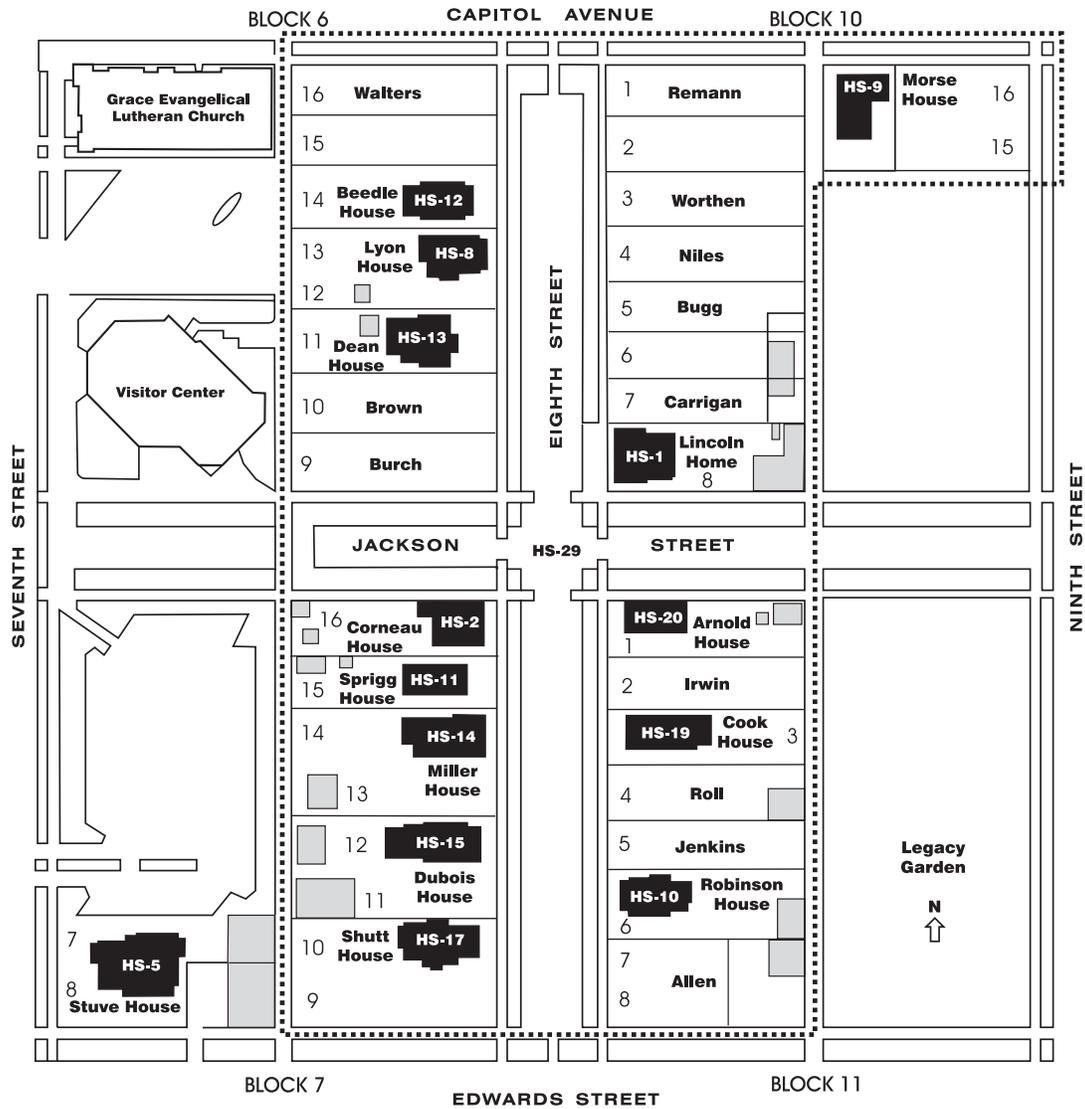


# Archeological Overview and Assessment of Lincoln Home National Historic Site, Sangamon County, Springfield, Illinois



National Park Service - Midwest Archeological Center

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of Lincoln Home National Historic Site,  
Sangamon County, Springfield, Illinois**

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This report has been reviewed against the criteria contained in 43CFR Part 7, Subpart A, Section 7.18 (a) (1) and, upon recommendation of the Midwest Regional Office and the Midwest Archeological Center, has been classified as

*Available*

Making the report available meets the criteria of 43CFR Part 7, Subpart A, Section 7.18 (a) (1).



## **Abstract**

Lincoln Home National Historic Site is located in urban Springfield, Illinois. It preserves the residence of the Abraham Lincoln family before the Civil War, as well as several other residences dating to the mid-19th century. A number of property lots within the park also formerly contained mid-19th-century houses and ancillary buildings. Lincoln's residence and nearby properties have been the subject of intermittent archeological investigation since 1951. This archeological overview and assessment study describes the environment of Lincoln Home National Historic Site, reviews the archeological investigations that have taken place there, and offers recommendations for future archeological research.

## Acknowledgments

There are a number of individuals from the National Park Service's Midwest Archeological Center who have provided assistance and information and who must be thanked at this time. I thank Mark Lynott and Tom Thiessen for offering me the opportunity to work on this project. Tom Thiessen also edited the initial manuscript and offered very useful advice and comments. Vergil Noble briefed me on the nature of the investigations that he and other personnel from the Center had conducted at Lincoln Home National Historic Site, and he also gave me a number of documents, reports, and manuscripts that contained significant information for the overview and assessment. Jeff Richner made a number of very helpful suggestions regarding important contacts, background information, and previous archeological investigations within Lincoln Home National Historic Site, and René Botts provided very useful information and access to the archeological collections and the archives that are curated at the Center in Lincoln.

I was warmly received at Lincoln Home National Historic Site by former Supervisory Curator Linda Norbut Suits, Superintendent Norman D. Hellmers, Chief of Maintenance Robert Dunham, Historian Tim Townsend, Archivist Mike Starasta, and Museum Technician Susan Haake. Linda Suits also took time from her busy schedule to give me a tour of Lincoln Home National Historic Site, and Susan Haake offered invaluable assistance both during my visit and later as I prepared this document. Floyd Mansberger of Fever River Research, Springfield, Illinois, graciously offered a tour of his research facilities and shared very significant information about his very systematic and thorough archeological investigations within Lincoln Home National Historic Site, as well as throughout other areas of Illinois. All of these individuals contributed to a productive and enjoyable visit to Springfield.

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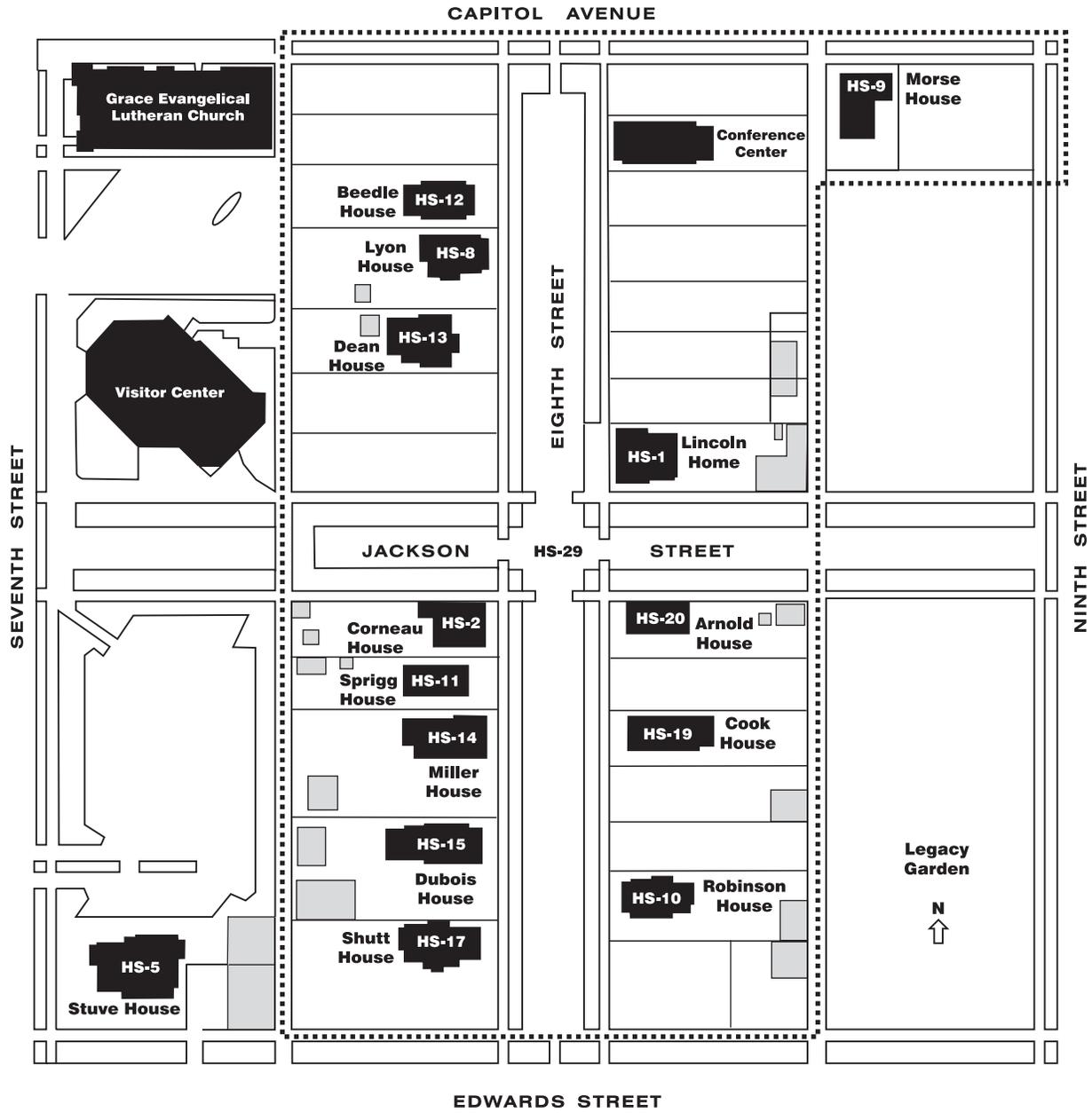


Figure 1. Lincoln Home National Historic Site. The Historic Zone is enclosed by the dotted line.

## Introduction

Abraham Lincoln's home in Springfield, Illinois, was acquired by the National Park Service (NPS) in October 1972. Prior to this time, the property had been open to the public as a state historic site. Lincoln's oldest son Robert Todd Lincoln donated the home to the State of Illinois in 1887. It became a national historic landmark in 1964. In 1966, a municipal planning ordinance created a "buffer zone" around Lincoln's home encompassing four city blocks. By the mid-1960s, over one-half million tourists visited this historic district each year, yet there were no interpretive programs in operation (National Park Service 1970).

In February 1969, Walquist Associates of Cambridge, Massachusetts, under sponsorship of the Abraham Lincoln Association and the Junior League of Springfield, released a comprehensive master plan (Walquist and Associates 1969). Planning committee members stated, "In essence, the plan proposed to recreate the environment that existed during Lincoln's period, retaining the changes in the character of the neighborhood through the 1880's, and also, to provide facilities for visitor understanding and appreciation of that period of his life" (National Park Service 1970:3).

On September 9, 1969, the Springfield City Council approved a resolution proposed by Mayor Nelson Howarth to make Lincoln's home a national historic site, which would be managed by the National Park Service. On February 10, 1970, the master plan for Lincoln Home National Historic Site (LIHO) was approved by Lemuel A. Garrison, Director of the Northeast Region of the National Park Service (National Park Service 1970).

At the same time, county and city planning commissions initiated a revitalization and rehabilitation project for the downtown area of Springfield. As a part of this development, the Old State Capitol, the Lincoln-Herndon Building, which was one of Lincoln's law offices, and the Lincoln Depot, which was the train depot from which Lincoln departed Springfield in February 1861, were all restored within several blocks of Lincoln's home.

### *Description of the Study Area*

Lincoln Home National Historic Site occupies four city blocks covering 4.95 hectares (12.24 acres) bounded by Capitol Avenue and Edwards Street on the north and south and Ninth and Seventh Streets on the east and west, respectively (Figure 1). The site's legal description is NE $\frac{1}{4}$ , SE $\frac{1}{4}$ , NW $\frac{1}{4}$ , Sec. 34, T16N, R5W, Sangamon County, Illinois (U.S. Geological Survey, Springfield West Quadrangle 7.5' 1950, 1965). The site is approximately 181 m (595 ft) above mean sea level.

The Historic Zone is located on 6.4 acres and contains 21 historic structure designations, which are listed in Table 1 and indicated below by HS- and the number. There are at least 14 residential structures, three barns, a carriage house, and a privy. The Historic Zone is centered on the intersection of 8th and Jackson Streets (HS-29), and the Lincoln House (HS-1) is on the northeast corner of this intersection.

The residential structures for two of Lincoln's neighbors, William Carrigan and Henry Burch, were razed during the 1800s, but LIHO resource management documents include plans to reconstruct these two contemporaneous houses, designated HS-25 and HS-26. The visitor center, parking lots, and the Lincoln Legacy Garden are located on 6.88 acres peripheral to the Historic Zone (National Park Service 1982).

Problematic structures within the park include a "modern," scaled-down version of the Ninian Edwards home, which is now a conference center, and the Stuve House (HS-5) and Stuve Carriage House (HS-7), which are not Lincoln-era structures.

### *Site Overview and Assessment*

This report provides an overview and assessment of archeological investigations conducted at LIHO during the past 49 years, which consist of limited archeological surveys and more extensive excavations. At this point one must ask how archeological excavations within the site can be expected to provide a

better understanding of the environmental, cultural, and historical context for Abraham Lincoln and his family during their residence in Springfield in the mid-1800s.

A Lincoln Home National Historic Site archeological overview and assessment was prepared as part of an effort to conduct archeological overview and assessment studies for many parks in the NPS Midwest Region. The NPS *Cultural Resource Management Guideline* (National Park Service 1997) describes an archeological overview and assessment study as a basic element of each park's archeological resource management program. An overview and assessment is a summary of the state of knowledge about a park's archeological resources; i.e., it "describes the area's environment and culture history; lists, describes, and evaluates past research in the area or region; outlines relevant research topics; and provides recommendations for future research" (National Park Service 1997:74). It is a vital component in the development of resource management plans, land protection plans, and interpretive prospectuses. It is also useful to archeologists conducting research in parks.

According to the guideline (National Park Service 1997:74), an archeological overview and assessment study should be completed early in the development of each park. Because few Midwest Region parks have completed archeological overview and assessment studies, the Midwest Archeological Center (MWAC) initiated a multiyear effort in Fiscal Year 1997 to systematically produce overview and assessment reports for most of the Midwest Region parks east of the Mississippi River.

The present overview and assessment study was initiated in Fiscal Year 1999 and was completed the following year. The author holds the Ph.D. degree from the University of New Mexico and is on the faculty of the Department of Anthropology of the University of Nebraska, Lincoln. He also holds an appointment with MWAC.

## Background

The following discussion of the biophysical and cultural setting is meant to provide the context for a more detailed examination and interpretation of the archeological record of the historic occupation of Springfield during the mid-1800s. It is within this regional and local context that Abraham Lincoln, his family, and the other citizens of Springfield lived their everyday lives. Finally, it was within this biophysical and cultural setting that the archeological record was generated.

### *Biophysical Setting*

Prior to Euroamerican settlement, tallgrass prairies covered more than 60 percent of the state. Although more than 850 plant species can be found throughout the Illinois prairies, three primary tallgrass species, which grew to heights of 9 ft, gave this community its name: big bluestem (*Andropogon gerardii*), Indian grass (*Sorghastrum nutans*), and prairie cordgrass (*Spartina* sp.). The prairies also contained porcupine grass, prairie dropseed, little bluestem, side-oats grama, June grass, western wheatgrass, plains muhly, and panic grass. The soils underlying the tallgrass prairies are quite fertile because of the large quantities of organic matter contributed each year by plant life, primarily by their belowground structures. Forbs included broomweed, scurf-pea, sunflower, goldenrod, and ragweed (Shelford 1974). This prairie-forest boundary falls within Bailey's (1995:46-48) temperate Prairie-Parkland Province or ecoregion. Within this ecoregion, the land-surface form consists of alternating prairie and deciduous forest superimposed upon "mostly gently rolling plains" (Bailey 1995:46).

According to King and Johnson (1977:155), the valley slope and upland groves "belong to the Oak-Hickory association" where the "dominant species are white oak (*Quercus alba*), with red oak (*Q. rubra*), black oak (*Q. velutina*), shagbark hickory (*Carya ovata*), slippery elm (*Ulmus rubra*), and American elm (*U. americana*)." Floodplain forests were dominated by silver maple (*Acer saccharinum*), green ash (*Fraxinus pennsylvanica*), hackberry (*Celtis* spp.), burr oak (*Q. macrocarpa*), and shingle oak (*Q. imbricaria*). These floodplain forests contained walnut, sycamore, linden, cottonwood, black and honey locust, pecan, cherry, and mulberry (Masters 1942:49).

Although floodplain forests and upland groves of majestic trees were found throughout the region, the rich land along the Sangamon River consisted primarily of tallgrass prairies and came to be known as the Sangamo country. In the grand scheme of things, however, forests represented relatively small areas. Consequently, timber for houses, barns, fences, and fuel was scarce. For example, in 1819 Ferdinand Ernst (1903:161-162) observed:

For whoever owns the woodlands of the Elkhart controls at the same time the greater part of the large and rich prairie surrounding it, where, on account of the scarcity of wood, it would be difficult to establish a farm.

... One of the greatest obstacles that may retard the rapid population of this district is the scarcity of wood; yet, there is sufficient timber for a moderate population.

The prairie and shortgrass communities of the Midwest and the West were maintained during early stages of succession by a combination of herbivore grazing pressure, drought, and fire. Anderson (1990:10-12) describes the west-to-east environmental gradient that characterizes the central grasslands of the United States, observing that "the frequency of the Pacific air mass decreases from west to east and the frequency of the Gulf air mass increases." As a result, both the quantity and the reliability of precipitation increases in the east, and droughts become less significant. These meteorological differences along the west-east gradient coincide with a shift from shortgrass plains to tallgrass prairies.

Anderson (1990:14) suggests that a number of ecologists "believe ... that for the last 5,000 years prairie vegetation in the eastern United States would have mostly disappeared if it had not been for the nearly annual burning of these grasslands by the North American Indians." Ernst (1903:159) described this regular burning as it was practiced in the early 1800s:

Every autumn the Indians within the entire circuit of their possessions hold a grand hunt. They set fire to the dry grass of the prairie, and the flame with incredible rapidity spreads over all the country. Before it all wild game flees, having been frightened from their safe retreats, and fall victim to the fatal shot of the red hunters. The destructive custom of burning off the prairies is the reason that timber is confined to the banks of streams and a few other places. The heat of the fire not only prevents entirely further extension of the forests but even diminishes their area.

Natural and human-induced fires played a significant role in the distribution of prairie and forest vegetation throughout the Illinois region. Summer-dominant rainfall patterns and associated thunderstorm activity determined the frequency of lightning-induced fires in the grasslands. In addition, a number of investigators have noted the importance of topographic relief for determining the geographic distribution of both lightning- and human-induced fires (Anderson 1990:14).

Prairie fires were a significant concern in the lives of early settlers in Sangamo country. In 1835, Alfred Brunson (1968:162) described prairie fires in Illinois and this one in particular:

The last 12 miles we traveled after sundown, & by fire light over Prairie, it being on fire. This was the grandest scene I ever saw, the wind blew a gale all day, the grass was dry, & the fire being in the Prairie, at a distance .... As the dark came on, the fire shone more brilliant. A cloud of smoke arose on which the fire below shone, & the reflection could be seen for miles – in some instances 40. .... By this means we had in view at one time from one to 5 miles of fire in a streak, burning from 2 to 6 feet high. In high grass it sometimes burns 30 feet high, if driven by fierce winds.

Reptiles that appear to have posed significant problems for the early Euroamerican settlers of Sangamon County included two venomous snakes — copperheads (*Agkistrodon* sp.) and rattlesnakes (*Croatus* sp.). Mammal communities for the region consisted of both prairie and forest species (Burt and Grossenheider 1952):

bison	<i>Bison bison</i>	mink	<i>Mustela vison</i>
elk	<i>Cervus</i> sp.	beaver	<i>Castor canadensis</i>
deer	<i>Odocoileus virginianus</i>	muskrat	<i>Ondatra zibethica</i>
rabbit	<i>Sylvilagus floridanus</i>	longtail weasel	<i>Mustela frenata</i>
red squirrel	<i>Tamiasciurus hudsonicus</i>	raccoon	<i>Procyon lotor</i>
eastern gray squirrel	<i>Sciurus carolinensis</i>	gray wolf	<i>Canis lupus</i>
eastern fox squirrel	<i>Sciurus niger</i>	coyote	<i>Canis latrans</i>
southern flying squirrel	<i>Glaucomys volans</i>	red fox	<i>Vulpes fulva</i>
eastern chipmunk	<i>Tamias striatus</i>	gray fox	<i>Urocyon cinereoargenteus</i>
badger	<i>Taxidea taxus</i>	bobcat	<i>Lynx rufus</i>
river otter	<i>Lutra canadensis</i>	black bear	<i>Ursus americanus</i>

The climate of Springfield and the surrounding countryside is conditioned by principal storm tracks, which can be quite variable, particularly in winter. Summers are warm and winters are moderately cold. The following summary is based on data compiled by the Department of Commerce (1979) and Page (1949). Average annual temperature was 11.83° C (53.3° F), and average monthly temperatures ranged from a low of -2.44° C (27.6° F) to a high of 25.28° C (77.5° F) (Figure 2). Springfield experiences an average of 118 days per year with a minimum temperature of 0° C (32° F) or less. Average annual precipitation from 1880 to 1946 was 91.52 cm (36.03 in). Average precipitation ranged from 5.23 cm (2.06 in) during December and January to 9.08 cm (4.41 in) in May. Average annual snowfall for Springfield during a 31-year period was 60.45 cm (23.8 in). The average length of the frost-free season for a 65-year period was 187 days, from about April 15 through about October 19.

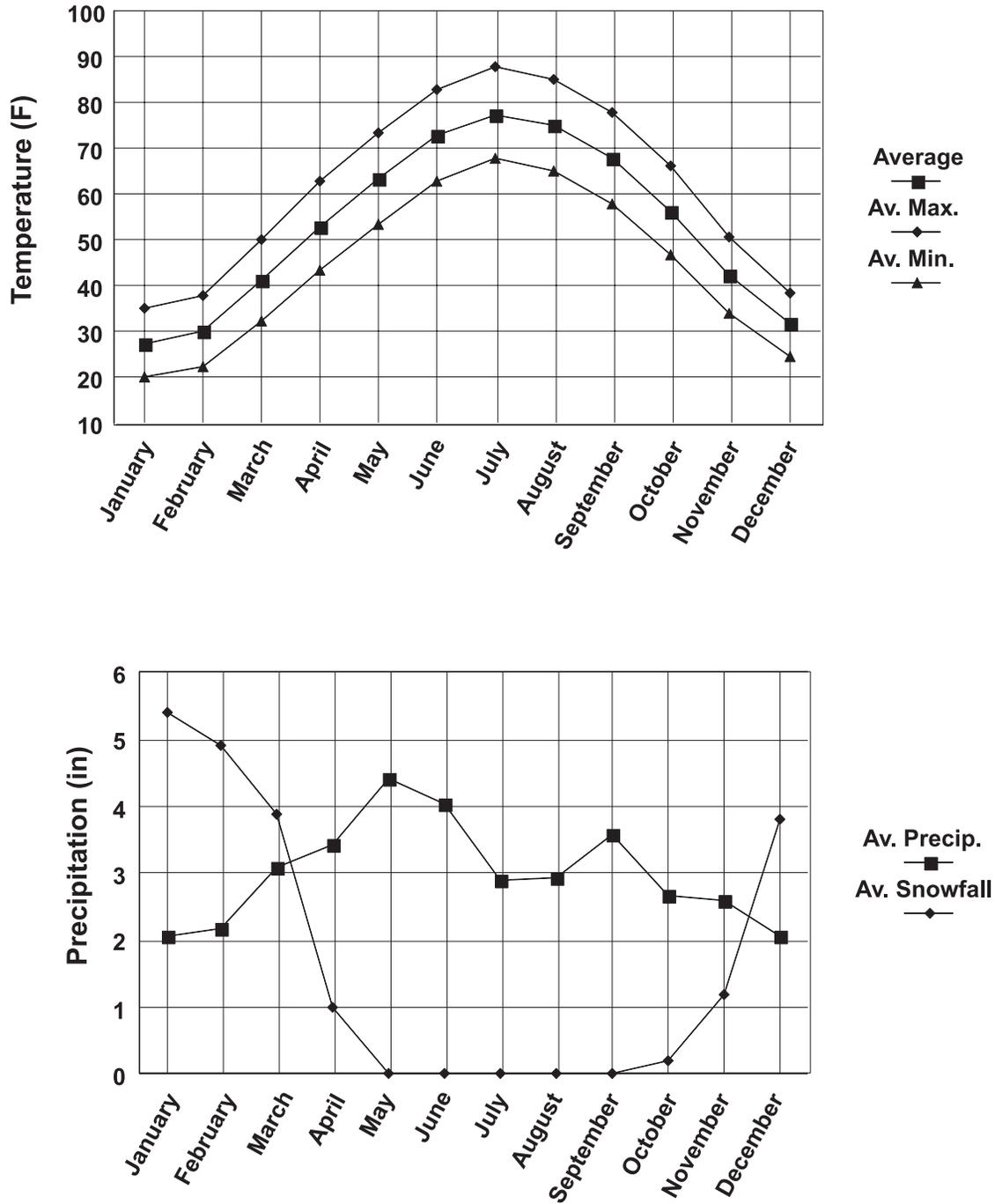


Figure 2. Average monthly temperatures (top) and precipitation (bottom) for Springfield, Illinois, 1880–1946.

## Cultural Setting

### Rural and Urban Life in the Sangamo Country

Springfield is situated between two tributaries of the Sangamon River, with Spring Creek to the north and west and Sugar Creek to the east and south. Masters (1942:8) states that “In the Pottawattamie language Sangamon means ‘where there is plenty to eat.’” Charlevoix traveled through this country in 1721 and referred to the Sangamon River as the Sa-qui-mont (Masters 1942:8). Masters (1942:9) also suggests that the Sangamon River was the *ong* ‘place’ or ‘location’ of the *Saukie* ‘Sauk tribe.’

It was a common land-use practice of the first Euroamerican settlers to establish their homesteads along the edges of the upland prairie and the heavily forested valleys of stream drainages (Figures 3 and 4). This was done to gain access to water, fuel, building materials, and fertile farmland (Masters 1942; Buley 1950:142). It is generally understood that the fertile prairie soils could not be used effectively by farmers until the self-scouring steel-bladed plow was developed in 1838 by John Deere and Major Leonard Andrus in Grand Detour, Illinois.

The early Euroamerican settlement of the Sangamo country, or the prairie region surrounding Springfield, is discussed in considerable detail by Angle (1935), Masters (1942), Farager (1986), and Ahler et al. (1994:151–158). The Kellys were among the first families to settle in the Springfield area near the Sangamon River in 1818 (Masters 1942:49). Ernst (1903:159) stated that, “one must regard as venturesome daredevils all settlers who this early located here for they trespassed upon the possessions of the Indians, and ran the risk of being driven out, or killed during the great annual hunt of the Indians.” By 1823, Springfield “was only a frontier village of a dozen log cabins,” and within 14 years, the town had grown to 1,500 inhabitants (Masters 1942:171). Historical accounts of Springfield and the Sangamo country repeatedly describe the difficulties and hardships that settlers endured in both rural and urban environments.

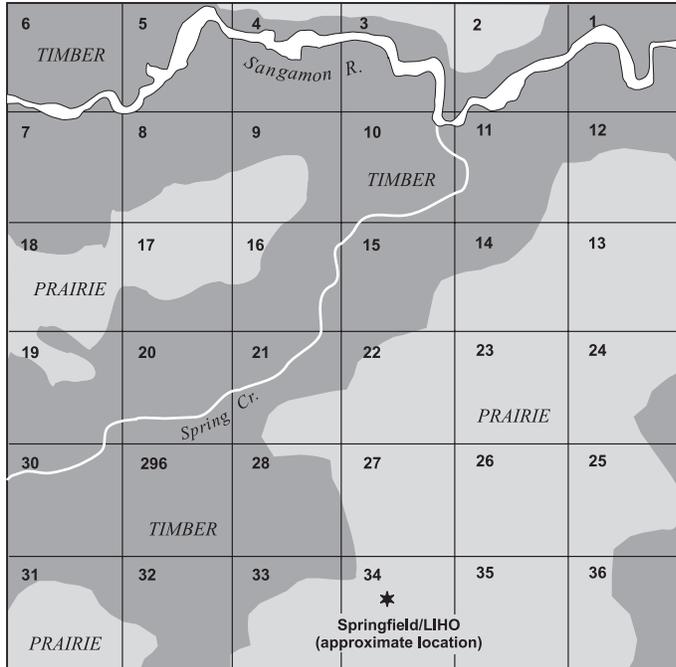


Figure 3. The distribution of timberlands and prairie in the Springfield area. Redrawn from 1821 Land Survey Map, Township 16 North, Range 5 West, completed by Deputy Surveyor Angus Lewis Langham under contract for William Rector, Surveyor General.

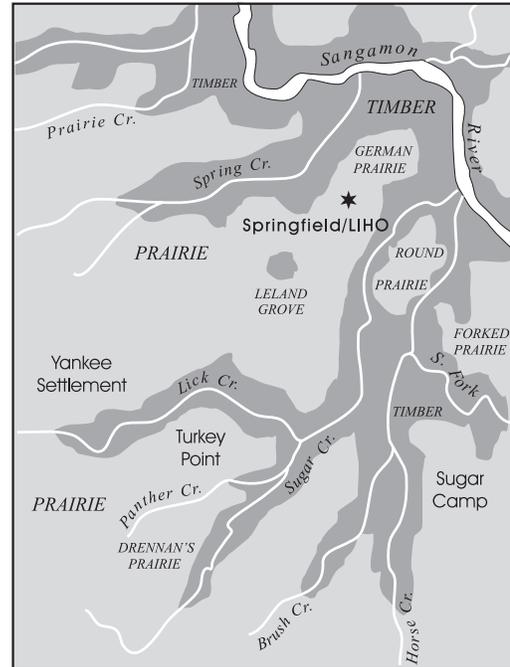


Figure 4. The Sangamo country in 1831. Redrawn from Farager (1986:78).

Springfield and Sangamon County underwent dramatic changes during the mid-1800s. Springfield formally became the capital of Illinois on July 4, 1839. Angle (1935:155, 165) provides the following economic and demographic figures for the young capital and adjacent farmlands. The population of Springfield increased steadily between 1840 and 1848 from 2,600 to 3,900 inhabitants. With the coming of the Sangamon and Morgan Railroad between 1848 and 1850, the population grew from 3,900 to 5,100. During the 17 years, from 1844 to 1861, that Abraham Lincoln and his family lived in the house at Eighth and Jackson Streets, the population of Springfield increased from 3,900 to more than 9,400.

The Alton and Sangamon Railroad was completed, and the agricultural economy of the Sangamo country expanded rapidly. In 1850, the agricultural community of Springfield exported 100,000 bushels of wheat, 350,000 bushels of rye and oats, 3,300,000 bushels of corn, and 120,000 pounds of wool. More than 120,000 hogs were shipped from the Springfield district. Farms, hog-raising operations, local grain

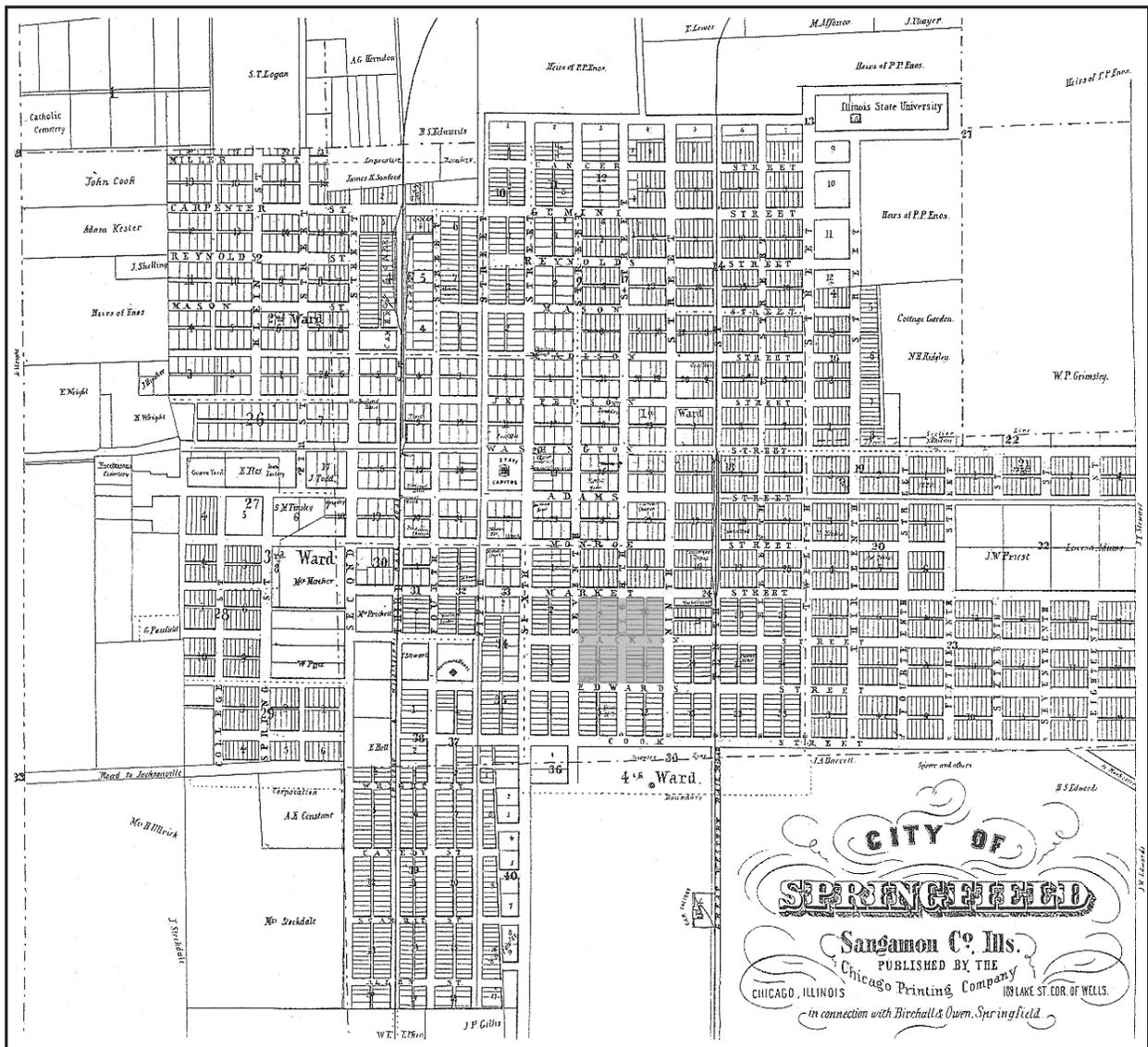


Figure 5. First printed map of the City of Springfield, Sangamon County, Illinois, 1855–1856. From E. H. Hall’s Springfield City Directory and Sangamon County Advertiser for 1855–1856, reproduced in Angle (1935). The map has been slightly modified for this report — the gray-shaded area indicates the extent of Lincoln Home National Historic Site as shown in detail in Figures 1 and 7.

mills, breweries, distilleries, and agricultural implement dealers benefited yet again by the completion of the Great Western Railroad. During the mid-1850s, the Chicago–Alton Railroad delivered sizeable loads of lumber, lime, and coal to supply the needs of a commercial and residential construction boom. The economy survived the Panic of 1853. Property values in Springfield increased fourfold, from \$1 million to \$4.4 million, during the period from 1847 to 1858.

### ***Human Health Conditions***

The Lincoln years in Springfield saw sustained growth and prosperity (Figure 5), but the living conditions in Springfield were not as idyllic as a visitor to today’s LIHO might be led to believe.

Soon after Springfield became the state capital, its citizens hoped that living conditions throughout the city would change for the better. Newspaper editors, as well as the public in general, complained loudly about the knee-deep mud that filled the streets after heavy rains and melting snows (Angle 1935: 90–91). Angle (1935:91) also states that, “second only to the mud as a subject of public-spirited indignation was the hog nuisance. Hogs ranged at will through the streets, wallowed in the mud holes, disputed the narrow sidewalks with pedestrians, and rooted up the boards at frequent intervals.” Some “Springfielders” argued, however, that hogs actually served the garbage disposal needs of the community and supplied meat for the poor. Others countered by declaring that “a dead hog was never known to have an owner” (Angle 1935:91). There were additional sanitation problems that plagued Springfield during the 1840s. According to Angle (1935:92):

Piles of manure were permitted to accumulate around the stables; privies were often neglected; and too frequently the gutters became dumping grounds for discarded clothing, trash, and garbage. In the summers, flies abounded, and with heat, the stench from filth was sometimes sickening.

There were other health risks encountered throughout the Sangamo country, as well as throughout the Middle West. These threats included diseases such as scarlet fever, diphtheria, measles, mumps, smallpox, whooping cough, pneumonia or “lung fever,” typhoid or “brain fever,” cholera, and syphilis. People throughout Illinois also suffered from threats that included poisonous copperhead snakes and rattlesnakes, erysipelas (St. Anthony’s Fire, or aflatoxins produced by fungal growth on grain), *morbo lacteo* or “milk sickness,” which is caused by toxins in cattle forage, and mercury poisoning caused by the ingestion of calomel medicine or mercurous chloride (Buley 1950; Farager 1986).

Illinois had a reputation as an unhealthy country. According to Buley (1950:245), “A Wisconsin pioneer frankly admitted that when he went to that place he ‘had a wholesome fear of two things: fever and ague, and rattlesnakes.’ ” Late summer and fall proved to be frightening times since these seasons frequently brought epidemics and outbreaks of various infectious diseases. Bilious and autumnal fevers, flux, diarrhea, and brain fever (typhoid) struck at these times. These diseases were thought to be caused by “night air, putrid vegetable and animal matter in the air, grief, fear, unripe fruit, want of sleep, and intense thought” (Buley 1950:247).

Ague, or malaria, was so common in this region that it was accepted along with hard work as one of the demands of the “every day” frontier. Buley (1950:244) states, “The symptoms were unmistakable: yawnings and stretching, a feeling of lassitude, blueness of the fingernails, then little cold sensations which increased until the victim’s teeth chattered in his jaws and he ‘felt like a harp with a thousand strings.’ ” Malaria was thought to be caused by “malarial gases” released from low-lying floodplains upon plowing. Again, Buley (1950:243) describes that outbreak of malaria during the fall of 1819, at which time “the angel of disease and death, ascending from his oozy bed, along the marshy margin of the [Scioto River] bottom grounds ... floats in his aerial chariot, and in seasons favorable to his prowess, spreads mortal desolation as he flies.”

Early pioneers apparently never realized the causal connection between the anopheles mosquito and malaria; instead they believed it to arise from marsh gases and related “influences.” The malarial parasite was carried by mosquitoes and introduced into the human bloodstream during episodes of feeding and blood exchange. Farager (1986:89) points out that “no reports of the fever in the West exist before the

1760s, but by 1800, after the influx of larger numbers of settlers, traders, and troops into Illinois, several malarial epidemics had decimated whole communities.” The warm and humid cabins of the earliest white settlers provided very suitable habitat for mosquitoes (Farager 1986:90). Furthermore, the anopheles mosquito breeds in sunlit pools of standing water and probably spread throughout the Midwest with the expansion of white settlement and the clearing of the forests within stream drainages.

Malaria was debilitating and adversely affected work in the fields, farms, and households. Domestic tasks and every aspect of community life were scheduled around the “fits” and fevers of those who had contracted malaria (Buley 1950:245). Treatments for malaria included a variety of potions made from fir balsam bark and yellow birch, sassafras, Jesuit bark, calomel (mercurous chloride), saltpeter, spirits of niter, steel dust, cobwebs, and vitriol (Buley 1950:246). Interestingly, Jesuit bark (cinchona or Peruvian bark) contains quinine sulfate, an anti-malarial compound, that was initially isolated from Peruvian bark in 1820 in Paris (Buley 1950:246). Quinine sulfate was first produced in the United States by a Philadelphia chemist in 1823.

A second major health threat for the settlers of the Sangamo country during the mid-1800s was cholera, which is caused by the bacterium *Vibrio cholerae*. Cholera bacteria are usually transmitted via drinking water supplies. The bacteria radically alter the electrolyte balance of the human body; as a result, the victim suffers from extreme diarrhea and subsequent dehydration. Today, people may be treated for cholera by means of antibiotics and oral rehydration therapy. Virulent strains of cholera generally subside in a region once clean drinking water and sewage disposal systems are put into place. The lack of adequate urban sanitation systems throughout the eastern and midwestern United States during the 1800s is responsible for the transmission of cholera from person to person.

The first documented cases of cholera in Springfield occurred in November 1832, when several Springfield residents died. These cases are probably linked to the 1832 cholera epidemic that spread through New York City and other cities in the East and Midwest. Cholera struck Chicago citizens in July and August of 1832; more than 3,000 people died. The death toll in New Orleans in October was 4,340. A cholera epidemic struck Jacksonville, Illinois, during the next year, 1833. Seventeen Springfield residents died within one month in 1834. After that, cholera did not reappear in Springfield until 1850, when several citizens died. This outbreak followed an epidemic in New York City that killed more than 5,000. Mild epidemics occurred in Springfield in 1851, 1854, and 1855. There were no reported cases of cholera after 1856 (Angle 1935:42–43, 166–167).

### **Modes of Transportation**

One of the major factors that led to dramatic growth and changes in Springfield and the lives of its citizens was the development of reliable modes of transportation and shipping. The establishment of reliable transportation greatly facilitated immigration, movement of people between urban areas, and the importation of diverse goods and the exportation of local agricultural and industrial products. Additionally, more rapid transportation also meant that infectious diseases could be transmitted more effectively throughout Illinois and the Midwest via the St. Lawrence River; the Great Lakes; the Illinois, Ohio, and Mississippi Rivers; and the extensive canal systems.

*Early Paths and Trails.* Initially, Euroamerican settlement of the Springfield area and the Sangamo country corresponded to the geography of well-established trails throughout the region. The first trail was a single rut across the prairie from Cahokia and the American Bottom to Sugar Creek. From there, the trail widened into a travois path over which the Kickapoo transported sugar-processing implements and facilities, as well as the final product — maple sugar (Farager 1986:24). This trail, which was known as the “Old Indian Trail” and Edwards’ Trace, ran northeastward from the American Bottom district near Cahokia to the headwaters of Sugar Creek and along the southeastern side of Sugar Creek across the Sangamon River and on northward to the Peoria region (Figure 4; Paul 1815; Farager 1986:23; Ahler et al. 1994:156–157). Regarding this trail, Farager (1986:23) states:

Traders of John Jacob Astor’s Southwest Company used this trail in 1816 to import over eighteen thousand dollars’ worth of trade goods into central Illinois, and to export to St. Louis Indian commodities worth almost

twenty-four thousand dollars, including 10,000 deer hides, 35,000 muskrat pelts, 300 beaver skins, hundreds of packs of beaver, otter, mink, cat, and fox furs, as well as over 10,000 pounds of maple sugar mocoeks. The Sangamon Kickapoo must have produced some proportion of this sugar during the late winter of 1816 in the grove along Sugar Creek.

Ahler et al. (1994:157–158) suggested:

It is not unreasonable to suspect that this trail could have extended back to prehistoric Mississippian times (ca. 1000–1400 AD) or even earlier. ... [A second trail extending west from the junction of Edwards' Trace with the Sangamon River] might have served to connect the Illinois River valley to the upland prairie district immediately north of the Sangamo country as well as the north–south Edwards' Trace.

*Roads and Stagecoaches.* Edwards' Trace served as one of the stagecoach routes that ultimately connected Springfield to Peoria, Peru, Ottawa, Joliet, Lockport, and Chicago. Stages made frequent trips between these cities, and fares were generally low. For example, one could travel from Springfield to Peoria for \$4.00 or to Chicago for \$12.00 (Angle 1935:149). Today, these coach fares would be \$66.08 and \$198.24, respectively. The journey to Chicago from Springfield required 3 days without “riding nights” (Angle 1935:149). Stagecoaches were quite well built and were drawn by four horses, and many of the streams were crossed via bridges. Stage travel was particularly important, given the failure of the Northern Cross railroad, the first railroad to reach Springfield (Angle 1935: 149). Although stages proved to be a very important mode of transportation, there were several major drawbacks, including rain-soaked roads and washed-out bridges.

*Water Travel.* As early as 1819, Ferdinand Ernst (1903: 162) foresaw the importance of water travel and transport to the Sangamo country and to Illinois in general:

These two rivers [Sangamon and Onaquispasippi] will not only open up a market for all produce in the direction of St. Louis and New Orleans, but their proximity to the Illinois River will in time furnish this region with another very promising prospect by the lake to New York City by means of the canal now in progress connecting that city and Lake Erie.

Ernst (1903:162) proposed that a 12-mile-long canal could connect Lake Michigan and the Upper Illinois River. He saw that Illinois could ultimately be linked via 3,000 miles of waterways to extensive market networks in New York and in New Orleans. In addition, Ernst also pointed out that much of Illinois is interconnected by means of various major tributaries of the Mississippi River.

In 1835, the Illinois State Legislature agreed to appropriate sufficient funds to begin construction of the 160-km (96-mi) Illinois and Michigan Canal, or I&M Canal (Putnam 1918). Lake Michigan was ultimately connected to the Illinois River and the I&M Canal through a 9.2-km (5.5-mi) section of the Chicago River. The I&M Canal was then to parallel the Illinois River southwestward from Bridgeport, Illinois, to Peru and Ottawa, Illinois (Putnam 1918:frontispiece). The canal itself was excavated by hand; it was roughly 20 m (60 ft) wide and 2 m (6 ft) deep. Construction of the canal began in June 1836 and was completed in April 1848. Many canal workers died during this 12-year period from cholera and other waterborne diseases. The total cost for the I&M Canal was \$6.1 million (today's cost \$120.1 million).

Canal barges were drawn by teams of mules, and a series of 14 locks raised and lowered the canal barges. The I&M Canal established an all-water route from central Illinois to the Great Lakes and the East Coast, as well as to the Mississippi River valley and New Orleans on the Gulf of Mexico. Chicago soon became a major inland shipping port through which vast quantities of merchandise, lumber, iron, sugar, salt, coal, and coffee were imported, and corn, furs, wheat and flour, beef, hides, pork, wool, and lard were exported (Putnam 1918:108). These items were unloaded at commercial towns along the Illinois River and its tributaries, including Springfield, Illinois.

Remarkably, keel boats, barges, and steamboats became significant transportation and shipping links between the Atlantic Ocean via the St. Lawrence, the Great Lakes, the Erie Canal system, and the Ohio–Illinois–Mississippi river systems. For example, Buley (1950:423) states, “By 1834, the tonnage of the

Ohio and Mississippi steamboats exceeded that of the Atlantic seaboard or the British Empire.” Upstream freight traffic on the Mississippi River in 1834 was approximately 1.2 million tons (Buley 1950:427). Steamboats traveling on the Mississippi and Ohio Rivers were threatened by sand bars, submerged snags, and “sawyers,” which are submerged trees lying flat beneath the currents that fanned back and forth across the channels. Between 1822 and 1827, more than \$1.36 million in cargo, which is about \$18.82 million in today’s dollars, was lost to steamboat boiler explosions, fires, and sinkings.

Efforts to link Springfield to more distant markets via the Sangamon–Illinois–Mississippi river systems started in the early 1830s. In late March 1832, the steamboat *Talisman* successfully navigated the Sangamon River and docked at the Portland landing across the river from Springfield; it was laden with 150 tons of cargo (Masters 1942:173). A second attempt in 1836 to reach Springfield via the Sangamon River failed when the steamboat *Utility* terminated its trip at Petersburg (Masters 1942:174).

*Railroads.* The Northern Cross was the first railroad to connect Springfield and the Illinois River (Angle 1935:144–147). Its construction began in 1838, and it reached Springfield in February 1842. It was initially thought that the Northern Cross would provide access to more distant markets for Sangamon County, as well as six additional counties along the route (Angle 1935:145). The Northern Cross Railroad was supposed to serve as a shipping line from Springfield west to Meredosia on the east bank of the Illinois River. From Meredosia, agricultural products would be shipped southward on the Illinois River to the Mississippi River and on downstream to New Orleans (Angle 1935:144–145). Unfortunately, Springfield’s access to the New Orleans markets was superceded by shipments from farmers living closer to the Mississippi and Ohio riverways. Market prices fell relatively sharply as surplus commodities accumulated from these other agricultural sources (Angle 1935:146–147). Ironically, farmers in the Sangamo country eventually realized that market prices for their crops were much higher in New York.

The early railroad was fraught with significant logistical problems, some of which involved rail and tie construction methods. Furthermore, steam engines frequently ran out of fuel, water supplies were constrained by logistics of water tank installation and frozen water hoses in winter, and facilities for repairing steam engines and for maintaining the trains were often inadequate (Angle 1935:148).

In 1847, the Northern Cross Railroad was sold for \$21,000, and a charter for a new Springfield-to-Alton railroad was secured (Angle 1935:153). By 1852, the Alton and Sangamon Railroad was completed and connected Alton, Illinois, to Springfield. In 1853, the line was continued northward from the capital city to Bloomington in 1853. In 1854, this rail system was connected to Chicago, and within a year the line ran from Alton, Illinois, to St. Louis, Missouri (Angle 1935:163).

Railroads were important to agriculturally productive regions like the Sangamo country, given their lower shipping costs (Angle 1935:151–155). A bushel of wheat could be shipped from Springfield to St. Louis for \$0.15. A hog could be shipped by rail for \$0.50; whereas, the typical “pig drive” resulted in a loss of \$1.50–\$2.00 per animal. Agricultural intensification did not begin in Sangamon County until such connections were established to more distant markets (Figure 6). About 50 percent of the arable land surrounding Springfield was cultivated in 1850; that year Sangamon County farmers produced 100,000 bushels of wheat, 350,000 bushels of rye and oats, over 3 million bushels of corn, and 120,000 pounds of wool.

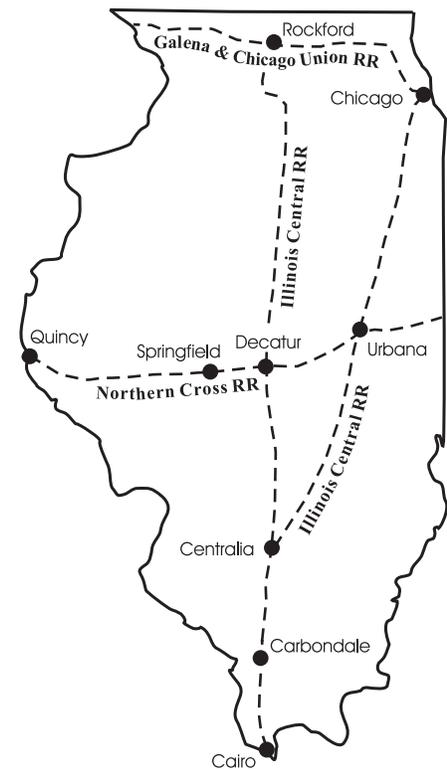


Figure 6. The railroads of Illinois between 1842 and 1858, after Angle (1968).

## Industry and Agriculture

Much of the industry within Springfield at this time was closely tied to agriculture (Angle 1935:155–156). These industries included flour mills, pork packing plants, two foundries that produced iron plows, distilleries, breweries, and two brickyards. A diverse range of essential items including cabinets, furniture, shoes and boots, harnesses, trunks, wagons and carriages, cordage, clothes, hats, small metal items, and watches were manufactured within Springfield. It is important at this point, from an archeological perspective, to emphasize that “the majority of the manufactured articles which a typical resident of Springfield bought in any year from 1840 to 1850 were made by hand within the city limits” (Angle 1935:156). This situation has significant implications for the content diversity of the archeological record of Springfield.

As mentioned, the Sangamo country became an important pork production area within the Midwest. The rise of the pork industry in and around Springfield was, in great part, a function of the tremendous agricultural productivity of the region. In his overview of economic and ecological bases for pork, corn, and cattle production from the 1700s through the late 1800s in the United States, Ross (1980:193) states:

As population pushed west after the revolution, hogs thrived in the sparsely settled, wooded countryside where they were permitted to range freely — usually needing only brief fattening on corn in autumn to ready them for market.

Ross suggests that hogs provided an efficient way to convert carbohydrate-rich grain (corn) into high-quality animal protein and/or fat (lard). Following the American Revolution, hogs were driven from the corn-rich Midwest to the eastern cities along trails and roads that crossed the Appalachian Mountains. To the west of the Appalachians, corn was grown in abundance; it was used as hog feed and for making hominy and homemade whiskey (Ross 1980) — three ways of “storing” corn. In this context Midwesterners “originated and perfected the system which packs 15 bushels of corn into a pig and packs that pig into a barrel, and sends him over the mountains/seas [or inland riverways] to feed mankind” (Clemen 1923:93). Interestingly, Ross (1980:194) also points out that an important by-product of corn-fed hogs was lamp oil; in Cincinnati alone more than 1.2 million gallons of “hog oil” were produced each year during the 1840s (Clark 1916:493).

Springfield’s pork-packing industry expanded during the 1840s. Hogs were butchered, pickled in brine solution, and packed into wooden barrels (Angle 1935). The “pork barrel” method of meat processing enabled pig producers to ship their product over considerable distances and to take advantage of more distant market opportunities. As Ross (1980) points out, agricultural products — including “pork in a barrel” — were shipped via the Mississippi and Ohio river systems from the Midwest to the South, where relatively little food was grown in favor of cotton, an inedible cash crop (Ross 1980). In 1843, approximately 7,000 to 8,000 hogs were killed, butchered, packed into barrels, and shipped from Springfield; within five years, more than 120,000 hogs were raised in the Springfield area and 15,000 hogs were packed into “pork barrels” for shipment. (Angle 1935:156). Ross (1980) also points out that hogs are metabolically quite efficient, they produce large litters of offspring, and they do not require a substantial investment of capital. Consequently, he emphasizes, hog raising provided an effective buffer against fluctuating corn prices and the uncertain future of banking during the early 1800s.

Between 1850 and 1860, during Lincoln’s residency in Springfield, the city’s population increased from 4,500 to 9,400 people, and technological and economic changes occurred within the greater Sangamon County area (Angle 1935:160–165). Farming became increasingly mechanized with the availability of steel plows designed and manufactured by John Deere in Moline, Illinois, and reapers developed by Cyrus McCormick. Springfield’s industries, including four flour and lumber mills, several distilleries, and a cabinet-making shop, used steam engines that burned coal mined from local outcrops, saving scarce local wood for other needs. The Sangamo country was undergoing dramatic cultural changes that entailed moving from rural-based subsistence agriculture to commerce and small-scale industry.

## Archeological Investigations

### *Previous Investigations*

Archeological studies within the Lincoln neighborhood began with the excavations of Richard S. Hagen, archeologist for the Illinois Department of Public Works and Buildings. He conducted fairly large scale excavations in the backyard of the Lincoln House in late summer 1951 (Illinois State Register 1951; Hagen 1951; Mansberger 1987). Since that time, nearly 30 archeological projects have been carried out within LIHO (Table 2), and about 882 m<sup>2</sup> have been excavated (Table 3). These projects have been directed by Floyd Mansberger, formerly with Northern Illinois University and currently with Fever River Research, Springfield, Illinois, as well as Leslie Perry, Vergil Noble, and Forest Frost of MWAC. In 1977, Robert Nickel, MWAC, and Dr. John Weymouth, University of Nebraska, completed a magnetometer survey of the Corneau House lot.

Historic architecture and landscape studies have been completed by Banton et al. (1987); Bearss (1969, 1973, 1977); Ferry and Henderson Architects (1977, 1980, 1981, 1984); Fischer-Wisnosky Architects (1991, 1994, 1995, n.d.); Harvey and Clarke (1982); Krupka (1988, 1991); Kunkel (1984); LANDSCAPES et al. (1997); Mansberger et al. (1992); Menz (1983); and, Walquist and Associates (1969). The nomination of LIHO for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places was completed in 1976, and the documentation is on file at the Illinois Historic Preservation Agency Office in Springfield (Ortega 1976).

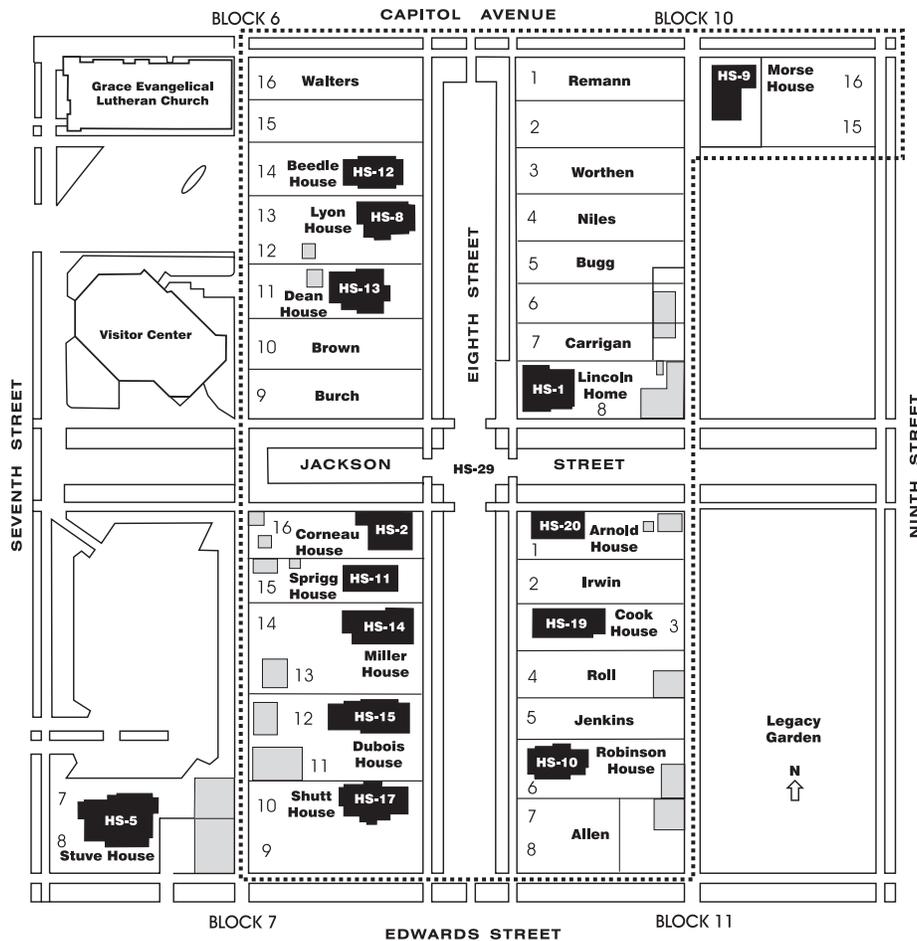


Figure 7. House lots identified by block and lot number and by historic ownership. The Historic Zone is enclosed by the dotted line.

The following is a descriptive summary of archeological investigations conducted during the past 49 years within various city blocks and corresponding house lots included in LIHO (Figure 7). Structures and lots are identified below by historic ownership and/or occupancy. Historic structure (HS) numbers and trinomial site numbers are listed in Table 1.

### **Block 6, Lots 11 and 12, Dean House**

Between June 26 and August 9, 1989, an archeological crew under the direction of Vergil Noble examined subsurface deposits beneath the former front porch area at the Harriet Dean House (Noble 1989b). Two brick porch piers were located during excavation. Noble returned to the Dean House in July and August 1991 to obtain further information about the brick foundation of the house, a small attached wash house, and a portion of the yard near the south porch (Noble 1991). Test excavations were also carried out along the rear alley, where intact archeological deposits were found beneath a layer of fill. Noble (1991) emphasized that these deposits should be protected from further disturbance. Remnants of a small brick shed foundation that had been attached to the main house by a breezeway were also located during this field season. Three 0.5-m by 0.5-m test units (TUs) were excavated in the basement floor during July 1992, and several nondiagnostic artifacts were recovered; but deposits beneath the floor appeared to be relatively sterile (Noble 1992).

Mansberger (1998) recently completed large-scale archeological investigations in the backyard of the Dean House, which is located on Lots 11 and 12, Block 6, of the Elijah Iles Addition to the city. The objective of these investigations was to locate the Dean House carriage barn and other outbuildings and features (Mansberger 1998:1). Mansberger's (1998:14, Fig. 8) excavations exposed 82.1 m<sup>2</sup> (882 ft<sup>2</sup>) at the western end of Lot 11 and a small area within Lot 10 to the south. The 1884 Sanborn map was used to estimate the coordinates for the southeast, northeast, and northwest corners of the carriage barn, where they placed three test excavations to locate subsurface evidence for the corners of the structure (Mansberger 1998:12).

Twelve features were located within the limits of a large block excavation: a pit, six privies, two wall sections, a clinker pit, a keyhole cellar, and a mortar concentration (Mansberger 1998:22, Table 3). These features ranged in age from 1840–1845 to 1965–1970. Based on the large sample of artifacts from his backyard excavations (Table 3, n.1), Mansberger (1998) provides useful observations regarding the quality of life for the citizens during the mid-1800s in Springfield. Within his detailed artifact descriptions, Mansberger notes many examples of personal and household items that can provide important insights into mid-1800s healthcare. This subject, in fact, is one of Mansberger's major interests in 19th-century Springfield (Mansberger, personal communication 1999).

Mansberger's (1998) excavations also helped clarify the nature of cultural features and former structures in the rear portion of the Dean lot. During the late 1830s and the first half of the 1840s, a small open dwelling and a privy were constructed along the property line of Lot 11 (Mansberger 1998:78). A small carriage house, which was most probably constructed after Harriet Dean purchased the property in 1849, enclosed about 400 ft<sup>2</sup> and was deemed suitable for stabling one horse. After the Civil War (late 1860s to early 1870s), a new or remodeled carriage barn was constructed that measured 20 ft by 36.5 ft. As will be mentioned later, Mansberger (1998:82) stated that only one-half of Features 2, 4, 5, and 6 were excavated. The remaining portion of Features 2, 4, and 5 may contain information regarding the presence of parasites in human fecal remains. The study of privy contents aside from artifacts may give us added insights into the quality of life across socioeconomic gradients within Springfield.

### **Block 7, Lots 9–10, Shutt House**

In the summer and fall of 1985, Floyd Mansberger, at that time affiliated with Northern Illinois University, excavated eight 1-m by 2-m test pits around the perimeter of the Shutt House abutting the foundation walls. These test excavations were designed to obtain information about the “nature of the fill sequences around the structure” (Mansberger 1987:21), and they were successful in delineating the original ground surface (ca. 1840), the late-19th- to 20th-century fill, and the 20th-century fill surrounding the house structure. Artifact density throughout these excavations was low (Mansberger 1987:35).

### **Block 7, Lots 11–12, Dubois House**

In 1993, Vergil Noble conducted test excavations in the yard area of the Dubois House. Four 1-m by 2-m and three 1-m by 1-m test units were completed at this time. A brick privy pit was located during these excavations; however, no archeological evidence was observed for outbuildings that had been depicted on historic Sanborn maps (Noble 1993b). Mansberger has also completed excavations around the house perimeter in the areas of the rear porch (west), front porch (east), side porch (south), and the bay window (south), and he monitored construction activities at this location (Mansberger, personal communication 1999). The total excavated area for the Dubois House equals 92.2 m<sup>2</sup>.

### **Block 7, Lot 15, Sprigg House**

Noble carried out excavations within this house lot during the summers of 1992 and 1993 (Noble 2001b). The work at the rear of the lot was conducted in 1992. Investigators found that the backyard was covered with nearly one-half meter of fill. A privy pit and two large trash pits were discovered at this time. These pit features contained a number of temporally diagnostic bottles and ceramic fragments. Excavations were also completed near the back porch of the house in 1993. Noble suggested at this time that historic maps and bird's-eye view drawings of Springfield could be used effectively to establish the presence of historic structures within the house lots at LIHO. These excavations were designed to locate those cultural features or elements of the "built environment."

In 1992, three 1-m by 2-m test excavations were placed in the rear quarter of the yard. A large trash pit was located within TU-92-1 (Noble 2001b). This pit contained historic ceramic fragments that date to ca. 1840–1860. Additional ceramic fragments or sherds were recovered that bore manufacturer's marks dating to 1850–1882 and 1891–1893, respectively. A drainage conduit and a privy pit were located within TU-92-2; the privy probably dates to the late 1880s. An additional late-1800s refuse pit was also identified and excavated in TU-92-3 (Noble 2001b).

Excavations were continued during the summer of 1993. This work was meant to disclose further information regarding structures or features that had been located near or affixed to the Sprigg House. These excavations included six 1-m by 2-m units near the rear of the Sprigg House. A square room attached to the house was depicted on the historic Sanborn maps of Springfield, but no evidence for this structure was found; however, a drainage conduit was located. It was suggested at this time that it connected to a cistern. A brick pier was identified that was probably part of an early back porch. A portion of a herring-bone-pattern clay brick pavement was discovered between 0.2 and 0.3 m below the present ground surface in TU-93-6 near the southwest corner of the back porch. Noble (2001b) proposed that the rear quarter of the Sprigg House yard contains archeological deposits of considerable potential.

In June and July 1997, Mansberger (1997b–c) conducted test excavations in the backyard of the Sprigg House consisting of four 2-m by 2-m units and two 1-m by 2-m units exposing a total of 20 m<sup>2</sup>. Mansberger documented the existence of a rear extension of the house, probably a summer kitchen. The remains of a cooking fireplace were also observed. Associated artifacts suggested that the original Sprigg House had been constructed during the 1830s and 1840s (Mansberger 1997b).

Excavations near the back of the house revealed a cistern, Feature 23, and a well, Feature 33. Evidence for an earlier cistern was also discovered in association with a gravel and charcoal filtration system, Feature 20, that may have "functioned as a cold storage container similar to an ice box" (Mansberger 1997b). Schroeder (1991) provides a detailed description of such charcoal filtration systems used throughout 19th-century Illinois. It is interesting that fill deposits including "two distinct living surfaces [besides the original and current ground surface] were identified" at the rear of the Sprigg House and they each contained "substantial artifact assemblages" (Mansberger 1997b).

Additional excavations along the boundary line between the Sprigg and Corneau lots exposed the privy feature discovered in Vergil Noble's excavations. Soil deposits remaining in an unexcavated portion of this privy pit might provide information about human parasites that Springfield inhabitants hosted during the mid to late 1800s. Mansberger (1997b) also discovered several post molds (holes) along an early

fence line between the Corneau and Sprigg lots. This archeological information could contribute to the development of a more dynamic view of the cultural landscape within LIHO.

Test excavations in the north yard revealed the foundations of the original Sprigg House (Mansberger 1997b). Mansberger's TU-3 contained portions of the west house wall and intact cellar deposits beneath the existing Sprigg House foundation. Mansberger (1997b) conducted excavations beneath a cement floor in this area and uncovered ceramic artifacts, specifically "redware and transfer print tablewares typical of the mid 19th century," on the compact dirt floor of the former cellar. An additional cellar measuring roughly 1.83 m (6 ft) wide and 2.4 m (8 ft) long was located adjacent to an internal foundation wall. Test excavations in the front yard revealed a north-south wall and a small porch with artifacts "typical of materials deposited during the 1830s and 1840s" (Mansberger 1997b). Mansberger proposed that the later Hofferkamp addition to the Sprigg House was constructed ca. 1875-1880.

In August 1997, archeological excavations were initiated once again at the Sprigg House by Fever River Research under the direction of Floyd Mansberger (1997c). Excavations focused on the original Sprigg House foundations under the relocated house foundation (ca. 1875). A portion of the 1840 fireplace was discovered in the west wall and interpreted as a heating fireplace rather than a cooking fireplace. A small cistern with a diameter of 1.14 m (3 ft 9 in) was located near the southeast corner of the 1840 Sprigg House location (Mansberger 1997c). Mansberger excavated the entire cistern feature and found it to be approximately 1.22 m (4 ft) deep. It was then filled during the mid to late 1800s, perhaps around 1870. It contained a range of artifacts including a pre-1860 glass bottle.

A second small cellar was located east of the 1840 cellar. It had been excavated within the crawl-space beneath the Sprigg House floor and had been floored with brick laid in a herringbone pattern. Evidence for a "large, coal-burning, gravity-fed furnace" was also found in this cellar area (Mansberger 1997c). The coal-burning furnace may have been installed around 1875 in association with dramatic modifications to the original structure during the construction of the Hofferkamp addition. Located along the north wall of the existing house foundation, TU-15 revealed that little information was preserved regarding contact between the 1840 cellar and the summer kitchen foundation. This critical area had been destroyed by demolition activities during the 1920s. Machine excavations along the northern wall of the existing house structure exposed fill deposits that dated to both the 1920s and the 1850-1875 period.

Mansberger's excavations also focused on a detailed study of the privy located earlier by Noble. This privy pit consisted of a rectangular pit approximately 1.67 m (5.5 ft) east-west and 1.22 m (4 ft) north-south. The northern half of this feature was not excavated in its entirety. The fill was relatively complex and consisted of a number of lenses of dark organic soils, fecal material, lime, seeds, wood ash, charcoal, cinders, ceramics, glass, brick, egg shells, and "kitchen slop-bucket deposits" (Mansberger 1997c). The fill appears to date from the mid to late 1800s (ca. 1855-1875). Finally, Mansberger excavated Test 16, a 2-m by 2-m unit, and Test 17, a 1-m by 2-m unit, along the rear wall of the house. Remnants of a brick pavement, a brick walk, and a brick-lined well were discovered in this area.

### **Block 7, Lot 16, Corneau House**

In 1995, MWAC personnel conducted exploratory excavations within Lot 16, Block 6, of the Elijah Iles Addition at LIHO (Frost 1998). These limited excavations were meant to provide information sufficient for locating intact subsurface remains of the Corneau House and the associated barn. Frost (1998:5) stated, "Resources available for planning the investigations included Sanborn maps, the Historic Structure Report, a measured drawing of the present Corneau House, and the earlier magnetometer survey." These excavations revealed evidence of a cellar associated with the original Corneau House (ca. 1884). Test excavations also located a portion of a laid-brick floor and a narrow trench interpreted as portions of the original barn. Frost (1998:15) suggested that "the barn foundation was [most probably] a pole construction technique similar to that found at the Allen barn ... and the Arnold barn."

Between October 22 and November 3, 1997, Fever River Research carried out archeological investigations at the Corneau House lot. A backhoe was utilized to remove the overburden and the remaining several centimeters were removed with shovels. This area was the former location of the original Corneau

House. This excavation exposed the early cellar (ca. 1884), as well as the northwest corner, west wall, and chimney foundation of the later Brocker House (Mansberger 1997d).

No structural remains of the original Corneau House other than the early cellar were uncovered. Archeologists did locate a cistern (Feature 1), a well (Feature 2), several waste water drains (Features 4–6), a wall segment (Feature 8), and a row of 16 post molds (Mansberger 1997d). A series of backhoe excavations in the front yard area did not uncover additional foundation walls or a second fireplace that were components of the original Corneau House.

The Corneau House cellar (Feature 3A–3B) was relocated following its discovery by Frost (1998). The floor of this cellar was uncovered; it consisted of a “running bond pattern” of brick covered with several layers of lime mortar. Mansberger (1997d:3) states that this brick was a “soft-mud, hand-molded variety.” It appears that this cellar was enlarged during the mid-1800s. New north and east walls were apparently constructed during this phase of modification. The new cellar measured 4.94 m (16.2 ft) east–west and 2.87 m (9.4 ft) north–south. Mansberger (1997d) suggested that the early cellar was located beneath the first addition to the original Corneau House. In addition, a shallow circular cistern (Feature 1) was excavated. It measured 1.62 m (5.3 ft) in diameter (inside) and was approximately 1.5 m (4.9 ft) deep. The bottom of the cistern was covered with brick and mortar. The fill of Feature 1 consisted of “demolition debris” including brick, mortar, plaster, and shingles. There were also numerous bottles that might date to the early 1900s. Mansberger (1997d) also found a well (Feature 2) near the cistern. This brick-lined shaft feature was 0.76 m (2.5 ft) in diameter and 2.0 m (6.6 ft) deep. Its fill, like that of the cistern, consisted primarily of demolition debris that probably dates to the early 1900s.

Mansberger (1997d:8) suggested that “much of the backyard of the Corneau House lot ... has not been investigated archeologically. There is a strong possibility that additional privies, cisterns, as well as other significant features such as trash pits could be present in this area.”

#### **Block 10, Lots 6–7, Carrigan–Irwin House**

Floyd Mansberger, Fever River Research, excavated test units covering 2.3 m<sup>2</sup> within the Carrigan–Irwin House lot during September and October 1997 (Mansberger 1997e). These excavations were carried out in conjunction with monitoring the demolition of a modern brick foundation that remained after the Corneau House had been moved to its 1860 location.

#### **Block 10, Lot 8, Lincoln House**

Richard S. Hagen, archeologist for the Illinois Department of Public Works and Buildings, conducted the first archeological excavations in the Lincoln House lot during August and September 1951 (Illinois State Register 1951; Hagen 1951; Mansberger 1987). Hagen’s excavations were designed to obtain architectural information that could be used to reconstruct Lincoln’s carriage house, woodshed, and privy. Prior to initiating a series of test trenches through Lincoln’s backyard, Hagen consulted the records of the Hartford Fire Insurance Company in order to gain some insights about the number, size, composition, and location of these historic structures.

Hagen was able to locate the floor surface of the carriage house that was bounded by brick corner post supports, “old wheel ruts,” and an artifact scatter including “several bridle rings and other hitching paraphernalia.” The woodshed was demarcated by a series of post molds and many artifacts including “an iron axe head, a complete glass bottle, hundreds of square nails, assorted iron objects, and numerous fragments of crockery and china (Hagen 1951:346–347).

Hagen (1951:347) also discovered a trash pit that contained window glass, parts of four china dolls, black silk ribbon, combs and brushes, an alabaster pin box (top), a tortoise-shell pin, two brass belt buckles, six amber glass marbles, four all-slate pencils, three small blown-glass medicine bottles, a blown-glass perfume bottle, hundreds of white ‘ironware’ china fragments, and a broken china chamber pot. Hagen (1951:347) suggested that the pit’s contents “will someday make an intriguing display inside the house” if they could be assigned to the Lincoln occupation.

After three latrine or privy features were discovered during these excavations, Hagen (1951:348) offered: “The last privy [to be discovered] seems to be the one most definitely associated with the Lincoln occupancy.” The substantial brick-lining was constructed with the older, handmade bricks and yellow sandy mortar of Lincoln’s day, all of which were “in accord with the Springfield city [building] ordinances of 1851” (Hagen 1951:348).

Hagen’s investigations in the backyard of the Lincoln House ultimately resulted in exposure of a large contiguous block covering approximately 149 m<sup>2</sup> (Table 3). This is LIHO’s largest single excavation. Although the excavation notes, if they existed, have not been found, there are detailed plan-view drawings and a series of color 35-mm slides that provide considerable information about Hagen’s work (Mansberger 1987). Copies of the slides are archived at LIHO (Table 11). The original color slides are held by the Illinois Historic Preservation Agency.

Hagen did not conduct an analysis of the artifacts recovered from his excavations, nor did he write an excavation report. Mansberger (1987:129–158) compiled a base map of the “block” excavation (Mansberger 1987:130, Fig. 77) and he described the artifacts in detail. His report also provides photographs of some of the artifacts from Hagen’s excavations including materials recovered from the trash pit, Feature 4 (Mansberger 1987:135, Fig. 80;145–149, Figs. 84–89;152–153, Figs. 90–91).

In February and March 1985, Robert Dunham documented the excavation of two “test excavations” (Pits 1 and 2) along the southwest foundation of the Lincoln House (Dunham 1985). These excavations were conducted to gather more information about the nature of the brick and mortar used in the original house construction. Information gathered during these excavations was recorded on Midwest Archeological Center excavation forms, which are on file at LIHO.

Mansberger (1987) excavated nine units around the perimeter of the Lincoln House, including subsurface investigations beneath two of the porches, and stated (1987:90), “These areas were originally part of the backyard of the Dresser family house in 1839 and were enclosed since at least the 1856 remodeling.” Located along the west wall of the house, TU-1 revealed that “clearly, the Lincoln home was built on a small knoll, strategically higher than many of the surrounding houses.” Mid-19th-century stoneware drainage tiles were discovered in TU-2 along the north wall (west end) of the house. The installation of this drainage system “dates from the 1848–1853 remodeling of the Lincoln home” (Mansberger 1987:99), and Noble (1988:55, 59–62) excavated a major portion of this drainage system in 1987.

A circular brick cistern was located during the excavation of TU-5 along the east wall. This facility had served as a reservoir that was filled with rainwater via downspouts from the roof. This test unit also uncovered evidence of the original location of the Dresser cottage kitchen (Mansberger 1987:103). Work in this area of the Lincoln House, as well as architectural research and structural investigations, concluded that the addition of a first floor bedroom during Lincoln’s occupancy had involved separation and displacement of the old kitchen frame (Mansberger 1987:112). In addition, excavations beneath the east porch encountered a brick-and-mortar well that had been associated with the Dresser occupancy. This is one of the more important archeological features discovered during post-Hagen investigations within Lot 8, Block 10, of the Elijah Iles Addition to Springfield. Mansberger (1987:114) stated, “it is apparent from our excavations that much of this feature [the Dresser well] is intact and, as such, contains some of the most Lincoln-specific deposits still present at the site.” Mansberger (1987:116–120) excavated the upper 45 cm of archeological deposits from the well. He (1987:117, Fig. 69) recovered a small assemblage of artifacts including four ceramic sherds, a fragile lipped vial, a broken glass vial, and a ground-glass stopper. Finally, excavations beneath the south porch uncovered a portion of a Dresser-period brick sidewalk, five piers that supported the pre-1854 porch, and six wall remnants of the foundation (Mansberger 1987:123, Fig. 73).

During a 14-week project in 1987, Noble (1988:34–36, 47, 55, 59–62, 73, 77–78) monitored stabilization, reinforcement, modification, and renovation activities at the Lincoln House and devoted considerable attention to a hot-air furnace that was discovered beneath the eastern half of the basement floor, which was installed between 1899 and 1903. Noble uncovered portions of a brick walkway that corre-

sponds to the same find noted in the previous paragraph dating to the Dresser occupation, which predates the Lincoln period. Noble discovered a grounding rod along the north foundation wall of the house and stated that “inspection of the grounding rod ... offered no evidence that would contradict the conclusion that it is at the very least contemporary with Lincoln’s residency at the Home.” He encountered a “hand-crafted clay conduit” that served as a drainage system along the northern foundation of the house. It probably dates to the mid-1800s, prior to the time that downspouts were connected to the cistern. Areas were uncovered in the backyard apparently associated with the Tilton kitchen. This rear addition to the house was added to the Lincoln House during Lucian Tilton residence, ca. 1865. This addition was later removed by the State of Illinois in the mid-1950s in order to restore the Lincoln House to its 1860–1861 appearance. Earthmoving revealed a cylindrical cistern with a vaulted ceiling previously exposed by Mansberger (1987). Noble emphasized that excavations for a buried electrical line running parallel to the alley revealed archeological materials and noted, “It is possible, then, that refuse deposits generated by Lincoln’s contemporary neighbors still exist along the alley, despite subsequent disturbances.”

In May 1990, Mansberger conducted excavations adjacent to the east porch in order to evaluate subsurface deposits that were to be disturbed by the installation of a wheelchair lift. The north wall of a 19th-century addition to the Lincoln House was discovered in this area, and this wall had been discovered during previous the excavation of TU-4 in this area by Northern Illinois University. A historic well with a diameter of 48 inches was located immediately east of these excavations (Mansberger 1990a).

#### **Block 10, Lots 15–16, Morse House**

Limited excavations have been conducted by Mansberger in 1999 around the perimeter of this structure. Excavations have been completed near the front porch (north), side porch (east), west addition, south addition, and in the south yard. The total area excavated equals approximately 65 m<sup>2</sup> (Mansberger, personal communication 1999).

#### **Block 11, Lot 1, Arnold House**

In 1990, Mansberger monitored the installation of buried electrical power lines near the Charles Arnold House. In 1991, Noble conducted excavations on the west yard of the existing Arnold House in order to locate archeological evidence for the original location. Excavations were also conducted on the east yard. Two pre-Civil War maps were consulted in order to assist in the search (McManus 1854; Sides 1858). A series of adjacent 1-m by 2-m test units was excavated along an east–west axis. No evidence for the original Arnold House foundations was observed. Noble (2001a:9) states that a “field crew excavated several 1-m by 1-m test units designed to reveal any surviving evidence of former buildings.” Test excavations were completed in order to locate the south wall of the Arnold Barn documented on Sanborn maps and in photographs. Noble (2001a:9) states, “Nevertheless, as part of the routine, mandated process for assessing potential impacts of an undertaking on cultural resources, the researchers also designed to determine whether intact archeological deposits of significance lay between the house and the alley.” A single 1-m by 2-m unit was excavated in the east yard where a privy pit or vault was delineated. A second privy pit was later discovered in the east yard. Approximately 60 m<sup>2</sup> were excavated at this time. Additional 1-m by 2-m excavations were carried out in the east yard area in 1992, but they did not reveal additional structures or features.

#### **Block 11, Lot 3, Cook House**

In the summer and fall of 1985, Mansberger conducted excavations around the perimeter of the Sarah Cook House that including eight 1-m by 2-m test pits, as well as one 2.5-m by 7.4-m block in the front porch area. These excavations revealed a relatively complex construction history for the Cook House. The construction sequence at this location involved considerable modification of the original ground surface. Since the mid-1800s, the original ground surface around the Cook House may have increased by 1 m in elevation. The test excavations revealed a number of disturbances within this fill sequence including the installation of a tile-lined drain system, as well as the installation of utility lines for gas and steam (Mansberger 1987:76). Mansberger (1987:63–65) located a mid-1800s cistern within TU-7, which was located at the northeast corner of the house. A number of mid-19th-century artifacts, e.g., glazed earth-

enware, glass tumblers, and pearlware fragments, were also recovered from this area. Test excavations also revealed a possible root cellar in TU-9 that was located in the backyard. Mansberger (1987:74) stated, “Perchance, this could be the ‘root cellar’ referred to in the 1854 sale bill listing the house for sale by Doctor Kalley.”

Noble (1989a) located a number of structures in the backyard of the Sarah Cook House in July and August 1989. These features included three cisterns, an outbuilding, and a former fence line. A domed cistern exhibiting a diameter of roughly 2 m was partially exposed at this time. It was then marked in order to prevent it from being further disturbed.

### **Block 11, Lot 6, Robinson House**

MWAC conducted excavations in late August 1981 in the front, side, and backyard areas of the Robinson House (Perry 1984). These limited test excavations were designed to “demonstrate the utility of archeological investigations of extant historic structures” (Perry 1984:1). More specifically, the major objectives of this work “were to: (1) determine the degree and nature of the sub-surface disturbance at the site, and (2) assess the archeological potential of the site.” Perry also wanted to explore the nature of the pre-1863 component and more accurately date the construction of the non-extant wash house ca. 1863–1867. Perry (1984:6) stated, “No attempts were made to locate or test backyard elements such as privies and trash pits, although such areas typically possess significant archeological deposits.” Surface collections, 90 shovel tests (0.25 m x 0.25 m), and three 1-m by 1-m test excavation units yielded a range of contemporary and 19th-century artifacts, which are listed in Table 3, note 2, page 44.

One of the most significant results of these MWAC excavations and analyses, aside from the specific architectural information, involves the historic ceramic collection. Perry presents a temporal–functional classification of the ceramics, as well as a discussion of individual ceramic types, varieties, and forms that were recovered from the Robinson House. This study contains the first detailed description of historic ceramics at LIHO and represents and is the first ceramic inventory from which chronological information can be derived for application to some of LIHO’s archeological features.

Noble (1991) carried out small-scale excavations at the Robinson House and located archeological evidence for a small outbuilding, a cistern, and a portion of a herringbone-pattern walkway. Additional excavations in 1993 were designed to explore the entire herringbone walkway (Noble 1993a).

### **Block 11, Lots 7–8, Allen House and Barn**

Archeological investigations and architectural research were conducted in order to gather relevant information about the use, floor plan, and structural history of the Allen Barn (Mansberger 1987). Interestingly, the barn “is the only outbuilding potentially dating from the Lincoln era that is still present in the Park” (Mansberger 1987:160). It is located at the east ends of Lots 7 and 8 of Block 11 within the Elijah Iles Addition to Springfield. This barn is most probably the structure represented on this lot on the 1854 city map (Mansberger 1987:160).

Prior to systematic excavation of the barn’s floor, the structure was raised on jacks. The archeological crew then shovel-skimmed a 46-cm (18-in) wide area around the entire wall perimeter in order to locate post holes and other features. This entire area was then excavated to a depth of 91 cm (36 in), and a concrete foundation was poured into this trench. The barn was then lowered onto the new foundation, and the former concrete floor was removed. Archeological excavations were conducted over the entire exposed surface in order to locate and map existing features, artifacts, and associated materials (Mansberger 1987:165, Fig. 98).

The structure served as a horse barn and carriage house. Mansberger (1987:160–195) makes use of archeology, historic city maps and photographs, and historic architectural research in order to detail the construction methods, activity patterns, artifactual assemblage, and the technological and socioeconomic aspects of mid-19th-century urban barns. He thereby provides a fine example of how such disparate sources of information can be assembled, integrated, and utilized in the interpretation of cultural landscapes.

### ***Additional Comparative Archeology***

Mansberger (1987) ends his detailed report on these excavations within LIHO with a discussion of how archeologists might gain a better understanding of past socioeconomic status and its variation within mid-19th-century communities such as Springfield. He compares and contrasts the variation observed in archeological assemblages of two groups of sites that are known to have been occupied by less wealthy (Crazy Dog and Speckhardt houses) and more wealthy families (Hughlett and Washburne houses) in west-central and northwestern Illinois (Mansberger 1987:199). He compares the artifactual, ecofactual, and architectural character of these sites with respect to: (1) artifact patterns — kitchen, architecture, furniture, arms, tools, transportation, clothing, personal, and other; (2) ceramic and glass assemblages — architecture, kitchen, beverage, tablewares, household, medicine, and personal; (3) dietary remains, e.g., faunal remains; and (4) architectural features, e.g., proportion of public versus private space. Mansberger (1987:200–232) then develops expectations or hypotheses regarding variation within these four categories of observations. These hypotheses deal specifically with measures of socioeconomic wealth. For example, “Upper-income families will have a greater percentage of higher economically ranked ceramic assemblages than their middle- and lower-class neighbors” (Mansberger 1987:218).

Mansberger (1987:234–274) then compares artifact assemblages from LIHO recovered from the Shutt, Cook, and Lincoln Houses, as well as the Allen Barn. Interestingly, Mansberger (1987:248–253) discusses the various remodeling stages that the Lincoln House went through during the mid-1800s. He concluded, “I believe the changes documented for the Lincoln [House] clearly reflect the social and political importance of entertaining associated with the Lincoln family lifestyle of the early to mid-1850s” (Mansberger 1987:249). Mansberger (1987:251) stated, “The furnishings of the Lincoln Home in 1860 appear to represent old and new items accumulated since 1844, when they moved into their Eighth Street house.” With respect to diet, Mansberger (1987:264) stated, “Consistent with the wealthy status of the Lincoln household, 79.4 percent of the beef butchering units represented in the archeological collection consist of the five most expensive cuts.”

### ***Current Status of Archeological Collections***

Archeological materials recovered from excavations within LIHO are currently curated at the park, as well as at the Midwest Archeological Center (MWAC) in Lincoln, Nebraska. All collections received at MWAC are assigned two accession numbers, one for the specific park and one for the Center. Currently, more than 4,000 individual artifacts (or approximately 5 percent of the total 84,533) have been recorded within the ANCS+ database (©Rediscovery, Inc.) at LIHO. The current disposition of both artifacts and related archival materials or documentation and records is described in Table 4. The archeological collections currently curated at LIHO include the materials listed in Tables 5–7.

Currently, there are approximately 70,952 artifacts, or approximately 84 percent of the total artifacts, from LIHO in the collections retained at MWAC (Tables 8–9). Seventeen percent (14,483 artifacts) have been cataloged and the remaining 83 percent (70,050 artifacts) represent the “backlog” collection. Archeological materials and related archival information were transferred from MWAC to LIHO during Fiscal Years 1998 and 1999. A total of 13,581 artifacts (4,924 artifacts in 1998 and 8,657 artifacts in 1999) and 989 archival items (297 archival items in 1998 and 692 archival items in 1999) were transferred at these times.

In addition to the archeological collections that exist in Springfield and Lincoln, extensive document archives are maintained at LIHO and MWAC containing a great deal of information that will be useful for archeological research (Tables 10–12).



## Future Research

Geographers, architects, historians, and archeologists have become increasingly interested in general interpretative frameworks within which they can examine human modification of the natural landscape. Although archeologists have developed conceptual and methodological approaches to the study of household activities, community patterns, and local and regional settlement systems, the management and interpretation of cultural resources has required the adoption of more general schemes to coordinate historical research.

Therefore, archeologists, preservationists, and cultural resource managers have recently developed a greater interest in cultural landscapes, since it is within the context of these cultural landscapes that specific prehistoric and historic locations, sites, and structures can be interpreted and can be assigned cultural significance.

Stine et al. (1997) present a number of studies that focus upon the value of the landscape approach to archeology. Stine and Stine (1997:190) propose that “a landscape perspective easily lends itself to researching both structure and process over expanding and contracting space and throughout various time periods.” Stine and Stine (1997:189) suggest that “the landscape approach allows investigators to focus on the relational ties between regional and site-specific landscape data. Managers using this perspective refine their awareness of the potential importance of specific sites within their jurisdiction. Such knowledge helps a cultural resource manager to become proactive, not simply reactive.”

The definition, identification, interpretation, and nomination of cultural landscape characteristics or elements have been discussed in detail in two National Register bulletins. First, rural landscapes are examined in National Register Bulletin 30, *Guidelines for Evaluating and Documenting Rural Historic Landscapes* (McClelland et al. 1995). Landscape elements or characteristics are “the tangible evidence of the activities and habits of the people who occupied, developed, used, and shaped the land to serve human needs; they may reflect the beliefs, attitudes, traditions, and values of these people” (McClelland et al. 1995). These landscape characteristics can be placed into the following classes:

- (1) land uses and activities; e.g., fields, pastures, cemeteries, or mines;
- (2) patterns of spatial organization; e.g., overall pattern of land use or division of property;
- (3) response to the natural environment; e.g., design of buildings or construction methods;
- (4) cultural traditions; e.g., ethnic or religious institutions;
- (5) circulation networks; e.g., paths, roads, or canals;
- (6) boundary demarcations; e.g., fences, walls, or irrigation ditches;
- (7) vegetation related to land use; e.g., ornamental trees, orchards, or gardens;
- (8) buildings, structures, and objects; e.g., residences, schools, barns, or churches;
- (9) clusters; e.g., farmsteads, harbors, or ranches;
- (10) archeological sites; e.g., roads, mills, mines, or piers; and
- (11) small-scale elements; e.g., foot bridges, cow paths, or gravestones.

Second, planned and constructed historic landscapes are discussed in detail in National Register Bulletin 18, *How to Evaluate and Nominate Designed Historic Landscapes* (Keller and Keller 1995). A designed historic landscape consists of a landscape that was professionally designed or planned by a gardener, landscape architect, or horticulturist. Stine and Stine (1997:190) suggest that “landscape theory seeks to make connections between material remains, social institutions, natural resources, and human perceptions.” In addition, “Interdisciplinary landscape methods must allow for shifting the research scale or perspective among artifacts, sites, and regions” (Stine and Stine 1997:190).

Archeologists are formalizing field methods and interpretive perspectives necessary for conducting “landscape archeology” (e.g., W. Kelso 1984; W. Kelso and Most 1990; Leone 1988; Miller and Gleason

1994; Noël Hume 1974; Rubertone 1989; Stine et al. 1997; Yamin and Metheny 1996; Yentsch et al. 1987). Stine et al. (1997:xii) state, “Landscape archeology in the United States has its roots in the study of gardens, such as those examined by William Kelso at Monticello. ... Landscape archeology is no longer simply the archeology of landscaping and gardening practices. ... Urban archeology often encompasses a landscape approach ... just as current landscape studies incorporate the research efforts of palynologists, ethnobotanists, zooarcheologists, historians, architects, and geographers.”

### ***Cultural Landscapes in Mid-19th-Century Springfield***

Since its inception, LIHO has been firmly rooted in interpretive themes that involve community and landscape. The “Comprehensive Master Plan” developed during the late 1960s “proposed to recreate the environment that existed during Lincoln’s period, retaining the changes in the character of the neighborhood through the 1880s” (National Park Service 1970:3). The neighborhood environment spoken of here includes a range of historic structures: houses, carriage barns, wash sheds, woodsheds, privies, wells, cisterns, fences, boardwalks, streets, alleys, trash piles, vegetable gardens, flower beds, shrubs, trees, maintained lawns, and unmown grass. For the sake of authenticity, we cannot leave out muddy streets, manure, garbage, weeds, flies, copperheads, rattlesnakes, rodents, chickens, cats, dogs, pigs, horses, cows, and people.

There are several lots within LIHO that could ultimately be investigated by archeologists in order to gain further information about cultural landscapes. These lots include Walters, Brown, Burch, Remann, Worthen, Niles, Bugg, Carrigan, Irwin, Roll, Jenkins, and Allen. Excavations in these lots could be designed not only to locate former structures (foundations) but also to locate designed historic landscapes within the four-square-block area surrounding Lincoln’s home. Unlike most of the excavations conducted to date within LIHO, these investigations could make use of large block excavations. Yentsch and Kratzer (1994) provide a useful overview of archeological techniques that may be utilized in order to excavate historic garden landscapes. These investigators (1994:168) state: “Since narrow windows (i.e., small test pits) do not reveal the big picture, landscape archeologists need to draw upon analytical techniques with a broader reach.” They (1994:181) continue: “Key steps towards understanding the spatial relationships utilized within a garden’s design are (1) establishing its boundaries, (2) finding its major axis, and (3) locating other passageways through it.”

Favretti and Favretti (1990, 1991) offer detailed discussions of how historic gardens and landscapes can be reproduced or recreated. It is also important to point out that landscape and garden archeology must rely heavily upon the systematic collection and analysis of soil samples in order to reconstruct the botanical composition of rural and urban spaces. Fish (1994) discusses indirect and direct means for using pollen samples to reconstruct gardens and fields. G. Kelso (1991, 1993a, 1993b, 1996), G. Kelso et al. (1989), G. Kelso and Beaudry (1990), and W. Kelso and Most (1990) present specific case studies that deal with the use of pollen analysis and historic landscape. Phytoliths studies could also be utilized in order to reconstruct historic landscapes (Piperno 1988a, 1988b).

Throughout the course of such cultural landscape studies, we should remember that gardens were multipurpose landscapes and that they provided many things, some of which were not necessarily planned by the people who created them. Among other things, gardens provided:

- ground cover that restricted erosion near residential structures
- ornamentation for outside and inside the home
- micro-habitats for insects, birds, small mammals
- bees and butterflies — important pollinators
- beekeeping environments (Farager 1986)
- flowers with insect repellent properties for indoor and outdoor uses
- flowers for interior decorating
- dried flowers for potpourri, etc.
- herbs, flavoring, dyes, medicinals

- nonlocal fruit from trees, vines, plantings
- places to adapt English plants to North American soils and climate (McKee 1996:75)
- shrubby fences for keeping animals and humans either in or out
- shade trees and cooling effect upon houses during summer
- private spaces for social gatherings in crowded settings (Zierden and Herman 1996:209)
- enlarged social spaces for family use during parties, weddings, and other events

It would be interesting to explore some of these aspects of urban gardens for the interpretation of cultural landscapes within LIHO.

### ***Recommendations***

Archeological investigations within Lincoln Home National Historic Site have been relatively extensive. It should be emphasized, however, that the total excavated area of 882 m<sup>2</sup> equals approximately two percent of the total house lot area<sup>1</sup> within the park. This small area does not provide a representative look at the archeology within Lincoln's neighborhood. Furthermore, a great proportion of these archeological excavations were construction-related activities. Many of the test excavation units were not contiguous, and they tended to be located around the peripheries of existing structures. As mentioned previously, Hagen's large block excavations during the early 1950s in the rear portion of the Lincoln House lot are the largest to date within the park. Finally, more than 84 percent of the artifactual remains recovered during these excavations have yet to be described and analyzed. Based upon these observations, as well as the considerations related to "contextual" background discussion, the author makes the following recommendations for future research.

(1) Develop a cultural landscape approach for the park and make use of landscape and garden archeology to investigate several of the remaining undeveloped lots. Since most of the archeological excavations that have been conducted within LIHO have been completed in order to locate specific structures and evidence for their former location and situation, the picture that emerges of the Lincoln neighborhood is limited. In the future, some archeological excavations might be planned and carried out in order to learn more about the diverse array of cultural features that were a part of the urban landscape within Springfield.

Perhaps a large portion of such investigations could be completed by a series of archeological field schools that could be held within LIHO during the summer months. These ongoing archeological excavations could serve as a means to offer the public better insights into historic archeology and what can be learned about the recent past via landscape and garden archeology. Given this approach, large block excavations could be completed within unexplored areas within house lots throughout the neighborhood. This archeological work could be carried out independently of structure-related activities within LIHO.

(2) Broaden the interpretive framework for LIHO through comparisons of the Lincoln neighborhood to other areas of 19th-century Springfield, as well as mid-1800s sites within Illinois and the Midwest. Mansberger (1987) has already begun to compare the archeological assemblages recovered from the Lincoln House lot, as well as from other historic structures at LIHO, to 19th-century sites elsewhere in the state. Such comparative archeological research will better enable interpreters and visitors to place the lives of Abraham Lincoln, his family, and his neighbors into better perspective.

(3) Develop a series of internships, academic appointments, and cooperative research agreements between LIHO and colleges and universities in order to complete studies of archeological materials recovered from the park. Such cooperative efforts might be facilitated via announcements and information about archeology on the park's Web site.

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<sup>1</sup> 34 house lots x 1,167.54 m<sup>2</sup>/lot = 39,636.36 m<sup>2</sup>.

(4) Complete the analysis of all archeological materials recovered from the Lincoln House and lot excavations. All artifacts should be described, measured, stabilized, and photographed. Special attention should be given to significant artifacts that can be utilized in interpretive exhibits. As mentioned, Hagen had excavated an interesting assemblage of artifacts from a trash pit in the backyard of the Lincoln House. The rubbish pit was nearly 2 m (6 ft) deep and was located immediately west of the wood shed. It contained a great diversity of artifacts that included fluted glass tumblers, stemmed goblets, cordial glasses, fragments of ironstone china, a blown-glass perfume bottle, glass buttons, glass marbles, slate pencils, parts of china dolls, the top for an alabaster pin box, combs and brushes, medicine bottles, belt buckles, a tortoise shell pin, and a number of other items. Hagen (1951:347) and Mansberger (1987:151) suggest that this diverse artifact assemblage may represent the Lincoln occupancy. These artifacts could be utilized in a significant exhibit about the Lincoln family's residence.

(5) Reproduce the five George Painter interpretive documents written in the early 1980s (Table 10; Painter 1980a, 1980b, 1980c, 1980d, 1980e). These volumes are detailed accounts of the Lincoln family, a history of the Lincoln House, Abraham Lincoln, life styles and artifacts of the Lincoln period, and the Lincoln neighborhood. If it is possible, these volumes should be made available to researchers in a more useable form such as on compact disk (CD). In fact, the general public would, no doubt, be interested in this material as well. Some versions of these volumes might be made available on the LIHO Web site.

(6) Develop a specific archeological program to explore human diet and health issues related to life in Springfield and Lincoln's neighborhood. Such a research program could include analysis of food remains, i.e., faunal materials and archeobotanical specimens; parasitological studies of privy soil (Duffy 1993); investigation of medical practices through analysis of medicine containers and personal items; analysis of food storage practices involving canning, pickling, smoking, and types of cool storage, e.g., sub-floor versus extramural cellars (Mansberger, personal communication 1999); and analysis of garbage disposal practices. Mansberger collected soil flotation samples from privy features during his excavations within LIHO. More could also be learned about problems associated with more crowded living conditions involving personal parasites, e.g., lice, and household insect pests such as flies, roaches, and rodents. Mansberger (1998) has alluded to some of these human health issues with respect to specific artifacts including chamber pots; medicine vials and bottles; salve, balm, and ointment containers; personal syringes; and drug use (kaolin tobacco pipes and whiskey and medicine bottles).

(7) An additional direction for archeological investigations, analysis, and interpretation at LIHO involves the interrelationship between the development of transportation and shipping networks and the content diversity of the archeological record. This line of investigation is based, in part, upon the previous discussion of the urban environment. This discussion included paths, roads and stagecoach lines, water travel, and railroads. A general model or framework for these interrelationships is presented in Figure 8.

Variation can be expected to be observed in the diversity and numbers of domestic items that are introduced into the archeological record of Springfield, and more specifically within LIHO, as a function of shifts in modes of transportation and shipping. Rothschild and Rockman (1982:13) discuss the application of a range of diversity measures in archeological studies.

For example, the initial settlement by Euroamericans would have involved a limited range of domestic items such as food-procurement tools (guns, ammunition, knives, fishing tackle, and hoes), tool maintenance (grinding wheels, files, whetstones, oil cans), food processing (corn grinders, skillets, pots, stoves, coffee pots), food serving (glasses, cups, plates, bowls, tableware, ladles), food storage (ceramic jars or crocks), clothes making (needles, thimbles, and buttons), and so forth. Other household and farm items would have been manufactured at the household level. This household inventory would then be expected to increase in formal and raw material diversity as transportation and shipping routes were expanded by means of freight wagons, stagecoaches, steamboats, and later railroads. The absolute bulk of items being imported would also increase.

As we have found, the residents of Springfield were relatively self-sufficient prior to the completion of the railroad. Bulky items such as furniture, wheeled vehicles, and lumber were manufactured locally.

Farm products were exchanged for other essential items. As Angle (1935:156) pointed out, most essential manufactured items were produced and exchanged within the community of Springfield between 1840 and 1850. This economic situation would change dramatically with the completion of a railroad network that linked Springfield in the west to Jacksonville and Quincy, in the east to Decatur, in the south to Centralia and Cairo, and in the north to Rockford and Chicago. Consequently, we would expect that the content diversity of the archeological record would reflect these newly developed interregional economic changes. We would expect to observe greater diversity among and within artifact categories such as packaged food items, medicines, cosmetics, alcoholic beverages and aperitifs, dinner and table wares, cook wares, lighting fixtures, household tool kits, and so forth. In many cases, such increases in artifact category diversity would reflect the divergence of the commercial work areas from the residential areas. Certain household tool kits might also undergo reduced diversity given the appearance of specialists such as doctors, dentists, blacksmiths, gunsmiths, and grain mill operators. In some cases, household artifact category diversity would decrease as a function of the shift from subsistence economies to wage labor economies provided by the factories, stores, and freight industries connected to the railroad. There is a great deal that archeology can ultimately tell us about life in Springfield during the mid-1800s when the Lincoln family occupied the house at Eighth and Jackson Streets.

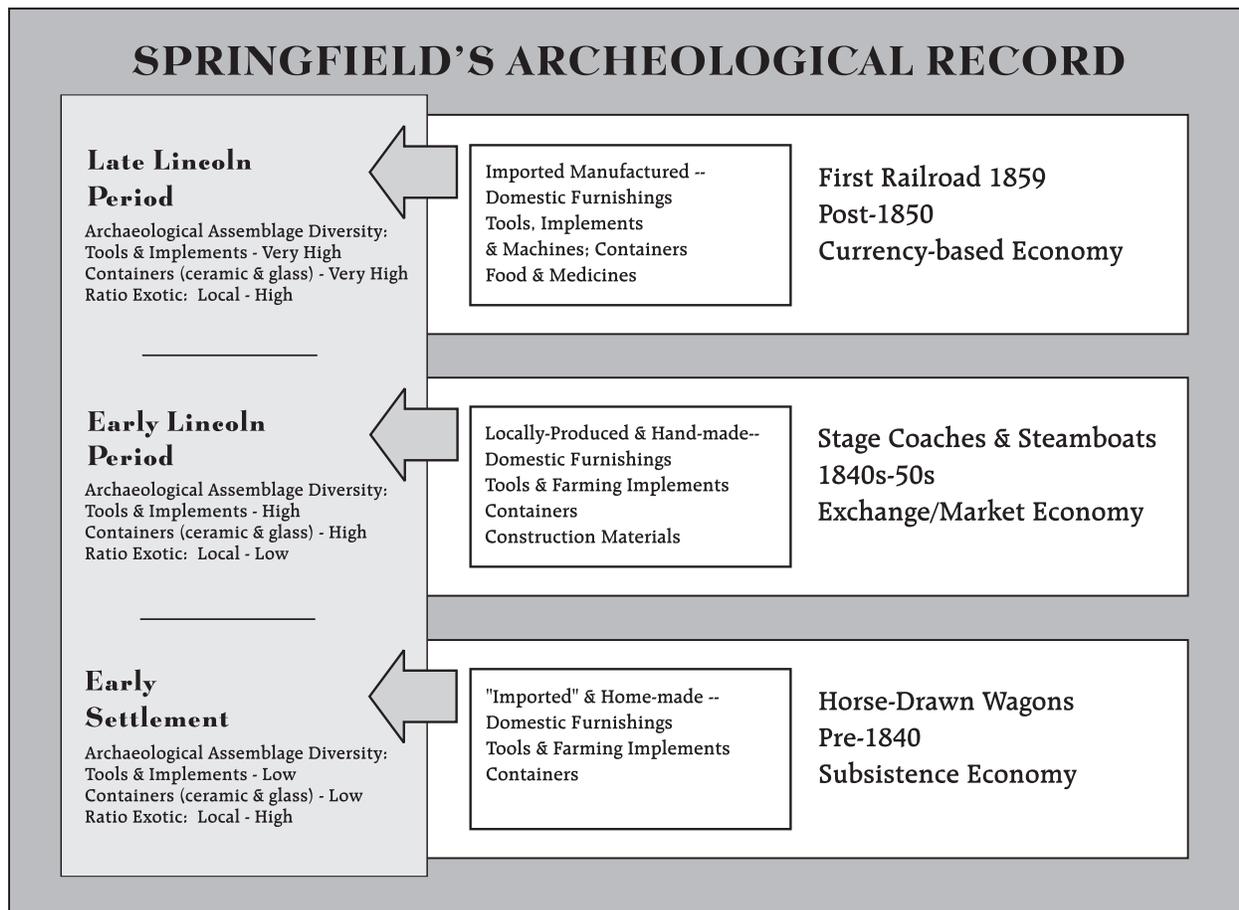


Figure 8. Suggested interpretive framework for the archeological record of Springfield, Illinois.



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Table 1. Historic structures at Lincoln Home National Historic Site.

Structure	HS-	STS <sup>1</sup> Number	ASMIS <sup>2</sup> No.	Master Plan
Lincoln House	1	11SG258	LIHO00007	—
Corneau House	2	11SG1281	LIHO00005	Move to historic location; restore
Stuve House	5	Unassigned	Unassigned	Stabilize, preserve
Stuve Carriage House	7	Unassigned	Unassigned	Stabilize, preserve
Lyon House	8	Unassigned	Unassigned	Restore
Morse House	9	Unassigned	LIHO00008	Restore
Robinson House	10	11SG360	LIHO00011	—
Sprigg House	11	11SG1280	LIHO00004	Restore
Beedle House	12	Unassigned	Unassigned	Restore
Dean House	13	11SG272	LIHO00001	Restore
Miller House	14	Unassigned	Unassigned	Restore
Dubois House	15	11SG1282	LIHO00003	Restore
Aitkin Barn	16	Unassigned	Unassigned	Restore
Shutt House	17	11SG266	LIHO00002	Restore
Cook House	19	11SG267	LIHO00010	Restore
Arnold House	20	11SG288	LIHO00009	Relocate, restore
Solomon Allen Barn	21	11SG268	LIHO00012	Stabilize, preserve
Lincoln House, Privy	24	Unassigned	Unassigned	—
Carrigan House <sup>4</sup>	25	Unassigned	LIHO00006	Reconstruct
Carrigan Barn	Unassigned	Unassigned	LIHO00006	Reconstruct
Burch House <sup>4</sup>	26	Unassigned	Unassigned	Reconstruct
Eighth and Jackson Streets	29	Unassigned	Unassigned	Restore
Lincoln Home National Historic Site		— <sup>3</sup>	LIHO00014	—

<sup>1</sup> Smithsonian Trinomial System for numbering archeological sites.

<sup>2</sup> Archeological Sites Management Information System.

<sup>3</sup> The National Register of Historic Places number for the entire park is 71000076; the park as a whole has no STS number.

<sup>4</sup> No standing structure exists.

Table 2. History of archeological excavations conducted at Lincoln Home National Historic Site.

Project	House	HS-	Investigator	Nature of Work	Date	Reference
State of Illinois	Lincoln	1	R. Hagen	Excavated a large block along the east end of the lot; contained the Oldroyd Barn, 3 privies, a portion of the Lincoln carriage house or barn, and a trash pit.	Summer 1951	Hagen 1951, 1955 Mansberger 1987
MWAC	Corneau	2	J. Weymouth	Magnetometer survey of the entire house lot in order to identify possible magnetic anomalies associated with former house locations.	1977	Weymouth 1978
MWAC	Robinson	10	L. Perry	Three 1-x-1-m test units were excavated on the east, west, and south sides of the house structure. Located historic well.	1981	Perry 1984
Northern Illinois University	Lincoln Cook Shutt Allen Barn	1 19 17 19	F. Mansberger	Excavations to provide information about structure construction prior to stabilization and positioning of perimeter drains around structures. Excavation of Solomon Allen Barn to provide information about past lifestyles. Analysis of artifacts from Hagen's (1951) excavations in the backyard of the Lincoln House.	Summer and Fall 1985	Mansberger 1987
MWAC	Lincoln	1	V. Noble	Excavations associated with waterproofing of foundation walls. Excavations in basement and crawlspace for new support piers and a new basement floor. Monitored installation of new street lamps on Jackson Street and excavation of electrical trunk line east of the Lincoln House.	June 1–August 4, 1987	Noble 1988
MWAC	Cook	19	V. Noble	Excavations associated with planned restoration activities. Large assemblage of 19th-century artifacts recovered from 3 cisterns.	June 26–August 4, 1989	Noble 1989a
MWAC	Dean	13	V. Noble	Excavations to define the former front porch.	June 26–August 4, 1989	Noble 1989b
MWAC	Miller	14	V. Noble	Monitored demolition of a concrete porch.	August 7–8, 1989	Noble 1989a
FRR <sup>1</sup>	Lincoln	1	F. Mansberger	House foundation and well were reexamined during the installation of the handicapped access area.	1990	Mansberger 1990b
FRR	Arnold	20	F. Mansberger	Monitored installation of buried electrical lines.	1990	Mansberger 1990a
MWAC	Arnold	20	V. Noble	Little evidence relevant to original house location survives. Rear portion of lot contained intact archeological deposits including a barn and two privy pits.	1991	Noble 1991
MWAC	Dean	13	V. Noble	Foundations of small outbuilding, perhaps a wash house, were discovered. Additional testing conducted.	1991	Noble 1991

Table 2. Continued.

Project	House	HS-	Investigator	Nature of Work	Date	Reference
MWAC	Robinson	10	V. Noble	Foundations of small outbuilding, perhaps a wash house, were discovered near a cistern. Portion of herringbone-pattern brick pavement located near the alley.	1991	Noble 1991
MWAC	Sprigg	11	V. Noble	Excavations to discover outbuildings and privy; several trash pits identified.	1992	Noble 1992
MWAC	Dean	13	V. Noble	Excavations beneath concrete and brick floor of basement revealed no cultural deposits.	1992	Noble 1992
MWAC	Arnold	20	V. Noble	Excavations to investigate a suspected outbuilding south of the main house. One possible chert flake discovered near the north foundation line of the former barn.	1992	Noble 1992 and Noble 2001a
MWAC	Dean	13	V. Noble	Monitored installation of a lift. Recorded abandoned cistern.	March 29– April 3, 1993	Noble 1993c
MWAC	Robinson	10	V. Noble	Exposed herringbone brick walkway.	May 1993	Noble 1993a
MWAC	Dubois	15	V. Noble	Located brick privy; sought information on the state of preservation of certain outbuildings illustrated on historic insurance maps.	July 1993	Noble 1993b
MWAC	Sprigg	11	V. Noble	Investigated the availability and degree of preservation of historically documented features.	July 1993	Noble 2001b
MWAC	Corneau	2	F. Frost	Inventory and test excavations.	1995	Frost 1998
FRR; FWAI <sup>2</sup>	Sprigg	11	F. Mansberger	Monitored removal of brick foundations for front of Sprigg House.	April 15, 1997	Mansberger 1997a
FRR; FWAI	Sprigg	11	F. Mansberger	Excavated four 2-x-2-m and two 1-x-2-m units along the back side of the house in area believed to be a summer kitchen with associated well and cistern. Located privy pit along fence between Sprigg and Corneau Houses. Located two cellars associated with the house and the Hoffer camp addition. Front yard excavations also conducted.	June 13– July 8, 1997	Mansberger 1997b
FRR; FWAI	Sprigg	11	F. Mansberger	Located portion of 1840 basement and fireplace in west wall; excavated small cistern that may date between 1840 and 1860. Located second cellar that contained a large coal-burning gravity-fed furnace, perhaps ca. 1875. Excavated southern half of privy pit used in the mid-1800s. A 2-x-2-m test and a 1-x-2-m test were excavated along the rear of house.	August 4– August 8, 1997	Mansberger 1997c

Table 2. Continued.

Project	House	HS-	Investigator	Nature of Work	Date	Reference
FRR; FWAI	Carrigan– Irwin Lot 6 and N¾ Lot 7, Block 16	25	F. Mansberger	Single day of excavation along the front (west) wall of the house. Located 19th-century porch and steps. Two days in October, discovered portions of 19th-century house construction. House foundations mapped and numerous artifacts collected.	September 29 and October 22--23, 1997	Mansberger 1997d
FRR; FWAI	Corneau	2	F. Mansberger	Evaluative testing of the east 64' (19.5m) of the original lot. Exposed an early cellar, a cistern, a well, etc. Cellar was probably an exterior facility. No additional evidence for the Corneau House was found.	October 22–No- vember 3, 1997	Mansberger 1997e
FRR; FWAI	Dean, backyard	13	F. Mansberger	Excavations conducted in order to locate the carriage barn. Located and excavated a small privy (F-7), small carriage house, rear fence line, a second privy (F-2), a deep wood-lined pit (F-6), enlargement of the carriage barn, a third privy (F-4), a fourth privy (F-5).	November and December, 1997	Mansberger, draft re- port, February 1998, on file at LIHO
FRR; FWAI	Morse, front yard	9	F. Mansberger	Test excavations to discover front porch; small stoop was discovered.	June 1999	Ongoing as of June 17, 1999

<sup>1</sup> FRR = Fever River Research.

<sup>2</sup> FWAI = Fischer–Wisnosky Architects, Inc.

Table 3. Archeological investigations conducted at Lincoln Home National Historic Site

Property	Location	Excavated Area	Excavator and Year	Reference
Lincoln	Backyard	149.0 m <sup>2</sup>	Hagen 1951	Mansberger 1987
	House foundation perimeter	17.6 m <sup>2</sup>	Mansberger 1985	Mansberger 1987
	Basement	1.0 m <sup>2</sup>	Noble 1987	Noble 1988
	<b>Total</b>	<b>167.6 m<sup>2</sup></b>		
Shutt	House foundation perimeter	15.5 m <sup>2</sup>	Mansberger 1985	Mansberger 1987
Cook	House foundation perimeter	30.2 m <sup>2</sup>	Mansberger 1985 Noble 1989	Mansberger 1987 Noble 1989a
Dean <sup>1</sup>	Backyard	82.1 m <sup>2</sup>	Mansberger 1997 <sup>1</sup>	Mansberger 1998
	Carriage House yard	16.0 m <sup>2</sup>	Noble 1989	Noble 1989b
	Foundation and outbuilding	25.0 m <sup>2</sup>	Noble 1991	Noble 1991
	<b>Total</b>	<b>121.1 m<sup>2</sup></b>		
Robinson <sup>2</sup>	East, south, west yards near house	8.6 m <sup>2</sup>	Perry 1981 <sup>2</sup>	Perry 1984
	Yard	23.5 m <sup>2</sup>	Noble 1993	Noble 1993a
	<b>Total</b>	<b>32.1 m<sup>2</sup></b>		
Arnold	Yard	60.5 m <sup>2</sup>	Noble 1991	Noble 1991
	“barn area”	2.0 m <sup>2</sup>		
	“barn area”	2.0 m <sup>2</sup>	Noble 1992	Noble 2001a
	East (1992)	2.0 m <sup>2</sup>		
	West (1992)	2.0 m <sup>2</sup>	Frost 1992	Frost 1997
<b>Total</b>	<b>68.5 m<sup>2</sup></b>			
Sprigg	Rear ¼ yard	7.0 m <sup>2</sup>	Noble 1992	Noble 2001b
	Backyard	9.0 m <sup>2</sup>	Noble 1993	Noble 2001b
	Backyard, rear of house	20.0 m <sup>2</sup>	Mansberger 1997	Mansberger 1997a
	Privy, side yards	7.7 m <sup>2</sup>		
	Front yard	4.0 m <sup>2</sup>		
<b>Total</b>	<b>47.7 m<sup>2</sup></b>			
Corneau	Yard	21.0 m <sup>2</sup>	Frost 1995	Frost 1998
	Front porch	35.0 m <sup>2</sup>	Mansberger 1997	Mansberger, personal communication 1999
	West yard	49.3 m <sup>2</sup>		
	Barn	65.5 m <sup>2</sup>		
	Privy	2.2 m <sup>2</sup>		
	Test unit	1.5 m <sup>2</sup>		
<b>Total</b>	<b>174.5 m<sup>2</sup></b>			
Carrigan	Test units	2.3 m <sup>2</sup>	Mansberger 1997	Mansberger, personal communication 1999
Dubois	Yard	11.0 m <sup>2</sup>	Noble 1993	Noble 1993b
	Rear porch (west)	8.1 m <sup>2</sup>	Mansberger 1999	Mansberger, personal communication 1999
	Front porch (east)	32.8 m <sup>2</sup>		
	Side porch (south)	36.4 m <sup>2</sup>		
	Bay window (south)	3.9 m <sup>2</sup>		
	Summer Kitchen	Not completed		
<b>Total</b>	<b>92.2 m<sup>2</sup></b>			
Morse	Front porch (north)	22.7 m <sup>2</sup>	Mansberger 1999	Mansberger, personal communication 1999
	Side porch (east)	7.8 m <sup>2</sup>		
	West addition	19.2 m <sup>2</sup>		
	South addition	6.6 m <sup>2</sup>		
	South yard	9.0 m <sup>2</sup>		
<b>Total</b>	<b>65.3 m<sup>2</sup></b>			
Allen Barn	Shovel-skimmed floor	65.0 m <sup>2</sup>	Mansberger 1985	Mansberger 1987
<b>Total Area Excavated at LIHO</b>		<b>882.0 m<sup>2</sup></b>		

Table 3. Concluded.

<sup>1</sup> Mansberger (1998:21, Table 2) recovered a total of 4,696 artifacts from the Dean House backyard excavations. A subtotal of 3,345 (71.2%) came from Features 2 and 4–8, and 1,351 (28.8%) came from the general fill. Mansberger (1998:21, Table 2) classified these artifacts into nine categories: foodways service (1,233, 26.3%), foodways storage and preparation (330, 7.0%), foodways remains (655, 13.9%), personal (938, 20%), clothing (99, 2.1%), household (307, 6.5%), architecture (1067, 22.7%), labor/activities (20, 0.4%), and undetermined (47, 1.0%).

<sup>2</sup> A minimum of 113 ceramic vessels are represented by the diagnostic sherds recovered during Leslie Perry’s 1981 Robinson House excavations (Perry 1984:92–95, Table B-3). Artifact categories included ceramics, bottle glass (108), buttons (shell, 2; china, 6; bone, 2), tobacco pipe fragments (3), shoe fragments (4), coins (1), household glass (19), decorative metal (1), nails (464), window glass (82), brick fragments (2,509), mortar fragments (2,892), plaster fragments (44), scrap metal (3,979), and faunal remains (114, ecofacts). A total of 15 archeological features, including a 19th-century well and cistern, were located during the excavations (Perry 1984:8–9, Table 1).

Table 4. Disposition of artifacts and archival materials from excavations at Lincoln Home National Historic Site.

Location <sup>1</sup>	Artifacts	Archival Items	Total
LIHO	13,581	989	14,570
MWAC	70,952	5,102	76,054
Total	84,533	6,091	90,624

<sup>1</sup>As of January 2000.

Table 5. Archeological materials recovered from excavations at the Dean House and curated at Lincoln Home National Historic Site.

Box <sup>1</sup>	Artifact Lot Numbers	Feature Number	Other
1	1–10	—	test excavations
2	16	2	
3	16	2	
4	17–23	3–4	
5	24–28	5	
6	29	5	
7	30	5	
8	31–32	5	
9	33–42	6	
10	43–48	7	
11	49–62	8–9	
12	—	2	Level 5

<sup>1</sup> Curation container is polyethylene (© Coroplast ) that measures 15.5" long, 12" wide, and 10" high.

Table 6. Archeological materials deaccessioned from the Midwest Archeological Center and curated at Lincoln Home National Historic Site.

Accession Number	Catalog Numbers
MWAC 75	2470–2556
MWAC 75	2557–2633
MWAC 75	2635–2656
MWAC 75	2658–2659
MWAC 75	2661–2729
MWAC 75	2730–2779
MWAC 75	3003–3103
MWAC 75	3265–3319
MWAC 75	3321–3358, 3450
MWAC 75	3350–3449
MWAC 75	3451–3472
MWAC 75	3473–3640
MWAC 75	3641–3740
MWAC 75	3473–3640
MWAC 195	2810–2826
MWAC 195	2828–2854, 4401
MWAC 195	2780–2789
MWAC 197	5372–5378
MWAC 198	2855–2872
MWAC 203	(8,657 objects; 17 boxes)
MWAC 366	1133–1134, 1136, 1138, 1140–1151, 1153–1186, 1188, 1984, 2318, 2352, 2634
MWAC 366	6441, 6455, 6457–6494
MWAC 366	6524, 6526–6527, 6529–6549, 6551–6552, 6554–6555, 6557
MWAC 366	6558–6574
MWAC 366	6575–6585
MWAC 366	6586–6598
MWAC 366	6610–6612
MWAC	Unmarked

Table 7. Archeological materials from excavations at the Arnold Barn and the Corneau House curated at Lincoln Home National Historic Site.

Box	Catalog Nos.	MWAC Accession Nos.	Other
1 Arnold Barn 1996	8631–8676	200–204	
2 Arnold Barn 1996	8677–8746	[401–001] — [406–004]	HS-20A, RC SH4
3 Arnold Barn 1996	—	695	11SG288, Privy 2, Frost 1998
4 Arnold Barn 1996	9035–9061, 9111–9128	801 – [802–004] [802 – 006 + 007]	
5 Arnold Barn 1996	9065–9068	[802–005]	
6 Arnold Barn 1996	9069–9081	[802–005]	
7 Arnold Barn 1996	9129–9169	901	
8 Arnold Barn 1996	9082–9110	[802–005]	
9 Sprigg House	—	— / LIHO Acc. No. 226	
10 Corneau House 1995	—	631 / LIHO Acc. No. 205	Frost 1998

Table 8. Archeological materials from Lincoln Home National Historic Site in laboratory storage at the Midwest Archeological Center.

House	HS-	Excavator and Date	MWAC Acc. No.	LIHO Acc. No.	Box <sup>1</sup> Count
Arnold	20	Noble 1991	492	124	5
Sprigg	11	Noble 1992	483	144	6
Arnold	20	Noble 1992	483	144	1
Dubois	15	Noble 1993	630	158	3
Sprigg	11	Noble 1993	630	159	3
Dean	13	Noble 1989	—	—	12
Robinson	10	Noble 1991	492	124	2
Arnold	20	Noble 1991	492	124	8
<sup>1</sup> Large, flat cardboard box with outside dimensions of 23" long, 19" wide, and 5" high.					40

Table 9. Archeological materials from Lincoln Home National Historic Site curated at the Midwest Archeological Center.

Historic Location	Collector and Collection Date	MWAC Acc. No.	LIHO Acc. No.	Catalog Numbers	Box <sup>1</sup> Count
Lincoln House	Noble 1987	247	77	—	11
city electric trench	Noble 1987	261	78	1907–1982	1
street lamp installation	Noble 1987	262	79	1878–1906	—
Cook House	Noble 1989	336	—	Not cataloged	14
Dean House	Noble 1989	337	—	Not cataloged	2
Lincoln House	Krupka, Richner 1986	376	—	Not cataloged	1
Cook House	Park Staff	377	165	Not cataloged	1
Lincoln House	Mansberger 1990	378	199	Not cataloged	1
Lincoln House	Noble 1992	483	144	Not cataloged	1
Lincoln House	Park Staff 1991	491	123	Not cataloged	1
Lincoln House	Noble 1991	492	124	Not cataloged	15
Robinson House	Noble 1993	506	157	Not cataloged	3
Dean House	Noble 1993	510	155	Not cataloged	1
DuBois House	Noble 1993	630	158	Not cataloged	5
Sprigg House	Noble 1993	630	159	Not cataloged	—
Corneau Lot	Weymouth and Nickel 1977	843	—	Not cataloged	magnetic tape

<sup>1</sup> Large, flat cardboard boxes with outside dimensions of 23" long, 19" wide, and 5" high.

Table 10. Archival documents and written materials that are curated at Lincoln Home National Historic Site.

Volume	Title	Other Information
I	The Lincoln Family	Red Binder Prepared by George Painter Nov. 1980
II	The History of the Lincoln Home	Brown Binder Prepared by George Painter
III	Abraham Lincoln	Blue Binder Prepared by George Painter
IV	Life-Styles and Artifacts of the Lincoln Period	Black Binder Prepared by George Painter
V	The Lincoln Neighborhood	Green Binder Prepared by George Painter
I	Manuscripts	Folders 1–4
—	Historical Filing System	—
—	Lincoln Home Interpretive Manual	—
—	Interpretive Prospectus and Historical Information	—
Folder 3	Interpretive Reference Material and Support Information, Miscellaneous “Springfield in the 1840s: A Social and Economic Portrait”	Folders 1–4
I–III, V	Draft copies	Folders 1–4

Table 11. Color 35-mm slides curated at Lincoln Home National Historic Site.

Subject	Catalog Number
Lincoln Home Oldroyd Postcards	— <sup>1</sup>
Lincoln Home Interior	LH 1930 (1–6)
Lincoln Home Exterior	LH 1948 (1–3)
Lincoln Home Interior	LH 1948 (4–7)
Archeology, Lincoln Home Initial Test Trench	LH Arch-2 (1951) LH Arch-6 (1951) LH Arch-7 (1951)
Archeology, Lincoln Home, Carriage House Area	LH Arch-3 (1951) LH Arch-4 (1951) LH Arch-8 (1951) LH Arch-10 (1951) LH Arch-10a (1951) LH Arch 11–14 (1951) LH Arch-14a (1951) LH Arch-15 (1951)
Archeology, Lincoln Home, 1887 Flagpole Area	LH Arch-16 (1951)
Archeology, Lincoln Home, The Oldroyd Barn	LH Arch-17 (1951) LH Arch-19 (1951) LH Arch-20 (1951) LH Arch-22 (1951) LH Arch-(24–30) (1951)
Archeology, Lincoln Home, Barn, and Brick Pit Area	LH Arch-(32–37) (1951)
Archeology, Lincoln Home, Deep Trash Pit and the Lincoln Privy	LH Arch-(38–40) (1951) LH Arch-(44–45) (1951)
Archeology, Lincoln Home, Filling In	LH Arch-46 (1951)
Lincoln Home Restoration, November 1952	LH 1952- (2–10)
Lincoln Privy Restoration, February 1954	LH Privy-(1–17) (1954)
Lincoln Home Restoration, Summer 1954	LH 1954-(3–17)
Lincoln Home Exterior 1955	LH Exterior-1a (1955) LH Exterior-(2–5) (1955)
Lincoln Home Interior 1955	LH Interior-(1–32) (1955)
Lincoln Home McCall’s Story	LH McCall-(1–20) (1957)
Lincoln Home Painting 1957	LH 1957-(1–4)
Lincoln Home School Tours	School tours, no date
Corneau House Lot, next door before move and during preparation, 1962	Corneau House-2 (1962) Corneau House-3 (1962)
Corneau House Before Moving	Corneau House-(5–19) (1962)
Corneau House in Place 1962	Corneau House-(20–22) (1962)
Corneau House Restoration, no date	4 slides, unlabeled, unnumbered
Centennial 1965	4 slides, unlabeled, unnumbered
Backyard Garden , no date	5 slides, unlabeled, unnumbered
Lincoln Home Area, no date	15 slides, unlabeled, unnumbered
Lincoln Furniture	6 slides, unlabeled, unnumbered

*Note:* These slides were taken by Richard S. Hagen, Archaeologist and Architectural Consultant for the State of Illinois. The original slides are curated at the Illinois Historic Preservation Agency, Division of Historic Sites, Old State Capitol, Springfield, Illinois.

<sup>1</sup> Lincoln Home Oldroyd Card (1884); Lincoln Home Oldroyd Card (1884).

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Table 12. Archival materials on file at the Midwest Archeological Center.

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National Register of Historic Places nomination form for Lincoln Home National Historic Site.

Archeological field notes, basement excavations in Lincoln House, HS-1; V. Noble 1987; MWAC 247/LIHO 77.

Field excavation forms, basement excavations in Lincoln House, HS-1; V. Noble 1987; MWAC 247/LIHO 77.

Artifact or specimen catalog, LIHO restoration, basement excavations in Lincoln House, HS-1; V. Noble 1987; MWAC 247/LIHO 77.

LIHO restoration, basement excavations in Lincoln House; HS-1; V. Noble 1988; MWAC 247/ LIHO 77.

Jacketed microfilm, Lincoln Home National Historic Site, V. Noble 1988; MWAC 247/LIHO 77.

Cook House excavation forms, V. Noble 1989; MWAC 336.

LIHO Cook House specimen catalog.

Trip report, V. Noble, dated August 23, 1989, regarding work at LIHO from June 26 to August 9, 1989.

Dean House excavation forms Lincoln Home National Historic Site, V. Noble 1989; MWAC 337.

Mansberger's field notes; handwritten originals regarding excavations at the Lincoln House, HS-1; May 1990; MWAC 378/LIHO 199.

Mansberger's excavation notes for the handicapped access area at the Lincoln House, HS-1; May 7–9, 1990, adjacent to the east porch area.

Record photographs of Mansberger's excavations in the handicap access area of the Lincoln House, HS-1: Roll 1, 1–23 and Roll 2, 2–13; contact prints and negatives.

Sprigg House excavation notes by V. Noble 1992; MWAC 483/LIHO 144.

Dean House excavation forms for work conducted by V. Noble 1992; MWAC 483/LIHO 144.

Arnold House excavation forms for work conducted by V. Noble 1992; MWAC 483/LIHO 144.

Specimen catalog forms, Sprigg House excavation by V. Noble 1992; MWAC 483/LIHO 144.

Trip report by V. Noble regarding Sprigg, Arnold, and Dean House excavations, July 13–31, 1992.

Excavation forms for the Robinson House, HS-10, by V. Noble, August 1991.

Excavation forms for the Dean House, HS-13, by V. Noble, August 1991.

Excavation forms for the Arnold House, HS-20; by V. Noble, 1991.

Artifact or specimen catalog, Lincoln Home, V. Noble 1991; MWAC 492/LIHO 124.

Trip report by V. Noble for excavations at Lincoln Home National Historic Site, July 8– August 30, 1991.

Trip report by V. Noble for the excavations conducted at the Robinson House, May 10–21, 1993; MWAC 506/LIHO 157.

Excavation forms for the excavations conducted at the Robinson House, summer 1993.

Trip report by V. Noble regarding monitoring conducted at the Dean House prior to and during its removal and relocation, March 29–April 3, 1993.

Dubois House excavation forms by V. Noble; MWAC 630/LIHO 158.

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Table 12. Continued.

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Sprigg House excavation forms 1993; MWAC 630/LIHO 159.

Trip report by V. Noble for archeological work completed at Lincoln Home National Historic Site, July 13–30, 1993; MWAC 630/LIHO 158,159.

Magnetic survey of the Corneau House Lot, Lincoln Home National Historic Site, by John Weymouth October 1, 1978.

Memorandum regarding magnetic survey of the Corneau House Lot, Lincoln Home National Historic Site, by Nickel and Weymouth dated June 12, 1978.

Corneau House Lot magnetic survey printout; MWAC 843.

One large file drawer containing color 35-mm slides, negatives, and contact prints for black and white photographs documenting archeological investigations at Lincoln Home National Historic Site; MWAC 336; 336, 337; 483, 492, 506, and 510.

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