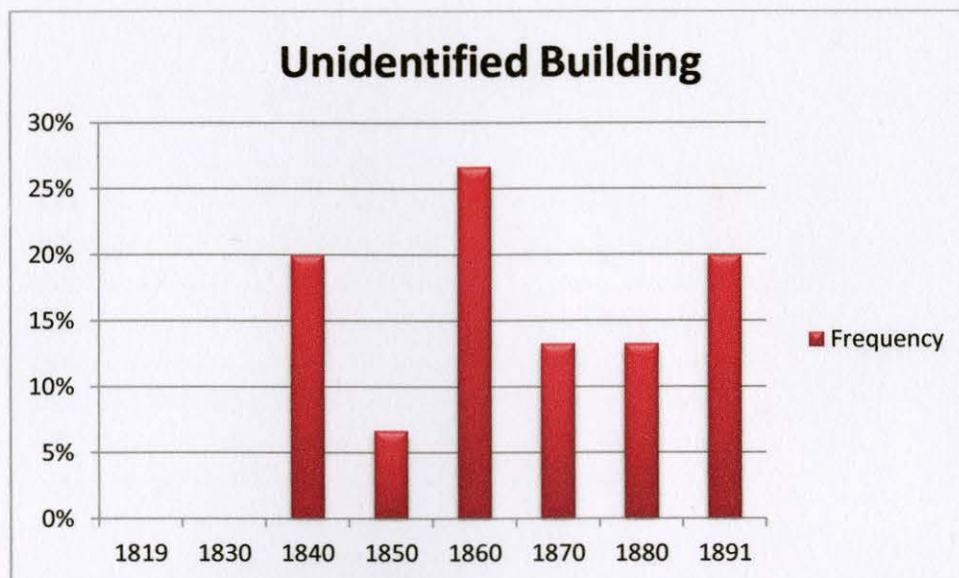


Figure 28. Frequency of Dateable Window Glass for the Unidentifiable Building at the Oaks.

The possible privy gave surprising results when the highest frequency (50%) dated within the 1891 period (Figure 29). While this could be due to later dumping, it could also represent the construction of the last building which set upon the area. Given the brick slab on the area, this date lends more evidence to the building not being a privy but probably that of some type of cold frame storage used for winter crops and vegetables!. The oldest glass represented in the area is probably due to disturbance since no historic site is ever static; however, the 1880 percentage could show evidence for an earlier building or for the original building's windows being added or replaced later.

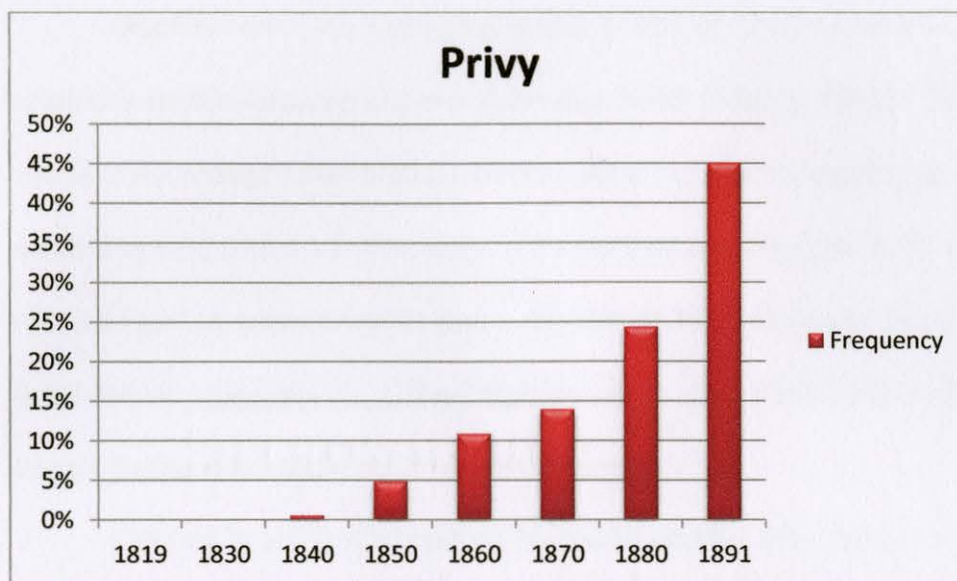


Figure 29. Frequency of Dateable Window Glass for the Privy at the Oaks.

Nails Analysis

Nails are very common at 19th and 20th century sites (Young 1991). The presence of nails may be the only clear indicator of the presence of a structure since many wooden buildings (both log and frame types) rested on piers that were often moved when the structure was razed. Nails have been manufactured in three basic forms: wrought, machine cut, and wire.

Wrought nail technology changed little from Roman times until the 19th century. Wrought nails found in the United States were made by a blacksmith or nailer from a square iron rod. After heating, the points were made by flattening the end of the rod to produce a "bill" or chisel, or hammered on all four sides. The rod was then reheated, cut, and placed into a nail header. Head types include rose-head, L-head, and T-head. Wrought nails continued to be used until approximately 1830, when cut nail technology improved sufficiently to allow for clinching without breaking (Loveday, 1983; Young, 1991, 1994).

Machine cut nails appeared in the 1780s or 1790s, and are also characterized by square shanks (Loveday 1983; Young, 1991). These nails were made from wrought iron plates. Slivers were cut from the plate, but struck at an angle to point and cut in one step. The earliest machine cut nails were headed by hand just as wrought nails were. By the 1830s nails were produced with machine stamped heads. Other improvements meant that these nails were no longer brittle and would not break if clinched.

Wire nails are characterized by round shanks and regular round stamped heads. They appeared in building construction around 1890 (Loveday, 1983; Young, 1991). Because wire nails were so inexpensive, they quickly replaced cut nails.

Nails are often modified during use. Some are clinched in 90 degree angles (or greater) to increase holding power. Some are bent during the razing of a structure (pulled). Some, however, are left unaltered. Young (1994) developed a method to examine relative frequencies of unaltered, pulled, and clinched nails to distinguish assemblages representing the remains of a structure, from assemblages representing the discarding of nails in lumber (dumping). Dumpsites are characterized by relatively high frequencies of clinched nails and very high frequencies of pulled nails. Structure site assemblages have relatively equal frequencies of unaltered and pulled, but low frequencies of clinched nails (Young, 1994).

A total of 5,778 nails and nail fragments, and five spikes were recovered from The Oaks (Table 26). The majority of nails were so corroded that they were

unidentifiable (n=3,382). The second highest frequency of nails recovered were cut (n=1,899), while wire were one-fourth that number (n=473). There were also eight spikes along with 15 screws and one bolt recovered.

Table 26

Nails Recovered from The Oaks

Nail type	Freq	Relative Frequency
Cut	1899	32.9
Unidentified	3382	58.5
Wire	473	8.2
Spike	8	0.1
Bolt	1	0
Screw	15	0.3
TOTAL	5778	100

According to Young (1994) and Tate (2005) it is possible to determine the type of building that nails represent. This is accomplished by separating nails into pennyweights when possible, and then corresponding those pennyweights to certain types of constructions. The pennyweights (nail length) are attached to certain functional categories such as roofing, siding and light frame, flooring, and heavy framing. The following list from Tate (2005) represents the common sizes and likely functions of nails by pennyweight:

- 2d attachment of wooden shakes, metal roofing, flashing and lath in plaster walls.
- 3d same as above.
- 4d same use as above and also moulding and interior finishes.
- 5d moulding, finish work and ornamentation.
- 6d light framing, clapboard siding and bevel siding.
- 7d same as above and also flooring.
- 8d flooring, furring strips, interior fittings.
- 9d boarding, flooring and interior fittings.
- 10d same as above.
- 12d wooden studding and framing.
- 16d wooden studding, heavy framing and rafters.
- 20d+ heavy framing

The different outbuildings on The Oaks property had their respective nails separated into these categories in an attempt to gain more understanding into the nature of the buildings construction and thus hopefully their function. The nails were separated into four categories for this study: Category 1 (roofing), Category 2 (light frame and siding), Category 3 (flooring), and Category 4 (heavy frame).

When examining the detached kitchen (which had the largest amount of nails overall) the largest frequency was in relation to flooring nails (n=323), while the second highest frequency was in relation to flooring nails (n=144) (Figure 30). According to these data and given information shown by Young (1991) and Tate

(2005), these correlations would place the detached kitchen within the category of a log building instead of a timber framed one. While this is the first time for these data to be correlated with an urban farmstead, the correlations are a match to analysis done on buildings at Saragossa and Mount Locust (Tate, 2005). This would also match photographic evidence from locations such as Beauvoir where a log dogtrot style kitchen was located behind the main house.

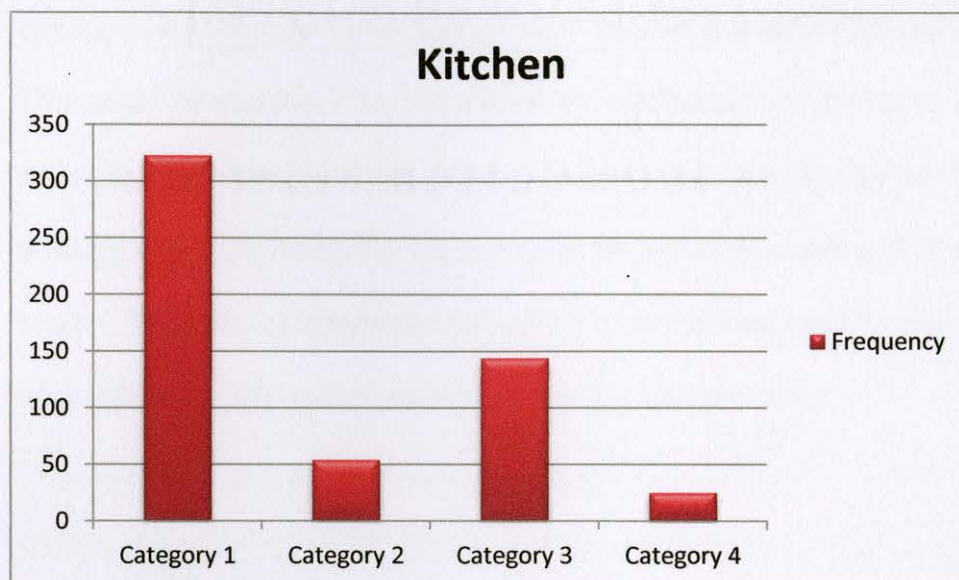


Figure 30. Frequency of Nails for the Kitchen Based on Function Category.

Sampling sizes were relatively small for the other outbuildings in comparison with the kitchen (Figure 31). The barn yields equal numbers of Category 1 and 3 and then a slightly higher Category 4 in comparison to Category 2. Surprisingly there was a rather high amount of Category 3 in the barn which would suggest flooring. This could probably be explained by the addition of a hayloft above the barn or a floored work area beside the barn proper.

When looking at the possible privy a much higher percentage of category 1 just like in the kitchen model. The privy model actually rather closely matches the kitchen model with the exception of Category 4 being much higher. This could indicate that the possible privy building was also a log type building built around the same time as the kitchen; however it appears to have employed much heavier framing than the kitchen. The unidentified building yielded equal amounts of Category 1 and 3 and then equal amounts for Categories 2 and 4. This could be explained by the extremely low frequency (n=12) of identifiable nails located in this buildings units. However, it could also explain that this building was built along the same model as that of the barn just in a reduced scale. The building definitely had a floor of some kind which means it must have been either for storage or possibly a floored chicken coop.

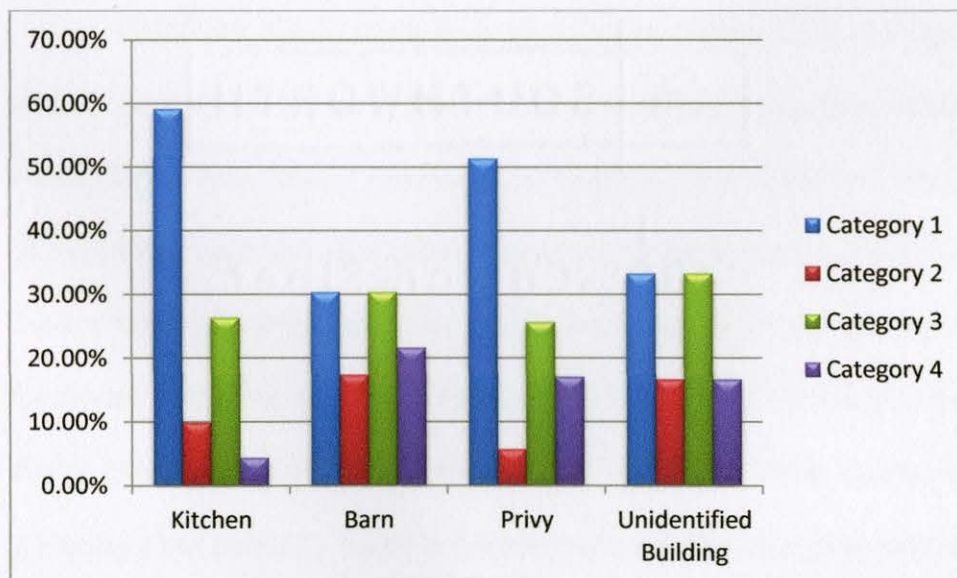


Figure 31. Frequency of Nails in Percentage Based on Function Category.

O'Malley (1987) conducted work in Jefferson County, Kentucky, on middle class farmers on the urban periphery. The study was conducted at the

Johnson/Bates farmstead site and included work done on both a barn and a privy. Given that both these sites represent structures around the same time period of construction and occupation at the oaks (Johnson/Bates site dates from 1842 to 1935) a comparison was done to determine if any similarities in nail data could be seen between these two buildings from both The Oaks and the Johnson/Bates site. The privy comparison for nail pennyweight categories can be seen in figure 32. The Johnson/Bates site has many more identified nails than does The Oaks. This allows for the Johnson/Bates site to have more weight in the four categories than The Oaks. The privy building at The Oaks has a high amount of Category 1 which has only a 0.2% representation at the Johnson/Bates site (O'Malley, 1987). This could definitely lend more weight to the suggestion that this building is not a privy.

The Oaks also outweighed the Johnson/Bates site in Category 4 nails which can also add more evidence for the building being of another function. According to the Johnson/Bates data, Category 3 should have held the majority of the percentage (48.9%) with Category 2 showing half that (O'Malley, 1987). This is not represented at all at The Oaks; however, if one were to remove Category 1, the two would be more highly matched. This could possibly mean that a privy might have once stood on the spot. The brick slab on the area is still a mystery but possibly could have been added after the privy was abandoned and then built over. Since Category 1 is representative of roofing it could also mean that the privy at the Johnson/Bates site had a different type of roofing that did not use as many nails as at The Oaks.

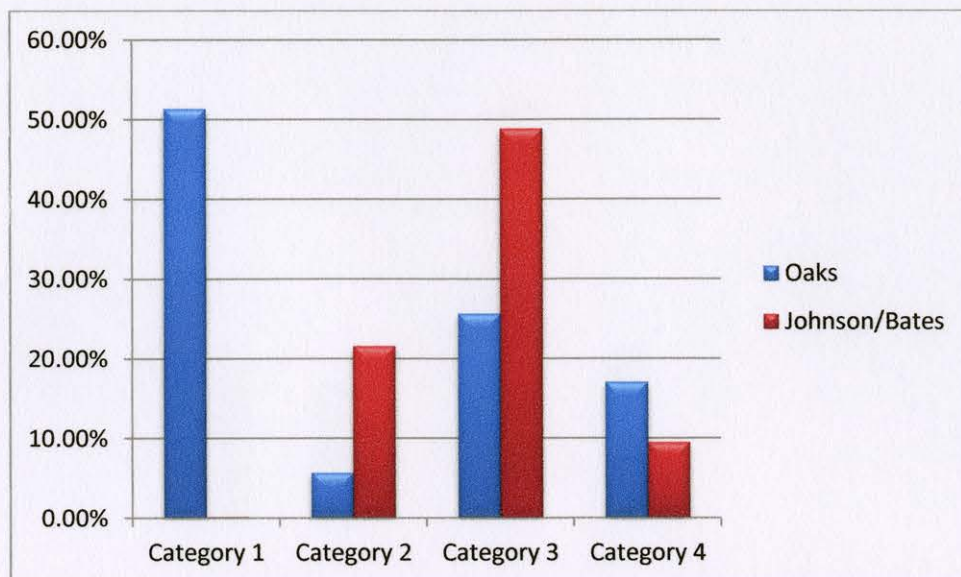


Figure 3.: Category Comparison for the Privy between The Oaks and Johnson/Bates Farmstead.

The barn comparison is represented in figure 33, and with the exception of higher identified nails skewing the percentage, it is a relatively close match between The Oaks and the Johnson/Bates site. Category 3 (flooring) is the highest representative at the Johnson/Bates site with Category 1 coming in second. The Oaks has both of these categories tied leaving the ability to conclude that this is a good comparison model. The only difference between these models is that the Johnson/Bates site has Category 2 higher than 3, while at The Oaks that model is reversed. However once again this can be explained given the high degree of difference between identifiable nails at both the sites. The Johnson/Bates site has only 49 unidentified nails with the barn while the Oaks has 795 unidentified nails. Soil in Mississippi is known to be highly acidic which is terrible for nail preservation, thus leading to more unidentifiable nails than out of state sites.

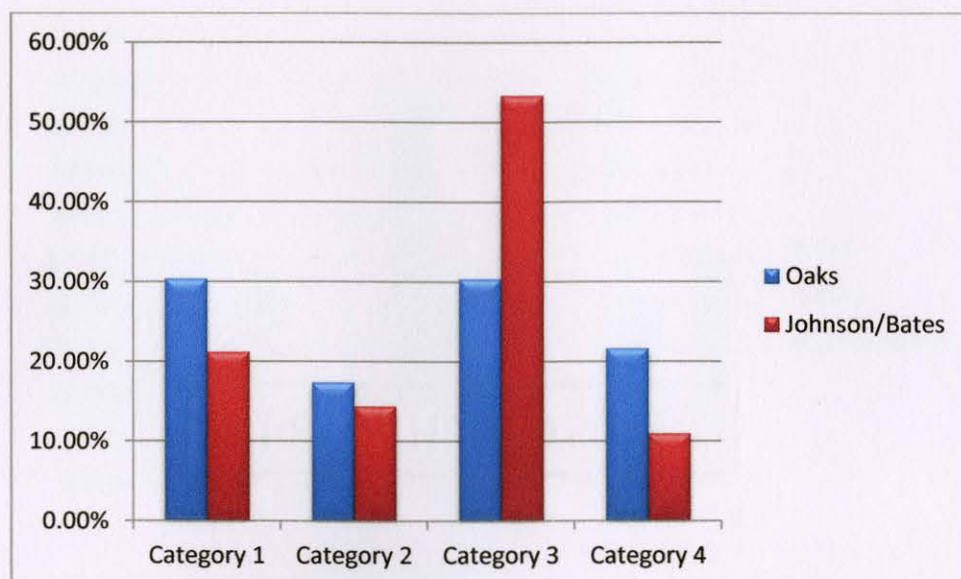


Figure 33. Category Comparison for the Barn between The Oaks and Johnson/Bates Farmstead.

Given the low number of wire nails identified at any of the buildings, it is possible to say that these buildings definitely predate 1890 (Figure 34). Also the fact that wire nails are represented in both the kitchen and the unidentified building gives evidence that these buildings (or at least one on the site) were still standing during the early 1890s. The barn and the possible privy contained a large amount of unidentified nails; however the ones identified were of the cut variety. Thus this analysis of nail dating gives some added weight to the dates already partly established with the window glass thickness analysis.

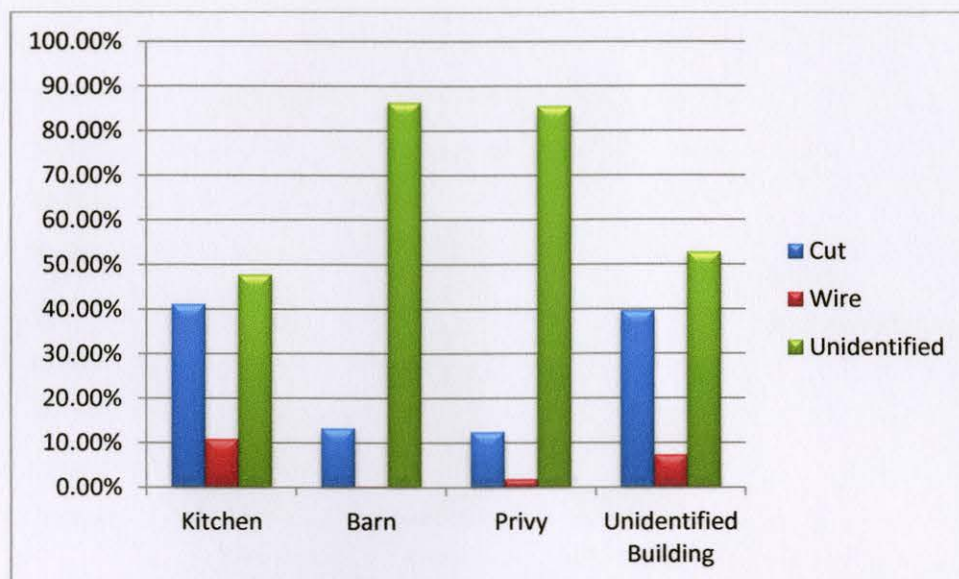


Figure 34. Nail Distribution by Type for Various Buildings at The Oaks.

Wire nails are more heavily represented at the Johnson/Bates site than at The Oaks. While this can possibly be explained by the same acidic soil reasoning as mentioned above, there is also the possibility that it represents more repair and reconstruction work at the Johnson/Bates site than was conducted at The Oaks. The cut nail frequency for the barn (Figure 36) is an exact match between both sites which indicates that each building represents a good beginning construction date predating 1890. Repair or reconstruction work at the Johnson/Bates (O'Malley, 1987) site is also heavily represented given the large frequency of wire nails (post 1890) located at both the barn and the privy.

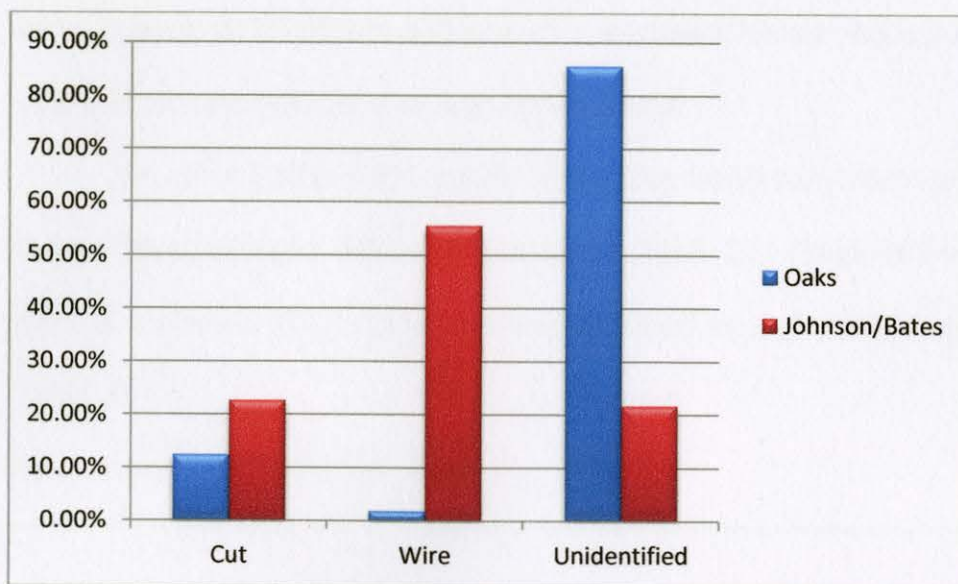


Figure 35. Nail Distribution by Type for the Privies at The Oaks and Johnson/Bates Farmstead.

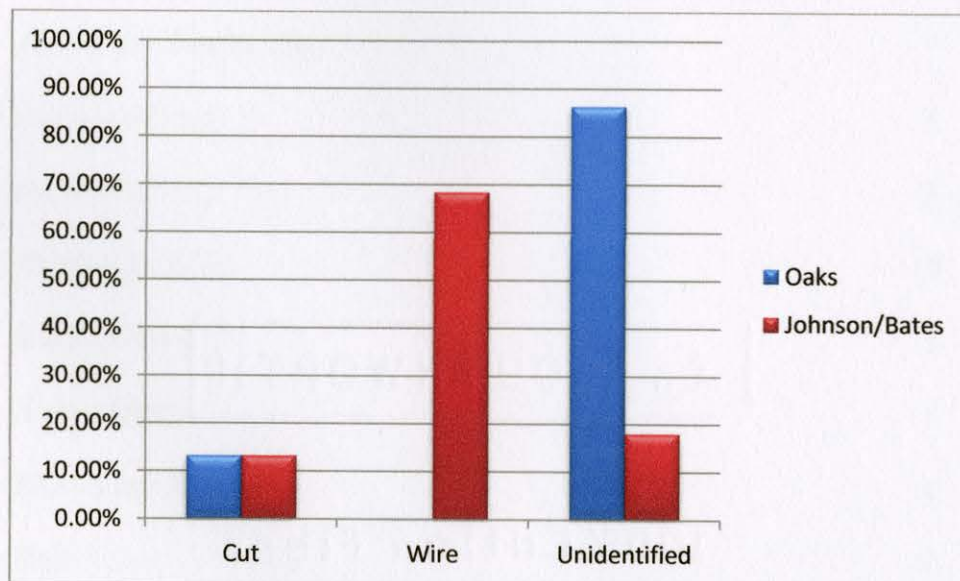


Figure 36. Nail Distribution by Type for the Barns at The Oaks and Johnson/Bates Farmstead.

Metal from The Oaks

The metal analyzed in this study was sorted into unidentified iron, lead, and other metals, and then identified, if possible by form. Ferrous metals were

very common at The Oaks and probably represent kitchen equipment including cast iron stove parts and cast iron cooking pots.

A total of 2,262 metal objects (excluding nails) were recovered from The Oaks. Most are unidentified ferrous metal (Table 27). Much of the unidentified ferrous consisted of rust bits that were scattered throughout the site.

Table 27

Metal Recovered from The Oaks

Metal Object	Frequency
Aluminum	6
Aluminum Bottle Cap	1
Aluminum Foil	1
Aluminum Pop Top	3
Aluminum Strip	4
Barbed Wire	3
Barrel Strap	1
Blue Jean Rivets	4
Bolt	4
Bottle Top	2
Bracket	1
Buckle	2
Candlestick	3

Table 27 (continued).

Metal Object	Frequency
Cast Iron Cook Pot	5
Cast Iron Pot Lid	1
Cast Iron Stove Part	1
Clothes Pin Spring	1
Clothing/Fabric Hook	1
Coin	1
Crown Cap	3
Fence	1
Fence Staple	6
Ferrous Metal	2069
Fishing Hook	1
Fishing Weight	1
Food Grinder	1
Grommet	6
Gun Pellet	1
Hinge	3
Hinge, Shutter	1
Hook	4
Iron Andiron	1

Table 27 (continued).

Metal Object	Frequency
Iron Brass Button	1
Iron Plates	3
Key	2
Key Handle	1
Knife	1
Knife Part	1
Lead Bar	1
Lead Shot	3
Lock, Keyhole Plate	1
Metal	9
Metal Alloy Wire	2
Metal Ball	1
Metal Bracket	1
Metal Flake	1
Metal Ring	3
Metal Strip	1
Metal Stripping	10
Metal Tube	1
Metal Utensil Handle	1

Table 27 (continued).

Metal Objects	Frequency
Metal Washer	2
Metal Wire	5
Screen (Window)	6
Screw	13
Shotgun Shell Base	1
Small Staple	1
Spoon	1
Staple	8
Tacks	2
Unidentified Brass	1
Unidentified Lead	5
Window Latch	1
Wire	29

Other Artifacts

Other artifacts recovered from The Oaks include unidentified plastic, unidentified rubber, unidentified glass, and vinyl. Some of the most interesting artifacts categorized as "other" also fall under Orser's typology of "personal" artifacts. Table 28 presents these personal artifacts, which total 61. Though only a fraction of the entire assemblage, the items paint a picture of the everyday

objects used by all members of the Boyd household, including the children. Two marbles were recovered from deep, undisturbed levels and were probably used by the children of James Hervy and Eliza Boyd. Also of interest is the knife that was found intact though highly rusted, as well as the keys, which, like the marbles, were found at a relatively low depth.

Table 28

Personal Artifacts from The Oaks

Artifact	Frequency	Typology
Bottle Top	1	Other
Buckle	2	Fasteners
Buttons	4	Fasteners
Carved Shell	2	Decorative
Clay Smoking Pipe	2	Recreational
Clothes Pin Spring	1	Other
Clothing/Fabric Hook	1	Manufacture
Coin	1	Monetary
Container Glass	3	Cosmetic
Container Glass	4	Medicinal
Doll Head	1	Recreational
Grommet	6	Fasteners
Iron Brass Button	1	Fasteners

Table 28 (continued).

Artifact	Frequency	Typology
Key	2	Hardware
Knife	1	Preparation
Knife Part	1	Other
Marble	3	Recreational
Mica Disc	1	Decorative
Paper Staple	1	Other
Pistol Ball	1	Procurement
Plastic	7	Other
Ribbon	1	Decorative
Slate Pencil	4	Other
Smoking Pipe Stem	5	Recreational
Spoon	1	Service
Toothbrush Handle	1	Hygiene
Toothbrush Head	1	Hygiene
Vinyl Record	1	Recreational
Window Latch	1	Hardware
Total	61	

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY

The Oaks represents the only surviving urban farmstead in Jackson, Mississippi, as well as one of the few to be archaeologically tested within the country. Little historic archaeology has been conducted within the state capital or in any urban environment in Mississippi. Historic archaeology in the South has normally been confined to areas that are considered "Southern" such as plantation houses and slave cabins. Only recently have people begun to lean more towards attempting to understand the southern landscape through a broader range of environments. While it is true that urban environments were limited in the South predating the Civil War, especially when in comparison to the North, urban archaeology gives great insight into the shifting changes affecting the South during these time periods.

Jackson was planned from the beginning to be the state's new capital by a state General Assembly vote in 1821; thus the new capital was always intended to provide the best for its citizens and to be a jewel for the state of Mississippi. Evidence shows that many luxury goods were available in Jackson by the 1830s including silver, jewelry, clothing, and furniture. Given that these luxury goods were available, it is easy to see how non-luxury goods would also be expanding within the capital. The railroad connected with Jackson in 1827 adding to both its growth as well as the goods and services available. Even with the widespread destruction of the Civil War, Jackson persevered and gained electricity in 1878 and the first phone in 1882, with widespread use in 1907.

James H. Boyd was a businessman of the new prosperous middle class moving into Jackson around 1835. He owned several businesses in the city and served as mayor for a number of times in the mid 1800s.

In 1853, he purchased the property for The Oaks, and the current house was built sometime around this period. Boyd and his descendants lived at the residence for the next 100 years until the property was sold to the National Society of The Colonial Dames of America in the State of Mississippi.

Two field seasons were conducted on The Oaks from 2004-2006, with a total of 21 units excavated. This work was organized by The University of Southern Mississippi Department of Anthropology under the direction of Dr. Amy Young. The goal of these excavations was to attempt to determine the landscape of the rear yard of the property. Stewart-Abernathy describes how the urban farmstead's rear yard was a highly adaptable work area whose main function was to provide goods for the property that was not accessible from the urban environment. These buildings would include a kitchen, privy, barn, servant quarters, and garden, and various animal pens.

This thesis represents the first in-depth analysis of the artifacts recovered from The Oaks since the original excavations during the two field seasons. Given the general lack of published work on urban archaeology, part of the goal of this research was to look at The Oaks as a case study in what artifacts and artifact frequencies represent the various outbuildings in an urban farmsteads landscape. This would allow for other urban archaeology studies to be compared

with The Oaks in order to hopefully find corresponding information that is representative of a southern urban farmstead environment.

The second main goal of this thesis was to use archaeological artifact data from either other urban or non-urban farmsteads to compare buildings at The Oaks and other sites such as Johnson/Bates. The hypothesis is that given that a barn or other type of building was generally constructed in the same way across a varied landscape, the artifact frequency, especially architectural artifacts, should relatively match. Hopefully this would allow some buildings functions to be more positively identified.

Results for this comparison were mixed when looking at the various buildings. The kitchen when compared to other sites and information is definitely representative of what would be expected for a detached kitchen of the time period. Several brick piers were excavated that show the building was raised above ground level. Also the foundation for the hearth was discovered which would only be found in a building that served the function of cooking for the household. The ceramic elements associated with the building also indicated that of a kitchen with stoneware and cooking goods showing up in high frequencies as well as serving ware such as nice heavily decorated whiteware and porcelain. Also pieces to a cast iron cooking pot and lid were recovered. These pieces match perfectly with the items located in historic homes with intact 1800s kitchens. The Latimer house in Wilmington, North Carolina still has its original kitchen (due to its foot thick brick wall construction) with many of the original items still in place.

Once piece of information that could not be proven in relation to the kitchen was that of a female slave in residence. Given the time period along with the wealth level of the Boyds they would have owned at least once slave to conduct the cooking and cleaning prior to the civil war. While some domestic goods, such as buttons, were located within the kitchen area they are not enough to support the idea of a residential slave without more evidence and supporting facts. Most likely this lack of evidence is due to two factors. The first is that the slave probably had no separate living quarters and thus no place to gather objects that were wholly personal. The second is that due to the ever changing landscape of the urban farmstead, along with the frequency in which detached kitchens burned as well as the freemen post Civil War South, what personal goods would have existed were either moved or destroyed before the building entered into the archaeological record.

The same can also be said for the barn at The Oaks, which rather closely matched the architectural artifact data from the Johnson/Bates site's barn. A large amount of flooring nails were recovered from the barn area which indicates that of a hay loft or perhaps wooden floored work area. Also several pieces of slag as well as horseshoes were recovered. This would indicate that blacksmithing was going on in the area. Not uncommon for the period the blacksmithing area would be located in or near the barn if lacking its own designated building. This would allow for the easy shoeing of horses as well as maintenance of tack, bridals, harnesses, and the carriage. Also pieces of a harness were located near this area giving more evidence to that of a barn

function. The barn also matched in relation to the frame data gathered from both sites when placed into the research model. Due to the use of a barn the same type of architectural features would be found in almost any type. The main frame of the building would be that of a heavy timber construction to hold the weight of the hay loft as well as a strong wooden or slate covered roof. The walls would also be constructed of wooden planks though not necessarily covered in any type of additional wooden siding.

The unexpected encounter at The Oaks was the structure originally identified as the privy by oral and historical reports. However, when compared with the data from the Johnson/Bates site the designation of a privy could no longer be upheld, at least in its later architectural form. The major find for this building was brick slab found during the excavations along with a relatively large amount of metal and glass fragments. The frame data also did not support that of a privy. After more research the data supports the theory that the building served as a cold frame/storage facility (greenhouse) as opposed to a privy. The window glass analysis for this building gave a construction date between the 1880s and 1890s. This also corresponds with the time of metal window framings and their use on cold frame style buildings. With this knowledge in hand the high frequency of metal from this area can be said to correspond with these types of architectural features. The idea of a cold frame also fits into the Oaks socially given the needs to not only show off wealth but that of maintaining garden crops and delicate garden plants during the winter seasons.

One major challenge of this study was due to the after effects of hurricane Katrina and her damage to the Southern Miss campus. Most of the written data along with field reports were lost after the flooding of the original historic archaeology laboratory. The artifacts survived as well as some pictures that were stored digitally. While this was a hindrance when trying to get more information specific to the excavations the artifacts did allow for research with the use of hard data sets and comparisons. One building remained fully unidentified throughout the research comparison. This is mainly due to the extremely low sampling data that could be collected. What data was available matched the percentages for that of the barn structure so it is possible we are looking at a pig barn or chicken coop. More units need to be excavated within the area of this building to truly understand its function in relation to the oaks.

This thesis serves as a building block for the better understanding of urban farmsteads in the southern landscape. It is an example of the type of information and analysis which can be conducted in urban farmstead archaeology. Given the low amount of work conducted in this area, much more information is needed to transition the work of this thesis into an even better defined model. More urban farmsteads need to be excavated across the country, as well as have reports published, but also more work needs to be conducted on early house structures and plots within the Jackson, Mississippi area. The work done on both the Manship house as well as Battlefield park are terribly lacking for this type of in depth study. Other parts of the state, such as the great historic home sites in Natchez as well as homes like Beauvoir in Biloxi,

which is contemporaneous with the Oaks, offer much opportunity for our understanding of the urban landscape.

As with any archaeological study, it is never possible to arrive at all the answers, however, when more work is conducted on urban farmsteads, the data can be refined to possibly answer the questions with a more in depth analysis. Also hopefully with more sites excavated, a full working comparative model can be constructed that would allow future archaeologists to easily identify the various buildings on an urban farmstead site.

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