

2641R

1991

NYC

LPC

NCEQR

**An Archaeological Investigation:  
The Conference House Park Site  
Staten Island, New York**

---



---

**The New York City Landmarks Preservation  
Commission**

**For: The Conference House Association**

---

**June 1991**

782

Cover Design: Daniel Marriott

Cover Photograph: Carl Forster

AN ARCHAEOLOGICAL INVESTIGATION:  
THE CONFERENCE HOUSE PARK SITE  
STATEN ISLAND, NEW YORK

Authors:

Sherene Baugher  
Edward J. Lenik  
Robert W. Venables  
Kate T. Morgan  
Judith M. Guston

New York City Landmarks Preservation Commission

For: The Conference House Association

July 1991

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES.....	ii
LIST OF TABLES.....	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	v
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION..... (Sherene Baugher)	1
CHAPTER TWO: EXCAVATION METHODS AND PROCEDURES..... (Sherene Baugher)	11
CHAPTER THREE: LABORATORY METHODS..... (Sherene Baugher, Edward J. Lenik, Judith Guston, Kate T. Morgan)	20
CHAPTER FOUR: NATIVE AMERICAN RESOURCES AT CONFERENCE HOUSE PARK..... (Edward J. Lenik)	27
CHAPTER FIVE: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND..... (Sherene Baugher)	42
CHAPTER SIX: ARTIFACT ANALYSES OF HISTORICAL MATERIAL..... (Sherene Baugher, Edward J. Lenik)	71
CHAPTER SEVEN: INTERPRETATIONS OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY COMPONENT OF THE SITE..... (Sherene Baugher, Robert W. Venables)	95
CHAPTER EIGHT: RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS..... (Sherene Baugher, Edward J. Lenik)	121
REFERENCES.....	123
APPENDIX A: ARCHAEOLOGICAL SHOVEL TESTING REPORT..... (Sherene Baugher)	135
APPENDIX B: FAUNAL REPORT..... (Kate T. Morgan)	157

## LIST OF FIGURES

### Chapter One

Figure 1:1	Conference House.....	2
Figure 1:2	Map of Five Boroughs. Conference House is located at the southern tip of Staten Island.....	3
Figure 1:3	Map of Staten Island showing the location of Conference House.....	4
Figure 1:4	Site map of the 1979 archaeological excavation at Conference House Park.....	7
Figure 1:5	Map of the Site. The 1980 excavations are shown in relationship to the 1979 archaeological work.....	9

### Chapter Two

Figure 2:1	Map of Excavation Units.....	12
Figure 2:2	Stratigraphy.....	14
Figure 2:3	Stratigraphy Near the Kitchen Wing.....	16
Figure 2:4	Kitchen Wing Foundation.....	17

### Chapter Four

Figure 4:1	Prehistoric Stone Tools.....	35
Figure 4:2	Prehistoric netsinker made from a sandstone pebble.....	36
Figure 4:3	Two fragments of Indian pottery dating to the Late Woodland Period.....	39
Figure 4:4	Fragment of Indian Clay Tobacco Pipe.....	40

### Chapter Five

Figure 5:1	Ryder Map c. 1676.....	44
Figure 5:2	Welles Map, 1687.....	46
Figure 5:3	Skene Map.....	47
Figure 5:4	Popple Map, 1733.....	53
Figure 5:5	Bowen Map of 1747.....	54
Figure 5:6	<u>Baye et Port D'York</u> , 1771.....	55
Figure 5:7	McMillen Map, c. 1780-83.....	56
Figure 5:8	Anglo-Hessian Map, c. 1780-83.....	57
Figure 5:9	Sprong and Conner Map, 1797.....	58
Figure 5:10	Bacon Map, 1853.....	59
Figure 5:11	Butler Map, 1853.....	60
Figure 5:12	Walling Map, 1859.....	61
Figure 5:13	Beers Atlas, 1874.....	62
Figure 5:14	Beers Atlas, 1887.....	63
Figure 5:15	Vermeule and Bien, 1890.....	64
Figure 5:16	Robinson Atlas, 1898.....	65
Figure 5:17	Robinson Atlas, 1907.....	66
Figure 5:18	Bromley Atlas, 1917.....	67
Figure 5:19	Print After A Drawing by Alfred DeGroot.....	68
Figure 5:20	Photograph by C.W. Hunt.....	70

### Chapter Six

Figure 6:1	Whiteware Bowl, Nineteenth Century.....	75
Figure 6:2	Two Eighteenth Century Redware Sherds.....	77
Figure 6:3	Eighteenth Century Rhenish-made Bowl.....	78
Figure 6:4	Nottinghamware Cups, English Stoneware.....	79
Figure 6:5	White Salt-glazed Stoneware Plates.....	80
Figure 6:6	Chinese Export Porcelain.....	81
Figure 6:7	Eighteenth Century Creamware.....	82

Figure 6:8	Lips and necks from eighteenth century wine bottles.....	84
Figure 6:9	Clay Tobacco Pipe Bowls of English Manufacture.....	85

Chapter Seven

Figure 7:1	Map showing location of Clermont, the Conference House, Johnson Hall, and the Voorlezer House.....	105
Figure 7:2	Map showing the location of the Conference House and the Voorlezer House in relation to the Port of New York.....	108

## LIST OF TABLES

### Chapter Four

Table 4:1	Tools by Function.....	34
Table 4:2	Analysis of Lithic Debitage.....	37

### Chapter Five

Table 5:1	Chronology of Ownership and Occupancy.....	50
Table 5:2	Chain of Title for the Manor House.....	51

### Chapter Six

Table 6:1	Eighteenth Century Depositional Units.....	73
Table 6:2	Ceramic Types and Frequencies in the Eighteenth Century Depositional Units.....	74
Table 6:3	Total Artifact Assemblage from the Conference House Site Placed in Functional Categories.....	93
Table 6:4	Functional Categories for the Eighteenth Century Deposit from the Conference House Park Site.....	94

### Chapter Seven

Table 7:1	A Comparison of Ware Types from four New York State Sites.....	120
-----------	---	-----

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This project was financed with funds raised by Thoma Robinson of behalf of the Conference House Association for work carried out by the New York City Landmarks Preservation Commission. For these funds we thank:

Natural Heritage Trust Fund of the New York State Departments of Parks, Recreation, and Historic Preservation.

We greatly appreciate the support we received from the following people at the Conference House Association, who had the foresight to initiate this project:

the late Louis Robinson, former President of the Association  
Robert Burger, former President of the Association  
Thoma Robinson, current President of the Association

We thank the following members of the Conference House Association for their support and advice during this project:

Thoma Robinson, President of the Association  
Stephen Barto, Executive Director

We greatly appreciate the comments and suggestion on our draft report that we given by the following archaeologists:

Robert L. Ewing, Historic Preservation Program Analyst, New York State Department of Parks, Recreation, and Historic Preservation

Karen McCann, Senior Environmental Specialist, New York State Department of Transportation

We wish to thank the students of Fairleigh Dickinson University, Madison Campus, for their hard work and enthusiasm during the excavation.

First and foremost in personal acknowledgements we wish to thank Laurie Beckelman, Chair of the Landmarks Preservation Commission for her support of this project. In addition, we are grateful to the following individuals:

Joan Olshansky, Chief of Staff, Landmarks Preservation Commission for her suggestions and comments on our draft and her guiding support of all aspects of our work

Carl Forster, photographer, Landmarks Preservation Commission, for taking the artifact photos, photographs of the historic maps, and the cover photo

Daniel Marriott, draftsman, for producing the original maps and stratigraphic profiles for this report for designing the cover of the report

Judith Baragli, former Laboratory Director, for all her diligent, meticulous work for her thoughtful guidance of the student interns and volunteers in the lab

Carol Clements for the many hours she diligently labored at typing the draft and final versions of this report

Dr. Robert W. Venables, Historian and Visiting Professor at Cornell University, for voluntarily donating his time both to co-author Chapter

Seven and to assist us on other components of the project

We would like to offer special thanks to a few individuals who worked tirelessly with unflagging enthusiasm in our field or lab work:

Louise DeCesare, Brian Dorph, Sandy Famolare, Sara Keyishian, Susan Kowlowsky and Margaret Tamulonis

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Sherene Baugher

## CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

The Conference House is a site of national importance located at the southern tip of Staten Island (see Figure 1:1, 1:2, and 1:3). In 1776 a major peace conference was held there in an attempt to avoid war between the colonies and England. Unfortunately, no reconciliation occurred and war resulted. While the peace conference is very important in terms of military history it was one day within the lifetime of the house. The house was owned by Christopher Billop and his descendants for one hundred and five years (1676-1781). It was one of the great manor houses in colonial New York and New Jersey. Billop's descendants (who changed the spelling of their name to "Billogg") were prominent Staten Islanders and active politically. The Billoggs played important roles in terms of Staten Island's political and social history. In addition, the site had a rich history before the arrival of the Europeans. It was, because of its physical location, a prime site for American Indian occupation for thousands of years. In the nineteenth century it was a farmer's home (Ward family) and later a rental building occupied by tenant farmers. Finally, in the 1920s it was donated to the City of New York and it is used as a house museum operated by the Conference House Association.

This report presents the results of the archaeological excavation in Conference House Park, Staten Island which unearthed material associated with the eighteenth and nineteenth century occupants of the Conference House. In addition, American Indian artifacts from the Late Woodland period (A.D. 1000 to 1600) were uncovered. The nineteenth century artifacts were in disturbed contexts and could not be associated with any specific occupants of the house.

Fieldwork for this project was conducted from July to August 1980; this work was undertaken as part of a Fairleigh Dickinson University, Madison, New Jersey summer archaeological field school. Laboratory work and report preparation was funded by a National Heritage Trust grant from the New York State Department of Parks, Recreation, and Historic Preservation to the Conference House Association. The work was done by the City Archaeology Program at the New York City Landmarks Preservation



Figure 1:1

Conference House. Photograph by Carl Forster.

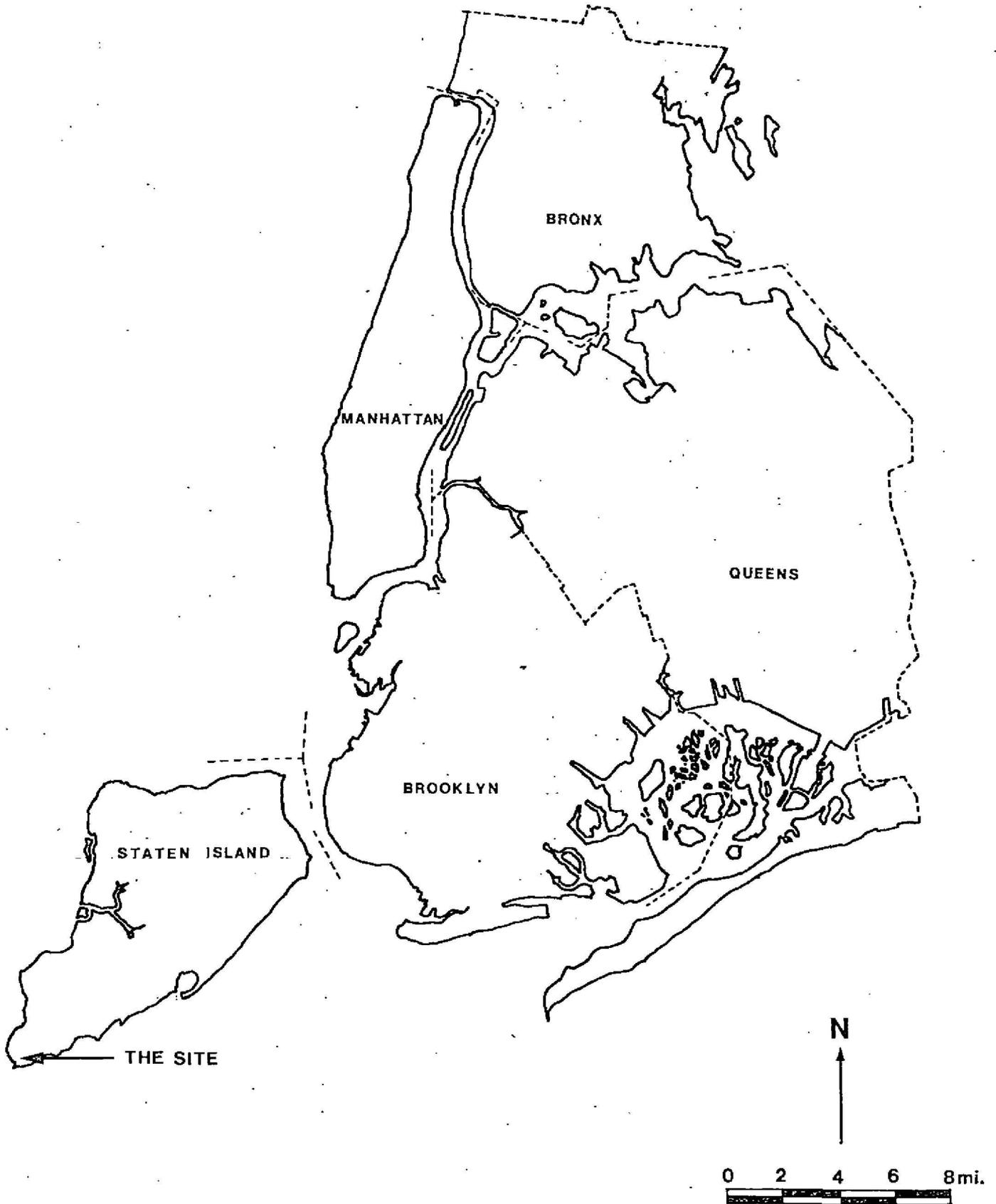


Figure 1:2

Map of Five Boroughs. Conference House is located at the southern tip of Staten Island.

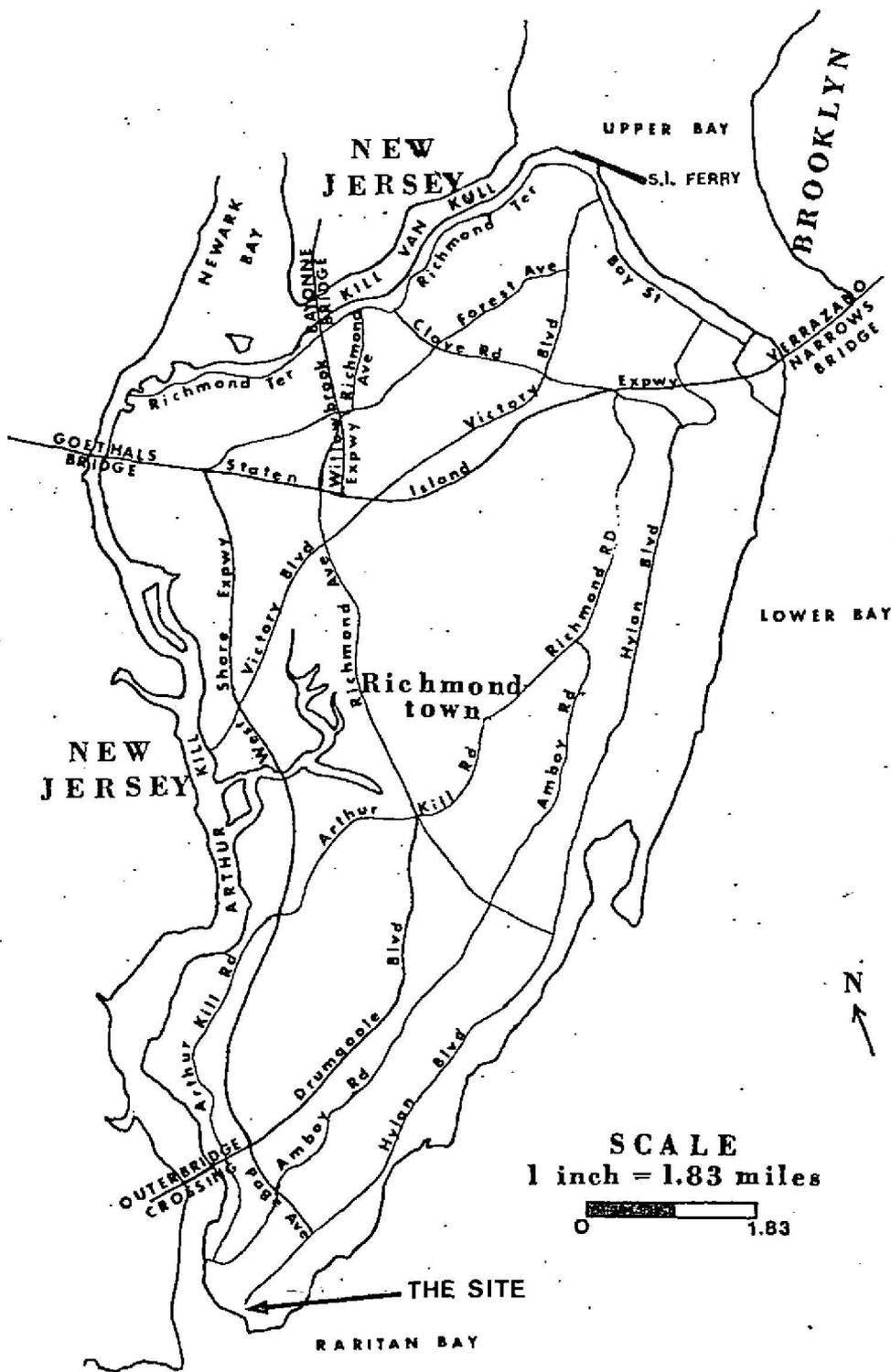


Figure 1:3

Map of Staten Island showing the location of Conference House.

Commission.

This report contains background information about the Conference House Park site, including the field testing methodology, the results of the excavation, and our interpretations and conclusions.

### Background

In 1979, the Conference House Association received a grant from the New York State Department of Parks, Recreation, and Historic Preservation to undertake an historic structure report on the house. In the mid- and late 1970s the Conference House had suffered water damage from flooding. The report noted:

"The house does face a serious preservation problem as a result of the high levels of ground water in its vicinity that have caused a generalized long-term dampness in the basement kitchen, periodic flooding and significant deterioration of the brick vaulted storage area" (Zavin 1980:3).

The historic structure report discussed the water problems and recommended several solutions (Zavin 1980:134-137). The most practical solution was to install both a reinforced concrete wall (at least six inches thick) parallel to the north foundation wall as well as a perforated pipe which would remove water near the wall and carry it down the western slope to lower ground. Because the grounds, as well as the house, have historic importance, archaeological field testing was undertaken as part of the work for the historic structures report. The goal of the field testing was to determine if there were any intact archaeologically sensitive zones in the area adjacent to the north side of the house, which was to undergo construction to alleviate the water problems.

### Previous Archaeological Work

Archaeological fieldwork was undertaken in the fall of 1979. The work was under the direction of Dr. Sherene Baugher, then a faculty member at Fairleigh Dickinson

University, Madison Campus. The crew was composed of graduate students from C.U.N.Y. - The Graduate Center and undergraduate students from Fairleigh Dickinson.

Although there had been many chance finds on the property, this was the first systematic and professional examination of the grounds north of the house. The goal of this work was to determine if there were any archaeologically significant areas still intact. Thirty-five shovel tests and two five foot by five foot squares were laid out on a grid pattern (see Figure 1: 4). Details of this work are discussed in Appendix A. At the end of this field testing, the site was backfilled and closed.

In summary, the excavation revealed that the only area with a high concentration of artifacts (prehistoric and colonial period) was within five feet of the north wall of the Conference House; this area would be destroyed by the proposed construction work. The fieldwork revealed that artifacts were found in stratified deposits which could be linked to the known occupants of the site. The site had the potential to contain data regarding the land use and the lifestyle of the site's occupants for several thousand years. Therefore, Baugher-Perlin (1980: 159-161) recommended that the site be excavated prior to the start of construction.

The historic structure report was reviewed by the archaeologists from the New York State Office of Historic Preservation and they concurred with these recommendations. This project was not an environmental review project; it required a State review because the historic structure report was funded by a state grant. Additional work at the site was not required by law. The Conference House Association voluntarily agreed to have an archaeological excavation at the site prior to the construction work in order to retrieve archaeological data.

### The Current Project

Following the completion of the initial field testing, the Conference House Association inquired whether mitigation fieldwork might be undertaken by a college field school. The planning and subsequent completion of the mitigation work was carried out as part of a six week summer archaeological field school of Fairleigh Dickinson

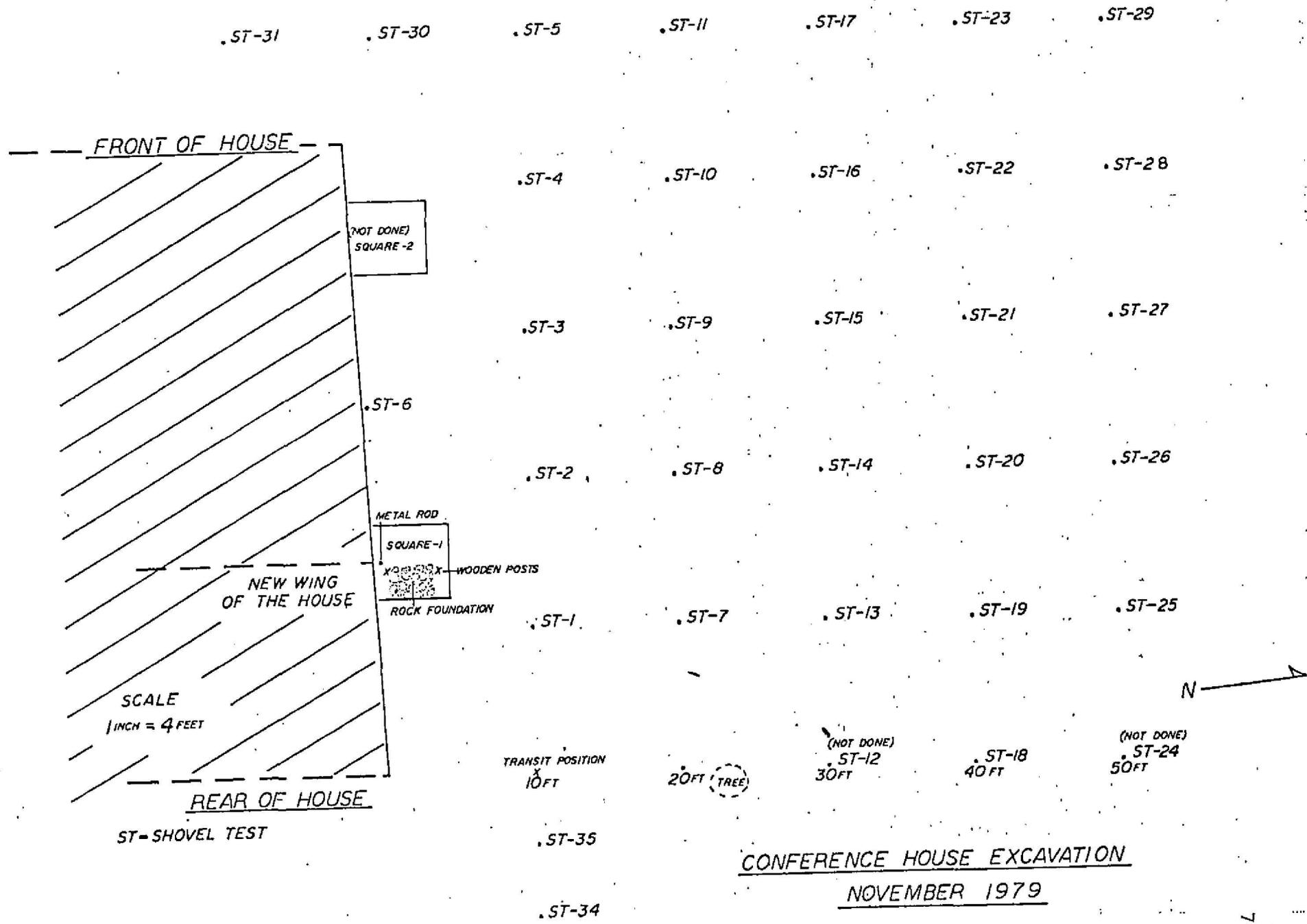


Figure 1:4

Site map of the 1979 archaeological excavation at Conference House Park (Zavin 1980:162).

University, Madison Campus, under the direction of Dr. Baugher. The work was performed during July and August 1980 (details are provided in Chapter Two).

The Conference House Park excavations were conducted to salvage the archaeological deposits prior to construction. Figure 1:5 shows the location of the 1980 excavation in relation to the work done in 1979. The research questions focused on the use of the site through time with special emphases on the American Indian and the seventeenth and eighteenth century occupation of the site. In addition, architectural questions about the construction of the Conference House foundation and identification of any support structures were addressed during fieldwork.

The excavation uncovered a total of 11,900 artifacts, including ceramics, glass, smoking pipes, and metal material. In addition, 1,495 faunal remains were unearthed. Artifacts associated with American Indians were unearthed. The eighteenth century artifact assemblage was a domestic deposit and this deposit was associated with the Billopp family during the mid-eighteenth century (see Chapters Six and Seven). The nineteenth century deposits were mixed and could not be associated with any specific nineteenth century occupants of the house. The artifact assemblage contained a wide variety of objects including broken dishes, glass, clay smoking pipes, buttons, and even food remains, such as beef bones and chicken bones. The excavation provided useful information since the archaeologists could link the artifactual deposits with the inhabitants of the site known from detailed historical records. The artifacts also provided data on both the construction of the foundation of the Conference House and alterations to the building.

The data from the Conference House site is quite useful in studying both local and regional history. The colonial information and artifacts have already been used in an exhibit on local history at the Museum of Staten Island. The show, Trade Networks of Staten Island, was on exhibit from March through August 1985 and the Museum's journal Proceedings published articles on the exhibit including data on the Conference House (Baugher 1989, Venables 1989). In addition, a scholarly article on the class and status in colonial New York prominently featured data from the Conference House site. (Baugher

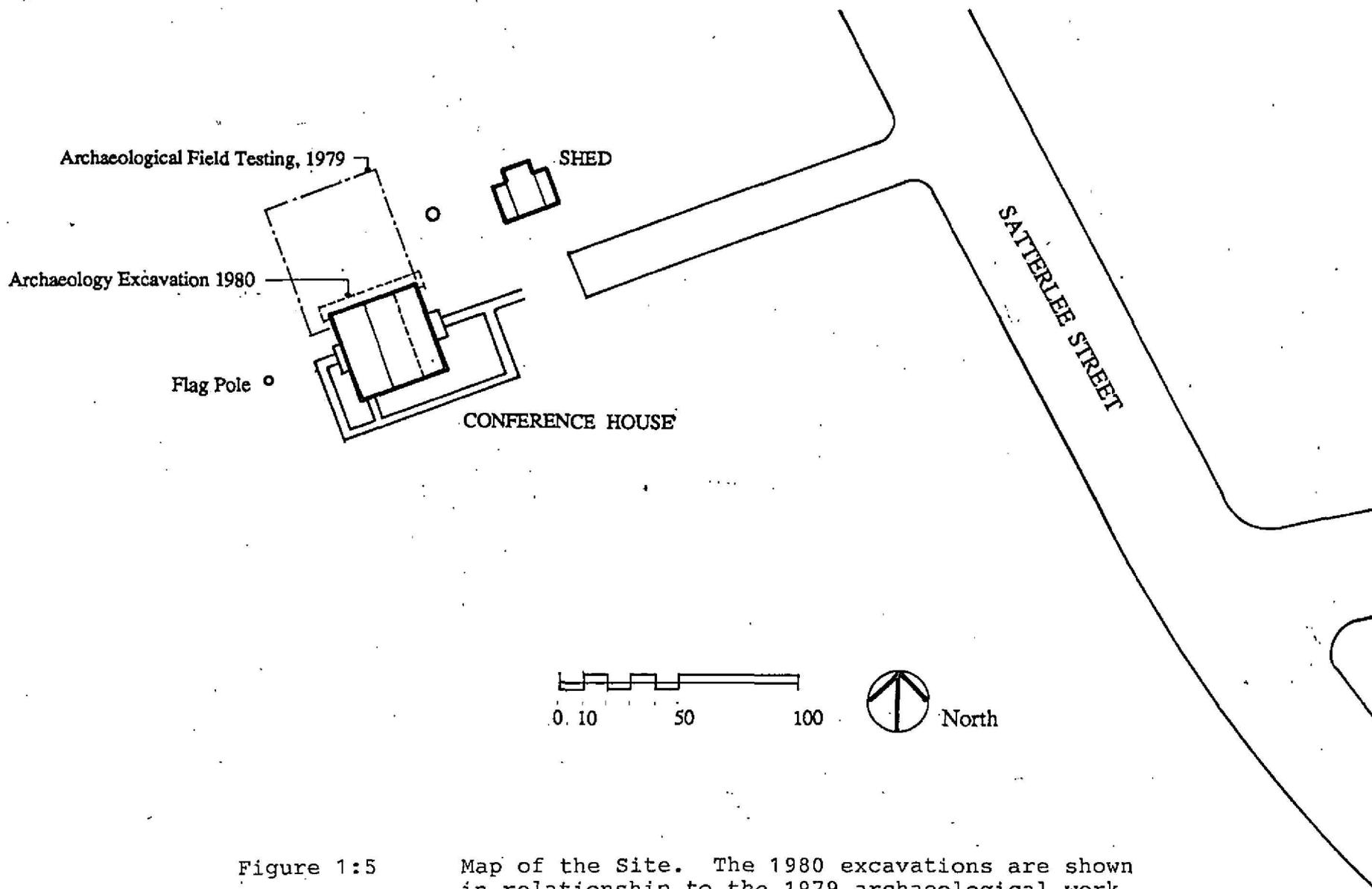


Figure 1:5

Map of the Site. The 1980 excavations are shown in relationship to the 1979 archaeological work. Map drafted by Dan Marriott. Adapted from a 1980 map of Conference House Park by Ann Beha Associates.

and Venables 1987). The findings presented in the Museum exhibit and the scholarly article are summarized in Chapter Seven.

The artifacts, copies of this report, field notes, and catalogue sheets are housed at the Conference House under the auspices of the Conference House Association. It is hoped that this information can be used for educational and interpretative programs of Conference House Park.

**CHAPTER TWO: EXCAVATION METHODS AND PROCEDURES**

Sherene Baugher

## CHAPTER TWO: EXCAVATION METHODS AND PROCEDURES

An archaeological excavation was conducted from July through August 1980. The project was not an environmental review project. It was initiated, on a voluntary basis by the Conference House Association, to salvage archaeological data prior to disturbance of the area by pending construction work.<sup>1</sup> The archaeological project was directed by Dr. Sherene Baugher. The excavation was undertaken as part of a summer archaeological field school of Fairleigh Dickinson University, Madison, New Jersey. The laboratory work and report preparation were performed by the staff of the City Archaeology Program. The laboratory director was Judith Baragli. The field crew was composed primarily of college students; Sara Keyshian was the field crew chief. The college students undertook this work as an introductory course in field methodology.

### Excavation Procedures

A grid pattern was laid out over the site on the first day of the dig. The excavation was limited to a small area adjacent to the north side of the Conference House (the area which would be affected by the new drainage system). Sixteen excavation units, each three feet by three feet (totaling 144 square feet) were placed in a north-south direction (see Figure 2:1).

Trowels were the primary excavation tools although shovels were used to remove backdirt. All excavated soil was sifted through one-quarter inch mesh screens. Artifacts found were placed in bags with the provenience number on each bag. Separate bags were used for each soil layer in each square.

The squares were excavated by removing four inch soil layers from the surface down to natural, sterile subsoil. In consultation with Bruce Fullem and Charles Florence, archaeologists with the New York State Office of Parks, Recreation, and Historic Preservation, a decision was made to use arbitrary levels (four inches in depth) rather than natural strata. The average depth for the excavated square was 46 inches and the deepest

<sup>1</sup> The installation of both a reinforced concrete wall parallel to the north wall foundation and a perforated pipe was planned to alleviate the water problems on the north side of the house.

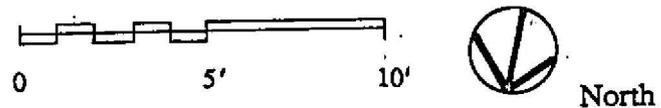
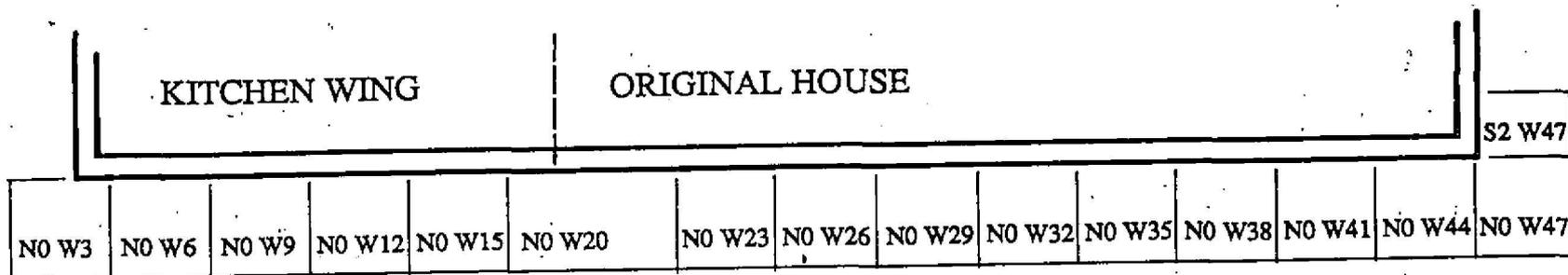


Figure 2:1

Map of Excavation Units. The exact location of all the squares with their coordinates is shown in relation to the house. Map drafted by Dan Marriott.

test was 64 inches below *current* ground level.

### Stratigraphy

To obtain data on the soil stratigraphy wall profiles were drawn for each square. An art student worked with Baugher to do all of the profiles. In addition, Baugher took Munsell readings of each soil stratum. After the excavation was completed the authors of this report compared the wall profiles with the detailed field notes to try to associate the arbitrary levels with the natural soil layers. Those arbitrary levels that were completely within one soil stratum were considered most useful for analysis. Unfortunately the arbitrary levels that were within two different deposits, when analyzed, often contained mixed eighteenth and nineteenth century deposits.

There were similarities in soil stratigraphy from square to square and as a result comparisons could be made from square to square. Below the sod were three fairly distinct layers (see Figure 2:2). The first stratum was composed of grey-brown sandy soil (Munsell color: 10 yr 3/2); this layer was generally nine to twelve inches in thickness. The second stratum contained dark brown sandy soil (Munsell color: 7.5 yr 3/2); this layer ranged in thickness from six to twelve inches and contained a heavy concentration of shell, brick, and mortar fragments. Artifact analysis indicates this shell stratum contained a deposit of eighteenth century artifacts. Thus, an intact eighteenth century deposit was present. Below the shell deposit was a stratum of orange sand (Munsell color: 7.5 yr 5/6).

The first twelve inches of orange sand contained historic period artifacts, with some scattered shell and brick fragments. The next four to twelve inches contained very few artifacts, most of which were prehistoric (chert flakes and fragments of American Indian Pottery). The orange sandy soil continued but usually by forty-eight inches below ground level it was devoid of artifacts. The orange sandy soil of stratum three (Munsell color: 7.5 yr 5/6) continued as sterile sand. There was no difference in the color or texture of the soil in stratum three; the only difference was in the presence or absence of artifacts. The deepest test into the sterile soil extended sixty-four inches below ground

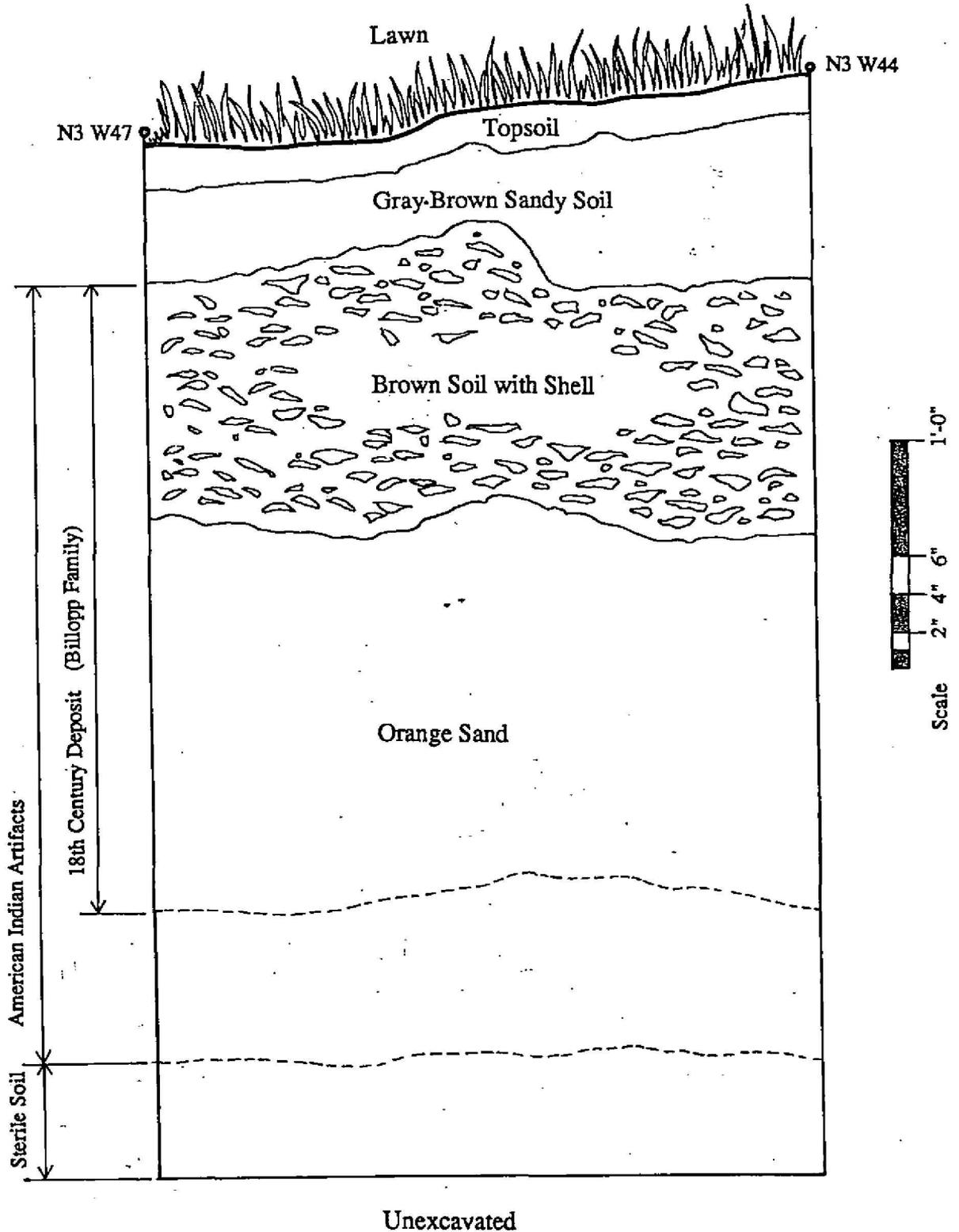


Figure 2:2

Stratigraphy. The north wall profile of square NOW47 is a typical soil stratigraphy for this site. Map drafted by Dan Marriott.

level. When shovel testing was undertaken in fall 1979 by Baugher, a small two foot wide test was excavated along the north wall of the house; the test was dug to a depth of eighty-one inches (see Appendix A). The same sterile orange sandy soil was found at eighty-one inches below grade.

### Intrusions

In the eighteenth century a one-and-a-half story lean-to kitchen wing was attached to the rear of the original house. Zavin (1980:43-44) suggests that the kitchen wing probably was built during Thomas Farmer Billopp's tenure at the house (1732-1750) or after 1760 when Colonel Christopher Billopp assumed ownership of the property. Squares NOW3 to NOW20 are along the north wall of the eighteenth century kitchen wing. In the seventeenth century this area would have been the backyard of the original house. There was some disturbance in the first stratum in the squares along the north side of the kitchen wing (see Figure 2:3). There was, however, an intact shell deposit below stratum one. Stratum two (described in the stratigraphy section of this chapter as the shell layer) was found consistently in the squares along the north side of the house and contained an intact eighteenth century deposit. Sterile sand was encountered at or about thirty-six inches below grade in the squares along side the kitchen wing and between thirty-six and forty-eight inches below grade along the original north wall of the house.

The foundation of the kitchen wing was built of dry laid fieldstones, i.e., without the use of mortar (see Figure 2:4). It was a shallow foundation less than three feet in depth. The foundation of the original portion of the house contained fieldstones and mortar and was extremely deep. At eighty-one inches below grade (the extent of our deepest test) the footing of the foundation had not been encountered. The mortar along the original portion of the house (below grade) was in a fairly good state of preservation. The foundation of the kitchen wing, however, required stabilization. Three days before the end of the six week archaeological excavation a small section of the kitchen wing foundation collapsed into the excavation units. The Conference House Association hired Conrad Finegado (mortar specialist and private contractor, formerly from the Buildings

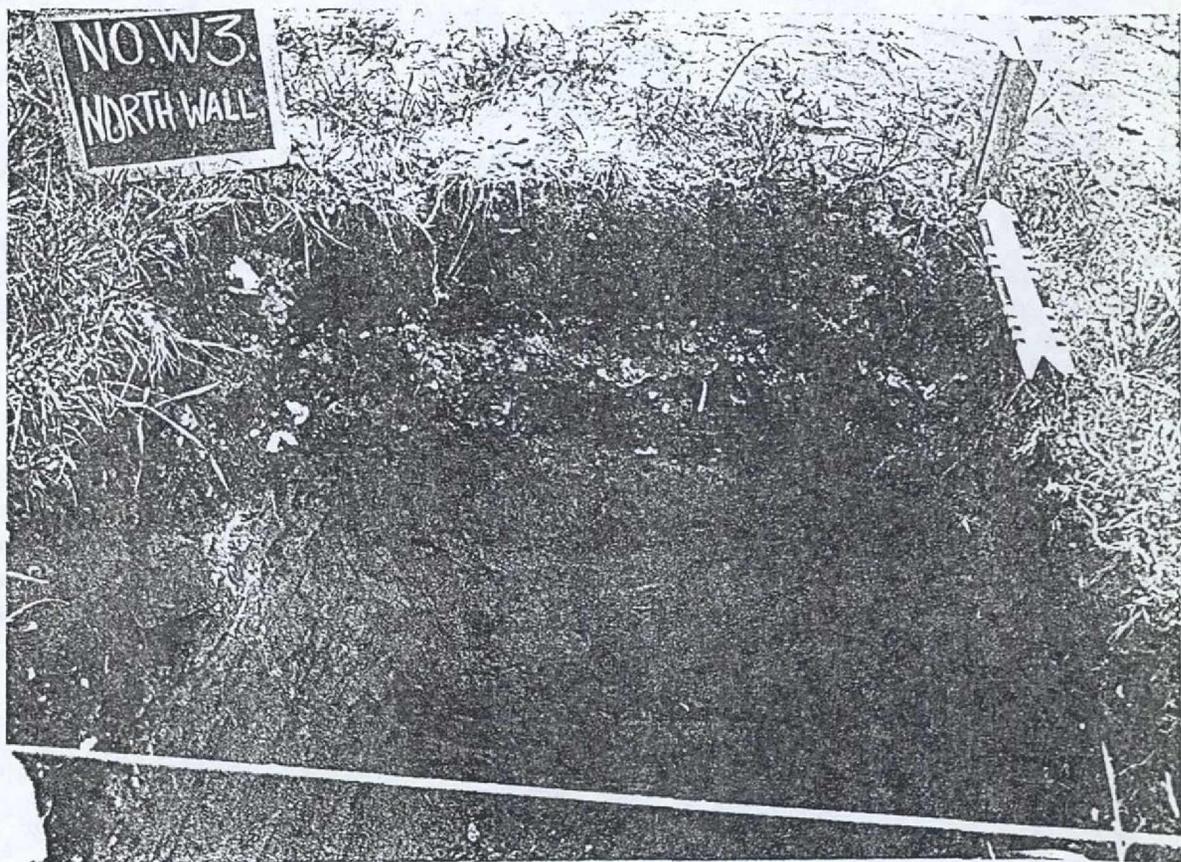


Figure 2:3

Stratigraphy Near the Kitchen Wing. These squares all exhibited some disturbance in the upper stratum; however, all squares contained a shell layer which was only a few inches thick. The shell layer contained colonial period artifacts. Photograph by Sherene Baugher.



Figure 2:4

Kitchen Wing Foundation. The foundation was shallow and without mortar. Photograph by Sherene Baugher.

and Grounds Staff of Richmondtown Restoration) to restore the collapsed portion of the stone foundation wall and to provide some immediate stabilization (by bonding with mortar) to the other exposed portions of the kitchen wing foundation wall (Louis Robinson, personal communication August 1980). Preservationists and members of the board of the Conference House Association felt that it was fortunate that the stabilization problem of the kitchen wing foundation was discovered during the controlled archaeological excavations rather than during construction. The Board had adequate time to evaluate the problem and assess the impact of the proposed construction along the wall and considered alternatives. In addition, no costly delays to construction took place and thus there were no extensive cost over-runs.

A drawing by Alfred DeGroot rendered in 1846 shows a wooden lean-to shed attached to the north wall of the kitchen wing (see Chapter Five for details). The shed is in the approximate location of square NOW15. The wooden posts for the shed and a stone floor to the shed were located in the excavation of square 1 in the Fall of 1979 (see Appendix A).

#### The Foundation Of The House

The main portion of the house was built circa 1676 (see Chapter Five for details). Zavin (1980:42) writes:

"the existing original fabric, insofar as it is visible, suggests the building was conceived of and executed as a totality with no major or significant interruptions of long duration that occurred during the course of its construction".

The archaeological excavation did not uncover a builders' trench. The lack of a builders' trench suggests that the footprint of the building, including the basement area, was excavated prior to the installation of the foundation; the foundation wall can be assumed to have been built with the workmen standing inside what was to become the basement floor (William McMillen, Director of Buildings and Grounds, personal communication). The kitchen-wing also lacked a builders' trench, also indicating that

this foundation was built with workman standing within the footprint of the structure rather than in a builders' trench outside the structure. The stone foundation of the original structure was held together with a mortar made of lime and crushed burnt, oyster shells (William McMillen, personal communication 1991). The excavation revealed that the portions of the main building below ground contained well-preserved mortar. The kitchen-wing foundation as was mentioned earlier, contained no mortar.

### Summary

In spite of the intrusions noted above, the site did contain intact archaeological deposits. Chapter Six contains a discussion of the results of the lab and fieldwork, provides dates for the deposits, and an analysis of the archaeological collection.

**CHAPTER THREE: LABORATORY METHODS**

Sherene Baugher  
Judith M. Guston  
Edward J. Lenik  
Kate Morgan

### CHAPTER THREE: LABORATORY METHODS

This chapter describes the procedures used during the laboratory work on the Conference House Park artifact collection (a review of the LPC laboratory methods written for the general reader can be found in Baugher and Baragli 1987:34-40). In archaeology, an artifact loses much of its value if its context is not known. Therefore, the first task of an archaeological laboratory is to ensure that the provenience of each of the thousands of artifacts found during the excavation is accurately and permanently recorded. This chapter describes the recording procedures as well as the studies that were made on the collection in order to interpret the site accurately.

#### Field Recording

The documentation of the Conference House Park site began during the first day of fieldwork. As the artifacts were encountered, they were removed and placed in paper or plastic bags. Each bag was labelled with a waterproof marker with the exact site location (the code number indicating the excavation square and soil layer within which the artifacts were found) and the general category of artifacts inside the bag (wood, ceramics, etc.). Artifacts were brought to the attic storage room of the Conference House on a daily basis.

During rain days and the last two days of the field school, the students, under the direction of Dr. Baugher, did a preliminary washing of the ceramics, glass, metal, and bone artifacts. The objects were washed in warm water using soft scrub brushes to remove the soil from the artifacts. The artifacts were stabilized and put in storage at the Conference House because funds were not available for laboratory work and report preparation.

In 1982, the artifacts were brought to the archaeological laboratory at the Landmarks Preservation Commission. At this time, funds were not available for laboratory work. However, through the Landmarks Preservation Commission's internship program, undergraduate students under the direction of Dr. Baugher washed, sorted, and labelled

the collection. With a small grant from the Segram Fund, the cataloguing of the eighteenth century assemblage was completed. In 1990, the analysis of the entire collection and detailed cataloguing was completed as part of a National Heritage Trust Grant from the New York State Office of Parks, Recreation, and Historic Preservation.

All the artifacts cleaned by the Fairleigh Dickinson students received a second cleaning in the LPC lab. Ceramics, glass, and clay smoking pipes were soaked in warm water with ORVUS paste (modified sodium lauryl sulfate). ORVUS is a mild non-ionic detergent with a pH of 6.3 used by conservators. The artifacts were scrubbed with a soft tooth brush. The objects were allowed to dry on trays for twenty-four hours. Fabric, leather, mortar, bricks, wood, shell, bone, and floral material were cleaned gently with a dry brush. Artifacts were cleaned by excavation unit and level in order to maintain their provenience numbers.

After the cleaning process was completed, selected artifacts (ceramics, bottle glass, and clay smoking pipes) were labelled individually with their provenience numbers. Most of the architectural material (metal, mortar, and brick) was bagged (with labels on the bags), but provenience numbers were not applied to their surfaces.

Artifacts selected for individual labeling were marked with the north and west coordinates of the excavation square and its level number; thus, each was numerically coded with its exact site location. For example, a fragment of pottery recovered from a square with the coordinates North 3 West 15, level 1 would be labeled N3 W15 L1. Care was taken that each label was located in a place that would not be obscured during the subsequent mending process. A coat of clear nail polish was applied to the spot to be labelled to ensure that ink did not penetrate the surface of the artifact. When the nail polish was dry, the provenience code number was written on it in indelible ink. After the ink was dry, a second layer of nail polish was applied to serve as a sealer. The use of this method allows for the removal of the label should it be necessary. Artifacts which were too small to be labelled were placed in containers on which the type (e.g., ceramics, glass, metal, etc.) and provenience were written. When cleaning and labelling were completed, artifacts previously grouped according to general category (for example,

ceramics) were sorted and catalogued into specific subcategories (redware, buffware, delft, etc.).

Artifacts were placed in plastic bags according to specific groups (e.g., ceramic, or clay smoking pipes) and location. Each bag was labelled on the outside with a waterproof marker.

Some artifacts, as discussed earlier, were not labelled individually. Nails, for example, are usually too rusty to be labelled with sufficient clarity. Each nail, however, was examined to determine its diagnostic physical characteristics (hand-wrought, machine cut, or wire) in order to obtain architectural information and approximate dates of manufacture for the objects. The catalogue sheets contain a record of the exact number of nails of each subcategory (hand-wrought, machine cut, or wire nail) within each stratum: e.g., level one contained fifteen wire nails and eight cut nails.

The diagnostic value of window glass fragments lies in the interpretation of the quantities retrieved from each separate time period based on the method of manufacture (type), e.g., broad glass or crown glass. However, most of the window glass fragments from the Conference House Park site were so heavily patinated that they could not be identified according to historic period or type. The glass was individually labelled by square and level, catalogued by thickness, then bagged by square and level. Each bag was labelled on the outside.

Each catalogue sheet was headed with the site name and location (square and level number) and type of artifact (e.g., buttons) to be catalogued. These sheets were prepared to meet the universal needs of a cataloguing system and also to reflect the characteristics of the artifacts found on this specific site. They were designed to make it possible to enter and to read the necessary data quickly and clearly. Each category of artifacts utilized a catalogue sheet appropriate to its particular type.

The cataloguing process was critical to the interpretation of the artifacts and the site. Because of the availability of documentary information about ceramics and glass bottle necks and bases, these artifacts could be dated quite precisely. Changes in style and in technical development made it possible to date ceramics and glass bottle necks and

bases. Their presence at this site and the record of the stratigraphic context allowed the archaeologists to assign a time span to each level.

Using a dating system devised by J.C. Harrington and refined by Lewis Binford, it was possible to date, with reasonable precision, the archaeological deposits based on the stems of clay smoking pipes made by the British between 1600 and 1800. During this period, pipes were progressively made with longer and longer stems and the diameter of the smoke hole in these stems (bore hole) became smaller and smaller. By measuring the bore hole's diameter and inserting the size frequency into a mathematical equation, the date of the archaeological deposits was determined. The designs on the pipe bowls changed from the 1600s through the 1800s and these motifs were also used to date the pipes.

When all possible manufacturing dates were recorded on the catalogue sheets, the process of mending artifacts began. Water-soluble household glue was used because the mending could be reversed if necessary. In addition to providing more complete objects suitable for display, mended pieces gave the archaeologists information about artifact distribution, site disturbance, and other depositional processes.

When all mending possibilities were exhausted and recorded, the artifacts were re-bagged. The bags were then put into boxes according to category (for example, ceramics, bottle glass, or clay smoking pipes) and provenience for reference and storage.

Once mending had been completed and the artifacts had been dated as precisely as possible on the basis of historical documentation, a time span was assigned to each of the levels excavated. A dating technique called terminus post quem (the date after which) was used, that is, the date given to a particular soil level can only be later than the most recent artifact found in that level. Because artifacts have a time span as opposed to an exact date (most objects are produced over a period of time, and not "just once"), it is practical to find a mean date for each category of artifact at a particular level. This date is obtained by averaging the dates of all the artifacts of a particular category at a specific level.

The principle of terminus ante quem (the date before which) was also used to date

levels. This dating technique is based on the assumption that the absence in a particular level of a type of artifact for which the date of origin is documented indicates that the level pre-dates that date of origin.

The dates of all of the types of artifacts in a particular context can be averaged to find the mean date of that deposit. A mean date is a very useful working tool for the archaeologist, but it must be remembered that it is an average rather than precise date.

A total count was made of all the artifacts and of each of the groups and sub-groups. Percentages and ratios for each type of artifact and site location were calculated and charts, graphs, and lists were made. For example, the ratios of domestic (dishes, personal items, etc.) to architectural (nails, window glass, hinges, etc.) artifacts and of high-status wares to low-status wares at a site supplied information about the predominant use of the site and the economic status of its inhabitants. All of these calculations were combined with the information learned from the mending process, the dates assigned to each level, and the historical documentation about the site's inhabitants in order to interpret the specific uses of the site through time (see Chapter Six).

#### Identification of the Faunal Material

The faunal assemblage was identified by direct comparison with modern skeletal material from the collections from the Bioarchaeological Laboratory, Department of Anthropology at Hunter College (CUNY), and supplementary materials such as numerous books, reports, and articles.

The identifications of the faunal remains were made to the most definitive zoological classification possible. If a bone fragment could not be assigned to a genus level and, where possible, species level, the next higher taxonomic level was used. In cases where bones were too fragmentary for a more specific taxonomic classification, they were designated by class, e.g., Mammalia. In turn, this designation was subdivided into categories of large, medium, and small animals. The size range and architecture of the bone fragment was used as an indicator for placement into the respective size classifications. Catalogue sheets are on file at both the Bioarchaeological Laboratory and

the City Archaeology Lab at the Landmarks Preservation Commission and Conference House for future reference.

#### Recovery and Taphonomic Concerns

Bone material was recovered in situ, or collected in a one-quarter inch wire mesh screen. However, the use of soil pH readings as a means to monitor bone preservation was not undertaken. As a result, only some generalized taphonomic observations can be made about this assemblage.

Bone preservation ranges from good to fair condition; this observation is based on an analysis of the juvenile macro-mammalian specimens and the fragile micro-fauna, such as rodents. The Conference House Park site faunal material tends to be mineralized like faunal collections from other Lower Manhattan archaeological sites. Mineralization usually occurs when bone calcium is replaced by minerals in the surrounding soil. One other observation that still bears investigation is the high degree of fragmentation exhibited in the bones of the larger mammalian species. This fragmentation might indicate that bone was highly processed for grease and marrow. However, there are a number of other factors that could also account for this fragmentation. Chemical and biological agents are often responsible for bone breakage in larger species (Behrensmyer 1978; Brain 1981; Haynes 1983). The smaller species are represented by whole bone elements. It can be argued that the smaller species such as rodents did not serve as dietary items, and, therefore, were not processed. Conversely, since the smaller species are represented by nearly complete bone elements, it may be the depositional context in which they were recovered that accounts for their more complete nature.

#### Quantification

Bones were tabulated within the following categories: the Total Number of Bones (TNB), the Number of Identified Specimens per Taxon (NISP), and the Total Number of Fragments (TNF). The more popular methods of the Minimum Number of Individuals (MNI) and meat weight yields have been severely criticized (Casteel 1977, 1978; Gilbert

1978; Gilbert and Singer 1982; Grayson 1978, 1979, 1981, 1984; Klein and Cruz-Urbe 1984; Lie 1980; McGovern 1985). The use of MNI requires the assumption that faunal deposits result from single depositional episodes, in which the faunal remains are buried on a newly exposed, clean surface and are immediately sealed (Grayson and Thomas 1983, Thomas and Mayer 1983). One such example of this phenomenon is the Shearson-American Express site in lower Manhattan (Russell and Amorosi 1987). The remains of cattle crania and sheep/goat pedials were butcher's waste which was dumped into a landfill site and quickly sealed. The plant remains also recovered from the Shearson-American Express site indicate that the deposition of faunal remains was quick, and the grass cover became quickly established. However, the bone deposits from the Conference House Park site were formed from many accretional events, such as the construction and demolition of the kitchen wing, shed, or landscape grading and/or infilling of the yard area. There is no stratigraphic data to indicate that a single depositional episode occurred.

There are other methodological problems with MNI (Minimum Number of Individuals) and meat weight yields that also preclude their use at the Conference House Park site. MNI determinations are unreliable because different analysts employ different criteria with significant differences in results (Grayson 1983:101). The derivation of meat yields is directly dependent on the calculation of MNI. Since MNI methods do not yield accurate and replicable results, meat weight yields are therefore prone to error (Klein and Cruz-Urbe 1984:24-38; McGovern n.d.:12-13).

In sum, the problems mentioned above are severe enough as to preclude the use of MNI and meat weight yields. Although the ordinal measures of TNB, NISP, and TNF suffer from similar methodological problems (Grayson 1983, 1984; Klein and Cruz-Urbe 1984:101; Crabtree 1985; Grayson 1983:101), these ordinal measures carry virtually all of the information embodied by MNI counts and are statistically valid ordinal levels of analysis.

**CHAPTER FOUR: NATIVE AMERICAN RESOURCES AT CONFERENCE HOUSE PARK**

Edward J. Lenik

## CHAPTER FOUR: NATIVE AMERICAN RESOURCES AT CONFERENCE HOUSE PARK

### Introduction

Conference House Park is unquestionably one of the most important prehistoric archaeological sites in New York City. This land, situated at the confluence of two major river drainage systems, the Hudson and Raritan Rivers, was occupied by Native American peoples for thousands of years prior to the arrival of European settlers. Evidence of their occupation has been found on the Conference House grounds, at the end of Hylan Boulevard on Billopp Ridge and on Burial Ridge. Native Americans camped, hunted, fished, and gathered plant food and raw material resources in the area. This land was of great importance to these people who buried their dead in significant numbers on the site.

The Conference House is currently listed on the National Register of Historic Places and is a designated New York City landmark. The surrounding property of Conference House Park is distinguished as an historical resource of extreme importance; the Park is also listed on both the National Register and the New York State Register of Historic Places. The park property is presently being considered for National Historic landmark status. Therefore, the results of this site specific archaeological investigation are presented within a regional environmental and prehistoric cultural history framework. Because this site is extremely significant, the prehistoric finds of the 1980 excavation are discussed and analyzed as a unit in this chapter.

### Environmental Setting

Geologically speaking, Conference House Park is a part of the Coastal Plain physiographic province (Schubert 1968). The underlying deposits in the region were laid down during the Cretaceous period some seventy million years ago (Gratacap 1909: 175-176). These deposits consist of sands and clays called the Raritan-Magothy formation. The Raritan formation is the oldest and is composed of loose gray sands and gravels with layers of silt (Schneider 1977). The more recent Magothy formation lies on top of the Raritan formation and consists of loose sand mixed with silt and clay with some layers of coarse sand and

gravel. Glacial deposits, in turn, overlie those of the Cretaceous period and date to about 14,000 years ago.

Continental glaciation affected the surficial geology of Staten Island as a glacier advanced and receded over the landscape at least three times in the last million years. The last, or Wisconsin episode, ended in the area about 14,000 years ago. During this period, the advancing and retreating ice sheet plus the action of lowered sea levels caused the cutting and erosion of sediments of the coastal plain. The southern limit of the ice sheet is indicated by the terminal moraine which extends along the shore of Raritan Bay and the Arthur Kill in the project area (Distrigas 1973: 2-13). As the ice melted and finally retreated it left behind glacial till and outwash sediments consisting of sands, silts, and gravels. It is clear therefore, that the region's surface features and deposits are of post-glacial origin, that is, they began forming approximately 14,000 years ago (Kraft and Chacko 1978: 41).

In general, silt, sand, gravel, clay and organic material are found throughout the study area. General soil profiles delineated from the shovel tests indicate the presence of an upper layer of brown or dark brown loam. Underlying stratum I was sand in various color layers such as reddish-yellow, tan, reddish brown, red, brown, dark brown, yellowish brown, orange brown, orange, and black (Baugher-Perlin 1980: 170-178). The sandy soil may represent stratified glacial outwash deposits from the terminal moraine.

The present topography of Conference House Park can be characterized as low, flat and rolling to some extent. Local elevations range from zero along the shoreline to fifty feet at the extreme north end. The average upland elevation is between twenty five and thirty feet above mean sea level but most elevations are under six feet (Jackson and Kihn et al. 1990: 11). The Conference House itself is on a north to south trending ridge or hill that is about twenty-five feet in elevation. A small freshwater stream flows into the southern end of the park and terminates in a large swamp.

Native American adaptive strategies included utilization of trees, plants, animals, migratory birds and waterfowl, shellfish and fish in order to assure survival. These resources would have been abundantly available in the surrounding area. The vegetation at Conference House Park consists of large areas of woodlands, swamps dominated by reed grass, small

open meadow area, and dune grasses along the shore (Jackson and Kihn et al. 1990: 28). The site contains thirty-nine species of woody plants and twenty-one species of herbaceous plants (ibid: Appendix B). However, the present vegetation has been described as "highly disturbed" (ibid: 28).

At one time, deer, turkey, heath hen, black bear, beaver, wolves, red and gray fox were plentiful but are now absent in this region. These mammals would have formed the protein base for human groups. A variety of fish, bird, shell, and mammal bones have been found by several excavators at the site but detailed analysis of these remains awaits future research. The faunal species present in the area today include raccoons, opossum, squirrels, fish and shellfish, and thirty-six species of birds (Jackson & Kihn et al. 1990: 33; Appendix C).

Small cobbles and pebbles of chert, jasper, chalcedony, quartz, and quartzite occur in the depositional material left behind by the recession of the Wisconsin glacier. These materials are present in the local area and were utilized for manufacturing stone tools by the Indians. Also, extensive clay deposits which are located nearby were undoubtedly utilized by Indians as well for making pottery.

### Regional Prehistory

The following discussion of Native American lifeways provides a model for assessing the cultural remains that have been found at the site in the past as well as those in this investigation. A brief description of the four periods of cultural history prior to and immediately following European contact is presented. These cultural sequences describe the particular technologies, lifestyles, and environmental contexts of the four time periods in coastal New York.

### The Paleo Indian Period (c. 10,000 B.C. to 8000 B.C.).

The first Native Americans arrived in the new world about 20,000 years ago. These people, whom we call Paleo Indians, migrated from Siberia across the Bering Strait Land Bridge to Alaska during the Late Pleistocene or Ice Age. They entered the new world by

way of an ice free corridor between the Laurentian and Cordilleran glaciers that covered Canada or along the western coast of North America. Indians were present in the New York area by 10,000 B.C. The distinctive feature of the Paleo Indian period was the adaptability of these people to the alternating cold, wet and dry conditions which occurred at the end of the Pleistocene and the beginning of the Holocene. During this period, the Indians were hunters and gatherers, a nomadic people who roamed widely in search of food, and their settlement pattern consisted of small temporary camps. A variety of deciduous, boreal, and grassland environments would have provided a large number of productive habitats for game animals in the region, and watering areas would have been particularly good hunting sites.

The diagnostic artifact of the Paleo Indian is the fluted projectile point. However, these people made other sophisticated tools as well such as graters, steep-edge scrapers, knives, drills and other unifacial tools. They preferred high quality lithic materials and carefully resharpened and maintained their stone tools.

#### The Archaic Period (c. 8000 B.C. to 1000 B.C.)

The Archaic Period produced a major shift in the settlement and subsistence patterns of early people. Hunting and gathering were still the basic ways of life during this period, but the emphasis in subsistence shifted from the large Pleistocene herbivores, who were rapidly becoming extinct, to smaller game and plants of the deciduous forest. The environment differed from the earlier period and was dominated by temperate habitats consisting of forests of oak and hemlock. The open grassland began to disappear and the sea level rose and inundated the land along the continental shelf. The settlement pattern of the Archaic people indicates larger, more permanent habitation sites. These people were increasingly more efficient in the exploitation of their environment, and plant food resources played a more important role in their diet along with fish and shellfish. The hallmarks of this period are bifurcated (basal notched) projectile points during the Early Archaic, grinding implements, ground stone tools, and toward the end of this period, or Terminal Archaic, the use of stone bowls and new radically different broad-bladed projectile points.

### The Woodland Period (c. 1000 B.C. to A.D. 1600)

Environmental changes continued to occur during this period including sea level rise and the replacement of some temperate forests by dry forests of oak and hickory. In general, the hunting and gathering way of life persisted in this period but several important changes took place. Horticulture began during this period and later became well established with the cultivation of corn, beans and squash. Clay pottery vessels replaced soapstone bowls and tobacco pipes and smoking were adopted. Also, the bow and arrow replaced the spear and javelin during this period. The habitation sites of the Woodland Period Indians increased in size and permanence as these people extracted food more efficiently from their environment.

### The Contact Period (c. A.D. 1600 to A.D. 1750)

The settlement of New Amsterdam (New York) by the Dutch in the early 1600s initiated the Contact Period between the Indians of Staten Island and the Europeans. Following this settlement, a regular pattern of Indian-European trade developed, and the Indians began to acquire European-made tools and ornaments. As this trade increased and continued, items of European origin should presumably occur with greater frequency at Indian sites.

### Previous Archaeological Work at Conference House Park

Conference House Park and the surrounding region has long been recognized by both professional and avocational archaeologists as rich in evidence of Native American occupations. From the late nineteenth century through the third quarter of the twentieth century, some fifty reported investigations have taken place in the area (Florance 1982: Table 3). The following prehistory of the project site is abstracted from Jacobson (1980) Burial Ridge Tottenville, Staten Island, New York: Archaeology at New York City's Largest Prehistoric Cemetery.

The first reported discovery within the property took place in 1858 when workmen

found a skeleton, a number of skulls, a large slab of mica and projectile points while excavating a cellar for the Joel Cole house. Some five years later, another cellar excavation for an addition to the Cole House resulted in the discovery of twenty skulls and some long bones. Over a ten year period, i.e., 1883-1893, a number of amateur archaeologists reported finding a variety of stone tools, flakes, and pottery fragments throughout the area. Among these finds were "arrowheads," stone netsinkers, hammerstones, axes and celts, a stone paint pot, a rubbing stone, clay pipes, flakes, and pottery fragments. These early finds indicate that the site was intensively occupied during Archaic and Woodland times, and established the site's importance as a prehistoric cemetery.

The first recorded systematic investigation at Burial Ridge was conducted in 1893 by George Pepper under auspices of the American Museum of Natural History. Pepper reportedly found eleven human burials and over 200 artifacts including stone and bone tools, ornaments such as a shell necklace, mica, a pendant, pottery fragments, a copper artifact and an iron arrowhead. This cultural material dates from the Archaic through Contact Periods.

In 1897, Captain Robert Wainwright excavated at the site and carefully recorded the discovery of nineteen skeletons. In addition, Wainwright reported finding oyster shells, tortoise and conch shells, deer bones, pottery fragments, a glass bottle, and a piece of Dutch pottery.

The best documented archaeological investigation at Conference House Park was conducted by Mark R. Harrington in 1920. Harrington found eleven human burials including one that contained a dog skull, chert flakes, pottery fragments, a cylindrical pottery bead, and shell. Harrington also mapped and described thirty-five pits and hearths.

During the late 1950s and 1960s, a number of amateur archaeologists conducted excavations at the site. Albert Anderson and Donald Sainz excavated and recovered eight more human burials and numerous artifacts. One of the most significant discoveries was made by Albert and Robert Anderson of a stratified Early Archaic component which included bifurcated (basally notched) projectile points, other stone tools and hearths.

In 1960, Jerome Jacobson conducted archaeological excavations on Burial Ridge. Jacobson reported finding twelve archaeological features, 186 pottery sherds, twelve projectile

points that date from the Late Archaic through Late Woodland Periods, stone tools, ornaments, bone, and shell fragments.

In summary, some seventy-two Native American burials have been discovered in Conference House Park since the mid-nineteenth century. No Paleo Indian artifacts have been found at the site. The site contains substantial evidence of prehistoric occupation dating from circa 6000 B.C. to the contact and early historic periods.

#### Results of the 1980 Excavation

The 1980 excavation at the Conference House was limited to a small area adjacent to the north side of the structure. Sixteen three feet by three feet excavation units were dug at the site which represents a total of 144 square feet. The prehistoric cultural remains found in this area are described and analyzed below.

#### Stratigraphy

There were two natural soil strata encountered at the site. The uppermost stratum consisted of a thin layer of dark grayish brown loam and organic material. The substrate is composed of sand, in layers of various color, derived from glacial outwash.

It is an obvious fact that the archaeological record is produced by human behavioral as well as natural environmental processes. Human activity is, of course, the basic contributor of cultural material to an archaeological site. Both human and natural site formation processes occur during and subsequent to the deposition of cultural material which may alter the arrangement and inventory of artifacts at the site. For example, the processes of trampling, construction or landscape excavation, sedimentation, and the freezing and thawing of soils have occurred at the site resulting in the migration and displacement of artifacts from their original contexts both laterally and vertically.

Several cultural layers or deposits are present on site and are clearly the result of historic period activity and occupation. These deposits are described elsewhere in this report. Clam and oyster shell fragments and some charcoal were found throughout the site but cannot be attributed with certainty to prehistoric groups at the site. The shell deposits

contained a few historic period artifacts, such as brick and mortar fragments. Unfortunately, no prehistoric cultural features such as pits or hearths were observed in the excavation units. Furthermore, no burials were encountered.

### Artifacts

A total of 177 prehistoric artifacts were recovered from the excavations. The overwhelming majority of this total was prehistoric lithic specimens, but a few pottery fragments were found as well. No projectile points were found, therefore the interpretation of chronology and cultural history at the excavation site is based entirely upon the presence of prehistoric ceramics. Only a few stone tools were found and these are summarized in Table 4:1. The lithic debitage is summarized in Table 4:2.

Eight stone tools were recovered from the site including one end scraper, five utilized flakes, (see Figure 4:1) one netsinker (see Figure 4:2), and one black chert pebble core. The scraper is a formal tool made from high quality black chert, while the netsinker is made from sandstone and is notched on two lateral sides. The utilized flakes are irregularly shaped flakes with varying degrees of edge wear present. All of these flake tools are of cryptocrystalline materials primarily black and brown chert. The utilized flakes were expedient tools which functioned as scrapers. Analysis of these specimens suggests that they were used in woodworking, bone working or on other soft material.

TABLE 4:1: TOOLS BY FUNCTION

<u>Square/Level</u>	<u>Tool</u>	<u>Material/Color</u>
N0 W35 L4	Scraper, end	chert, black
N0 W32 L7	Utilized flake	jasper, brown
N0 W38 L7	Utilized flake	chert, black
N0 W38 L8	Utilized flake	chert, reddish brown
N0 W38 L10	Utilized flake	chert, tan-brown
N0 W38 L12	Utilized flake	chert, brown
N0 W47 L3	Core, pebble	chert, black

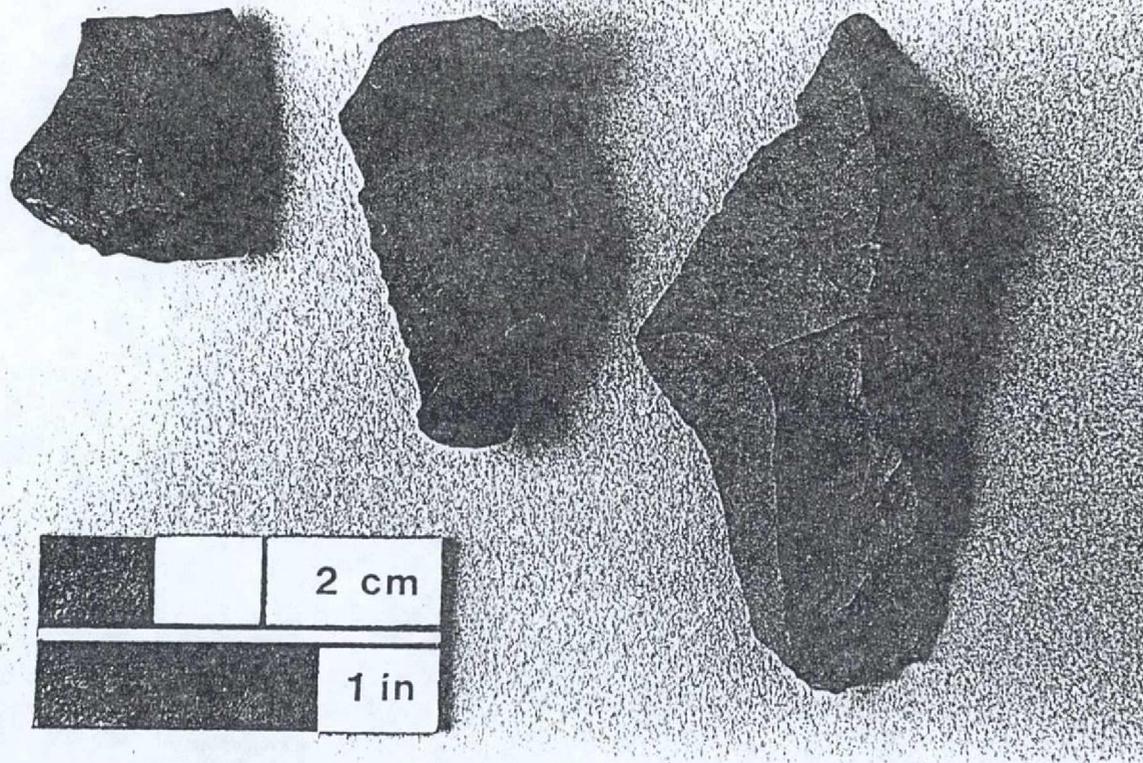


Figure 4:1

Prehistoric Stone Tools. A black chert end  
scraper (left) and two utilized flakes.  
Photograph by Carl Forster. .

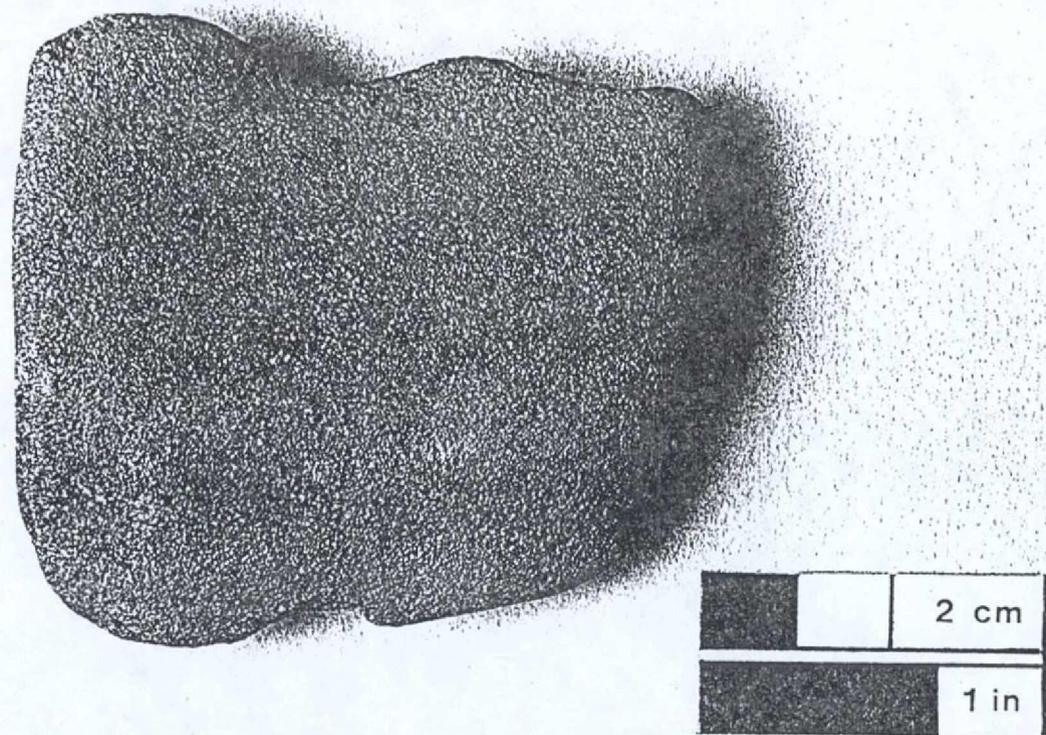


Figure 4:2

Prehistoric netsinker made from a sandstone pebble. Photograph by Carl Forster.

N0 W35 L8

Netsinker

sandstone

Debitage

Lithic debitage or waste flakes are the discarded by-product of stone tool manufacture or repair. Debitage was found scattered throughout the excavation and within every square. A total of 153 flakes and fragments were recovered from the site. The vast majority of the debitage consists of cryptocrystalline materials that occurred in a variety of colors (see Table 4:2 below). The data indicates that black and gray chert and brown jasper were the preferred lithic materials utilized by the prehistoric knappers at this location. The presence of cortex on eight specimens plus the recovery of a black chert pebble core indicates that these flakes were struck from locally obtained cobbles and pebbles. Chert and jasper pebbles are available from streams and gravel banks on Staten Island. Such deposits are known as Pensauken Gravel, a Pleistocene fluvial deposit that includes brown and tan jaspers and black to light gray chert (Lavin and Prothero 1981: 14).

Mica

A sheet of mica was recovered from excavation unit N0 W47 Level 15. This is an exotic raw material and was obtained elsewhere by quarrying or trade and brought on site. It is interesting to note that a cut mica ornament was found in the late nineteenth century on Burial Ridge in association with a child's burial (Jacobson 1980: 36 Plate 3; 37,64).

TABLE 4:2: ANALYSIS OF LITHIC DEBITAGE

<u>Material/Color</u>	<u>Quantity</u>	<u>% of Total</u>
Chert, black	54	35.3
Chert, gray	27	17.6
Chert, unidentified	13	8.5
Chert, brown, tan	8	5.2
Chert, gray-black	4	2.6
Chert, green	3	2.0
Chert, purple	1	0.7
Jasper, brown	35	22.9
Jasper, red	6	3.9
Quartzite	2	1.3
TOTALS:	153	100.0

### Ceramics

The ceramic assemblage consists of fourteen potsherds (see Figure 4:3) and one clay pipe (see Figure 4:4) fragment. Six specimens are undecorated body sherds and five are cord marked on their exterior surfaces. One specimen is a fragment of Munsee Incised pottery which dates to the Late Woodland Period. Finally, one specimen has a stamped decoration and one punctate markings. These latter two fragments cannot be identified as to type with any degree of confidence due to their small size, however they probably date to the Late Woodland Period as well (see Figure 4:3).

One fragment of a clay tobacco smoking pipe was recovered from square N0 W29 Level 7. This artifact also dates to the Woodland Period (See Figure 4:4).

### Analysis and Interpretations

The 1980 excavations at the Conference House yielded fourteen fragments of pottery and one fragment of clay tobacco pipe. All of these specimens can be attributed to the Woodland Period. However, one fragment of Munsee Incised pottery is present in the collection and this diagnostic specimen dates to the Late Woodland Period which has a temporal span ranging from c. A.D. 1400 to A.D. 1735 (Kraft 1975: 138-145). Munsee Incised pottery has also been found elsewhere within the Conference House Park property by other investigators.

As indicated previously, the vast majority of artifactual material recovered from the excavation site consisted of stone tools and lithic debitage. The raw materials from which the tools were manufactured can be found in the Pleistocene gravels which occur in the region in pebble or cobble form.

The analysis of the debitage clearly shows that all stages of tool manufacturing took place at the site. The lithic debris consists of cortical flakes, large flakes, shatter or fragments, and thinning flakes which strongly support such an interpretation.

The largest functional category of tools found at the site is that of utilized flakes. These ad hoc tools may have been utilized as scrapers on both hard and soft materials. They

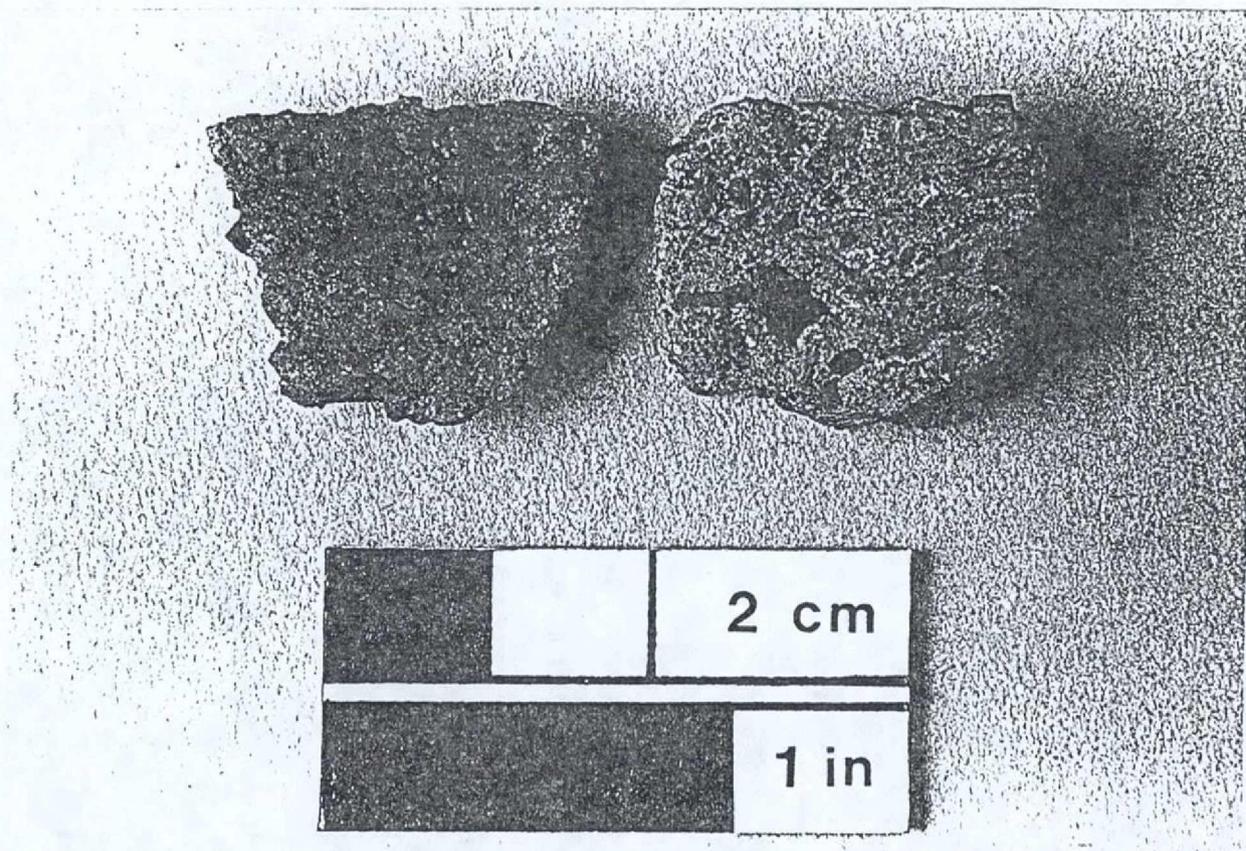


Figure 4:3

Two fragments of Indian pottery dating to the Late Woodland Period. Photograph by Carl Forster.

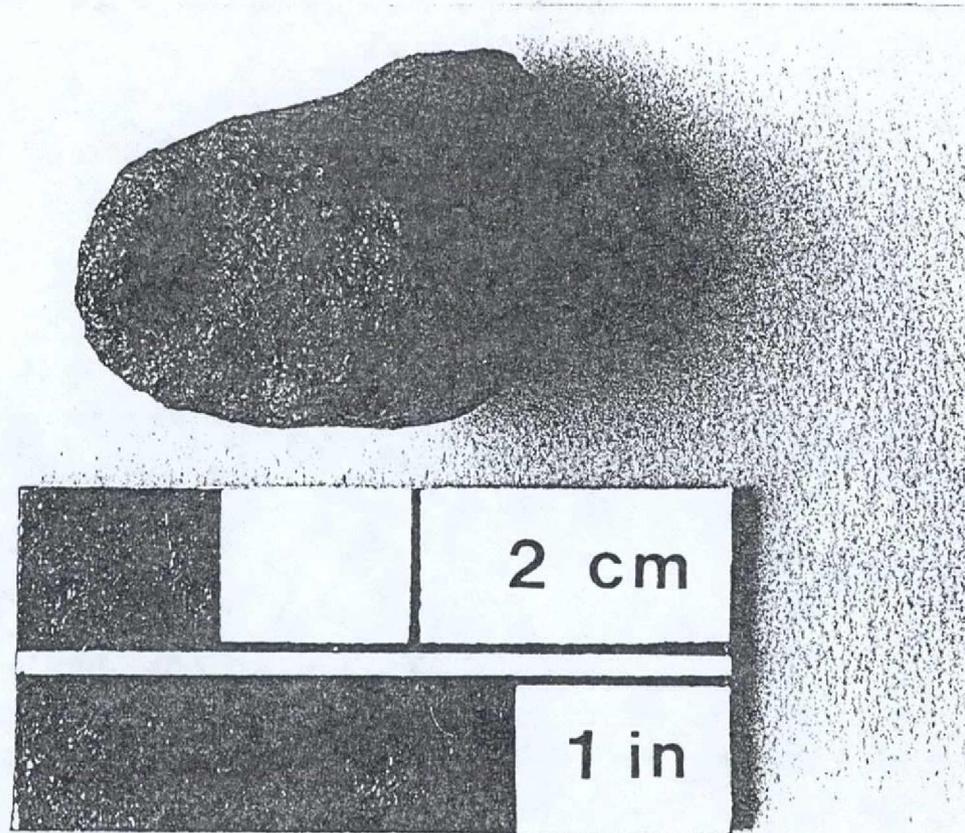


Figure 4:4

Fragment of Indian Clay Tobacco Pipe. Photograph  
by Carl Forster.

were lightly and briefly utilized and discarded. One formal scraper was also found and had a similar function.

Finally, one netsinker was recovered from the site which suggests that fishing took place probably in the nearby bay.

The one fragment of sheet mica may have been part of an ornament. This mica specimen hints at an Adena-Hopewell occupation at the site during the Early to Middle Woodland cultural periods, or perhaps culture contact and trade with these people. The Adena-Hopewell people (c. 1000 B.C. - C. A.D. 500) had a complex society which was centered in the Ohio and Mississippi River Valleys with an elaborate material culture and burial practices.

**CHAPTER FIVE: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND**

Sherene Baugher

## CHAPTER FIVE: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

This chapter will provide an over-view of the historic land use and land alteration in the project area, the yard along the north side of the Conference House. In addition, it will provide a concise summary of the occupants of the site from c. 1676 to the present. The most thorough, detailed, and well-documented history of the site and its occupants was written by William T. Davis (1926). A contemporary, popular account was written by Field Horne in a booklet published by the Conference House Association in 1990. The reader desiring more information on the Billopp family should consult the two above-mentioned works.

The Conference House is named in honor and commemoration of the famous peace conference of 1776. On September 11, 1776, Continental Congress representatives John Adams, Edward Rutledge, and Benjamin Franklin met with the King's representative, Lord Richard Howe at Billopp's home on Staten Island (Billopp was a loyalist). Unfortunately, no reconciliation was reached. The British would not consider independence a negotiable term and the congressional representatives had been authorized only to negotiate for terms that included independence (Horne 1990:19-22). With the failed peace conference, both the Crown and colonists faced the inevitability of war.

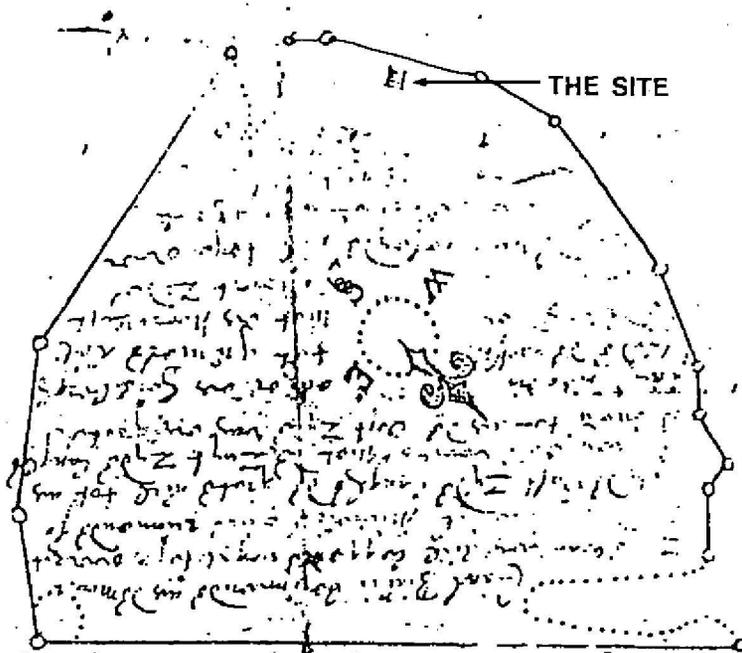
In terms of the history of the site, the peace conference (including preparation time) only occupied a few days. The probability of finding a fine-grained stratified deposit that could be associated with the peace conference is very slim. It is more likely that artifacts associated with the military occupation of the property might be found, although the military presence on the site was limited to July and August 1776 and occasional raids during the war. On the grounds outside of the project area but within Conference House Park one might find remnants of soldiers latrines and refuse pits.

It is more likely that stratified deposits could be associated with the occupants of the house which involved a much longer period of time. Table 5:1 provides a chart of the occupants of property and the periods of occupancy. The Billopp family owned the site for one hundred and six years, from c. 1675 until 1781. The Ward family lived at the site for

another fifty-four years (1781-1835). For forty-eight years (1847-1895) tenant farmer and later caretaker Richard Christopher lived at the site. Finally Julian Meerseman rented the site for sixteen years (1906-1918 and 1922-1926). With such long-term occupancies of the house, there is a high probability of finding material that could be associated with these families. The mitigating factor is the land alteration to the property, such as building additions, landscaping, and construction of underground utility lines, which would have disturbed or destroyed the deposits.

The first known European occupants of the site were the Billopp family. In 1674, Captain Christopher Billopp (he spelled it "Billop") came to New York with the newly appointed governor, Edmund Andros (Horne 1990:3). In 1676, Billop received a patent for 932 acres of land on the southern tip of Staten Island plus 30 acres of salt meadow on the west shore of Staten Island (Patent 4 pages 97-98). A map and a description of a survey of the property by Robert Ryder, c. 1676, is the earliest map showing a house on the site (see Figure 5:1). George Tuttle (1921:31), after evaluating the dimensions and scale on Ryder's map (as compared to other maps), concluded that the Billopp house depicted on the Ryder map was a substantial building. In August 1677, Billop accepted an appointment as Collector of Customs for Delaware and this required his residency in New Castle, Delaware but his wife remained on Staten Island managing the property (Davis 1926:54-57). Zavin (1980:41-42) suggests that because of Billop's long, extended absences from Staten Island between 1677 and 1681 that it seems likely that the extant house was either built or under construction prior to Billop's departure to Delaware in 1677. In addition, Zavin (1980:41) could find no documentary evidence for a temporary structure on the site. Davis (1926:53-54) notes that in 1677, Billop obtained a mortgage for 600 hundred pounds sterling from his brother Joseph in London; this money was probably used to pay for the building of the Staten Island house. Furthermore, in the 1979 excavations by Baugher-Perlin (see Appendix A of this report) and the 1980 excavations, no evidence was found of a temporary house on this site. Therefore, the house depicted on the Ryder map is probably the extant structure.

Billop went to Delaware in August 1677, had a major disagreement with Governor Andros and was dismissed in 1678, then returned to England and had his father intercede



By virtue of a warrant filed by Right honorable Major Edm: Andros Governor of at 13. 10. 6  
 Right honorable Territory in America: For the receiving out of a neck of Land upon Staten Island  
 Capt: Christ: Billop: with a neck of land laid out in front of the above figure contains  
 & contains: minimal and kindly two class

Figure 5:1 Ryder Map c. 1676. "Description of a neck of land upon Staten Island laid out for Christopher Billop by Robert Ryder Surveyor." Photocopy of map reproduced in the Conference House report by Zavin (1980:12).

with the Crown so that he was able to re-enter the navy and return to New York by 1681 (Davis 1926:54-62). By 1687, Governor Dongon (who succeeded Andros in 1682) granted Billop a new patent with manorial privileges; the property, now called Bentley Manor, included the original 932 acres and added another 668 acres for a total of 1600 acres (Davis 1926:79-83). The 1687 map made by Philip Wells of the 1600 acres shows a substantial house and an outbuilding to the northeast of the project area (see Figure 5:2). When studying the acreage of Staten Island patents depicted on Skene's map, most patents are for 80 acre parcels, some patents are for parcels between 100 and 160 acres, a few patents are for parcels between 200 and 300 acres, but very few patents are for over 300 acres (see Figure 5:3). The manorial patent was an impressive land grant for Staten Island.

Throughout, most of the 1690s Captain Billop was away at sea (Horne 1990:12). Billop's brother, Joseph may have lived at the manor house from 1698 until 1712 when he died (Horne 1990:12). Billop's two daughters (his only children) lived at the manor house off and on between 1707 and 1732. In 1702, the daughters received power of attorney to run Bentley Manor (Davis 1926:102-103).

Captain Billop died in Fleet Prison, London in 1725 (neither Davis 1926 and Horne 1990 could determine the reason for his imprisonment). Billop made out his will in prison in which he laid out a very detailed plan for the inheritance of the Bentley Manor by one of his male grandsons provided they change their surname to Billop (Davis 1926:89-94). From an archaeologist's point of view the most interesting notation in his will is his gift of dinnerware "brass, pewter and wooden ware as are requisite for a family of six people and all manner of necessaries for the kitchen fit" (Davis 1926:90). Brass and pewter cups, goblets, and plates are rarely found on sites because of their monetary value and durability -- it is unlikely that pewter and brass dinnerware would have been purposefully discarded as trash. Wooden items, on the other hand, would have been discarded, but, because of the problems of wood preservation in many sites in New York City, it is unlikely that the wooden ware would survive in the ground. Archaeologists rely heavily on ceramics for dating and interpretation, yet it is important to note that there is no mention in Billop's will of ceramics as a tableware. Deetz (1977) notes that in the eighteenth century there was an increasing use

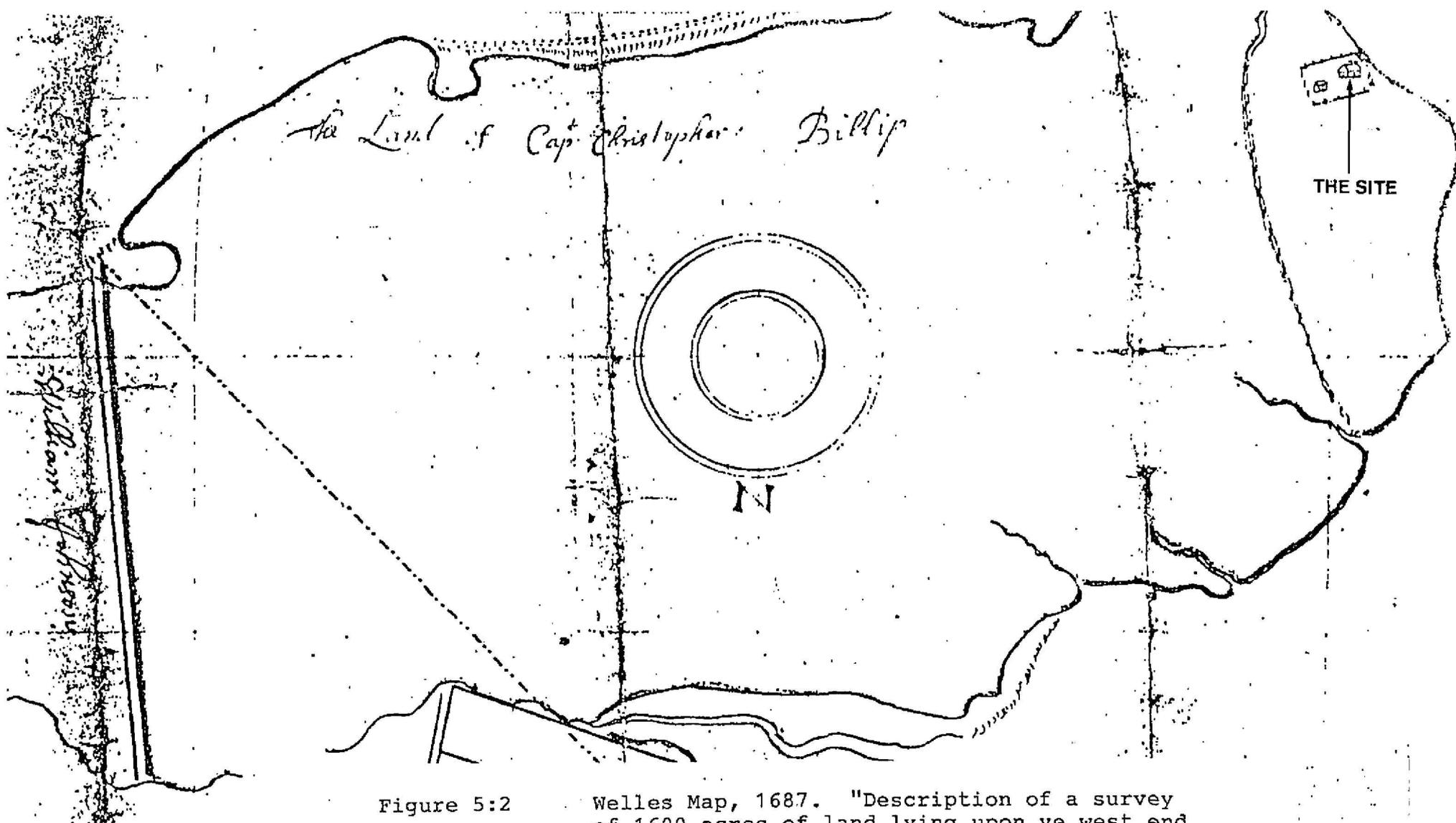


Figure 5:2

Welles Map, 1687. "Description of a survey of 1600 acres of land lying upon ye west end of Staten Island beginning upon the north side opposite to the land of Gabriel Minvielle laid out for Christopher Billop by Phillip Welles, Survey (with draught)." Photocopy of map reproduced in the Conference House report by Zavin (1980:13).

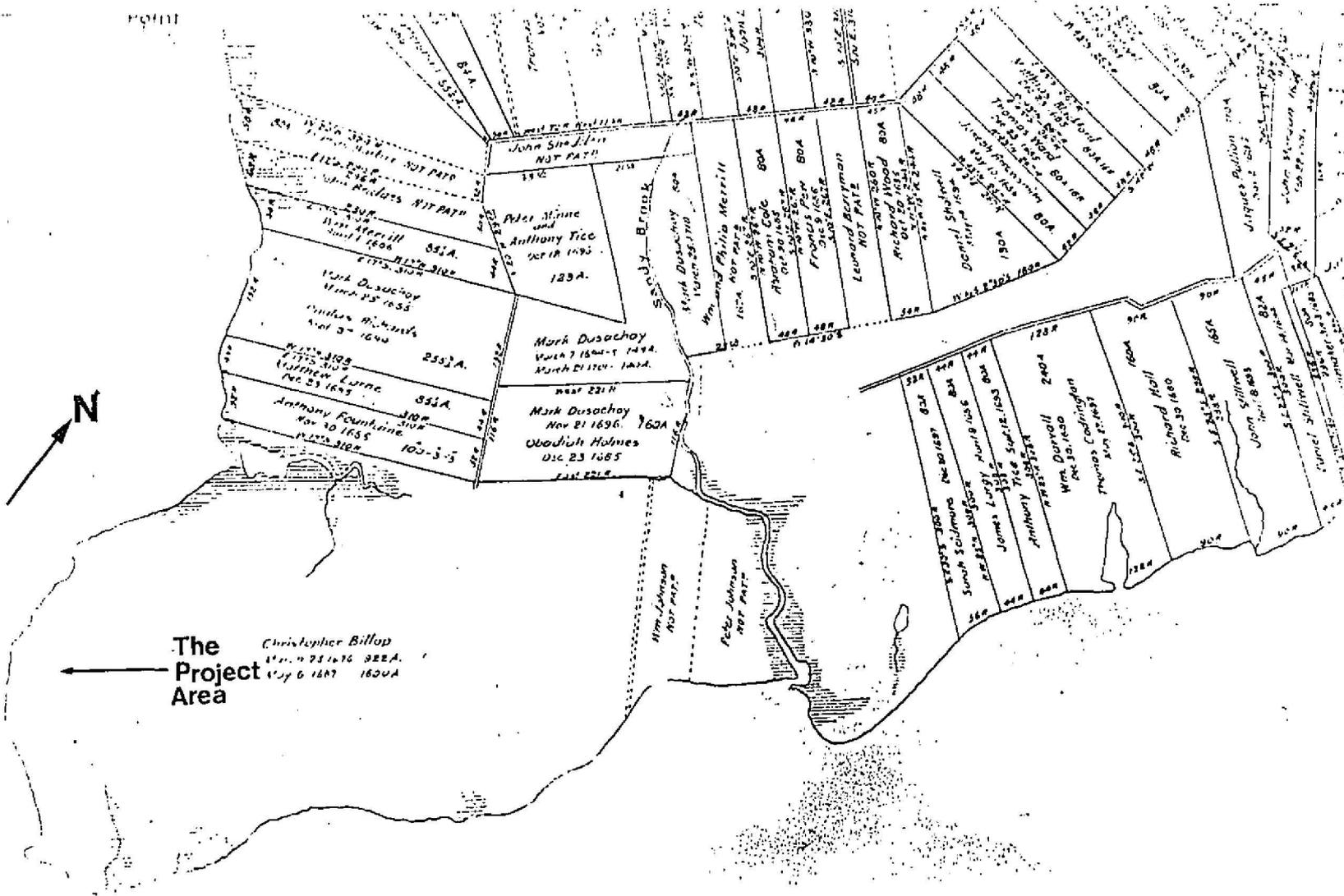


Figure 5:3

Skene Map. Land Grant Map of Staten Island Colonial Patents, 1688-1712, drawn by Frederick Skene in 1907.

of ceramics in dinner service to replace the wooden ware and pewter that were used in the seventeenth century. Captain Billop was typical of a seventeenth century colonial gentlemen in his choice of dinnerware. It is possible that Billop may have owned utilitarian earthenware or stoneware bowls for food preparation and storage vessels in his kitchen.

In 1732, Billop's grandson, Thomas Farmer, came of age, took on the surname Billopp and inherited Bentley Manor. In 1750, Thomas Billopp died at age 30 leaving one child by his first wife and eight by his second wife (Davis 1926:115-116).

After Thomas Billopp took title to the manor he paid all colonial quit-rents (1,445 bushels of wheat) which were owed to the Crown since 1676; none of the yearly payments had ever been made by his grandfather, uncle, mother or aunt (Davis 1926:116). Thomas Billopp probably built a one-and-a-half story kitchen wing to the house or it could have been built after 1760 during Christopher Billop's tenure (Horne 1990:16). After Thomas Billopp's death, his wife Sarah ran the house until her eldest son, Christopher came of age in 1760, then Christopher owned and occupied the property (Horne 1990:14). The only dinnerware mentioned in Thomas Billopp's will were silver plates which were given to his wife Sarah (Liber 17 of Wills: 218), again it would be unlikely to find silver plates discarded because of their monetary value and thus unlikely to find them at the site.

Christopher Billopp was the "Tory Colonel" of the American Revolution. In 1762, he married Frances Willet and subsequently had two sons and three daughters, and in 1773, after the death of his first wife, he married Jenny Seaman with whom he had five daughters (Davis 1926:126). Horne (1990:17) notes that Christopher Billopp called himself a farmer in deeds for sales in the early 1760s and also was a landlord with four houses "rented out". Billopp, a tory during the war, was commander of a provincial corps; he was captured twice during the war in 1778 for nine months and in 1779 for a month (Horne 1990:24). After his first imprisonment he may have moved his family to New York for safety. Davis (1926:139) notes that when Billopp was captured in 1779, he was at the home of his father-in-law, Benjamin Seaman where after his first imprisonment, he used to regularly come to sleep. By 1780, Billopp started selling off parcels of his land; before the war ended he managed to sell 850 of the 1600 acres including the manor house which he sold to Samuel Ward along with

373 acres (Davis 1926:157). The rest of Billopp's property was confiscated after the war. At the end of the war, Billopp, like many loyalists, moved to New Brunswick, Canada. Billopp not only lost his Staten Island estate as a result of the war, but during the war his property was plundered and household belongings as well as slaves and animals were stolen and animals were stolen (Davis 1926:163-169, see chapter seven of this report for more details).

The last family to own and occupy the Billopp house was the Ward family, who occupied the house from 1781 to 1835 (see Table 5:1). Caleb Ward was a farmer and carpenter (Horne 1990:29). Thereafter, the property was owned by land speculators who rented the house or left it vacant (see Table 5:1). Since there were no undisturbed nineteenth and twentieth century deposits, this chapter will simply provide Tables 5:1 and 5:2 listing the deed transactions and the occupants of the house. In 1926, the last owner of the property, Harmon National Real Estate Corp., donated the land and house to the City of New York, which still owns it today (Liber 620 of Deed:111). Since 1926, the Conference House Association has maintained and managed the house and provided all of its public programs.

A review of maps from the eighteenth century, i.e., Poppel's map of 1783, Bowen's map of 1747, the 1771 French map (*Baye et Port D'Yorc*), show Billopp's home as the prominent home in southern Staten Island (see Figures 5:4, 5:5, and 5:6).

The Hessian map of 1780 and McMillan's map of Staten Island during the Revolutionary War show the Billopp house as a prominent building (see Figures 5:7 and 5:8). None of these maps depict any outbuildings. On the Sprong and Connor map of 1797 the Billopp house is now shown to be owned by Caleb Ward (see Figure 5:9).

The nineteenth century and early twentieth century maps, likewise, do not depict any outbuildings surrounding or associated with the Billopp house (see Figures 5:10, 5:11, 5:12, 5:13, 5:14, 5:15, 5:16, 5:17, and 5:18). It is important to note that the Robinson Atlas of 1898 and the Robinson Atlas of 1907, and the Bromley Atlas of 1917 do depict outbuildings (barns, sheds, and garages) but none are depicted for the Billopp house. If any outbuildings existed close to the house, then they had been demolished by 1898. On a drawing of the house by Alfred DeGroot (1846), a wooden shed is shown along side the north wall where the kitchen wing meets the original portion of the house (see Figure 5:19). (This

Table 5:1 The Conference House  
Chronology Of Ownership And Occupancy  
 (Source: Zavin 1980)

<u>Dates</u>	<u>Owner</u>	<u>Occupant</u>
c.1675 - c.1704/5	Capt. Christopher Billopp	Billopp family
c.1702/4 - 1732	Mary Billop and Ann Billop Farmar	Billopp family
1732 - 1750	Thomas Farmar Billopp	Billopp family
1750 - 1760	Sarah Billopp, wife of T.F. Billopp	Billopp family
1760 - 1781	Col. Christopher Billopp	Billopp family
1781 - 1835	Samuel and Caleb Ward	Ward family
1835 - 1836	Mary Grim	Unknown
1836 - 1847	Leonard Parkinson and John B. Simonson	Unknown
1847 - 1859	Leonard Parkinson and John B. Simonson	Richard Christopher
1859 - 1889	William H. Aspinwall	Richard Christopher
April 1889 June 1889	Henry Eldridge	Richard Christopher
1889 - 1895	Bentley Manor Company	Richard Christopher
1895 - 1906	Charles H. Leland	Unknown
1906 - 1918	Charles H. Leland	Julian Meersemann
1918 - 1922	Charles H. Leland	Unoccupied
1922 - 1925	Charles H. Leland	Julian Meersemann
1925 - 1926	Harmon National Real Estate Co.	Julian Meersemann
1926 - 1927	The City of New York	Julian Meersemann
1927 - Present	The City of New York	Numerous Caretakers

Table 5:2 Chain of Title For The Manor House<sup>1</sup>  
(Source: Davis 1926)

<u>Date</u>	<u>Deed/Page Patent</u>	<u>Grantor</u>	<u>Grantee</u>
1676	Patent Rec. 4/97	Governor Edmund Andros	Captain Christopher Billop
1681	Deeds 5/322	Peter Johnson	Captain Christopher Billop <sup>2</sup>
1687	Patent Rec. 6/229	Governor Thomas Dongan	Captain Christopher Billop <sup>3</sup>
1726	Will	Captain Christopher Billop	List of Potential Male Heirs
1750	Will	Thomas Billopp	Christopher Billopp
1781	E/132	Christopher Billopp	Samuel Ward <sup>4</sup>
1784	E/147	Commissoners of Forfeitures	Thomas McFarren <sup>5</sup>
1790	E/344	McFarren	Caleb Ward
1808	F/54	McFarren	Caleb Ward <sup>6</sup>
1835	Y/278	Estate of Caleb Ward, Senior	Mary Grim
1836	1/462	Mary Grims	Leonard Parkinson John B. Simonson
1859	45/536	Estate of Leonard Parkinson	William H. Aspinwall
April 1839	193/1	Estate of William H. Aspinwall	Henry F. Eldridge
June 1889	193/6	Henry F. Eldridge	Bentley Manor Co.
1895	246/2	Bentley Manor Co.	Charles H. Leland <sup>7</sup>
1925	606/522	Leland Estate	Harmon National Real Estate Corp.
1926	620/111	Harmon National Real Estate Corp.	City of New York

<sup>1</sup> This chain of title provides information on the site of the manor house and the archaeological project site. Transactions of sales for other parcels of Billopp's 1600 acres are not included in this chart.

<sup>2</sup> Dutch Governor Anthony Colve granted 200 acres to Peter Johnson in 1674. Billopp purchased the 200 acres from Johnson in order to have clear title to the land. The Johnson title does not seem to have been recognized (or it was simply ignored) in the original patent by Andros to Billop. This deed recorded in the office of New York Secretary of State Albany is in Deeds filed in the Richmond County Courthouse.

3 The first land grant from Governor Andros gave Billop 932 acres plus 30 acres of salt meadow, the second grant incorporated the original acreage into a larger parcel of 1600 acres with manorial privileges.

4 Samuel Ward purchased the Manor House plus 373 acres of land from Billopp prior to the end the Revolutionary War.

5 At the end of the Revolution the state confiscated all tory land including Billopp's. A commission sold Billopp's land at auction including the land sold to Samuel Ward in 1781. Thomas McFarren acquired the title to the land from this commission.

6 This second transaction represents a refileing of the document of title due to questions of legal ownership. Caleb Ward paid a token fee of one dollar for the title in this transaction.

7 Charles H. Leland held two mortgages for the Bentley Manor Corp., he foreclosed and received a referee deed in 1895.



Figure 5:4

Popple Map, 1733. New York and Perth Amboy Harbours (detail after the Map of the British Empire of 1733) by Henry Popple.



Figure 5:5

Bowen Map of 1747. A Draught of New York from Perth Amboy Harbor.

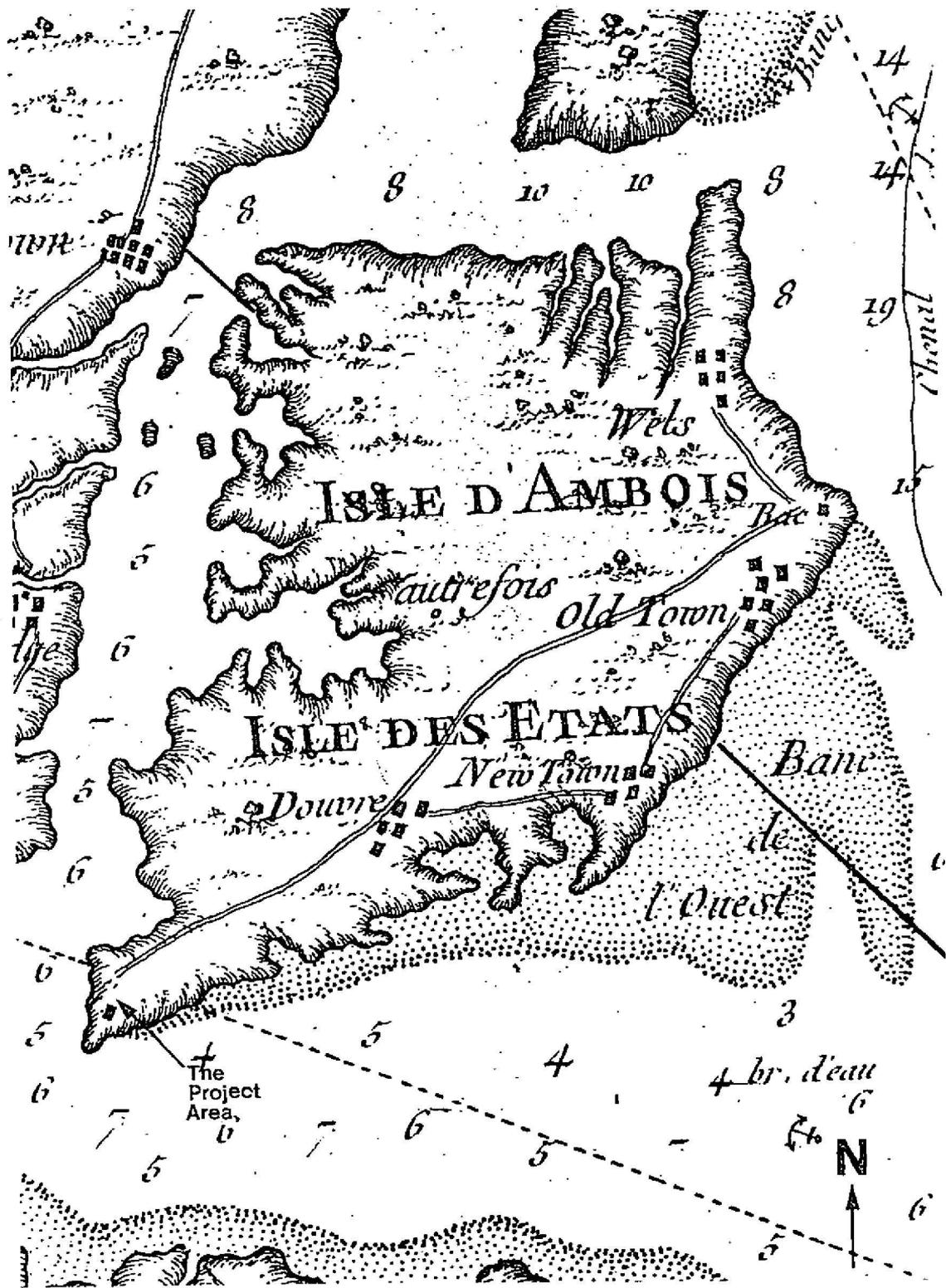


Figure 5:6 Baye et Port D'York, 1771. Close-up of Staten Island shows Billopp house at southern tip of Staten Island.

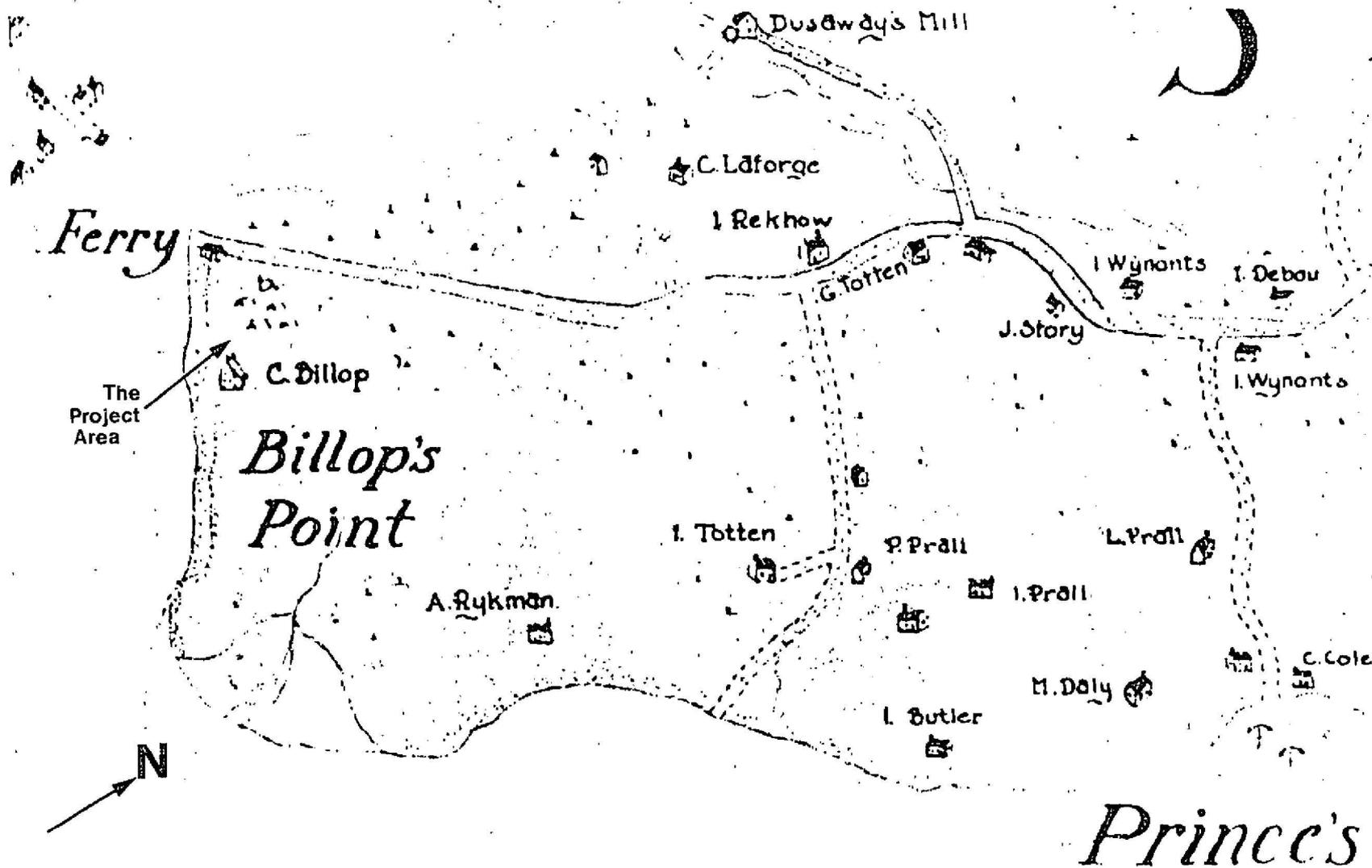


Figure 5:7

McMillen Map, c. 1780-83. Map of Staten Island During the Revolution 1775-1783, by Loring McMillen, April 1933. Compiled from the Taylor and Skinner map of 1781 and Hessian map of 1777. The McMillen Map reproduces better than the two original maps, but has been faithful to the details on the originals.

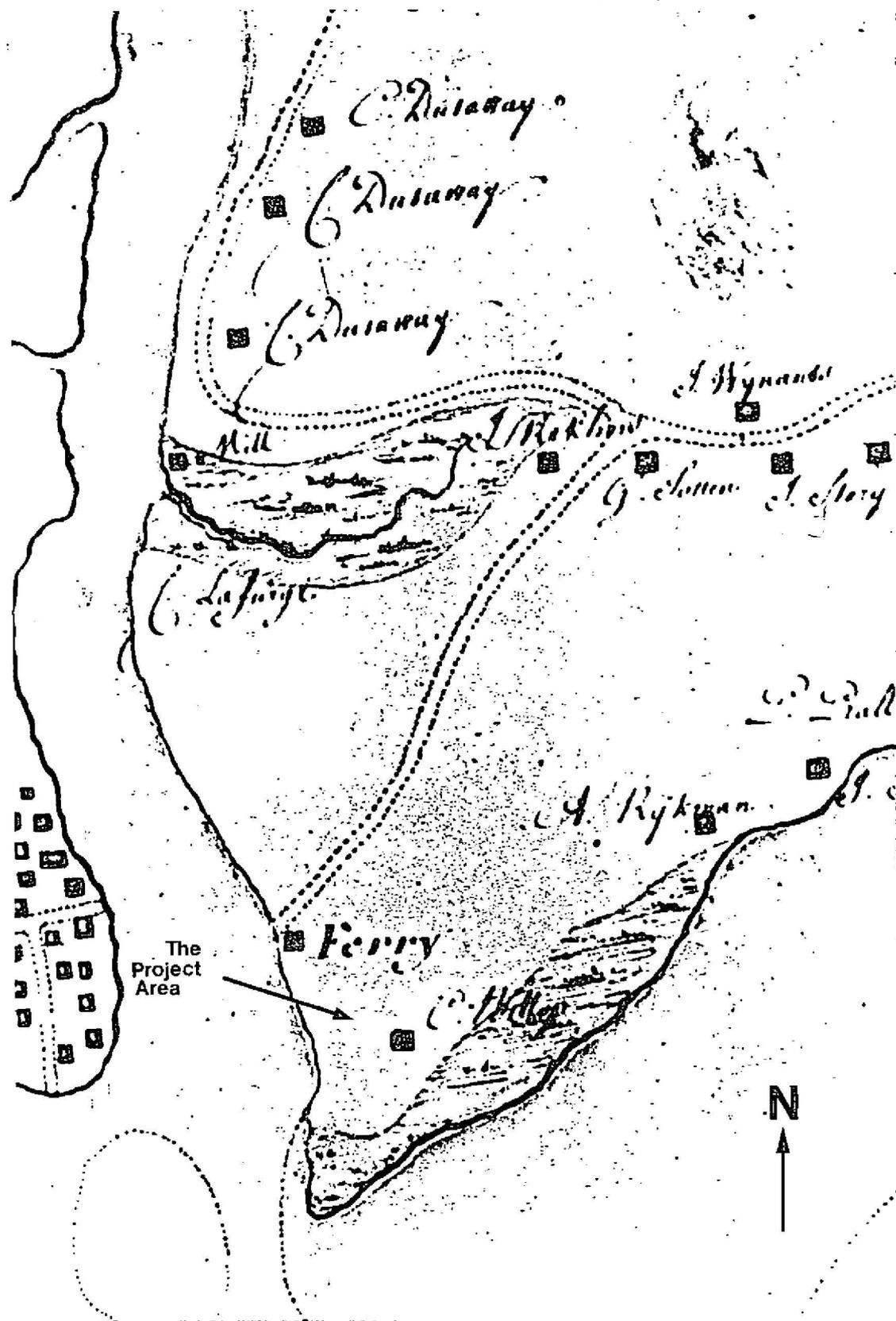


Figure 5:8

Anglo-Hessian Map, c. 1780-83. Plan Number 81 du Camp Anglo-Hessois Dans Statén Island, Baie de New York de 1780 a 1783.



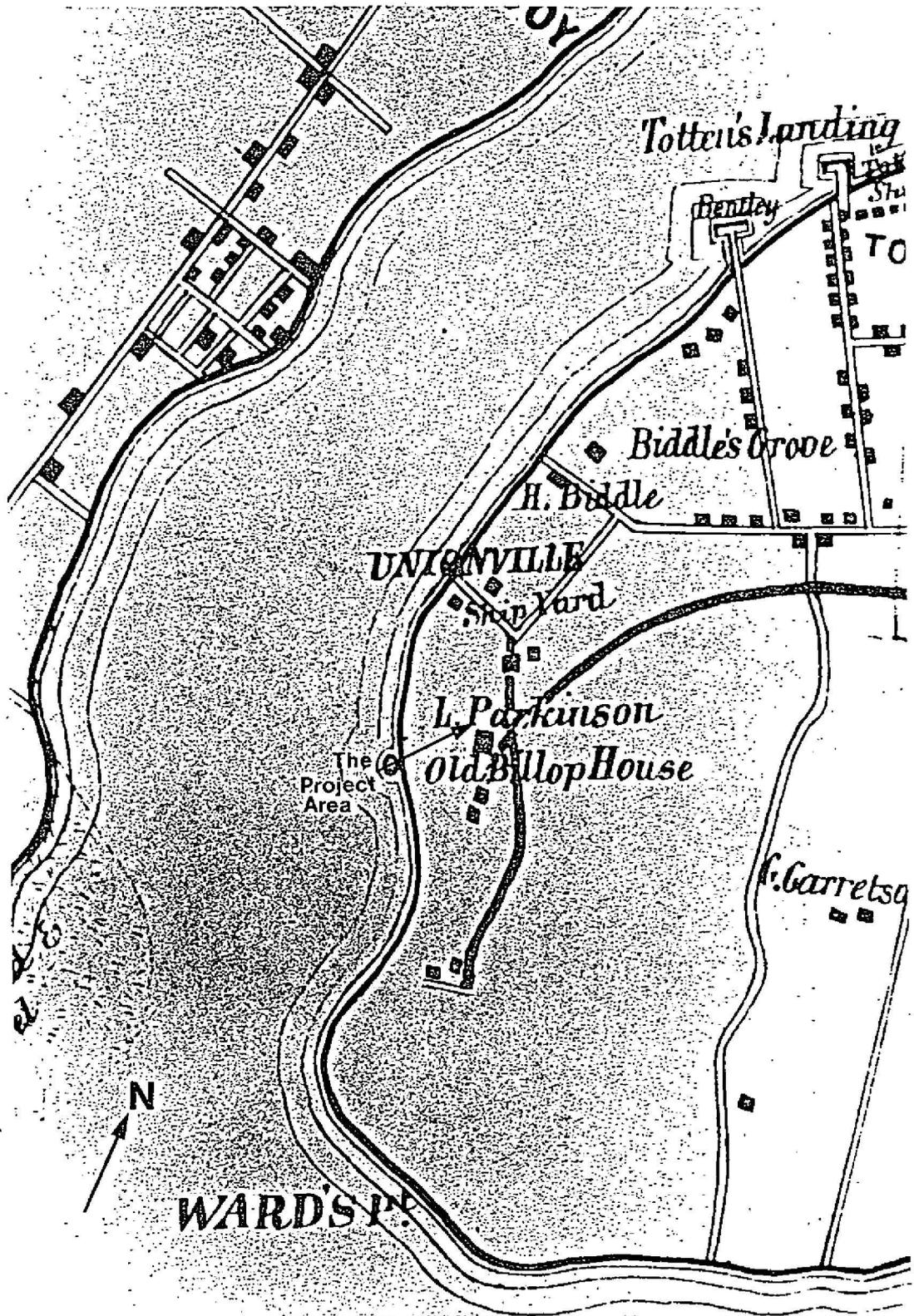


Figure 5:10

Bacon Map, 1852. Map of the Proposed Line of the Staten Island Rail-Way.

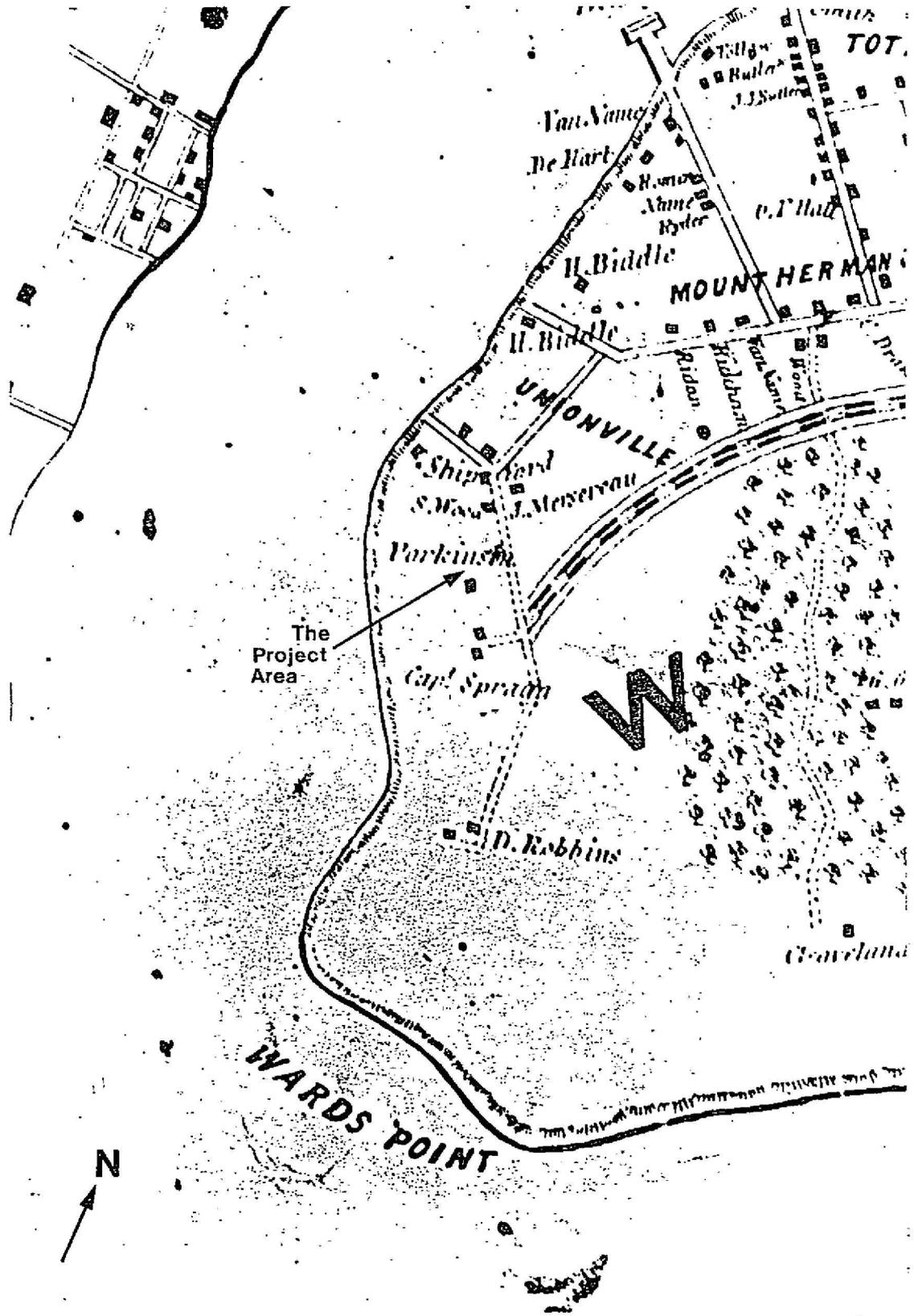


Figure 5:11

Butler Map, 1853. Map of Staten Island or Richmond County New York.

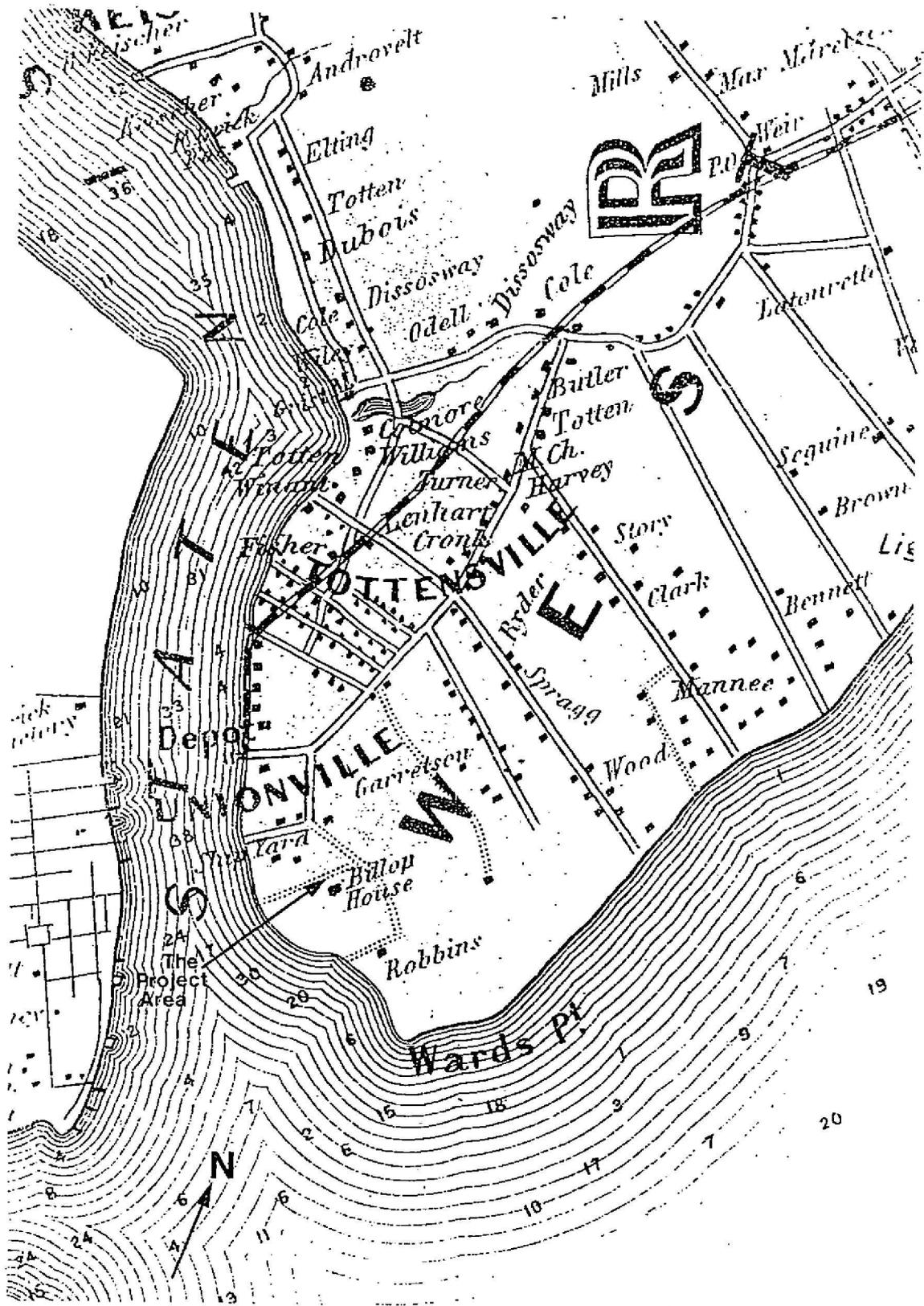


Figure 5:12

Walling Map, 1859. Map of Staten Island, New York.

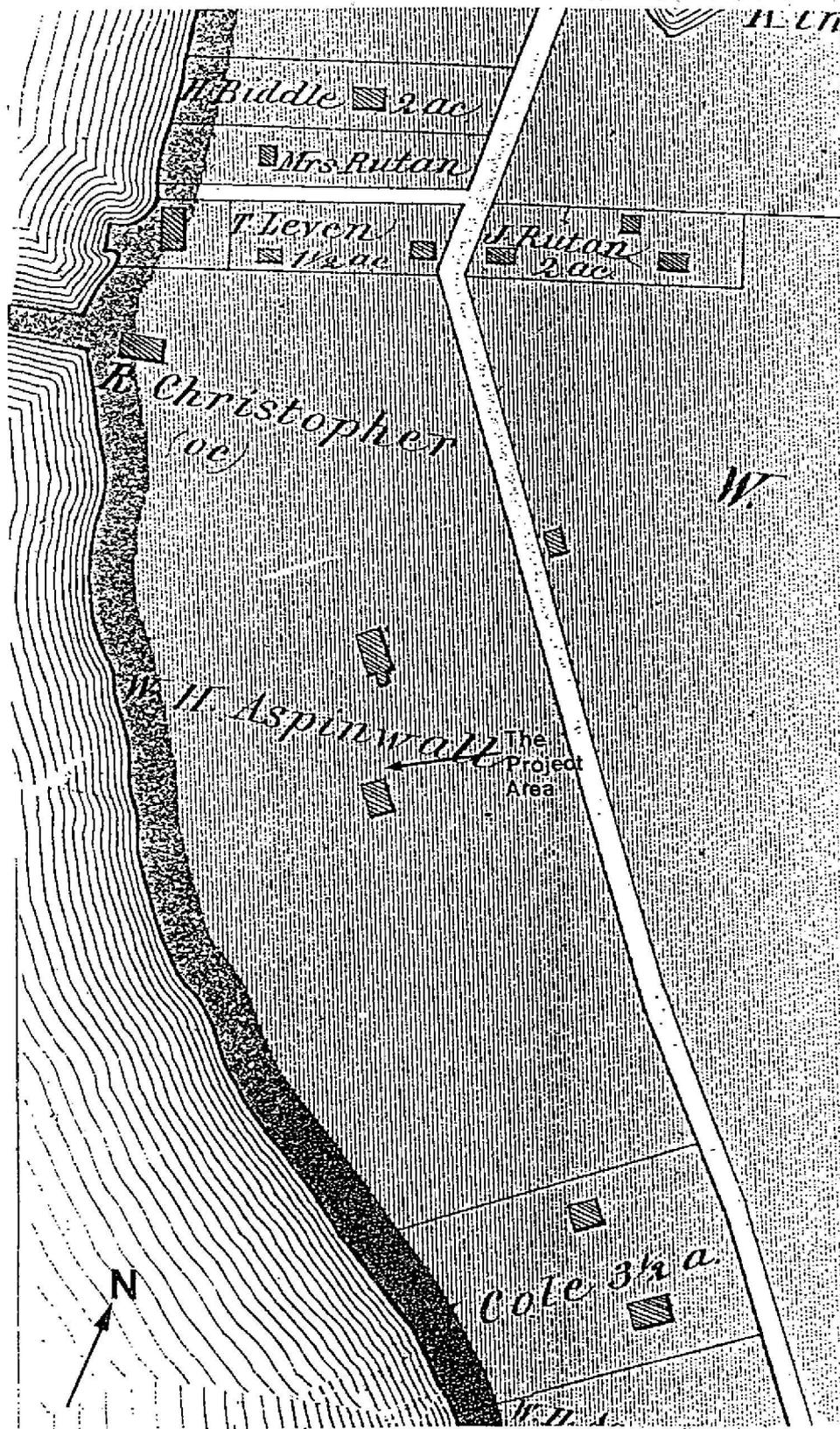


Figure 5:13

Beers Atlas, 1874. Atlas of Richmond County, Staten Island, New York.

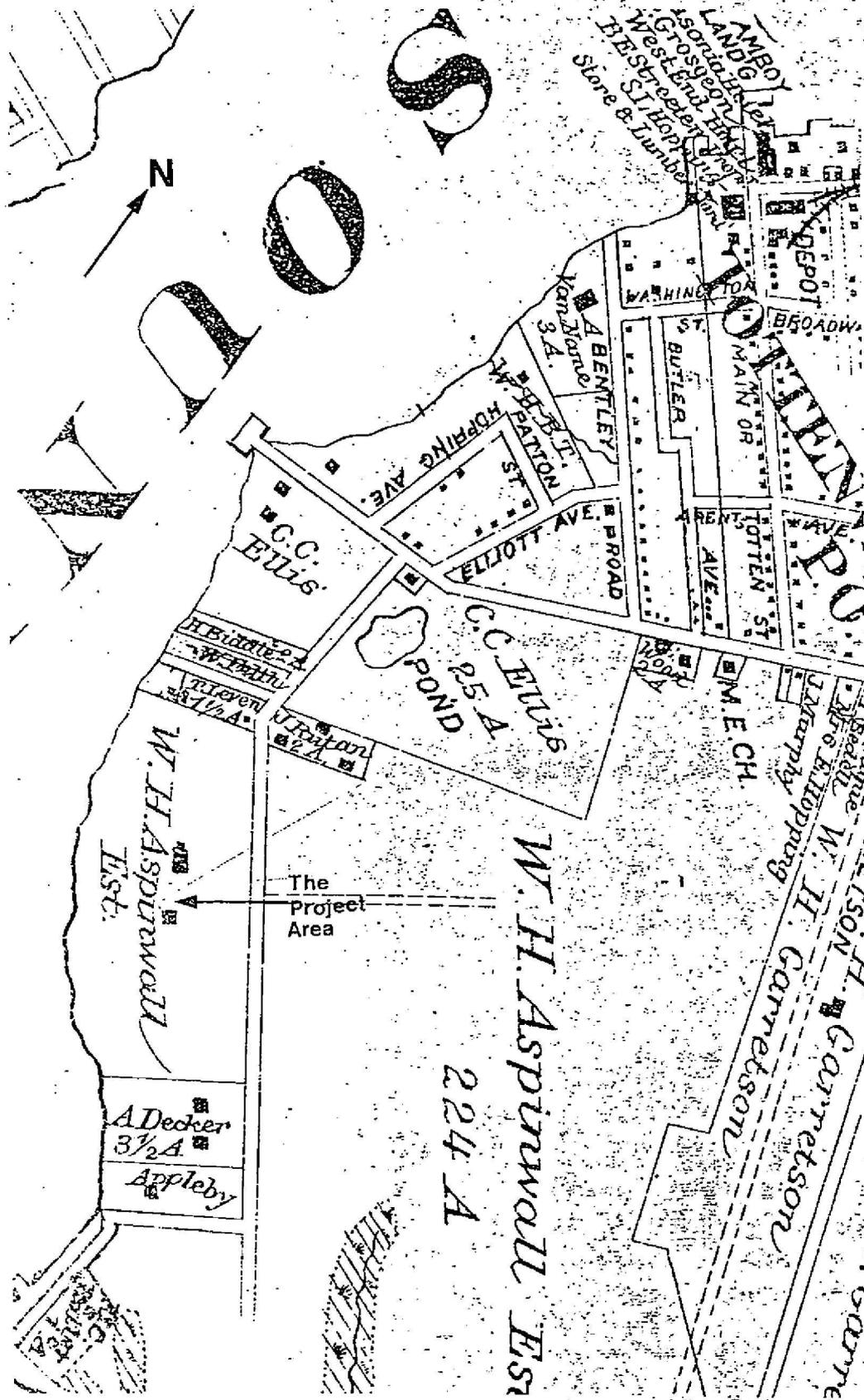


Figure 5:14 Beers Atlas, 1887. Atlas of Richmond County, Staten Island.

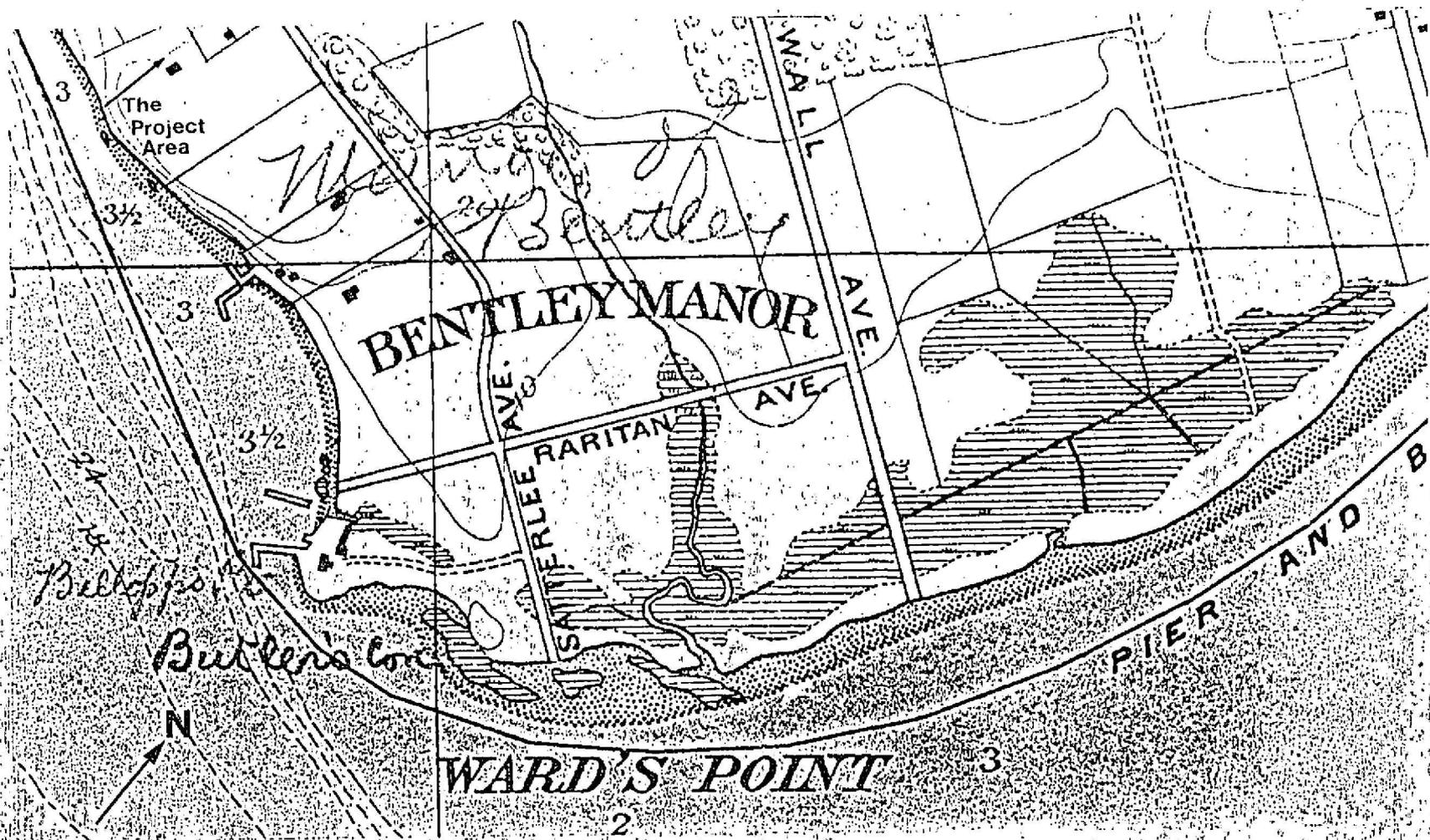


Figure 5:15

Vermeule and Bien, 1890. A Topographical Map of Staten Island, Richmond County, State of New York.

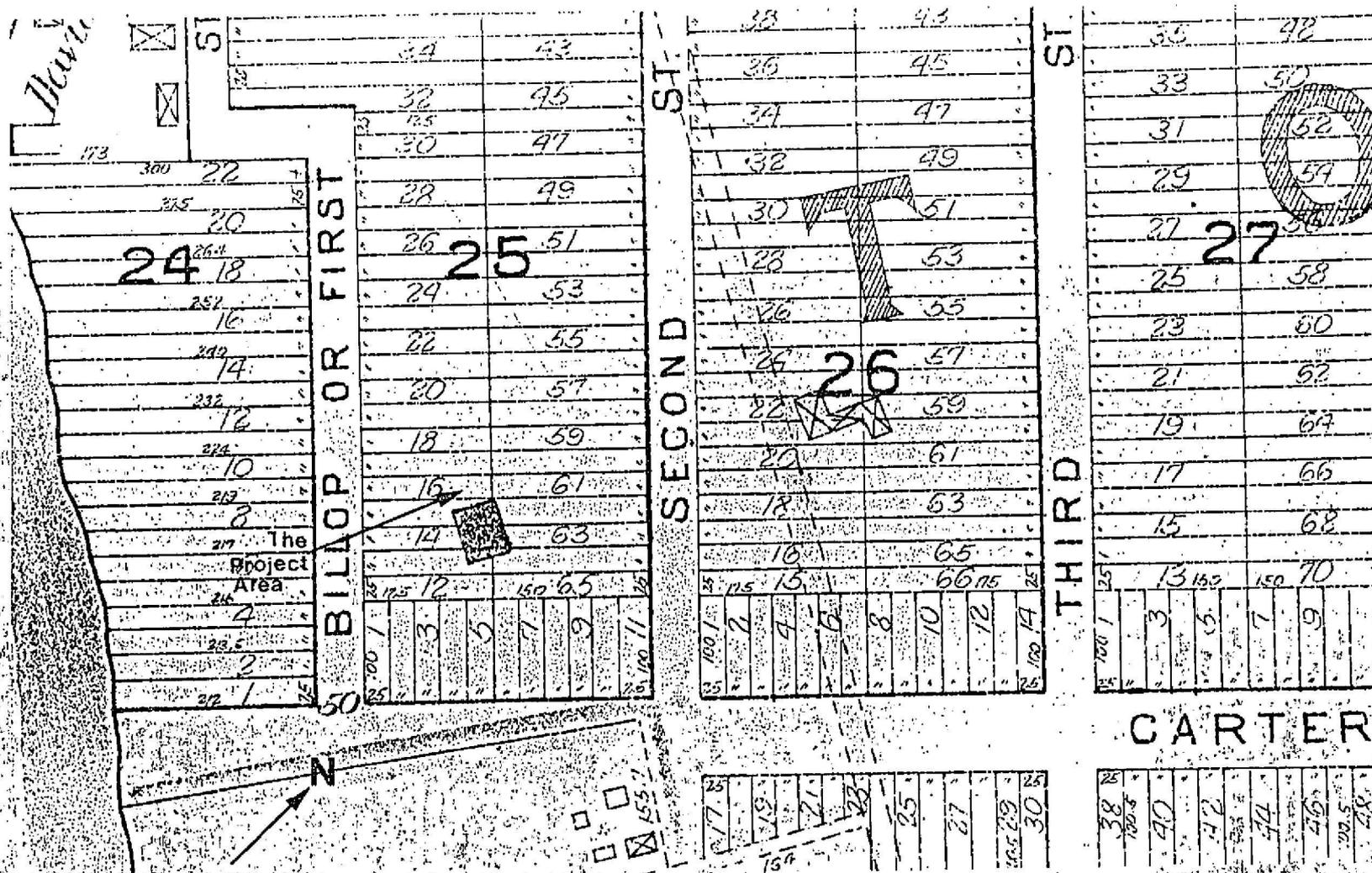


Figure 5:16

Robinson Atlas, 1898. Atlas of the Borough of Richmond.

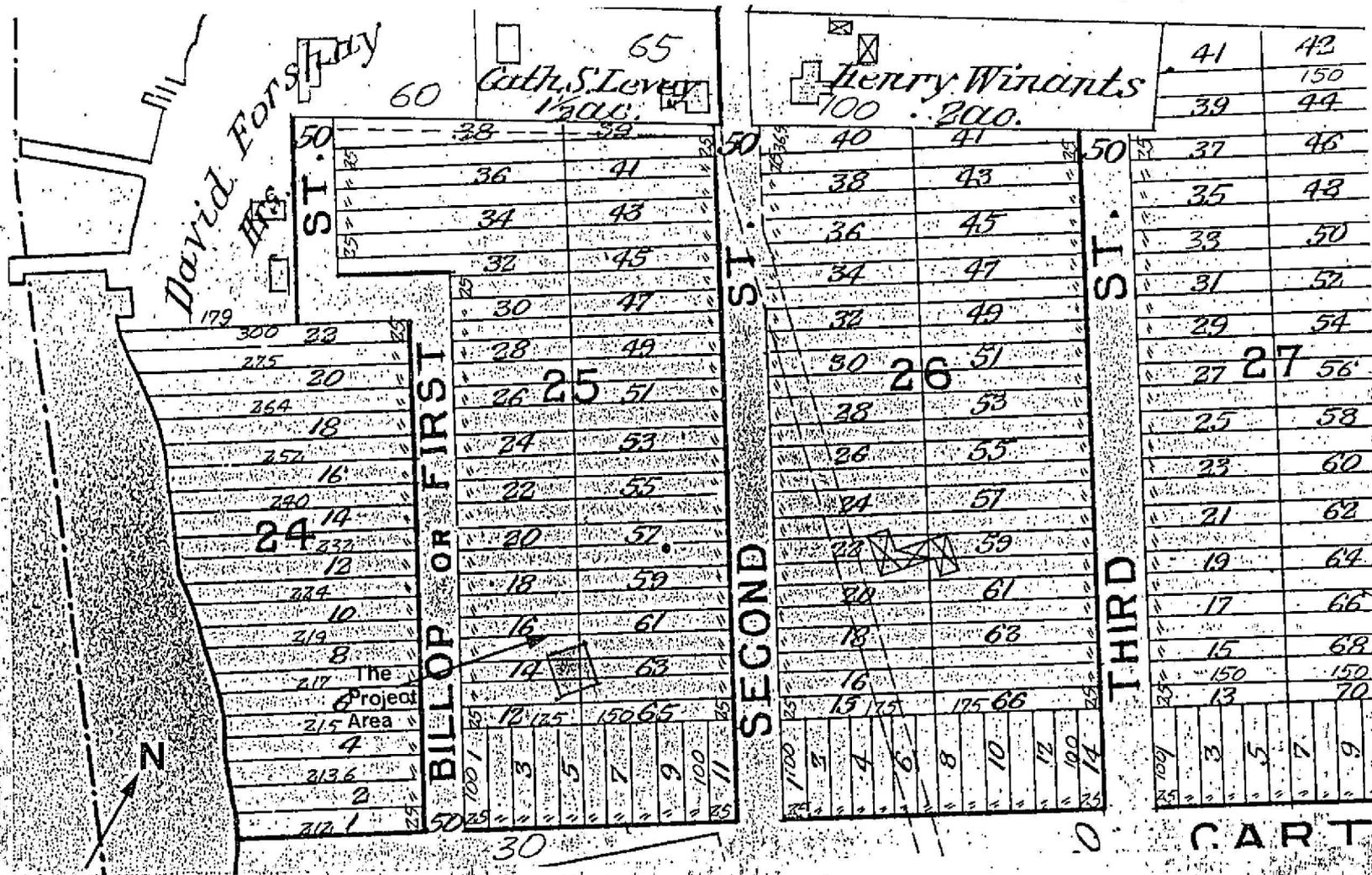


Figure 5:17

Robinson Atlas, 1907. Atlas of the Borough of Richmond.

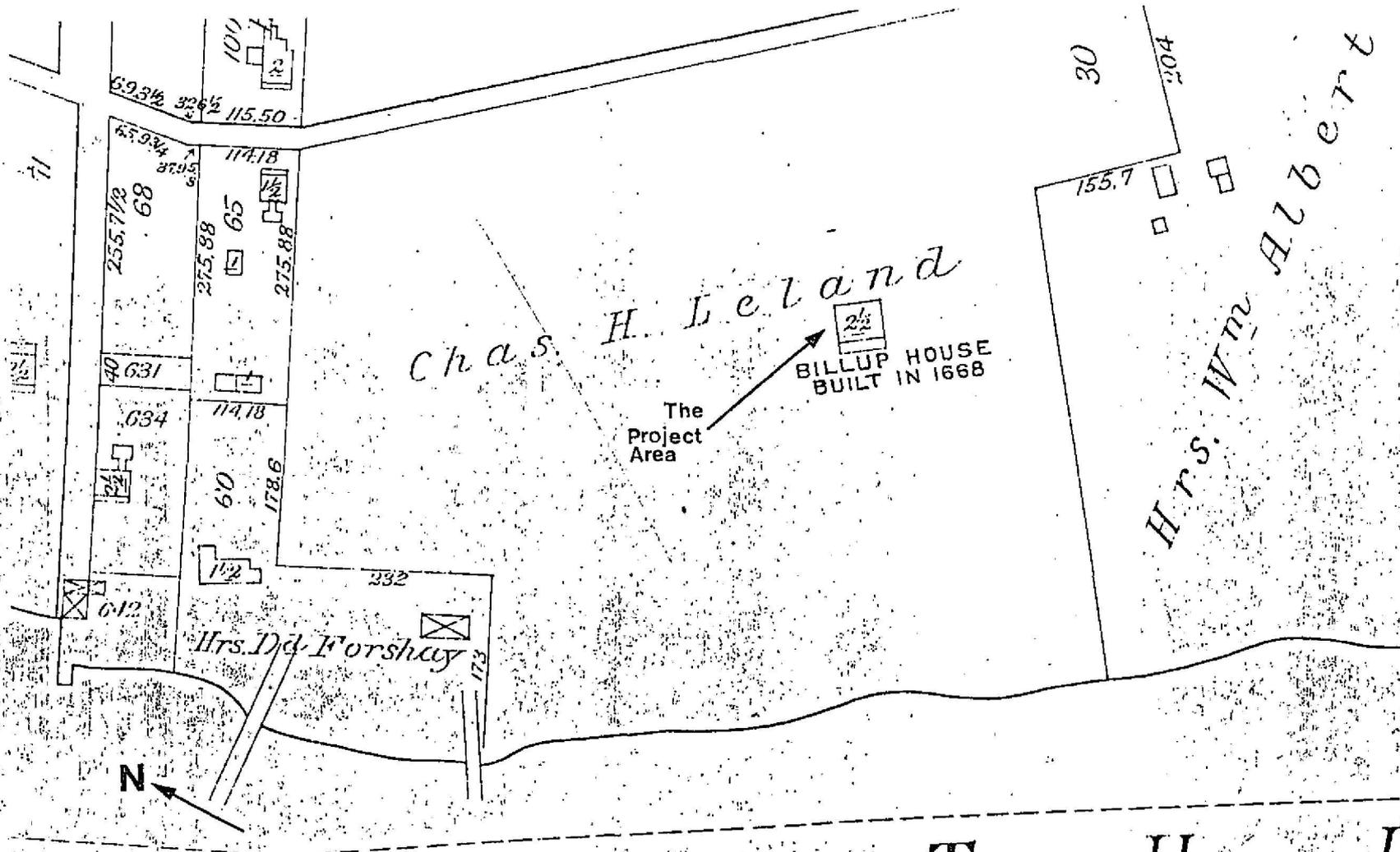
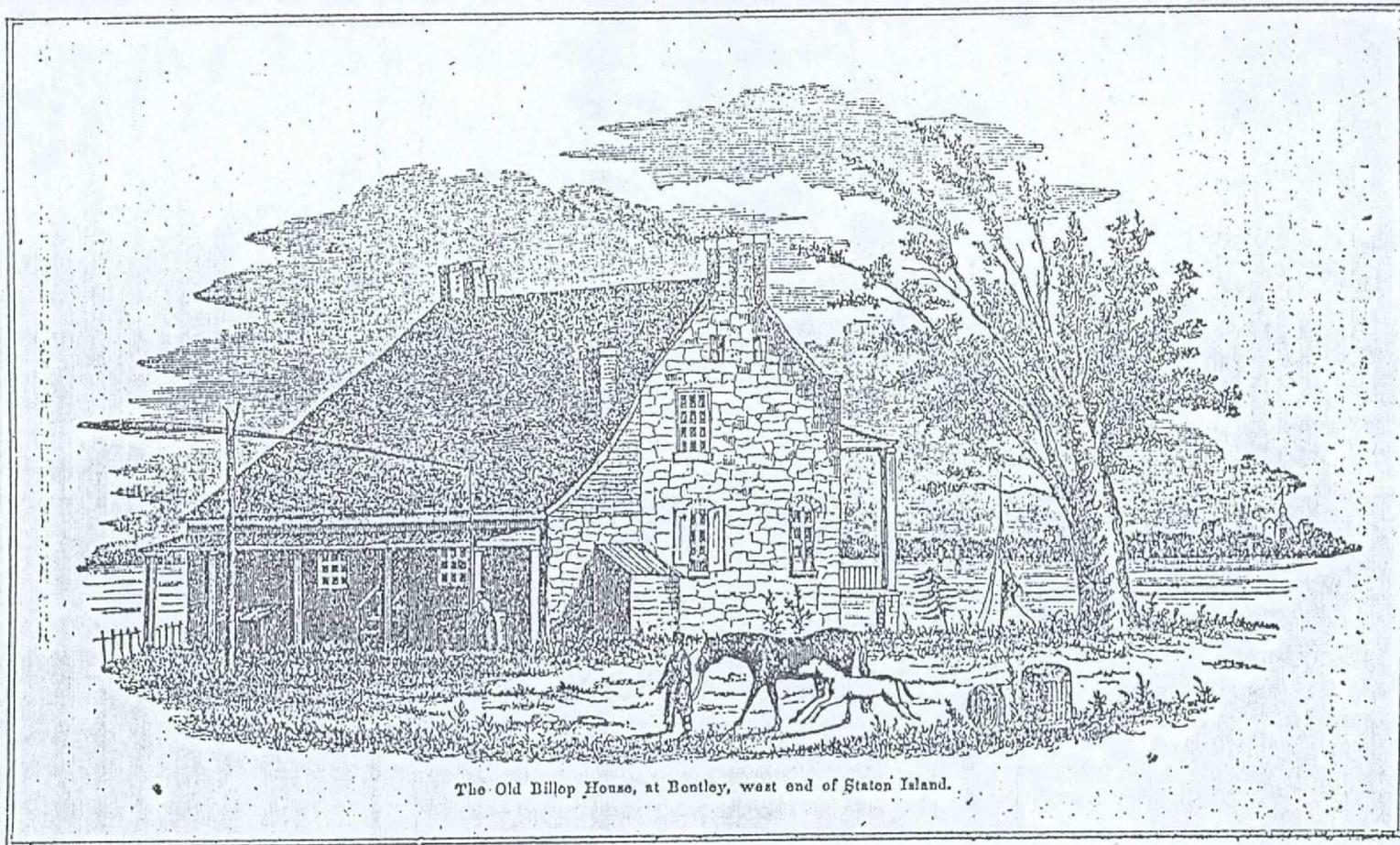


Figure 5:18

Bromley Atlas, 1917. Atlas of the Borough of Richmond.



The Old Dillop House, at Bentley, west end of Staten Island.

Figure 5:19

Print after a drawing by Alfred DeGroot.  
Originally published in The New Pictorial  
and Illustrated Family Magazine, vol. III,  
no. 7, 1846, p. 107. Conference House  
Association Archives.

was an area of considerable landscape disturbance; see Chapter Two for details). Late nineteenth century photographs show that the shed had been removed. The only outbuilding depicted in photographs, drawings, or prints is in an 1898 photograph by C.W. Hunt (see Figure 5:20). The Hunt photograph shows a shed directly to the south of the main structure. Zavin (1980:52) suggests that the building "was probably used by Mr. Christopher in conjunction with his gardening and produce-raising activities". Christopher was the tenant farmer and sometimes caretaker who lived at the house as a renter from 1847-1895.

It is unfortunate that the nineteenth century deposits were disturbed since there were two families at the site with long periods of occupancy - the Wards and the Christophers. However, important material on the American Indian and Billopp family were uncovered - this information will be discussed in the next chapter.

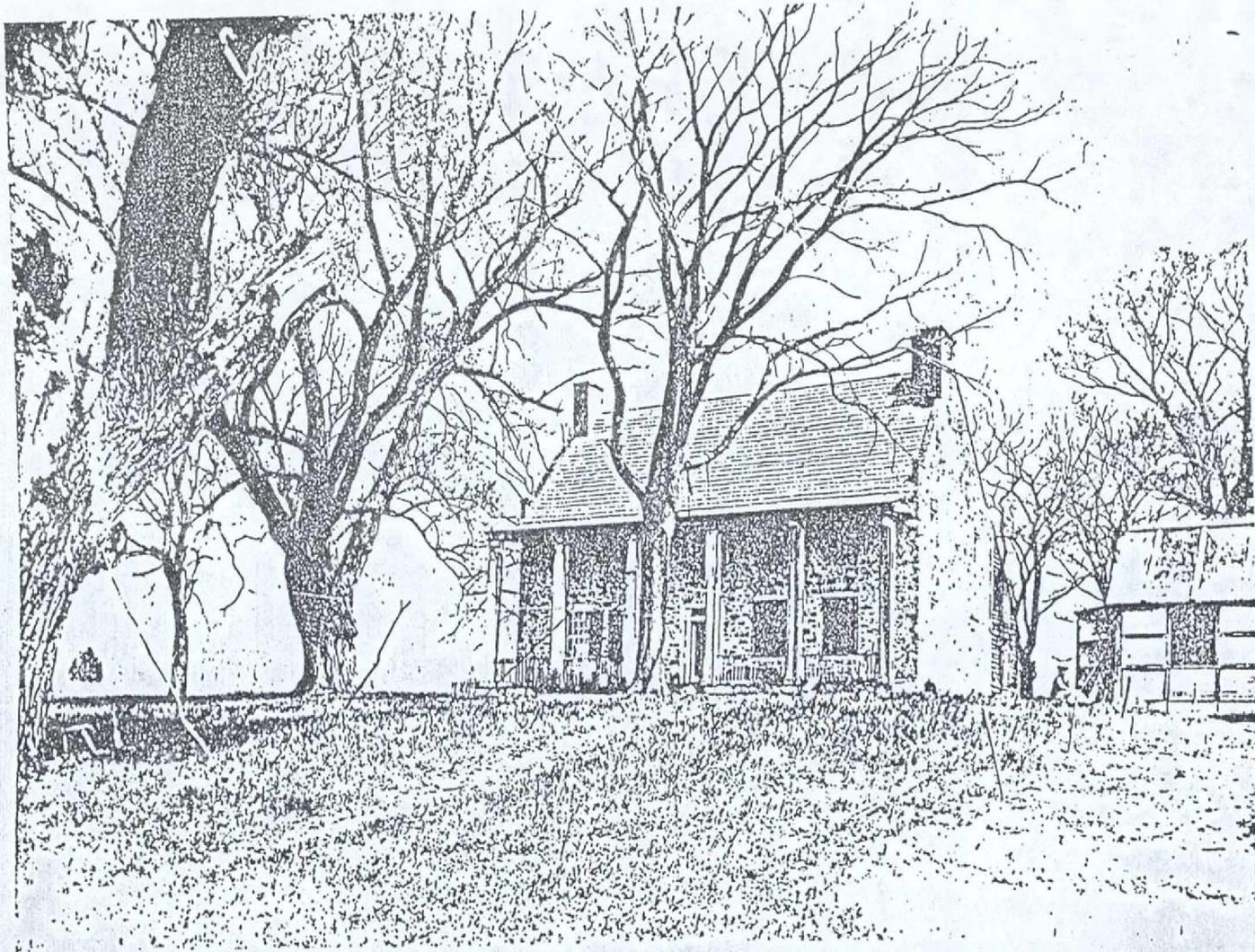


Figure 5:20

Photograph by C.W. Hunt: "The Old Conference House at Tottenville, Staten Island." April 9, 1898. Staten Island Institute of Arts and Sciences: Photograph Collection.

CHAPTER SIX: ARTIFACT ANALYSES OF HISTORICAL MATERIAL

Sherene Baugher  
Edward J. Lenik

## CHAPTER SIX: ARTIFACT ANALYSIS OF HISTORICAL MATERIAL

### Introduction

The archaeological excavations at the Conference House were intensive rather than extensive in nature and as a result the samples of archaeological material from any given area varied from small to large. Therefore, it was essential that as much useful information as possible be extracted from the artifacts and their provenience within the site. The analysis of artifacts during cataloguing provided information pertaining to landscape alteration and to the occupants of the site. Where possible both chronological and functional information has been recorded for all excavated artifacts.

In this report, artifact classes and groups have been organized on the basis of form and function following the typology used by Stanley South in his book Method and Theory In Historical Archaeology (1977: 95-96).

### Depositional Units

One of the primary goals of this archaeological investigation was the recovery and interpretation of refuse deposits that were associated with the eighteenth century occupation of the house. In order to achieve this goal, we have identified certain soil depositional units as discrete eighteenth century contexts. This methodology enables us to synthesize the artifact data and interpret human behavior at the site within a chronological framework. In sum, what we have done is to combine several discrete excavation levels and contexts according to three principal criteria in defining the eighteenth century depositional units.

The site was excavated in 1980 by four inch soil levels, and all artifacts were bagged in the field by excavation level. In several instances, this field methodology resulted in the mixing of artifacts from different cultural or natural soil layers. Therefore, in order to isolate intact eighteenth century deposits in each excavated square, we combined several arbitrary levels according to their spacial association, dating of artifacts, soil matrices, site formation processes, and deposit integrity; that is, the absence

of post-depositional disturbances.

The specific deposition units that appear to have intact eighteenth century contexts are indicated in Table 6:1 below. The deposits range in depth from twelve to forty inches below the surface of the ground. The combined arbitrary levels consist of sandy textured soil which contained a heavy concentration of clam and oyster shells. This sand-shell deposit was found across the entire excavation site. Our analysis of the ceramics within the defined depositional units (levels) indicates a clear distribution of eighteenth century wares (see Table 6:2).

### Ceramics Analysis

To historical archaeologist, ceramics are usually the most diagnostic artifacts since well-documented design and manufacturing changes in pottery can often allow an archaeologist to date a deposit within a twenty-year time span and sometimes as closely as within ten years. The general conclusions of the time period of the deposits, based on the ceramic evidence, are presented below.

A total of 1,593 ceramic fragments were recovered from sixteen excavation units on the north side of the house. This total includes 364 fragments of redware, 188 fragments of stoneware, 192 fragments of creamware, 374 fragments of whiteware, 168 of pearlware, 152 of buff (yellow) ware, 91 porcelain, and 64 delftware. These ceramic fragments represent several different types, styles and decorations. They also represent a variety of vessel forms such as dinner plates, pie plates, cups, saucers, bowls, and jugs.

The first four arbitrary levels contained in a very mixed deposit of ceramic sherds. The predominant type was nineteenth century whiteware (1820-1900+). The 350 sherds of whiteware contained a variety of designs from mid-nineteenth century English transfer printed designs, to undecorated American-made hotel china from the late nineteenth century and these sherds were found within all four levels (see Figure 6:1). To add to the nature of this mixed deposit were fragments of early nineteenth century redware mixing bowls within the same level as sherds from late nineteenth century yellow ware vessels. There were also sherds from eighteenth century ceramics in the same deposits with the late

TABLE 6:1 18TH CENTURY DEPOSITIONAL UNITS

<u>Squares</u>	<u>Levels</u>	<u>Depth</u>	<u>Description of Strata</u>
N0 W47	6-10	20"-40"	Sandy Soil/Shell
N0 W44	5-8	16"-32"	Sandy Soil/Shell
N0 W41	5-6	16"-24"	Sandy Soil/Shell
N0 W38	5-7	16"-28"	Sandy Soil/Shell, Charcoal
N0 W35	4-6	12"-24"	Sandy Soil/Shell
N0 W32	6-9	20"-36"	Sandy Soil/Shell
N0 W29	4	12"-16"	Sandy Soil/Shell
N0 W26	5+	16"+	Sandy Soil/Shell
N0 W23	5-10	16"-40"	Sandy Soil/Shell
N0 W20	5-9	16"-36"	Sandy Soil/Shell
N0 W15	5-8	16"-32"	Sandy Soil/Shell
N0 W12	5-6	16"-24"	Sandy Soil/Shell
N0 W9	4-10	12"-40"	Sandy Soil/Shell
N0 W6	6-9	20"-36"	Sandy Soil/Shell
N0 W3	5-9	16"-36"	Shell
S2 W47	6	20"-24"	Sandy Soil/Shell

TABLE 6.2 CERAMIC TYPES AND FREQUENCIES IN 18TH C. DEPOSITIONAL UNITS

Ceramic Type								Date	Sherd
	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Range	Count
<u>Earthenware:</u>									
Delftware (Plain)	1	2	8	2	2	2		1640-1800	17
Delftware (Monochrome)		1	12		1			1620-1775	14
Creamware	2	6	6	4	1	2	1	1762-1820	22
Buff (slip) Ware	1	17	12	6	1	1		1670-1795	38
Pearlware	7	5	3	1	1		1	1779-1840	18
Redware	13	22	14	9	2	4	3	18th c.	67
<u>Stoneware</u>									
Gray	2	3		8	9	1	3	18th c.	27
Brown		1			1	1		18th c.	13
Nottingham					1			1690-1783	1
White				6	3			1720-1805	9
<u>Porcelain</u>									
Oriental		7	4	1	1			18th c.	13
Column Totals:	26	64	73	37	9	11	8		229

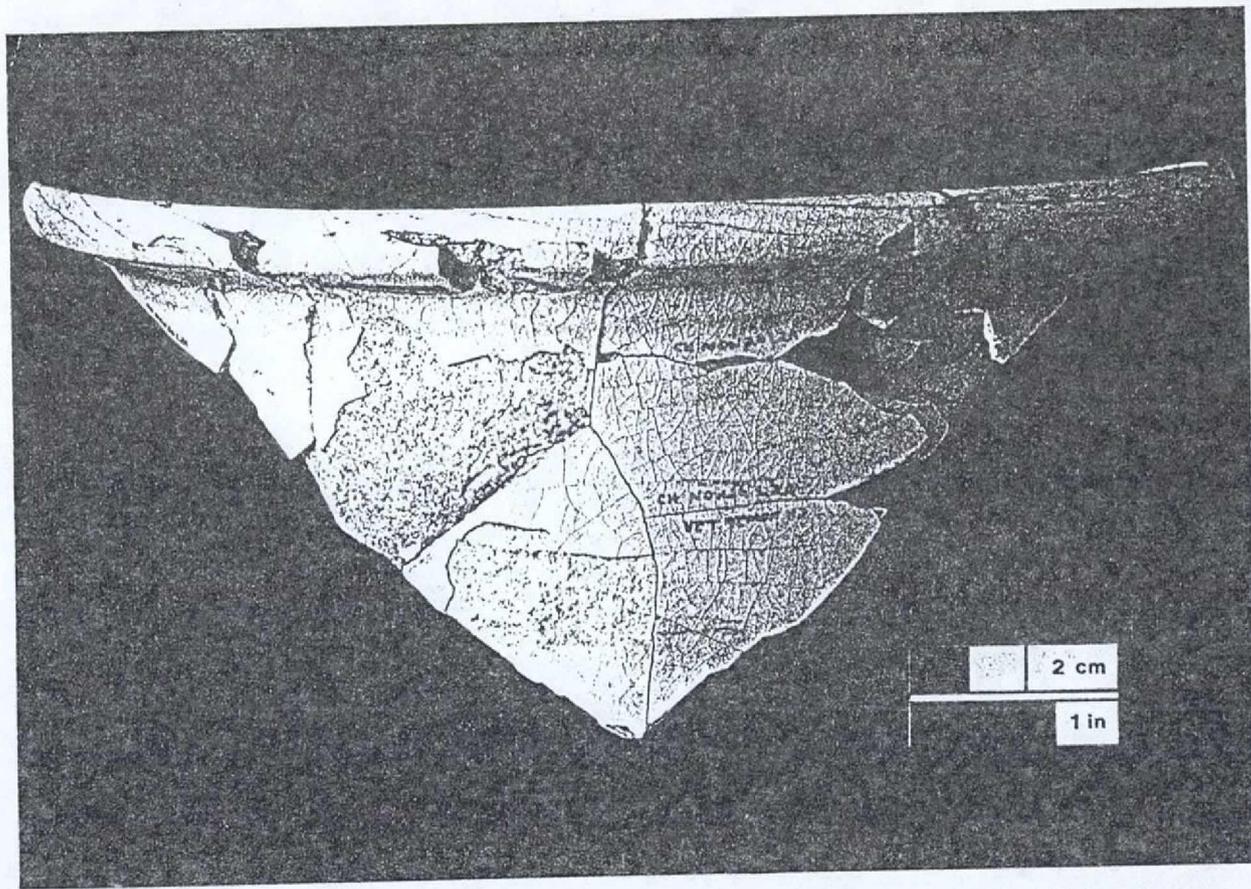


Figure 6:1      Whiteware Bowl, Nineteenth Century.      Photograph  
by Carl Forster.

nineteenth century ceramics; the artifacts included 27 sherds of Oriental export porcelain, 23 sherds of delft and 147 sherds of creamware. In addition, two sherds from an eighteenth redware bowl with a green glaze (a distinctive manufactured in Philadelphia) was found within the mixed deposit (see Figure 6:2).

The eighteenth century deposits at the site contained a total of 229 sherd fragments (Table 6:2). Redware, buff or slipware and gray stoneware are the predominate ceramic types found within these depositional units. The red earthenwares and some of the stonewares from this site were probably produced in New Jersey, Staten Island or Pennsylvania (Ellen Denker, Ceramics Specialist, personal communication 1985). The gray stonewares from the Conference House site were different from the locally-made Manhattan buff-colored stonewares and were similar to locally-made gray stonewares uncovered at New Jersey sites (Meta Janowitz, Ceramics Specialist, Louis Berger, Inc. personal communication, 1985). The redwares and gray stonewares were from utilitarian vessels. In addition, fragments from Rhenish-made gray stoneware bowls were uncovered (see Figure 6:3).

The assemblage included refined earthenwares and stonewares from England and Chinese porcelain (see Figures 6:4, 6:5 and 6:6). The mean ceramic date for all of these deposits is 1751. However, creamware sherds (post 1762) were found within many of the squares containing eighteenth century deposits (see Figure 6:7). Some of the deposits contained pearlware which were produced possibly as early as 1775 (Miller 1987). So it is possible that the eighteenth century deposit dates to Colonel Christopher Billopp's occupancy of the house prior to and during the American Revolution.

#### Glass

Unfortunately, the glass assemblage from the site did not provide useful information for dating the site or the stratigraphic deposits. Most of the window glass was so heavily patinated that it was impossible to determine the exact age or manufacturing technique. The window glass did provide some general architectural information that has

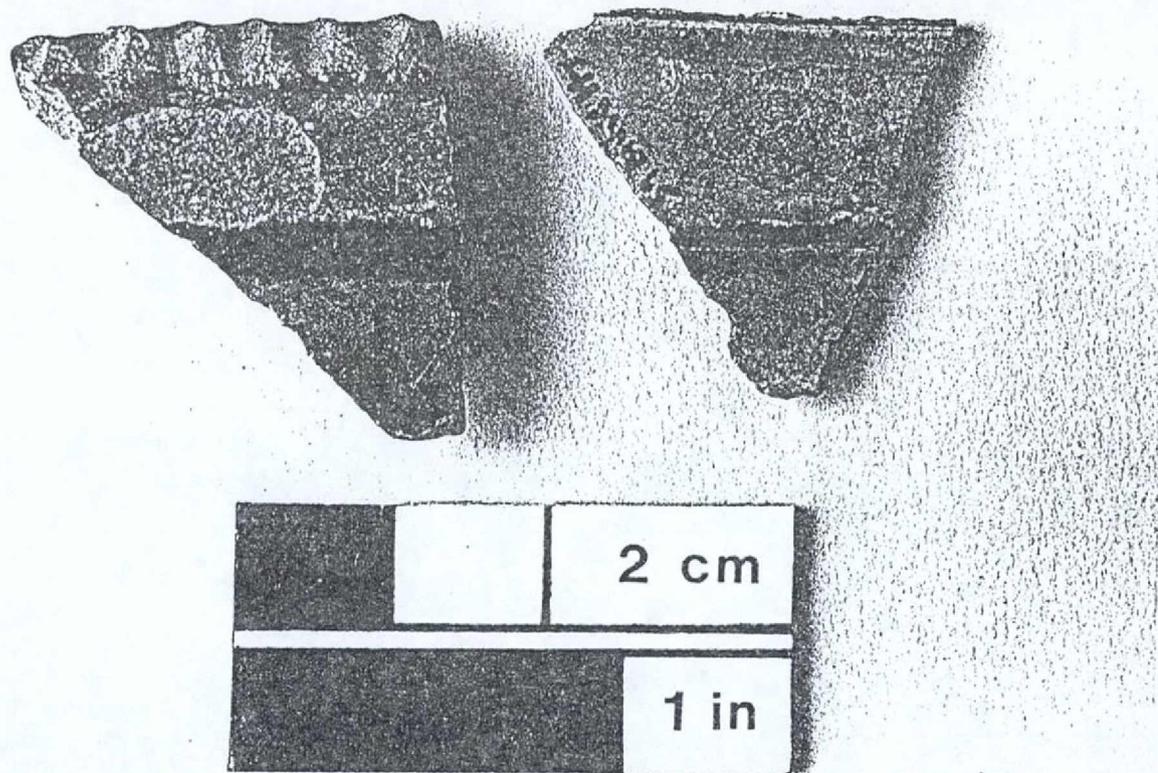


Figure 6:2

Two Eighteenth Century Redware Sherds. The sherds contain a distinctive green glaze found on pottery from Philadelphia. Photograph by Carl Forster.

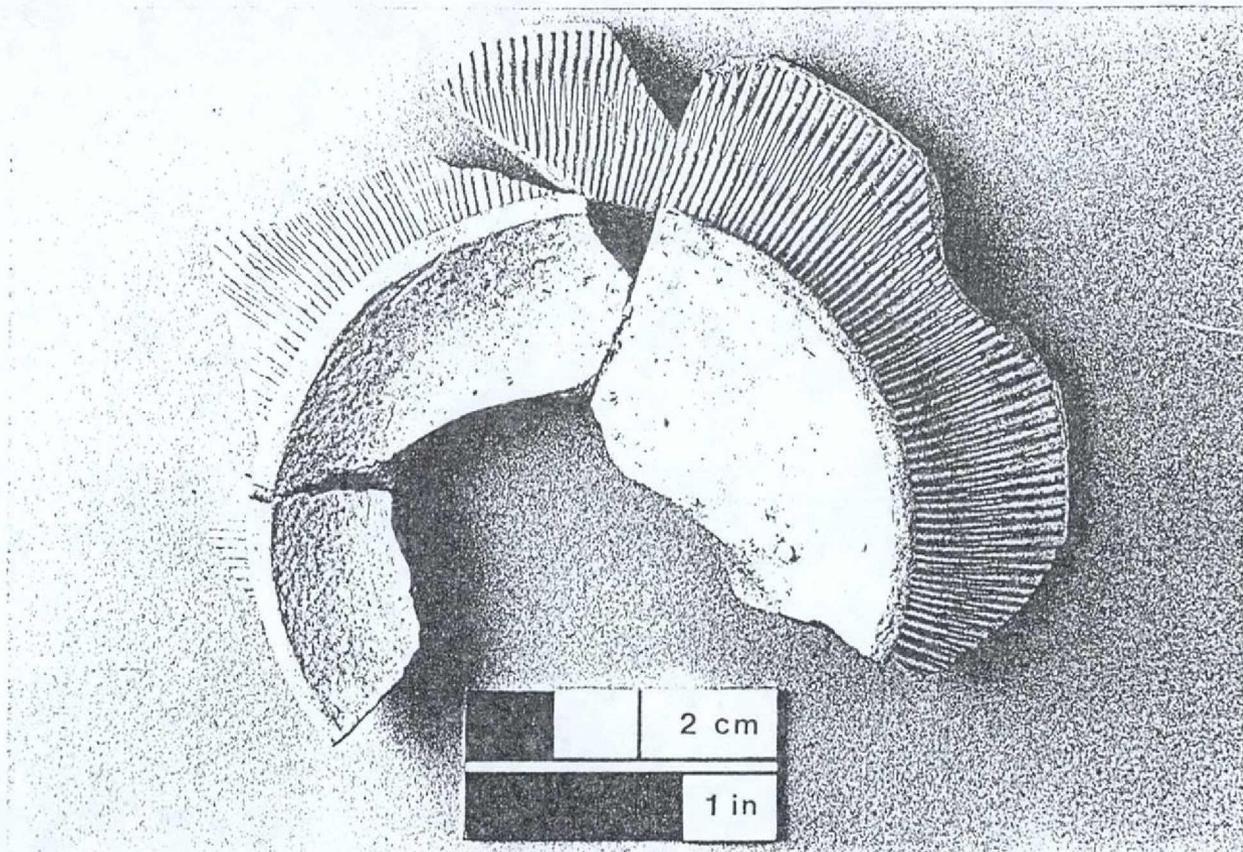


Figure 6:3

Eighteenth Century Rhenish-made Bowl.  
Photograph by Carl Forster.

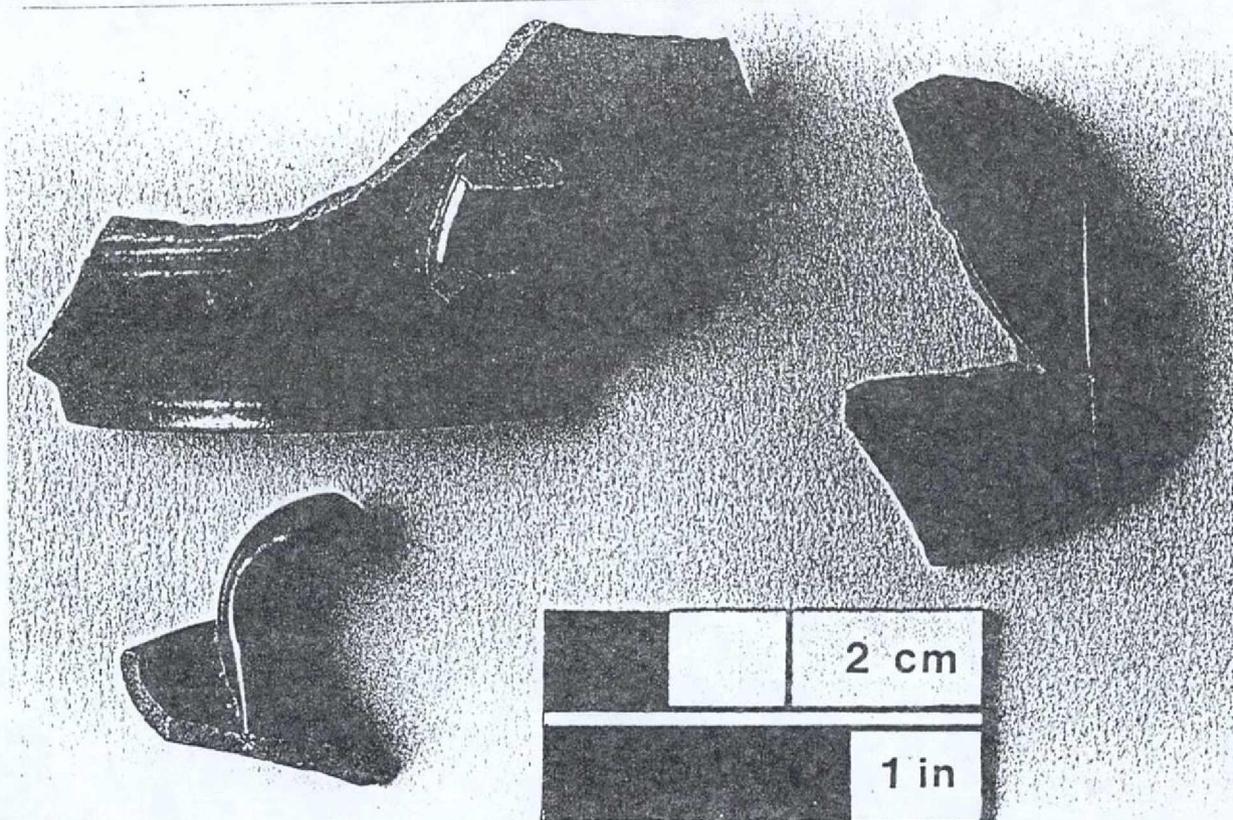


Figure 6:4

Nottinghamware Cups, English Stoneware  
c. 1700-1810. Photograph by Carl Forster.

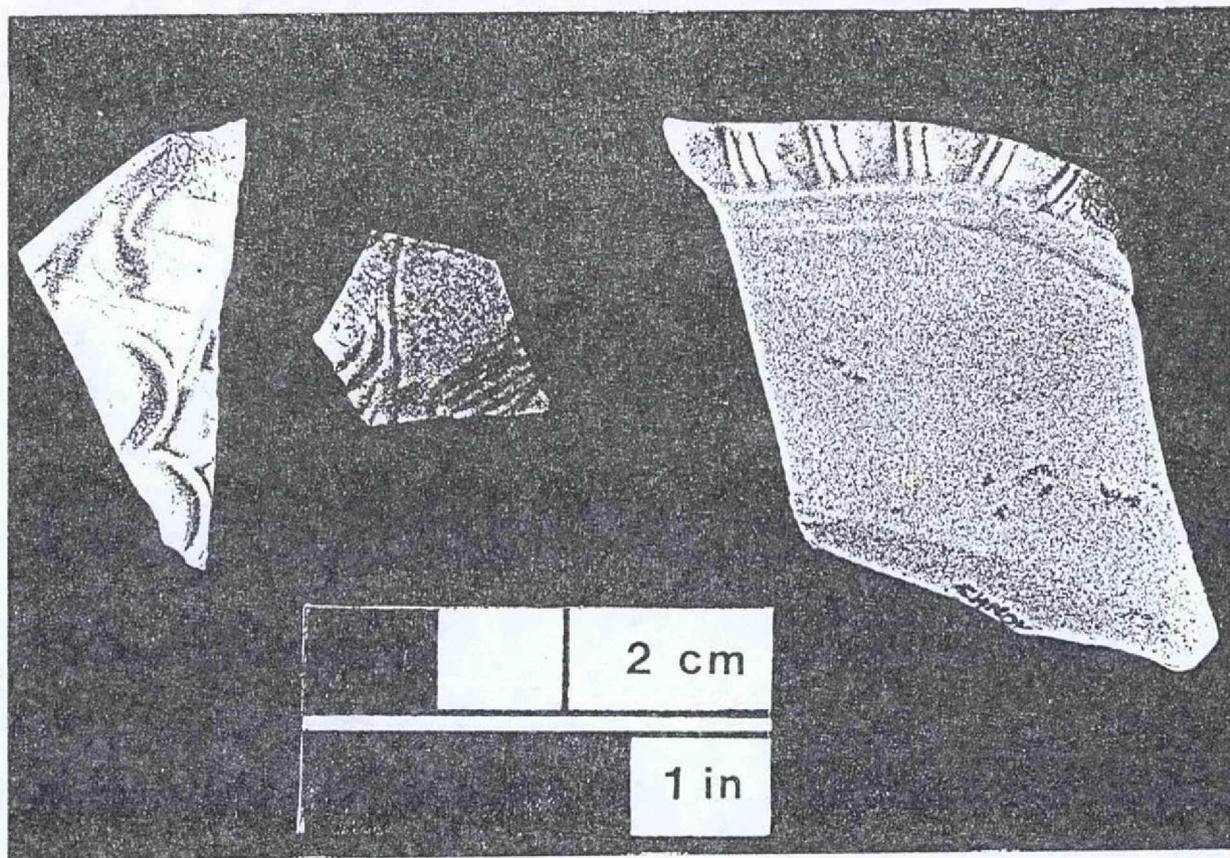


Figure 6:5

White Salt-glazed Stoneware Plates. The middle sherd is a scratch blue design c. 1744-1785. The two molded sherds are English c. 1740-1765. Photograph by Carl Forster.

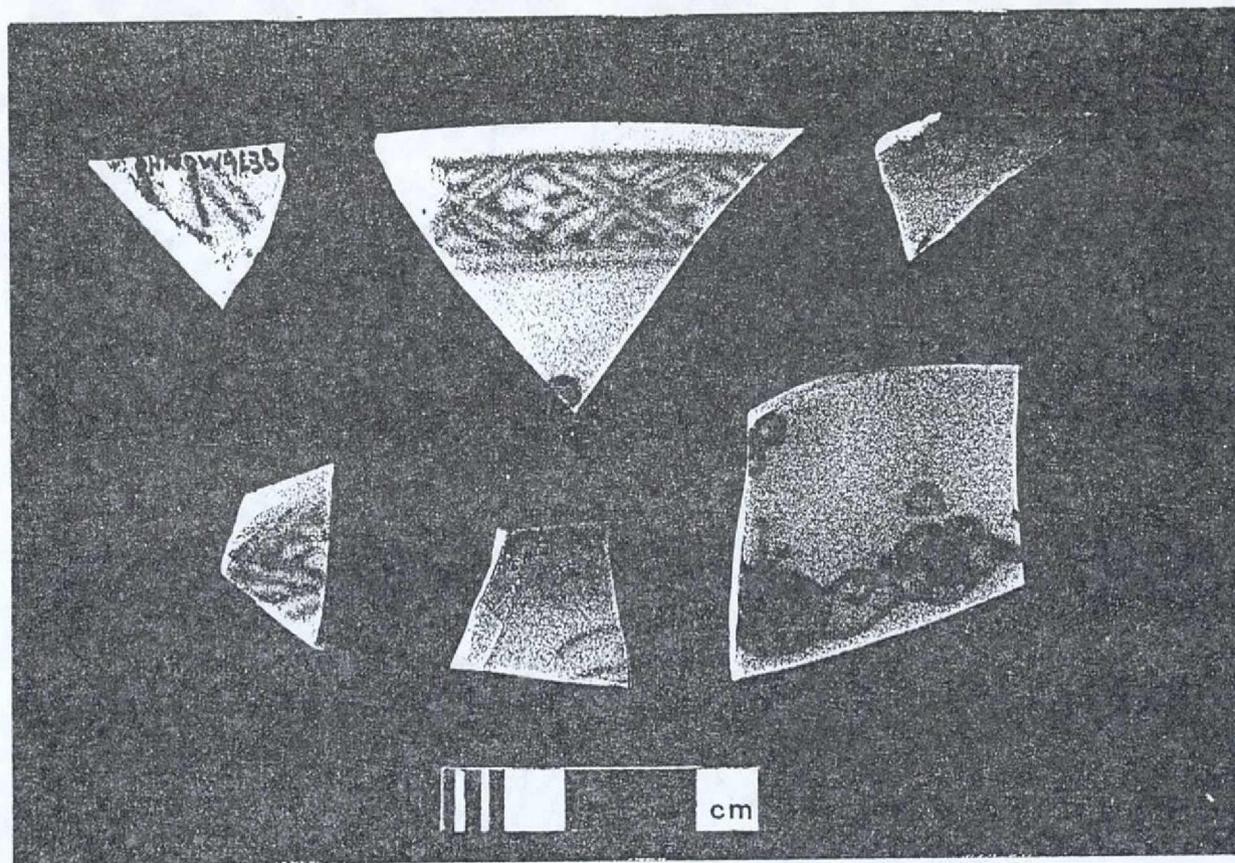


Figure 6:6

Chinese Export Porcelain. Underglaze blue,  
c. 1660-1800. Photograph by Carl Forster.

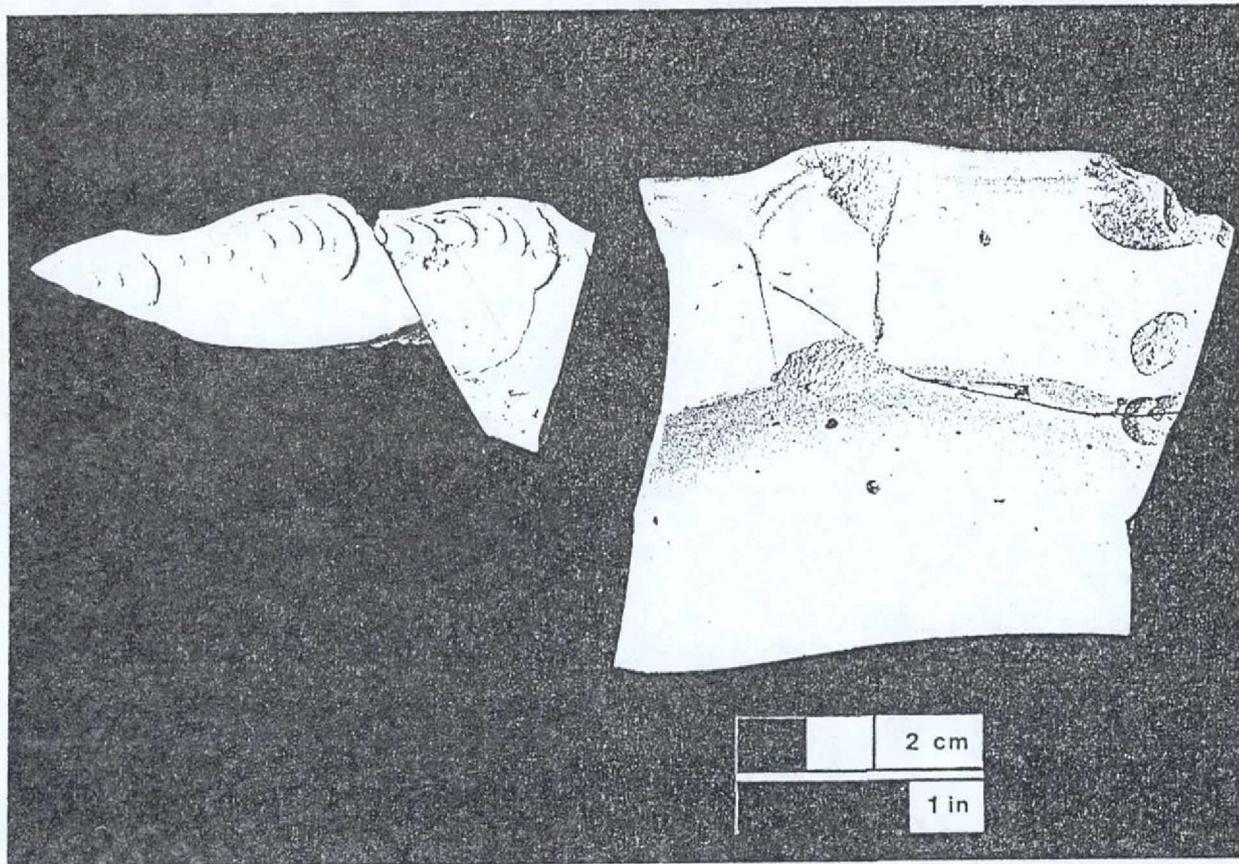


Figure 6:7

Eighteenth Century Creamware. Left: Feather-edged design. Right: Queen's shape design. Photograph by Carl Forster.

been included in the following chapter.

Bottle glass is usually very useful for dating purposes. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries there was an evolution of bottle shapes; these distinctive forms enable archaeologists to date the bottles (Noel Hume 1970; McKearin and McKearin 1941 (see Figure 6:8). With the growing demand for bottles in the early nineteenth century, molds were introduced, both to speed up production and to standardize the shapes (Baughner-Perlin 1978:132-33). The mold markings provide a more precise range for dating bottle glass (Steward and Consentino 1976; Jones, Sullivan *et al.* 1985). Commercial embossments enable archaeologists to determine the place of manufacture and the exact product (Munsey 1970; Berkow 1973). Lastly, a bottle's function can be determined by its shape and color (Adams 1971).

The entire bottle glass assemblage from the Conference House site contained very few embossments or mold markings. Those few artifacts with embossments had only fragments of designs or small portions of one or two letters; consequently, there was not enough data to determine trade networks. Most of the bottle fragments were small and without diagnostic features so dates could not be assigned to those objects.

In the eighteenth century deposits there were fragments from 4 wine bottle bases. These fragments could not be dated precisely because they were manufactured with technology (blowpipe pontils and solid iron bar pontils) that was used in both the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

#### Clay Tobacco Pipes

A large number of clay tobacco pipe stem and bowl fragments were found at the site and have been treated as a separate analytical unit due to their high frequency of occurrence (see Figure 6:9). Clay tobacco pipes are well suited to dating historical sites because of their datable evolution and short use-life. The shape of the pipe bowl and the diameter of the stem hole both underwent an easily recognizable evolution that had begun before the start of the seventeenth century and continued through the eighteenth century.

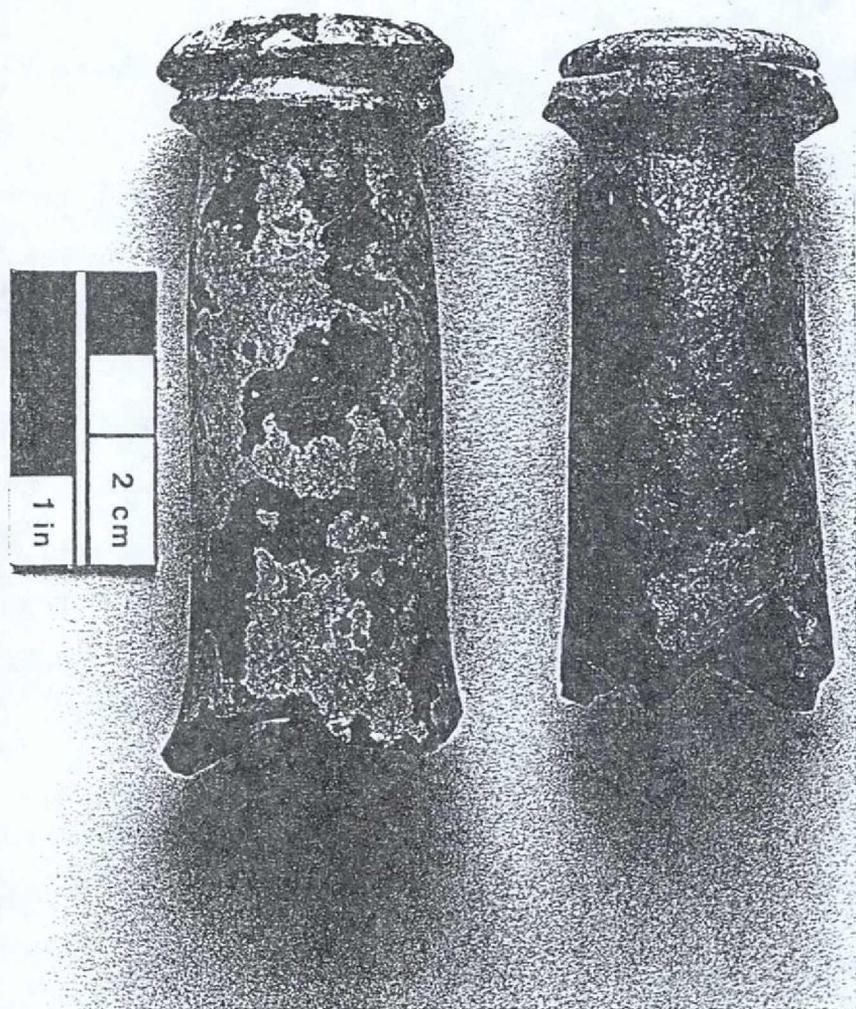


Figure 6:8

Lips and necks from eighteenth century wine bottles. Photograph by Carl Forster.

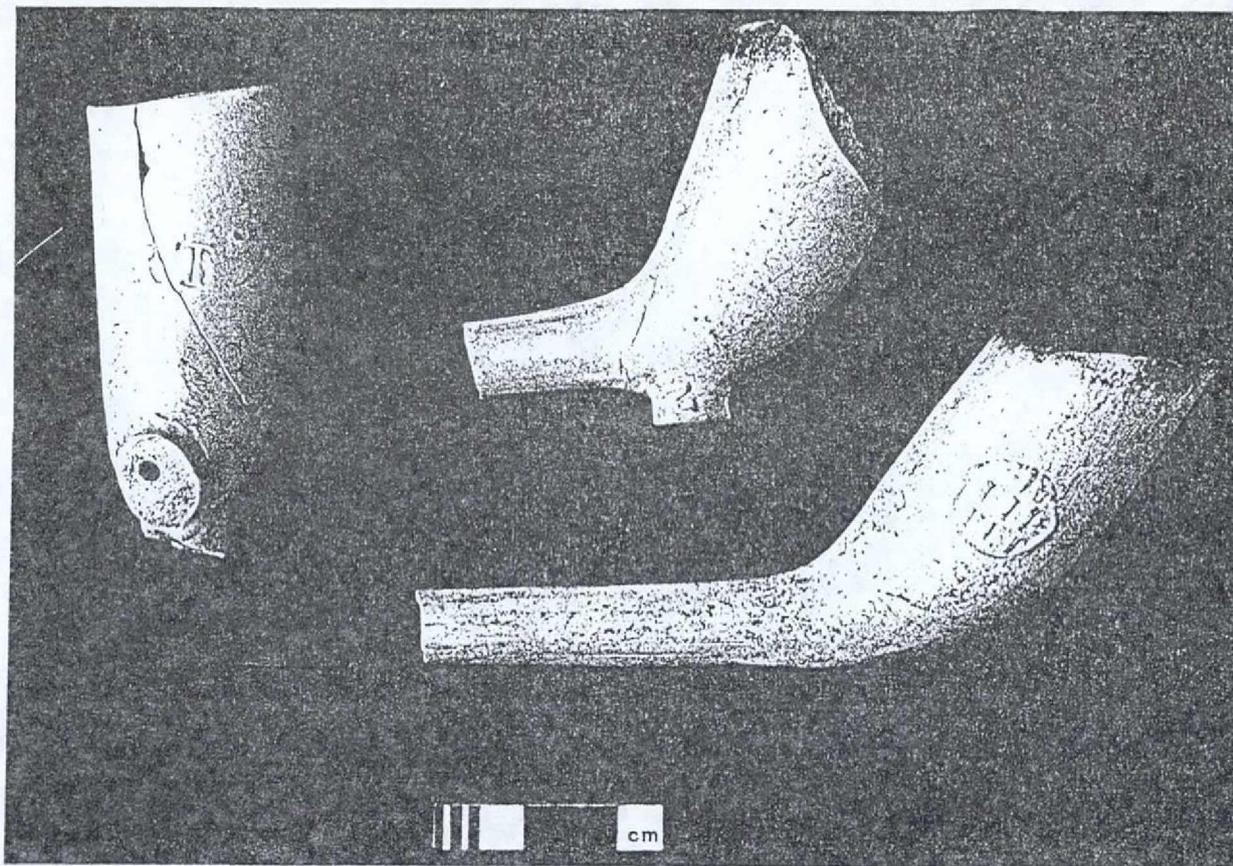


Figure 6:9

Clay Tobacco Pipe Bowls of English Manufacture. Specimen at left contains maker's mark "RT" on back of bowl; specimen in center is marked with letters "H" and "M" on each side of heel; specimen at right contains a circular cartouche on right side of bowl with maker's name "R. Tippet." Photograph by Carl Forster.

In addition, such elements as decorations and maker's marks make this artifact extremely valuable as a dating tool.

Thirty-six clay tobacco pipe bowl fragments and four nearly complete bowls were recovered from the site. Unfortunately, most of the fragments are small and undecorated and of little value in analysis of the site. However, several marked and decorated specimens were found.

A complete bowl with partial stem was found within excavation unit NO W38 Level 6, an eighteenth century depositional unit. This specimen has the letters "RT" impressed on the back of the bowl and the name "R/Tip/Pet" in a circular cartouche on the right side of the bowl. The bore diameter of the remaining stem is 5/64ths of an inch. This pipe was manufactured by Robert Tippert III, in Bristol, England, in the period 1678 to 1722. However, identical RT pipes have been found in late eighteenth century contexts elsewhere. (Walker 1977:660)

Several bowl fragments with the mark of pipemaker Robert Tippett were recovered from other eighteenth century depositional units. A rim fragment containing one impressed letter "R" (T is missing) was found in square NO W41 Level 5. Other specimens with impressed letters "RT" were recovered from squares NO W47 Levels 5, 6 and 7. Finally, a fragment marked (R) "Tip/Pet in a circular cartouche was recovered from NO W47 Level 7. The impressed letters "RT" in this collection are of varying size, 3 mm. or 4 mm. in height. The reason for this variation is unknown.

One nearly complete pipe bowl with a heel was recovered from excavation unit NO W41 Level 6, an eighteenth century depositional unit. The heel on this specimen is marked with raised letters, "H" on the left side and "M" on the right side. Its stem bore diameter is 4/64th of an inch. This pipe was probably manufactured in the first half of the eighteenth century in England. There were several makers who used the initials "HM", Henry Melts (1758), Hempstead Mules (1723-1732) Henry Mills (1716-1726) and Henry Mason (1717) (Oswald 1975).

One unusual pipe bowl specimen, made from wood, was also recovered from the site. This item was found in square NO W26 Level 2A and consists of a complete wooden

bowl with what appears to be two projections or feet presumably for keeping the pipe upright on a flat surface. A portion of the stem is also extant. This artifact probably dates to the twentieth century as indicated by the context in which it was found, i.e., an upper disturbed level, and its remarkable preservation.

One hundred eight clay tobacco pipe stem fragments were recovered from the site, all of which, with only one exception, are plain and undecorated. The bore diameters of all the recovered pipe stems were measured and recorded. Their sizes and frequencies are as follows:

<u>Number of Specimens</u>	<u>Size</u>	<u>Harrington (1954)</u>
<u>Scale</u>		
15	4/64ths	1750-1800
70	5/64ths	1710-1750
15	6/64ths	1680-1710
2	7/64ths	1650-1680
6	unknown	unknown

The intact eighteenth century deposits at the site contained a total of fifty-eight stem fragments. Their sizes and frequencies are as follows:

<u>Number of Specimens</u>	<u>Size</u>	<u>Harrington (1954)</u>
<u>Scale</u>		
6	4/64ths	1750-1800
40	5/64ths	1710-1750
7	6/64ths	1680-1710
2	7/64ths	1650-1680
3	unknown	unknown

Thus, the pipe stem assemblage from the Conference House site overwhelmingly dates to the period 1710-1750. Further analysis of the specimens recovered from the intact eighteenth century depositional units, utilizing the Binford Formula, has produced a date of 1737 for these deposits.

As we noted earlier, one marked pipe stem fragment was recovered from the site. This specimen, which is broken longitudinally; has the manufacturer's name in raised letters, i.e., "WHITE." Due to its fragmentary nature its bore diameter could not be accurately measured but it is most likely 5/64ths of an inch. This pipe was manufactured by the firm of William White in Glasgow, Scotland which was in operation from 1805 to 1955 (Walker 1971). This specimen was found in soil level 3 of square NO W23 in a disturbed context.

#### Architectural Group Artifacts

1. Nails: The most common construction or architectural element recovered from the excavation at the site are wrought iron, machine cut and wire nails and fragments. Unfortunately, these artifacts were badly rusted and corroded and in most instances it was impossible to differentiate between hand wrought and machine cut types. However, "rose" head and "L" shaped heads were detected on a few specimens which indicates the presence of at least two types of wrought nails in the collection.

There are 953 hand wrought and machine cut nails of varying sizes and twenty-nine spikes in the assemblage. There are also forty-nine wire nails and thirty-eight tacks. In general, the hand wrought nails date to the eighteenth century while the machine cut nails date from c.1790 onward (Noel Hume 1969: 252-254). The presence of a large quantity of nails suggests that some structural changes and/or repairs were made to the north side of the house.

2. Architectural hardware: Several items in this artifact class were recovered from the site. We found one ceramic door knob, two porcelain electrical insulations, one skeleton key, four wood screws, three washers, two bolts, one nut and a rivet. In addition, a hinge with four fastening holes was found in excavation unit NO W20 Level 3, and a fragment of another was found in square NO W9 Level 13B. Finally, several fragments of wire, metal springs, and a wire hook were recovered from widely scattered locations at the site.

3. Glaziers Lead: Four lead strips were recovered from the eighteenth century

depositional units. One specimen, 2.8 inches in length was found in square NO W35 Level 4, while another piece was found in Level 6 of the same unit. Two pieces of turned lead, that is material that had been drawn through a vise by the glazier, was recovered from square NO W38 Level 5.

One unusual lead artifact, possible an ornamental piece, was recovered from square NO W23 Level 2, a mixed context. This specimen is about 2 1/2 inches in length with a washer-like termination at each end, and another larger washer-like section near one end. The function of this artifact is not known.

4. Construction Materials: Numerous brick fragments were found at the site, but no complete specimens were recovered from the excavations. The recovered fragments were common red bricks, unmarked, and several specimens were glazed. Also, many fragments of wood, mortar, plaster and paint chips were found scattered throughout the site. Finally, several pieces of roofing slate, asbestos board or tile, and linoleum were found as well. These varied construction materials clearly reflect the many structural changes that have taken place within the house over a long span of time.

#### Kitchen Artifact Group:

Artifacts analyzed under this designation relate to household and/or kitchen activities.

1. Tableware: One fork with a bone handle was found at the site. It is five inches long and has three prongs.

2. Shell: Numerous clam and oyster shell fragments were found throughout the entire area of excavation. These specimens indicate that shellfish were an important component in the diet of the occupants of the house and the prehistoric groups who had lived in this area prior to European settlement.

3. Coal and Charcoal: Many specimens of coal and charcoal were recovered from the excavations. These items reflect the type of fuel resources utilized at the site over a long span of time.

### Clothing Group

1. Buttons: A small collection of buttons was recovered from the site and these artifacts provide some temporal data on the occupation of the house as well as the life ways of its occupants. Unfortunately, most of the specimens were recovered from mixed deposits rather than the intact eighteenth century depositional units.

A total of twenty-seven buttons and button fragments were recovered from the site. Of this total, four are cut discs or button backs manufactured from bone and probably date to the eighteenth century. Two of these specimens have a single hole in their centers. One brass button, domed on its obverse side, was found in excavation unit NO W47 Level 7 and dates to the eighteenth century as well. Also, a cast white metal button was found in unit NO W35 Level 4 which dates to the eighteenth century.

Five brass disc type buttons were recovered from the site and may date to the last half of the eighteenth century (Noel-Hume 1969:88). Also recovered from the site were three wood buttons, five iron buttons, seven milk glass buttons, and two shell buttons. The white glass and shell buttons date to the late nineteenth century.

2. Buckles: Two brass buckles were found in excavation unit NO W47 Levels 5 and 7. Their context clearly indicates an eighteenth century date of origin. Two brass shoe buckles, which also date to the eighteenth century, were recovered from other mixed deposits.

3. Straight Pins: One straight pin was found in square NO W9 Level 8, one in square NO W20 Level, and another in square NO W47 Level 6. Both of these specimens date to the eighteenth century. Two other straight pins were found at the site, but were within mixed deposits.

4. Beads: Seven glass beads were found at the site. Six of these specimens were within mixed archaeological deposits, but one yellow glass specimen was found in square NO W29 Level 8 an intact eighteenth century deposit.

5. Safety Pin: One specimen was found in a mixed deposit and probably dates to the twentieth century.

### Personal Group Artifacts

All of the artifacts included in this category were recovered from mixed archaeological deposits. Our analysis indicates that they date from the late nineteenth century to the twentieth century. The personal group specimens are as follows:

<u>Quantity</u>	<u>Object</u>
2	plastic hair pins
1	umbrella rib tip
2	slate pencils
1	metal eyeglass rim
1	compass hand
1	comb fragment, wood
1	bone fan rib

#### Activities Group Artifacts

Two tools were recovered from the site. A bone awl, 4 1/2 inches in length was found in square NO W29 Level 3. A metal file, seven inches in length and triangular in cross-section was found in excavation unit NO W26 Level 4.

One clay marble, 3/4ths of an inch in diameter, was found in square NO W47 Level 3. This specimens has a mottled tan-brown-blue color and dates to the late nineteenth century.

#### Arms Group

Two musket balls were recovered from mixed archaeological deposits. One specimen of buckshot was also found.

#### Conclusions

The Conference House Park site contained 11,900 artifacts, of which 1,387 were associated with the Billopp family. Table 6:3 itemizes the total site deposits and Table 6:4 categorizes the eighteenth century deposit. The upper levels of the site contained a mixed

seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth century deposit which, unfortunately, was so disturbed that it could not be associated with any specific occupant of the house. The ceramics, glass, clay smoking pipes, nails, and miscellaneous objects, all confirm an eighteenth century date for the deposit. The ceramic evidence suggests a date in the 1770s and 1780s, the other material suggests mid-eighteenth century date for the deposit. The deposit can be associated with Colonel Christopher Billopp and perhaps with material associated with his mother and father.

The deposit, according to a formula designed by Stanley South (1977) for classifying eighteenth century artifact assemblages into functional categories, is a domestic deposit (see Table 6:4). Because of the British military occupation of the site in the summer of 1776, there was a question of whether archaeological material of a military nature would be found. However, there was nothing in the eighteenth century levels to suggest a military deposit. Two musket balls were found in the mixed deposits but no military buttons, weapons or tools were found in the assemblage. The domestic assemblage provides insights into life in eighteenth century New York and this topic is discussed in the next chapter.

Table 6:3 The total artifact assemblage from the Conference House site placed in functional categories.

Entire Site Class name	# of Artifacts	% of Artifacts
<u>Kitchen and Dining Group</u>		
1. Ceramics	1593	13.4
2. Bottles	2768	23.3
3. Table Glass	241	2.0
4. Cutlery (fork)	1	0
Total	4603	38.7
<u>Architecture Group</u>		
1. Window Glass	5569	46.8
2. Nails	1002	8.4
3. spikes	34	.3
4. Construction Hardware (hinges)	2	0
Total	6607	55.5
<u>Clothing Group</u>		
1. Buttons	27	.2
2. Beads	7	.1
3. Straight Pins/Safety Pin	5	0
4. Decorative Pins	1	0
5. Buckles	4	0
6. Fabric	1	0
Total	45	.3
<u>Personal Group</u>		
1. Personal Items (pencils, eyeglasses, combs, hairpins, compass, key, umbrella, fan)	9	.1
2. Tobacco Pipes	108	.9
Total	117	1.0
<u>Activities Group</u>		
1. Military Items	3	0
2. Tools	2	0
3. Toys (marbles)	1	0
4. Misc. Hardware (nuts, bolts, screws, tacks, springs, wire)	82	.7
5. Unidentifiable Metal (function/type)	439	3.7
6. Other (screw cap bottle top)	1	0
Total	528	4.5
Assemblage Total	11,900	100

Table 6:4 The functional categories for the eighteenth century deposit from the Conference House site.

<u>Eighteenth Century Levels</u>	<u># of Artifacts</u>	<u>% of Artifacts</u>
<u>Kitchen and Dining Group</u>		
1. Ceramics	229	16.5
2. Bottles	202	14.6
3. Table Glass	7	.5
4. Cutlery	0	0
Total	438	31.6
<u>Architecture Group</u>		
1. Window Glass	473	34.1
2. Nails	305	22.0
3. Spikes	5	.4
4. Construction Hardware (hinges)	0	0
Total	783	56.5
<u>Clothing Group</u>		
1. Buttons	6	.4
2. Beads	1	0
3. Straight Pins	2	.1
4. Decorative Pins	0	0
5. Buckles	2	.1
6. Fabric	0	0
Total	11	.6
<u>Personal Group</u>		
1. Personal Items (pencils, eyeglasses, combs, hairpins, compass, key, umbrella, fan)	0 58	0 4.2
Total	58	4.2
<u>Activities Group</u>		
1. Military Items (mushet balls, buckshot)	0	0
2. Tools	0	0
3. Toys (marbles)	0	0
4. Misc. Hardware (nuts, bolts, screws, tacks, springs, wire)	6	.4
5. Unidentifiable Metal function/type	91	6.6
6. Other	0	0
Total	97	7.1
Assemblage Total	1387	100

CHAPTER SEVEN: INTERPRETATIONS OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY  
COMPONENT OF THE SITE

Sherene Baugher  
Robert W. Venables

## CHAPTER SEVEN: INTERPRETATIONS OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY COMPONENT OF THE SITE

The data from the eighteenth century component of the Conference House Park site have already been used in published articles (Baugher and Venables 1987, Baugher 1990) and artifacts from the site were used in the exhibit Staten Island Trade Networks (Staten Island Museum March - August 1985). This chapter will present a version of the 1987 article (which included the data from the museum exhibit) which has been adapted for this report.

This chapter analyzes three major factors which affected eighteenth century archaeological ceramic assemblages in New York. Seven sites were studied. Four are rural, including the Conference House. Three are in lower Manhattan, the location of colonial New York City and the colony's major port. The following were considered:

1. market access
2. socio-economic status
3. the specific historic events which occurred at each site

In addition, three other factors will be briefly discussed in the historical section: colonial material culture including "fashion," the broad historic trends and circumstances which had effects on all sites, and ethnicity.

The archaeological and documentary data both indicated an availability of fine ceramics in rural areas and on the frontier as well as in New York City. Status, not location, was the significant factor when a colonist chose ceramic wares. However, both middle and upper classes sought similar ceramic wares, although the upper classes could obviously afford more of the same wares. European ethnicity evidently did not strongly affect ceramic choices. But a pervasive colonial culture and fashion, largely shaped by the trade restrictions of imperial Britain, did affect these choices by limiting what ceramics could be most readily purchased (i.e., primarily British, Chinese, and some German). We conclude that market access is primarily determined by class and by economic and political factors. Spatial considerations are negligible. In addition, we hope that this chapter presents a model which can be used and tested on other sites.

### Historical Perspectives

This section is divided into the following subsections: trade networks, settlement patterns and market access, and socio-economic status and class.

#### Trade Networks

A review of colonial trade indicates the different ways goods reached each class of colonists. To obtain finer goods, affluent colonials might occasionally buy from shopkeepers catering primarily to the middling and common folk. Usually, however, colonial aristocrats would contact, as individuals or in a group, a representative or agent in Britain who also conducted most of their other business affairs for them abroad. The aristocrats might also agree to go in together -- to subscribe -- in order to place a major order from Britain. Local arrangements might be made for these transactions through an exchange of correspondence or at a meeting, especially at a gathering at a prestigious coffee house (Schlesinger 1917: 23-32 and passim; and Bridenbaugh 1955: 160-162).

Whatever their other incomes, one or more among any gathering of aristocrats was likely to be a merchant. Historian Jackson Turner Main defined a merchant as "one who imported and who characteristically sold at wholesale," noting how Samuel Johnson's eighteenth century Dictionary distinguished the roles of merchants and shopkeepers: "a merchant was 'one who trafficks to remote countries' whereas a shopkeeper was 'a trader who sells in a shop; not a merchant who deals only by wholesale' "(Main 1965: 86).

In acquiring their goods, the middle and lower classes, as well as the occasional aristocrat, had a number of options. There were of course the shopkeepers. There were also individual street sellers. The street or open markets, not unlike their medieval predecessors, were yet another source (Bridenbaugh 1955: 77-83 and 272-280).

Trade items coming from Britain, Europe, Asia (via Britain), and Africa (primarily direct) were targeted primarily at the elite and middle classes. (The exception were those goods, of a wide range of quality, imported for the Indian fur and deerskin trades: cf. Corkran 1967; Jacobs 1950; Norton 1974; and Phillips 1961). The lower (laboring) class, the poor, and the slaves were at the tail end of the Atlantic trade network because of

their relative inability to buy into it. Catering to these classes, as well to anyone else who would buy were the peddlars. The peddlars were at the bottom of the business hierarchy. They were frequently young, too ill for farm labor, and/or lacking a limb. In 1772, twenty-two were licensed by the colony of New York, and many more peddled without a license. Of eighteen peddlars of whom there is a detailed record in the colony of New York, eight traveled by foot; six had one horse apiece; and only four had carts (Greg 1750-1755: passim; and Main 1965: 84-85).

Unfortunately, there are few surviving documentary records of the lower strata of colonial society -- and even fewer archaeological records. Lower class, poor, and slave families could acquire at best a few treasured items, although they could also obtain the castoffs of their superiors by scavenging, and occasionally receive an item as a gift. Of course, there were always families which had seen better days, and they might cherish an object from a previous generation which had a monetary and aesthetic value far beyond the family's current ability to purchase such items. An expensive object could also be stolen, a modus operandi equally open to the middle and the upper classes. The theft factor should also be extended to include -- again, applicable to all classes -- looting during war.

#### • Settlement Patterns and Market Access

A major reason it is not unusual to find the widespread distribution of the same high quality goods among the aristocrats and middle class of both country and city was that most of colonial America was country. Consequently more aristocrats lived in the country, or both in the country and in the city, than exclusively in the city.

"Market access" is not synonymous with "proximity." Distances from markets is thus not a major issue in colonial trade patterns. If a product could be shipped 3,000 miles across the Atlantic (Boatner 1974:49), it was relatively easy to get that product to any aristocratic or middle class colonist living in the colonies, almost all of whom lived on or close to a major river (Boorstin 1958:107; and Adams 1927:3). Market access, in fact, had less to do with spatial circumstances than to economic and political situations

(McCusker and Menard 1985: 303). Finally, in considering the spatial relationship of the 3,000 mile ocean route to the colonies, it is especially significant to note that even by 1775 the colonies had spread inland less than 250 miles from the Atlantic coast, and that all legal white settlements were located east of that frontier (Cappon 1976: 22-25). Personal isolation from an urban center should not be equated with commercial isolation. Merchants and other distributors moved their goods regularly across distances, expecting to cope with such spatial considerations in the ordinary course of doing business. In summary, if a colonist could afford to buy it, someone was ready, willing, and able to ship it.

Throughout the colonies, more than 95% of the population lived in the countryside. In the colony of New York, 87% lived outside New York City. In 1770 the entire colony numbered 162,920, only 21,000 of whom (13%) lived in New York City. In 1775, the thirteen colonies had a population of approximately 2.6 million. There were only sixteen cities (that is, urban areas with three thousand or more people). These sixteen cities totaled 132,105 (5.1%). Of the top five cities, Philadelphia ranked first with 23,739. In 1775, New York was the thirteen colonies' second most populous city, with 22,000, followed by Boston with 16,000, Charleston with 14,000, and Newport, Rhode Island, with 9,209. Within the framework of the British empire, when London numbered 700,000, it is no wonder that European visitors to American colonial cities such as New York remarked on how beautifully pastoral their settings were. Because Britain forbade extensive heavy industry in the colonies, for example, there was little industrial smoke rising in the sky. (Cappon 1976:97-98 and 103-107; Morris 1982: 648; Kalm 1966 [1770-1771]: 130-136 and passim; and Bridenbaugh 1955:3 and 216-217).

Transport along the trade routes was primarily by water, beginning of course with the voyage across the Atlantic. During the colonial period, an Atlantic voyage took about eight weeks from England to America but, because of the Westerly winds, about four weeks from America to England (Boatner 1974: 48). Thus to both merchant and customer, a few more days while the goods were shipped up a river or across a bay was truly the easy part of a trip. Librarian of Congress Daniel J. Boorstin (1958:295) notes

that" it was easier to travel a thousand miles by water than a hundred by land." Thus an area like Staten Island, just across the bay from the major entry port of New York and surrounded by easily accessible water, was hardly isolated. Furthermore, the major trade route to central New Jersey and the land route to Philadelphia put Staten Islanders right on the eastern end of a major trade network which ferried goods by water to Elizabeth, Perth Amboy, and various New Jersey rivers and streams near Staten Island (Levitt 1981: 7-44). The extensive trade along the Hudson River made that valley in constant communication with New York City. And the Mohawk Valley frontier depended upon market access: its Indian fur trade and its colonial agricultural commodities were both important because they had access to New York City via the Mohawk and Hudson Rivers. (Venables 1967: 15-17, 23-24 and passim.)

The affordability of goods in the interior depended, of course, on the ability of the peripheral, interior agricultural products to reach core markets thus creating the profit (income) needed to purchase goods. As historians John J. McCusker and Russell R. Menard (1985:302-303) make clear in their summary of markets in colonial America:

Conventional wisdom suggests that high transport costs severely limited farmers access to markets and that the "tyranny of distance" kept many farmers isolated, forcing them into a subsistence mode of production. Again, there is evidence that such a formulation is misleading, that it overestimates the costs and underestimates the sophistication of interior transportation, and that it thus misjudges the distance which farmers were willing and able to haul their products.

The isolation of farmers has been much exaggerated.

Our own research confirms this. The account book and papers of a Mohawk Valley trader/shopkeeper from 1769 to 1775 demonstrate how interior farmers had access to markets and to finished goods from England. The Mohawk Valley was part of Tryon

County, colonial New York's westernmost frontier county. Living at Caughnawaga on the Mohawk River, Jelles Fonda coordinated trade for many of the county's white inhabitants as well as carrying on trade with Mohawk, Oneida, Tuscarora, and other Indians (especially through representatives at Fort Stanwix -- now Rome, New York -- at -- the western boundary of the county). Fonda's imports included Irish linen, lace, calico, fine clothing, silk handkerchiefs, pewterware, mirrors, and women's worsted hose (Fonda 1771-1773: 94-184; cf. Fonda 1769-1775).

There is a major reason why upper and middle classes throughout British North America sought similar goods. Superficially, this reason is apparent as "fashion." But behind "fashion" were a subtler components. One was psychological, the other was economic, and both were tied to the imperial context of Britain's colonial America.

The strongest sense of isolation among colonists was not between coastal colonist and frontier farmer. Rather, it was the isolation brought by the trans-Atlantic abyss between the European homeland and America. Thomas Flexner (1975: 33), the eminent scholar of American art and culture, detects among the American colonists isolated by an ocean from Britain an actual "twinge of guilt felt by the colonists at the realization that they were separated from traditional culture" in London and Britain. Aristocrats might feel the need to compensate for this isolation even more strongly than other classes simply because they could afford it and because their access to the latest news from Britain in their various businesses made them all the more aware of what they were missing on the London scene. Flexner (1975:10), however, sees a "colonial attitude" that pervades all American colonial life:

The colonial mind . . . does not seek the new, but rather wishes to reproduce the institutions and the society of the mother country. Deviations, however strongly forced by a different environment, are regarded as provincial mannerisms that will eventually be overcome and should in the meantime not be stressed.

One of the subjects of this paper, Sir William Johnson, was a self-made aristocrat living on the frontier. Flexner's description goes far in explaining some of the psychological reasons Johnson established an English country estate in the Mohawk Valley (cf. Flexner 1979: 295- 311).

Richard L. Bushman has defined the common elements in the arts and architecture which were patronized by the upper and middle classes in all the colonies as "the diffusion of genteel culture". But he notes that while America looked to England for its culture and fashion, England was also looking to other European nations for cultural inspiration even as it created its own (Bushman 1984: 352-364, 367, and 373). This European factor may have mitigated the cultural identity among non-British colonists. Colonial British America included many ethnic groups not from the British Isles (Cappon 1976: 96-100). Ethnicity among these non-British colonists survived most successfully in personal, family, and religious customs as well as in these groups' locally-produced arts and crafts. However, a sense of ethnic identity for non-British colonists was difficult to maintain in imported material culture because imports from a particular non-British homeland were constricted (though not eliminated) by an overwhelmingly significant factor in colonial life: the system of trade itself.

The colonial ties to England were not just cultural and spiritual -- they were also economic. British goods were not just the fashion, they were often "the only." The British empire was organized so that the 2.6 million colonists supplied raw material to, and consumed the finished products of, the eight million who lived in the British Isles. Since the eighteenth century British monarchy belonged to the German House of Hanover, a German connection was included in this trade network, evident in the German ceramics found at the sites. Through an economic system called "mercantilism" (which has its modern counterpart in what economists now call "protectionism"), the colonists were forced to "buy British" (McCusker and Menard 1985: 35-88 and passim). Such a policy, of course, was most easily implemented when it encouraged the colonial passion for things English voluntarily -- thus the colonial aspirations to mimic London fashions was both a phenomenon of the colonial mind set and a method by which London could

perpetuate its imperial economic goals (Schlesinger 1917: 31). The result of this policy was that by the 1760s there was clearly a complicated, unfavorable balance of trade from the colonial point of view (McCusker and Menard 1985: 36-39). However, since English liberties in the colonies were usually broader than other European nations' and certainly more liberal than the neighboring French and Spanish colonies, the English model was not intrinsically distasteful. When rebellion finally came in 1775, it is well to remember that for more than a year the Patriots proclaimed that they were fighting for the rights of Englishmen, not independence (cf. Bailyn 1967: 94-143 and 273-313).

#### Socio-economic Status and Class

In addition to colonial trade, this article focuses on the material manifestations of class in eighteenth century British North America. It is important to note that class history in America is a complex topic. Especially since the seminal work by Jackson Turner Main, The Social Structure of Revolutionary America, published in 1965, specific examinations of class have increased so that class history in colonial British North America has now accumulated a historical literature as challenging and varied as that of, for example, Frederick Jackson Turner's frontier thesis. While there is an enormous literature on the subject, a major difficulty arises from examining a colonial pre-industrial society from a post-industrial perspective -- that is, from a perspective at least twice-removed from the colonial era. Colonial society had more in common with the lifestyles, values, and class structure of Renaissance Europe than with the industrial nineteenth and twentieth century America. No more dramatic set of statistics demonstrates the difference than those available for comparing the very rich in colonial New York City with those of New York City in 1860. In colonial New York City, there was indeed a disparity between rich and poor, but the rich did not control the overwhelming amount of wealth in the colonial period as they did in 1860. More or less constantly between 1695 and 1789, the top ten percent of New York City taxpayers owned forty-five percent of the wealth. Yet by 1860 the top five percent owned seventy percent of the wealth (Henretta 1984:277-279).

despite the pluralistic components of its colonists. The economics of the British empire were integrated with the politics and political philosophy and both were intertwined with aspects of British fashion and culture, all impacting on the colonial state of mind. In a colonial world of many national backgrounds, material culture and the aspirations which prompted its acquisitions served as a social glue.

Given all of these historical perspectives, an archaeologist should expect to find a tremendous similarity in the goods unearthed at city and country sites of people of the same socio-economic status. Furthermore, the differences between the goods owned by members of the middle and upper class should be a quantitative difference not a qualitative difference. To test these ideas, we have analyzed data from rural and city sites, and artifacts discarded by middle and upper class families.

#### Archaeological Sources and Methods

To test our hypotheses our criteria was to choose sites that had ceramic assemblages that could be linked to a specific family with a documented history. The family could be either from the upper or middle class in colonial New York (mid- to late eighteenth century). We also selected sites that were excavated in a similar manner so that field methodology did not account for differences in the assemblages. The four sites were: the Conference House and the Voorlezer House sites on Staten Island and Clermont and Johnson Hall in upstate New York (see Figure 7:1 for site locations).

The two eastern upstate New York sites, Johnson Hall and Clermont, are both state historic sites and also include original eighteenth century homes. Both are managed as State Historic Parks. The excavation of these two sites was sponsored by the New York State Historic Trust and the Bureau of Historic Sites. The staff of the archaeology unit within the Bureau of Historic Sites excavated these two sites, with Lois Feister (1981) authoring the Clermont report and Rich Goring (1981) writing the Johnson Hall report.

The excavation of the Voorlezer House site represents a cooperative research endeavor between the New York City Landmarks Preservation Commission and the Staten Island Historical Society. Funding for the excavation and laboratory work was shared by

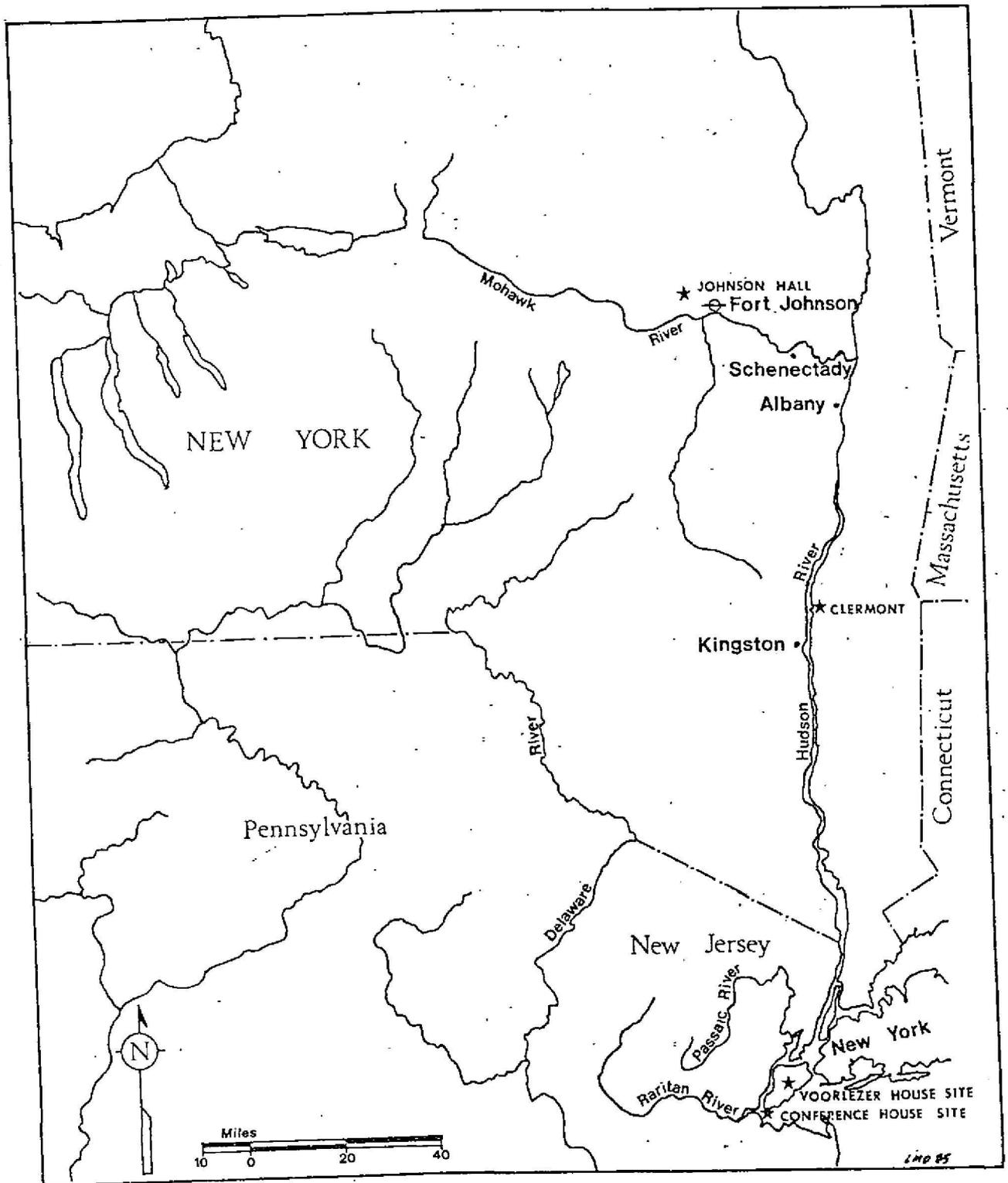


Figure 7:1

Map showing location of Clermont, the Conference House, Johnson Hall, and the Voorlezer House. Map adapted from "Iroquois Frontier 1768-1780" in James Adams' Atlas of American History. Map drafted by Louise DeCesare.

the Historical Society and the Landmarks Commission and was aided by grants. The site was excavated by Baugher and a small team of graduate and undergraduate students from local colleges and the Historical Society staff. The Voorlezer House site report was written by Baugher, Judith Baragli, and Louise DeCesare (1985).

The four sites, Clermont, Conference House, Johnson Hall, and Voorlezer House, were excavated for the same purpose -- to sample the site prior to construction work. All four excavations were confined to areas of the property that were going to be destroyed by construction projects. In all cases the construction work was postponed to allow time for an archaeological excavation. The artifacts from the four sites were sheet scatter deposits in the yard area alongside the homes. No artifacts were from features. The ceramic assemblages from each site were fairly similar in size. The artifacts were from sites which contained a clearly documented use and ownership. The artifacts can be attributed to specific families.

The following is a brief historical sketch of each of the four rural sites chosen for the primary analysis.

The Voorlezer House is located in the heart of Richmondtown, the eighteenth century county seat of Staten Island. In 1705, a French family, the Rezeaus, purchased the property and resided on this land until 1872. Documentary evidence shows that Jacob Rezeau was a cooper, farmer, slave owner, and public official who lived in the present Voorlezer House from the 1740 until 1789 (Baugher, Baragli, and DeCesare 1985).

Clermont is located in the Hudson River Valley between the towns of Tivoli and Germantown, fifty miles south of Albany and about one hundred miles north of the colonial city of New York. In 1782, the Livingston family built the mansion at Clermont upon the ruins of a 1730 house which was also owned by the Livingstons (Feister 1981: 39). The most famous resident of Clermont was Robert Livingston, a member of the committee that drafted the Declaration of Independence, a Minister to France responsible for the Louisiana Purchase in 1803, and a partner with Robert Fulton in their successful

steamboat venture, the Clermont, in 1809 (Launitz-Schurer 1980:28-32 and 158-159; Boatner 1974:642-643; and Hopkins 1964:576).

Robert Livingston was rivaled in wealth and power by Sir William Johnson. Johnson's home, Johnson Hall, is located in Johnstown (near the Mohawk River) thirty-eight miles from Albany and about one hundred and forty miles from Manhattan. Sir William Johnson, Colonial Superintendent of Indian Affairs, built his Georgian house in 1763. This home in the Mohawk Valley was on New York's colonial frontier (Flexner 1979).

To address the question of whether site location affected market access to colonial New York, we compared the data from our four rural sites to information from three sites in lower Manhattan (see Figure 7:2). The three Manhattan excavations considered in this paper were directed by Bertram Herbert and Terry Klein (the Barclay Bank site, Louis Berger, 1987); by Nan Rothschild and Arnold Pickman (7 Hanover Square site); and by Nan Rothschild and Diana Rockman (the Stadt Huys Site). They were conducted as public archaeology projects monitored by the New York City Landmarks Preservation Commission. Site reports have been completed on two of these sites, although research and report preparation is underway on the third site (7 Hanover Square).

The Manhattan artifacts were unearthed from colonial backyards and basements which were buried underneath buildings from the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. On all three sites, many of the eighteenth century structures were destroyed by an 1835 fire. The later nineteenth century buildings covered, and thus protected, a few of the eighteenth century building foundations, backyards, and their associated artifacts. These three sites had been parking lots immediately prior to the archaeological excavation, but now skyscrapers are upon them.

The Manhattan data was used to illustrate the presence or absence of material in the Port of New York. None of the Manhattan sites contained ceramic assemblages that could be linked to a specific family. The three Manhattan sites had various problems: (a) the time range for the levels was too broad; (b) they lacked supportive documentary evidence, or (c) there were too many varied uses of a property to link the archaeological

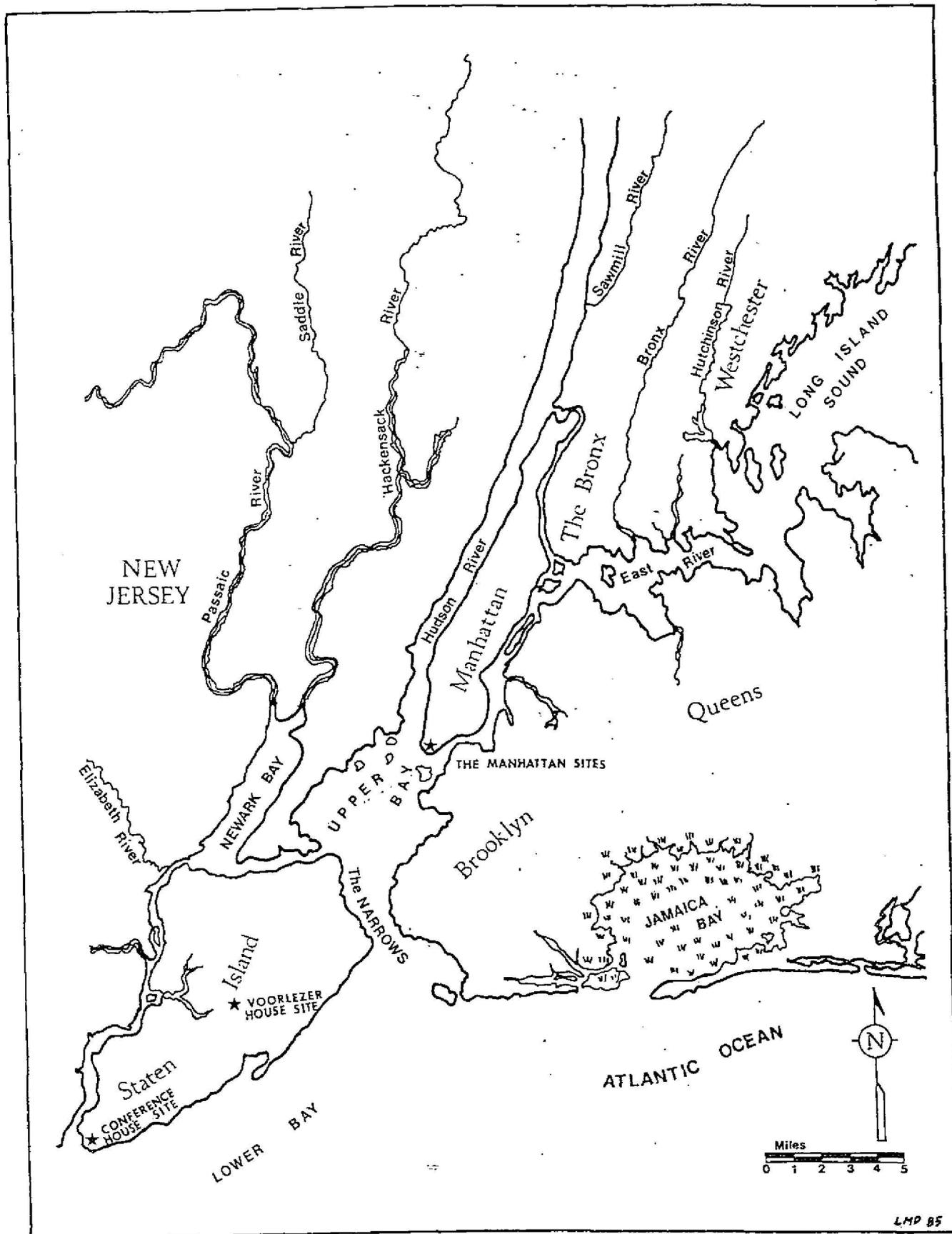


Figure 7:2

Map showing the location of the Conference House and the Voorlezer House in relation to the Port of New York. Map adapted from "New York (City) in 1776" in James Adams' Atlas of American History. Map drafted by Louise DeCesare.

data to a particular occupant. Thus the Manhattan sites only revealed generalized and broad chronological sweeps for the eighteenth century rather than era-specific, quantifiable data linked to specific families.<sup>1</sup>

The Manhattan archaeological data was used in tandem with historical data: the records of an eighteenth century colonial merchant, Frederick Rhinelander, who specialized in ceramics. The New-York Historical Society contains the papers (twenty-five volumes) of Frederick Rhinelander, proprietor of a china, glass, and earthenware store in Manhattan from 1770 to 1786. Ceramic historian Arlene Palmer Schwind's (1984) lengthy article detailed all of the ceramic types (and their prices) that were imported by Rhinelander. Thus we were able to document the range of goods available in the colonial capital of New York. The archaeological data were compared with documentary evidence listing the exact types of wares that were being imported into the Port of New York during the 1770s and 1780s.

Schwind (1984) notes that, in the 1770s and 1780s, the fashionable wares were Chinese porcelain, creamware, pearlware, white salt-glazed stoneware, and some decorated delft. Delft and white salt glazed stoneware were at the height of fashion in mid-eighteenth century; the Rhinelander papers demonstrate that this style of wares continued to be popular into the late eighteenth century (Schwind 1984: 26-27). One of the lower status wares was Nottinghamware. The documentary records show that within each ware type there is a diversity in vessel shape, design, and in price. For example, enameled white salt-glazed stoneware cups and saucers were four times more expensive than the undecorated white salt glazed cups (Schwind 1984: 26).

After reading the Rhinelander data, it is clear that there are problems in the way archaeologists record the data from eighteenth century sites. Site reports usually present the number of sherds within each broad category. However, if we are to use ceramics as status indicators, then we need to know the specific information about vessel shape

---

<sup>1</sup> The Barclays Bank site contained a late eighteenth century (post-revolutionary war) archaeological deposit that could be associated with a known family. Unfortunately, this time period is later than the time period we were studying.

and style of decoration. If two sites contain the same number of creamware sherds, but one site had undecorated creamware from a chamberpot, and the other had enamel-painted designed creamware tea cups, this difference in vessel form and decoration would certainly indicate a difference in the cost of the objects. It is recommended that future site reports provide a more detailed presentation of ceramic data. For the current cross-site research the comparisons had to be made within the broad categories of ware type.

#### Hypothesis: Site Location Did Not Affect Market Access in Colonial New York

The general hypothesis that site location on waterways eliminates market access as an important variable affecting eighteenth century consumer choices has been tested using seven sites in colonial New York. Ceramic assemblages from our four rural sites (Clermont, Conference House, Johnson Hall, and Voorlezer House) and three urban sites (from Manhattan) were examined to determine the type and diversity of wares present at both urban and rural sites. During the eighteenth century, no difference was found in the quality and diversity of the imported wares found on Manhattan, on Staten Island, and in upstate New York. The similarity of the range and quality of the artifacts found on the Staten Island sites, the upstate sites, and on those sites in Manhattan therefore suggests that social class and economic wealth, not geographic location, determined what a colonial New Yorker obtained.

This study, though, incorporates the findings from the very thorough research undertaken by archaeologist Meta Janowitz of the ceramic assemblages from all three Manhattan sites. After the Voorlezer House and Conference House site ceramic assemblages had already been studied by Baugher and Baragli, Janowitz was asked to review the ceramic artifacts and to note the similarities and differences between the Staten Island artifacts and Manhattan ceramic assemblages. Janowitz confirmed that the imported wares on Staten Island were similar to those unearthed in Manhattan. Thus Staten Island was not an isolated peripheral area in terms of trade, and it had access, just

as did Manhattan, to British goods. For example, the Staten Island and Manhattan families were using fine quality white salt-glazed stoneware and creamware dishes and cups from England. Their porcelain tea sets were imported -- via England -- from China to both Manhattan and Staten Island. Delftware bowls, mugs and dishes -- with both designed and plain motifs -- were being brought from England and distributed both on Manhattan and Staten Island. These families were drinking tea and thereby participating in a fashionable English custom that was far from a necessity. As the Revolutionary era dawned, on Staten Island and Manhattan, the families who could afford to were also purchasing the fashionable new Wedgewood dishes.

Janowitz did not review the assemblages from the two upstate sites. Baugher analyzed the ceramic assemblages from the two Staten Island sites and compared this material to the data from the thorough site reports on Clermont (Feister 1981) and Johnson Hall (Goring 1981). The reports show similar artifacts being unearthed at these upstate sites. These sites were similar to the downstate sites in that they contained porcelain, white salt-glazed stoneware, creamware, delftware, and pearlware -- the status wares from the mid- to late eighteenth century.

The difference in the Manhattan, Staten Island, and upstate New York artifacts is not in the high status table wares but in the inexpensive kitchen wares. Local potters throughout the Northeast were producing a variety of utilitarian wares from mixing bowls to baking dishes. Meta Janowitz noted that the two Staten Island sites contained both local redwares and stonewares not found in the Manhattan sites, as well as some wares similar to those from the Manhattan sites. Even though Staten Island had clay deposits that could have been used for redware and stoneware, there are no known eighteenth century potters on Staten Island (Charles L. Sachs, Chief Curator, Staten Island Historical Society, personal communication, August 1984). New Jersey had abundant clay deposits and the documentary record clearly identifies potters and potteries operating during this period. The question is therefore raised: was the utilitarian ware used on Staten Island imported from New Jersey, or was it made by a Staten Island potter whose name and location have been lost?

A hint to the answer lies in the motifs. Some of the decorations on this pottery can be attributed to particular potteries and/or cities beyond Staten Island. Pottery from Philadelphia and from Cheesequake near Perth Amboy, New Jersey, have been uncovered at other Staten Island sites (Baugher and Venables 1985). All one can say is that the pottery found on the two Staten Island sites was made by a New York or New Jersey potter. Thus the evidence indicates that kitchenware used by the families studied on Staten Island was "imported" from the nearby colonies of New Jersey and Pennsylvania or from New York. Such a distribution seems probable given the trade routes by water and by land from Philadelphia across New Jersey that converged at Staten Island on their way to Manhattan. Furthermore, because of the relatively low colonial population of Staten Island -- at most a few thousand -- a local Staten Island full-time potter might not have been able to survive economically. Yet there is another possible explanation for the existence in Staten Island archaeological sites of what looks to be New York and New Jersey pottery. It is possible that even though there is no record of a Staten Island redware potter that the potter may have existed, copying designs known to be popular with potters in New York and New Jersey. The potter may have been a part-time potter, who survived economically through another occupation such as full-time farming.

American-made pottery also was unearthed at Johnson Hall and Clermont in upstate New York. Given the ubiquitous nature of American redware manufacturing, more likely than not, this redware was made locally rather than being shipped from Manhattan or New Jersey.

During the eighteenth century, no difference was found in the quality and diversity of the imported wares found on Manhattan, on Staten Island, and in upstate New York. The similarity of the range and quality of the artifacts found on the Staten Island sites, the upstate sites, and on those sites in Manhattan therefore suggests that social class and economic wealth, not geographic location, determined what a colonial New Yorker obtained.

Hypothesis: Ceramics Can Be Used As Indicators Of Status On Eighteenth Century Sites

Was socio-economic status a major factor in determining eighteenth century consumer choices? If so, then we would expect that both upper and middle class colonial families owned some of the same status wares. The difference in their possessions would not be in the quality of their wares but in the quantity of these wares. Four rural sites (Clermont, Conference House, Johnson Hall, and Voorlezer House) are used here to test this hypothesis.

The archaeological data was compared with documentary evidence of the exact types of wares that were being imported into the Port of New York during the 1770s and 1780s.<sup>2</sup> Schwind (1984) notes that in the 1770s and 1780s the fashionable wares were Chinese porcelain, creamware, pearlware, white salt-glazed stoneware, and some decorated delft.

For the quantitative study of ceramics from the four sites, the data was divided into two broad categories, expensive and inexpensive wares. Within each broad category the material was divided into ware types; for example, porcelain, creamware, and pearlware (see Table 7:1). The category utilitarian stoneware encompassed both American and European stoneware, and because of the Rhinelander data, Nottingham ware was included in this group.

All four sites contain a similar diverse selection of quality tablewares and kitchenwares. The artifact types found at all four sites were the same kinds of wares which were being imported by Frederick Rhinelander. No differences were found in the quality of ceramics at these sites. A comparison of the ceramic assemblages at the middle class site on Staten Island (Rezeau family at the Voorlezer Hose) with the aristocratic site of Clermont, however, confirms the obvious: middle class colonists could not afford the quantity of high quality wares that the aristocrats could. There is instead some archaeological evidence of a middle class emulation of the aristocratic taste -- what

---

<sup>2</sup> George Miller (1980, updated in 1990), in his excellent article on economic price scaling of nineteenth century ceramics, has provided archaeologists who work on nineteenth century sites with a very useful reference and method for analyzing their ceramic assemblages. At present, there is no price-scaling index for eighteenth century ceramics. Schwind's (1984) study is a very useful report for archaeologists to begin to analyze price differentiation for eighteenth century ceramics.

the eighteenth century referred to as "apeing" one's betters. Thus traces of a few of the highest quality goods were found at the middle class site. The Rezeau family had porcelain tea bowls but porcelain comprised only 4.2% of their collection, whereas it comprised 14% of the Livingston collection. The Livingstons had more than three times as much creamware and almost twice as much delft. Predictably the proportions are reversed when comparing archaeological assemblages of utilitarian wares with the Rezeaus having the higher proportions of these kitchenwares. The Rezeaus had three times as much redware, four times as much stoneware, and twice as much buff earthenware as the Livingstons.

From the perspective of only a quantitative study, ceramics indicated that the Johnsons of Johnson Hall, the Billopps of the Conference House, and the Rezeaus of the Voorlezer House were all middle class, and that only the Livingstons of Clermont were aristocrats. In fact, we know from the documentary record that the Johnsons and the Billopps were aristocrats like the Livingstons, and that only the Rezeaus were middle class. Why are ceramics accurate status indicators at the middle class Voorlezer House and the upper class Clermont site while they are not reliable at the upper class sites of Johnson Hall and the Conference House sites? A study of documentary record, especially of military events, sheds light on this question, if only to suggest possible rather than absolute answers.

#### Hypothesis: Political Factors Can Affect Artifact Deposition On Non-Military Sites

This time we are suggesting effects on colonial sites which were not common due to class, cultural aspirations, or a common imperial trade network. Rather we are noting an uncommon factor -- a unique circumstance -- that is not self-evident archaeologically. The clues and even confirmation of the evidence will be primarily, if not exclusively, documentary. This circumstance is the military impact on a civilian site. We are focusing on military impacts on four civilian sites to suggest the array of historical evidence and trends which archaeologists need to consider before making judgments. The artifact

assemblages indicated that three sites were middle class and only one site was aristocratic. Yet the documentary evidence proves the opposite: three sites were aristocratic and only one site was middle class. Since all four sites were impacted by British and/or Patriot military activities during the American Revolution, we want to suggest ways in which those military activities may have altered the sites.

At Johnson Hall there is a small percentage of porcelain (3.4 %) versus the percentage found at Clermont (14%). Yet Sir William Johnson and Robert Livingston were near-equals in terms of wealth and power. Rich Goring (1981:34) writes that the documentary records show that "Sir William did indeed possess a very large portion of porcelain." Goring (1981: 3) adds that the "1774 inventory shows a creamware to porcelain ratio of 2:1 while the archaeological test pit ratio is 14:1." From Rhineland's accounts it is known that porcelain was the most expensive ware being imported to New York. Families, as well as their servants and slaves, would have been more careful in handling their expensive vessels than with their everyday wares. Rich Goring (1981: 34) comments on the presence and use of porcelain and creamware by Sir William:

English gentlemen of the eighteenth century such as Johnson may have valued porcelain for its aesthetic appeal and value and as a symbol of status. That creamware was the more utilitarian ware is also suggested by the fact that all but one of the creamware items in the inventory are included in the "Butlers room, Kitchen, etc.," and these areas do not include any porcelain.

At Livingston's Clermont, a single military event may have had a significant impact on the archaeological assemblage. In 1777, Sir Henry Clinton attempted to aid General John Burgoyne during the British campaign to conquer the entire colony of New York. Clinton moved up to the Hudson Highlands and then dispatched a flotilla of 1,700 men under General John Vaughan and Sir James Wallace to strike further north along the river. These 1,700 troops burned Kingston, New York, and then continued northward

until, some fifty miles south of Albany, they burned Clermont. It is possible that the burning of Clermont by the British army caused a higher rate of ceramic destruction, and that this is why the percentage of high status ceramic ware is greater at Clermont than at the two other aristocratic sites, Johnson Hall and the Conference House. But it is also possible that military events at Johnson Hall and at the Conference House had the accumulative effect of lowering the percentage of high status ceramic ware in the assemblages there.

The historical record offers other possible answers in the matter of Johnson Hall's seemingly scant and unrepresentative ceramic assemblage. During the lifetime of the house prior to the American Revolution (1763-1774), the house was occasionally the scene of visits by delegations of American Indians and of whole conferences of Indian delegations that utilized the immediate grounds. This higher than normal traffic of visitors (unmatched until the tourist traffic of the twentieth century) may have resulted in heavy disturbances -- not the least of which would have come with any "clean-up" detail following a meeting (again, a parallel might be made with twentieth century tourists, as the grounds crew can testify). There is yet another factor to consider with regard to Johnson Hall which, as evidence below will later demonstrate, may also apply to the Conference House site as well. This is the possible impact of the inhabitants' flight, as refugees, from Johnson Hall during the American Revolution. The Loyalists of the Mohawk Valley faced extreme Patriot pressures. On May 13, 1776, Sir John Johnson, son of the late Sir William, assembled 170 of his loyal tenants (including whole families) and fled northward to Canada through the Adirondacks. Under the circumstances, high quality goods were removed, abandoned, or hidden. But Sir John left his wife Mary behind because she was four months pregnant. A few days later, as the party trudged through the woods, an Indian messenger caught up with Sir John and told him that Lady Johnson had been taken hostage by the Patriots. She had been removed from Johnson Hall and taken to Albany (she later escaped to New York City). Unfolding from this dramatic episode are three questions for the historical archaeologist to consider: What disturbance to the grounds occurred if (and the historical record is not

helpful) some household goods were buried before the flight? What effect did the sudden assembly and flight of 170 refugees have on the grounds? And what exactly happened to the interior goods of Johnson Hall when Lady Johnson was seized by zealous Patriots? Because the historical record is again incomplete, the questions are circumstantial. However, while the answers to these questions are only speculative regarding Johnson Hall, the evidence is firm in understanding similar circumstances at the Conference House.

The Conference House site poses other problems. When a comparison is made between the ceramics found at the Conference House and Voorlezer House there are marked similarities. One could conclude, based on the quantitative study, that the occupants of these two sites were both from the middle class. However, the documentary records show just the opposite -- Christopher Billopp was the most affluent man living in eighteenth century Staten Island. The lack of many high status wares at the Conference House becomes more understandable after reading the documentary records. Historian William T. Davis (1929: 159-169) researched British war records. Davis found that Christopher Billopp, a loyalist, petitioned the Crown to recoup 4,441 pounds sterling lost during the war. These losses were due to both British confiscation and Patriot looting, for example:

--In 1776, the Hessian troops and the British army confiscated goods and food from Billopp amounting to 1,441 pounds sterling.

-- Also on several occasions between 1776 and 1780 rebel troops looted Billopp's house and property taking horses, cows, furniture, bedding and other household goods amounting to 1500 pounds sterling. It is important to note that Billopp states that the goods were "carried off," not destroyed.

--During the war Billopp obtained another house, probably in Manhattan, and moved his family and some possessions to the other house. The expense of moving his family and possessions to a safer location while he maintained his residence (in the service of the

government at the Conference House) amounted to 1500 pounds sterling.

Thus, the lack of status indicators at the Conference House are possibly due to: theft by rebel troops, confiscation by British troops, and intentional removal by Billopp.

Finally, it should be noted that from 1776 to 1783, the town in which the Voorlezer House is located, Richmondtown, was occupied by British troops who manned a fortification on the heights above the town (Leng and Davis 1930: Vol I). There is also documentary evidence that at least one soldier in the British forces -- a Hessian German mercenary -- was quartered in the Voorlezer House and lived with the civilian Rezeau family -- a practice not unusual during times of war in the colonial period. What impact did the military occupation of Richmondtown and the quartering of a soldier have on the Voorlezer House site's assemblage?

All these situations should raise a red flag to archaeologists. Ceramic assemblages should not be used as a sole or even a certain indicator of economic status. There are many factors, such as the military occupation of a civilian site which can affect the archaeological deposits. A quantitative study of ceramics can reveal some patterns, but such studies, when used in conjunction with the historic record, may raise questions that will require still more detailed research.

### Conclusion

A major conclusion demonstrated by the ceramic assemblages analyzed in this study suggests its application to all colonial sites: the buying power of a colonist not the individual's proximity to a colonial city determined what (and how much) the individual purchased. The colonial settlement patterns and trade networks exploited river transportation, thus individuals in the hinterland could share the same taste and market access for fashionable ceramics as their city counterparts. Furthermore, to the best of its ability, the middle class imitated the fashions of the upper class. Significantly, if obviously, the imperial context of the colonial era meant that these fashions were really not colonial fashions but rather the fashions of the imperial capital, London, of Britain, and/or of Europe.

This study also demonstrates that ceramic assemblages are not dependable as the sole or primary indicator in determining the status of the site's residents. The percentage and variation of archaeological artifacts surviving at a site may not accurately reflect the quality and quantity of ceramics used by the past residents. Ceramic patterns can raise questions for further historical research. The interaction and cooperation of archaeologists and historians from the very start of a project is thus sure to enrich both disciplines. When available historical records are vague or contradictory, ceramics may be useful as significant evidence to lend credence to one interpretation over another or to provide new insights. Lastly, this study is meant to be a starting point, not an end. The hypotheses that were presented and tested in this study should be tested at other colonial sites.

Table 7.1 A Comparison of Ware Types from Four New York State Sites\*

Type of ware	Voorlezer House sherds		Clemont sherds		Conference House sherds		Johnson Hall sherds			
							(1)		(2)	
	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number
Porcelain	4.2	10	14.0	10	3.7	8	3.4	3	3.3	16
Creamware	11.8	28	37.0	26	14.4	31	48.9	43	39.1	188
Pearlware	12.2	29	11.0	8	7.0	15	23.9	21	43.0	207
White salt-glazed stoneware	5.9	14	10.0	7	1.9	4	2.3	2	2.5	12
Delft	5.0	12	4.0	3	16.3	35	1.1	1	1.7	8
Buff earthenware	23.9	57	13.0	9	10.7	23	-	-	1.0	5
Redware	24.8	59	7.0	5	25.0	56	12.5	11	7.5	36
Other stoneware	11.8	28	3.0	2	17.2	37	2.3	2	1.9	9
Whiteware	0.4	1	-	-	2.8	6	5.7	5	-	-
Total	100.0	238	100.0	70	100.0	221	100.0	88	100.0	481

\*Table 7.1 provides only the eighteenth century ceramic component of the Voorlezer and Conference House site assemblages. The majority of the ceramics from these two sites (not shown on this chart) date from the mid-nineteenth century to the early twentieth century. The one whiteware sherd from the Voorlezer House represents slippage due to water problems during the last day of the dig. The whiteware sherds from the Conference House can be attributed to soil disturbance (a modern drain pipe disturbed a small portion of the levels at the southern edge of two of the squares). There are two archaeological assemblages from John Hall; the first collection was gathered in 1969 (481 sherds) and the second collection was retrieved in 1976 (88 sherds).

CHAPTER EIGHT: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Sherene Baugher  
Edward J. Lenik

## CHAPTER EIGHT: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The 1980 archaeological investigation within the yard along the north side of the Conference House has clearly demonstrated that this is an area of high archaeological potential. The excavations uncovered an intact eighteenth century deposit most probably associated with Colonel Christopher Billopp. The artifacts revealed information about lifestyle and trade networks in eighteenth century New York. In addition, American Indian artifacts were uncovered.

The 1979 field testing and the 1980 excavation demonstrated that the area with the most intact historic deposits was within five feet of the Conference House. Any stabilization work planned for the exterior foundation of the building should include archaeological fieldwork prior to construction. The area to the east of the building, in the present rear yard and parking lot, may contain the remains of eighteenth century wells, privies and outbuildings. A nineteenth century well located in the rear yard has been restored but it is unknown if this well was also used in the eighteenth century. Because the immediate area surrounding the Conference House was used by American Indians, the grounds should contain both prehistoric and historic artifacts.

Any construction work planned for the current rear yard and parking lot should include archaeological fieldwork prior to construction. If a human burial is encountered in the course of this historical work, then we recommend that the burial be preserved in situ.

The 1980 excavations at the Conference House, although limited in extent, provide some new insights into the prehistoric cultural history of the Conference House Park. No prehistoric cultural features or burials were found; the artifact recoveries, however, have implications for a number of research issues.

The lithic debitage recovered from these excavations indicates the heavy use of pebbles and cobbles as the primary raw material in the manufacture of stone tools. The stone tool kit in this excavation assemblage is extremely limited and is comprised of one formal end scraper, a netsinker, and five simple flake tools. The utilized flakes, struck from pebbles are the largest functional category of tools found at the site. Future

archaeological research at the Conference House site should examine the whole issue of prehistoric lithic utilization including procurement of raw materials, their knapping qualities, and biface reduction technology. In addition, the debitage recovered from previous excavations, and curated elsewhere, needs to be examined for the presence of flake tools and determining their function.

The discovery of sheet mica at the site, an exotic material suggests cross-cultural contact and trade with the Adena-Hopewell people in the Ohio and Mississippi Valleys during the Early to Middle Woodland Periods. The occurrence of extra-regional materials on this site, which is best known for the presence of human burials, suggests a need for continuing research into the types of exchange networks that may have been operative at the site and within the region. Existing artifact collections should be examined for the presence of additional exotic raw material specimens and the level of social complexity, importance or rank of individuals or groups should be studied. Several recent regional studies of prehistoric trade networks have been made such as Lenik's (1989:25-32) of Staten Island and Stewart's (1989:47-78) of the Middle Atlantic but a study focused on Conference House Park needs to be done.

Finally, the pioneering work of Jacobson (1980) in bringing together the data from various excavations at the Conference House Park and detailing its prehistoric culture history needs to be expanded. Future archaeological research on existing collections needs to go beyond the descriptive phase. It must focus on broader issues such as the regional paleoecology, settlement and subsistence patterning, mortuary practices, and many more. Future excavations at Conference House Park should be limited to data recovery or salvage operations only, that is, work triggered by construction projects that cannot be avoided. However, we emphasize that preservation, conservation, and avoidance of any impact on the archaeologically sensitive areas of Conference House Park should be the primary goal in managing this property. This extremely important and valuable site must be preserved and protected as a Native American cemetery.

REFERENCES

## REFERENCES

### PRIMARY SOURCES

#### MAPS

- Anonymous  
1771 Baye et Port D'Yorc Capitale de la Nouvelle Yorc. On file in Staten Island Historical Society Archives, Staten Island, New York
- 1777 The Hessian Map of Staten Island. On file in the Staten Island Historical Society Library/Archives; 205. Staten Island, New York.
- Anglo-Hessian Map  
c.1780-83 Plan Number 81 du Camp Anglo-Hessois Dans Staten Island, Baie de New York de 1780 and 1783. Also known as the "French Map." On file in SIHS Library/Archives, Staten Island, New York.
- Bacon, J.B.  
1852 Map of Staten Island. On file in SIHS Library/Archives, Staten Island, New York.
- Beers, F.W.  
1874 Atlas of Richmond County, Staten Island, New York. On file in SIHS Library/Archives, Staten Island, New York.
- 1882 Map of Richmond County, Staten Island, New York. On file in SIHS Library/Archives, Staten Island, New York.
- 1887 Atlas of Richmond County, Staten Island, New York. On file in SIHS Library/Archives, Staten Island, New York.
- Borough of Richmond  
1911 Borough of Richmond Topographical Survey. On file, Richmond Borough Hall, Staten Island, New York.
- Bowen, Eman  
1747 A Draught of New York and Perth Amboy Harbor. On file in Staten Island Historical Society Archives, Staten Island, New York.
- Bromley, George W.  
1917 Atlas of The Borough of Richmond. On file, in SIHS Library/Archives, Staten Island, New York.
- Butler, James  
1853 Map of Staten Island or Richmond County New York. Surveyed and drawn by James Butler, C.E. and Surveyor. On file in SIHS Library/Archives, Staten Island, New York.
- Clinton, General Sir Henry  
c.1777 Clinton Map of Staten Island, Map #198. From Manuscript Maps in the Clements Library, University of Michigan. Copy on file in SIHS Library/Archives, Staten Island, New York.
- Colton, C.B. and G.W.  
1866 Map of Staten Island, Richmond Co., State of New York. On file at Staten Island Institute of Arts and Sciences, Staten Island, New York.

- Dripps, M.  
1850 Map of Staten Island, Richmond County, New York. On file in SIHS Library/Archives, Staten Island, New York.
- Grover & Baker  
1860 Map of Staten Island. On file in Staten Island Historical Society Archives, Staten Island, New York.
- McMillen, Loring  
1933 Map of Staten Island During the Revolution 1775-1783, Compiled from Maps and Other Sources. On file at SIHS, Staten Island, New York.
- Popple, Henry  
1733 New York and Perth Amboy Harbors (detail after the Map of the British Empire of 1733). On file in Staten Island Historical Society Archives, Staten Island, New York.
- Robinson, E.  
1898 Atlas of the Borough of Richmond. On file at SIAS Archives, Staten Island, New York.  
1907 Atlas of the Borough of Richmond. On file at SIAS Archives, Staten Island, New York.
- Ryder, Robert  
c.1676 Description of a Neck of Land Upon Staten Island laid Out for Christopher Billop by Robert Ryder Survey. Office of the Secretary of State, vol. 1:163, New York State Archives, Albany.
- Sanborn Map and Publishing Company  
1878 Insurance Map of Staten Island, New York. On file at SIAS, Staten Island, New York.  
1885 Insurance Map of Staten Island, New York. Corrected to July 1891. On file at SIAS, Staten Island, New York.
- Sanborn-Perris  
1898 Insurance Maps of the Borough of Richmond, City of New York. On file at SIHS, Staten Island, New York.
- Sauthier, C.J.  
1776 Map of Staten Island in the Province of New York. On file in SIHS, Staten Island, New York.
- Skene, Frederick  
1907 Map of Colonial Land Grants, 1668-1712. On file at SIAS, Staten Island, New York.
- Sprong and Conner  
1797 Map of Staten Island. On file in SIHS Library/Archives. Staten Island, New York.
- Taylor, George and William Skinner  
1781 A Map of New York and Staten Island and Part of Long Island Surveyed by Order of his Excellency General Sir Henry Clinton, K.B. Commander in Chief of His Majesty's Forces 1781. On file in SIHS Library/Archives, Staten Island, New York.

- United States Government  
 1845 U.S. Coastal Survey Charter of New York Harbor, 1836-1839. On file at SIHS, Staten Island, New York.
- Vermeule, C.C. and Julius R. Bien  
 1891 Richmond County (Staten Island), Atlas of the Metropolitan District and Adjacent County. From original surveys by C.C. Vermeule and Julius R. Bien. On file in SIHS Library/Archives. Staten Island, New York.
- Walling, H. F.  
 1859 Map of Staten Island, New York. On file at SIHS Library/Archives, Staten Island, New York.
- Welles, Phillip  
 1687 Description of a Survey of 1600 acres of land lying upon ye west end of Staten Island beginning upon the north side opposite to the land of Gabriel Minvielle laid out for Christopher Billop by Phillip Welles, Surveyor (with draught. Office of the Secretary of State, Land Papers vol. II:210, New York State Archives, Albany.

#### PUBLIC DOCUMENTS

- Book of Patents  
 1664-1708. Transcribed by Marion Bibb, 2 vol. Published by Staten Island Historical Society in cooperation with the Works Progress Administration of the City of New York, 1937.
- New York State Census Records for Richmond County  
 1825-1925. On file at the Richmond County Court House, Staten Island, New York.
- New York State Civil List  
 1930. On file at SIHS Library/Archives, Staten Island, New York.
- Richmond County Deeds and Mortgages  
 1680 to Present. On file in the Richmond County Clerk's Office, Richmond County Court House, Staten Island, New York.
- Richmond County Wills and Letters of Administration  
 1787 to the Present. On file in the Richmond County Clerk's Office, Richmond County Court House, Staten Island, New York.
- United States Bureau of the Census, Records for Richmond County  
 1790-1910. On file at the Richmond County Court House, Staten Island, New York.
- Wills for Richmond County  
 1665-1786. In Abstracts of Wills, Volumes 1-13, Collections of the New York Historical Society, 1892-1904. New-York Historical Society, New York.

#### OTHER PRIMARY SOURCE DOCUMENTS

- Dankers, Jaspas, and Peter Sluyter  
 1867 Journal of a Voyage to New York and a Tour in Several of the American Colonies in 1679-1680. Translated by Henry C. Murphy. 1966 reprint, University Microfilms, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

Fonda, Jelles  
1769-1775 "The Fonda Family Papers," Manuscript Division, New-York Historical Society, New York.

Fonda, Jelles  
1771-1773 "Account Book," Manuscript Collection, Fort Johnson, Fort Johnson, New York.

Greg, Robert  
1750-1755 "Account Book, 1750-1755," Manuscript Collection, New-York Historical Society, New York.

Jameson, J. Franklin  
1909 Narratives of New Netherland, 1609-1664. Charles Scribner's Son, New York, New York.

Kalm, Peter  
1750 The America of 1750: Travels in North America by Peter Kalm (vol I and II). Revised from the original Swedish and edited by Adolph B. Benson (1937, 1964), current edition 1966. Dover Publications, Inc., New York.

1966 The America of 1750: Peter Kalm's Travels in North America, the English version of 1770, edited by A.B.Benson. Dover, New York.

Jamesson, J. Franklin  
1909 Narratives of New Netherland, 1609-1664. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.

Residential and Business Directories for Staten Island  
1862- Various publishers. On file in SIHS Library/Archives,  
1934 Staten Island, New York.

Works Projects Administration  
Historical Records Survey; Copies of Land Surveys on Staten Island, 2 vols., 1936.

Works Projects Administration  
Historical Records Survey, Inventory of the County and Borough Archives of New York City. No. 5: Richmond County and Borough (Staten Island).

Works Projects Administration  
Historical Records Survey, Transcriptions of Early Town Records of New York: The Earliest Volume of Staten Island Records, 1678-1813.

## SECONDARY SOURCES

Adams, James Truslow  
1927 Provincial Society, 1690-1763. The MacMillan Company, New York.

Adams, James Truslow  
1943 Atlas of American History, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.

Albion, Robert Greenhalgh  
1939 The Rise of the New York Port, 1815-1860. Charles Scribners Sons, New York.

- Amorosi, Thomas  
 1984 A Study of the Faunal Remains from the Late Nineteenth Century Site at 53rd Street and 3rd Avenue, Manhattan, New York City. On file at the New York City Landmarks Preservation Commission.
- 1990 "Faunal Analysis." In The Archaeological Investigation of the City Hall Park Site, Manhattan (Baugher et al.) On file at the New York City Commission Landmarks Preservation Commission.
- Anonymous  
 1979 Staten Island, An Architectural History. Staten Island Institute of Arts and Sciences, Staten Island, New York.
- Bailyn, Bernard  
 1967 The Ideological Origins of the American Revolution. Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts.
- Baugher, Sherene  
 1989 "Trade Networks: Colonial and Federal Period (1680-1815)." Proceedings, the Journal of the Staten Island Intitiute of Arts and Sciences, 34(1):33-37
- Baugher, Sherene, et al.  
 1982 Towards A Predictive Model: Archaeology in New York City. On file at the New York Landmarks Preservation Commission.
- 1985 The Archaeological Investigation of the Voorlezer House Site, Staten Island, New York. Report on file at the New York City Landmarks Preservation Commission, New York.
- 1988 An Archaeological Planning Model of Richmodntown Restoration, Staten Island, New York. On file at the New York City Landmarks Preservation Commission. Baugher, Sherene, Judith Baragli and Louise DeCesare
- Baugher, Sherene and Robert W. Venables  
 1985 "Trade Networks and Archaeology: Colonial and Federal Periods." Report for the exhibit, Staten Island Trade Networks, Staten Island Museum, March-August 1985. Manuscript on file in the archives of the Staten Island Institute of Arts and Sciences, Staten Island, New York.
- 1987 "Ceramics as Indicators of Class and Status in Eighteenth Century New York." In Socio-Economic Status and Consumer Choices in Historical Archaeology, edited by Suzanne Spencer-Wood, pages 31-53. Plenum, New York.
- Baugher-Perlin, Sherene  
 1980 "Archaeological Data." In The Conference House, Staten Island, New York. Report coordinated by Shirley Zavin. On file, Archives, Staten Island Institute of Arts and Sciences.
- 1981 "Analyzing Glass Bottles for Chronology, Function, and Trade Networks." In Archaeology of Urban America: The Search for Pattern and Process, edited by Roy S. Dickens, Jr., pages 259-390. Academic Press, New York.
- Bayles, Richard M.  
 1887 History of Richmond County (Staten Island) New York, From its Discovery to the Present Time. L.E. Preston & Co., New York.

- Bieber Associates, Inc.  
1984 "Marine Survey for Archaeological Remains, Westway Project." Report on file at NYS Dept. of Transportation, Albany, New York.
- Board of Education of the City of New York  
1964 Staten Island: A Resource Manual for School and Community. The Board of Education of the City of New York.
- Boatner, Mark Mayo III  
1974 Encyclopedia of the American Revolution. Bicentennial Edition. David McKay Company, Inc., New York.
- Bonomi, Patricia U.  
1971 A Factious People: Politics and Society in Colonial New York. Columbia University Press, New York.
- Boorstin, Daniel J.  
1958 The Americans: The Colonial Experience. Random House, New York.
- Bridenbaugh, Carl (ed.)  
1948 Gentleman's Progress: The Itinerarium of Dr. Alexander Hamilton 1744. University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill.
- Bridenbaugh, Carl  
1955 Cities in Revolt: Urban Life in America 1743-1776. Oxford University Press, New York.
- Bushman, Richard L.  
1984 "American High-Style Vernacular Cultures." In Colonial British America: Essays in the New History of the Early Modern Era edited by Jack P. Greene and J.R. Pole. Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore.
- Calver, William Louis and Reginald Pelham Bolton  
1950 History Written with Pick and Shovel. The New-York Historical Society, New York.
- Cappon, Lester J., Barbara Bartz Petchenik, and John Hamilton Long, (eds.)  
1976 Atlas of Early American History: The Revolutionary Era, 1760-1790. The Newberry Library and the Institute of Early American History and Culture, Princeton University Press, Princeton, New Jersey.
- Clute, J. J.  
1877 Annals of Staten Island From its Discovery to the Present Time. Press of Chas. Vogt, New York.
- Corkran, David H.  
1967 The Creek Frontier, 1540-1783. University of Oklahoma Press, Norman, Oklahoma.
- Cotz, Jo Ann E., Edward Lenik, and Herbert Githens  
1985 "Sharrott Estates Archaeological Project: Report on Mitigation Procedures in the Sandy Ground National Register District, Staten Island, New York." Report on file with the NYS Office of Parks and Recreation, and Historic Preservation, Albany.

- Davis, William T.  
1926 The Conference on Billopp House, Staten Island, New York. Staten Island Historical Society, Staten Island, New York.
- Distrigas of New York Corporation  
1973 Draft Environmental Impact Statement, Staten Island Project. Report on file, Staten Island Institute of Arts and Sciences, Staten Island, New York.
- Feister, Lois M.  
1981 "Archaeological Testing at Clermont State Historic Park, Town of Clermont, Columbia County, for a Proposed Telephone-Electric Line," The Bulletin and Journal of Archaeology for New York State 83 (Fall) :39-45.
- Flexner, James Thomas  
1975 The Face of Liberty: Founders of the United States. Amon Carter Museum of Western Art, Fort Worth Texas, and Clarkson N. Potter, Inc., New York.
- Flexner, James Thomas  
1979 Lord of the Mohawks: A Biography of Sir William Johnson, revised edition. Little, Brown and Company, Boston, Massachusetts.
- Florance, Charles A. (preparer)  
1982 National Register of Historic Places Inventory Nomination Form, Wards Point Conservation Area. On file, New York State Office of Parks, Recreation, and Historic Preservation, Albany.
- Geismar, Joan  
1983 "The Archaeological Investigation of the 175 Water Street Block, New York City." Report on file at the New York City Landmarks Preservation Commission, New York.
- Gerlach, Don R.  
1964 Philip Schuyler and the American Revolution in New York, 1733-1777. University of Nebraska Press, Lincoln, Nebraska.
- Gesslein, Robert E.  
1966 "Youth Digging Up Staten Island's Secrets." New York Journal American. Sunday, March 6th, page 18.
- Goring, Rich  
1981 "An Archaeological Testing Project at Johnson Hall State Historic Site, Johnstown, New York." The Bulletin and Journal of Archaeology for New York State 82 (Fall) :25-38.
- Gratacap, L.P.  
1909 Geology of the City of New York. Third Edition. Henry Holt and Company, New York.
- Grayson, D.K.  
1978 "Minimum Numbers and Sample Size in Vertebrate Faunal Analysis." American Antiquity (43):53-65.  
1979 "On the Quantification of Vertebrate Archaeofauna." In Advances in Archaeological Method and Theory, Vol. 2, edited by M. Schiffer, pp. 199-237. Academic Press, New York.
- Haughwout, Lefferd M.A.  
1937 "The Voorlezer's House at Richmond: The Documentary Evidence," on

file in The Voorlezer House Sources- SIHS Richmondtown Restoration Structures Collection, SIHS Library/Archives, Staten Island, New York.

- Henretta, James A.  
1984 "Wealth and Social Structure." In Colonial British America: Essays in the New History of the Early Modern Era, edited by Jack P. Greene and J.R. Pole, pp. 262-289. John Hopkins Press, Baltimore.
- Hopkins, Joseph G.E.  
1964 Concise Dictionary of American Biography. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.
- Horne, Field  
1990 The Conference House Revisited. Conference House Association, Staten Island, New York.
- Jackson and Kihn and South Street Design Company  
1990 Conference House Park: Analysis of Existing Conditions. Revised February 15. Report on file, New York City Landmarks Preservation Commission.
- Jacobs, Wilbur R.  
1950 Wilderness Politics and Indian Gifts: The Northern Colonial Frontier, 1748-1783. Stanford University Press, Palo Alto, California.
- Jacobson, Jerome  
1980 Burial Ridge, Tottenville, Staten Island, N.Y.: Archaeology At New York City's Largest Prehistoric Cemetery. The Staten Island Institute of Arts and Sciences, Staten Island, New York.
- Jochim, M.A.  
1979 "Breaking Down the System: Recent Ecological Approaches in Archaeology." In Advances in Archaeological Method and Theory, vol. 2, edited by M. Schiffer. Academic Press, New York.
- Kammen, Michael  
1972 People of Paradox: An Inquiry Concerning the Origins of American Civilization. Alfred A. Knopf, New York.  
1975 Colonial New York: A History. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.
- Kennedy, William V.  
1976 "Draft" in Dictionary of American History, Revised, ed. 8 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York Vol. II pp: 366-368.
- Kraft, Herbert C.  
1975 The Archaeology of The Tocks Island Area. Seton Hall University Museum, South Orange, N.J.
- Kraft, John C. and John J. Chacko  
1978 "Paleographic Analysis of Coastal Archaeological Settings in Delaware." Archaeology of Eastern North America 6 (Summer): 41-59.
- Launitz-Schurer, Leopold S. Jr.  
1980 Loyal Whigs and Revolutionaries: The Making of the Revolution in New York, 1765-1776. New York University Press, New York.
- Lavin, Lucianne and Donald R. Prothero  
1981 "Microscopic Analysis of Cherts Within and Adjacent to the Delaware River

- Watershed." Man In The Northeast, No. 21, Spring.
- Leach, Douglas E.  
1973 Arms for Empire: A Military History of the British Colonies in North America, 1607-1763. MacMillan Company, New York.
- Leng, Charles and William T. Davis  
1923- Staten Island and Its People: A History, 1609-1929. 5 vols.  
1930 Lewis Historical Publisher, Co., New York.
- Lenik, Edward J.  
1985 "Trade Networks and Archaeology: Natives American Period: 10,000 B.C. - A.D. 1670." Report for the exhibit, Staten Island Trade Networks, Staten Island Museum, March-August 1985. Ms. on file with the archives of the SIIAS, Staten Island, New York.
- 1989 "Cultural Contact and Trade In Prehistoric Staten Island." Proceedings, Staten Island Institute of Arts and Sciences, 34(1) (Spring) 25-32.
- Levitt, James. H.  
1981 For Want of Trade: Shipping and the New Jersey Ports, 1680-1783. New Jersey Historical Society, Newark.
- Louis Berger & Associates, Inc.  
1987 "Druggists, Craftsmen, and Merchants of Pearl and Water Streets, New York. The Barclays Bank Site." Report on file at the New York City Landmarks Preservation Commission, New York.
- Lovejoy, David S.  
1972 The Glorious Revolution in America. 1987 reprint with a new introduction. Wesleyan University Press, Middletown, Connecticut.
- Lustig, Mary Lou  
1983 Robert Hunter 1666-1734: New York's Augustan Statesman. Syracuse University Press, Syracuse, New York.
- Lyman, R.L.  
1977 "Analysis of Historical Faunal Remains." Journal of Historical Archaeology (11):67-72.
- Main, Jackson Turner  
1965 The Social Structure of Revolutionary America. Princeton University Press, New Jersey.
- 1973 The Sovereign States, 1775-1783. New Viewpoints, Franklin Watts, New York.
- McCusker, John J. and Russell R. Menard  
1985 The Economy of British America, 1607-1789. University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill.
- McMillen, Harlow  
1961a "Richmondton: The First 160 Years. Part I. Richmondton as the County Seat." Staten Island Historian 22 (1): 3-5.
- 1961b "Richmondton: The First 160 Years. Part II. Richmondton as the County Seat, 1782-1837." Staten Island Historian 22 (3): 13-14.
- 1962 "Richmondton: The First 160 Years. Part VI. The Residents of

- Richmondtown - The Tradesmen." The Staten Island Historian 23 (1): 1-2.
- McMillen, Loring  
1938a "The Voorlezer's House." The Staten Island Historian 1 (1): 1-4 and 8.
- Miller, George E.  
1980 "Classification and Economic Scaling of 19th Century Ceramics." Historical Archaeology 14: 1-40. (This was updated in an unpublished report by Miller in 1990, on file at Colonial Williamsburg Foundation)
- 1983 Faunal Report for the Voorlezer House, Richmondtown Restoration Project, Staten Island, New York. On file at the New York City Landmarks Preservation Commission.
- 1984 "In Idea and Things: Foodways and Archaeology." Written for the Foodways Conference at St. Marks Church, New York City, September, 1984.
- 1985 "Cultural Pluralism and Pots in New Amsterdam--New York City," with Janowitz, Morgan and Rothschild. In Domestic Pottery of the Northeastern United States, 1625-1850, edited by Sarah P. Turnbaugh. Academic Press, New York.
- 1987a Faunal Report for the Matron's Cottage Site, Sailors Snug Harbor, Staten Island, New York. On file at the New York City Landmarks Preservation Commission.
- 1987b "Origins of Josiah Wedgwoods Pearlware." Northeast Historical Archaeology, Vol 16, pp. 83-95.
- 1989 "History of Markets," exhibit proposal submitted to the National Endowment for the Humanities.
- Morgan, Kate  
1982 "The History of Markets in New York City." In The Predictive Model of Lower Manhattan, Baugher, Janowitz, Kodak and Morgan. On file at the New York City Landmarks Preservation Commission.
- Morris, Ira K.  
1898 Morris' Memorial History of Staten Island vol. I and II. Memorial Publishing Company, New York.
- Morris, Richard B. (editor)  
1982 Encyclopedia of American History, Sixth Edition. Harper & Row, New York.
- Noel Hume, Ivor  
1969 Artifacts Of Colonial America. Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., New York.
- Norton, Thomas Elliot  
1974 The Fur Trade in Colonial New York, 1686-1776. University of Wisconsin Press, Madison, Wisconsin.
- Oswald, Adrian  
1975 Clay Pipes For The Archaeologist. British Archaeological Reports 14, Oxford, England.

- Phillips, Paul Chrisler, with J.W. Smurr  
1961 The Fur Trade. University of Oklahoma Press, Norman, Oklahoma.
- Ritchie, Robert  
1977 The Duke's Province: A Study of New York Politics and Society, 1664-1691. University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, North Carolina.
- Ritchie, William A.  
1980 The Archaeology of New York State, revised edition. Harbor Hill Books, Harrison, New York.
- Rockman, Diana, Wendy Harris, and Jed Levin  
1983 "The Archaeological Investigation of the Telco Block, South Street Seaport Historic District, New York, New York." Report on file with the New York State Office of Historic Preservation, Office of Parks and Recreation, Albany.
- Rothschild, Nan  
1984 "An Analysis of Subsistence and Adaption in Early New York," Grant proposal submitted to National Endowment for the Humanities.  
1987 "The Stadt Huys Site" (with Diana Rockman). On file, Department of Anthropology Barnard College, New York City.
- Sainz, Donald R.  
1946 "The British Army on Staten Island During the Revolutionary War." The Staten Island Historian 8 (3), Serial No. 31.
- Salisbury, Rollin D.  
1902 "Glacial Geology." Geological Survey of New Jersey. Volume 5, Trenton, New Jersey.
- Schlesinger, Arthur M.  
1917 The Colonial Merchants and the American Revolution 1763-1776, Reprint edition 1968. Atheneum, New York.
- Schneider, Gail  
1977 A Cool And Pleasant Retreat But A Hungry Soil. Staten Island Institute of Arts and Sciences, Staten Island, New York.
- Schuberth, Christopher  
1968 The Geology of New York City and Environs. The Natural History Press, Garden City, New York.
- Schwind, Arlene Palmer  
1984 "The Ceramic Imports of Frederick Rhinelander, New York Loyalist Merchant." Winterthur Portfolio 19 (1): 21-36.
- Staten Island Historical Society  
1947 Brochure, "The Story of the Voorlezer's House." Staten Island Historical Society, Staten Island, New York.  
1985 Brochure, "The Voorlezer's House: An Illustrated Guide." Staten Island Historical Society, Staten Island, New York.
- Stillwell, John  
1903 Historical and Genealogical Miscellany Data Relating to the Settlement and

Settlers of New York and New Jersey, vol. 1. New York Genealogical and Biographical Society, New York.

- Stewart, R. Michael  
1989 "Trade And Exchange In Middle Atlantic Prehistory." Archaeology of Eastern North America 17 (Fall) :47-78.
- Thernstrom, Stephan (editor)  
1980 Harvard Encyclopedia of American Ethnic Groups. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts.
- Trelease, Allen W.  
1960 Indian Affairs in Colonial New York: The Seventeenth Century. Cornell University Press, Ithaca, New York.
- Trigger, Bruce G. (editor)  
1978 Northeast. Volume 15. Handbook of North American Indians. Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D.C.
- U.S., Bureau of the Census  
1976 Bicentennial Statistics, Reprinted from Pocket Data Book, USA 1975. U.S. Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C.
- Venables, Robert W.  
1967 Tryon County, 1775-1783: A Frontier in Revolution. Ph.D. Dissertation, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee  
  
1989 "A Historical Overview of Staten Island's Trade Networks." Proceedings, the Journal of the Staten Island Institute of Arts and Sciences, 34(1):1-24.
- Walker, Iain C.  
1971 "Nineteenth Century Clay Tobacco Pipes In Canada." Ontario Archaeology (16):19-35.  
  
1977 Clay Tobacco-Pipes With Particular Reference To the Bristol Industry. History and Archaeology 11B. Parks Canada; National Historic Parks and Sites Branch.
- Watkins, Lura Woodside  
1959 Early New England Pottery. Meriden Gravure Company, Meriden, Connecticut.
- Zavin, Shirley (compiler)  
1980 The Conference House, Staten Island, New York. Historical structures report on file in the archives of the Staten Island Institute of Arts and Sciences.

APPENDIX A: ARCHAEOLOGICAL SHOVEL TESTING REPORT

Sherene Baugher

## ARCHAEOLOGICAL SHOVEL TESTING REPORT

Archaeological testing was undertaken on the north side of the Billopp House during November 1979 in the area that would be affected by the de-watering of the site outlined elsewhere in this report. The Billopp House is located within the boundaries of the Ward's Point archaeological district discussed in Jerome Jacobson's recently published book, Burial Ridge: Archaeology of New York City's Largest Pre-historic Cemetery. Jacobson's map of the area indicates the location of pits excavated in the 1920's by Mark Harrington on Billopp's Ridge, approximately 200' to the north of the house. The early literature abounds in references to pre-historic finds in the immediate vicinity of the Billopp House; in addition, a burial, possibly historic, was apparently discovered c. 1893 directly in front of the west facade. Although many chance finds have been made, the pre-historic as well as the historic archaeological potential of the Billopp House has not been coherently investigated.

A restricted time-schedule required that we quickly determine the most sensitive areas of the site and shovel testing was decided upon as the most efficient method to use. With a transit thirty-five shovel tests were plotted out on a ten foot grid. During the first weekend of work some of the shovel tests were selected for immediate excavation in order to obtain a broad picture of the variations in the site's stratigraphy and artifactual distribution. The soil from the tests were sifted through a 1/4 inch mesh screen to insure even recovery of artifacts. Ph tests and Munsell soil color readings were taken for most of the shovel tests. All the artifacts were bagged with their shovel test and level numbers. Throughout the site we found three soil strata: level 1 contained sod and dark brown soil; level 2 had brown to orange-brown soil; level 3 had orange to red-brown sand. The artifacts were all located in the first two levels. We reached the sterile sand (level 3) between 7 and 11 inches below ground surface. All of the artifacts were washed, sorted, identified, classified, dated and labelled.

With a few exceptions, most of the artifacts that were unearthed in the shovel tests were very small fragments of glass and pottery. The bottle specimens were so small that they could not be accurately dated. The ceramic sherds were often from the undecorated sections of the ware; these specimens could only be given general dates, e.g., undecorated whiteware can range from 1820 through the 1900s. No artifacts from these tests were photographed or drawn in situ. Since the artifacts were bagged only according to their level, we do not know if the late nineteenth century specimens were found near (deposited at the same time) the late eighteenth century material. Therefore, our artifact analysis, in terms of dating, must be rather general.

The shovel-tested portion of the site was disturbed in the 1930s when pathways were constructed and the grounds developed as part of the Billopp House restoration. One walkway ran parallel to the north side of the house and was 40 feet north of the structure. The path extended to the present rose garden. Another path intersected this one at shovel test 23. This path ran in front of the west facade of the house to the rose garden. Cement from this path was found in shovel tests 30, 5, 11, 17 and 23. Evidence of the path on the north side was unearthed in shovel tests 19, 21, 22 and 23. The cement in both walk ways contained small pebbles, rocks and crushed shells. Along the west path rocks were wedged next to the cement block-like shapes. The north line (tests 25-29) contained ash and cinders from a furnace. Some coal and ash fragments were found in most of the shovel tests, but these may have come from a fireplace.

For the most part, very few artifacts were yielded by the shovel tests. Most of the material remains were coal, ash, cinders, cement, brick fragments, shell and bone. The other materials, i.e., glass, ceramic, metal and miscellaneous items, made up a small portion of the collection, but these were the datable specimens. Of these datable items, 37.5% of the shovel tests (12 tests) contained less than 5 artifacts; 12/5% (4 tests) had no artifacts; 15.625% (5 tests) had between 6-10 artifacts; 15.625% had between 11-20 specimens, while

18.75% (6 tests) had 21 or more artifacts. The most artifacts were found in the tests closest to the house and the least number of artifacts were found in the row 50' north of the house (25-29). Most of the eighteenth century material came from tests closest to the building (6, 30, 31). On the basis of the data from the shovel tests the most sensitive and most productive area of the site is within 10' of the house. The least sensitive area is 50' north of the house; this area probably contains a twentieth century deposit. Data sheets with all the field and laboratory information on the shovel tests are included as an appendix to this report.

Shovel testing, however, provided only a limited view of what was in the ground. We needed, in addition, more data on the potentially rich area next to the house, the area that will be most affected by the proposed de-watering. With our limited field schedule and limited manpower, we had hoped to excavate two squares. One 5'x5' square was placed at the juncture between the original portion of the house (c. 1675) and the eighteenth century kitchen-wing addition (Sq. #1). A second square was placed below the filled-in first floor window (Sq. #2). The outlines of the former opening for the projecting bee hive oven can be observed on the north wall of the kitchen-wing; the sed that covered the oven appears in the 1846 DeGroot print. Square 1 was situated so that a two foot portion would extend into the this shed/oven area and the other three feet would run along the wall of the original building. It was anticipated that the first square would yield material that had been deposited in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries and that the second square would contain artifacts from the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, in addition to the nineteenth century debris.

Square #1 was opened first. The square was trowelled and all important finds were mapped and photographed in situ. The backdirt from the square was put through a 1/4 inch mesh screen to insure thorough artifact recovery. All the material was sorted into categories (brick, mortar, bone, shell and other artifacts) and then tagged and bagged. The excavation uncovered so many brick and mortar fragments that the sorting operation became very slow and tedious. In addition, many more artifacts and faunal remains were unearthed than one would have expected on the basis of the shovel test data. Because of the abundance of cultural remains in this square, there was neither the time nor the manpower to open up the second square.

Square #1 was dug by arbitrary 4" levels. In level 3 we found the stone floor to the shed placed over the beehive oven. The floor continued into level 5 but contained only two rows of rocks placed one on top of another. Along the western side of the floor (at the NW and SW corners) were two wooden posts that appeared to be the supports for the shed. A metal rod, probably the grounding for a lightning rod, was found near the floor next to the foundation wall. The rock floor was pedestalled and excavation of the rest of the square continued.

In levels 1-5, the first twenty inches below the surface, artifacts were scattered throughout the square. At twenty inches (level 6) we found that many portions of the square contained sterile sand. As the excavation continued, we observed that the artifacts were concentrated in two circular-shaped features located at what would have been the rear or east corner of the original house. These features seemed to be refuse pits containing broken dishes, bottles, food remains, ash, brick fragments, mortar, plaster, etc. The features, except for a small pocket near the wall of the house, ended at 28 inches. By thirty-six inches the sand was totally sterile. Most of the material from the features was kitchen debris such as plates, cups, bottles, etc. These artifacts dated from the 1700s through the early 1800s. The features were found at a lower level than the stone floor of the shed and were probably dug before it was built. Although mainly circular, the features do seem rather irregularly shaped; in addition, through some levels they were attached. Further testing along this wall should be done to see if any similar features or similar ways of disposing of trash exist. Since such a small area was excavated (only a portion of the 5'x5' square) it is difficult to state conclusively that they are refuse pits. They may also simply be areas that were disturbed when the shed was built.

All of the artifacts from the square can be placed into three main functional categories as follows; kitchen objects (dishes, bottles, cooking pots and pans, etc.); architectural items (nails, wires, spikes, window glass, plaster, mortar, brick); miscellaneous items (belt buckle, shotgun shell, etc.). The kitchen assemblage contained many broken bottles, redware baking dishes, stoneware crocks, slip-trailed plates (pie plates?), shell-edged pearlware, blue transfer whiteware, annularware and creamware dishes and/or wash sets and porcelain (European and Oriental Export) dishes (tea sets?). Building materials found included fragments of early hand-molded brick. One piece was distinguished by a red-brown glaze on two surfaces. Large chunks of thick paster with irregularly formed black surfaces suggest application to the exterior of the structure. Specimens of thinner plaster painted red and grey indicates it may have come from interior wall surfaces. At the present time there is enough material to excite interest. A larger sample is required, however, before conclusions can be drawn about the economic status and general lifestyle of the Billopp House occupants.

The oldest material in the square was a stoneware cup (Nottingham) dating from the late 1600s through the 1700s. It was found in level 3 above the stone floor. Worked flint and jasper chips were found scattered throughout most of the levels. Consultation with other archaeologists produced no definitive conclusions on whether these materials can be considered fragments from gun flints or prehistoric objects. When the kitchen wing was built the ground was disturbed and the soil displaced. As a result of this construction work, the older objects may have been mixed in with the more modern artifacts. It should be noted that defitware (1600s - 1700s) was found in the shovel tests, indicating that seventeenth and eighteenth century material is found throughout the site.

The faunal remains were studied, but without the assistance of a specialist, only general statements can be made. The faunal material was divided into four categories; shellfish, mammal, fish, and bird. The mammal remains, for the most part, were narrowed down to macrofauna and microfauna. Within the bird category a number of chicken bones were found. Several other bird remains were too small to be modern chickens and may represent Cornish game hens or small wild birds. The bones were either food remains from household garbage or intrusions (food remains from animals or rodents). The large number shells was expected given the site's water side location.

Some final information on the excavation should be added. Levels 10 and 11 were sterile. However, we decided to continue to excavate a small two foot wide area next to the foundation wall. Digging was continued until we had reached eight-one inches below ground level. We stopped because we had run out of daylight and it was our last day in the field. We have not reached the footings and could not find any remnants of a builder's trench along the wall of the original structure. Excavation in the eastern half of the square was insufficient to determine the depth of the kitchen wing foundation and the existence of a builder's trench.

#### Recommendations

Archaeologically, the Billopp House site is very rich and offers great research potential. Unfortunately, it is the most sensitive area of the site that will be affected by the drainage work. Therefore, we recommend that the area adjoining the whole length of the north side of the house be carefully excavated. In addition, the run-off area to the east should be sampled by shovel testing.

The excavation of this site has a purpose beyond mere salvage of artifacts. It presents an excellent opportunity to obtain more information about the principal occupants of the house - four generations of the Billopp Family and two generations of the Ward Family. It may also be able to provide further information about the nature of the building's use during the period of Greek Revival alterations. Everyday life is revealed through archaeology - the types of food eaten, acquisition or non-acquisition of luxury items, and changes in the economic status of other occupants. Artifacts from the

excavation can be compared with the items on display in the house and can be used to reflect life as it was actually lived there.

The Seventeenth and eighteenth century data that the excavation will uncover should be compared and contrasted with material from other upper-class colonial family sites in New York. Paul Huey, Senior Archaeologist with the New York State Office of Parks and Recreation, has expressed his interest in such a comparison. The Billopp House site is particularly valuable because it contains an artifact assemblage from the late 1600's (delftware, Nottingham stoneware and possibly some Dutch gin bottles) through the early twentieth century (machine-made bottles and plastic). At this one site we can trace a continuous evolution in lifestyle and economic status over a period of more than two hundred years.

James Deetz (1977) has postulated an archaeologically demonstratable transition that occurs during the colonial period from a late-medieval to a modern or Georgian mindset. Such changes in world-view were most apparent in the homes and artifactual remains of upper-class families such as the Billopps; this transition occurred more slowly among the middle and lower classes. The Billopp House site, therefore, represents an opportunity to test Deetz's hypothesis.

In order to excavate the site carefully, an archaeologically team of a supervisor and seven assistants should be assembled. Excavation will require eight weeks of fulltime work. Careful notes on the excavation procedures should be kept. Each stage of the process must be documented by drawings and photography. Since archaeology is a destructive process, only one opportunity exists to record this data. Therefore, it is better to be meticulous and cautious and to gather, perhaps, more than enough information; quick and careless work leaves too many questions unanswered.

Laboratory time is often overlooked when planning; analysis of the site cannot begin until the artifacts have been cleaned, identified and dated. A laboratory team of three persons and one supervisor working full-time for a twelve-week period is recommended. In addition, specialists should be hired to analyze the faunal and artifactual remains (especially the ceramics) and to prepare the drawings and photographs that will be included in the final report.

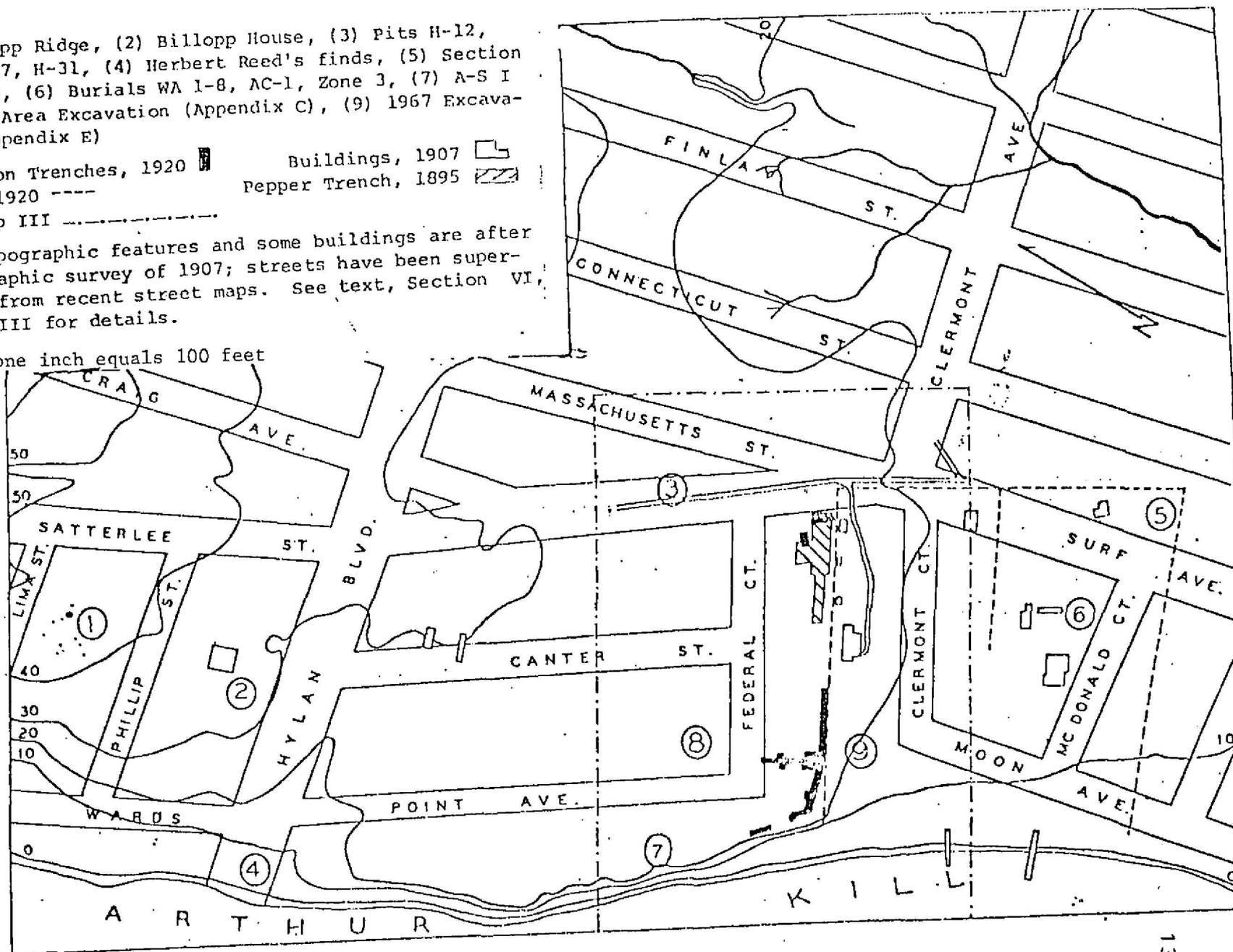
(1) Billopp Ridge, (2) Billopp House, (3) Pits H-12, H-17, H-27, H-31, (4) Herbert Reed's finds, (5) Section of Zone 3, (6) Burials WA 1-8, AC-1, Zone 3, (7) A-S I (8) 1960 Area Excavation (Appendix C), (9) 1967 Excavations (Appendix E)

Harrington Trenches, 1920   
 Fences, 1920 ----  
 Area, Map III - - - - -

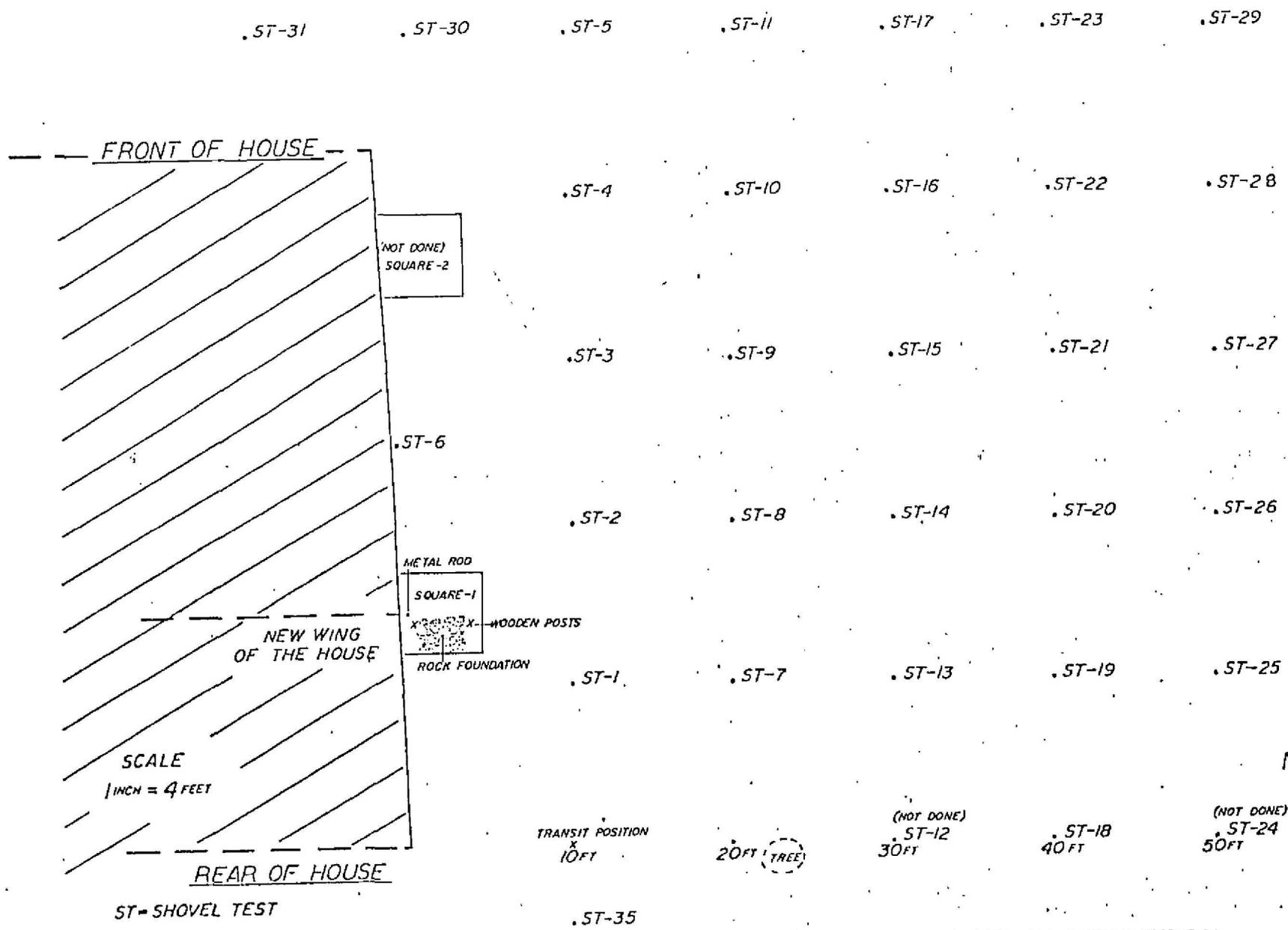
Buildings, 1907   
 Pepper Trench, 1895 

NOTE: Topographic features and some buildings are after a topographic survey of 1907; streets have been superimposed from recent street maps. See text, Section VI, and Map III for details.

Scale one inch equals 100 feet



From: Jerome Jacobson, Burial Ridge, Archaeology of New York City's largest pre-historic cemetery, New York, 1980.



CONFERENCE HOUSE EXCAVATION  
NOVEMBER 1979

Fig. 1: Shovel Test #30  
Shows the rock and two cement blocks  
(with shell mixed into the cement).  
This test was enlarged in order to  
obtain a better view of the rock  
and cement. The north arrow is  
marked in centimeters.  
(Baugher-Perlin, 1979)

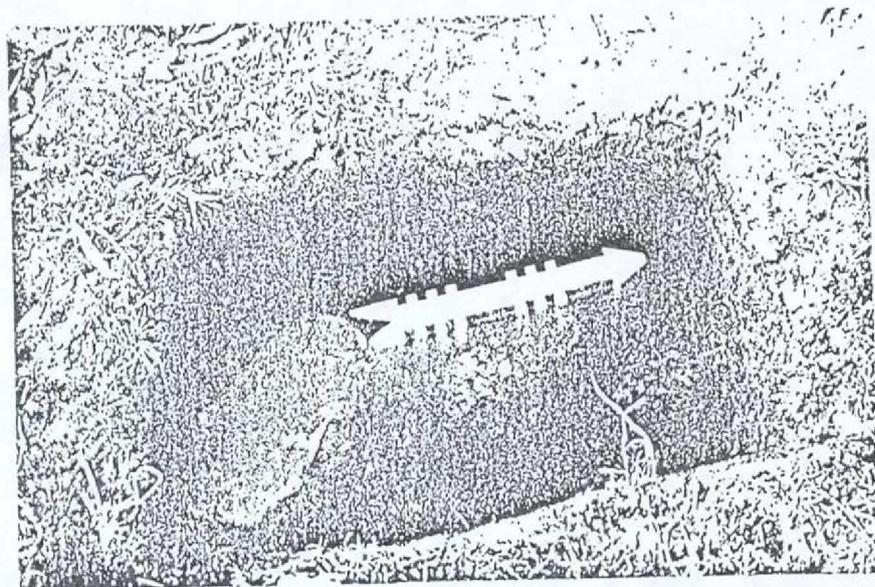


Fig. 2: View of Site  
The stakes mark the location of  
the shovel tests. Square #1 is  
situated at juncture of original  
house and wing addition. Square  
#2 is located beneath the filled  
in window. The area is roped off  
to inhibit visitor access.

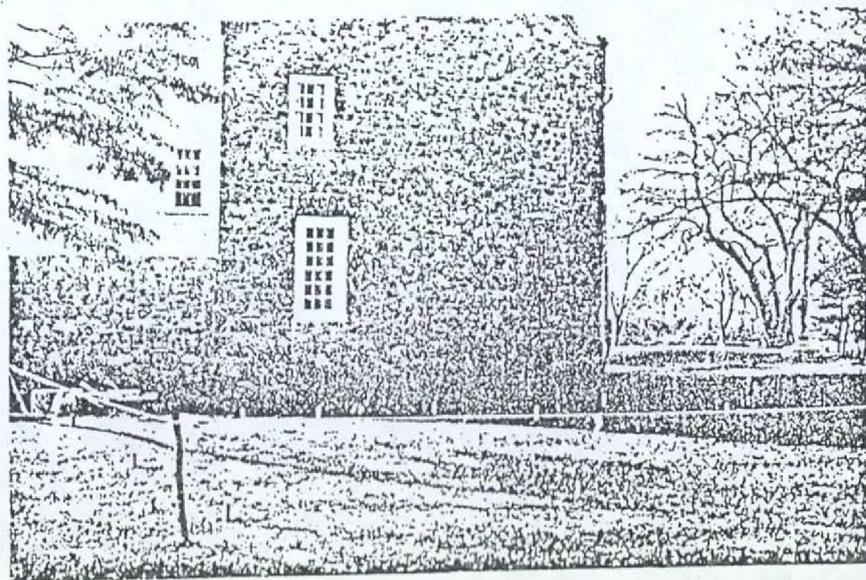


Fig. 3: View of north side of house  
The outline of the projecting oven  
can be faintly seen below the wood  
siding. Square #2 is partially  
excavated. Backdirt has been left  
near square to expedite refilling.

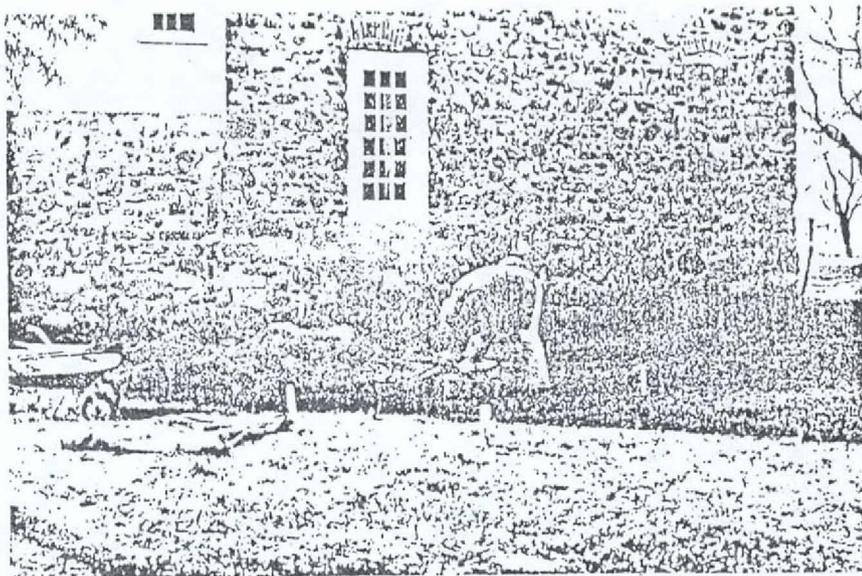


Fig. 4: Stone floor of former shed  
The stone floor was found along the  
eastern half of the square. A metal  
grounding for a lightning rod is  
located near the wall of the  
building. Trowel points north.

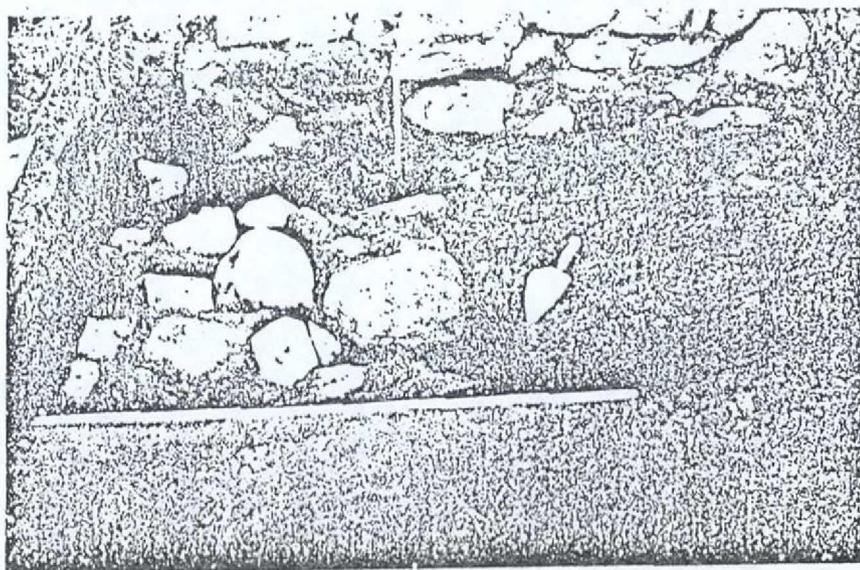


Fig. 5: Rock floor pedestalled.

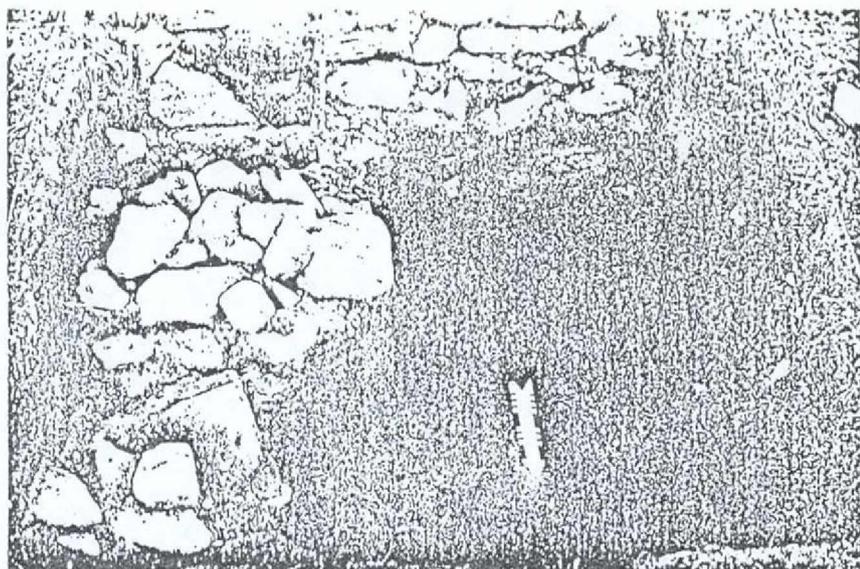
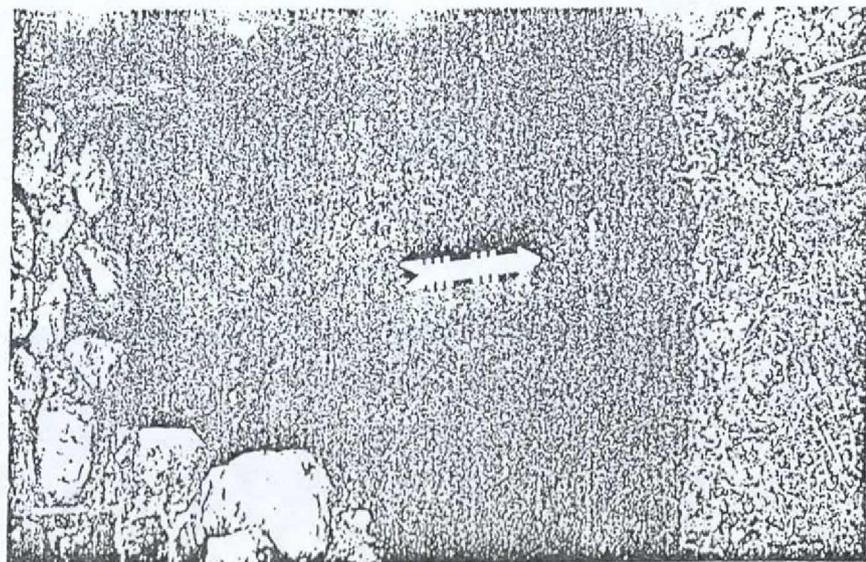


Fig. 6: The two features are outlined. North arrow is placed in the larger, somewhat circular, one.



### Appendix to the Archaeological Report

#### Conference House: Square #1: Soil (Each level is four inches deep)

- Level 1: Top soil, includes sod  
Dark brown soil; contains artifacts; bone, shell, coal, mortar, brick and flint chips. Munsell reading: 10 YR-2/1, Ph 8.0
- Level 2: 4 - 8 inches  
Composed of pottery, glass, metal, bone, brick; seems to be a very disturbed layer. Munsell reading: 10YR - 3/3, Ph 8.0
- Level 3: 8 - 12 inches  
This level was two units, i.e. along the wall of the house there is a concentration of black ashy soil (glass and rubble in this area). Along the eastern portion of the square there is a concentration of rocks (a space exists between the two groupings). Wooden and metal posts (one of each) are found near the house wall; the metal post appears to be a lightning rod. The soil is most of the square looks similar to the soil in level 2. Ph readings: 3-8; 3a - 8.0 (burnt ash area), Munsell reading: 3 10 YR 4/4; 3a 5Y 2.5/1.
- Level 4: 12 - 16 inches  
The soil color is generally changing to the light sandy soil found at the lower points of the test pits. Larger sherds are found here. Much mortar and bricks (fragments) found here. Rock formation is one grouping, not two. Wood post (looks like a beam) connected to the rock foundation. This foundation is in the proper spot to be a rock floor for the shed that was attached to the kitchen wing. Ph 8.0, Munsell 10YR 4/3.
- Level 5: 16 - 20 inches  
The soil is a gray colored fill composed of shell, brick and mortar with very small sherds and small pieces of glass. The material does not seem to be burnt. At a depth of 2 1/2" into this level is found a large sherd of redware with a yellow slip (depth from ground level 17 1/2"). The rock foundation/floor was left intact and the dirt was removed only in half of the square (the western half). Another wood post was unearthed on the northern half of the rock area; this post is in line with the first one. There are patches of sandy soil in the western half of the square with no artifacts in these areas. Ph and Munsell: as in Level 6.
- Level 6: 20 - 24 inches  
Only the western half is excavated in this level. The gray fill areas are becoming narrower; it seems that they were holes dug to deposit fill. No artifacts were found in the sandy soil areas. Throughout the fill areas there are chunks of brick, shell, chips of glass and pot sherds, mortar and some plaster from inside the house. Ph 8.0 (gray fill), 8.0 (sandy area); Munsell: 10YR 5/6 (sandy area).
- Level 7: 24 - 28 inches  
The gray fill area is now only a small area in the center of the square, this fill deposit is narrowing down into a cone shape. Again the artifacts are in the fill area. Ph and Munsell as in Level Six.

- Level 8: 28 - 32 inches  
In the sandy soil we are finding shells and patches of darker soil (no particular shape). Sandy soil covers whole area except for one small pocket near the southwest corner near the wall of the house.
- Level 9: 32 - 36 inches  
General sandy soil, uniform color mixed with shells and pebbles. One large redware sherd found in this area; very few artifacts. The eastern half of the square collapsed under the weight of the rock foundation/floor. Ph 8.0; Munsell 10YR 5/6.
- Level 10: 36 - 40 inches  
General sandy soil with occasional shells; sterile layer. Ph 8.0.
- Levels 11-22:  
Dig down another 45 inches; no artifacts are found. Soil color remains sandy colored. Occasionally some shells were found. Although foundation footings had not been reached, digging terminated at 7'1" below ground level.



Square 71 continued

square 71 continued

Level	Artifacts	Date	Found	Level	Artifacts	Date	Found
3	Bottle Glass: 4 light green, 1 green 3 olive green, 2 clear (pink tint) 1 clear (pink tint) w/ "Beary Boy" 2 black, 4 metallic brown 1 cup bottom clear (pink tint) frag 1 cup bottom clear (pink tint) 16 cut nails 1 wrought nail 1 screw 4 unid metal 1 copper decorated button 1 bucket plaster w/ gray point plaster w/ pink point 1 carved bone	- 1890-1911 1890-1911 1700? 1890-1909 1890-1909 1890-1899 1790's	1 rim 1 shell	4	1 rim burnt green shell-edged FW 2 body blue painted WW 1 base blue painted WW 1 body FW 2 body burnt black WW 2 rim Oriental 1 light porcelain 2 base Oriental 1 light porcelain Window Glass: 14 clear, 12 green Bottle Glass: 5 clear, 1 clear/pink 1 cut, 1 rim green, 10 green/old 1 looted neck green-rod 1 cut nails 1 brass belt buckle 1 pipe stem	1790-1830 1790-1820 1790-1820 1790-1830 1820-1895 1890+ 1890+ 1830+ 1830+ 1890-1915 - 1890's 1830-1890 - -	14 oyster 2 clams 2 conch
3A	1 rim FW 3 body FW 5 body CC 1 body blue transfer WW 1 body painted polychrome WW 1 body brown s.p. stoneware 1 rim brown s.p. stoneware 3 body metallic brown stoneware 2 base " " " 3 frag to lid " " " 2 body s.p. porcelain Window Glass: 142 clear, 56 green Bottle Glass: 43 clear (pink tint) 5 olive green, 3 medium green, 6 aqua, 9 amber, 12 clear, 2 metallic brown 1 cone machine-made neck 1 clear (pink tint) screw neck 4 frag salt shaker (pink tint) 4 frag hurricane lamp 10 cut nails 1 wire nail 1 wire handle 1 frag mortar w/ shell in it 1 frag plaster 1 frag rubber	1790-1830 1790-1830 1762-1890 1820-1900 1830-1860 1890-1890 1890-1900 - - 1890-1900 1830+ 1890-1911 - 1700's 1900+ 1890-1909 1890-1911 - 1830-1890 1850+ - - - - - -	1 unid bone 2 unid bone bone Aves 4 unid animal remains	5	7 body redware 2 body brown redware 2 rim yellow slip trailed 1 rim burnt black redware 1 body burnt black redware 5 body FW 1 rim green shell-edged FW 1 rim blue transfer FW 1 rim CC 1 rim blue transfer WW 1 body blue transfer WW 2 body WW 1 body h.p. porcelain 1 body s.p. porcelain Window Glass: 18 green Bottle Glass: 3 clear, 1 amber, 1 olive green, 1 light green, 1 painted white, 15 metallic brown 1 hurricane lamp frag. 7 cut nails 2 unid. metal frag plaster w/ gray point brick fragments 3 chips of worked flint	1900-1860 1890-1860 1700+ 1800+ 1800+ 1790-1830 1790-1830 1780-1840 1762-1820 1820-1900 1820-1900 1820-1900 1860's? 1800-1900 1830+ - - 1700's? - 1830-1890 - - -	11 unid frag 1 vertebra Ficus sp 1 humeral midshaft Aves sp small dome 1 glenoid fossa S. cerafa 1 tibia midshaft S. cerafa(?) 1 metapodial Sacrof 1 unid longbone mid- shaft unid sp. 1 mandible Sturnid 1 phalanx ring(?) Aves sp. (palm turkey) 1 unid tooth unid sp. 1 clavicle Aves sp. very small (red not for food) 1 unid burnt bone unid
4	1 rim redware 2 body redware 1 body black redware w/ handle 1 body black redware spec 1 base black redware 2 body burnt black redware 1 base burnt black redware 1 body brown s.p. w/ yellow slip trailed 1 rim burnt yellow slip-trailed 1 base burnt "	1890-1860 1890-1860 1890+ 1890 1890+ 1890 1890 1790-1790 1890 1790-1890	1 tooth frag 1. vireonid sp 2 L. O. virginianus 2 unid frag proceriform 1 rib cup/bone? 2 rib cup/ovir 1 tarsus Ficus Aves 1 tarsus side on? 1 tarsus side on? 1 tarsus side on?	6	brick fragments mortar plaster fragments	- - -	1 proximal ulna Aves sp. (small) 1 unid frag unid sp. 2 ribs unid sp. 1 humerus turtle? 1 oyster 3 fish bones unid sp

## SHOVEL TEST DATA

Square "A" continued

Level	Artifacts	Date	Flora	Shovel Test	Soil	Artifacts	Date
7	2 body redware 1 body black redware 1 body yellow slip trailed 1 body BW 1 body CC (plate) 1 body gray s.s. stoneware w/ blue printing 2 rim s.p. porcelain w/ilding (saucer?) Window Glass: 5 pane Bottle Glass: 2 clear, 1 olive green 1 green-gold 2 pipe stems 1 chip of worked flint coal fragments mortar w/ shell in it	1800-1840	1 rim fine s. scrofa	#1 Level 1	sod 0-5" very dark brown soil	No artifacts Many fragments of system shells	-
		1800+	1 public frog and sp.	Level 2	Shell midden? 5-12" dark brown soil with pockets of medium brown soil	1 pipe stem 1 bone 1 brick many clam & oyster shells	-
		1840+	1 rim fine wavy sp.				
		1730-1830	1 low base wide-shaft Ave sp.	Level 3	light reddish-yellow sand 12-36"	no artifacts	-
1762-1820	1 dist. cylindrical plate reding w. lines						
1800-1800	1 public frog and sp. 1 shell and microfauna 1 fauna and microfauna 1 sub-quad and microfauna	1830+	16 oyster 5 glass 2 red fish bones	#2 Level 1	Sod 0"-1 1/2" mottled tan clay with black, brown and tan sand (probably fill) 1 1/2" - 10"	2 body plain redware 1 body plain pearlware 1 body plain white ware 1 body gray salt glaze stoneware 1 body hip. porcelain, blue design window glass: 1 aqua, 1 aqua- frosted; 1 clear bottle glass: 1 amber 1 amber w/ "on" printed on it 2 cut nails 1 pipe stem chips of brick and coal bones	- 1800-60 1730-1830 1820+ 1800+ 1860's+? 1830+
8	1 body redware 1 body black redware 1 bone Oriental export (saucer) Window Glass: 3 pane Bottle Glass: 1 olive green, 1 metallic brown 1 fragment mortar w/ shells 1 flint chip	1800-1860	1 white wide-shaft scrofa 1 red fine and sp.	-	-	-	-
		1800+	21 oyster 6 glass				
9	1 body yellow slip trailed Bottle Glass: 1 olive green (wing) 1 fragment worked jar	1800+ 1700's?	2 oyster	-	-	-	-
10	no artifacts	-	21 oyster 6 glass	-	-	-	-
11	no artifacts	-	15 oyster 5 glass	-	-	-	-
				Level 2	Black sand layer with many clinkers, 10"-11", on the north wall there is a lense of black sand which is loaded with clinkers (this lense is approx. 5" thick and 8" long and tapers on both ends =	1 body brown redware	1800-60
				Level 3	Tan sand 11"-24"	no artifacts	-

Shovel Test	Soil	Artifacts	Date	Shovel Test	Soil	Artifacts	Date
#3 Level 1	Dark brown soil 0"-9" not much soil	1 body plain whiteware	1820+	#5 Level 1	Humus 0"-2", dark brown sandy soil 2"-9"	no artifacts bone	-
		1 body blue transfer	1820+				-
		<u>window glass</u> -	1830+	Level 2	Darker brown sandy soil with shells 9"- 17" In west wall from 10" to 15" and in south wall from 14" to 16 1/2", there is a mass of cement. The soil appears to be disturbed all around this cement.	1 body redware	1800-60
		2 green <u>bottle glass</u> - 1 amber	-			1 body black redware	1800+
1 cut spike	1830+	3 body unglazed redware	1800+	1 body pearlware	1780-1820		
1 metal bucket	-	1 body pearware	1820+	2 body whiteware	1820+		
sm. fragments shell.	-	1 rim salt glazed gray stoneware	1800+	1 rim salt glazed gray stoneware	1800+		
fragments coal	-	<u>window glass</u> - 4 aqua	-	<u>window glass</u> - 4 aqua	1830+		
Level 2	Abrupt change to solid layer of coal and ash - it is about 2" thick Shells are mixed into the lower portion of this stratum	clam shells oyster shells no artifacts	-	Level 3	tan sand, 17"-36" This sand is mixed with black sand and shell in patches down to 30".		
Level 3	Reddish brown sand, 11"-23" A few shells are at the top of this level but are probably from Level 2	no artifacts	-				
				#6 Level 1	dark black soil 0"-4" 10 YR - 2/1 Ph 8.0	no artifacts	-
#4 Level 1	Brown soil 1"-7", not much sod, TOYR - 2/2 Ph 8.0 The artifacts were in the first 3-4"	1 body yellow slipware	1800	Level 2	sandy brown soil 4"- 20" 10 YR - 3/3 Ph 8.0 From 4"-14" there is some pottery and glass, and a little shell From 14"-20", same soil but many more artifacts	1 body brown redware	1800-60
		2 body brown redware	1800-60			1 body plain whiteware	1820+
		1 body Jack Feld (?)	1745-90			1 rim gray salt glaze stoneware	1800+
1 body pearlware (?)	1780-1830	<u>window glass</u> : 1 clear	-	<u>window glass</u> : 1 aqua, 5 green bottle glass: 1 olive green, 2 clear; 3 clear pink tint	1830+		
<u>bottle glass</u> : 2	-	1 cutnail	1830+	4 clear glass (Hurricane lamp ?)	-	1880-1915	
1 frag. from bullet shell	-	1 cutnail	1830+	1 cut nail	-	1830-90	
		1 frag. from bullet shell	-	1 pipe bowl w/ "eny" on it	-	-	
Level 2	brown soil w/shell concentration 7"- 8" 10 YR - 2/2 Ph 8.0 Below this is cement w/shells and ships of brick in it. This cement (broken into sections) covers the whole level.	no artifacts	-				

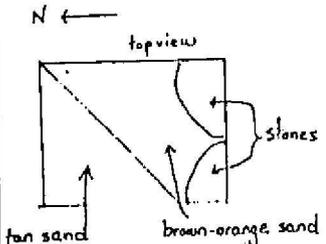
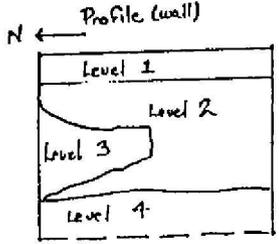
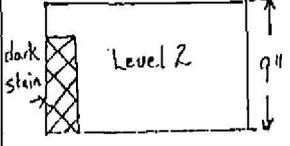
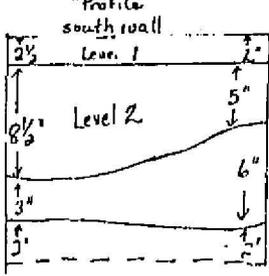
Shovel Test	Soil	Artifacts	Date	Shovel Test	Soil	Artifacts	Date
Level 2a	same soil but find older looking material 20"-24" and some charred wood	1 body plain whiteware 1 body stoneware - salt glaze gray w/ blue & gray paint bottle glass aqua 3 dark olive green (panel bottle - Dutch ?) 1 cut nail 1 pipe stem	1820+ 1820+ - 1600 ? 1820-90	9 Level 1	Sod 0" - 2"	No Artifacts	-
				Level 2	Dark brown soil with some black mottling, 2" - 8".	2 body unglazed redware, windowglass, aqua, 1 pipe stem bones chips of brick	1800-60 1830+ - -
Level 3	Sandy soil 24"-36" 5 YR - 4/6 Ph 8.0	no artifacts large, whole oyster shell	- -	Level 3	Tan sand, 8" - 12" Mottled w/black sand tan sand only, 12"-18"	No Artifacts	-
97 Level 1	sod 0"-1"	no artifacts	-	10 Level 1	Reddish brown soil 0"-7 1/2" 10 yr. - 2/2, Ph 8.0 Many shell fragments are found in this layer.	1 rim.shp. trailed redware 1 body redware 2 body black redware 1 body plain pearlware 2 body plain creamware 1 body plain whiteware 1 body s.p. porcelain window glass - 3 aqua bottle glass - 2 clear, 1 amber 2 glass buttons(4 holes) 2 cut nails 1 bullet shell 2 pipe stems leather chips of brick	1800+
Level 2	dark brown soil 1"-11". On the south wall this layer is very dark almost black, on the north wall this layer has some lighter brown and black mottling. Coal, macadam and artifacts from this section (driveway debris ?). Mottled dark brown and tan sand 11"-14"	1 body redware 1 body plain whiteware 3 bones wood coal macadam	1800-60 1820+ - - - -				1800+60 1830+ 1730-1830 1762-1820 1820+ 1800-1800+ 1830+
Level 3	tan sand 14"-20"	no artifacts	-				1830-90
98 Level 1	sod 0"-2 1/2"	1 body whiteware 1 body h.p. porcelain white 1 tooth	1820+ 1860+?				Level 2
Level 2	mottled tan and black sand 2 1/2"-9", am. amount of shell fragments in this stratum	no artifacts	-	Level 3	Reddish Sand 13"-24" 5 yr. 4/6 Ph 8.3	No Artifacts	-
Level 3	tan sand, 9"-16"	no artifacts	-				

Shovel Test	Soil	Artifacts	Date	Shovel Test	Soil	Artifacts	Date
#11 Level 1	Black brown soil 0"-6" but there are patches of different soil colors from black to gray - Mortar and brick fragments found here	1 body yellowware 1 body blue transfer whiteware window glass: 1 aqua, 1 green bottle glass: 1 aqua, 1 light green, 1 clear 1 unid. metal bones	1800-1900 1800-1900 1830+	Level 2	Dark brown and black streaked soil, 7 1/2"-14" 10 YR - 2/1 Ph. 8.0 Shell and slate fragments with chips of brick on this layer. A large rock at between 13 1/2 & 14 1/4"	2 body unglazed redware 1 body plain yellowware 1 body sp porcelain bottle glass: 6 aqua (one w/ "ntent" on it 1 cut nail 2 bones	1800+ 1800-1900 1800-1900+
Level 2	Black brown soil with large rock 6"-12"	no artifacts	-	Level 3	It was very difficult to get below this rock but the soil was sandy. 15 YR - 5/8, Ph. 8.0	no artifacts	-
Level 3	Sandy soil 12"-16"	no artifacts	-				
#12 Level 1	it was not excavated		-	#16 Level 1	Black soil 0"-3" with some surface gravel and broken shell	no artifacts	-
#13 Level 1	Dark brown sod 0"-2", some shells	1 frag. clear drinking glass	-	Level 2	Yellow brown sand soil 3"-11" The first 6" have some glass, wood and pottery but last 2" have shell, milk glass, brick chips, bone and coal	1 body redware 1 body plain whiteware 2 body brown salt glaze stonewares 1 body gray salt glaze stoneware 1 body hip. porcelain window glass: 2 aqua, 2 clear bottle glass: 6 clear, 1 lite blue 3 milk glass 1 cut nail 1 tack bone worked flint	1800-60 1830+ 1800's 1800's 1860+ 1830+
Level 2	Yellow brown sandy soil 2"-8"	1 rim black redware 2 cut nails 2 bones	1800+ 1830-90				
Level 3	Sandy soil 8"-12"	no artifacts	-	Level 3	Red sand 11"-22" Except for a tack at the top of the level, there are no artifacts	1 tack	-
#14 Level 1	Brown soil 0"-7"	window glass: 1 aqua bottle glass: 1 green 1 bone 1 worked stone - flint	1830+ - - -				
Level 2	7"-15" 7.5 YR - 4/6	no artifacts	-				
#15 Level 1	Reddish brown soil mottled with black 0"-7 1/2" 10 YR - 3/4, Ph. 8.0 Had fragments of shell and slate	1 body brown redware 1 body unglazed redware 1 rim whiteware 1 body white whiteware bottle glass: 1 clear, 1 green 1 pipe stem 1 stone - yellow jasper	1800+ 1800+ 1800-1900+ 1800-1900+				

Shovel Test	Soil	Artifacts	Date	Shovel Test	Soil	Artifacts	Date
#17 Level 1	Brown soil 0-4 1/2" 5 YR - 2/5.1 Ph. 8.0 Contained shell and small rocks	bottle glass: 1 clear, 1 green 1 cut nail 1 tack brick frag. worked flint	- 1830-90 - -	#21 Level 1	Orange brown soil 0"-2" 7.5 YR - 4/4 Wet clay Has some fragments of mortar and brick	1 cut nail worked flint pink (Indoor) plaster valcanized rubber	1830-90 -
Level 2	Dark orange brown soil 4 1/2"-11" 5 YR - 3/3 Ph. 8.0 shell fragments in soil 6 1/2" there is a 2" band of black soil	unid. metal	-	Level 2	Dark brown, 2"-7" 5 YR - 2/5.2 A large cement slab at the bottom of the level	no artifacts	-
#18 Level 1	Dark brown soil 0"-3" 10 YR - 4/6	brick fragments mortar fragments	- -	#22 Level 1	Dark brown soil 0"-2" 5 YR - 2/5.2 clay soil	no artifacts	-
Level 2	Brown soil 3"-10" 10 YR - 5/8, soil feels like wet clay	no artifacts	-	Level 2	Dark brown soil, 2"-12" 5 YR - 2/5.2 it contains many cinders and brick fragments	window glass: 2 aqua bottle glass: 1 clear, 1 aqua 2 wire nails	1830+ - 1850+
Level 3	Brown soil 10"-13" 10 YR - 3/6 - lots of slag from a furnace and pieces of cement prevented further excavation	no artifacts	-	Level 3	Brown soil, 12"-14" 10 YR - 2/2	no artifacts	-
#19 Level 1	Dark brown 0"-10" 10 YR - 4/6 - feels like wet clay	no artifacts	-	#23 Level 1	Orange brown soil, 0"-4" 10 YR - 2/6 Ph. 8.0	no artifacts	-
Level 2	Black soil 10"-14" 5 YR - 3/2 Contains cinders, near a broken cement block which covers most of the area	no artifacts	-	Level 2	Brown 4"-7 1/2" 2/5 YR - 2/5.4 Ph. 8.0	unid metal	-
#20	NO DATA	-	-	Level 3	Dark brown soil 7 1/2" - 15" 5 YR - 3/3 Ph. 8.5	worked flint	-
				#24 Level 1	No Data	-	-
				#25 Level 1	Dark Brown soil 0"-8" 10 YR - 2/2	no artifacts	-
				Level 2	Brown soil 8"-14" 5 YR - 4/6 chips of brick and coal, slag	2 body plain creamware worked flint	1762-1820

Shovel Test	Soil	Artifacts	Date	Shovel Test	Soil	Artifacts	Date
Level 3	Sandy soil 14"-16"	no artifacts	-	#30 Level 1	0"-6" 10 YR - 2/2, A large granit cobble is in eastern 1/3 of the test. Brick fragments and some shell found in this level. Because of the large stone we enlarged the shovel test by 6". Clam and oyster shells were found in this stratum	1 body black red- ware 1 body unglazed redware 1 rim blue transfer pearlware 1 base plain pearl- ware 1 body blue trans- fer whiteware 2 body black trans- fer whiteware 1 body whiteware window glass: 3 aqua, 1 clear bottle glass: 1 aqua cut nails (4) 1 pipe stem 1 bone	1800-60 1800-60 1795-1840 1780-1820 1820+ 1820+ 1820+ 1830+ - - 1830-90 - -
#26 Level 1	Dark brown soil, 0"- 5 1/2" 10 YR - 2/1 chips of brick and coal	no artifacts	-	Level 2	Orange Brown soil, 6"-8" 7.5 YR - 3/4	1 body black redware unid. metal bone	1800-60
Level 2	Orange sandy soil 5 1/2"-14" 7.5 YR - 3/4	no artifacts	-	Level 3	Black soil 8"-13"	1 body black red- ware 4 body whiteware window glass: 3 aqua, 1 clear bottle glass: 1 green, 1 clear 2 cut nails 2 unid. metal 3 pipe stems 6 bones	1820+ 1830+ - 1830-90 - -
#27 Level 1	Brown soil, 0"-4" 5 YR - 2/5.1	no artifacts	-	Level 4	Black soil, 13"-14" 10 YR - 2/1, soil sample taken from under and near the concrete	no artifacts	-
Level 2	Orange Sandy soil 4"-7" 5 YR - 6/2 The artifacts were found in the top layer of this stratum	window glass: 1 green bottle glass: 1 green brick fragments bone	1830+ - - -				
#28 Level 1	Black soil 0"-3" 5 YR - 3/2	1 body creamware brick fragments	1762-1820 -				
Level 2	Light brown sandy soil 3"-7" many cinders found in this level	no artifacts	-				
Level 3	mottled dark brown & orange soil 7"-11" 10 YR - 2/2 At 7" this is a 1/2" thick band of black soil	1 rim stoneware	1800's				
Level 4	Orange sand, 11"-14" 7.5 YR - 3/4	no artifacts	-				
#29 Level 1	Medium brown soil 7.5 YR - 3/2 0"-3"	no artifacts	-				
Level 2	Orange brown soil 3"-5" 7.5 YR - 3/4	no artifacts	-				
Level 3	Dark brown soil 5"-15" 5 YR - 2/5.2 clay-like soil	no artifacts	-				

Shovel Test	Soil	Artifacts	Date	Shovel Test	Soil	Artifacts	Date		
#31 Level 1	Black-brown soil 0"-6" 5 YR - 2.5/1 The soil is a sandy loam with many shell fragments in it. On the surface were shell fragments, some pot sherds and a pipe stem.	1 rim redware	1800-60	#31 Level 2 (cont'd)	appears to start at a depth of 9 1/2". In the N wall the hole is not clearly seen until 15". The post hole extends to a depth of 21" and it narrows towards the bottom. The munsell reading for the post hole is: 10 YR-2/2 Oyster and clam shells were found scattered throughout level 2.	bottle glass: 1	-		
		1 body redware	1800-60			olive green	-		
		2 body redware	1800-60			3 olive green (flat)	-		
		1 body unglazed redware	1800+			1 milk glass	1680's		
		2 rim plain creamware	1762-1820			1 frag. Dutch gin bottle	1830-90		
		3 body plain creamware	1762-1820			13 cut nails	1700's		
		3 body plain pearlware	1780-1830			1 wrought nail	prehistoric		
		1 rim w/brown pearlware	1830			worked jasper post hole area	1830+		
		1 rim w/green shell-edged pearlware	1780-1830			window glass:	1830-90		
		1 body blue transfer whiteware	1820+	Level 3	Orange sandy soil 18"-22" 5 YR - 5/8	1 aqua	-		
		1 body hand painted whiteware	1820+			4 cut nails	-		
		2 plain whiteware	1820+			1 bone	-		
		1 body gray salt glaze stoneware	1800's	#32 Level 1	Dark brown soil, 0"-7" 5 YR - 3/2 This level is filled with roots, has some coal but only 2 shell fragments	no artifacts	-		
		window glass: 13	1830+					1 body spotted redware	1800-60
		aqua, 1 clear	1700's					1 body painted pearlware	1790-1815
		3 weathered pieces flint glass (?)	-					window glass: 1	1830+
		1 black glass button (4 holes)	-					aqua	-
		7 cut nails	1830-90					bottle glass: 1	-
		1 cut spike	1830-90					clear	-
		bones	-					1 metal screw	-
			-					1 brick fragment	-
			-					1 fragment wood	-
Level 2	Dark brown sandy loam mottled with orange sandy, 6"-8" 5 YR - 4/6 There is a square post hole in the N.E. corner of the unit. It appears as a dark brown-black stain in the orange sand of level 2. In the wall profile (east) the post hole	4 body delft	1700's	Level 2	mottled brown with some dark orange soil 7"-16" There are 2 stones (cobble) at the S end of the Level (7") Mortar mixed with shell and small stones were found. Oyster and crouch shells were in this stratum	1 cut nail	1830-90		
		1 rim redware	1800-60			2 bones	-		
		1 body redware	1800-60			mortar	-		
		1 body plain pearlware	1800-30				-		
		1 body green painted pearlware	1880-20				-		
		1 body blue transfer pearlware	1795-1840				-		
		4 body whiteware	1820+				-		
		window glass: 3	1830+				-		
		aqua	-				-		

Shovel Test	Soil	Artifacts	Date	Shovel Test	Soil	Artifacts	Date
132 Level 3	Tan sand, 7"-12" 5 YR - 3/8 This level is next to level 2 - they both appear immediately below level 1. Perhaps this should be called 2A. It takes up part of the square with level 2 continuing underneath it, i.e. level 3 ends at 12" while level 2 ends at 16"	no artifacts	-	132 Level 4	Sandy soil 16"-18" 2.5 YR - 4/8	no artifacts	-
	 <p>topview</p> <p>tan sand</p> <p>brown-orange sand</p> <p>Stones</p>			133 Level 1	Dark brown sandy loam 0"-2 1/2" 5 YR - 2.5/1 Much coal clinders, and shell fragments in this stratum.	1 body plain white-ware wood (molding)	1820+
	 <p>Profile (wall)</p> <p>Level 1</p> <p>Level 2</p> <p>Level 3</p> <p>Level 4</p>			Level 2	Orange sand 2 1/2"-11" 5 YR - 5/8 At a depth of 6 1/2" there is a dark stain (3" thick). This	asphalt	-
					 <p>dark stain</p> <p>Level 2</p> <p>9"</p>		
				Level 3	Dark black soil, 11-14" 10 YR - 2/2. Oyster shells found in this level	1 pipe bowl fragment	-
					 <p>Profile south wall</p> <p>Level 1</p> <p>Level 2</p> <p>Level 3</p> <p>Level 4</p> <p>2 1/2"</p> <p>8 1/2"</p> <p>3"</p> <p>2"</p> <p>5"</p> <p>6"</p> <p>1"</p> <p>5"</p>		

Shovel Test	Soil	Artifacts	Date
#33 Level 4	Orange sandy soil 14"-16" 5 YR - 5/8	no artifacts	-
#34 Level 1	Black soil 0"-5" 10 YR - 2/2 Pieces of cinder and coal found in this stratum	2 body whiteware window glass: 1 aqua, 2 clear bottle glass: 1 clear, 1 amber, 1 light green	1820+
Level 2	Dark brown soil and sandy soil 5"-10" 10 YR - 3/4. Small chips of bricks, coal chips and small shell fragments are found in this level	3 body whiteware window glass: 1 aqua, 2 clear bottle glass: 1 clear, 4 clear with pink tint 1 bone	1820+ 1830+ - 1880-1915 -
Level 3	Sandy soil 10"-12" 7.5 YR - 4/6	no artifacts	-
#35 Level 1	Medium brown soil 0"-9" 7.5 YR 3/2 This stratum has concrete and coal fragments. Hard shell clam and oyster shells are found in this level.	1 body gray salt glazed stoneware window glass: 5 aqua, 1 clear bottle glass: 2 clear, 1 clear with pink tint 2 wire nails	1800's 1830+ 1880-1915 1850+
Level 2	Red-brown sandy soil 9"-12" 2.5 YR - 4/8	1 body s.p. porcelain worked flint	1800's -
Level 3	Dark orange soil 12"-14" 5 YR - 4/3	1 body rockingham 1 body whiteware window glass: 1 aqua bottle glass: 1 clear 1 wire nail 2 wire rims	1860-1900 1820+ 1830+ - 1850+ -
Level 4	Red brown sandy soil 14"-16" 2.5 YR - 4/6	no artifacts	-

**APPENDIX B: CONFERENCE HOUSE FAUNAL ANALYSIS**

Kate T. Morgan

## CONFERENCE HOUSE FAUNAL REPORT

### Introduction

In accordance with the artifact analysis in this report, the primary goal of this faunal analysis is to provide an interpretation of the refuse deposits that were associated with the eighteenth century occupation of the Conference House. This goal was achieved by identifying discrete depositional layers in which artifacts clearly represented an eighteenth century context. The bones found in these layers and in association to datable eighteenth century ceramics will be the focus of this report.

The faunal analysis includes:

1) Tabulation Sheets used for on-site and laboratory identification and analysis. Bones were catalogued according to general species, anatomical part (when possible), age (when possible), butchery marks, and pathology. This work was performed at the Hunter College Archaeology Lab (Dr. Thomas McGovern, director, and Thomas Amorosi, assistant director). It should be noted that, due to a hiatus in funds, this analysis occurred over a span of four years. During this time, measurement of bone size was discontinued. It might be a future project to complete what would be a second-level study into the size of Cattle, Caprine, and Pig bone in seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth century Staten Island.

2) Graphs accompanied by short analytic texts will be used sequentially to build an interpretation of the excavated bone remains at Conference House. Where possible both Total Number of Bones (TNB) and percentages (%) will be used as illustration. These two mathematical methods have proven to be the most reliable for analysis of fauna on historic sites (Amorosi 1984; Grayson 1978, 1979).

### GRAPH I: TOTAL NUMBER OF BONES, CONFERENCE HOUSE SITE

Graph One depicts the raw data from the Laboratory Tabulation Sheets and is the first step in the analytic process. Graph One illustrates the total number of identified bones in both the datable eighteenth century contexts and the mixed (eighteenth, nineteenth, and twentieth century) contexts.

General species listed include: Bos (cattle), Ovis/Capra (sheep/goat), Sus (Pig), Aves (Bird), Pisces (Fish), Tortoise, and Rodent. It was hoped that Large Mammal and Medium Mammal categories would help in discerning the frequency of butchery markings on cattle-size mammals versus sheep/goat/and pig-size mammals. Butchery marks are indicated on Graph One by a "B" along with the body part on which the mark occurred; however, the sample size of butchery marks found in these categories is far too small to make any generalized conclusions as to preference towards specific cuts (chopped or sawed) of meat. What will be considered in this report (see Graph Three) is the presence and absence of domesticated mammal body parts. Tabulated percentages available in Graph Three can point to both dietary habits and refuse patterns of the occupants of Conference House. The parts identified include:

Axial  
Head (and teeth)  
Hindquarter  
Forequarter  
Pelvis  
Scapula  
Feet  
Leg-unidentifiable.

A record has been made of Juvenile ("J") or unfused bones. Again, however, the sample size is too small to make any kind of interpretive remarks at present.

### GRAPH TWO: COMPARATIVE PERCENTAGES OF SPECIES BETWEEN ORIGINAL PORTION OF THE HOUSE (C. 1675), THE KITCHEN-WING ADDITION (C. 1760), AND MIXED CONTEXTS IN ASSOCIATION TO THE KITCHEN-WING

#### Original Portion of Billopp House, circa 1675

Graph Two illustrates a relatively high number of domestic mammal bone refuse in the area that has been designated the original portion of the house, built circa 1680 and corresponding to excavation squares: NOW26-NOW47 and S2W47. What is immediately visible on this graph is that the highest percentage of mammal bone is Pig at 30.4%, with Cattle at 25.6% and Sheep/Goat at 20.8%. This percentage distribution raises some interesting questions as to the preponderance of Pig bones, a relatively inexpensive meat source, at the residence of the affluent Captain Christopher Billopp.

The Billopp House was constructed on a portion of the Captain's 1600 acre land patent c. 1675. It was Staten Island's largest and most monumental structure, modeled possibly after the seventeenth century farmhouse of Billopp's native Yorkshire, England (Cf. Draft 1980). It has been documented, at least for the nineteenth century, that pork was the least expensive of the mammal meats, (Morgan 1987) and therefore, it remains to be explained why there was a preponderance of bone from a cheaper source of meat when the inhabitants were considerably well-to-do.

A possible explanation for the high number of Pig bones is twofold. 1) Documents indicate in the seventeenth century, the Captain's residency at the house was intermittent,

due to his appointments to government posts, commands of several vessels, and return trips to England. It is possible he left the house in the care of a less well-to-do caretaker and his family to watch over the house and land. It may be these people who were leaving less expensive cuts of meat as kitchen refuse during this time period. 2) Another possibility is that when the Captain was living in the house, he was eating fine cuts of meat, such as filets and roasts without bone--which would leave behind little evidence in the archaeological record.

#### Kitchen Wing Addition, Circa 1760

Significant changes occur in this later period in the relation and comparability of bone refuse. The highest percentage of mammal bone now has become Cattle at 32.6%. Pig has dropped to 11.5% and Sheep/goat to 1.9%. Also significant is the large rise in the presence of Bird bone and Tortoise in relation to the other domesticated mammal bone.

It may be interesting to note that 1760-1781 was the period in which Colonel Christopher Billopp occupied the house. In continuing the development and sale of the family properties in the 1760's, Billopp lists himself as a farmer as well as being a member of the General Assembly of New York. This might explain for the high percentage of beef and fowl at this time and point to the habitude of a gentleman-farmer whose family and servants enjoyed both the local variety of meats and ate very well indeed. During the Revolutionary War, Billopp remained an ardent Loyalist and his property was plundered several times between 1776 and 1780. There is nothing in the faunal assemblage that indicates a change in diet during this time.

What remains unexplained is the sharp drop in Caprine, and Pig elements. It is possible Billopp began to specialize more in Cattle, relying more heavily on the New York Market for other pre-butchered cuts of meat. Or, perhaps he was selling his Caprine and Pig to the market. This would greatly effect the kitchen refuse contiguous to the house.

A Note About Wild Species: It should also be noted for both the Original Portion and the Kitchen Wing-Eighteenth Century that beyond the presence of domesticated mammalia, there is a significant variety of other species (bird, fish, and tortoise). We know that in the eighteenth century, Staten Island was still a 'catchment area' (Jochim 1976) rich in availability and variety of wild species (State Plan 1983). And, although, the percentages of these bones are lower than mammalia, this may only be the indication of differential refuse patterns and taphonomic processes. Nevertheless, it is clear that the inhabitants of the Billopp House were taking advantage of a variety of food-meats ranging from wild species, bird, fish, domestic mammal, and bird. Further research could indicate a more detailed breakdown of types within a species such as bird or fish.

#### The Kitchen Wing--Mixed with Nineteenth Century Material

This portion of Graph Two illustrates that while the domestic mammalia percentages remain constant, there is a high percentage of Bird and a sharp drop in presence of Fish. Again, there seem to be two possible explanations for this: 1) There was a definite change in dietary preference for bird over fish. Meanwhile, the percentage of Cattle to Caprine and Pig remain the same. It is not clear if this preference is based on change in the economic status (of the inhabitants) or a change in the market economy in relation to availability of both local and wild species. 2) There was a change in refuse patterns. Perhaps, the bones were being discarded differently or elsewhere. During the latter half of the nineteenth century, sanitation practices had become increasingly sophisticated. Not only was there a concern for health and hygiene of people's living-quarters and environs, but also the growing popularity of processing bone for bone-meal, for fertilizer, and for glue. It is possible that the differential presence of bone through time signals the technological advances in garbage maintenance and processing (Morgan 1987).

### GRAPH THREE: SKELETAL ELEMENT DISTRIBUTION FOR CATTLE, SHEEP/GOAT AND PIG IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY CONTEXTS

#### Preliminary Note

During the eighteenth century the outreach of the food-marketing and distribution system whose core was New York City-Manhattan was still minimal to the out-lying boroughs such as Staten Island (State Plan 1983). It is highly probable that the people who lived on Staten Island still did their own butchering. Therefore, we would have to assume that the bone-refuse in this deposit represents the butchering activities of the inhabitants at the Billopp house.

Domesticated mammalia were catalogued according to body parts that might coordinate to specific cuts of meat. Based on extensive research into late eighteenth and nineteenth century documentary sources, I have developed a cataloguing system that infers the remains of bones to specific cuts of meat (Morgan 1982, 1987, 1989). This research has recently been corroborated in the computer tabulations and site research made by Amorosi (1984, 1990).

Excavated remains from the hindquarter of the mammal might include sirloin (most expensive), rump, round, flank, shank, and hock (least expensive). From the forequarter, cuts of meat include the shoulder (most expensive), chuck, shank, and hock (least expensive). The axial portion of the animal, identified as the ribs and the vertebrae might range in cuts of meat such as prime ribs, chops, and the cheaper stew-cut of ribs.

#### Graph Three

##### Cattle Skeletal Element Distribution

The depositional patterning for Cattle bone refuse shows a high percentage of feet (44.2%) and head (34.4%) elements. Very little bone was retrieved from the hind leg/pelvis area, only 16% from axial (vertebrae and ribs) bone, and none from the foreleg/scapula area.

This presents an interesting problem: do the remains we see here represent the bone-refuse of meats that were eaten or was this the location of an activity area where the head and legs of the animal were discarded while the more expensive, sumptuous cuts were kept for frying and roasting? On the other hand, the high percentage of head and feet bones could be the result of a preference to make inexpensive stews and soups out of this part of the carcass. R. Lee Lyman (1977:70) observes at Fort Walla Walla Dump Site in Washington State that "the wrist and ankle have high (nutritional) food value" as does the head.

Further research into eighteenth century documentary sources, eighteenth century foodways, and a finer analysis of the dateable depositional layers might show the subtle relationship between the type of food remains and the economic status of the Billopp House inhabitants through time.

##### Caprine Skeletal Element Distribution

The remains of Caprine skeletal elements found in the eighteenth century contexts again show a predominance of Head bones (including teeth) at 45.4%. Axial bones are present at 22.7%, followed by foreleg/scapula parts at 15.9%, feet at 9%, and hindleg/pelvic parts at 6/8%.

##### Pig Skeletal Element Distribution

The highest percentage of all skeletal elements of the Pig species is 63% of Head bones

(including teeth). This is a very high percentage in comparison to axial parts at 9.2%, foreleg/scapula parts at 12.3%, hindleg/pelvic parts at 10.7, and feet at 4.6%.

**GRAPH FOUR: COMPARISON BETWEEN THE CONFERENCE HOUSE (EIGHTEENTH CENTURY LEVELS) AND THE VOORLEZER HOUSE (EIGHTEENTH CENTURY LEVELS) ON STATEN ISLAND**

An interesting comparison can be made between the faunal remains from two eighteenth century residences on Staten Island.

The Conference (or Billopp) House was occupied by four generations of the Billopp family who were a wealthier class gentleman-farmers participating in the political and civic life of Staten Island and New Jersey.

The Voorlezer House, now part of Richmondtown Restoration on Staten Island, was occupied from 1695(?) - 1701 by the Voorlezer or lay minister and clerk of the consistory (L. McMillan 1985 see Documentary Report 1989 cited in Bibliography). Subsequently, and throughout the eighteenth century, the building was a residence for a blacksmith, a mason/farmer, a cooper/turner/yeoman, and a clerk.

The faunal remains from these sites should reflect the food-ways and dietary preferences of, on the one hand, the affluent class, and on the other, the more common class of artisans and workers. Although, the numbers are close, these differences are visible on the graph. Cattle and Caprine, the more highly valued meats, have higher percentages at the Billopp House. While at the Voorlezer House there is a higher percentage of Pig remains, which might indicate a preference for less expensive cuts of meat.

Another comparison that can be made between these two households is the a marked difference between bird and fish percentages. This may be explained by a differential between the two environments the houses occupied. The Conference House is located very near to the Bay which made fishing and water activities readily accessible to the inhabitants of the residence and also might explain the higher percentage of fish remains found there. The Voorlezer House, more centrally located on Staten Island, had access to dense forested areas, a haven for many kinds of wild birds in addition to domesticated chickens and turkeys. Thus, at the Voorlezer House, a higher percentage of bird remains can be found.

**GRAPH FIVE: MAJOR TAXA LIST COMPARABLE TO AMOROSI'S TABLE OF NEW YORK CITY SITES IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY**

In June 1990, Thomas Amorosi, assistant director at the Hunter College Faunal Laboratory made a graph of major taxa faunal remains excavated from eighteenth century contexts of all the major New York City sites. This graph is enclosed here, with Conference House Major Taxa data inserted.

Some Preliminary Observations of Comparison

Listed on the Amorosi Graph are the data from five major urban sites and three rural sites, of which Voorlezer House is one. It will be valuable to use the percentages listed here to compare between taxa and between sites. For the purposes of this report, however, an in-depth study is not appropriate.

One important point can be made. Based on Amorosi's comparative table, There is no

single pattern of species distribution between the urban sites and the rural sites. For example, both the Old Bank Farm in Rhode Island and the Stadt Huys Block in downtown Manhattan (originally the core of New Amsterdam) have relatively small percentages of Cattle remains. Why so little cattle remains on a farm? And, why so few cattle remains on a block of rather well-to-do inhabitants?

Similarly, the Conference House has a much higher percentage of Pig remains in comparison to the Almshouse near City Hall in Manhattan. Why would the 'poorhouse' of New York City not be serving the inexpensive cut of pork to its occupants? A closer look at the percentages reveals that the inhabitants of the Almshouse were throwing out 56% of fish refuse. So, the poor were living on fish stews, not head-soup.

These preliminary observations indicate the importance of looking more closely at the context of each site (ethnic origins, occupational activities, economic status, environmental conditions) and the detailed comparison of like and unlike characteristics between sites.

### SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

- 1) To complete bone-measurement of significant specimens which might give some insights into the size variation of New World Cattle, Sheep/Goat, and Pig. Also, to possibly further some statement about age-range of excavated fauna.
- 2) To continue a more in-depth identification of animal types within the species in order to create a more detailed catalogue of eighteenth century foodways on Staten Island. Clarifying and breaking down the Major Taxa, especially in the case of bird into wild versus domestic types. This would illustrate the inhabitants access and usability of a cultivated lands and uncultivated/forested areas.
- 3) Based on known dietary preferences, in this case the British, to consider what new foods were available for the Billopp family in the new settlement. And, to consider these faunal remains in the context of American colonial foodways, based both on what is accessible in the immediate environs and knowledge of traditional preferences.

## GRAPH 1

TOTAL NUMBER OF IDENTIFIED BONES IN 18<sup>TH</sup> CENTURY CONTEXTS AND MIXED CONTEXTS

	NOW3	NOW6	NOW9	NOW12	NOW15	NOW20	NOW23	NOW26	NOW29	NOW35	NOW38	NOW41	NOW44	52W47
BOS	-	-	2	4 2BS	10 17FE	3	1	-	3	2 1BH	23 2BA	19 17FE	0	18
O/C	-	-	0	1	0	0	-	0	0	1	36	3 1BT	4	4
SUS	-	-	1	4	3	1	1	-	1	3	12	36 2BP	1	12
AVES	-	-	3	7	4	1	1	-	1	3	8	2	0	5
PISCES	-	-	1	3	3	1	3	-	1	2	14	10	1	0
TORTOISE	-	-	5	0	1	0	1	-	0	6	0	0	0	0
RODENT	-	-	0	0	0	0	2	-	0	0	5	1	0	0
LARGE MAMMAL	-	-	1	1	0	0	0	-	2	0	21	7	3 1BA	13
MEDIUM MAMMAL	-	-	11	1	0	0	0	-	0	14	4	15F 4S 1BH	9	41
UNIDENTIFIED MAMMAL	-	-	4	4	17	2	2	-	0	0	99	62	141	53

B = Butchery  
 A = AXIAL  
 P = PELVIS  
 H = HINDQUARTER  
 F = FOREQUARTER  
 S = SCAPULA  
 FE = FEET  
 L = LEG UNIDENT

18<sup>TH</sup> C.  
 J = JUVENILE

	NOW3	NOW6	NOW9	NOW12	NOW15	NOW20	NOW23	NOW26	NOW29	NOW35	NOW38	NOW41	NOW44	52W47
BOS	1BA 2 2BH	4 1BH	0	4	0	2	0	0	1	0	2	0	3 1BFE	37 2BA 1BL
O/C	0	2	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	6	0	6	3
SUS	4	1	5	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	1	1 1BH	2	16
AVES	5	6	9	10	5	3	0	7	0	1	2	9	2	5
PISCES	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
TORTOISE	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
LARGE MAMMAL	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	11
MEDIUM MAMMAL	0	13	4	16	0	0	0	0	0	4	10	0	16	37
UNIDENTIFIED MAMMAL	19	32 28?	7	23	2	35	0	5	7	8	23	20	28	139
RODENT	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	1

MIXED

GRAPH 2

COMPARISON OF ORIGINAL PORTION OF HOUSE TO KITCHEN ADDITION

	ORIGINAL PORTION OF HOUSE C. 1680 NOW 26 - NOW 47/52W47	KITCHEN WING ADDITION C. 1760-70 NOW 3 - NOW 23
CATTLE	59 : 25.6%	17 32.6%
CAPRINE	48 20.8%	1 1.9%
PIG	70 30.4%	6 11.5%
BIRD	19 8.2%	15 28.8%
FISH	28 12.1%	6 11.5%
TORTOISE	6 2.6%	7 13.4%

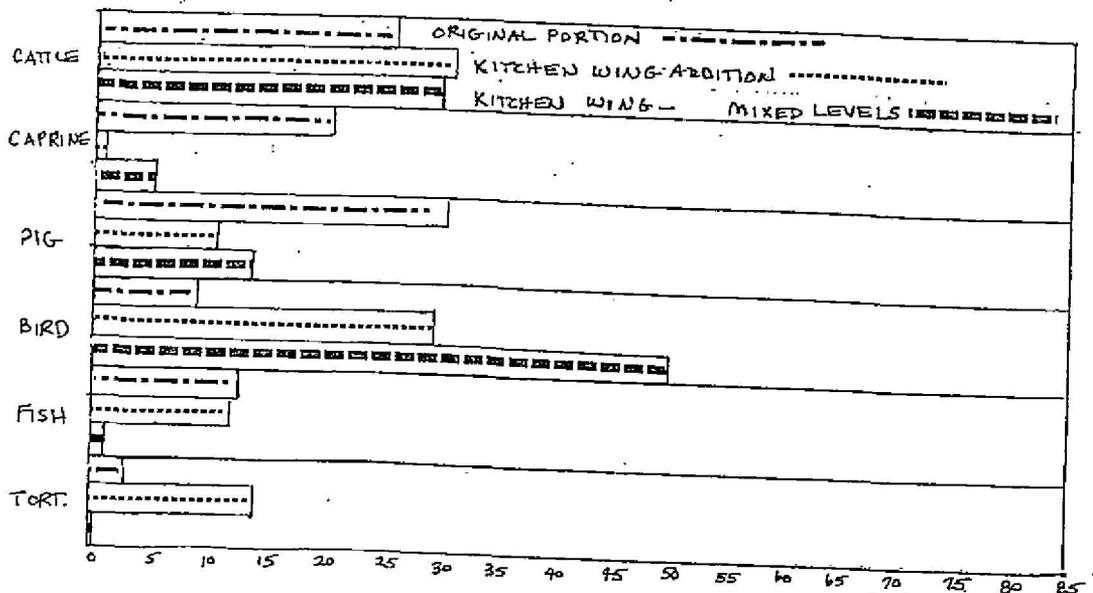
TNB = 230

TNB = 52

KITCHEN WING - MIXED WITH MID-1800's

CATTLE	23 30.2%
CAPRINE	4 5.2%
PIG	10 13.1%
BIRD	38 50%
FISH	1 1.3%

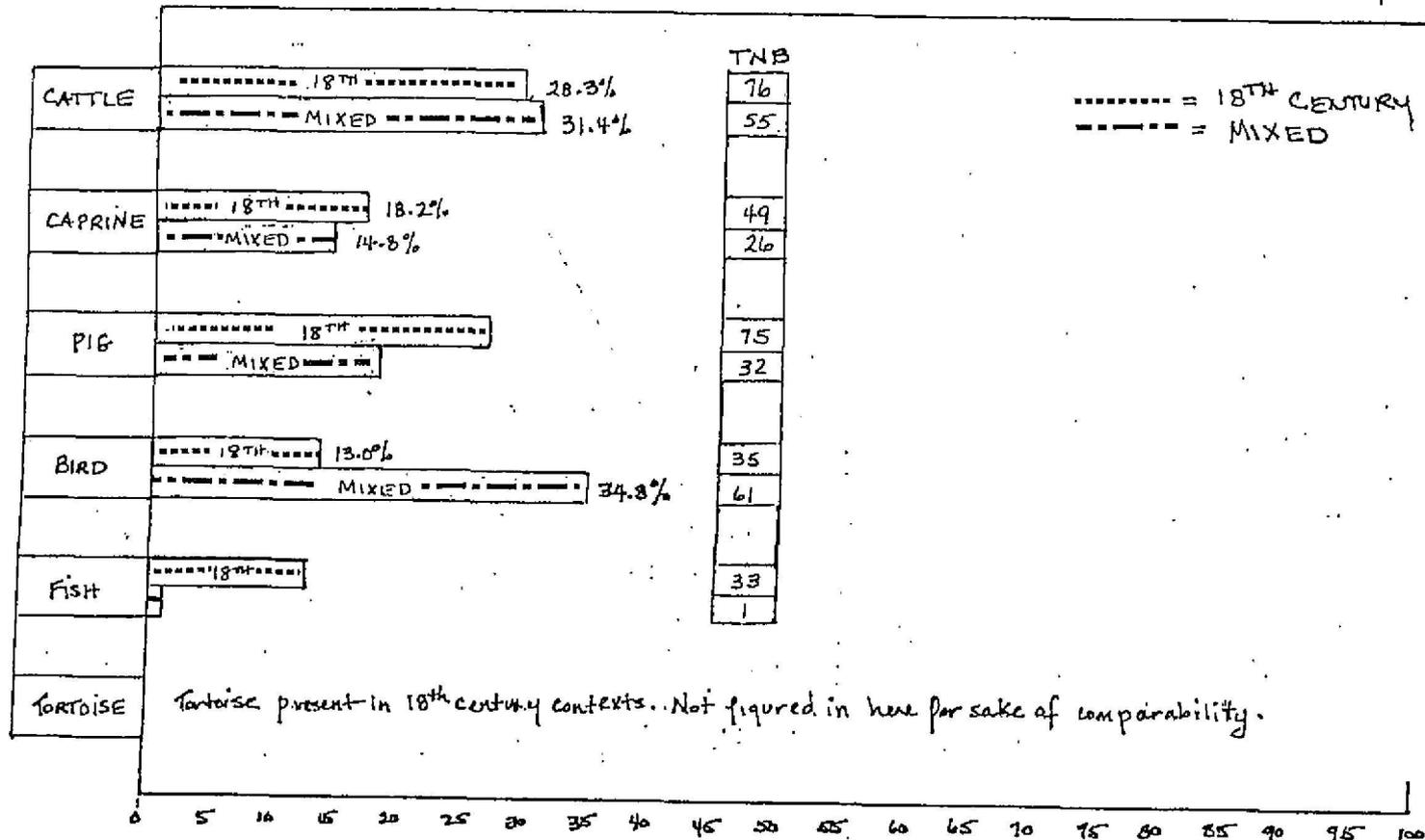
TNB = 76



CONFERENCE HOUSE - KTM '91

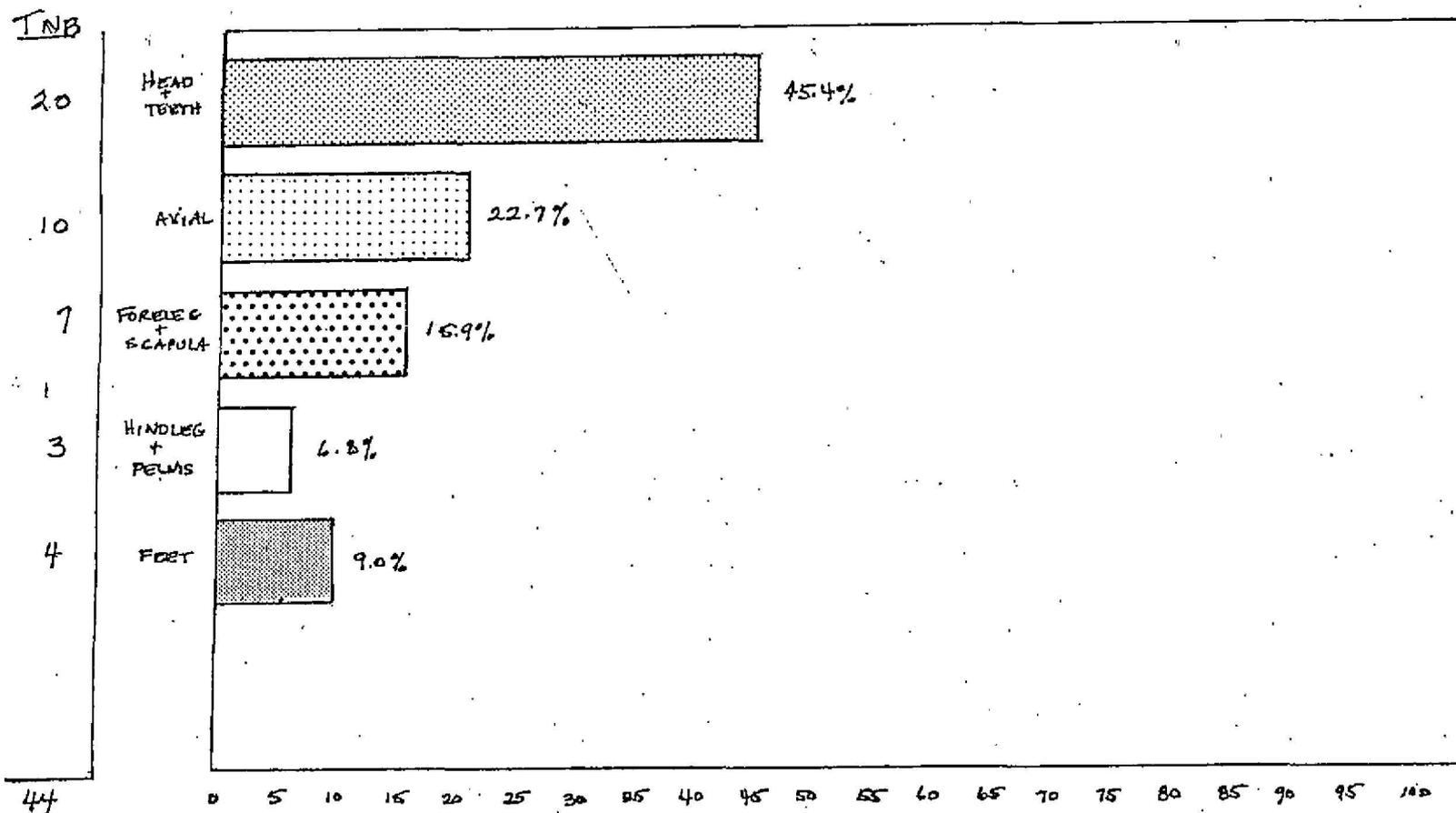
GRAPH 2a.

COMPARISON BETWEEN 18<sup>TH</sup> CENTURY CONTEXTS AND MIXED 18<sup>TH</sup>/19<sup>TH</sup>/20<sup>TH</sup> CENTURY CONTEXTS



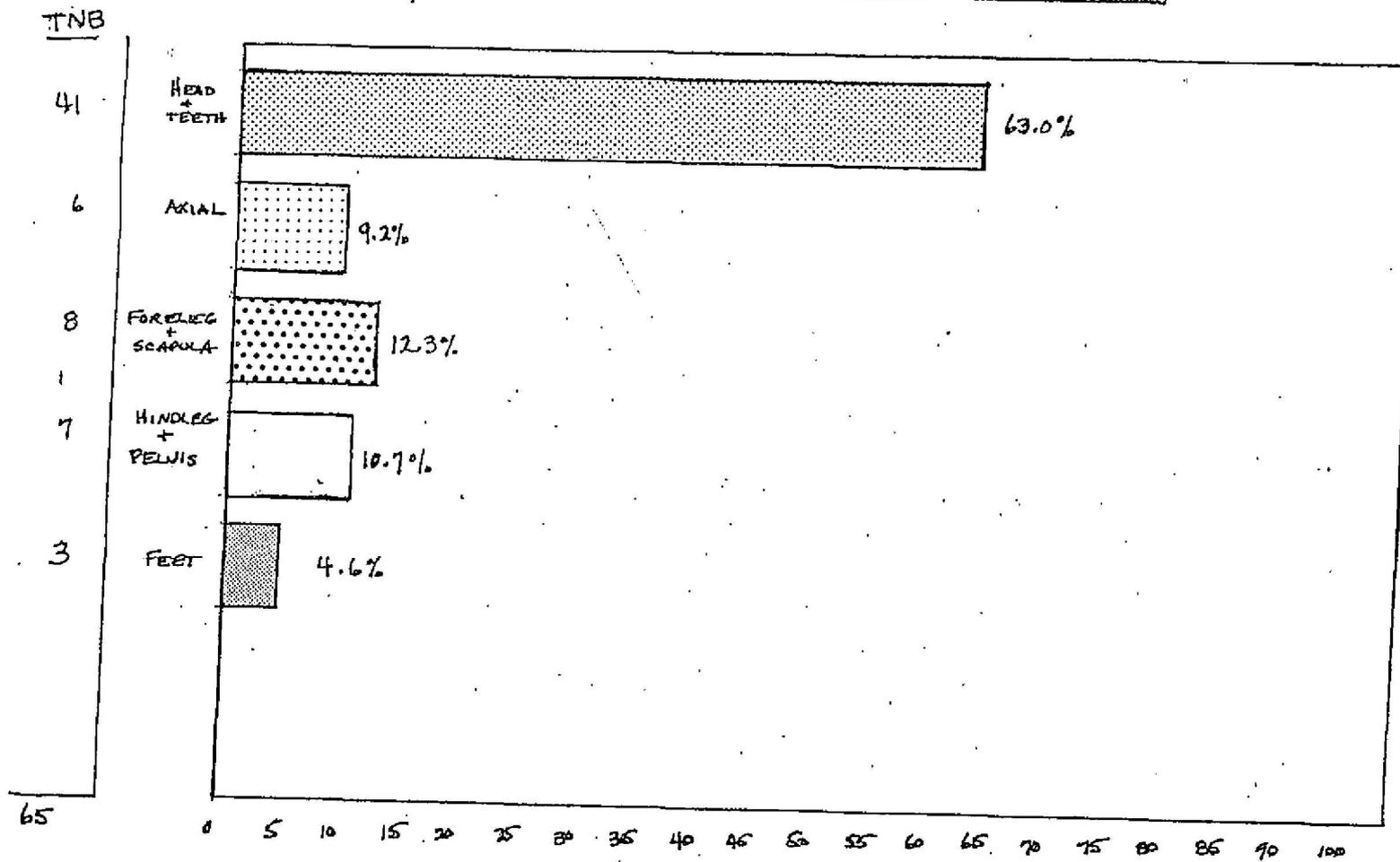
GRAPH 3

FOR 18<sup>TH</sup> CENTURY CONTEXTS: CAPRINE SKELETAL ELEMENT DISTRIBUTION



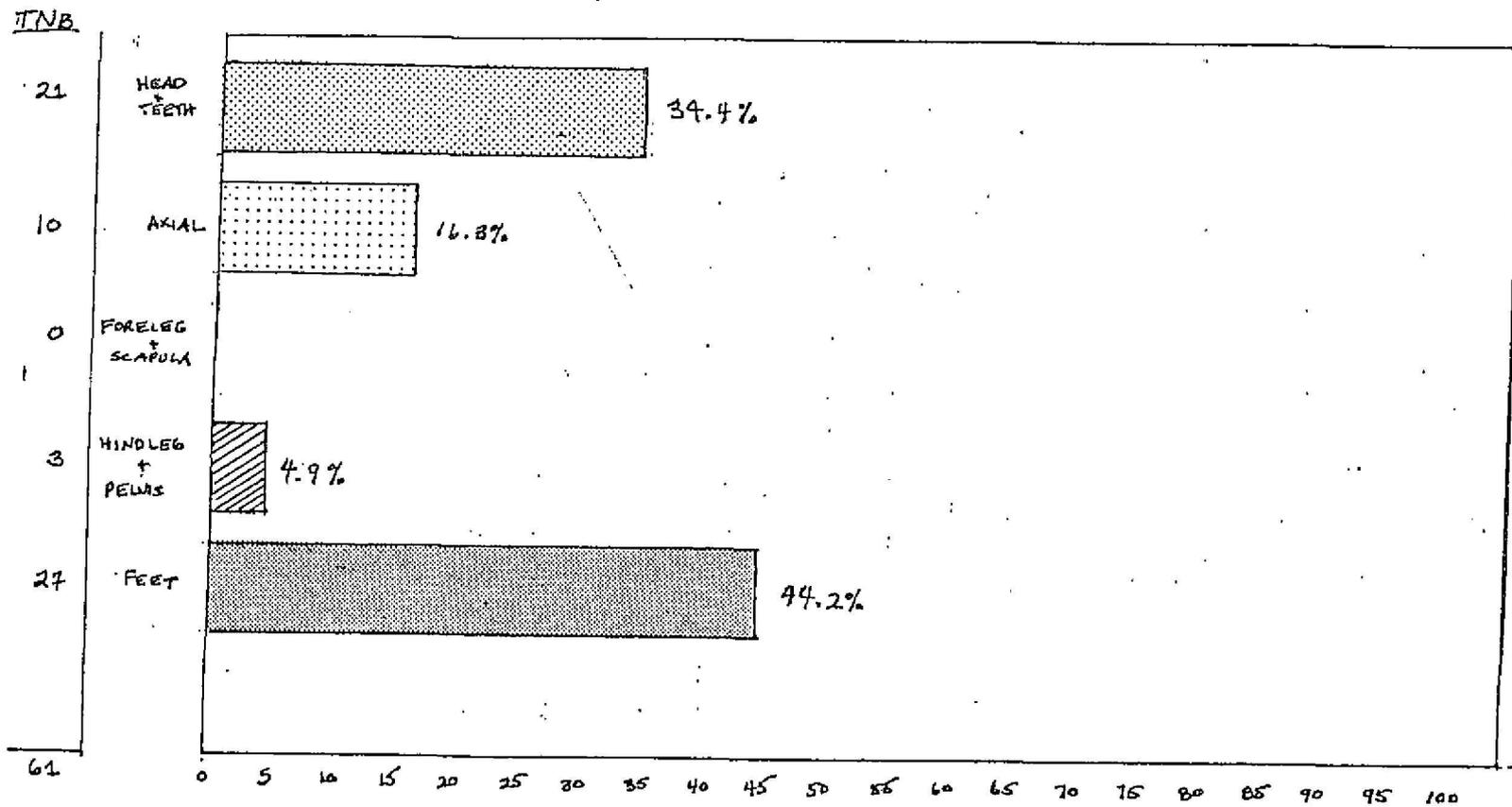
GRAPH 3

FOR 18<sup>TH</sup> CENTURY CONTEXTS: PIG SKELETAL ELEMENT DISTRIBUTION



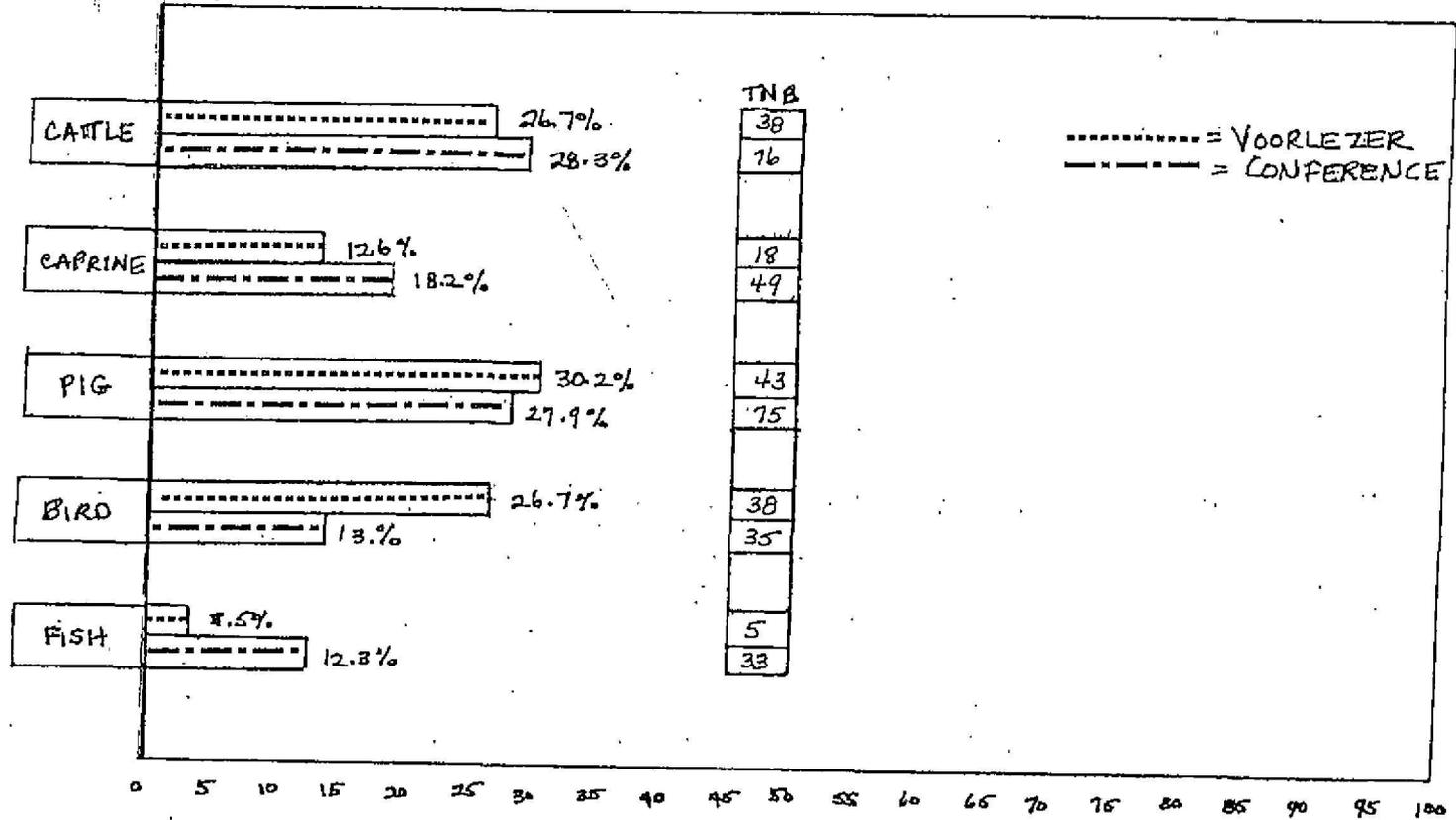
GRAPH 3

FOR 18<sup>TH</sup> CENTURY CONTEXTS: CATTLE SKELETAL ELEMENT DISTRIBUTION



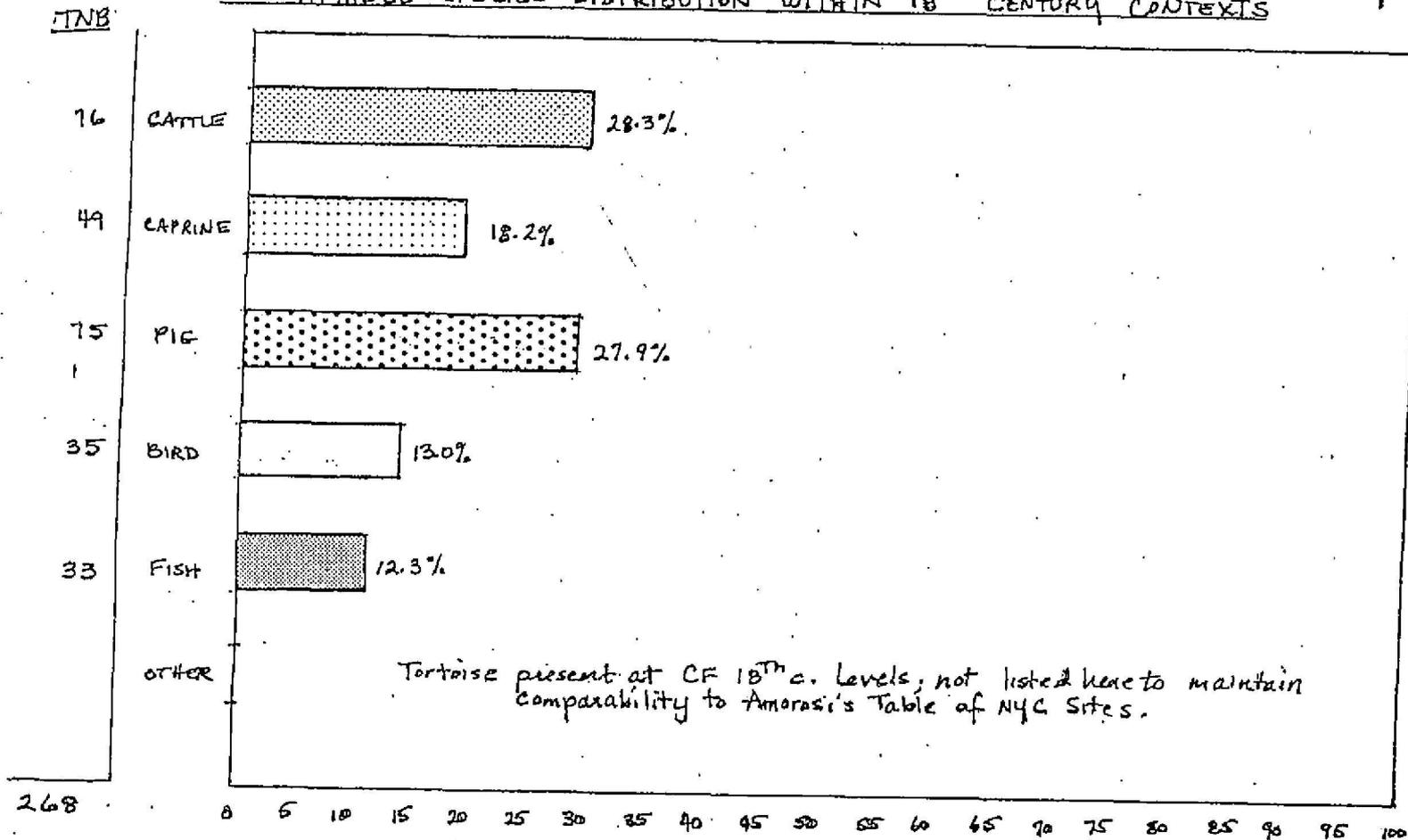
GRAPH 4

COMPARISON BETWEEN VOORLEZER HOUSE, BACKYARD AREA (18<sup>TH</sup> C.) AND CONFERENCE HOUSE (18<sup>TH</sup> C.)



GRAPH 5

MAJOR TAXA LIST COMPARABLE TO AMOROSI TABLE OF NYC SITES IN 18<sup>TH</sup> CENTURY,  
 IDENTIFIABLE SPECIES DISTRIBUTION WITHIN 18<sup>TH</sup> CENTURY CONTEXTS



From Faunal Report  
 T. Amarosi  
 City Hall Park Excavation  
 June 1990

Table 9: Ordinal counts and percentage breakdowns of the major taxa for eighteenth-century materials.

1700-1800	Major Taxa Comparisons						
	Cattle	Caprines	Horse	Pigs	Deer	Birds	Fish
NYC							
Almshouse CHP	15	16	0	7	0	40	101
Voolazer House	18	14	0	28	0	15	5
7 Hanover Sq.	1	1	0	2	0	0	0
Stadt Huys Block	82	68	0	123	2	119	109
Broad Street	59	77	0	19	2	89	40
175 Water Street	476	392	0	193	0	227	0
Butler-McCook, CT.	59	67	0	71	0	11	0
Old Bank Farm, RI	5	7	0	8	0	20	3
	Major Taxa Comparisons						
	Cattle	Caprines	Horse	Pigs	Deer	Birds	Fish
NYC							
Almshouse CHP	8.38	8.94	0.00	3.91	0.00	22.35	58.42
Voolazer House	22.50	17.50	0.00	35.00	0.00	18.75	6.25
7 Hanover Sq.	25.00	25.00	0.00	50.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Stadt Huys Block	16.30	13.52	0.00	24.45	0.40	23.66	21.67
Broad Street	20.63	26.92	0.00	6.64	0.70	31.12	13.99
175 Water Street	35.31	29.08	0.00	14.32	0.00	21.29	0.00
Butler-McCook, CT.	28.37	32.21	0.00	34.13	0.00	5.29	0.00
Old Bank Farm, RI	11.63	16.28	0.00	18.60	0.00	46.51	6.93