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VOLUME EIGHT**

**Edited
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Cover: WPA Crew at the Ward Site (Courtesy of the W. S. Webb Museum of Anthropology).

PREFACE

Since its creation in 1966, the Kentucky Heritage Council has taken the lead in preserving and protecting Kentucky's cultural resources. To accomplish its legislative charge, the Heritage Council maintains three program areas: Site Development, Site Identification, and Site Protection and Archaeology. Site Development administers the state and federal Main Street programs, providing technical assistance in downtown revitalization to communities throughout the state. It also runs the Certified Local Government, Investment Tax Credit, and Restoration Grants-in-Aid programs.

The Site Identification staff maintains the inventory of historic buildings and is responsible for working with a Review Board, composed of professional historians, historic architects, archaeologists, and others interested in historic preservation, to nominate sites to the National Register of Historic Places. This program also is actively working to promote rural preservation and to protect Civil War sites.

The Site Protection and Archaeology Program staff works with a variety of federal and state agencies, local governments, and individuals to assist in their compliance with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966 and to ensure that potential impacts to significant cultural resources are adequately addressed prior to the implementation of federally funded or licensed projects. They also are responsible for administering the Heritage Council's archaeological programs, which include the agency's state and federal archaeological grants; organizing this conference, including the editing and publication of selected papers; and the dissemination of educational materials, such as the Kentucky Before Boone poster. On occasion, the Site Protection and Archaeology Program staff undertakes field and research projects, such as emergency data recovery at threatened sites.

The Site Protection Program Manager also is the Director of the Kentucky Archaeological Survey, which is jointly administered by the Kentucky Heritage Council and the University of Kentucky Department of Anthropology. Its mission is to provide a service to other state agencies, to work with private landowners to protect archaeological sites, and to educate the public about Kentucky's rich archaeological heritage.

This volume contains papers presented at the Seventeenth Annual Kentucky Heritage Council Archaeological Conference. The conference was held at Western Kentucky University, in Bowling Green, Kentucky on March 26-27, 2000. Dr. Darlene Applegate was in charge of conference details and local arrangements for this conference. Her efforts are greatly appreciated. Heritage Council staff that assisted with conference proceedings included Site Protection Program Manager Thomas N. Sanders, as well as Staff Archaeologist Charles D. Hockensmith.

I would like to thank everyone who has participated in the Heritage Council archaeological conferences. Without your support, these conferences would not have been as successful as they have been.

David Pollack
Site Protection Program Manager
Kentucky Heritage Council

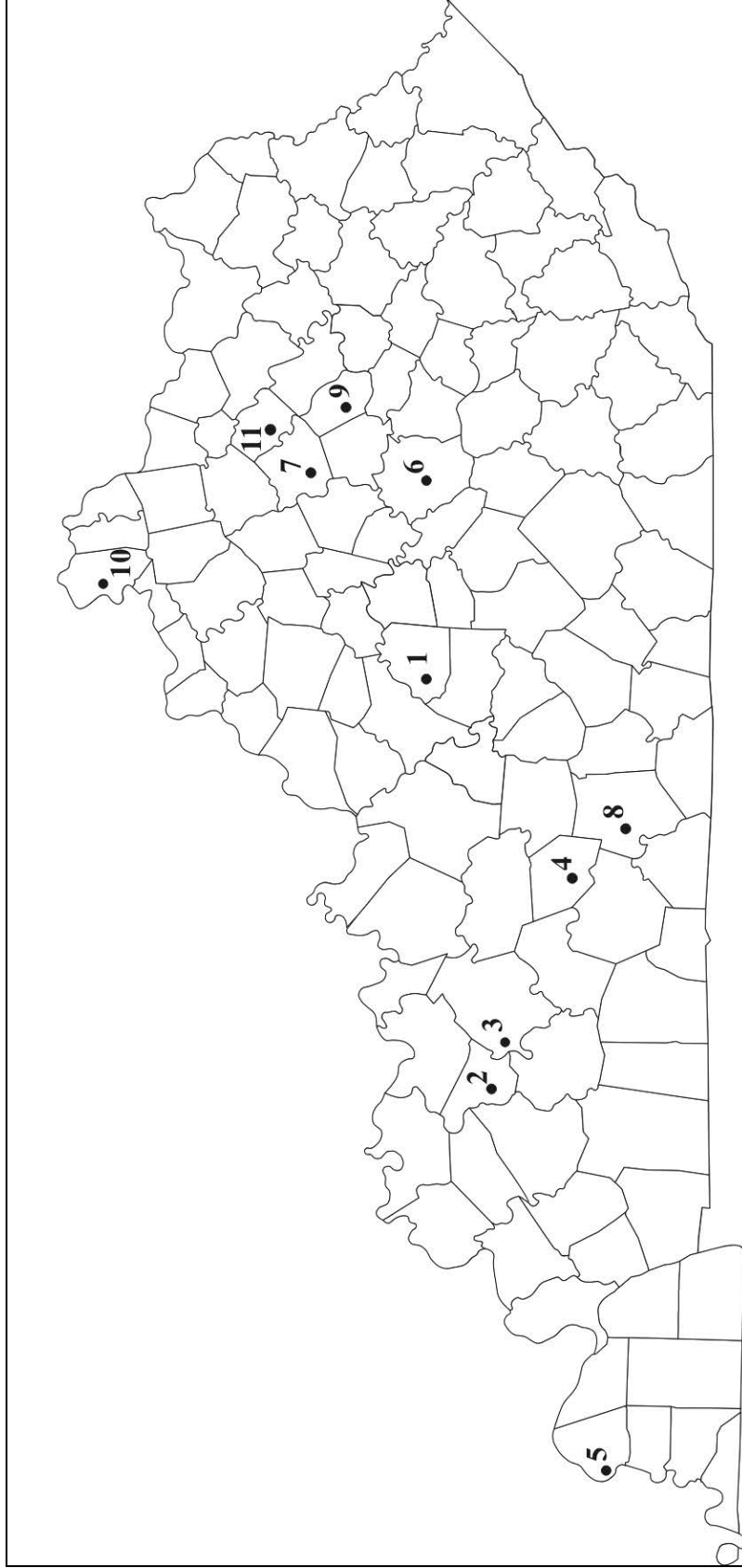


Figure 1. Location of Major Sites and Project Areas in this volume: 1, Upper Rolling Fork and Beech Fork Drainages; 2, Cypress Creek Drainage; 3, Indian Knoll, Ward, and Barrett; 4, Short Cave; 5, Wickcliffe Mound; 6, Broadus; 7, McConnell's Homestead; 8, Bell's Tavern; 9, 15Mm137; 10, Maplewood; 11, Neal-Rice.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface	iii
Paleoindian Points from the Upper Rolling Fork and Beech Fork Drainage Basins in Central Kentucky - Jack H. Ray.....	1
Cypress Creek Revisited: Settlement and Subsistence in West-Central Kentucky - Richard W. Jefferies, Victor D. Thompson, George R. Milner, Renee M. Bonzani, and Tanya M. Peres.....	37
New Radiocarbon Dates from Three Archaic Shell Middens in Western Kentucky: Indian Knoll (15OH2), Ward (15McL11), and Barrett (15McL4) - Nicholas P. Herrmann.....	77
Investigation of Perishable Materials Associated with Fawn Hoof, A Desiccated Burial in Short Cave, Kentucky - Elizabeth Horton.....	91
An Evaluation of Radiocarbon Data from Mound C, Wickliffe Mound Group (15BA4) - Hugh B. Matternes.....	109
The Broaddus Site (15MA179): A Preliminary Report on a Fort Ancient Mound Site on the Bluegrass Army Depot - Kelli Carmean.....	131
Frontier Station or Homestead? Archaeological Investigations at McConnell's Homestead (15Bb75) - Grant L. Day.....	147
History Set in Stone: Archaeological Research at Bell's Tavern, Barren County, Kentucky - Tammy Seiter and M. Jay Stottman.....	173
Bioanthropological Investigation of an Unmarked Cemetery at Site 15MM137, Montgomery County, Kentucky - Alexandra D. Bybee.....	193
In Search of Margaret Garner: Preliminary Archaeological Investigations at Maplewood, 15BE483, Boone County, Kentucky - Kim A. McBride and M. Jay Stottman.....	221
The 4-H Cultural Heritage Project: Research of a Postbellum African-American Homestead - M. Jay Stottman, Karen Hudson, Cheryl L. Bersaglia, A. Gwynn Henderson, and W. Stephen McBride.....	249

THE 4-H CULTURAL HERITAGE PROJECT: RESEARCH OF A POSTBELLUM AFRICAN-AMERICAN HOMESTEAD

By

M. Jay Stottman¹, Karen Hudson², Cheryl L. Bersaglia³, A. Gwynn Henderson¹, and W. Stephen McBride¹

ABSTRACT

Between 1994 and 1996, the 4-H Cultural Heritage Project documented the Neal-Rice site (15Ni44), a turn-of-the-twentieth century African-American homesite in rural Nicholas County, Kentucky. Mutually corroborating lines of evidence from historical documents, material culture, and surviving architectural remains provide insights into the lives of the site's only inhabitants: Morris Rice, a stone mason, and his family. Results of these investigations also provide important information about Postbellum black consumerism and tenancy and landownership in rural central Kentucky.

INTRODUCTION

From 1994 to 1996, as part of the 4-H Cultural Heritage Project, archaeological excavations were conducted at the Neal-Rice site (15Ni44), a Postbellum African-American homestead located in Nicholas County, Kentucky. The use of multiple sources of information, which included historical, architectural, and archaeological data, permitted an interpretation of this turn-of-the-twentieth century African-American homesite. The information recovered from this site has contributed to our understanding of a variety of issues concerning the lives of African-Americans in rural Kentucky at the end of the nineteenth century.

The Neal-Rice site is located in Nicholas County, Kentucky on North Central 4-H Camp property near Carlisle, Kentucky (Figure 1). It is situated on a narrow, severely eroded ridge directly adjacent to and east of Kentucky Highway 1455 and a remnant of the old Gallows Hill Road. Throughout the 1800s, Gallows Hill Road was a small dirt road, used primarily for horses and foot traffic. The old road bed extends along much of the site's northwestern and western edges.

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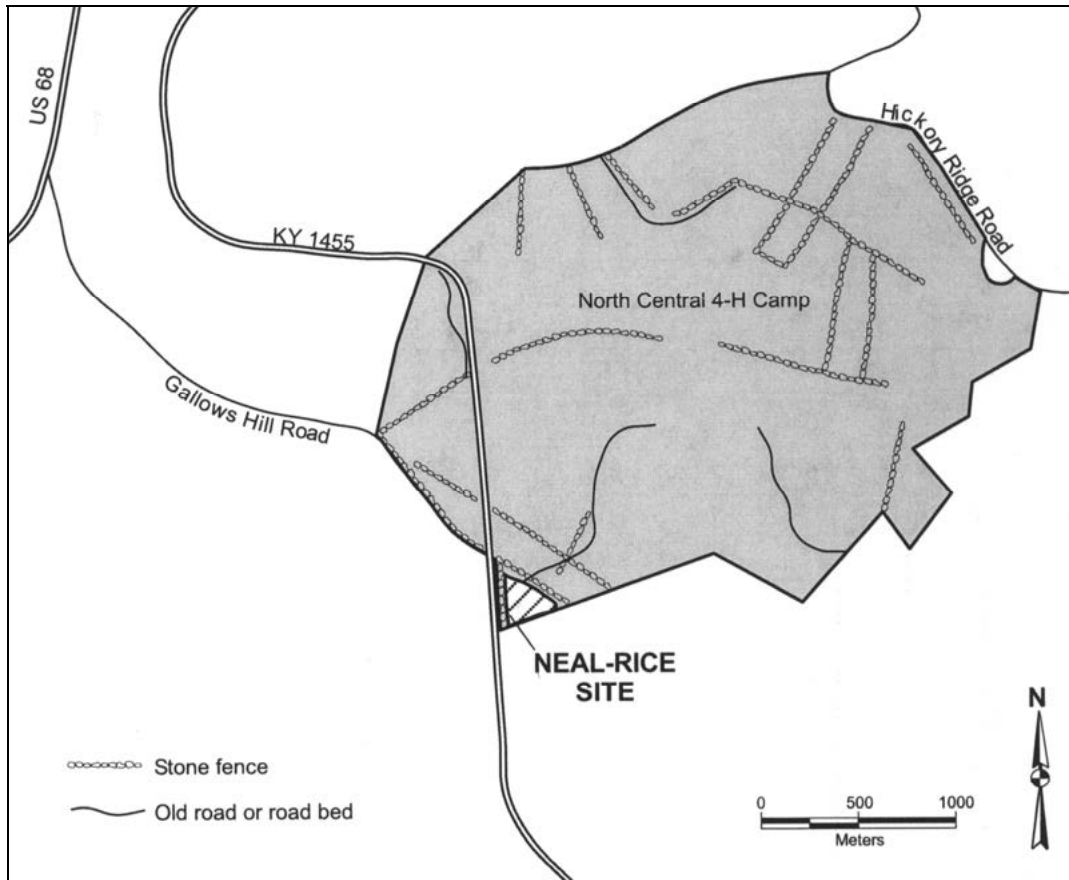


Figure 1. Location of the Neal-Rice Site (15NI44), Relative to North Central 4-H Camp, Nicholas County, Kentucky.

The research conducted at the Neal-Rice site reflects a common trend in historical archaeology, one that focuses on the integration of multiple lines of evidence to make interpretations about the past (Shackel 1993; Wylie 1993). While this particular approach has always been a staple of archaeological research, historical archaeologists can consider an even greater diversity of data sources when conducting their research than their prehistoric colleagues. No single source of data is more important or valid than another, and all information plays a part in formulating interpretations about the past (Shackel 1993).

Because interpreting the Neal-Rice site required the consideration of several different lines of evidence, this paper begins by separately presenting each data set (land ownership data, architectural data, and archaeological data) in the order in which they were collected. Next, interpretations about the people and the buildings, which integrate these data sets, are presented. This paper concludes with a brief discussion of broader topics in African-American studies, particularly consumerism and tenancy and property ownership.

THE DATA

LAND OWNERSHIP HISTORY

The land on which the Neal-Rice site sits once was part of a 55.7 ha (138-acre) farm owned by John Neal. Neal's son, Charles Neal, inherited the land from his father, who had owned it since the early 1800s. Neal sold the land to B.F. Mathers in 1860, who quickly began to parcel out Neal's original farm.

Mathers sold a 21 ha (52-acre) and a 3.2 ha (8-acre) parcel to Michael McGinley (Nicholas County Deed Book T:146). The Neal-Rice site was situated on a portion of McGinley's 3.2 ha (8-acre) parcel that was bounded by Gallows Hill Road. The 3.2 ha (8-acre) parcel was just a small sliver of land that was cut-off from McGinley's other land holdings by Gallows Hill Road. This undoubtedly made it difficult to sell this parcel as a farm or as an addition to nearby farms.

McGinley owned his two parcels of land until 1876, when he sold them to Michael Minoque (Nicholas County Deed Book 5:629). Minoque owned the property for four years, during which time he subdivided the 3.2 ha (8-acre) parcel into two equal parts of 1.6 ha (4 acres) each. The Neal-Rice site was located on the 1.6 ha (4-acre) parcel that Minoque sold to Morris Rice in 1880 (Nicholas County Deed Book 7:165). Rice owned the property for 21 years (until 1901), when he sold it to Campbell Ledford (Nicholas County Deed Book 18:435).

During the early to middle 1900s, the 1.6 ha (4-acre) property exchanged hands three more times: to Radford Banta (1913-1953), Sterling Banta (1953-1959), and Francis Wasson (1959-1961), all of whom had larger land holdings nearby (Nicholas County Deed Books 29:321; 54:430; 57:246). Nicholas County acquired the property in 1961, along with several other neighboring tracts of land, and created North Central 4-H Camp (Nicholas County Deed Book 58:490).

The property on which the Neal-Rice site was located was not prime real estate. The small 1.6 ha (4-acre) parcel of land had limited agricultural utility due to its size and poor soils, which are described as severely eroded (Richardson et al. 1982). Also, the parcel was isolated from nearby larger tracts of land by a road.

ARCHITECTURAL DATA

Today, all that remains above ground at the Neal-Rice site are piles of stone scattered across a narrow ridge. Upon closer examination, the visitor can make out the outlines of three dry-laid stone foundations clustered in a small forest clearing (Figures 2 and 3).



Figure 2. Stone Foundation of the House.



Figure 3. Stone Foundation of an Outbuilding, Possibly a Barn.

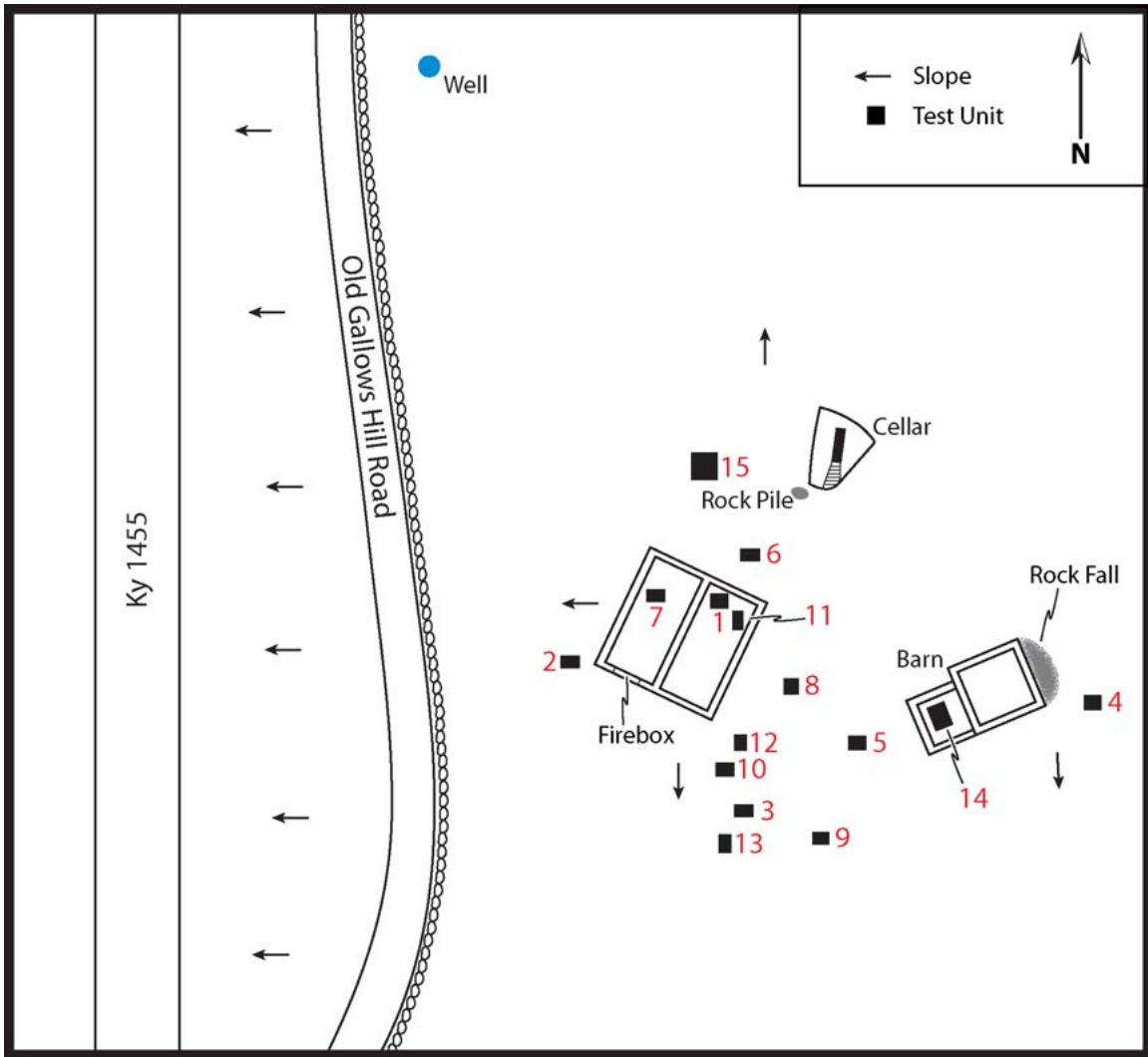


Figure 4. Schematic Map of the Neal-Rice Site, Main Habitation Area, Showing Location of Excavation Units.

The only building foundation that showed the remains of a chimney is located closest to the old Gallows Hill Road (Figures 2 and 4). The foundation measured approximately 6.1 by 6.1 m (20 by 20 ft) and was divided by a small stone wall foundation into two 3 by 6.1 m (10 by 20 ft) pens. The size and shape of this foundation, as well as the presence of a chimney, suggests that it functioned as a dwelling.

Just east of the house is the foundation of another structure that exhibited no evidence of a chimney, but had remnants of stone walls (Figures 3 and 4). The walls consisted of a main pen, which measured 4.9 by 4.9 m (16 by 16 ft), and a smaller 3.6 by 3 m (12 by 10 ft) western pen. The size and shape of this structure, as well as the fact that it lacked a chimney, suggests that it likely was not used as a dwelling. It is more likely that the structure served as an outbuilding to the dwelling, possibly a barn.

Northeast of and slightly downslope from the dwelling is what appeared to be a large pile of stone covering an approximately 3.0 by 4.9 m (10 by 16 ft) area (Figure 4). Stone removal revealed a small set of stone stairs dug into the earth leading down into a shallow, narrow opening. At the opening was the remnant of a wooden door frame that protruded from the stone pile (Figure 12). The stairs apparently led down the small slope to the door of a root cellar.

In addition to these three buildings, hidden in the dense vegetation 24.4 m (80 ft) down slope and north of the dwelling (Figure 4) is a circular ring of stone that probably was the well (Figure 4). This stone-lined well shaft measured 0.91 by 0.76 m (3 by 2.5 ft).

Also hidden in thick brush west and northwest of the foundations are the remnants of a stone fence that borders a well-worn gouge in the earth: the remains of the old Gallows Hill Road. During research prior to archaeological excavations, a network of stone fences and old roads was documented within North Central 4-H Camp (Figure 1). These fences probably defined property boundaries or separated pastured fields from cropland in the 1800s.

Based on the architectural remains, it appeared that a small domestic structure was located at the Neal-Rice site. Accompanying the home were the outbuildings necessary for a rural lifestyle.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL DATA

Archaeological research conducted at the Neal-Rice site consisted of the excavation of 15 units of various sizes according to stratigraphic layers, with the soil screened through 6.35 mm (1/4 inch) mesh (Table 1). Three excavation units were placed inside of the house foundation to sample deposits there (Figure 4). Four units were placed near the house foundation on its north, east, and west sides to sample deposits immediately surrounding the house.

Other excavation units at the site sampled the extant stone root cellar, the barn, and an area on the downhill slope located south of the house and barn foundations. Interior deposits of the root cellar were partially excavated. Two units were placed around the barn and one large unit was excavated inside it in order to determine its function. Finally, five units were excavated on the ridgetop's southern downhill slope to sample materials that may have washed down or been disposed of down the hill (Figure 4).

Stratigraphy

The Neal-Rice site stratigraphy consisted of only two cultural zones and the subsoil. The cultural zones extended no farther than 25 cm (10 inches) below the surface, but they did exhibit some variation in thickness. The first zone, representing the topsoil, was a dark clay loam that ranged in thickness from 5-13 cm (2-5 inches). The second

zone, a mottled yellow and dark brown clay, also ranged in thickness from 5-13 cm (2-5 inches). It represented an interface between the topsoil and the sterile subsoil. Both zones were characterized by dense inclusions of coal and clinkers within the soil matrix. The subsoil was a yellow clay that was devoid of artifacts. The cultural zones tended to be deeper in the units placed south of the foundations and downslope from the ridgetop.

The variation in thickness of both the topsoil and the interface zone probably is related in some way to erosional processes at work at the Neal-Rice site's narrow ridgetop location. The Nicholas County soil maps indicate that the site sits on severely eroded Eden flaggy silty clay soils (Richardson et al. 1982). Soil and possibly some artifacts may have collected in the area south of the foundations and downslope from the ridgetop due to erosion. Similarly, in areas with abundant tree roots or near the foundation walls, erosion may not have been as great as in open areas or on the ridgetop itself.

Table 1. Excavation Units.

Unit #	Size	Location
1	1.2 x 1.2 m (4 x 4 ft)	Inside house foundation
2	1.2 x .91 m (4 x 3 ft)	West of house foundation
3	1.2 x .91 m (4 x 3 ft)	South of house foundation down slope
4	1.2 x .91 m (4 x 3 ft)	East of barn foundation
5	1.2 x .91 m (4 x 3 ft)	West of barn foundation
6	.91 x 1.5 m (3 x 5 ft)	North of house foundation
7	1.2 x .91 m (4 x 3 ft)	Inside house foundation
8	1.2 x .91 m (4 x 3 ft)	East of house foundation
9	1.2 x .91 m (4 x 3 ft)	South of house foundation down slope
10	1.2 x .91 m (4 x 3 ft)	South of house foundation down slope
11	1.2 x .91 m (4 x 3 ft)	Inside house foundation
12	1.2 x .91 m (4 x 3 ft)	South of house foundation down slope
13	1.2 x .91 m (4 x 3 ft)	South of house foundation down slope
14	1.8 x 1.5 m (6 x 5 ft)	Inside barn foundation
15	2 x 2 m (6.5 x 6.5 ft)	North of house foundation
Cellar	.60 x 1.8 m (2 x 6 ft)	Inside cellar

Artifacts Recovered

Excavations at the Neal-Rice site produced a total of 4,091 artifacts, representing a variety of material types: ceramics, glass, metal, and other materials. In this section, they are described according to these types.

Ceramics

A total of 464 ceramic sherds were recovered. Whiteware (51.5 percent) comprised the majority of the ceramic collection (Table 2). Significant amounts of white granite (also known as Ironstone) (21.6 percent) and stoneware (16.4 percent) also were recovered. Other types of ceramics recovered from the Neal-Rice site consisted of

porcelain, redware, and yellowware (Table 2). Ceramic sherds that were unidentified according to type comprised 6.7 percent of the ceramic assemblage.

Table 2. Ceramic Types.

Ceramic Type	Frequency	Percent
Whiteware	239	51.5
White Granite (Ironstone)	100	21.6
Stoneware	76	16.4
Unidentified	31	6.7
Porcelain	10	2.2
Redware	4	0.8
Yellowware	4	0.8
Total	464	100.0

Most of the refined ceramics (represented by whiteware, white granite, and porcelain) were undecorated, comprising 95.3 percent of the ceramic assemblage. Pattern molded accounted for 1.4 percent of the refined ceramics (Table 3). Other decoration types consisted of decal, decal and relief, lustered, flowed, colored glaze, and handpainted. Decorated refined ceramics were distributed rather evenly among each of these ceramic types (Table 4), although together they comprised less than 5 percent (n=16) of the assemblage (Table 3). The coarse ceramics (represented by redware, stoneware, and yellowware) were all very plain, exhibiting simply a salt, slip, or clear glaze (Table 4).

Table 3. Decoration Types for Refined Ceramics.

Decoration Type	Frequency	Percent
Undecorated	333	95.3
Pattern molded	5	1.4
Decal	2	0.6
Decal and relief	2	0.6
Lustered	2	0.6
Unidentified decorated	2	0.6
Flowed	1	0.3
Colored glaze	1	0.3
Handpainted	1	0.3
Total	349	100.0

Although the ceramic sherds recovered from the Neal-Rice site were primarily small, some vessel forms and whole objects were identified. Most of these identified vessels consisted of plates and crocks, representing 28.1 percent and 26.6 percent of the ceramic sherds, respectively (Table 5) (Figures 5 and 6). Other ceramic vessels or objects recovered from the site consisted of cups, bowls, saucers, plain porcelain buttons undecorated clay marbles, porcelain doll parts, smoking pipes, and a porcelain toy teapot spout (Table 5). Fragments of vessels were identified primarily from units excavated inside of the house foundation, because they contained the highest proportions of large

and mendable sherds. The majority of sherds recovered from units outside of the house foundation were highly fragmented.

Table 4. Refined and Coarse Ceramics and Decoration Types.

Ceramic/Decoration Type	Frequency
<i>Refined</i>	
<u>Porcelain</u>	
Undecorated	7
Handpainted	1
Lustered	1
Pattern molded	1
Total	10
<u>White Granite (Ironstone)</u>	
Undecorated	92
Decal and relief	2
Pattern molded	2
Unidentified decorated	2
Colored glaze	1
Lustered	1
Total	100
<u>Whiteware</u>	
Undecorated	234
Decal	2
Pattern molded	2
Flowed	1
Total/Total Refined	239/349
<i>Coarse</i>	
<u>Redware</u>	
Clear glaze	4
Total	4
<u>Stoneware</u>	
Salt glaze	48
Slip glaze	26
Clear glaze	1
Unglazed	1
Total	76
<u>Yellowware</u>	
Clear glaze	4
Total/Total Coarse	4/84
<i>Unidentified</i>	31
Total/Total Unidentified	31/31
Grand Total	464

Table 5. Ceramic Vessel Forms/Objects.

Vessel Form	Frequency	Percent
Plate	39	28.1
Crock	37	26.6
Cups	19	13.7
Buttons	14	10.0
Bowls	9	6.5
Marble	9	6.5
Saucer	5	3.6
Doll/doll part	4	2.9
Smoking pipe	2	1.4
Toy teapot spout	1	0.7
Total	139	100.0

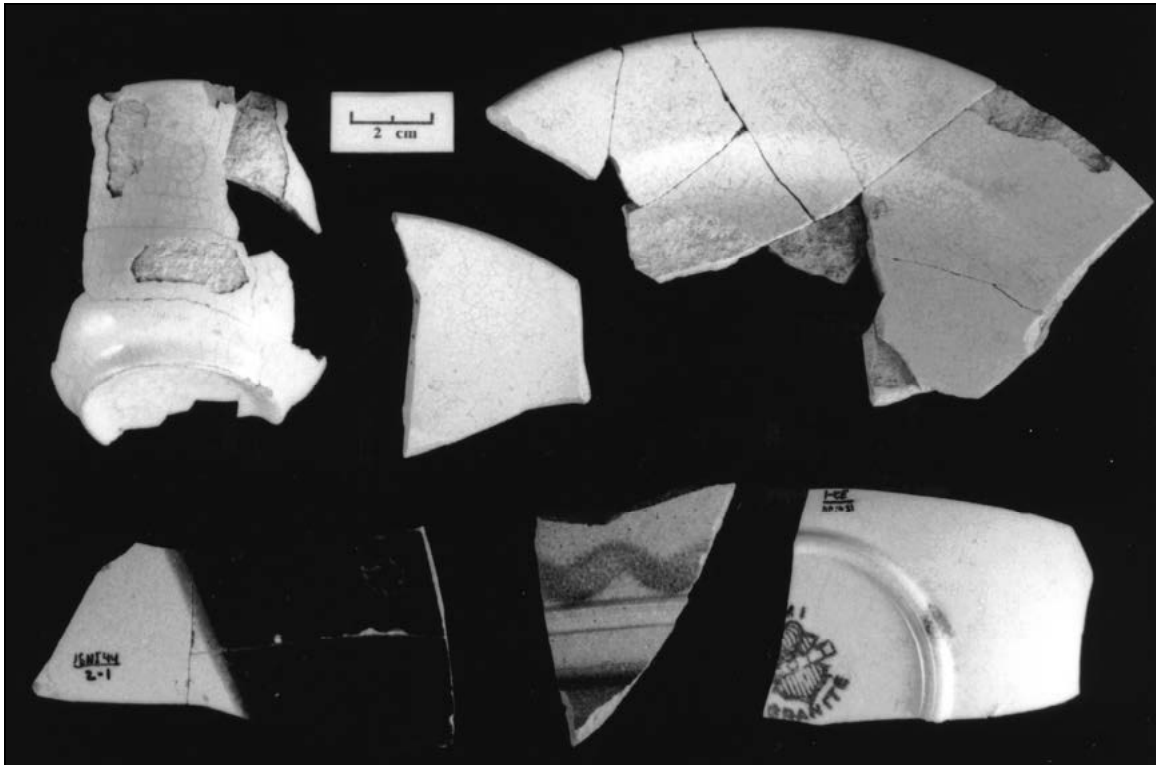


Figure 5. Ceramics from the Neal-Rice Site: Whiteware, White Granite, and Salt-Glazed Stoneware.

Glass

A total of 1,796 glass fragments were recovered, consisting of container glass and window glass. Window glass comprised 14.4 percent of the total glass assemblage and two different colors were represented: green tinted (n=144) and blue tinted (n=115). The container glass occurred in a wider variety of colors, of which clear, amethyst, and aqua

were the most prominent (Table 6). Container glass lip and base specimens revealed the processes by which some of the containers had been manufactured (Table 7).

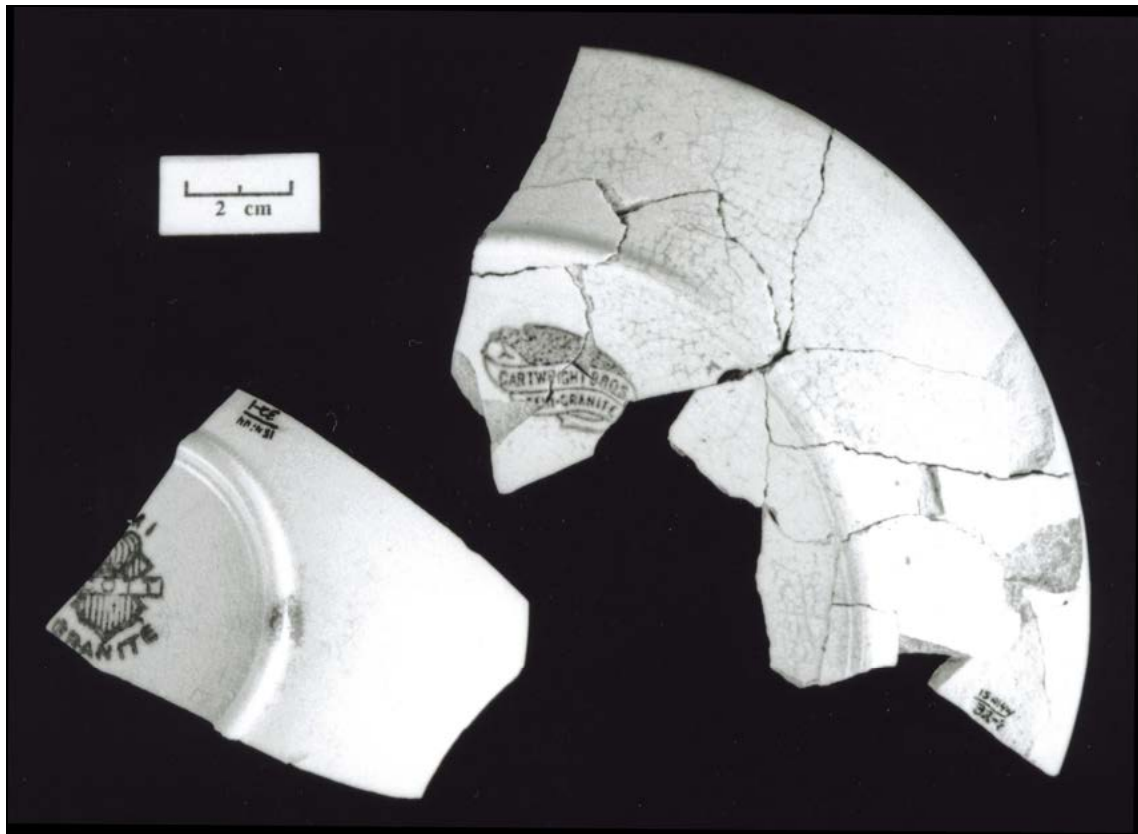


Figure 6. White Granite Plate and Bowl with Maker's Mark.

A wide variety of glass vessel forms/objects were identified, most of which were represented by unidentified bottles and could not be assigned to specific vessel forms or objects (61.7 percent) of the glass (Table 8). Several glass vessel forms/objects could be identified, including lamp globes (6.9 percent), canning jars (4.4 percent), and tumblers (3.1 percent) (Table 8) (Figure 7). A variety of other glass vessel forms/objects also were identified, though they occurred in smaller quantities (Table 8).

Metal

High frequencies of metal artifacts (n=1,598) were recovered from the Neal-Rice site. Unlike the ceramic and glass artifacts, most of the metal artifacts represented identifiable forms.

Most prominent in the metal assemblage were nails (n=539), roofing fragments (n=516), and can fragments (n=168) (Table 9). Most of the nails were machine-cut (60.0 percent), followed by wire nails (38.0 percent). The remaining 2.0 percent were unidentified nail types (Table 9). A wide variety of other metal objects were recovered,

Table 6. Container Glass.

Glass Color	Frequency
Clear	825
Amethyst	256
Aqua	136
Olive	76
Milk glass-white	73
Green tint	68
Brown	39
Blue tint	30
Dark green	20
Unidentified	8
Amber	5
Cobalt	1
Total	1537

Table 7. Container Glass Lip and Base Attributes.

Attribute	Type	Frequency
Lip	Machine-made/molded	34
	Applied fused	11
	Improved tooled	3
	Blob top	1
Total		49
Base	Machine-made	5
	Valve scar	4
	Plate bottom mold	1
	Molded	1
Total		11

Table 8. Glass Vessel Forms and Objects.

Glass function	Frequency	Percent
Bottle-unidentified	1108	61.70
Window glass	259	14.40
Lamp globe	124	6.90
Canning jar	80	4.40
Unidentified	74	4.10
Tumbler	55	3.10
Button	35	1.90
Dish	24	1.30
Medicine bottle-other	12	0.70
Liquor bottle-flask	6	0.30
Condiment	5	0.30
Chemical bottle-household	3	0.20
Jar-unidentified	3	0.20
Stemware	3	0.20
Collar stud	1	0.05
Eye glass lens	1	0.05
Lid liner	1	0.05
Syringe/dropper	1	0.05
Vial	1	0.05
Total	1,796	100.00

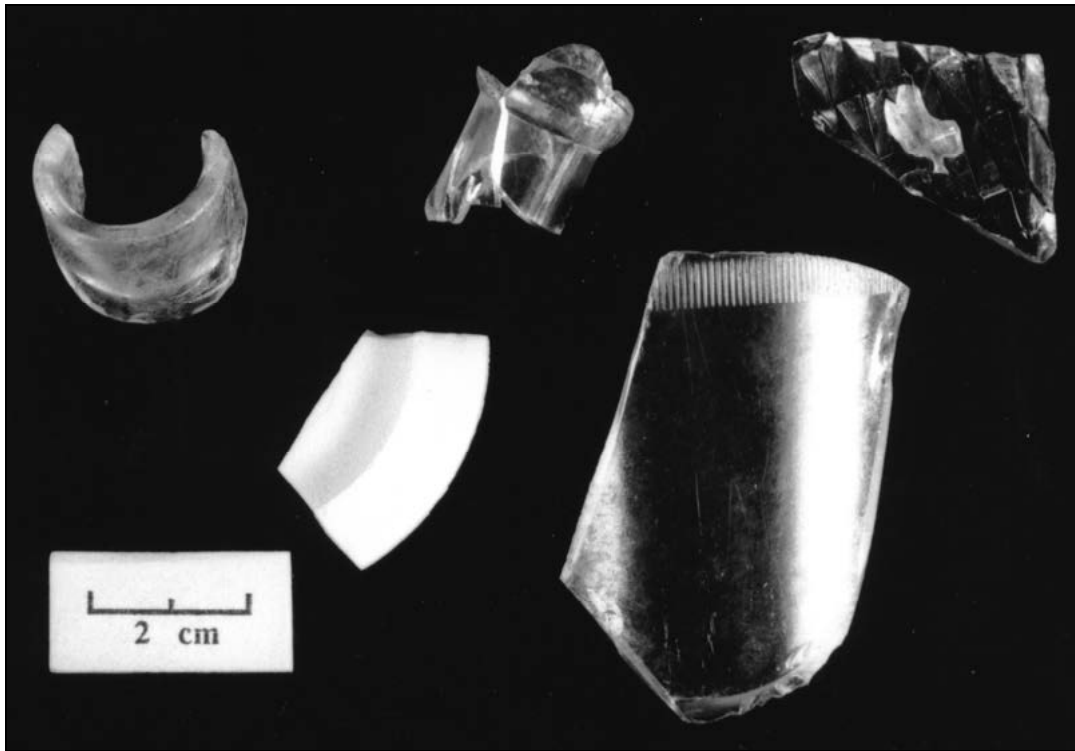


Figure 7. Glass Artifacts from the Neal-Rice Site: Bottle Lips, Milk Glass Lid Liner, and Tumbler.

some of which included two pennies dating 1890 and 1895 respectively (Figure 8); a fork, a spoon, and knife fragments; buttons and a thimble; shell casings (from a shotgun and a rifle); a harmonica part; a safety pin; and a watch part (Figure 8).

Other Materials

A variety of artifacts made from other materials (n=233) were recovered from the Neal-Rice site, consisting mostly of highly fragmented faunal remains (n=89) (Table 10). They represented a rather small proportion of the total artifact assemblage. Although a formal faunal analysis was not conducted, a cursory analysis of the remains indicated that fauna typical of domestic sites were present, like rat, pig, cow, and chicken.

High frequencies of shell (n=84) and slate (n=52) also were recovered. Most of the shell (n=76) were snail shells that probably originated at the site rather recently. The stone foundations created a damp, cool habitat enjoyed by these animals. The only other shell artifacts consisted of buttons (n=8). The slate artifacts were comprised mostly of writing board fragments (n=49), along with three unidentified slate items. In addition to these artifacts, a graphite pencil and seven leather shoe parts also were found (Table 10).

Table 9. Metal Objects.

Metal form	Frequency
Roofing fragments	516
Nail-machine cut	324
Nail-wire	204
Nail-unknown	11
Can fragments	168
Bullet	13
Hardware	13
Button	12
Bolt	11
Horseshoe nail	8
Bucket fragment	7
Screw	7
Jewelry	6
Musical instrument (harmonica)	5
Shell casing/cartridge	5
Fencing fragments	4
Buckle/clasp	4
Horse tack	4
Knife	4
Tack	4
Tool (hand)	3
Barrel stave bands	2
Coin	2
Grommet	2
Handle	2
Hinge	2
Pencil/pencil parts	2
Razor blade	2
Safety pin	2
Stove part	2
Cuff link	1
Fork	1
Furniture hardware	1
Gun part (barrel?)	1
Hook and eye	1
Horseshoe	1
Spoon	1
Thimble	1
Toy	1
Pocketwatch part	1
Window weight	1
Unidentified metal fragments	236
Total	1598

Table 10. Other Materials.

Material/Form	Frequency
<u>Bone</u>	
Faunal remains	89
Total	89
<u>Shell</u>	
Buttons	8
Faunal remains (snail)	76
Total	84
<u>Slate</u>	
Writing board	49
Unidentified	3
Total	52
<u>Leather</u>	
Shoe parts	7
Total	7
<u>Graphite</u>	
Pencil	1
Total	1

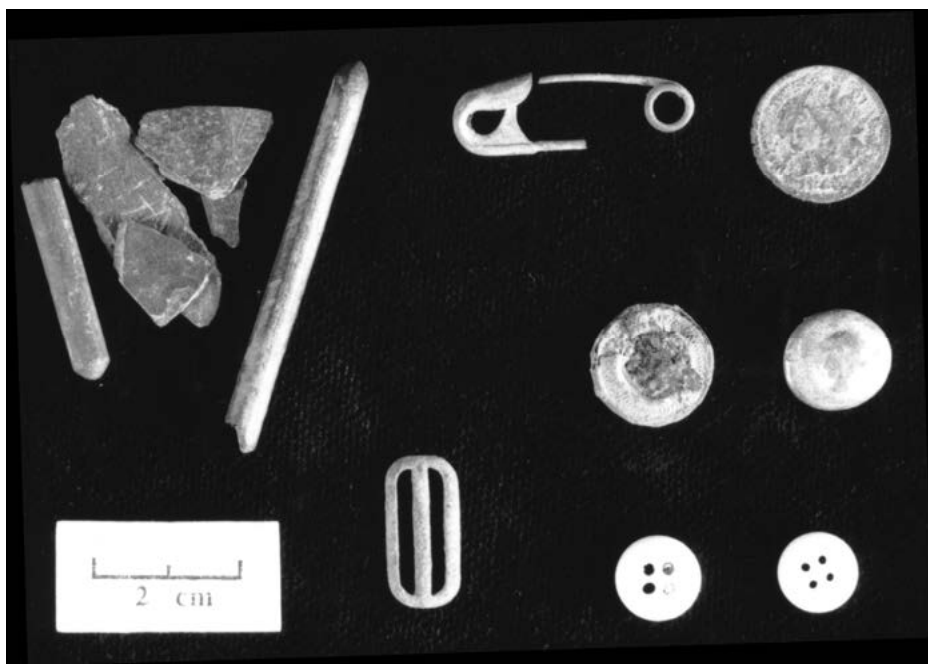


Figure 8. Miscellaneous Artifacts from the Neal-Rice Site: Writing Board (Slate) Fragments, Lead Pencil, Safety Pin, Coin, Small Buckle, and Metal and Shell Buttons.

Artifact Analysis

Functional Categories

Although the segregation of artifacts into arbitrary categories based on function (e.g., South 1977) is not particularly useful for site type pattern recognition studies when applied to domestic sites such as the Neal-Rice site, this kind of analysis can be beneficial for characterizing artifact assemblages. The artifacts are assigned to categories according to their presumed use in the past. For example, items associated with dining, food preparation, and food storage are generally considered kitchen-related, while items associated with the material used in the construction of a building are considered architectural. Because the delineation of these functional categories varies greatly among archaeologists, using them for intersite analysis is limited. However, functional categories do have great utility in characterizing the artifact assemblages on an intrasite level.

In the case of the Neal-Rice site, with its high percentages of kitchen- and architecture-related artifacts, the functional categories that are represented clearly reflect the domestic nature of the assemblage (Table 11). The different functional categories also can help characterize the activities that took place at this site and the people who once lived there.

Table 11. Functional Categories.

Functional Category	Percent
Kitchen	47.8
Architecture	33.2
Activities	7.0
Faunal	3.8
Furnishings	3.4
Clothing	2.2
Personal	1.9
Arms	0.5
Miscellaneous	0.2
Total	100.0

The bulk of the ceramic artifacts found at the Neal-Rice site are probably associated with food preparation, storage, and service. The identified ceramic vessel forms are typical of these functions, as represented by plates, cups, bowls, saucers, and storage crocks. Other food preparation/service type artifacts are represented by eating utensils, like a fork, knives, and a spoon. Much of the glass artifact assemblage also can be considered kitchen-related. These artifacts include medicine bottles, whiskey bottles, canning jars, chemical bottles, stemware, and tumblers, representing food and drink storage, drink service, and the storage of other household products.

The architecture group is represented primarily by window glass, nails, architectural hardware, and roofing materials. Based on the nails recovered, it can be

inferred that a wooden, frame-type building was constructed on the stone foundations that remain at the site. The recovery of large fragments of metal roofing, in addition to associated roofing nails, suggests that the structures had metal roofs. The recovery of window glass indicates that windows were present in at least some of the structures.

The other functional categories that were less prominent than the kitchen and architecture groups provide a characterization of the people who lived and worked in the buildings. The doll parts, marbles, and other toy artifacts suggest that children were present in the household. Other personal items include smoking pipe fragments, an eye glass lens, a pocket watch fragment, a harmonica part, and two pennies. These personal items suggest that a family occupied the site rather than a couple or a single individual.

Sewing seemed to be an important activity in the household, as evidenced by artifacts representative of the clothing group like buttons, suspender parts, buckles, and a thimble embossed with the words "Forget Me Not." Someone within the household was literate or was learning how to read and write, given the recovery of writing board fragments and pencil fragments. It seems that the household was probably never equipped with electricity, based on the high frequency of lamp globe fragments from oil lamps represented in the furnishing group. No artifacts related to the use of electricity were recovered, such as electrical insulators. Other furnishing items include decorative pressed and milk glass dish fragments. Due to the recovery of fragments of arms-related objects, it can be inferred that someone in the household owned guns. These guns probably consisted of a shotgun and a hunting rifle, based on the recovery of cartridges and a possible gun barrel.

Other activities that took place at the site, as represented by the activities group artifacts (fencing material, unidentified tool parts, bucket fragments, hardware, barrel stave bands, and a horseshoe and horseshoe nails) included the up-keep of the property, fence maintenance, and other types of farm chores. The recovery of fencing material reflects the presence and maintenance of fences on the property. Furthermore, the presence of fences suggests animals may have been kept on the property or that fences were intended to keep some animals out of the domestic area. Tools and other kinds of hardware were needed to maintain the fences and the buildings on the property. Buckets were most likely a part of the everyday chore of hauling water from the well to the house, while barrel stave bands suggest the presence of wooden barrels for bulk storage. The presence of a horseshoe, horseshoe nails, and horse tack indicates that the household owned or had the use of a horse.

Site Date Range

Establishing a date range for the site occupation from the artifacts can place the site within a particular historical context. Based on the diagnostic artifacts from the Neal-Rice site, the artifact assemblage can be assigned a general date range from the 1880s to the 1910s.

Numerous temporally diagnostic artifacts were recovered, eight of which provided excellent information upon which to establish a date range for the site's

occupation: two coins, five sherds with ceramic maker's marks (Figure 6), and a metal harmonica part stamped with a patent date. A date range of 1885 to 1913 and a mean date of 1897 were derived from these diagnostic artifacts (Table 12). These dates are supplemented by the presence of similarly dated types of artifacts that are less reliable for mean dating. These include glass type, bottle lip and base types, ceramic types, canning jars, and nail types.

Table 12. Mean Dating of the Neal-Rice Site.

Artifact/Company Name	Date Range	Number	Mean	Reference
<u>Coins</u>				
Penny	1890	1	1890	
Penny	1895	1	1895	
<u>Musical Instrument</u>				
Harmonica part with a patent date	1899	1	1899	
<u>Ceramic Maker's Marks</u>				
Bridgewood and Sons	1885-1891	1	1888	Godden 1964
Cartwright Brothers	1887-1896	1	1891.5	DeBolt 1994
U.S. Pottery Co.	1899-1907	2	1903	DeBolt 1994
Alfred Meakin Pottery	1897-1913	1	1905	Godden 1964
Total	1885-1913	8	1897	

Amethyst glass (n=256), which was generally produced from 1880 to 1914 (Newman 1970), was found in great frequency at the Neal-Rice site (Table 6). Clear glass for bottles (n=825) was not produced widely until after 1875 (Fike 1987). The bottle lip and base types recovered from the Neal-Rice site consisted mostly of machine-made types, which generally began to be produced after the 1880s (Table 7) (Jones and Sullivan 1989). Improved tooled lips, several examples of which were found at the site, were generally manufactured from 1875 to 1903 (Deiss 1981). Also, older bottle manufacturing techniques were represented within the Neal-Rice site assemblage. For example, applied fused lips were most commonly used during the mid- and late 1800s, but also were manufactured into the early 1900s (Newman 1970). The high frequencies of late whiteware and white granite in the assemblage also indicate a late 1800s/early 1900s date for the site occupation (Table 4) (DeBolt 1994; Miller 1991). Decal-decorated varieties of these ceramic types, several examples of which were found at the site, generally date to after the 1890s (Adams 1980). Finally, the presence of *Ball* mason jars and a porcelain/milk glass canning jar lid liner support the date range suggested by other diagnostic artifacts. *Ball* mason jars began to be produced after 1879 when the patent for the jars held by Mason expired (Sives 1991). The lid liners were patented in 1869 and used into the early 1900s (Sives 1991).

The dates for selected architectural artifacts, especially nail types, also support the dates derived from the other artifacts. The presence of metal roofing reflects a trend in the use of inexpensive metal roofing in the late 1800s and early 1900s. The nail types recovered from the Neal-Rice site support the 1880-1910 date range, as evidenced by the high frequencies of both machine-cut and wire nails in the assemblage (Table 9) (Nelson 1968). Although the United States Patent Office granted the first patent for wire nails

strong enough for heavy construction in 1877 (Loveday 1983), wire nails were used primarily for the construction of packing cases until the last two decades of the nineteenth century. By about 1890, however, wire nail production had overtaken cut nail production (Smith 1975). Preiss (1973:90) suggests that an effective beginning date for wire nails used in building construction is 1880. By 1913, cut nail production accounted for less than 10 percent of the total nails produced in the United States (Loveday 1983). Journey (1987:90) suggests that sites with less than 20 percent wire nails would date prior to 1888, those with 75 percent wire nails would date after 1895, and sites containing only wire nails would date after 1902. Based on the percentage of machine-cut nails (60.0 percent) and wire nails (38.0 percent) recovered from the Neal-Rice site excavations, the nail data suggest a date well within the transition period of nail technology, which coincides with the late nineteenth to early twentieth century date range established by the other artifacts.

Spatial Patterns

An examination of the spatial distribution of artifacts recovered from the Neal-Rice site reveals artifact concentrations that can help identify the function of the structures at the site. The majority of artifacts (55 percent) were recovered from units excavated inside (45 percent) or outside (10 percent) of the house foundation (Table 13 and Figure 4). Materials from the stone outbuilding (12 percent) and downslope from the house (24 percent) accounted for 36 percent of the assemblage. Artifacts found in association with the cellar (2 percent) or from general surface contexts at the site (7 percent) represented only a minor percentage of the overall site assemblage (Table 13).

Areas inside and outside of the house produced the greatest variety of artifact types recovered and functions represented - a total of ten different functional groups. The units downslope from the house produced artifacts representing eight functional groups, but those from the stone outbuilding, cellar, and surface produced historic artifacts relating to six or fewer functional groups.

When site area functional group profiles (rank and percent of area assemblage represented) are compared, contexts inside, outside, and downslope of the house are very similar. Kitchen [1], architecture [2], activities [3], and furniture [4] are ranked the same for each area. Also for these three areas, the kitchen functional group varies between 52.2 and 58 percent, the architecture group varies from 23.2 to 29.1 percent, and the activities group varies between 7.7 and 10.3 percent. These data illustrate that activities in these areas were similar. They are typical for refuse disposal deposits associated with a domestic structure, given the high percentage of kitchen artifacts and the diversity of functional groups, and probably are related to day-to-day domestic activities. This pattern at the Neal-Rice site is similar, but not identical to, Ball's (1984) "residential pattern," in which kitchen and architecture functional groups occur within a site assemblage in almost equal amounts (46 and 47 percent, respectively) and the furniture group is low.

Table 13. Functional Groups by Site Area.

Site Area	Functional Groups										
	Kitchen	Architecture	Activities	Furniture	Faunal	Clothing	Personal	Arms	Entertainment	Misc.	Prehistoric
Inside House Foundation (n=1854; 45 percent) (Units 1, 7, and 11)	52.2	23.8	8.4	4.7	3.1	3.7	3.1	0.8	0.1	0.1	--
Outside House Foundation (n=425; 10 percent) (Units 2, 6, 8 and 15)	56.8	29.1	7.7	1.8	1.2	1.1	1.0	0.4	0.1	0.8	--
Downslope (n=958; 24 percent) (Units 3, 5, 9, 10, 12, and 13)	58.0	23.2	10.3	6.5	0.2	0.7	0.4	--	0.7	--	--
Barn (n=495; 12 percent) (Units 4 and 14)	4.1	79.0	1.2	0.2	15.5	--	--	--	--	--	--
Cellar (n=76; 2 percent)	6.6	73.7	10.5	--	6.6	--	--	--	1.3	--	1.3
Surface (n=283; 7 percent) no area specified	59.0	33.8	1.4	2.4	--	3.1	0.3	--	--	--	--

The functional group profiles for the stone outbuilding and cellar contrast sharply with the areas inside, outside, and downslope of the house. The architecture group is the majority group for each, representing 73.7 or 79 percent of the materials from these areas. The next most frequently represented groups are either faunal (in the case of the barn) or activities (in the case of the cellar).

Excavations in the interior of the cellar produced only 76 artifacts, most of which represented architectural debris from the structure itself (metal roofing fragments and a few wire nails) and some evidence of storage vessels (bucket fragments and a few unidentified glass sherds). Several sherds of stoneware crockery were found in the vicinity of the cellar on the surface and may have been used in conjunction with other activities taking place in this building. The results of the cellar investigations indicate a storage function for this structure. The lack of concentrations of highly varied domestic refuse is also good evidence for a cellar, where only a limited range of activities would have taken place.

Substantially more artifacts were recovered (n=495) from the stone outbuilding. These artifacts were derived from a unit placed outside of the foundation wall (Unit 4) (n=4) and a large unit placed inside the structure (Unit 14) (n=491) (Figure 4). As with the cellar, most of the artifacts recovered from inside the structure were roofing fragments (n=381) or snail shells (n=76), which together accounted for 93 percent of the Unit 14 assemblage. The rest of the artifact assemblage from inside the structure consisted of a few stoneware sherds, glass fragments, and the lip of a medicine bottle. It appears that the interior deposits consisted mostly of fragments from a collapsed metal roof. These artifacts suggest that this structure served no domestic function. Based on the identification of another structure as the dwelling (located elsewhere on the site) and the negative evidence provided by the artifacts, it is probable that this stone building served as a barn or shed where low artifact density-producing activities took place.

Economic Scaling

In an attempt to gauge the socio-economic status of the people who lived at the Neal-Rice site, the proportion of decorated ceramics recovered from the site was determined in order to calculate an economic scaling index for the site assemblage. Examination of the refined ceramics suggests that only very plain items were purchased. In fact, the Neal-Rice site has a low proportion of molded wares (n=5; 1.4 percent), otherwise decorated wares (n=11; 3.2 percent), and porcelain (n=10; 2.2 percent) (this porcelain percentage does not include two fragments of a doll head) (Tables 2 and 3).

Utilizing Thomas's (1988) late nineteenth century to early twentieth century ceramic indexing formula, 1890 and 1900 indexes of 1.00 were calculated for the Neal-Rice site assemblage (the base number used in economic scaling). This resulted in the lowest index score possible (McBride et al. 1995). By way of comparison, the James L. Brown site, an 1870 to 1915 African-American farmstead of 16.2 ha (40 acres) in Henderson County, had 1890 and 1900 indexes of 1.02 and 1.23, respectively (Wagner 1992, 1995). The William Woods farmstead, a Euro-American farmstead of 56.6 ha (140

acres) in southern Illinois, had indexes of 1.01 and 1.09, respectively (Blanton 1989). The 1900 indexes are higher than the 1890 indexes because of the addition of decalcomania in the 1900 formula.

Based on these data, it appears that many small farmsteads during this particular time period exhibited low economic scaling scores. However, the economic indicators derived from the Neal-Rice site data suggest that the economic capabilities of the Neal-Rice site household were particularly low.

INTERPRETATION OF ARCHAEOLOGICAL AND ARCHITECTURAL EVIDENCE

The archaeological and architectural evidence characterizes the Neal-Rice site as a small domestic site that consisted of a house, a cellar outbuilding, a well, and an outbuilding probably used as a barn or shed. The site was occupied from the 1880s to the 1910s. This is a very tight time span, and the complete lack of artifacts suggesting an occupation later than this date range indicates that it is unlikely the site was ever occupied much past the 1910s. There is no proliferation of plastics, crown capped bottles, screw caps, screen-printed labels, or other artifacts that are indicative of a post-1920s occupation. The small size of the site and the hilly and severely eroded terrain upon which it sits suggests that it probably was not used as a farm, although the site appears to be laid out much like a farmstead. The primary function of the site seems to be strictly domestic, serving only as a residence, with possibly some small-scale subsistence farming also being conducted.

SITE INTERPRETATIONS

THE PEOPLE

Who lived at the Neal-Rice site? Based on the archaeological data and the property's land ownership history, it appears that the Neal-Rice site was occupied by Morris Rice and his family from the 1880s to the early 1900s. The two previous owners of the property, McGinley and Minoque, owned larger parcels of Neal's original 55.7 ha (138 acres) where Neal's home site probably was located. It is doubtful that either of these property owners lived on the 1.6 ha (4-acre) plot on which the Neal-Rice site is located. More than likely, the structures were constructed by Morris Rice when the property first became a 1.6 ha (4-acre) tract (in 1880). Since this particular parcel of land was Morris Rice's only land holding at the time, it would have been his only option upon which to construct a home.

The profile of the site occupants provided by the archaeological evidence complements the historical documents concerning the composition of Morris Rice's family (presence of children) and economic standing (low). Morris Rice is listed only in the 1910 Census Records, after his ownership of the property had ceased. He was listed

as being 54 years old, with his family consisting of his wife, Harriet (age 49), and their three children: Maggie (age 18), Bruce (age 16), and Stanley (age 7). The Census also indicated that Rice was an African-American whose occupation was a stone mason.

It is clear from the archaeological and historical data that Rice was not a very wealthy man; the land he owned consisted mostly of a narrow ridgetop with steeply sloping sides. This land was certainly not considered prime farmland and it is doubtful that Rice grew any crops or raised a large number of animals. More than likely, the Rice family tended a small garden and raised a few animals for their own use. According to the Nicholas County tax records, the only taxable property Rice owned when he lived at the Neal-Rice site was the 1.6 ha (4-acre) parcel of land and a few hogs. However, Rice was able to earn a living as a stone mason, most likely by working on nearby farms, building and maintaining structures and fences.

Rice was not listed in the 1900 Census nor in the 1880 Census (the 1890 Census records for Kentucky burned and are not available). It is probable that he purchased the land after the 1880 Census had been taken and he was apparently missed by the 1900 Census. It was not unusual for Census takers to miss African-Americans in the years following Emancipation. Overall, many forms of records were poorly kept on African-Americans during this period. It should be noted that a Morrison Rice (age 60) and his wife Dinah (age 57) were listed in the 1900 Census as living in Nicholas County, but they are not considered to be the same Rice family listed in the 1910 Census and who lived at the Neal-Rice site.

According to the 1910 Census, Morris Rice and his family were no longer living at the Neal-Rice site. This corroborates the land records, which indicate that he deeded the property in 1901 to Campbell Ledford. Apparently, by 1910 Rice had moved his family to a small nearby African-American community in Nicholas County called Henryville, where he most likely found work utilizing his stone masonry skills (United States 1910). His wife Harriet worked as a laundress and his daughter Maggie as a cook to supplement the family income.

The date range established by the archaeological evidence (1880s-1910s) extends beyond Morris Rice's tenure at the site and into the ownership of Campbell Ledford (1901-1913). The 1.6 ha (4-acre) parcel of land was deeded to Campbell Ledford in 1901, shortly after Rice mortgaged the property for \$150.00 (Nicholas County 18:435). However, Ledford most likely never actually occupied the property. It is possible that Rice may have defaulted on his mortgage and lost the property. The property may have been owned only by Ledford after the default, either through an auction or sale by the bank that issued the loan.

It seems that Rice had some financial difficulties while living at the Neal-Rice site. Ledford may have allowed Rice to rent the homestead for a period after the sale of the property, which would account for the archaeological evidence of a post-1901 occupancy at the site.

Although the Rice family may have fallen on hard economic times toward the end of their occupation at the site, Rice did own his house in Henryville. This suggests that he still could afford to buy property. Therefore, perhaps the move to Henryville was occasioned by other considerations besides financial ones. By 1910, Rice was 54 years old and his health may have deteriorated due to the strenuous work associated with masonry. A health condition could have limited his ability to work, forcing his family to make up the economic difference. Perhaps the rural location of the Neal-Rice site area limited the family's employment opportunities. Therefore, Rice may have moved his family into the community of Henryville to make it easier for Rice and other members of his family to find work. However, the details of this interpretation are only speculative.

Unfortunately, very little is known about Campbell Ledford. The 1910 Census lists only one Ledford family residing in Nicholas County—William Ledford and his family, not Campbell Ledford. Campbell may have been related to William Ledford, who had owned 60.6 ha (150 acres) near the Neal-Rice site in the 1860s (Nicholas County 2:48). It is clear from the documents that Campbell Ledford owned the Neal-Rice site at the time of his death because the property was sold by his heirs to Radford Banta in 1913 (Nicholas County 18:435).

The archaeological evidence suggests that the Neal-Rice site was probably not occupied much past the 1910s. Thus, it is doubtful that the site was occupied much past Ledford's ownership of the property. The property on which the Neal-Rice site sits was owned by various members of the Banta family until 1959 (members of this family owned large portions of land adjacent to the Neal-Rice site property). It is likely that this particular 1.6 ha (4-acre) parcel was just one of the Banta family's many landholdings and was not utilized as a residence. It is possible that Ledford and the Bantas rented-out the property throughout the early 1900s, but there is no archaeological evidence of occupation past the 1910s.

THE BUILDINGS

Given Morris Rice's occupation as a stone mason, it seems appropriate that the surviving structural materials at the Neal-Rice site are made of stone. An architectural analysis of the foundations and architecture-related artifacts can provide additional insights into the site inhabitants and the site's occupation history. All of the information gathered indicates that the structures at the Neal-Rice site were constructed during the Morris Rice family occupation.

House

Based on the characteristics of the extant stone foundation, it appears that the Morris Rice home was a single-pen structure with an exterior-end stone chimney, a rear shed, and a front porch. A similar home, located in Jackson County, Kentucky, is illustrated in Figure 9. The Rice home faced northwest, toward the old Gallows Hill Road (Figure 4). The main unit of the structure (which contained the chimney) as well as the rear shed measured approximately 3 by 6.1 m (10 by 20 ft) each.



Figure 9. A House in Jackson County, Kentucky that May be Similar to the Rice Family's Home.

Identifying the unique architectural contributions of African-Americans is often difficult. This is due to the fact that African and European folk housing is similar in several basic ways - the two building traditions share a repertoire of plans, methods of construction, and a preference for certain building materials. However, in his study of African-American architectural traditions, Vlach (1986:74-76) was able to demonstrate that proxemic continuities rather than technological factors can provide a strong link to African architectural legacies. For example, while the common European room size is 4.9 by 4.9 m (16 by 16 ft), there is an African preference for small, intimate space. His fieldwork in Yoruba, for example, found that the basic house form was a 3 by 6.1 m (10 by 20 ft) two-room building. This double unit constitutes a basic module for the development of other building types. The two-room unit also may be modified by the omission of the partition wall to create a large room that still has the same overall 3 by 6.1 m (10 by 20 ft) dimensions. The basic unit also may be enlarged by adding a second unit of the same size. As stated earlier, the Rice home appears to have consisted of two 3 by 6.1 m (10 by 20 ft) units. As will be demonstrated below, the unit without a chimney was a later addition. Thus, it appears that the Morris Rice home has a direct continuity with the African proxemic code. In the United States, Vlach (1986) found a similar

connection with the shotgun house. Unlike the shotgun house, which was gable-oriented, the Rice home appears to have been eave-oriented.

Nails, sometimes the most common artifacts recovered from historic sites, can often help answer questions concerning building construction, repair and remodeling, abandonment, and destruction. As illustrated in Table 14, 34.7 percent of the nails recovered from the three units (1, 7, and 11; see Figure 4) located inside the Rice home were machine-cut and 65.3 percent were wire. According to Journey's (1987) and Preiss's (1973) estimates, this would place the construction date of the Rice home between 1880 and 1895. Since Rice owned the property during this period, it appears that he either built the home himself or commissioned someone else to build it for him.

Table 14. Nail Types Recovered from Inside House.

Unit Number	Machine-Cut Nails		Wire Nails		Total	Percent
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent		
1	39	42.8	52	57.2	91	100.0
7	8	53.3	7	46.7	15	100.0
11	22	23.6	71	76.4	93	100.0
Total	69	(34.7)	130	(65.3)	199	(100.0)

A closer analysis of the nails reveals additional information about the evolution of the Rice home. For example, while 76.4 percent of the nails recovered from Unit 11, located inside the rear shed, were wire, only 57.2 percent of those recovered from Unit 1, which was located at the back wall of the room with the chimney, were wire (Table 14). This suggests that the rear shed was a later addition. Using Journey's (1987) dating formula, it would have been constructed between 1895 and 1902. Rice sold the property in 1901, thus the nail analysis suggests that Rice made the addition to the home.

This corresponds to a period when the Rice family was rapidly growing. His three children were born between 1892 and 1903: Maggie (1892), Bruce (1894), and Stanley (1903). When they purchased the property in 1880, Rice (age 34) and his wife, Harriet (age 29) were just beginning their family. As the family grew, the single-pen home could no longer accommodate their needs, and thus Rice constructed a shed room addition to the back of his original home. This is the most common traditional method of enlarging single-pen homes in Kentucky. The dimension Rice chose for the addition, however, 3 by 6.1 m (10 by 20 ft), provides a direct link to his African legacy.

A number of scholars have suggested that, based on nail length frequencies, one can determine if a structure was log, timber frame, or balloon frame (Young 1991). Wagner (1992:181-184) summarized the literature on the subject. They found that because the framing of log structures is done with corner notching, there is little need for heavy framing nails (9d and above). Nails 8d and smaller, which were used in light framing around doors, flooring, shingling, finish work, lathing, and siding, were common in log structures. The structural members of timber frame buildings are mortised and

tenoned together. Thus, like log buildings, they would not require heavy framing nails. Balloon frame structures, however, use nails at the joints instead of mortise and tenon joints or corner notching. As a result, a significantly greater number of large nails (10d and greater) would be expected. The number of roofing nails (4d and 5d) and weather boarding nails (7d to 10d) would remain fairly constant in all types of construction.

Box framing was a common construction method employed in Kentucky at the time the Rice house was built. Box framing is a type of construction involving the nailing of boards vertically between sills and plates to form both the interior and exterior walls, as well as the building's weight-bearing support. Narrow strips of wood or battens were often nailed over the cracks on the exterior to produce the appearance of board-and-batten siding. In box framing, all posts, studs, and braces were frequently eliminated. Thus, like log and timber frame construction, one would expect to find few nails larger than 8d at the site of a box-framed house. In his analysis of six box-framed homes in Texas, Jurney (1987:85) found that 8d nails were most often used for wall boards and 5d and 6d nails were commonly used for battens.

Timber-frame homes were no longer being constructed in Kentucky at the time that the Neal-Rice house was built. Not enough large framing nails (10d or greater) were recovered from units inside the house at the Neal-Rice site to support the idea that the home was balloon frame (Table 15). Thus, it appears that Rice either constructed a log or a box house on top of his stone foundation.

Table 15. Nail Sizes from Units Inside House.

Size of Nail	Unit 1		Unit 7		Unit 11		Total	
	Freq.	Pct.	Freq.	Pct.	Freq.	Pct.	Freq.	Pct.
2d	15	23.4	0	0.0	10	13.0	25	17.1
3d	14	21.9	0	0.0	21	27.3	35	24.0
4d	4	6.2	2	40.0	16	20.8	22	15.1
5d	6	9.4	0	0.0	10	13.0	16	11.0
6d	3	4.7	0	0.0	5	6.4	8	5.5
7d	12	18.7	0	0.0	3	3.9	15	10.3
8d	8	12.5	1	20.0	4	5.2	13	8.9
9d	1	1.6	1	20.0	4	5.2	6	4.0
10d	0	0.0	1	20.0	0	0.0	1	0.7
12d	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	1.3	1	0.7
>16d	1	1.6	0	0.0	3	3.9	4	2.7
Total	64	100.0	5	100.0	77	100.0	146	100.0

Further information regarding the correlation of nail size and construction method can be provided by examining the results of archaeological investigations at three sites in Illinois that, based on historical and ethnographic information, were known to have been log structures (Wagner 1992). Nails 8d and smaller represented 100.0 percent, 94.0 percent and 86.4 percent of the nails at these three sites, respectively. At the Neal-Rice site, 91.8 percent of the nails recovered from inside the house were 8d or smaller, which suggests that it, too, may have been a log structure (Table 15). Unfortunately, similar

nail profiles would be expected for a box house. Thus, it is impossible to determine if the house was log or box. However, because box construction was one of the most popular methods of constructing rear additions to log homes at this time, it would have been unusual for a rear addition to a house of this period to have been constructed of logs. Thus, it is likely that both sections of the home were box constructed or that the original unit was log and the addition was boxed.

All that remains above ground of the Morris Rice home is the stone foundation. What happened to the rest of the structure? There are several possibilities. It may have burned or decayed in place or it may have been dismantled, its lumber recycled or hauled to a dump.

Young and Carr (1993) suggest that the condition of nails can help determine the post-occupational outcome of a structure. They separated nails by the way they were bent, or not bent. Unaltered nails are straight (unused), or at least straight enough to be successfully driven into wood. Clinched nails are nails that are bent at an angle of approximately 90 degrees, to increase their holding power. Pulled nails are characterized by a gentle arc shape. In the process of construction, some nails are lost at a site. While some may be cleared from the area, others would undoubtedly enter the archaeological record as unaltered or straight nails. When a building is dismantled, nails are either pulled with a crow bar or hammer, or entire boards are pulled from the building. In either case, this results in pulled nails. Young and Carr (1993) suggest that at a building site where the structure had been dismantled, the nail assemblage would be characterized by a significant proportion of pulled and straight nails, with relatively few clinched nails, which are nearly impossible to remove. At a site where a structure has been allowed to rot, the assemblage should reflect substantial numbers of clinched and straight nails, with relatively few pulled nails.

Table 16 illustrates the condition of the nails recovered from inside the house at the Neal-Rice site. There are large numbers of straight (55.9 percent) and pulled (39.3 percent) nails, but few clinched nails (4.8 percent). This suggests that the Rice home may have been dismantled, its lumber either recycled or hauled to a dump.

Table 16. Whole Nail Conditions for Units Inside House.

Unit Number	Straight		Pulled		Clinched		Total	Pct.
	Freq.	Pct.	Freq.	Pct.	Freq.	Pct.		
1	40	63.5	18	28.6	5	7.9	63	100.0
7	4	80.0	1	20.0	0	0.0	5	100.0
11	37	48.0	38	49.4	2	2.6	77	100.0
Total	81	(55.9)	57	(39.3)	7	(4.8)	145	(100.0)

Barn

The historic records (census and tax) and the archaeological record suggest that Rice was practicing subsistence agriculture. Since little livestock or excess crops would

have been produced from such small-scale farming and since Kentucky has relatively mild winters, it would not have been necessary for Rice to construct a large barn (referred to previously as the stone outbuilding). Based on the surviving foundation, it appears that he constructed a square, single-crib barn measuring approximately 4.9 by 4.9 m (16 by 16 ft) with a 3.6 by 3 m (12 by 10 ft) shed on one side.



Figure 10. A Barn in Jackson County, Kentucky.

The single-crib barn is the basic barn type found throughout the Southern United States. It has a gable roof with the entrance in the gable end. The crib is usually divided into two levels, with the lower one utilized for corn storage and the upper one as a hay loft. Most farming operations quickly outgrew the basic single-crib unit and the first stage of expansion consisted of shed additions. The fact that both late machine-cut and wire nails were found near the Rice barn suggests that the smaller shed unit may have been an addition. The sheds of single-crib barns, which were usually built of a lighter material than the central crib and with a lower pitch, were used for stabling livestock and equipment storage. Figure 10 is a photograph of a single-crib log barn with two frame shed additions located in Jackson County, Kentucky.

Unlike the Jackson County barn, Rice's barn had an unusually high stone foundation (Figure 3). This was likely due to his skill as a stone mason. The extant stone walls rise as high as 0.76 m (2.5 ft) in some sections. Despite their height, they would have been topped by a log or frame second level. Kentuckians continued to construct log barns well into the twentieth century, long after logs ceased to be a popular construction material for homes. At the time the Rice barn was built, both log and single-crib frame barns were commonly being constructed in the region. While it is not known which construction method was used, the fact that few nails were recovered from the area (six

wire and three cut) suggests that the barn was log. The shed addition, however, was most likely frame.

Cellar

Cellars provide storage for canned goods, turnips, potatoes, and other root crops, as well as other vegetables and foodstuffs. They are usually small, partially subterranean, stone structures. Stone walls on a partially subterranean outbuilding were essential for preservation of certain foods, particularly root products. The cellar is usually located near the back of the home.

Writing in 1881, about the time the Rice cellar was built, Halsted, the author of *Barns, Sheds & Outbuildings* suggested that, “The leading features of a good root cellar are: cheapness, nearness to the place where the roots are consumed, dryness, ventilation, and, above all, it should be frost-proof” (Halsted 1994:224). Though it is unlikely that Rice actually read Halsted’s work, his cellar had many of the features suggested by the author. For example, it was located near the back of his house and appears to have been a field root cellar, a type which Halsted suggested was cheap to construct (Figure 11). A field root cellar was built by excavating a hole in dry ground, constructing a roof over the hole and covering it with soil, forming a mound that could be planted in grass. In light soils, it was necessary to place a stone, brick or post-and-board wall against the sides of the cellar, and at the ends.

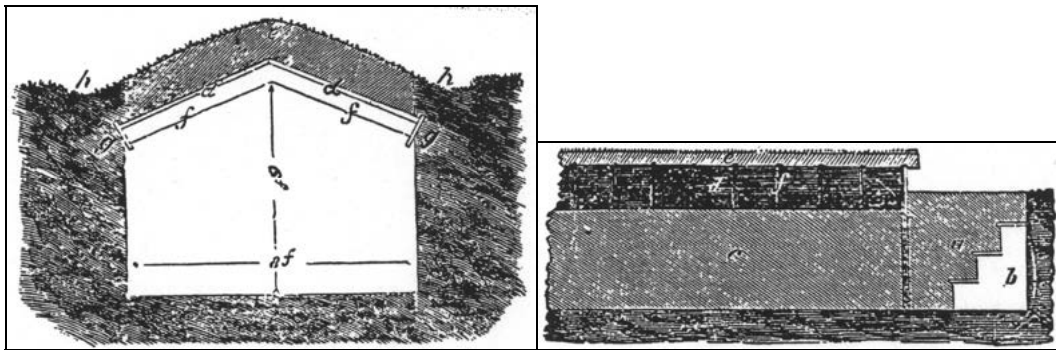


Figure 11. Diagrams of a Root Cellar (from Halsted 1994 [1881]).

Being a stone mason, it is not surprising that the walls of his cellar were constructed out of field stone. At one end of the stone foundation, researchers documented a single wood post (Figure 12). This was where the door was located. The door opened onto steps that led into the cellar. Although the cellar’s roof did not survive, metal sheathing from the collapsed roof was recovered from inside the cellar. A ventilation pipe, which most likely projected through the roof to provide air, was not recovered. Figure 13 is a photograph of an extant field root cellar located in Nicholas County, at the intersection of Kentucky State Highways 32 and 36, just a few kilometers from the Neal-Rice site. Though it is larger than the Rice cellar, the two structures appear to have been of similar construction.



Figure 12. Remains of the Cellar at the Neal-Rice Site.



Figure 13. An Existing Cellar a Few Miles from the Neal-Rice Site.

BROADER RESEARCH ISSUES

Analyses of the historic documents, architectural remains, and artifactual materials recovered from the Neal-Rice site and the interpretations about the people who lived there and the buildings constructed provide a glimpse into the life of an African-American family during Postbellum Reconstruction. The subject of Postbellum Reconstruction is a particularly important one in Kentucky history and is under-represented in archaeological investigations, particularly for African-Americans (McBride and McBride 1990).

The information recovered from the Neal-Rice site has the potential to contribute to an understanding of broader African-American research topics. Through the examination of this and other African-American sites, researchers can study how African-Americans made a new life for themselves after Emancipation and the difficulties they had in doing so. Furthermore, such research also can serve as an important tool for establishing an understanding of the historical development of African-American culture in Kentucky. In this section, two issues, consumerism, and African-American tenancy and land ownership, are briefly discussed in order to provide an idea of the research potential of sites like the Neal-Rice site and the potential for their comparison to a variety of other site types.

CONSUMERISM

One of the ways in which people can express their status, desires, or even freedom is by consuming goods, and there are many factors that guide this motivation: personal taste, style, political perspective, and ethnic affiliation, among others. Therefore, much can be learned about a family just by examining their table setting and the ceramics with which they chose to furnish it. By considering consumerism within the context of post-Emancipation African-American life, it is possible to interpret much about this formative period in African-American culture. The following discussion illustrates the research potential the Neal-Rice site, and other sites like it, holds with respect to this topic.

Despite the Rice family's low economic standing, the ceramic artifacts recovered from the Neal-Rice site indicate that the family purchased or acquired fairly new dishes. The site produced little evidence of older ceramics, such as pearlware or early whitewares. Most of the ceramics were undecorated whiteware and white granite, the most common ceramics purchased at the turn of the twentieth century. Decal and pattern-molded decorated ceramics, the more expensive early twentieth century ceramics, also were represented at the Neal-Rice site, though minimally.

Late nineteenth century African-American households typically possessed a wide range of ceramic types, particularly older types that could be purchased at a very low cost or acquired used (Mullins 1999). Whether Rice purchased ceramics at full price or from bargain odd lots, his table setting displayed newer dishes. While these dishes may have been new, they do not appear to be part of a matching set. Although undecorated dishes

from a variety of sources can give the appearance of a matched set, Rice's dishes were most likely not part of a matching set. Four different ceramic manufacturers were represented in the tableware recovered at the Neal-Rice site, suggesting that mismatched sets of dishes were purchased piecemeal. This particular consumption trend is similar to late nineteenth century urban African-American home sites in Annapolis, Maryland studied by Mullins (1999).

Although many of the ceramic vessels in the Neal-Rice site assemblage were utilitarian, like crocks and bowls, finer tablewares were well represented, particularly tea wares like cups and saucers. Added to the dishes were table glasswares in the form of tumblers and stemware. Again, these items could have been purchased at a reduced cost from bargain odd lots or as incomplete sets, but it seems that Rice wanted tablewares reflecting the latest style and etiquette.

While Rice's actual economic capabilities were rather low, he seemed intent on displaying a sense of higher status through the consumption of goods reflecting the latest styles. He lived at the Neal-Rice site at a time when mass-produced goods were changing the way Americans consumed. Rice seems to have been an active participant in this consumer revolution. Even in his rural location, many products were available through mail order catalogs and were easily transported over long distances due to improved product packaging (Mullins 1999; Schlereth 1989).

The numerous metal can fragments found at the site suggest that Rice purchased some canned food products, although most Americans still purchased food in bulk from local stores at this time. Other researchers have demonstrated a trend among late nineteenth century African-American households towards the extensive purchasing of packaged foods and national brands. It has been suggested that these trends may have been associated with an attempt by African-American households to subvert racism and discrimination at local stores (Mullins 1999). It was believed that producers of packaged and national brand products could not discriminate due to standardization. This trend also suggests that African-Americans were gaining status in society at this time through consumerism. The increasing power of African-American consumerism was well recognized by businesses in the early twentieth century as they began to target the African-American consumer through advertising (Edwards 1932). It is unclear whether these interpretations are relevant to Rice and his family, but his consumer patterns seem to mirror the urban African-American households studied by Mullins (1999).

Whether or not the Rice family's consumer habits are indicative of their ethnicity, their habits certainly indicate that they were intent on participating in America's mass consumerism. They did not necessarily purchase only the things they needed to survive. They also apparently tried to make a statement of status and freedom through their ability to consume. This brief analysis of consumerism only hints at the possible insights that could be realized through a more in-depth study of the Neal-Rice site artifact assemblage.

AFRICAN-AMERICAN TENANCY AND LAND OWNERSHIP

Research conducted at the Neal-Rice site also provides an opportunity to investigate the demographic developments that occurred during Reconstruction, as tenancy spread throughout the Commonwealth and the South. Increased tenancy was part of a nationwide trend at this time. It was more prevalent in the South—in 1900, tenants farmed almost 50 percent of all farms compared to only 26 percent in the North (Woodman 1996).

During the time that Morris Rice and his family lived at the Neal-Rice site, America was in the process of recovering from the Civil War. The defeated South was in a period of transition from the system of slavery that ran huge agricultural operations to small farms and tenancy. With the breakup of the large plantations from 1880 to 1920, tenancy increased 13 percent in the South. The trends of tenancy for the South as a region are comparable to those found in Kentucky (McBride and McBride 1990).

Although proportionally most tenants were white, African-Americans were more likely to be tenants than whites. In 1900, the first Census that tracked tenancy by race, 74 percent of African-American farmers were tenants, compared to only 36 percent for whites (Woodman 1996). This was not an alarming number, because tenancy had long been considered a crucial step towards land ownership. It was expected that tenancy would be an important step for former slaves to assimilate into the American tradition of land ownership. Part of this thinking stemmed from the old perceptions during slavery that African-Americans were not capable of taking care of themselves, much less operating their own farms. Tenancy was seen as a sort of training for ex-slaves (Woodman 1996).

Morris Rice's ownership of the Neal-Rice site represents an unusual situation for an African-American during the years shortly after the Civil War. More than likely, Rice was once himself a tenant, but eventually he was able to purchase property. On the surface, it appears that Rice may have been a wealthy or privileged African-American, but a closer examination of the situation suggests that his ownership of the Neal-Rice site may have been more symbolic than economic.

Evidence indicates that Morris Rice most likely held an economic standing on the same level as a tenant, i.e., a rather low economic status. However, it does not appear that Rice purchased the Neal-Rice site property for commercial agriculture use—it only consisted of 1.6 ha (4 acres) and its soils were poorly suited for farming. Morris Rice apparently purchased this rural land specifically for the purpose of living on it because he had the opportunity and the ability to do so. This was contradictory to the traditional view of rural land ownership as a purely subsistence or commercial venture. Landownership was seen as power, representing wealth and status.

Morris Rice lived in a rural area, but he was not a farmer. It was more typical for African-Americans as well as whites, particularly if they possessed a specific skill, to move to urban areas during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries (Pleck 1979).

Morris Rice's talents as a stone mason probably would have been more conducive to living in an urban environment, where construction opportunities were greater. However, it seems that Rice was able to make a living for 21 years at this rural location. Most likely, he built and mended buildings and stone fences for local farmers and residents in nearby towns.

Owning land would not have been a particularly easy task to accomplish for Morris Rice. Poverty and racism were certainly major obstacles to owning land for African-Americans. Before the Civil War, slavery was well established in Nicholas County (one person in seven was a slave), but, overall, there were fewer slaves and more free Negroes in Nicholas County than in surrounding counties (Conley 1976). Though it cannot be documented conclusively that Rice was born a slave, it is likely that he was. The emancipation of slaves in 1865, when Rice was 15, opened up a new world of opportunities and restrictions. One opportunity was the right to buy land, which Rice did in 1880.

After the War, dislike of Negroes forced African-Americans to settle in less desirable areas of towns or in villages that had their beginnings as free towns (Wright 1985). This led to increasing segregation. However, it is not known whether any of the African-American settlements in Nicholas County had their beginnings as free towns.

The closest African-American settlement to Rice's home place was the community of Hickory Ridge, located about 2 km (1 1/4 miles) northeast of his house. Hickory Ridge was made up of little more than the Methodist Episcopal Church of America, built in 1894 (of which Rice was a trustee), and a school. After the church was destroyed by a tornado and the school was destroyed by a fire in 1904, the community began to disappear (Conley 1976). Proximity to Hickory Ridge may have been one of the incentives for Rice to purchase the Neal-Rice site property. When Morris Rice sold the property, he remained within the parameters of segregated society at the time and moved to the African-American community of Henryville, also located in Nicholas County.

Although Rice was not a wealthy man, it seems that owning property was an important statement for him. When he left the Neal-Rice site for Henryville, he purchased property again. Owning land may have given Rice the feeling of true freedom at a time when many African-Americans and whites were economically enslaved by tenancy. However, it would take much longer for African-Americans to break free of the enslavement of racism.

SUMMARY

Excavations at the Neal-Rice site from 1994 to 1996 recovered a total of 4,091 artifacts from hand-excavated units placed inside and outside of the foundations of a house, barn, and root cellar. The site contains the domestic refuse and architectural remains of a late nineteenth to early twentieth century African-American homestead.

Documents suggest that Morris Rice, an African-American stone mason, purchased the 1.6 ha (4-acre) piece of property on which he built a house, barn, root cellar, and fence in the 1880s. Here he and his family, likely the only occupants of the site, lived until ca. 1910.

Research conducted at the Neal-Rice site recovered important data from a turn-of-the-twentieth century African-American homestead. The archaeological, architectural, and historical data from this site provide a rare opportunity to study rural Kentucky African-Americans at the end of the nineteenth century. As archaeologists begin to examine in greater detail the beginnings of post-Emancipation African-American culture, more intensive study of these data will contribute additional interpretations about the people who once lived at the Neal-Rice site and about African-American households in general during this era. This very unique dataset also will be an important comparative tool for other African-American archaeological studies in Kentucky and elsewhere.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Research at the Neal-Rice site was conducted as part of the 4-H Cultural Heritage Project. Conceived of as a pilot project, it had two major purposes: education and site management. As part of the former, the goal was to enhance 4-H youths' appreciation of prehistory and history by involving them in all aspects of "real live" archaeological research. The goal of the latter was to evaluate cultural resources on Kentucky's four 4-H camps to develop plans for their protection and management.

Investigations at one of the camps, North Central 4-H Camp in northcentral Nicholas County, were initiated in 1994 after 4-H adult volunteer Cheryl Bersaglia's research of historical documents identified eight potential historic archaeological sites on camp property. The first year of investigations consisted of two weeks of fieldwork, weekend days of lab work, and the preparation of educational activities and a management plan for the camp's cultural resources. Project personnel presented preliminary findings at the Kentucky Heritage Council's 12th Annual Archaeology Conference in Richmond, Kentucky (McBride et al. 1995). These activities were funded in part by a Federal Survey and Planning Grant from the Kentucky Heritage Council to the University of Kentucky's Program for Cultural Resource Assessment and by the Kentucky 4-H Program.

In 1995, one week of field/lab work was supported by North Central's Camp Committee, the 4-H programs of the three participating counties (Madison, Robertson, and Rowan), and the Kentucky Archaeological Survey. In 1996, the University of Kentucky College of Agriculture awarded a Program Enhancement Grant to the Madison County 4-H Program to support an Archaeology Weekend, open to all Kentucky 4-H high school students, as well as for architectural research and report preparation. These activities were carried out by the Kentucky Archaeological Survey and a private historic architectural consultant. The Kentucky Archaeological Survey supported other project

research and educational activities, including a one-day site reconnaissance, a 4-H agents' workshop, a 4-H Senior Week workshop, an exhibit at the 1995 Kentucky State Fair, and development of a permanent museum exhibit for North Central 4-H Camp.

It is impossible to thank everyone who has contributed to our work at North Central—hundreds of 4-H campers; scores of adult volunteers, agents, and county 4-H programs (especially Madison and Fayette counties); and dozens of administrators—but a few individuals deserve special mention. Mark Morgan, former Madison County 4-H Youth Development Extension Agent, took a personal interest in the project from the very beginning. He saw enormous opportunities for youth education and development and worked to make sure we had the resources to realize them. Jennifer Lynn, North-Central 4-H Camp's Environmental Director, has been an enthusiastic supporter of the project. She has worked to ensure that the results of the project will enrich 4-H campers for many years through the camp museum exhibit and the educational activities developed for the camp. The support of the University of Kentucky's Agricultural Extension Program's 4-H administrators Dwight Crum, John Mobray, and Bill Umsheid, was critical to the project's initiation.

Finally, we would like to thank the scores of 4-H campers of all ages and from many counties who directly participated in the project. The hard work and enthusiasm of these 4-H "youth archaeologists" made this project a truly special one for us.

The 4-H Cultural Heritage Project was a resounding success, both in terms of research results and in terms of youth education, and it can serve as a model for involving other youth organizations in archaeology. The research at North Central 4-H Camp has made a contribution to our understanding of Kentucky's past and will continue to make a contribution for a long time to come. Hopefully, through our educational efforts, the long-term outcome of this project will be the creation of a constituency that supports archaeological site preservation for the present and the future.

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