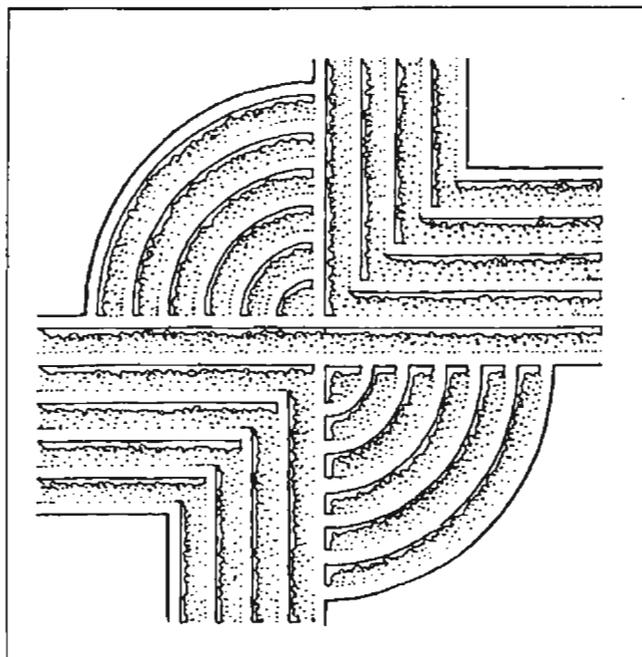


ARCHAEOLOGICAL TEST EXCAVATIONS AT
THE DICKSON-WILLIAMS HOUSE, GREENE
COUNTY, TENNESSEE



RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 115

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**ARCHAEOLOGICAL TEST EXCAVATIONS AT THE
DICKSON-WILLIAMS HOUSE, GREENE COUNTY, TENNESSEE**

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INTRODUCTION

Chicora Foundation was requested in early June 1993 by Mr. George Fore, architectural conservator for the Williams-Dickson House in Greeneville, Tennessee, to prepare a proposal for archaeological testing addressing specific architectural issues. A proposal was developed and submitted to the architectural firm of Vaughn and Melton, responsible for the on-going restoration efforts, on June 9, 1993. The proposed research was approved and an agreement to perform the work was initiated on June 16, 1993. The excavations were undertaken by the author, Chicora's Research Archaeologist, Ms. Natalie Adams, and an associate archaeologist, Ms. Kris Fowler, during the week of August 30, 1993. A total of 108 person hours were devoted to the field investigations. This brief report provides the results of those investigations and our recommendations for archaeological preservation at the site. The artifacts recovered will be cataloged by Chicora Foundation for permanent curation with the Williams-Dickson House using a generalized cataloging system. This will be suitable for eventual incorporation into the House's overall accessioning practices for other artifacts.

Project Goals and Methodology

The major goal of this research is to allow a better understanding of a variety of architectural features, ensuring a more sensitive and accurate interpretation of the structure's fabric. Specific architectural questions essential to the renovation of the structure and grounds included:

- determining whether basement door openings were originally included in the area of the west elevation where today there are oversized window openings,
- identifying additional information about the original porch on the west elevation,
- exploring the nature of the stone and brick foundation incorporated into the east elevation of the kitchen wing construction, and
- evaluating below ground evidence for the "music room" known to have been attached to the west elevation of the kitchen wing.

Each of these questions was keyed to architectural research being conducted by Mr. George Fore of George Fore and Associates, Raleigh, North Carolina. Architectural recordation had discovered the presence of two 5 foot wide openings arranged asymmetrically on the ground floor and today incorporated in the building fabric as windows. The openings, infilled with brick, were known to extend to the basement floor and there was speculation that they may represent original doorways to the house. Archaeological research was to determine whether these features represented doors and if they dated from the original construction of the house.

The architectural research also identified a row of cut nails set in lead over the first floor door on the west elevation of the house. This was interpreted to represent a flashing line for a porch roof, extending about 10 feet from the north edge of the door to the south, thereby suggesting a porch, also 10 feet in length, although it was impossible, based on the architectural evidence to arrive at any additional details concerning this suspected porch. Archaeological research was designed to determine whether additional details, such as the width of the porch and step details could be determined.

On the east elevation of the kitchen extension Fore discovered what appeared to be a stone and brick foundation incorporated into the later masonry construction. The stone is laid in mortar with brick fill between what appear to be two stone piers. On the interior of the kitchen wall there is a small brick arch. The archaeological research was to supervise the removal of twentieth century concrete pours in this area and determine if there were any remaining intact cultural materials which might help explain this feature. Since it was speculated that this feature represented a portion of an earlier structure removed to construct the extant kitchen addition, ideally additional foundation remains would be identified.

Finally, at least one late nineteenth century map reveals the presence of what has been interpreted as a frame addition to the kitchen for use as study or music room. The presence of this addition was seen architecturally in the partial removal of water table brick work for the location of floor joists. It was hoped that archaeological investigations would identify additional foundation piers associated with this addition and allow a better understanding its construction.

It is obvious that much of this work was intimately related to the sponsor-oriented goals of preservation, stabilization, restoration, and reconstruction, with the potential for many of the "problems" outlined by Stanley South (1977:23-24). For example, financial realities forced the analysis of recovered artifacts to be minimal, with the concentration of resources devoted to answering specific questions. Yet, the artifacts associated with these excavations have the potential to answer many questions regarding the lives of those associated with the Dickson-Williams House, both through time and, especially, during the early history of East Tennessee.

Perhaps more to the point, of course, is that the sponsor's needs and questions relate to relatively "low order" archaeological inquiries -- the nature of the physical world incorporating the house. In fact, there was only one question -- relating to the presence of an earlier frontier structure -- which would be deemed by most archaeologists as "anthropological." This, perhaps more than any other issue, frustrates the relationship between architectural historians/conservators and archaeologists. While the one has an interest in the reality of the structure as preserved in the ground, the other is interested in reconstructing past lifeways.

Of course such a dichotomy, at least in this case, is overstated. Partially the potential problems were ameliorated by the exceptional interest and understanding of both George Fore and Bill Gass, as well as their desire to *also* understand how the occupants lived at the site. At the same time it is important for archaeologists to explore opportunities for combining both site-specific and more general research interests. Such an approach was relatively easy in this case since so little is known about urban development in eastern Tennessee or the activities of the early inhabitants. Lacking extensive studies of frontier development in eastern Tennessee, this archaeology provides basic descriptive and classificatory data, the "basic foundation of historical archaeology" (South 1977:21). It is hoped, as a result of this work, that not only will the Dickson-Williams House have additional data to help develop a realistic, accurate site interpretation, but that future archaeological research will benefit from this initial comparative data base.

The goal of this initial work, beyond the essential evaluation of architectural issues, was to explore the nature of the artifact deposits. Questions to be posed were: what types of artifacts are present? Are remains from the use of the building still present as domestic refuse? Are either soil or architectural features present which can further contribute to an understanding of the structure and its past history? Can the builder's trench (if present) contribute toward dating the origin of the structure? What is the nature of refuse disposal practices in the "urban frontier"?

We realized that many of these questions may be unanswerable on the basis of the limited

excavations proposed (the work being only testing by anyone's definition). Yet, it should be possible to determine whether **additional excavations would be likely** to answer the questions. If, based on this initial research, additional work would be of assistance to understanding the structure and its function Chicora would make recommendations to that effect. These recommendations would help the Dickson-Williams project preserve vital archaeological information while proceeding with the essential architectural restoration efforts.

To address these concerns we proposed a series of close interval auger tests in the yard and controlled excavations. Based on these sources of information it would be possible to determine whether stripping of selected site areas could be accomplished without damaging the archaeological integrity of the site.

The close interval auger survey would use a two-person 12-inch mechanical auger to quickly collect information on sub-surface deposits, especially the distribution of any sheet midden which might be associated with the house. All fill from the tests would be screened through $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch mesh and the tests would be sequentially numbered. The auger tests would be placed in all areas which were accessible to the study and a 20-foot interval would be used to assure relatively precise information on artifact distribution.

The formal units would be 10 feet square or some derivation (5-foot or 5 by 10 foot units, for example). We proposed English measurements rather than metric as a matter of convenience since we were working with a structure built using English feet and inches. Units were to be excavated using natural stratigraphic levels, with all fill screened through $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch mesh. All artifacts were to be bagged by provenience with soil samples collected for every zone. Horizontal control would be maintained in relationship to the standing structure. Vertical control would be maintained through the use of a mean sea level elevation point. Units would be trowelled at the base of excavations (or at various significant zones), photographed in b/w and color, and drawn at a scale of 1 inch to 2 feet. Profiles would be drawn at this same horizontal scale and an exaggerated vertical scale of 1 inch to one foot. In other words, we proposed standard archaeological techniques which would allow the maximum amount of data be obtained for the possible time investment.

No significant alterations of this methodology were made in the field. We discovered that only the north and west yards were accessible for auger survey, the east yard being covered either in construction materials or a concrete pad, while the south yard was heavily contoured for twentieth century alterations (primarily an alleyway associated with other structures). Consequently, the auger survey was confined to those open areas evidencing minimal disturbance. During our work the concrete pad on the east elevation of the kitchen addition was removed, allowing access to this area. A backhoe was also provided by the contractor for use to stripping site areas as discussed below.

Location and Extant Environment Conditions

The Dickson-Williams House is situated in downtown Greeneville, Tennessee bordered by North Irish Street to the west and Church Street to the north. To the east is an alley separating the house from the Greene County Office Complex, while another alley separated the house from commercial buildings to the south (Figure 1). Topography in the area has been extensively affected by the primarily late nineteenth and early twentieth century commercial developments, although it is still possible to see that the house was situated on the east edge of a ridge crest, with elevations dropping dramatically to the east toward what was once the headwaters of Richland Creek. A small tributary flowed southeast-northwest along the north side of the ridge crest, while another tributary was originally found to the south. The nineteenth century house location, therefore, was well situated on high ground overlooking water sources in three directions. The house would have overlooked a valley defined by a large ridge about a half mile to the southeast. Today most of these creeks have

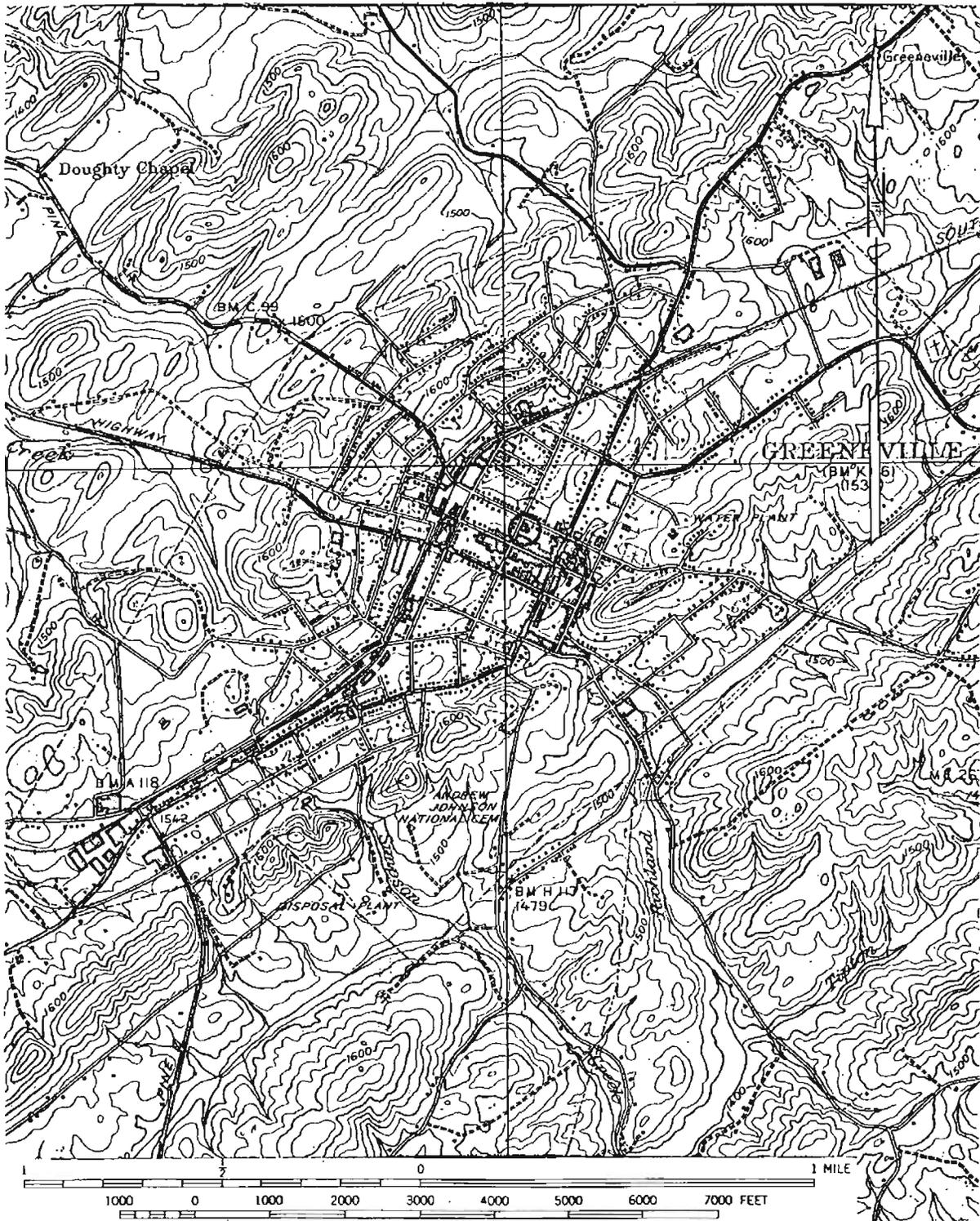


Figure 1. Portion of the 1940 edition of the USGS Greenville 7.5' topographic map showing the Dickson-Williams House location and topographic setting.

been diverted or buried by town construction and the topography has been extensively altered by commercial development to the point where it is difficult to obtain a clear view of the nineteenth century landscape.

Greeneville itself is situated in the eastern division of Tennessee, in a northeast-southwest trending valley just west of the Unaka Mountain Physiographic Region, part of the major geographic division called the Appalachian Highlands, or more familiarly the Appalachian Mountains (Figure 2) and part of the Great Valley Region. To the southeast are the Bald Mountains on the Tennessee-North Carolina border of Greeneville County, while to the northwest are Bays Mountains, on the border of Greene and Hawkins counties. The Unaka Mountains vary in width from two to twenty miles, representing the highest and most rugged surface in the state. While there are elevations of upwards of 6,000 feet, Greeneville is at an elevation of about 1500 feet, more typical of the Great Valley (also termed the Ridge and Valley Region). It varies from 35 to 55 miles in width and elevations ranging from 1600 feet in the northeast to 700 feet in the southwest area of the region (Folmsbee et al. 1969).

The geology of the Greeneville area is complex. To the east, the Unaka Mountains incorporate rocks such as granite, gneiss, schist, shale, slate, sandstone, conglomerates, and quartzite. During the mountain-building period of geologic history these rocks were folded and faulted. Erosion of the more soluble materials resulted in the creation of valleys or coves. Soils in the coves range from shallow to moderately deep, often steep, and in places stony. In spite of these limitations, these valleys have been cultivated through time, while the neighboring mountain ranges are primarily known for their economic importance of forest resources. The Great Valley Region exhibits rocks which are almost entirely sedimentary and typically of a limestone, although harder shales and sandstones are also found. The fertile valleys, such as the one in which Greeneville is found, is the result of the wearing away of the soluble limestone, with the more resistant sandstones and cherts forming the surrounding ridges.¹

Although the Great Valley is dominated by the Tennessee River, most of Greene County is drained by the Nolichucky River and its tributaries, such as Richland Creek which ran through Greeneville. Native vegetation is hardwood and pine forest. Low-growing birch, spruce, and fir are at very high elevations, while poplar is one of the primary building materials of historic sites in the region.

In Greene County the valley area is very cool with occasional cold and warm spells, while the upper slopes of the nearby mountains are generally cold. In summer, the valley areas are typically warm (frequently hot), while the mountains go through daily warming and cooling trends. Precipitation is heavy and evenly distributed throughout the year. Cultivation is limited to hardy crops and typically occurs only in the valleys. Historically the region has been dominated by subsistence crops and grains such as wheat, oats, and corn. Although having a long history of tobacco cultivation, Greene began to dominate the burley market in the late nineteenth century. "Traditional" southern plantation crops such as cotton and sweet potatoes were never common in the area, largely because of climatic limitations (Hilliard 1984).

Historic Overview

This research did not specifically incorporate any historical research on the Dickson-Williams House or associated plantations. The portions of these discussions related specifically to the house are gleaned from background work conducted by those associated with the development of the site. While

¹ See Braun (1950:489-493) and especially Fenneman (1938) for a brief account of the physiographic history of the region.

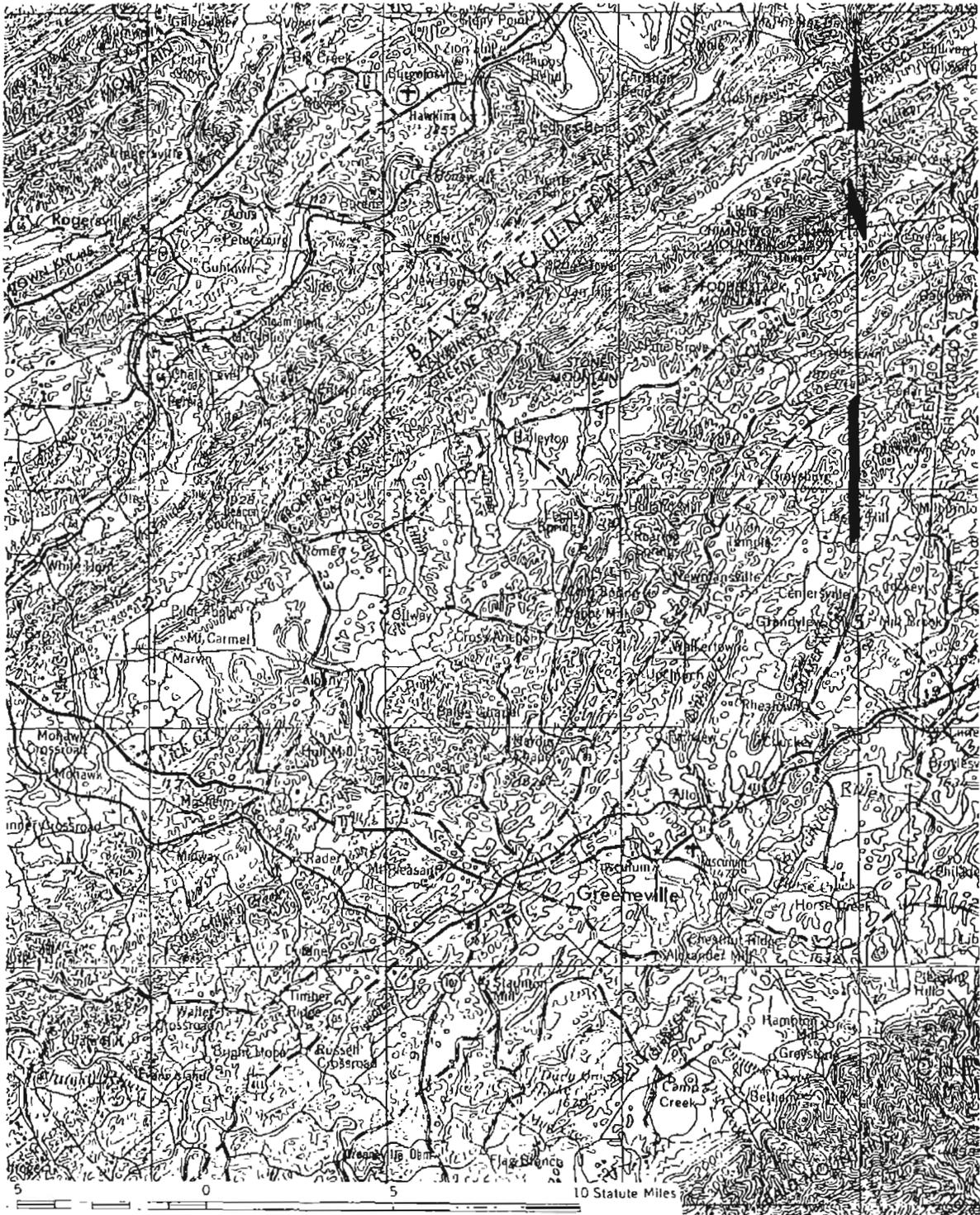


Figure 2. Vicinity of Greene County, Tennessee (from the 1957 USGS Johnson City 1:250,000 mapping).

a great deal is known about the family members who lived at the house, relatively less is known about the economic history of the family -- an area of tremendous concern to our interpretations of material culture.

The early history of the Tennessee region is primarily the history of failed Indian-White relations. A series of pre-Statehood treaties between 1770 and 1791 cleared the way for settlement in what is today Tennessee by removing land from the control of the Cherokee and Chickasaw Indians (Folmsbee et al. 1969:145-147). Even by 1796, when Tennessee entered the Union, up to three-quarters of the state was claimed by various Indian groups. Settlement in the vicinity of Greene County began in the last quarter of the eighteenth century, and those settling on the Watauga and Nolichucky forming loose homespun governments, such as the Watauga Association, while those in the Cumberland Valley were organized under the auspices of the Transylvania Company. Regardless, these frontier settlements were well established by the time the Franklin government met in Greeneville in 1785, just a few years after the county was created by the North Carolina legislature (for a more detailed account of this local history see Smith 1980:7-8). By the time Tennessee was formally admitted to the Union nearly a decade later, the state contained 10,613 slaves and 66,649 free whites. Statehood, even at this late date, was tied to what was seen as a "vital interest" of protecting land from Indian claims (Folmsbee et al. 1969:106). An early account of the region mentions crossing "the grand island ford of the Nolachucky" and only that the "low lands are very rich; the uplands barren" (the Journal of Bishop; Francis Asbury quoted in Williams 1928:300).

Folmsbee et al. (1969:117) note that while agricultural returns were higher in eastern Tennessee, there was greater fertility in the Nashville Basin and it was in Middle Tennessee that the plantation system of agriculture, with its use of slave labor, began. As early as 1795 more than 20% of the population in that area were African American slaves, while fewer than 12½% of the population in the eastern division were slaves. This led to an early dichotomy in Tennessee politics, some of which is seen in the history of the Dickson-Williams House.

Research indicates that construction on the house began between 1812 and 1815, and was completed about 1821 after a brief interruption caused by a fire in part of the work. There is no indication of any previous buildings on the site, although by this date it seems likely that Greeneville would have already been a prosperous settlement. The house was built by William Dickson for his only daughter, Catharine Douglass Dickson, who married Dr. Alexander Williams in 1823.²

The grounds are reported to have incorporated most of the block bordered by Main, Depot, Irish, and Church streets and to have contained extensive gardens to the east. While it is difficult to assess the validity of the oral history, it is reported that the gardens were laid out in a formal fashion with a large number of flowers, hedges, and boxwoods. At the entrance there was a park called "Greenlot,"³ in which elm trees were incorporated into the design. From these vague descriptions it can be discerned that the garden consisted at least of two elements: the informal park-like area between the house and the terminal point on Main Street, as well as a perhaps more formal flower and thicket (or hedge) garden closer to the house. In addition, it seems likely that there would have been

² The house and a series of four lots, described as "the place where the said Williams now lives," were deeded by William Dickson to Alexander Williams in 1826, suggesting that Williams and his wife took possession before the date of the deed. The various lots mentioned were acquired by Dickson no earlier than 1818 and as late as 1822, offering bracketed construction dates for the house.

³ It was in a house on this "Greenlot" that Catharine Douglass Dickson was supposed to have been born in 1802, suggesting that at least portions of the property were owned by Dickson prior to his ca. 1818-1822 purchases and indicating that a variety of farmstead structures were likely present.

a kitchen garden serving the structure. This generalized reconstruction is certainly appropriate for the time. The picturesque landscape movement evolved in the eighteenth century in reaction to the strict, formalized gardens typical in Europe. While the Age of Reason demanded that order be imposed on nature, the succeeding period strove to work with natural elements to create a pastoral view (Cooper 1982; Favretti and Favretti 1977). The Dickson-Williams plan may have incorporated features of both Sir Humphrey Reston, who emphasized the use of a variety of trees and flowers, and J.C. Loudon who also used trees, shrubs, and flowers as the most important part of the landscape. Regardless of the exact influence, the garden's use of paths and the park or natural area east of the house are all typical of the broad theme of the picturesque movement. Coupled with these, however, are also the formal gardens which incorporated the use of boxwood avenues and circles, and the flower parterres, which are suggested by a painting which shows the east elevation of the house. These seem to emphasize order and control, clearly distinguishing them from the more picturesque areas. Consequently, there is some evidence that the Dickson-Williams gardens may reflect a combination of ideas and themes.

The architecture of the house has been characterized as very formal Federal, with the design developed by two Irish architects -- Thomas Battersby and John Hoy. Curiously, the same design elements were used by these architects in other houses in the Greene County area.

By 1822 one of the first antislavery newspapers, *The Genius of Universal Emancipation*, was published in Greeneville and the town continued its strong abolitionist ties, hosting a convention in 1861 to petition that east Tennessee be separated from the rest of the state (Bergeron 1979:15, 44). It is suggested that the Dickson family were wealthy slave owners, although they would have been in the minority in this section of Tennessee. Not only was population kept low in eastern Tennessee by the constant migration into Middle and Western Tennessee, Arkansas, and Texas (Folmsbee et al. 1969:299), but slaves formed a very small percentage of the population. For example, Greeneville had a population before the Civil War of only 660 people, and in 1850 only 6.2% of the population was slave (n=1,093) (DeBow 1854:303). In fact, slaves comprised less than 10% of Greene County's population from 1810 through the Civil War and in 1860 over 90% of the Greene County slave owners held fewer than 10 slaves with none holding 50 or more. Also in contrast to the areas more closely tied to slavery, Greene County's farms were typically small -- in 1860 the average size was less than 300 acres (Hilliard 1984). Wallenstein (1991) clearly documents the correlation of Union sympathy with the yeoman farmers, noting that east Tennessee (an area containing only 17% of the state's slaves but 46% of the white population) supplied three-quarters of Tennessee's white Union soldiers.

It is therefore not surprising that the Williams family itself had split loyalties, nor that both the Union and Confederate forces used the house. What is more surprising is the amassing of wealth evidenced by the grandeur of the house in an area marked by its more plebeian social order. A decade before the Civil War Greene County boasted 1346 farms, averaging 92 acres of improved land and nearly 139 acres of unimproved land with an average value of \$1268. The county ranked first in wheat (99,970 bushels) and maple sugar (17,764 pounds) production, second in flax production (26,289 pounds), third in rye and oats production (244,897 bushels), but grew only 2071 pounds of tobacco and no cotton (DeBow 1854) -- hardly the agricultural background to support the wealth evident in the architecture of the Dickson-Williams house.

After the Civil War, however, the fortunes of the family may have declined, although it is known that with Catharine Douglass Dickson's death in 1870 the house passed out of the family. It was purchased in 1876 by Edwards Academy and used as a school until 1880. An account of the school from this period provided the architectural firm describes the building and grounds, probably with little change from its late antebellum appearance:

the buildings and grounds constitute what has been known for over half a century as

the *Williams' Homestead*. The main building is a well constructed stately mansion forty by sixty feet, and is three stories high. . . . There is also an extension from the main building two stories high containing a small hall and five rooms. . . . The grounds contain four and one half acres, viz: a flower garden, a lawn, and a park. A beautiful avenue leads from Main Street through the park and the flower-garden to the main building. The flower garden is regularly and tastefully laid out, and contains many rare varieties of flowers, shrubs, and trees. The walks are planted on each side with the beautiful evergreen, boxwood. The park contains many beautiful trees by means of which it is well shaded. Though in the center of town, it is quite secluded by the foliage. It is a delightful sylvan retreat.

This account provides the first evidence concerning the frame addition on the western elevation of the kitchen, indicating that it was constructed at least by ca. 1876. This points out to us that this building, like any plantation house or urban villa, went through a variety of changes during its life. It is inappropriate to view such structures as static, anymore than houses are static and unchanging today.

In 1882 the property was sold by Edwards Academy to Greeneville Academy, although by 1890 the property was subdivided and sold by the Chancery Court. At that time the only known plat of the property was made, showing the location of the homestead, sold to Dr. J.R. Boyd, and a nearby well (about 140 feet due south of the house, now under commercial buildings). The house is shown in outline form with the main building, kitchen extension, and frame addition clearly visible. The size of the main building, however, suggests that there may have been some type of side porch or other architectural detailing which artificially enhanced the length of the main portion of the east elevation (Figure 3). The plat also indicates that portions of the original lot had already been sold to the Episcopal Church, Doughty's Hotel, and Mason's Hotel.

Boyd refurbished the building, converting it into a tobacco factory. Apparently this work included the location of machinery in the building and closure of the windows. In 1895 the property was again sold, this time to two investors, W.H. Armitage and S.R. Earnest, for the creation of Morgan Inn. During this venture the house was extensively subdivided for the creation of guest rooms. It is also likely that a porch was added to the west elevation (visible in a number of photographs from the period). In 1913 the inn was sold to the Greeneville Sanatorium and Hospital and the structure saw additional modifications, including extensive internal partitioning, rearrangement of external porches and ramps, and the creation of whirlpool baths on the east elevation of the kitchen (accounting for the concrete pad removed during these investigations). The building served as a hospital at least through 1978 when it was transferred to Takoma Hospital and eventually to Greene County.

At some point during its history the rear (i.e., west facade) porch identified by George Fore was removed and replaced with a brick porch running along most of the elevation. This was eventually removed or refurbished for use as the main entrance of the hospital. As previously mentioned, the east elevation of the kitchen was also affected by the addition of a doorway and enclosure of a whirlpool bath area. Areas to the east and south continued to be affected by commercial development, while to the west there is evidence that Irish Street itself continued to be graded and lowered in elevation, with associated modification of the Dickson-Williams yard area.

Examination of land-use practices and this brief historical account suggested that the best potential for identifying intact archaeological deposits existed in the north, west, or southwest yards. Elsewhere it seemed unlikely, given the extent of ground modifications, alterations in topography, and extent of twentieth century development, that archaeological materials or features would be found

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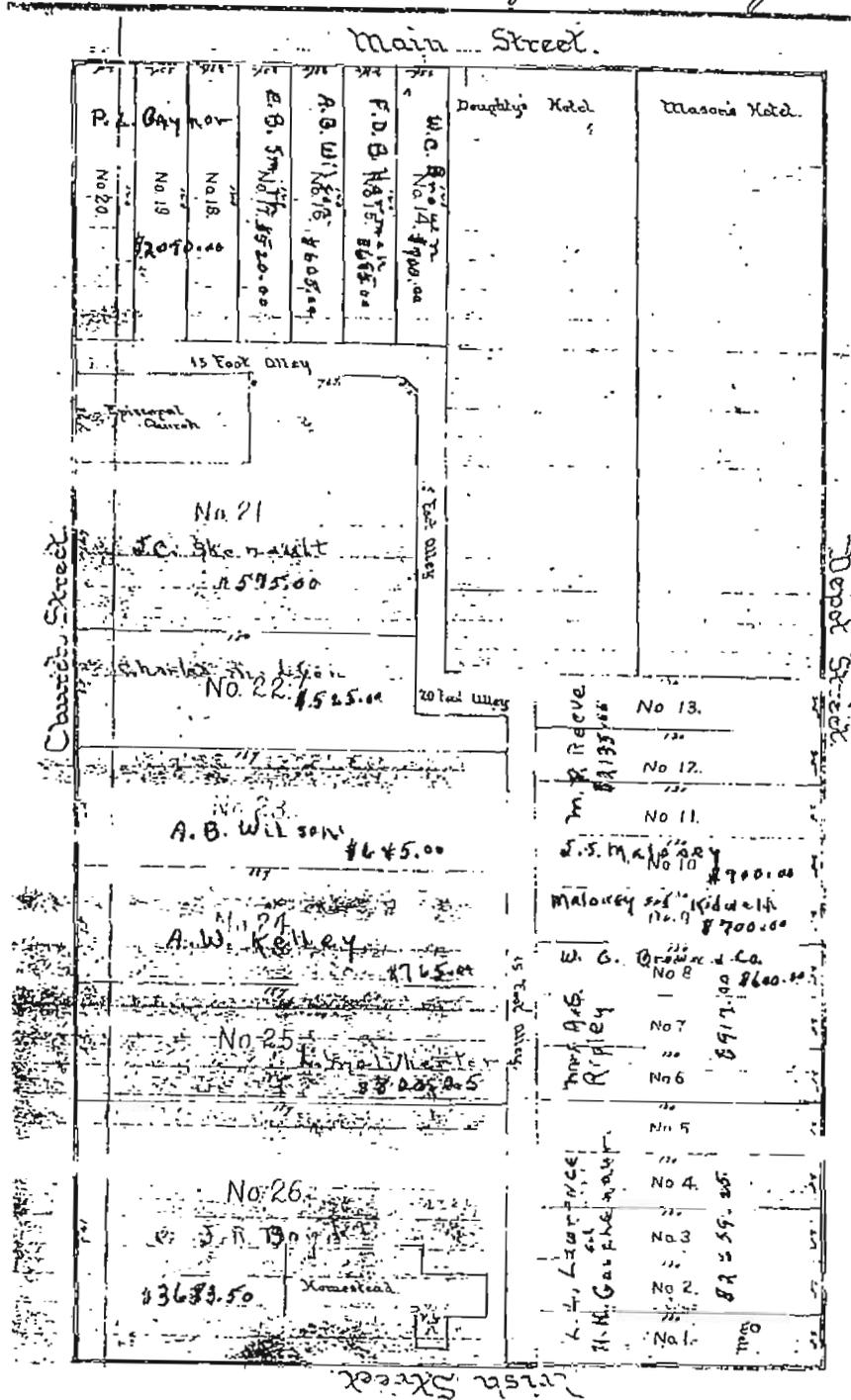


Figure 3. Chancery Court plat of the Dickson-Williams property in 1890 (Greene County Chancery Court Book 9, pages 250-258).

in primary context. Like the house itself, the yard has suffered from nearly a hundred years of neglect and alteration.

EXCAVATIONS

As previously discussed, horizontal control was maintained by reference to the standing structure and is shown in Figure 4. For the purpose of the initial auger testing, a grid was established using the long axis of the structure as grid north-south. This would serve to orient any findings to the plan of the building. Vertical control was maintained through a mean sea level elevation of 1536 feet established in the west yard area, adjacent to the sidewalk of North Irish Street.

Auger Tests

A series of 12 auger tests were placed between the Dickson-Williams House and North Irish Street to the west, while an additional 12 tests were placed between the building and Church Street to the north. While these were numbered consecutively from 1 through 24, the two house areas were not tied together because of the need to work around construction supplies (Figure 5). Regardless, as shown by Figure 4 the two grids work together to provide an overview of the north and west yard areas and were consistently placed at 20 foot intervals. Auger Tests were not conducted in the south yard since there was less than 20 feet available and the yard appeared to have been disturbed by landscaping for the adjacent alleyway. The east yard was not available for investigation, being largely covered in concrete associated with the county office building.

The tests revealed a low density of refuse in all yard areas, with no real concentrations of material found. Typically there was less than 0.4 foot of reddish-tan A horizon before a firm red clay subsoil was encountered. Soils tended to be slightly deeper in the level north yard area and to evidence greater erosion in the southwest yard area where there was a steep slope from the road up to the house. While it is difficult interpreting the low density of artifacts given the extensive erosion, the most consistent conclusion is that the rear yard areas still present were not used for trash disposal during any of the various periods of occupation. It remains possible, however, that additional yard areas, now incorporated into North Irish Street, were used for trash disposal. Alternately, trash may have been dumped elsewhere on the site.

Test Excavations

Three formal test pits were excavated during this work, numbered sequentially. **Test Pit 1**, a 10-foot unit, was situated adjacent to the west facade, 9 feet south of the structure's northwestern corner. The unit was located to explore the northern most infilled opening and determine whether the opening represented an original doorway to the basement floor. Zone 1 was divided into two levels based on both textural and color differences. Level 1 consisted of a light yellowish brown (10YR6/4) loamy clay which may represent relatively recent landscaping fill since it rests very conformably over Level 2 and contains almost no artifacts. Level 2 is a mottled red loamy clay with black streaks which contains nineteenth century artifacts. Zone 1, Level 2 rests on a firm red (2.5R5/8) clay subsoil. At the base of the unit a large, irregular brown sand stain measuring 7.5 feet north-south and 6 feet east-west was identified adjacent to the structure. Designated Feature 2 (Feature 1 having been identified in Test Pit 2, discussed below), the stain was found to be more complex than originally thought, although it was determined that the stain represented the original excavation going down to a doorway opening original to the Dickson-Williams House. A mixed reddish-brown sandy clay fill overlaid a yellow clay, which in turn overlaid a brown loam clay -- the first two representing different clay sources, but representing one fill episode.

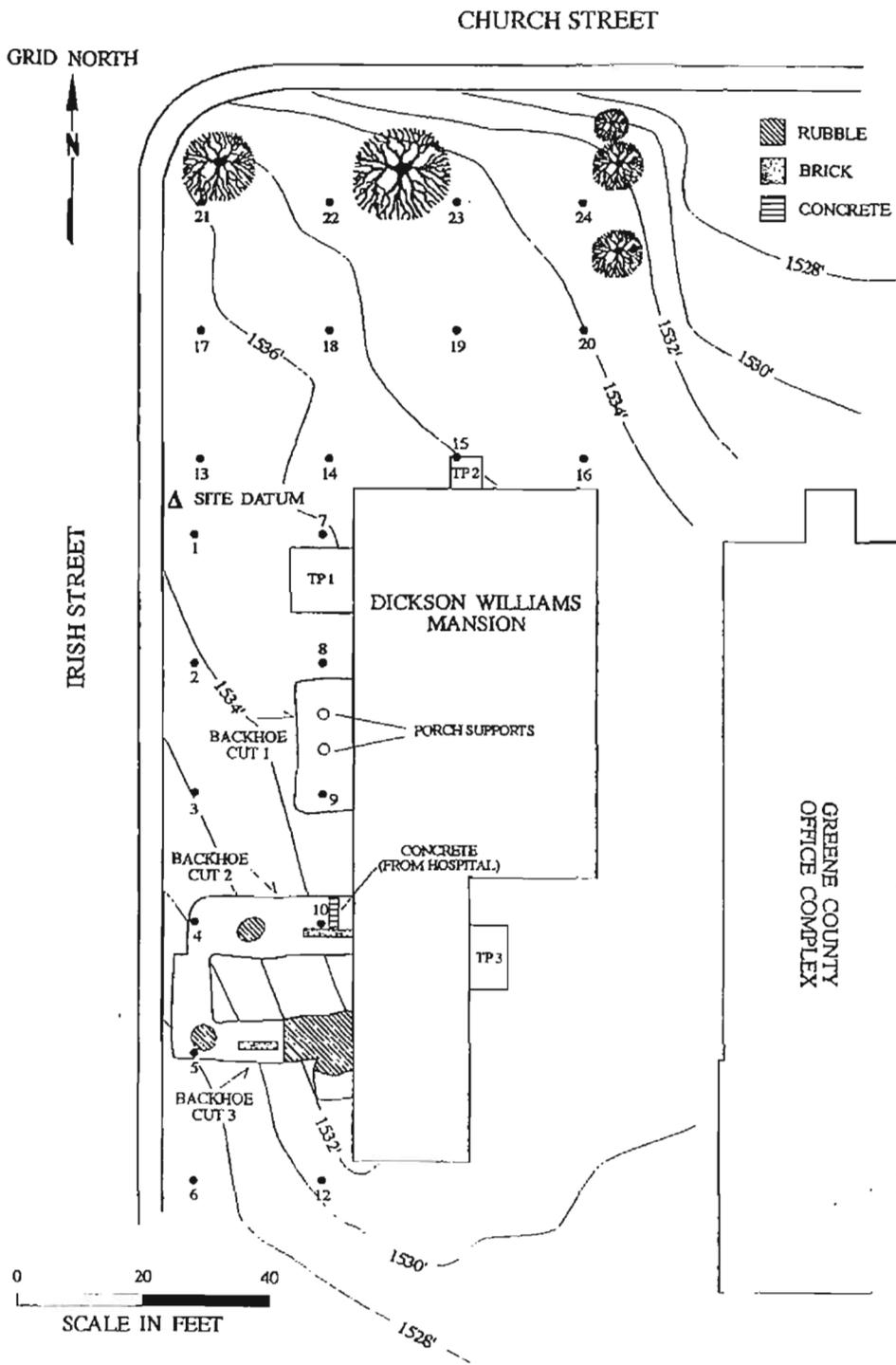


Figure 4. Excavations at the Dickson-Williams House, Greene County, Tennessee.



Figure 5. Screening of auger tests in the north yard.

Apparently the stairs were used and maintained until abandonment, at which time the stairwell was filled with relatively sterile clay from two different sources, each dumped as a discrete load. The brown loam clay represented a thin veneer of water washed material deposited during the time the stairs were open and being used. Built into the final fill was a brick window well to hold the soil fill from a window installed at the time the door was removed and the stairwell was backfilled. This well was dry laid and evidenced very little attention to detail, suggesting a relatively late date for the alteration. Later, the window well was altered by the need to install a coal chute in the bricked-up doorway. Eventually the coal chute was also abandoned and erosional and/or landscaping soil covered the area, masking the previous episodes of use.

The most significant feature for the interpretation of the Dickson-Williams House are the stairs themselves (Figure 6). Cut into the red clay subsoil, each riser was 0.5 to 0.6 in height and each tread was about 0.6 foot in depth, with eight stairs steeply inclined from the basement door to the original ground surface. The clay subsoil served as the carriage for the treads and risers, with the treads consisting of rather large timbers, nominally $4\frac{3}{4}$ by $7\frac{1}{4}$ inches, set into brick sidewalls. These 13 inch deep (i.e., three bricks in depth) sidewalls are laid up in a somewhat irregular combination of stretcher bond and English common bond with a good quality lime mortar. This wall remains intact on both sides about half way up, although it likely continued to the ground surface originally. The sidewalls are constructed at the edge of the original opening, which would have been trimmed out for the door. The opening itself evidence closures, indicating that it was an original construction feature.

Test Pit 2, a 5-foot unit laid out on the north elevation, was placed 15 feet east of the building's northwest corner and was designed to provide information on what appeared in the auger tests to be relatively deeper soils. What we did not realize was that in the twentieth century the hospital had constructed an addition on the north elevation, causing extensive disturbance to both the above ground and below ground site features. Excavation revealed that Zone 1 consisted of a yellowish brown (10YR6/4) sandy clay overlying a yellowish red (5YR5/6) clay subsoil. In portions

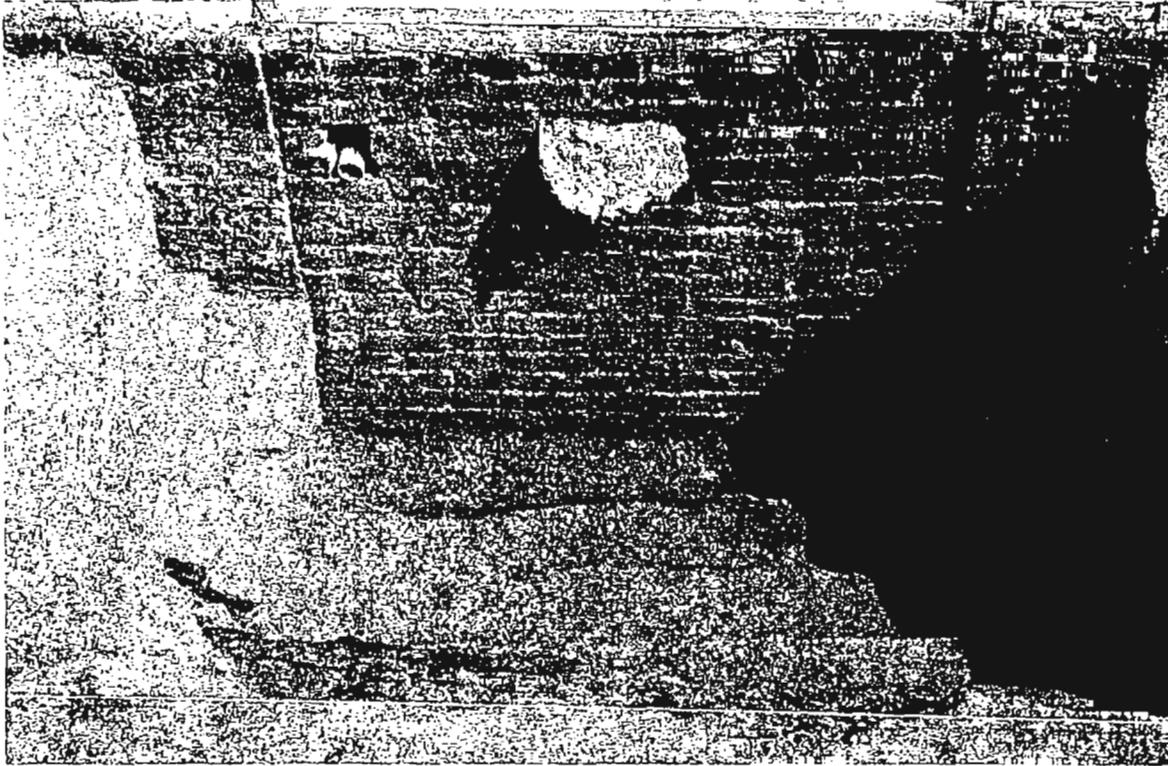


Figure 6. Feature 2 in Test Pit 1, showing the stairs cut down to the original basement door.

of the unit Zone 1 exhibited the same two levels found in Test Pit 1 -- a tan sandy clay representing relatively recent deposits overlying a reddish loamy clay with black streaks representing nineteenth century yard deposits. Materials, however, were sparse and consisted predominately of twentieth century items in the overlying tan sandy clays, providing evidence of the hospital addition (including wood demolition debris). At the base of the unit and originating in the uppermost level of the unit was an east-west trench measuring about 0.8 foot in width and 0.6 foot in depth. This apparently is related to the addition, or its demolition. Adjacent to the structure wall in the southeast corner of the unit was a post hole measuring about 1.4 foot in diameter and about 0.5 foot in depth. This seems too large a post for a scaffold support, although it may relate to an earlier building episode speculated for the site.

Test Pit 3, a 5 by 10 foot unit, was situated on the east side of the kitchen extension, 26.6 feet south the main house wall. Once the concrete pad was removed, it became clear that previous construction episodes in this area had removed the soil to below the original subsoil line, leaving no original yard deposits whatsoever. This unit was laid in only to help clean up the area surrounding the stone and brick arch incorporated into the kitchen wall. The few artifacts encountered during cleaning are of dubious origin.

While the archaeological work in this area failed to offer any additional information on the architectural features there remains sound evidence that these features include portions of a stone chimney and perhaps a brick relieving arch for an earlier structure (Figure 7). Whether this structure predated both the kitchen addition *and* the main house, or predated only the current kitchen addition cannot be addressed by the currently available information.

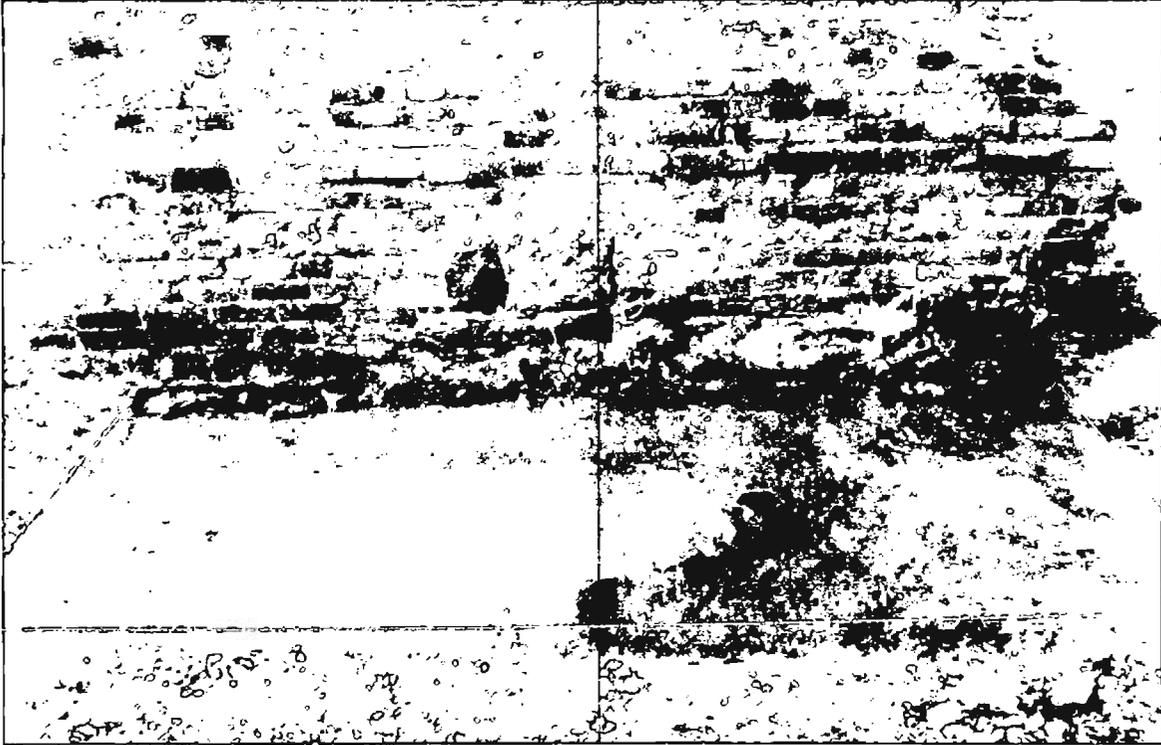


Figure 7. Test Pit 3 and associated structure wall, view to the east.

Backhoe Cuts

The controlled excavations revealed that there was little deposition around the house and that few artifacts were present in the soil which remained. Consequently, mechanical removal of the soil would likely not result in the loss of significant stratigraphic information or cultural materials, but would serve to quickly expose large areas for inspection. This procedure was used in three locations, searching for the side porch and the music room addition, both on the west elevation of the structure.

Backhoe Cut 1 is situated on the west elevation about 30 to 50 feet south of the northwest building corner and was placed to expose any remaining evidence for the porch suspected by George Fore centered about the northern doorway. The backhoe cut revealed a thin (ca. 0.3 foot) layer of red loamy clay overlying the subsoil in this area. At the base of the backhoe cut two probable pier footings, identified as black smears in the subsoil representing the base of previous excavations, were found 7 feet from the structure and about 6.5 feet apart. Each stain measures about 1.5 to 1.8 feet in diameter. It is likely that these represent at least two of the piers associated with the rear porch and although the extensive erosion and mechanical damage to this area prevent the reconstruction of the porch footprint, this evidence strongly suggests a relatively small porch, closely corresponding to the lead flashing identified by George Fore.

Backhoe Cut 2 was about 14 feet in width and extended from the kitchen addition west toward North Irish Street in the effort to identify footings associated with the frame addition used as a music room. This work identified a solid brick wall running from the kitchen addition west for 9.8 feet. At first this was interpreted as a pier for the music room, but additional research by George Fore using late nineteenth and early twentieth century photographs not previously available to us, determined that the feature represented the south wall of the late nineteenth century porch added to

the house when it was converted to a hotel. Another feature, roughly in line with this wall and also on line with the removal of the brick water table in the kitchen addition, is a smear of brick and mortar representing the base of a pier. Situated 14 to 18 feet west of the building, this appears to represent the remains of a pier associated with this music room addition.

Backhoe Cut 3 was about 10 feet in width and extended from the kitchen addition west toward North Irish Street. It was located at the southern edge of where the brick water table had been removed on the kitchen addition with the goal of identifying piers associated with the southern wall of the music room addition. The cut revealed extensive brick rubble adjacent to the kitchen addition, although these materials may relate either to the music room, the construction of the kitchen itself, or even an earlier structure. However, about 10 to 18 feet west of the kitchen, and about on line with the remains found in Backhoe Cut 2, a partially intact linear pier was identified. A additional smear of brick and mortar was found 22 to 26 feet west of the kitchen, marking the probable location of the southwest music room corner pier.

ARTIFACTS

As previously discussed, the artifacts recovered from these excavations are sparse, consisting primarily of materials lost or discarded in the yard area. The only provenience which specifically appears to be a trash deposit is the fill associated with the window well of Feature 2. This area was used as a convenient, and relatively unobtrusive, trash receptacle in the postbellum. These discussions will briefly discuss the dating of the site, pattern analysis and comparisons, and status and lifestyle observations available from the 1855 artifacts recovered from excavation units, backhoe cuts, auger tests, and surface collections.

Dating Synthesis

All of the proveniences were combined to produce an adequate ceramic sample for application of South's Mean Ceramic Dating (MCD) technique (South 1977:217-218; Bartovics 1981). South's MCD formula is commonly used to express the frequency relationship of ceramic types of known manufacture period in terms of a mean date for the site. As shown in Table 1, the MCD for the site is 1841.4. In contrast, the mean historic date, using 1821 as the beginning date and 1913 as the terminal date, is 1867. Even when the terminal date is taken as the death of Catharine Dickson Williams in 1870, the mean historic date is still a decade too late (yielding a mean historic date of 1845). This may be explained in two ways.

First, the mean ceramic date is made earlier than might be expected by the few examples of eighteenth century wares, such as the lead glazed slipware and the creamware. When these are removed from consideration the mean date is 1846.2, bringing it closer to the 1845.5 mean historic date. Regardless, while these early ceramics may be curated, given the architectural evidence for an earlier structure, it seems likely that these remains provide evidence for a building which predated the current Dickson-Williams mansion.

The second factor affecting the mean ceramic date is likely refuse disposal practices and the use of the house. The Mean Ceramic Dates of 1841.4 and 1846.2 seem to reflect a terminal historic date of about 1860 -- suggesting that the use of the house, and the associated refuse disposal practices, changed dramatically at the time of the Civil War. While the architecture reveals the many alterations from house to factory to school to hotel to hospital, the archaeological record seems to offer little evidence of activities past about 1860.

Using MCDs also allows a clearer understanding of the basement entrance explored in Test Pit 3 and Feature 2. At the base of this feature was a single fragment of white porcelain, with a *terminus post quem*⁴ date of 1851. The fill itself provides no clearer clues, although the materials incorporated suggest that the fill was gathered up from yard trash deposits elsewhere on the site (since there are a range of ceramics present, including lead glazed slipware, pearlware, and whiteware). The base of the feature was dominated by "modern" cut nails, while the fill contained equal numbers of cut and wire nails. Wire nails were manufactured from steel wire and while available in small sizes

⁴ *Terminus post quem* or TPQ is the date after which a layer or materials must have been deposited. Deposition can, of course, be anytime after this date, but never before. For a more thorough discussion, see Hume 1969:69-70.

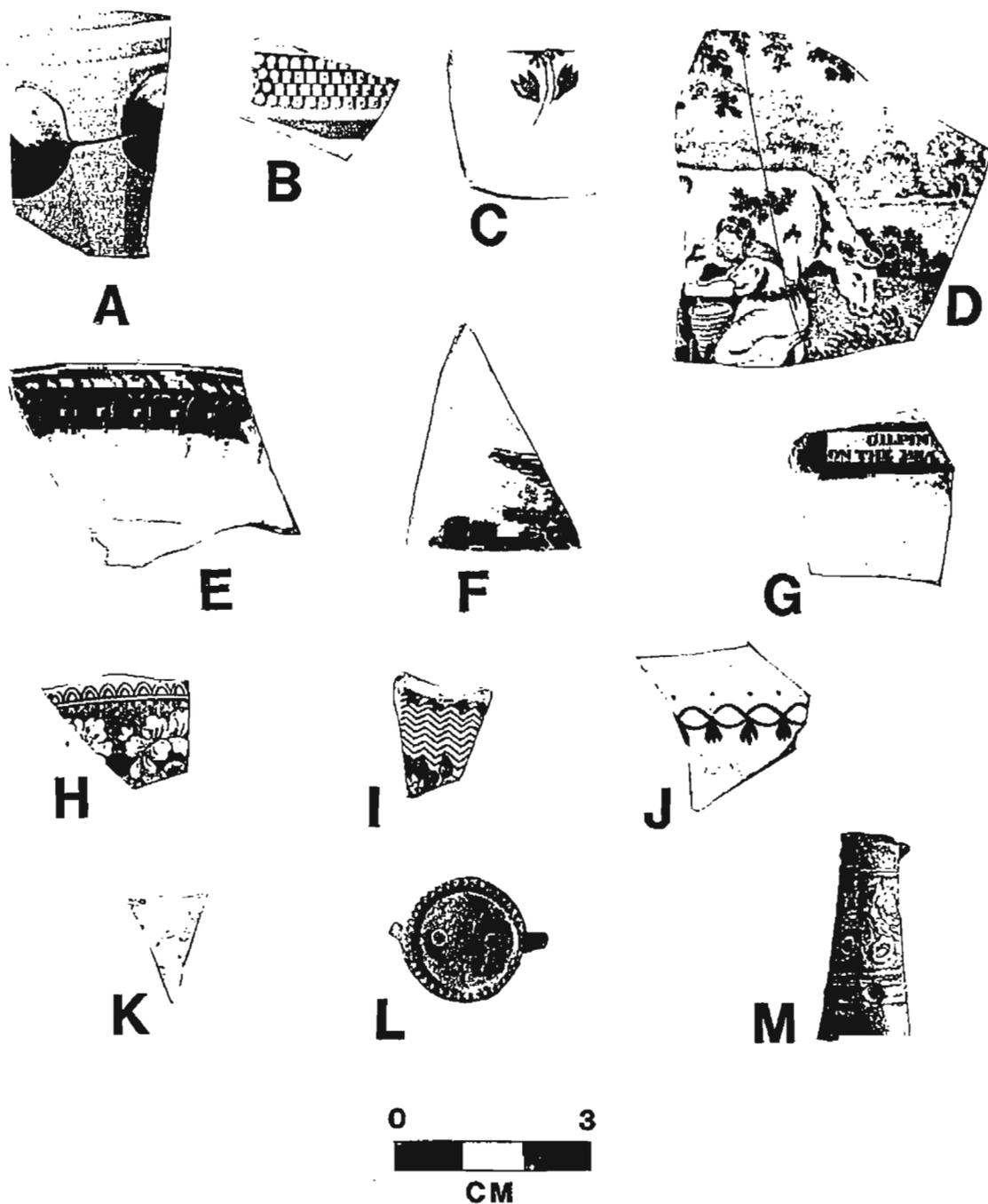


Figure 8. Artifacts recovered from the Dickson-Williams House excavations. A-B, Annular pearlware; C, Hand painted pearlware; D, Transfer printed pearlware; E, Shell edged whiteware; F-G, Transfer printed whiteware, including design name, "GILPIN ... ON THE BRA ..."; H-I, Transfer printed whiteware; J, Hand painted whiteware; K, Decalcomania white porcelain; L, Brass jewelry clasp with glass insets; M, Brass utensil handle fragment.

as early as the 1850s, it wasn't until the last quarter of the nineteenth century that they became widely used in the building construction trades (Nelson 1968:7)⁵. The available information does indicate that the stairs remained open at least into the very late antebellum and probably into the early postbellum, perhaps being closed about 1870 or 1880.

Table 1.
Mean Ceramic Dating for the Dickson-Williams House

Ceramic	Mean Date (xi)	(fi)	fi x xi
White porcelain	1883	5	9415
Lead Glazed Slipware	1733	2	3466
Creamware, undecorated	1791	1	1791
Pearlware, poly hand painted	1805	4	7220
blue hand painted	1800	3	5400
blue trans printed	1818	4	7272
annular/cable	1805	5	9025
undecorated	1805	5	9025
Whiteware, blue edged	1853	2	3706
poly hand painted	1848	1	1848
blue trans printed	1848	5	9240
non-blue trans printed	1851	7	12957
annular/cable	1866	1	1866
undecorated	1892	13	24570
		58	106801

$$106,801 \div 58 = 1841.4$$

The decline in refuse easily attributable to the later uses of the Dickson-Williams House, especially the hotel, is somewhat surprising. It may be that additional historic research would reveal the implementation of urban sanitation regulations about this time, resulting in more materials being hauled off-site. Likewise, the presence of relatively large fragments of ceramics associated with fill dirt suggests that somewhere on the original lot there may have been a trash midden from the antebellum occupation.

Pattern Analysis and Comparisons

South has also developed the concept of "artifact groups" as a means of ordering archaeological data, as well as functional categories which can be used in an "artifact pattern analysis." South (1977) maintains that the patterns identified in the archaeological record will reflect cultural processes and

⁵ Howard (1989:55) notes that as late as 1886, more than 90% of the nails manufactured in the United States were cut nails. Just five years later the ratio of cut to wire nails was 1:1. This suggests that wire nails, at sites such as the Dickson-Williams House, may be relatively time sensitive, although their proportion will be artificially inflated by the numerous repairs and renovations which were undertaken at the structure.

can assist in delimiting distinct site types. The recognition of these patterns is not an end in and of itself, but rather should be one of a series of techniques useful for comparing different sites with the ultimate goal of distinguishing cultural processes at work in the archaeological record. Other researchers have wisely observed that the technique can be misused (see, for example, Joseph 1989), being forced beyond its originally bounds by poor samples, inadequately documented collecting strategies, and inappropriate comparisons. When used with prudence, it has the potential to help explain the function of archaeological assemblages and explore the meaning of different artifact collections.

Even at the level of a fairly simple heuristic device, pattern analysis has revealed five to seven "archaeological signatures," several of which are of particular importance to our work at the Dickson-Williams House. For example, the Revised Carolina Artifact Pattern (Garrow 1982; South 1977) is taken to reflect an averaging of British domestic behavior, while Zierden from her extensive work in Charleston, South Carolina has developed a mean profile or pattern for dual-function (commercial and domestic) Charleston sites, as well as a townhouse profile⁶ (see Grimes and Zierden 1988:98). The Revised Frontier Pattern is intended to reflect the pattern found at frontier sites, primarily forts and trading centers. Garrow (1982) also developed the Public Interaction Artifact Pattern intended to reflect the pattern at sites serving public, rather than domestic, functions. Garrow (1982) also proposes the Washington Civic Center Pattern, which Cheek et al. (1983:90) suggest might be better termed a "Nineteenth Century White Urban Pattern."

Tables 2 and 3 list the artifact pattern for the Dickson-Williams House, which regrettably offers little assistance in better understanding this particular site. The archaeological collection, largely obtained in the process of exploring very specific architectural features, is heavily weighted with Architectural Group Artifacts, in particular window glass. This is a phenomena previously observed at the Vanderhorst House on Kiawah Island, South Carolina, where window glass and nails dominated a collection obtained from excavations adjacent to the nineteenth century plantation house. It seems clear that when the excavations fail to explore a broad area of the site, incorporating a range of the activity areas and refuse zones, the resulting pattern will be distorted. This demonstrates one of the more significant problems with the use of pattern analysis in archaeology. The pattern analysis at the Dickson-Williams House may also reflect a combination of rural and urban patterns, as well as a mixing of owner and servant refuse.

Status and Lifestyle Observations

Since one goal of archaeological research has traditionally been to better understand how different people lived, a wide variety of techniques have evolved for looking at status and lifestyle. At times the efforts have devolved into rather simplistic statements, causing at least one researcher to remark, "It is well known that the rich lived better than the poor," and suggest that archaeologists should "count less and think more" (Friedlander 1990:109). Hopefully, it is possible to both count more (or at least in different ways) and to think (both more and better).

In the past archaeologists have used assemblage level studies to gain some indication of status. For example, Otto (1984:64-67) has used the percentages of decorated ceramic types, finding that

⁶ This artifact pattern profile was developed on the basis of excavations at three Charleston townhouses: Gibbes, Aiken-Rhett, and Rutledge. While each is a relatively small sample, taken together this represents an impressive urban town-house collection with considerable homogeneity. The pattern reflects an activities group lower than South's Carolina Artifact Pattern, which Grimes and Zierden (1988:99) observe is not unexpected since South used both domestic and commercial sites to develop his pattern and the activities group may be taken as an indication of commercial behavior.

Table 2.
Artifacts Recovered from the Dickson-Williams House

Kitchen Group			
Ceramics	81		
Container Glass	49		
Tablewares	1		
	131	7.1%	
Architecture Group			
Window Glass	1510		
Door Lock Parts	2		
Construction Hardware	18		
Cut Nails	14		
Cut Nail Fragments	46		
Wire Nails	53		
Wire Nail Fragments	13		
UID Nail Fragments	38		
	1694	91.3%	
Clothing Group			
Buttons	3		
	3	0.2%	
Personal Group			
Personal Items	4		
	4	0.2%	
Activities Group			
Storage Items	3		
Stable and Barn Items	1		
Misc. Hardware	11		
Other	8		
	23	1.2%	

Table 3.
Comparison of Artifact Patterns

Group	Dickson-	Revised Carolina	Revised Frontier	-----Charleston-----	
	Williams House			Dual Function	Townhouse
n	7.1	39.7	58.40	63.10	58.38
ecture	91.3	42.3	28.30	25.03	36.00
ire	-	0.7	0.40	0.08	0.21
	-	5.2	0.20	0.20	0.32
o	-	7.7	7.90	5.97	2.79
ag	0.2	1.0	3.00	1.18	0.91
al	0.2	0.1	0.35	0.14	0.24
ies	1.2	3.0	1.30	4.14	1.10

Revised Carolina and Revised Frontier Artifact Patterns from South (1977) and Garrow (1982).
Charleston patterns from Grimes and Zierden (1988).

nineteenth century Cannon's Point slaves tended to use considerably more undecorated, banded, edged, and hand painted wares than the plantation owner, who tended to use transfer printed wares⁷. Of course, on rural sites there seems to be better spatial separation of refuse than is found at many urban sites. Likewise, mindful of Friedlander's admonishment, we hoped that this approach might suggest the extent to which slaves were present at the house, perhaps using the basement rooms for quarters.

Table 4.
Ceramic Decorative Types

<u>Decorative Type</u>	<u>% of MNV</u>
Plain	42.1
Edged	10.5
Annular	5.3
Poly hand painted	15.8
Transfer printed	26.3

Table 4 reveals that there is little evidence for an assemblage evidencing a large proportion of higher status wares (with fully 70% of the ceramics evidencing a relatively simple, lower status decorative motif), as one might expect given the nature of the architecture and apparent wealth of the Dickson-Williams families. Alternatively, over a quarter of the assemblage represents expensive transfer printed ceramics, more typical of a high status assemblage. One explanation is that the materials recovered do, in fact, incorporate a large amount of material discarded by the slaves in the rear yard of the house. An alternative explanation, of course, is that the status of the family has been over estimated and that while the architecture is exceptional, the ceramics were more modest.

Vessel form may also be used to explore status and wealth, with slave assemblages most often containing relatively high percentages of bowls and utilitarian wares, while planters' sites tend to exhibit more plates and teawares. The assemblage at the Dickson-Williams House consists largely of flatware. Hollow ware, while present, represents a relatively minor component, suggesting that the contribution by slaves at the site was minimal. When compared to Otto's (1984) original study, the assemblage bears the closest resemblance to an overseer's site, perhaps suggesting a relatively moderate status collection -- a conclusion consistent with the simple decorative motifs.

Table 5.
Ceramic Vessel Forms

Tablewares	
Plates/saucers	55.6%
Bowls	14.8%
Serving	3.7%
Tea and Coffeeware	3.7%
Utilitarian	22.2%

⁷ Zierden and Grimes (1989:96) observe that while porcelains are typically taken as indicators of status in the eighteenth century, they were replaced by transfer printed wares in the early nineteenth century, with transfer printed wares from upper status townhouse sites typically accounting for around 22% of the ceramics.

Miller (1980, 1991) has suggested a technique for the analysis of ceramic collections to yield information on the economic value of the assemblage which, as Garrow notes, "theoretically provides a means of roughly determining the economic position of the household that used and discarded the ceramics" (Garrow 1982:66). While this technique could have profound impacts on urban archaeological research, revolutionizing our perception of the economic status, it has not been embraced by all historic archaeologists, significantly reducing its usefulness in comparative studies.

The technique has been used for the assemblages at the Dickson-Williams House, with the results shown in Table 6. Of course, as Miller himself would point out -- this is a less than ideal test, since the proveniences are not totally sealed and there is the possibility of contamination and mixing from the various house functions. Regardless, the ceramic index suggests a modest value, similar to those obtained in overseer contexts on rural plantations (see Spencer-Wood and Heberling 1987 and Trinkley 1993) but less than expected from either rural planters or urban merchants (Spencer-Wood and Heberling 1987). These data further support our interpretation of the assemblage as representing a relatively moderate economic status.

Table 6.
Ceramic Index Values

Plates			
undecorated	1.00	7	7.00
transfer printed	3.60 (1833)	4	14.40
edged	1.64 (1833)	2	3.28
poly hand painted	2.17 (1838)	1	2.17
average value = 1.92			
Bowls			
annular	1.20 (1833)	1	1.20
poly hand painted	1.60 (1833)	1	1.60
transfer printed	2.80 (1833)	1	2.80
average value = 1.87			
Totals		17	32.45
Ceramic Index			1.91

Smith (1980:56-61) offers a different way of viewing status in East Tennessee, noting that "upper-class domestic sites . . . show a very high incidence of porcelain and refined earthenware" while "as there is a decrease in assumed social status, there is an increase in the frequency of occurrence of coarse earthenwares and stonewares" (Smith 1980:57). The importance of porcelain as a social indicator, of course, has been recognized for some time, although Smith does graphically reveal the trend in east, middle, and west Tennessee. At the Dickson-Williams House the refined earthenwares (creamware, pearlware, and whiteware) and porcelains (all relatively late white examples) account for 74.1% of the collection, compared to the stonewares and coarse earthenwares, which account for 25.9%. This falls midway between the high status owner sites and low status slave or farmstead sites reported.

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

These investigations have been generally successful at addressing the architectural questions raised by George Fore. We have been able to determine that there was at least one doorway on the west facade leading into the basement in the original plans. It is likely that the second window with similar physical features is identical, although this study investigated only the northern example. At some point, probably in the early postbellum based on the artifacts, the doorway was abandoned, the opening bricked over, and the stairs filled. At that time a small window was placed in the upper part of the doorway opening and a window well was created. This served as a convenient receptacle for mid-nineteenth century trash. Later, a coal chute was installed and even more recently a series of pipes (including one copper water line) were placed through the previous opening. These entrances likely provided access to servant's quarters and storage areas in the basement during the antebellum. Why they were deemed obsolete is not clear, although once the structure no longer required African American servants there would have been no need for separate entrances to the basement quarters.

Evidence of a porch, measuring at least 7 feet in width and 6.5 feet in length, was identified centered around the rear entrance to the main house. Although it is unlikely that this represents the complete footprint (since it appears to lack evidence of the stairs descending from the porch landing), it does help confirm the existence of a porch and assists in better understanding the scale and massing of the original ca. 1821 west facade.

Architectural evidence, while not sought, was found of the late postbellum and early twentieth century porch which spanned the west facade while the building was used as a hotel. More significantly, evidence was found of the music room addition. Based on the sparse remains it appears that this addition dates to the early postbellum and measured about 18 by 24 feet, roughly proportional to the room shown on the 1890 plat reproduced in this study as Figure 3.

Archaeological investigations, however, were largely unsuccessful at offering additional direct information concerning the stone work and brick arch incorporated into the east elevation of the kitchen addition. Indirect evidence of an earlier structure, however, is provided by the presence of lead glazed slipware (an eighteenth century utilitarian ware) and creamware (a late eighteenth century tableware), as well as the massing of brick on the west elevation of the kitchen addition. No single feature is sufficient to prove the existence of an earlier structure, but taken together as a convergence of evidence, there is good reason to believe that the current Dickson-Williams House at least partially incorporates an earlier structure.

It seems likely that during the antebellum trash was disposed of in the yard, probably at lot lines or perhaps in low peripheral areas. That such disposal areas existed is confirmed by the domestic refuse found in the basement stairway fill. The examination of various yard areas available for investigation, however, reveals no evidence of sheet midden. We know that much of the original lot has been subjected to extensive commercial development, or is situated in areas subject to extensive erosion and other alteration. It is likely that much of the antebellum yard trash so useful for lifestyle reconstructions has been lost to encroaching development. Perhaps more unexpected, there seems to be very little trash associated with the late nineteenth and early twentieth century Morgan Hotel. This suggests that at least by this time alternate sources of trash disposal had been mandated by the town and that the archaeological record is reflecting this "civic improvement."

The archaeological studies are perhaps most interesting in what they reveal about the status and wealth of the Dickson-Williams families. The house clearly reflects exceptional architectural style and detailing. Likewise, the various persons entertained at the house during first half of the nineteenth century represent an impressive list of the social elite of the period, including the Marquis de Lafayette, Andrew Jackson, James Polk, Henry Clay, and Wade Hampton. Yet, the artifacts available from this study suggest the operation of a very modest household. Plates are more common than bowls, but not nearly by the margin expected at very wealthy sites. Decorative motifs are largely simple styles, with only a quarter of the vessels exhibiting transfer printing. The ceramic index values are likewise modest. Porcelains and refined earthenwares account for nearly three-quarters of the collection, placing the site about midway between the very high status and very low status sites previously investigated in Eastern Tennessee.

While some of this may be the result of both owner and servant's trash being mixed together, this alone does not seem a sufficient explanation. Likewise, Smith (1979) suggests that the coarse earthenware and stoneware counts can be inflated in areas such as Greene County where there were major local potters contributing to the market economy. Another scenario is that Greeneville remained a relatively small community, dominated by freeholders, throughout the early nineteenth century. Display of wealth might have been very different in this setting than in the slave society of Charleston or Savannah. Of course, this must be balanced with the fact that there are sites in East Tennessee which apparently exhibit a more traditional, high status assemblage.

At the present time, therefore, there is insufficient information to determine exactly how the Dickson-Williams assemblage should be interpreted. Additional historical research concerning the number of slaves and their presence in the urban setting, the economic wealth of the families, and the location and nature of agricultural tracts is essential to better interpret the archaeological evidence. Likewise, the collection of larger, and more diverse, archaeological assemblages would ensure that the data are representative of the site. The best (in terms of simplicity) interpretation is that which takes the archaeological data at face value and concludes that the materials present in the rear yard, presumed to reflect those used by the Dickson-Williams families, are most typical of fairly moderate status individuals.

The research at the Dickson-Williams House also revealed that there is the potential for identifying additional archaeological features and remains as work progresses in the southwest quadrant of the yard. Special care should be taken in this area to avoid disturbing these remains. For example, every effort should be made to reduce erosion and avoid subsurface utility lines. In addition, if the decision is made to restore the two basement entrances additional archaeological research should be conducted at the southern entrance to ensure that no information is lost.

Based on this work it seems unlikely that construction activities to the northeast, east or southeast (representing areas of major commercial development) will cause any additional loss of archaeological data. These areas have been extensively damaged to or below the subsoil.

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