

AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

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Champoeg, located along the Willamette River, developed as a transportation center for both river and overland travel and as a shipping point for agricultural products. Retired employees of the Hudson's Bay Company were the first to settle in the area, in the 1830s. American settlers began arriving in large numbers in the mid-1840s. A flood in 1861 destroyed the town and efforts to rebuild were minimally successful.

The research problem concerns adapting a frontier model developed for East Coast sites and applying it to a West Coast site. The data base used was the archaeological collection recovered from the townsite of Champoeg as well as land records and historical documentation. Adaptation of the frontier model included reorganizing the artifact classification system and retabulation of the model parameters. Champoeg reflects the adjusted frontier pattern suggesting that the model is a useful indicator of a frontier material culture.

CHAMPOEG: A PERSPECTIVE OF A FRONTIER COMMUNITY

IN OREGON, 1830-1861

by

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CHAMPOEG: A PERSPECTIVE OF A FRONTIER COMMUNITY

IN OREGON, 1830-1861

INTRODUCTION

The historic townsite of Champoeg is located on the south bank of the Willamette River in Section 2, Township 4 South, Range 2 West, Willamette Meridian, Marion County, Oregon. The present condition of Champoeg closely resembles the natural setting as seen by the first Euro-Americans traveling through the valley. The dominant visual image is of rolling open prairies covered with grasses. Vegetation along creeks and the Willamette River consists of oak groves, scattered conifers, and brushy understory.

The Champoeg townsite is located in Champoeg State Park, a park dedicated to the pioneer settlers and to the historic events that took place there. The townsite is contained within a 447.7 acre Historical Archaeological Area protected by the National Register of Historic Places.

The terraced alluvial flood plain of the Champoeg area provided a rich food source (camas and grass seeds, acorns, and game animals) to the wandering bands of Kalapuya Indians living in the Willamette Valley prior to historic contact. In 1811, two fur trappers from the Pacific Fur Company,

owned by John Jacob Astor, were the first Euro-Americans to enter the Willamette Valley. Very quickly the valley's abundant food resources and beaver population drew attention from the rival British and American fur companies. Settlement began in the Willamette Valley in 1830 by retired French-Canadian fur trappers, but by the mid-1840s American pioneers dominated the region. Throughout these years, Champoege served as a meeting place, a trading station and finally the center of a farming community.

The source of the name Champoege has long been debated, but a combination of the French word "champ" (plains) and the Indian word "pooitch" (root) is thought to be the most accurate according to C.O. Pelland, an old settler (Oregon Historical Society Scrapbook 276:145).

The 1850s brought new prosperity with the discovery of gold in California, providing a ready market for Willamette Valley farmers. Former mountain man Robert "Doc" Newell envisioned Champoege as a great city and promoted the location for a townsite. The platted town of Champoege was recorded in 1852 and grew rapidly until 1859-60, when a depression caused a general decline in business. However, a near fatal blow to Champoege occurred when a flood in December 1861 swept through the town, leaving only a sandy beach in its wake. Nevertheless, Champoege remained a shipping point for the valley, and several new buildings were constructed. But then, in 1892, another flood destroyed the last hope of Champoege becoming a townsite.

Champoeg is an intact historical archaeological site which has been disturbed only by light farming and sheep grazing since the 1890s.

Archaeological investigations of Champoeg were carried out between 1971 and 1975. This thesis focused on the cultural material collected by Dr. John Atherton of Portland State University during the field seasons of 1973, 1974, and 1975. The re-evaluation of the cultural material was necessary for consistent description and analysis.

Evaluating a classification system and identifying features of a frontier settlement pattern were goals of this research. A classification system and frontier settlement pattern was adapted to create an adjusted frontier model. The adjusted frontier model was then used to interpret the Champoeg artifact assemblage.

THE SETTING

PHYSICAL SETTING

Champoeg is located on the southern first terrace along the south bank of the Willamette River within the Willamette Valley Physiographic Province. The Willamette Valley is 130 miles (160k) long and up to 30 miles (65k) wide with a north-south orientation paralleling the Coast Range on the west and the Cascade Range on the east. The natural terrain, which has been influenced by the meanderings of the Willamette River, is characterized by alluvial flats separated by groups of low hills (Franklin and Dyrness 1973 and Baldwin 1976) (Figure 1).

Geologically, the Willamette Valley Province has been shaped by a variety of activities as Trimble and San Martin report,

The oldest strata, Lower Eocene, are represented by the Siletz Volcanics, composed predominately of submarine pillow lava flows and breccias interfingered with sedimentary rocks. The late Eocene, Oligocene, Miocene, and Pliocene are represented by sedimentary tuffaceous sandstone and siltstone interbedded with basaltic flows and occasionally conglomerates. The Upper Tertiary system is represented by the Troutdale gravels and the Boring lavas (Trimble 1963 and San Martin 1974:2).

And according to Balster and Parsons,

Middle Pleistocene gravel deposits are overlain by a silty and a sandy unit with remnants of an extensive paleosol indicating a period of weathering and an important unconformity. This paleosol is overlain by a sandy silt with a predominantly basaltic mineral assemblage which in turn is overlain by a faintly bedded, macaceous, quartzose silt (Balster and Parsons 1968:4).

Modern flood plain deposits mantle the younger parts of the valley, developing a series of sediments by cutting and removing the older materials and redepositing alluvium in their place (San Martin 1974 and Glenn 1965:15). The series of alluvial deposits are important for understanding the present-day valley environment.

Following the Illinoian glaciation late in the Pleistocene epoch, the entire valley as far south as Eugene was drowned by water and partially filled with silt to a depth of about 30 meters. Later, near the close of Wisconsin glaciation (10,000 to 15,000 years ago), the valley was again flooded because of an ice dam on the Columbia River (Franklin and Dyrness 1973:16).

Loy reports that the "soil of the Willamette Valley floodplain and terraces are dominantly deep, silty, moderately dark and somewhat acid. Poorly drained soils are common" (Loy 1976:124).

These rich alluvial soils, combined with a mild temperature range, adequate annual precipitation (averaging between 40 and 60 inches), and a rather long growing season (200-250 days), make the Willamette Valley a perfect agricultural region (Dart 1981:41-42). The natural vegetation of the alluvial bottomlands is largely composed of prairie and riparian deciduous forest. Forest and woodland dominate both the western and eastern slopes of the valley. The most persistent zone includes Douglas-fir (Pseudotsuga menziesii) with admixtures of grand fir (Abies grandis) and big-leaf maple (Acer macrophyllum) (Habeck 1961 and Loy 1976). On drier sites and often representing successional vegetation is a woodland of Oregon white oak

(Quercus garryana). An abundance of game animals first drew the attention of fur trappers stationed on the Columbia River. Bear (Ursus americanus), deer (Odocoileus spp), and elk (Euarctos americanus), along with fox (Vulpes fulva) and beaver (Castoridae canadensis) are mentioned in early accounts of hunting expeditions down the Willamette Valley.

This fertile valley became synonymous with the entire Oregon territory, for it was the description of rich soil, abundant game, timbered slopes, and well-watered land that beckoned to hundreds of Americans.

ETHNOGRAPHIC SETTING

The Willamette Valley was, at the beginning of the 19th century, home to perhaps twenty bands of Indians collectively recognized as the Kalapuya. Linguistically the Willamette Valley natives spoke Kalapuyan, a language related to the Penutian Phylum which was divided into three sub-dialects relating to geographical location. "At the southern end of the valley were the Yoncalla-speakers. In the middle of the valley the Santiam dialect was spoken and at the northern end of the valley the Indians spoke Tualatin" (Beckham 1977:38). "In the French Prairie area, were the Pudding River people,...who spoke a dialect of the distinct central language of Kalapuyan" (Zenk 1976:4 and Jacobs 1945).

The boundaries of the individual groups have been the subject of some debate. Early maps of Oregon show that the Champoege area was on the border between the Tualatin and Santiam people (Figure 2). A recent map suggests that a discrete group of natives were identified within the Champoege area (Figure 3). John Work recorded in July 1834 that they were "not far from an Indian village opposite Campment du Sauble", a common name for the Champoege area (Scott 1923:245-246). According to Hussey, "even more significant is the fact that a United States agent, William Slacum, made a study of the Willamette Valley tribes early in 1837 and reported that the "Champoicho" tribe lived on the west bank of the river" (Hussey 1967:17 and Slacum

Figure 2. Kalapuyan communities in the Willamette Valley (Jacobs 1945).

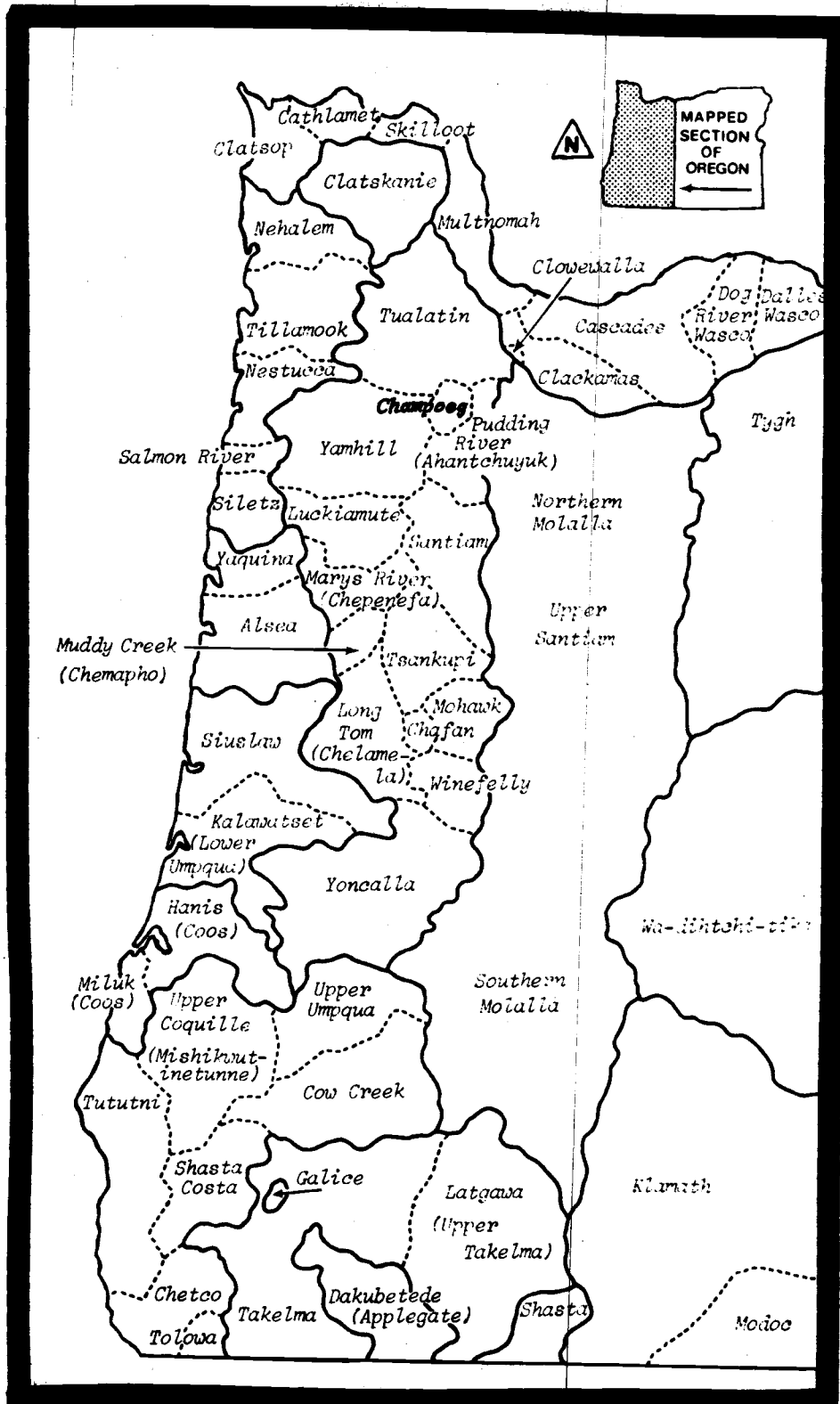


Figure 3. Indian Groups of Western Oregon (Beckham 1977).

1912:201). However, Louis LaBonte, a retired Hudson's Bay Company fur trapper living in the French Prairie area recalled, "As to Champoege, ...this was originally a camping and council ground of the Indian. It was near the north boundary of the Calapooyas, and here various tribes came to trade, to play games of chance and skill, and not infrequently to intermarry" (Lyman 1900:175). It is unclear whether Champoege served as simply a meeting ground and food resource area for the various tribes located in the northern Willamette Valley or if it was the home of a particular group.

The political structure of the Kalapuya is extremely difficult to assess as decimation from diseases had broken down the usual cultural patterns by the time they were described by anthropologists. Albert Gatschet (1899:302) suggests that chiefs were merely the wealthiest members of their village groups, but were not recognized as an institutional authority. It has been suggested by the historic record that "head chiefs" arose in response to Euro-Americans' need to deal with authoritative representatives of "tribes" in treaty negotiations (Zenk 1976:16). Perhaps the best appraisal of the situation is to accept the premise that when necessary a "head chief" could be chosen and that there was a culturally-recognized mechanism for doing so, i.e. wealth.

While wealth was a symbol of power, the shaman of a band also played an important role. As healer and spiritual

leader, the shaman, whether male or female, was a strong voice in the internal organization of the band. The shaman was involved in the rituals of life: birth, puberty, marriage, and death.

The basic social unit seems to have centered around the family. The Kalapuya conformed to a general pattern of patrilocal residence. Intermarriage between bands was common, with one spouse the preferred custom.

The extended family lived in a variety of houses and settings depending on the season. A winter-village was established with semi-permanent plank or bark shelters packed with dirt, with central fire hearths. During the summer, families followed the ripening schedule of food resources, living in temporary "crude brush huts, or circular windbreaks, about five feet high, constructed of poles and covered with fir boughs. Other accounts say that the Kalapooians lived under blankets, skins, or pieces of bark thrown upon bushes and exposed to all changes of the weather" (Hussey 1967:12 and Henry in Coues 1897:817).

The Kalapuya exploited their environment for both plant and animal resources on a rotating schedule. Resources found in the uplands included deer, elk, camas (Camassia spp), nuts and berries. The lowlands contained the most substantial amount of resources for the native diet. Large game animals grazed on the prairie along with a wide variety of small game. Grass seeds, berries, nuts, camas, and wild carrots (Daucus carota) were all available on the prairies,

as well as such delicacies as grasshoppers, yellowjacket larvae, and honey. The riverine resources included water-fowl, non-anadromous fish, several salmon species, and eels. The ethnographic record suggests that salmon did not play a large role in the exploitation cycle because of the natural obstruction created by the Willamette Falls.

However, trade and fishing expeditions to nearby coastal tributaries likely made this resource more important within overall Kalapuyan subsistence than it might otherwise have been (Zenk 1976:34). As Alexander Henry reported in 1814,

saw party in the Champoege-Newberg vicinity of "Yamhelas" leading a horse loaded with bags of raw camas. Surely, these Yamhills were on a trading expedition to the falls; three days later, met the same party, this time loaded with dried salmon" (Henry in Coues 1965:812, 819).

It is an unfortunate circumstance that more is not known about the numerous bands of the Kalapuya. The Willamette Valley Indians, along with the Columbia River Indians, were hard hit by diseases introduced by Euro-Americans. A smallpox epidemic in the 1790s was responsible for greatly reducing the native population. However, the most devastating series of epidemics occurred in 1830-33. These epidemics were reported to be caused by "fever and ague" or "intermittent fever" that also has been identified as malaria (Boyd 1975). It is a grim picture that Boyd describes:

Within the space of four years, most of the Indians of the lower Columbia and Willamette valleys were wiped out. By 1834, when there were few natives left to be infected, fever and ague began to decline. In succeeding years, minor epidemics, such as measles

and dysentery, as well as lingering illnesses like tuberculosis and venereal disease, gradually contributed to the disappearance of those few Indians who had survived the ravages of the epidemic of the early 1830s (Boyd 1975:136).

The impact the successive epidemics had on the native populations was recorded by Dr. John McLoughlin, Chief Factor of the Hudson's Bay Company at Fort Vancouver, "...nine-tenths have been swept away by diseases, principally by fever and ague...whole and large villages were depopulated; and some entire tribes have disappeared" (Parker 1844:192-193).

The decimated bands of the Kalapuya lived without major conflicts with Euro-Americans until settlers began to encroach on their sources of food. Although there were no violent outbreaks between the Willamette Valley natives and the settlers, an Indian Commission was appointed to resolve the question of land ownership. A series of treaty meetings were held at Champoege in 1851. According to treaty commissioner, Governor John P. Gaines:

At Champoege, at 10 a.m. on April 3rd 1851 the Board instructed J. Parrish, Sub-Indian agent, to assemble the chiefs and principal men of the Kallapooya tribe of Indians at the Council House in Champoege that they may state their claims to the land they occupy, and that the Commissioners may know the terms upon which they are willing to treat for the purpose of extinguishing their title thereto (Mackey 1974:88).

The 1851 treaty allowed the Kalapuya to retain reservations in the Willamette Valley along the foothills of the Cascades and Coast ranges while giving up the prime agricultural bottom land (Hussey 1967:226-227). The United States Senate did not ratify the treaty because it allowed

the Natives to retain land within the area of white settlement. The Commission was dissolved by Congress and their duties were transferred to Territorial Superintendent of Indian Affairs Anson Dart. Dart also failed to negotiate terms which were acceptable to the Senate.

In 1853, Joel Palmer was appointed Superintendent of Indian Affairs, reporting that the

settlers have taken and now occupy...all the lands susceptible of cultivation, without regard to the occupancy of the indians, who in several instances have been driven from their huts, their fences thrown down and property destroyed (Carey 1922:580).

Palmer successfully negotiated a treaty with the confederated tribes of the Kalapuya which formally extinguished their title to land in the Willamette Valley. This treaty was quickly ratified by the Senate in 1855. Thus, the final chapter of the surviving Kalapuya was closed in 1856 when they were removed to the Grande Ronde Reservation in the Coast Range.

HISTORICAL SETTING

The historical record provides essential information necessary for placing the archaeological findings into the regional, national and international setting of that period. The material culture from an archaeological site must be interpreted in terms of the past activity that created the site, and not viewed as a separate entity. As historian Berkhofer explains, "far too often the historian (archaeologist) collapses the distinction between the observer and actor and becomes present-minded. He reads evidence in terms of his own time rather than of the postulated past time" (Berkhofer 1969:15).

Champoeg was little more than a nameless camas field when worldwide interest focused on the Pacific Northwest. In search of riches and new worlds, explorers sailed along the coastline creating maps based on observations and speculations. However, it was not until the discovery of the lucrative Pacific maritime fur trade in the eighteenth century that continuous interest in the Northwest developed. For American entrepreneurs this maritime fur trade provided a prosperous commercial enterprise which aided the nation's sagging economy. With the discovery of the Columbia River by Boston seaman Captain Robert Gray in 1792, Americans gained a foothold in the struggle for imperial ownership of the Northwest.

The Columbia River proved to be an important route to the vast untapped fur resources of the interior. The Lewis

and Clark expedition (1804-06) remarked on the abundance of fur bearing animals throughout their travels. Lewis and Clark sparked the interest not only of fur traders, but also of expansionists, creating a romantic vision of the young nation stretching from shore to shore.

In 1807, the Montreal-based North West Company sent David Thompson on an exploring expedition from the headwaters of the Columbia to the Pacific Ocean. The Pacific Fur Company of New York, owned by John Jacob Astor, sent two trading parties to the Columbia River soon after. One expedition went by sea and the other overland. Astor's ship, the Tonquin, arrived at the mouth of the Columbia River in April 1811. Fort Astoria was constructed that spring, several months prior to the arrival of the overland party led by Wilson Price Hunt. David Thompson, of the North West Company, descending the Columbia, arrived at Fort Astoria in July 1811. It is interesting that these two competing companies would arrive nearly simultaneously at the mouth of the Columbia River.

It was not until the winter of 1811-12 that the Willamette Valley was seen by Euro-Americans. The Astorians sent Robert Stuart, Regis Bruguier and a small party out in December 1811 to check reports of abundant game along the Willamette River and to "determine the advisability of establishing a trading post on its banks" (Franchere 1967:63). Further explorations were conducted in the spring of 1812, with Donald McKenzie and William Matthews leading

the party. The first trading post was established near what is now Salem by William Wallace and J.C. Halsey for wintering in the Willamette Valley and to relieve the chronic food shortages at Fort Astoria (Franchere 1967:73-74).

Astor's dream of exploiting the fur trade of the Pacific Northwest was short-lived due to a weak supply network and the War of 1812. The isolated group of men at Fort Astoria could see no alternative but to dissolve the Company and sell to the North West Company "the whole of their Establishments Furs and present Stock on hands on the Columbia and Thompson Rivers" (Elliott 1932:48). However, before the transaction was finalized, a British naval sloop arrived and took possession of the Fort and country. Fort Astoria returned to American property after the war, but continued to be operated by the North West Company. The Astorians, many of whom were French-Canadians, were welcomed to join the Nor'Westers, but many returned to the East Coast; others stayed in the area continuing to trap and eventually to settle in the Willamette Valley.

The North West Company took over the Astorian's enterprise and operated trapping expeditions in the Willamette Valley. A trading station constructed along the Willamette River in 1812, three miles west of the later Champoege townsite, was known as the Willamette Post and operated until 1824. The Willamette Post was ideally situated to serve as a trading point for the valley and

rendezvous location for trapping parties. The open fields stretched east for several miles, providing abundant pasturage for the large herds of horses needed by the fur brigades. This entire area was known as Champoeg or Campment du Sable (Figure 4). Champoeg later came to signify the platted townsite, but today reflects the more general area of Champoeg Park.

From 1813 until 1821 the North West Company was without serious competition in the Oregon territory. In 1821 the Company and the Hudson's Bay Company were forced to merge, creating a corporate monopoly. The much enlarged Hudson's Bay Company reorganized the Columbia Department, replacing personnel and encouraging self-sufficiency. The far-flung Columbia Department would eventually include the area north to the Russian settlements (Alaska), south to Spanish California and from the ocean east to the Rockies (Clark 1937). The new Chief Factor, John McLoughlin, was given the task of making the area a paying proposition.

American interest in the Northwest was undiminished in the ensuing years after the War of 1812. In 1818, a joint occupancy treaty was signed by the U.S. and Great Britain, providing equal opportunity for the interests of both nations in the region. The ten year treaty essentially neutralized the situation until a definite solution to their conflicting claims could be arranged. The treaty was renewed in 1827; however, the agreement was for an indefinite period, and could be terminated by either party

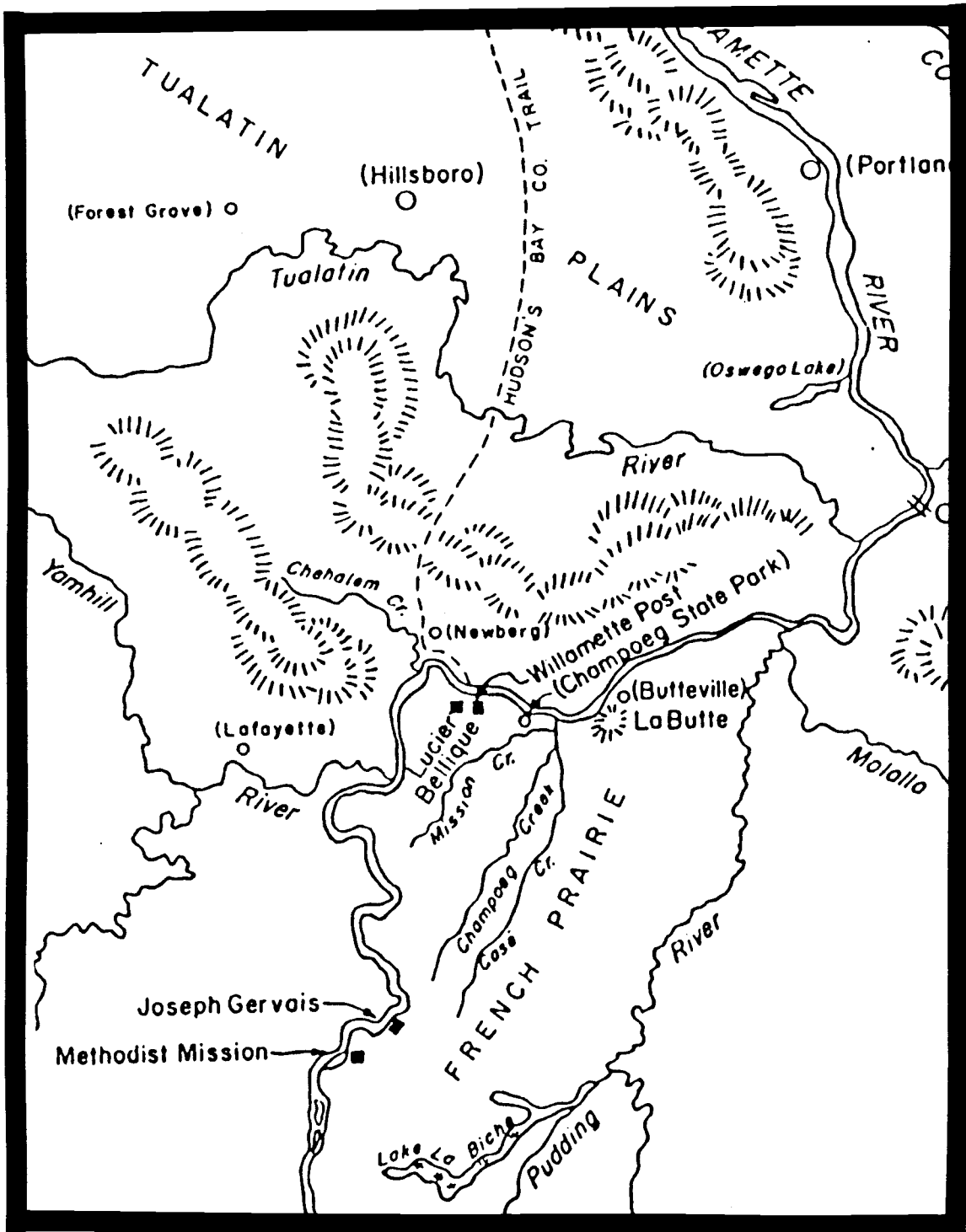


Figure 4. Map of Champoege and vicinity.

on a year's notice (Merk 1967). The British felt confident that the Columbia River would eventually be the boundary line. Thus, when the Hudson's Bay Company constructed a new fort, the site chosen was on the north side of the Columbia River.

Fort Vancouver was the main shipping point and the Hudson's Bay Company the only supplier in the Oregon territory for nearly two decades. In fact, as Hussey reports, "so effective was the Hudson's Bay Company in discouraging competitors that from 1824 until the arrival of American settlers and missionaries in 1834 the entire region was, in effect, British" (Hussey 1967:32). And, as William Ashley, a leader of the American fur trade in the Rockies, wrote in circa 1829,

American adventurers have almost disappeared, and the British have the command of the fur trade north of 49 degrees, and the chief enjoyment of it for some degrees south...The Hudson's Bay Company may be considered the sole occupants, as they are the only persons who have any pretensions to a regularly settled system of business, or who have any establishments in that country (Ashley 1981:26,29).

By the early 1830s the beaver population was nearly extinct due to an aggressive trapping policy maintained by the Hudson's Bay Company in the Snake River area and south of the Columbia River. However, the Willamette Valley served as a main artery for the southern expeditions led by Peter Skene Ogden, Alexander McLeod and Michael LaFramboise, among others. The Southern Expeditions, as they were called, proceeded through the Willamette Valley to the Umpqua drainage and further south into what is now northern

California. The Willamette Post and Champoeg continued to operate as livestock stations throughout the fur-trade period. The year 1830 was a watershed year in the development of the Willamette Valley, for it was in this year that three men put down their traps and took up the plow. As Chief Factor James Douglas of the Hudson's Bay Company would later note:

The interests of the Colony, and Fur Trade will never harmonize, the former can flourish, only, through the protection of equal laws, the influence of free trade, accession of respectable inhabitants; in short by establishing a new order of things, while the fur Trade, must suffer by each innovation (Hussey 1967:44).

The identity of the first farmer in the Willamette Valley has been the subject of much discussion. The controversy surrounds three retired French-Canadian fur trappers: Etienne Lucier settled near the Willamette Post several miles above Champoeg along the Willamette River; Joseph Gervais farmed further up the valley close to present-day Salem; and, finally, Jean Baptiste Desportes McKay established a farm west of Champoeg. The first American to settle within the present-day boundaries of Champoeg State Park was John Ball.

Ball had come overland with Nathaniel Wyeth, a New England ice merchant, in 1832 on a business venture. The powerful Hudson's Bay Company tolerated no competition and the Wyeth enterprise quickly folded. Ball found the Oregon territory to his liking, later reporting that "standing on the brink of the great Pacific, with the waves washing my

feet, was the happiest hour of my long journey" (Ball 1902:99). Initially, Ball worked for his board and room at Fort Vancouver teaching the first school in the Pacific Northwest.

Nathaniel Wyeth, touring the Willamette Valley in January 1833, noted the progress of the first farmers:

22 miles from the falls are 3 or 4 Canadians settled as farmers they have now been there one year have Hogs, Horses, Cows, have built barns, Houses, and raised wheat, barley, potatoes, turnips, cabages, corn, punkins, mellons (Young 1899:236).

Perhaps after hearing Wyeth's description of the valley, Ball in 1833 decided to take up farming "from which more comforts can be obtained with less labor, and is more healthy than most others" (Ball 1902:101). Ball traveled to the Willamette Valley, living with J.B.D. McKay and his family for three months while looking for a farm site. In his journal, Ball briefly describes how he set up his farm, providing a glimpse of this early settling process:

When Doctor McLoughlin found I was bent on going to farming, he loaned me farming utensils and seed for sowing, and as many horses as I chose to break in for teams....I drew out logs for my cabin, which, when I had laid up and put up rafters to make the roof, I covered with bark peeled from cedar trees. This bark covering was secured by poles crossed and tied at the ends with wood strings to the timbers below. Then out of some split plank I made a bedstead and a table.... I made horse harness, hoe handles, plowed, made fences, sowed and planted without help, except what I could get from a wild Indian, about six weeks in the spring (Ball 1902:102-103).

Ball does not mention receiving any assistance from John Sinclair, a fellow member of the 1832 Wyeth party, even though he lived with Ball for at least part of that year.

Ball only stayed through one planting season, selling his wheat in September for enough money to secure a place on the brig Dryad. Ball found the Oregon territory beautiful and bounteous but too rough, stating that the whites had taken on "the customs of the natives,...and with no prospects of immigrants such as to change the tone of society," he and Sinclair left "completely discouraged" (Ball 1902:104).

There were other settlers in the Champoeg area, like Ball, who farmed only one or two seasons and moved on. Because of the transient nature of these first settlers the development of Champoeg is difficult to trace. One exception is Jean Baptiste Desportes McKay, whose farm remained a consistent landmark until 1840 or 1841 when McKay went to live with his daughter and son-in-law twelve miles south of Champoeg (Hussey 1967:92). McKay's farm, located close to Champoeg along the Willamette River, was the regular point of entry into French Prairie, serving as a landing and shipping point for incoming supplies and outgoing wheat (Hussey 1967:73).

Nathaniel Wyeth, on his second trip to Oregon in 1834, visited the Willamette Valley and Sauvies Island looking for suitable locations for farms. Wyeth concentrated his efforts on Sauvies Island, but also maintained a farm in the Willamette Valley. Wyeth briefly described the location in his journal,

Sept. 22nd (1834)...returned to Duportes and went to look at a prairie about 3 miles below his place

and concluded to occupy it it is about 15 miles long 7 wide surrounded with fine timber and a good mill stream on it...Laid out a farm afternoon took a canoe and descended as far as falls (Young 1899:290).

The description suggests the general area around Champoege Creek; however, the site of this early farmstead has never been precisely located. Wyeth had shipped agricultural implements and other farming necessities on the May Dacre, which preserved his independence from the Hudson's Bay Company. From an archaeological standpoint Wyeth's supplies reflect a changing material culture in the Northwest. Wyeth presumably would have shipped equipment from the East Coast of the United States, and probably included provisions for settling a farm. Although Wyeth's enterprises failed, he helped establish the overland route to Oregon and increased public interest in this distant land.

A later resident of Champoege was Webley Hauxhurst, who came to Oregon from California with Ewing Young and Hall J. Kelley in 1834. Hauxhurst receives the honor of establishing the first grist-mill in Oregon. The exact location of the mill is controversial but it is thought to have been on Champoege Creek. Both John McLoughlin and Nathaniel Wyeth have been named as suppliers of the mill equipment, but this question may never be accurately answered. However, a brief review of the historical literature suggests the following scenario.

Hauxhurst came to Oregon under the cloud of other members of the Ewing Young party who were thought by the Mexican government in California to be horse thieves.

McLoughlin refused to sell supplies to the Young party until they were cleared of the charges. It is doubtful, therefore, that McLoughlin would turn around and supply expensive equipment for a mill to Hauxhurst. Hussey suggests that, "It is possible that Hauxhurst obtained his machinery from Nathaniel Wyeth and installed it on Wyeth's farm, which seemingly was in the same vicinity" (Hussey 1967:75). Hauxhurst apparently began construction almost immediately, as Rev. Samuel Parker, traveling through the valley in November 1835, noted:

These hunters recently turned to farmers, cultivate the most common useful productions,-- wheat of the first quality to as great extent as their wants require. A grist mill is just finished which adds to their comforts (Parker 1844:164).

Webley Hauxhurst symbolizes the changing balance of power between British and American interests. Hauxhurst was the first American to set up a successful business venture in the Champoeg area. Hauxhurst also was the first white to be converted to Christianity by the Methodist missionaries, foretelling perhaps of things to come by giving up his wild life for that of the pious pioneer. Hauxhurst lived at Champoeg with his Indian wife and family until 1839, at which time he moved to Mill Creek near Salem.

During the 1830s Champoeg began to take on the appearance of a farming neighborhood with an identifiable nucleus at McKay's settlement. Jean Baptiste Desportes McKay's farm, located a short distance from Champoeg, was the center of activity until about 1835, when the Hauxhurst

grist-mill began operation and the focal point of the community shifted to the Champoeg Creek area. Champoeg served as a community center rather than as a town by providing services such as a mill, a landing, a meeting location and, whenever possible, a school such as the one conducted in 1835 by Philip Edwards for thirteen pupils (Munnick 1959:55).

The Methodist missionaries Jason and Daniel Lee and their small party came with the 1834 Wyeth expedition, and settled south of Champoeg along the Willamette River. The missionaries set up a school for Indian children, but due to the reduced population they soon turned to more secular work. The Methodist mission became the center of the "upper" Willamette settlement, operating services such as a store and blacksmith shop.

Champoeg served as a meeting ground for large meetings involving the entire French Prairie area. Special agent William Slacum, who was gathering "useful information about the British and the inhabitants of the northwest" for the United States government, reported on "the public meeting that took place at "Camp Maud du Sable" on the subject of the expedition to California" to buy cattle (Slacum 1912:197). The valley residents were interested in the project because, if successful, it would allow individuals to own their own cattle rather than renting them from the Hudson's Bay Company. The formation of the "Cattle Company"

in 1837 was also the first time the settlers had joined together to achieve a common goal.

Residents of the Champoeg neighborhood during the 1830s included Louis Shanagorati, an Iroquois Indian, and his family; William Johnson; George Ebberts; Andre Longtain; Michael LaFramboise; Thomas J. Hubbard; William and Margaret Bailey; and others. Joining the residents in 1838 were two Catholic priests, Father Blanchet and Modeste Demers. A wooden church was constructed several miles south of Champoeg in the heart of French Prairie and christened St. Paul.

Thomas Farnham was among the Peoria Party of 1839. His journal gives a glimpse of the lifestyle and settlement pattern of French Prairie:

We soon crossed the stream, and entered the cabin of Mr. Johnson. It was a hewn log structure, about 20 feet square, with a mud chimney, hearth and fire-place. The furniture consisted of one chair, a number of wooden benches, a rude bedstead covered with flag mats, and several sheet-iron kettles, earthen plates, knives and forks, tin pint cups, an Indian wife, and a brace of brown boys...Adjoining Mr. Johnson's farm were four others, on all of which there were from fifty to a hundred acres under cultivation, and substantial log-barns...About a mile on our way, we called at a farm occupied by an American, who acted as blacksmith and gunsmith for the settlement. He appeared to have a good set of tools for his mechanical business, and plenty of custom...A mile or two farther on, we came upon the cabin of a Yankee tinker...Farther on, we came to the catholic chapel, a low wooden building, 35 or 40 feet in length; and the parsonage, a comfortable log cabin. Beyond these, scattered over five miles of country, were 15 or 20 farms, occupied by Americans, and retired servants of the Hudson's Bay Company (Farnham 1843:88-89).

The Willamette Valley was not destined to remain an area of quiet farming communities. Quickly the virtues of

the West were advertised; today's commercials have nothing on the boom promoters of the nineteenth century. Through speeches, travel guides and newspaper accounts, exaggerated descriptions of the Pacific Northwest were used to encourage thousands to move west. And so they came, first in hundreds as in the Great Migration of 1843, with 800-1000 in the party. Then in 1844, 1845, and 1846 the numbers of emigrants was 1,500, 3,000, and 1,350, respectively. In most cases the pioneers were unprepared for the long arduous trip across the nation; a few returned east or headed farther south to the kinder climate of California. The suffering of these pioneers was great and, if not for the generosity of the Hudson's Bay Company, many would have perished upon reaching the "land of plenty". As early pioneer Peter Burnett (1904:168-169) recalled,

We were a small, thinly settled community, poor and isolated from the civilized world. By the time we reached the distant shores of the Pacific, after a slow, wearisome journey of about two thousand miles, our little means were exhausted, and we had to begin life anew, in a new country. The wild game in Oregon was scarce and poor. Besides, we had no time to hunt them, and the weather was generally too wet to admit to it...The population being so much increased by each succeeding fall's immigration, provisions were necessarily scarce...Upon their arrival they found that those of us who preceded them had taken up the choice locations...and the newcomers had to travel over the country, in the rainy season, in search of homes...There were no hotels in the country, as there was nothing wherewith to pay the bills. The old settlers had necessarily to throw open their doors to the new immigrants, and entertain them free of charge.

The influx of pioneers had a profound effect on Oregon. Suddenly the problems inherent to a populated area were

present in the Willamette Valley. Property rights became a major issue, but there was no formal way to resolve land claims. The economy was based on a barter system which was not efficient for a rapidly expanding population. There was no legal or justice system in operation besides the omnipresent Hudson's Bay Company and the missionaries. And, of increasing importance, there was no established way to defend the communities from possible Native hostilities. A rather tongue-in-cheek assessment of the situation suggests a reason for the lack of authority in the early days:

They were all honest, because there was nothing to steal; they were all sober, because there was no liquor to drink; there were no misers, because there was no money to hoard; and they were all industrious, because it was work or starve (Burnett 1904:174).

Perhaps closer to the point, before the arrival of such large numbers of Americans the population had been fairly evenly distributed between French-Canadian and American, Catholic and Protestant. Problems such as operating a still or marauding wolves were handled through community meetings. These meetings often had a political undercurrent, but attempts to form a government always ended in factional fights between and within the various groups. It was not until the population became larger and predominantly American that a consensus vote was achieved.

The establishment of the Provisional Government is a unique event in Oregon's history and has taken on a legendary quality. The Methodist missionaries essentially "got the ball rolling" by sending a petition to Senator Linn

and the United States Senate in 1838. The petition briefly described the commercial advantages of the territory and pleaded for the protection of their families (Holman 1912:100). No action was taken on the 1838 petition and the matter was dismissed. In 1840 and 1843 petitions again were sent to Washington. However, Congress was reluctant to over-turn the joint-occupancy treaty and again the matter was dropped.

The death of Ewing Young in February 1841 served as a catalyst for the formation of a civil authority. Young was a dynamic personality and had amassed a considerable amount of property. When he died, there was no known heir and no way to dispose of his estate. Consequently, meetings were held on February 17th and 18th to organize a form of government to handle this case. The settlers agreed to as much government as was needed to settle probate affairs, electing officers and a judge. However, there was too much dissension among the settlers to agree on forming a government or electing a governor.

The year 1842 brought with it an influx of American pioneers, giving more strength to the non-missionary American faction. However, it was not until 1843 that the question of civil organization was discussed in earnest. The settlers met twice to discuss the problem of predatory animals. The second "Wolf Meeting" was held at Joseph Gervais's house on March 6, 1843. At the end of this meeting it was suggested that a committee be formed to

"consider the propriety of taking measures for the civil and military protection of this colony" (Carey 1922:378). A committee of twelve was appointed and instructed to report at the next meeting, planned for May 2, 1843. The committee consisted of Dr. Ira Babcock, Dr. Elijah White, James O'Neal, Robert Shortess, Dr. Robert Newell, Etienne Lucier, Joseph Gervais, Thomas Hubbard, Charles McRoy, William Gray, Sidney Smith and George Gay. The committee members reflected the different ethnic and interest groups of the French Prairie residents.

There are differing views of the events and significance of the May 2, 1843 meeting held at Champoege. However, the committee did present its prepared resolutions and ask for a vote to accept the civil organization. The first attempt to pass the measure was defeated, but due to some confusion the measure was offered again with the voters standing in lines rather than voting en masse. At this point accounts of the event diverge. On the one hand a dramatic gesture made by mountain man Joe Meek saved the day when he called out: "Who's for a divide? All for the report of the committee and an organization, follow me!" (Hussey 1967:153; Victor 1870:321; Holman 1912:113). A vote was then recounted and the report accepted by a margin of at least two votes (50-52).

A second version related by eyewitness Robert Newell suggests a very different scene:

As the two lines were being formed
considerable pulling and hauling with sharp

words, took place. After about half an hour the two lines were formed and tellers were appointed. The motion prevailed by five majority (Delamarter 1951:57).

According to Newell's account, Meek's activity was not considered important at the time of the meeting. Not until many years later was Meek's role dramatized (Delamarter 1951:65). Newell would seemingly have been very supportive of Meek, as they were brothers-in-law and long-time friends. The Meek story has become the most popular version, even today.

Whatever the conditions of the day, the outcome was significant. A committee of nine was elected to formulate a code of laws to be presented at the next meeting, scheduled for July 5, 1843 at Champoege. Thus as Hussey has observed,

by their action on May 2, 1843, the voters initiated steps which led directly to the creation of Oregon's first written constitution and code of laws. Although the organization created by that constitution was altered several times, there was no break in the continuity of government from 1843 to statehood (Hussey 1967:158).

The Champoege meeting place was commemorated with a stone monument in 1901. The location of the marker is on a bluff overlooking the Willamette River and was pointed out as the site of the vote by the last survivor of the famous event, Francis X. Matthieu (Figure 5).

The Provisional Government continued to change and develop as the needs of the society it served became more complex, with a governor replacing the executive committee in 1845. Thus, this isolated region organized an unofficial



Figure 5. May 2, 1901 ceremony at Champoeg; F.X. Matthieu holding flag (O.H.S. Collection Neg. #38469).

yet viable political organization until achieving the status of a territory of the United States in 1848.

One of the most important American settlers relative to the development of Champoeg was Robert Newell. Robert "Doc" Newell gave up the wild life of the mountain man in 1840 and, with his brothers-in-law, Joe Meek, and Caleb Wilkins, turned to farming in the Oregon Country. Newell first settled on the Tualatin Plains, then moved to Oregon City until he acquired Walter Pomeroy's land claim at Champoeg sometime between May 1843 and February 1844.

Walter Pomeroy arrived in Oregon in the fall of 1842, settled at Oregon City and immediately became active in many projects. Within the next several years he acquired property in Oregon City, a wheat farm on the Tualatin Plains, and a tract of land at Champoeg. Pomeroy always maintained his residence at Oregon City, but may have purchased at least part of Thomas McKay's claim when the latter sold out after the mill was damaged in the February flood of 1843 and he moved further upstream. Newell had taken out a claim on the Tualatin Plains in 1840. A strong oral tradition suggests that Pomeroy and Newell simply traded claims (Hussey 1967:106-107). In a barter system economy it seems very likely that the two men would find an exchange of property a satisfactory arrangement. According to Hussey:

The claim which Newell acquired was approximately one mile square. It lay on the south bank of the Willamette River and directly east of the land claimed by Andre Longtain. It included the lower course of

Champoeg Creek and the mill sites which had earlier attracted Webley Hauxhurst and Thomas McKay (Hussey 1967:195).

Newell constructed a house and barn about a quarter mile south of the river, cultivating a field of wheat in order to support his family. Newell was a very active pioneer, contributing his considerable energies to cultural, political and economic developments in Oregon. He was a member of the committee that drew up the Organic Code in 1843 and was elected to the first Legislative Committee of the Provisional Government. Newell dreamed of Champoeg becoming a great city.

Champoeg was well situated to fulfill Newell's dream. Established as a landing on the Willamette River and rendezvous location for the fur brigades, it was a well recognized area. The Willamette River was the easiest transportation route from Fort Vancouver or Oregon City to Champoeg. As early pioneer Willard Rees remembered:

On ascending the Willamette river from its confluence with the Columbia, a distance of some forty miles, the Champoeg prairies were the first open country of any considerable extent found bordering on the stream, which placed this prairie district in comparatively easy communication with ship navigation and Fort Vancouver (Rees 1879:21).

Upstream from Champoeg the river takes many twists and turns, such that, it takes twice as long to reach Salem by river as by land. Thus, when the French Prairie residents wanted to ship their wheat to Fort Vancouver they loaded it first in wagons, hauling it to Champoeg where it was weighed and stored in granaries until it could be transported by

river to the Fort. The Hudson's Bay Company built a receiving station at Champoeg sometime between 1841 and 1843 for the convenience of the farmers. The receiving station apparently was situated "on the high ground near the river bank, within a distance beginning about due north of the Champoeg Monument and extending southeast not more than 200 feet" (Hussey 1967:111), although there is conflicting information regarding the exact location and appearance. There were possibly three buildings associated with the station: a granary or warehouse which "was a substantial structure built in the Company's usual Canadian post-in-sill style...and a frame store, 24 feet by 34 feet and a frame dwelling, 20 by 30 feet" (Hussey 1967:111-112). The store was probably little more than a weighing station, as the company only gave out receipts for exchange. The Hudson's Bay Company receipts were most likely redeemed at Oregon City at either the Methodist Mission store or the Hudson's Bay Company store (Gilbert 1967:47). The Hudson's Bay Company station operated until about 1851, and then was rented out, continuing in use until the disastrous flood of 1861. Although the warehouse remained standing after the flood, it was carried by high water about 50 yards east and was never used again (Hussey 1967:115).

In 1844, Francis Pettygrove built a granary and warehouse at Champoeg and in the same year a ferry landing was established and a new road was planned connecting it with Salem (Hussey 1967:198). Although Champoeg served an

important function, it was still relatively unpopulated as late as 1846 when Joel Palmer noted, "The village contains a few old Shabby buildings, and a warehouse owned by the Company, where they receive the wheat of the settlers from thence to the Cascade mountains" (Palmer in Thwaites 1906:180). Because Champoeg was the gathering place for men to sell their crops, and generally to mingle, it is only natural that a tavern would soon appear. Margaret Bailey blamed much of her marital unhappiness on the "infamous John Hord's at Champoeg, since her husband was never intoxicated till he went there." Later Mrs. Bailey wrote, "A great carousal at John Hord's to night -- a plan to get money from those lately from California" (Bailey 1854:135-136).

In 1847 Newell, perhaps tiring of farming, turned his interest to the transportation business. He began operating three flat-bottom boats, the Mogul, the Ben Franklin and Great Western, between Champoeg and Oregon City, providing regular service for passengers and shipping wheat probably up until 1849 when he went to the California gold fields (Corning 1973:20, 84).

Champoeg's pattern of growth reflected the importance of agriculture to the new territory.

Since early immigrants brought little or no money with them and the fur trade had been conducted without the use of coin, the transition to the agricultural stage compelled a resort to a commodity currency. In Oregon the commodity currency was wheat, a product which was so easy to grow that it soon glutted the limited market (Gilbert 1967:53).

Throughout most of the 1840s supplies were difficult to obtain and the Hudson's Bay Company controlled the market. Newell wrote in April 1841, "This country is under the influence of the Hudson's Bay Company, and the Methodist Mission. The farmers get all their supplies from the two places" (Delamarter 1951:39).

The Hudson's Bay Company's annual supply ship arriving in the spring was the only regular trading vessel until the California gold rush in 1849. Typically the Hudson's Bay Company ship would carry a full line of necessities such as:

coarse woolens, cloths, baizes, and blankets;
hardware and cutlery, cotton cloths, calicoes, and
cotton handkerchiefs; tea sugar coffee, and cocoa;
rice, tobacco, soap, beads, guns, powder, lead, rum,
wine, brandy, gin, and playing cards; boots, shoes,
and ready-made clothing, etc., also, every description
of stores, canvas, cordage, paints, oils, chains and
cables, anchors, etc. (Slacum 1912:186-187).

The supplies brought by Nathaniel Wyeth in 1834 and the Methodist missionaries in 1840 represent the largest quantities of American goods arriving in the Oregon territory until the large immigration parties beginning in 1843. It can easily be seen how the Hudson's Bay Company could dominate the economy -- and the material culture of a region simply by being the only consistent supplier of goods.

However, by 1843, the increasing American population was placing more demands on the local market than the Hudson's Bay Company could provide. There was also a growing resentment against the domineering British-owned company. American businessmen such as George Abernethy,

Captain John Couch, Francis Pettygrove, and Benjamin Stark struggled to create a direct trading connection with the East Coast. These early ventures failed in part because of the barter economy, "which was necessary due to the lack of adequate exterior markets, the concentration upon the production of a single commodity, wheat, and the dominating position of the Hudson's Bay Company" (Throckmorton 1956:65). The lack of a two-way exchange system created a stagnant market for American traders. The yearly immigration parties brought new supplies such as "a considerable assortment of hollow ware, cooking utensils, crockery, groceries, and dry goods" (Throckmorton 1956:72). Yet the stores operating at Oregon City and, by 1852, at Champoeg lacked a full compliment of goods. More often than not the Oregon market received the goods over-stocked or not needed in California and this "left-overs" pattern continued into the 1850s.

Oregon's export market was also tied to California, as the new settlers there needed goods that Oregon could supply. However, the market did not improve dramatically until 1849.

Before the year 1848 ended, Oregon's pioneer economy was revolutionized by gold, and early in 1849 the sovereign jurisdiction of the United States was finally established. The California gold rush gave Oregon a money supply, a market and better communications. With American authority came territorial government, American Law, a customs house, ocean mail service, military protection, and a beneficent land policy (Throckmorton 1956:82-83).

Although it is sometimes difficult to place socio-political and economic events into a day-to-day scenario the following few paragraphs are an attempt to experience the Willamette Valley as it was recalled by four individuals. One pioneer reflected on the peculiar assortment of supplies:

Arrived at the store after a long, jolting journey, in the farm wagon which had crossed the continent the year before, he makes his inquiries: "Cotton goods?" "No; just out." "Shoes?" "Got one pair, rather small--wouldn't fit you." "What have you got in the way of goods?" "Got a lot of silk handkerchiefs and twelve dozen straw hats." "Any pins?" "No; a few knitting needles." "Any yarn?" "Yes, there's a pretty good lot of yarn, but don't you want some sugar? the last ship that was in left a quantity of sugar." So the holder of the draft exchanges it for some yarn and a few nails, and takes the balance in sugar (Victor 1870:340-341).

F.X. Matthieu described the architecture in 1845:

Life he found carried on here in simple style, log cabins being the rule, furnished with big fireplaces, made of sticks, plastered over with the tough black clay found underneath the prairie sod (Lyman 1900:97).

Benjamin Bonney remembered the weather of 1846,

Dr. John McLoughlin of Vancouver employed my father to go to Champoeg to repair a grist mill there. He furnished father a bateau with eight Indian oarsmen to take his family to Champoeg. We landed near the old Indian landing near where the monument to the provisional government now stands. We stayed there that winter while father worked on the grist mill. The winter of 1846 was one of the coldest that the oldest settlers of Oregon could remember. Hundreds of head of wild cattle and Indian horses died as they couldn't get at the dried grass beneath the snow (Lockley 1923:52).

Peter Burnett suggested what a commodity economy was like in the fall of 1847,

In the streets of Oregon City I met a young man with a new and substantial leather hunting shirt,

brought from the Rocky Mountains, where it had been purchased from the Indians. I said to him, "what will you take for your leather hunting shirt?" He replied, "seven bushels of wheat." I said at once, "I will take it." I measured out the grain and took the article. I knew it would last me for several years (Burnett 1904:178).

The decade of the 1850s saw many changes in Oregon and Champoege. In general the political structure stabilized as Oregon became a territory and later (1859) a state. The economy surged forward during the initial phases of the California gold rush but deflated as the market needs were met.

An oversupply of Eastern goods in San Francisco curtailed the demand for Oregon products, thus bringing a depression to Oregon in late 1853. As the California market began to dry up, prices in Portland dropped, shipping fell off, and money became tight (Merriman 1971:188).

This surge and deflation cycle was regularly experienced as gold strikes were made in southern and northeastern Oregon, Washington, and Idaho. While Oregon essentially provided agricultural goods to the miners, Oregon merchants were dependent on San Francisco throughout the 1850s (Merriman 1971:191 and Throckmorton 1956:123).

Although goods imported to Oregon were somewhat less than abundant, the variety of goods were steadily increasing. In March of 1851 the barque Ann Smith operated by Couch and Co. advertised a new shipment recently arrived from San Francisco which included:

15 casks of crockery-- assorted, packed in New York expressly for the Oregon market; 5 cases of Tin ware, assorted; 12 Iron Bedsteads; also pressed brick, chairs (Oregonian, March 22, 1851).

Goods also were being distributed throughout the valley as river travel increased with the use of steam-power. No longer were settlers forced to make the long journey to Oregon City or Fort Vancouver to buy supplies. Towns such as Salem and Corvallis grew to supply goods and services to their surrounding communities. Portland took the lead from Oregon City, becoming Oregon's foremost city. "By 1855 the Willamette Valley had taken on a settled character. Farmsteads and small towns dotted the Upper Valley from Oregon City to Eugene and beyond" (Throckmorton 1956:218).

Champoeg reflected the events which were shaping the development of Oregon and the Northwest. The California gold rush left French Prairie nearly bereft of men when (in 1849) a company of two hundred started south accompanied by one of their priests, Rev. B. Delorme. Not more than half ever returned to their homes in Oregon (Rees 1879).

When Newell returned from California, "he engaged in warehousing and did a commission business in wheat; and in partnership with J.D. Crawford owned a store at Champoeg which dealt in flour, feed, ham, 'pickled pork' (bacon) and such staples" (Elliott 1908:119). Newell must have been prospering for he had a new house built in 1852-54, a quarter mile southwest of the town on an upper terrace.

By 1855, there were three landings at Champoeg:

The principal landing...seems to have been at the southern terminus of the ferry across the Willamette River, which was situated directly at the corner between the Newell and Longtain land claims...another landing on the Newell property 1,254 feet downstream from the ferry terminus. And ...an "upper" landing

1,749 feet upriver on the Longtain claim (Hussey 1967:205).

A post office was established at Champoeg in 1851 and operated until 1861 when it was moved to the new community of Newellsville. Later it would be renamed Champoeg and continue to serve the area until 1905.

Also during the 1850s, Edward Dupuis, in addition to a store, operated a stage coach line between Champoeg and Salem. The stage, however, was soon taken over by Messrs. Ray & Danforth. A hotel was soon in operation to take advantage of the transportation boom. Arnold & Stevens bought and remodeled a "tavern stand", operating it as the "Champoeg Hotel". Yet, with all this bustling activity, Champoeg still was only "a small village of some eight or ten houses, principally log built in French style, with two small stores" (Fisher 1916:462). A drawing by George Gibbs in 1851 reveals how small and undeveloped Champoeg really was at that time (Figure 6).

The town of Champoeg was founded in 1844 by Newell and Longtain and was surveyed by Jesse Applegate either in that year or 1848; unfortunately no record remains of this survey. The Gibbs drawing of 1851 certainly does not suggest a formal town-plat design, but rather an uneven row of structures. In 1852, Newell enlisted S.D. Snowden to re-survey the platted town of Champoeg because the Applegate survey apparently was inadequate or had been lost. Newell recorded his half of the town in the office of the County Recorder of Marion County in 1853.

Figure 6. Champoeg in 1851,
as drawn by George Gibbs, looking south
(O.H.S. Collection Neg. #44495-A).

Figure 6.



At least on paper, in the 1852 survey, Champoege encompassed seventy-four whole or partial blocks, the blocks being 210 feet square each and containing two alleys 10 feet wide which crossed at right angles. Each block contained eight lots, which were 50 feet wide by 100 feet long. Streets were 60 feet wide, but a strip from 60 to 80 feet wide along the water front was reserved for wharves. The center of town was Napoleon Street which was also the dividing boundary between Newell's and Longtain's property. The street names reflect Longtain's French ancestry and Newell's American patriotism. It is not known if the streets or indeed the platted blocks were ever distinctly outlined. Not more than half of the platted blocks were ever built upon. By 1860 approximately 180 persons lived at Champoege and there were perhaps twenty-six to twenty-nine houses. According to Kaiser,

There were three storekeepers, a baker, a carpenter and a blacksmith, all from Prussia, a miller, a saloon keeper, a gardener, and a physician, all from England, a master carpenter, a ship carpenter, a butcher and a molder, all from Switzerland, a master carpenter from Washington D.C., a blacksmith from Arkansas, a school teacher from Vermont, an engineer and a lawyer from New York, a harnessmaker and a sawmill from Ohio (Kaiser 1956:33).

Oregon suffered through a general economic depression in 1859 and was slow to recover. Champoege did not grow much after 1859 and never recovered after the flood of 1861.

Champoege was located on a concave meander, thus flood waters were forced at a higher velocity onto the flood plain

where Champoege was situated. Atherton reports from an archaeologist's viewpoint that,

...this flood (1861) had not been unlike other Willamette floods and a layer of silt and sand had been deposited on the foundations of the buildings; the weight of this accumulation was enough to hold the floors of the structures and a scattering of broken and fallen belongings when the later heavier flooding tore away the upper parts of the structures (Atherton 1973:105).

The 1861 flood was devastating to the townspeople of Champoege; newspapers and personal accounts report the loss. "All the homes at Champoege are stated to be carried off; some of the merchants being unable to save their books" (The Oregon Statesman, December 9, 1861). "Champoege -- the flood swept this town entirely clean of houses, and the site is now as bare as a sand beach" (The Oregon Argus, December 21, 1861).

A visitor to the town after the flood reported on the devastation,

one saw only drifting sand, and land denuded of its soil marked the abandoned townsite. What a visitation it must have been, when a single night swept off every sign of habitation, or place of trade, leaving not a foundation, even, to be identified with the past! Many lives were lost in that night of sorrow as well as great destruction of property. ...Stores, warehouses, dwellings, homes and fences, outbuildings, disappeared in the maelstrom of waters; supplies and stores of all kinds; all the stock kept near the river -- horses, cattle, oxen and swine, poultry, sheep -- everything that made Champoege habitable and let it hope and peace and civilization were swept away (Oregon Historical Society Scrapbook 276:49).

Champoege was never rebuilt after 1861. However, "Champoege was too valuable as a river port to be abandoned entirely" (Hussey 1967:232). The operators of commercial

enterprises built their homes on a higher ground across from Newell's house, creating the hamlet of Newellsville. Newell was financially ruined in the flood but he maintained an open house until his neighbors could reestablish themselves. Then Newell sought to regain his fortune in Idaho where he worked with his "friends of forty years", the Nez Perces. Although returning twice to sell property and settle accounts, he had left the Oregon scene by 1863.

Donald Manson, on the other hand, who had already bought most of Newell's farm land before the flood, now took over much of the remaining property. Manson rebuilt his house on the higher terrace overlooking the townsite and continued to farm productively for many years. According to Kaiser,

By 1880, all that remained of Champoeg as a town was, according to the U.S. census, four houses, and 27 people. There were two owners of general merchandise stores, one from Canada and the other from Illinois, also a blacksmith and a wagonmaker from Prussia, and a liquor dealer from Oregon. Part of the buildings which were standing in 1880 may not have been in the townsite and were those which were situated on the hill across from Newell's house (Kaiser 1956:33).

The flood of 1892 was the final blow to Champoeg. This flood destroyed the mill and warehouse. By this time railroads and wagon roads were becoming more convenient for shipping supplies. The day of river transportation had passed its prime. Champoeg settled back into obscurity, becoming once again just a rolling prairie for grazing animals.

REVIEW OF ARCHAEOLOGICAL INVESTIGATIONS

The historic value of Champoege as the site of Oregon's first civil organization has long been recognized. The placement of the Provisional Government monument in 1901 commemorated the achievements of Oregon pioneers. Through the efforts of local interest groups such as the Daughters of the American Revolution, land was acquired and successive developments accomplished. The Pioneer Memorial Building (1917-18), the (D.A.R.) Pioneer Mothers Memorial Log Cabin (1931), and an arboretum of native Oregon plants (1954) all give testimony to Champoege's historical importance to Oregonians.

In 1962 the Oregon State Highway Commission and the Oregon Historical Society sponsored a definitive study of Champoege State Park written by John A. Hussey. This three-volume work gathered together evidence to document Champoege's historical significance and also recommended planning and management strategies for development of the park as a state monument and a recreational area. Hussey's recommendations for the park included acquiring additional land, building an interpretive/visitor center, and conducting archaeological investigations to locate sites of historical interest and possible interpretation.

The first archaeological investigations of Champoege were begun in 1971 by Paul Nesbitt of the Oregon College of

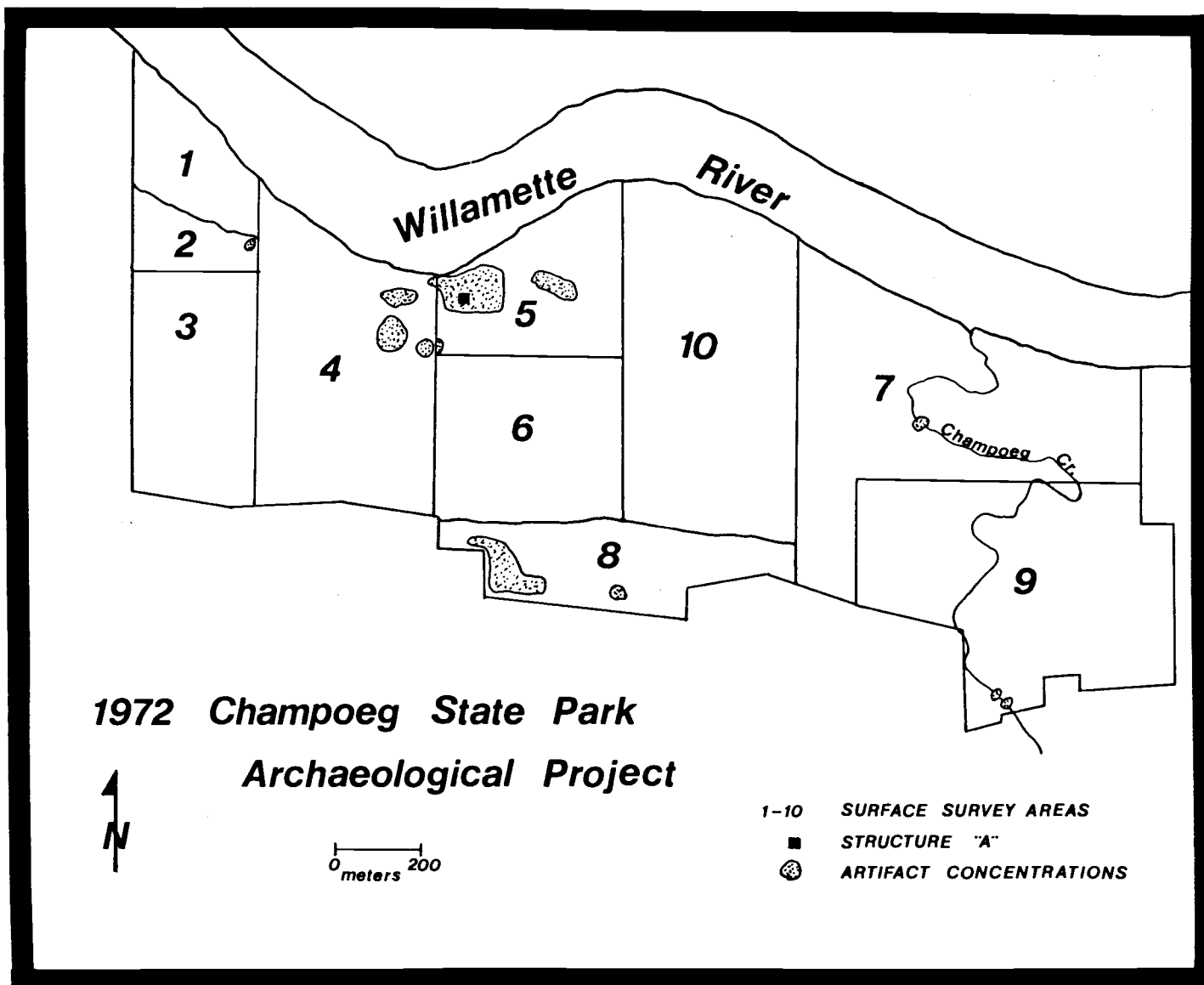
Education (now Western Oregon State College) under an agreement with the Department of Transportation. The stated purpose of this ambitious project was to:

establish precise locations of all structures of one of the oldest settlements of white men in Oregon and recover data concerning daily life of the inhabitants for purposes of interpretation to park visitors, prior to any major park development (Nesbitt 1972:ii).

A further goal of this project was to "ascertain whether or not more intensive investigations are warranted in the future" (Nesbitt 1972:5). The destruction of Champoege in 1861 by flooding removed nearly all surface evidence of that community. Thus, an important aspect of Nesbitt's field work was to discover if there was an archaeological component to Champoege at all. Nesbitt found that artifacts were preserved below the surface.

In the spring of 1972 a surface survey of the entire central area of the park was undertaken. The park was divided into ten various sized areas, dense artifact scatters were recorded and samples were collected (Figure 7). Heavy vegetation imposed only minor limitations on the survey. Test units of various sizes were excavated in the western portion of the assumed Champoege townsite area. The survey and testing were somewhat successful as they gave corroborating evidence for the historical record. As Nesbitt (1972:10-11) notes: "In the eastern area of the park (survey area 7) was located remains of what is thought to be the dam for the McKay mill and may also have been used

Figure 7. 1972 Archaeological Project Map (Nesbitt 1972).



for the Hauxhurst mill. An 1847 and an 1890 mill (survey area 9) may be indicated by squared wooden members farther up Champoeg Creek from the dam". Also accomplished during the 1972 field season was the partial (southwest quarter) excavation of "Structure A", which was identified as William Bailey's residence.

A laboratory was established in the museum's (Pavilion) upper floor and artifacts recovered from the excavation of Structure A as well as material derived from the surface survey were processed. An attempt was made to systematically categorize the ceramics including ceramics which had been randomly collected in the park area for years. The ceramics were compared with collections at Fort Vancouver and Fort Colville with a high percentage of similar ceramic types noted between the three sites.

Nesbitt recovered a variety of cultural materials including ceramic fragments, glass fragments, nails, clay pipe fragments, buttons, bricks, etc., which stylistically indicate an approximate time range of circa 1840 to 1890. The collection is housed at the Champoeg Interpretive Center but unfortunately has not received adequate curatorial attention. The metal artifacts have deteriorated and the labeling/cataloging system is unclear or nonexistent. The present condition of the collection precluded its use in this thesis project. However, Nesbitt was the first archaeologist to conduct a study of Champoeg. Prior to this

Champoeg was considered to lack any subsurface or intact deposits.

In 1973 the State Historic Preservation Office sponsored an archaeological investigation of the Champoeg townsite. Dr. John Atherton of Portland State University was the project director, focusing his attention on the platted townsite of Champoeg. The purpose of this project was to define the locations of structures within the townsite and to continue the excavation on Structure A which was begun by Nesbitt in 1972.

The first stage of this operation was to stake in the blocks and streets of Champoeg as defined by the 1852 plat map. A survey crew from the Oregon State Highway Division was able to relocate the townsite of Champoeg. After enclosing the blocks with cord a combined surface survey and collection process was accomplished. As reported by Atherton,

Notes were made of any potentially significant physical features of the block, the vegetation, and any concentrations of artifacts. Where obviously important features were encountered, such as an isolated scatter of brick fragments, the exact location of each piece was plotted (Atherton 1973:105).

Subsurface test excavations consisted of ten 5'x 5' units within Block 1 and contiguous to the 1972 excavations. Artifacts and non-artifactual features were recorded with provenience information.

The 1973 field investigations were successful; the surface survey indicated that areas of artifact concentrations combined with the Marion County records

identified the location of structures. As Atherton (1973:106) states: "In almost all cases where a large number of artifacts have been found, the Marion County records show a large number of land transactions, usually at higher than average prices--which would indicate the presence of structures." Thus, Atherton concluded that nearly 90% of Champoeg maintained a level of integrity which would allow for at least locating structures. Further excavations of Structure A revealed "various kinds of door handles and key guides, piles of nails, tacks, brass pins, and a box of brass key guides" (Atherton 1973:117). Atherton then "combined information from the Marion County land records with the 1860 census showing that Block 1 was occupied by both a cabinet maker and a carpenter" (Atherton 1973:117). Thus, Atherton concluded that Block 1 was the site of a woodworking shop rather than the home of William Bailey.

The 1972 and 1973 field investigations proved two points: first, that the town of Champoeg could be constructed by re-platting the town and matching artifact concentrations to the Marion County land records; and second, that Champoeg was an intact archaeological site with potential use for answering research questions.

In 1974, Atherton was again granted permission to carry-out field investigations at Champoeg. Atherton focused on three specific goals: first, to find evidence of prehistoric populations; second, to identify the location of

the schoolhouse/church; and third, to locate the position of a blacksmith shop. The field investigations were not entirely successful in achieving the three research goals. An intensive study of the geology and soils also was undertaken by Inaky San Martin of Portland State University

The 1974 subsurface test excavations consisted of seven test units in Blocks 32 and 53, and in Jackson Street. The excavation methodology was similar to 1973, with all artifacts and non-artifactual features being recorded with provenience information.

Evidence of metal working was found during the surface survey of Blocks 53 and 54 and was further substantiated by subsurface testing. "David Weston, a blacksmith, owned several lots in Blocks 53 and 54 at Champoeg and was known to have worked with a gunsmith, Thomas Jefferson Hubbard" (Atherton 1974:7).

The location of the 1852 schoolhouse/church built at Champoeg is rather clouded in the historical record. As Atherton has reported:

Although the 1857 Donald Manson farm survey gives the approximate location of this building, its precise positioning has not yet been determined. A small test excavation was unsuccessful in locating remains of the foundation, but a careful surface survey of Block 67 indicates that a building, probably the schoolhouse, existed there (Atherton 1974:11).

Evidence of a prehistoric component was minimal; only two small triangular bladed stemmed cryptocrystalline silica projectile points being recovered. The point styles relate to the historic or contact period within the Willamette

Valley. Historically the Kalapuya Indians used this area; future archaeological investigations at Champoeg may aid in our knowledge of the aboriginal inhabitants.

Field investigations were again undertaken in 1975 by John Atherton. This study focused on Block 12 and especially on a surface scatter of brick that had been recorded in 1974. Three (2x2 M) test units along with two (1x1 M) units were excavated. The placement of the test units was dictated by a surface concentration of brick fragments, even though this was, for the most part, in Montcalm Street, outside the platted Block 12. The field methods were consistent with the previous two years (1973 and 1974). The results of the 1975 field season have not been published. However, the artifact assemblage from the 1975 field season was incorporated into this thesis.

The archaeological investigations at Champoeg reveal the vast potential of the townsite for interpretation. Nesbitt's work established that an intact artifact component existed, while Atherton was able to systematically match land records with subsurface excavations. It is important to note that subsurface excavations have been extremely limited at Champoeg. There were seventy-four platted blocks at the town of Champoeg and only four blocks have received subsurface testing. Even if only half of the platted blocks were ever occupied the excavated test units represent a sample of only about 1% of the site (Figure 8). Thus there is a large data base which could yield an unprecedented

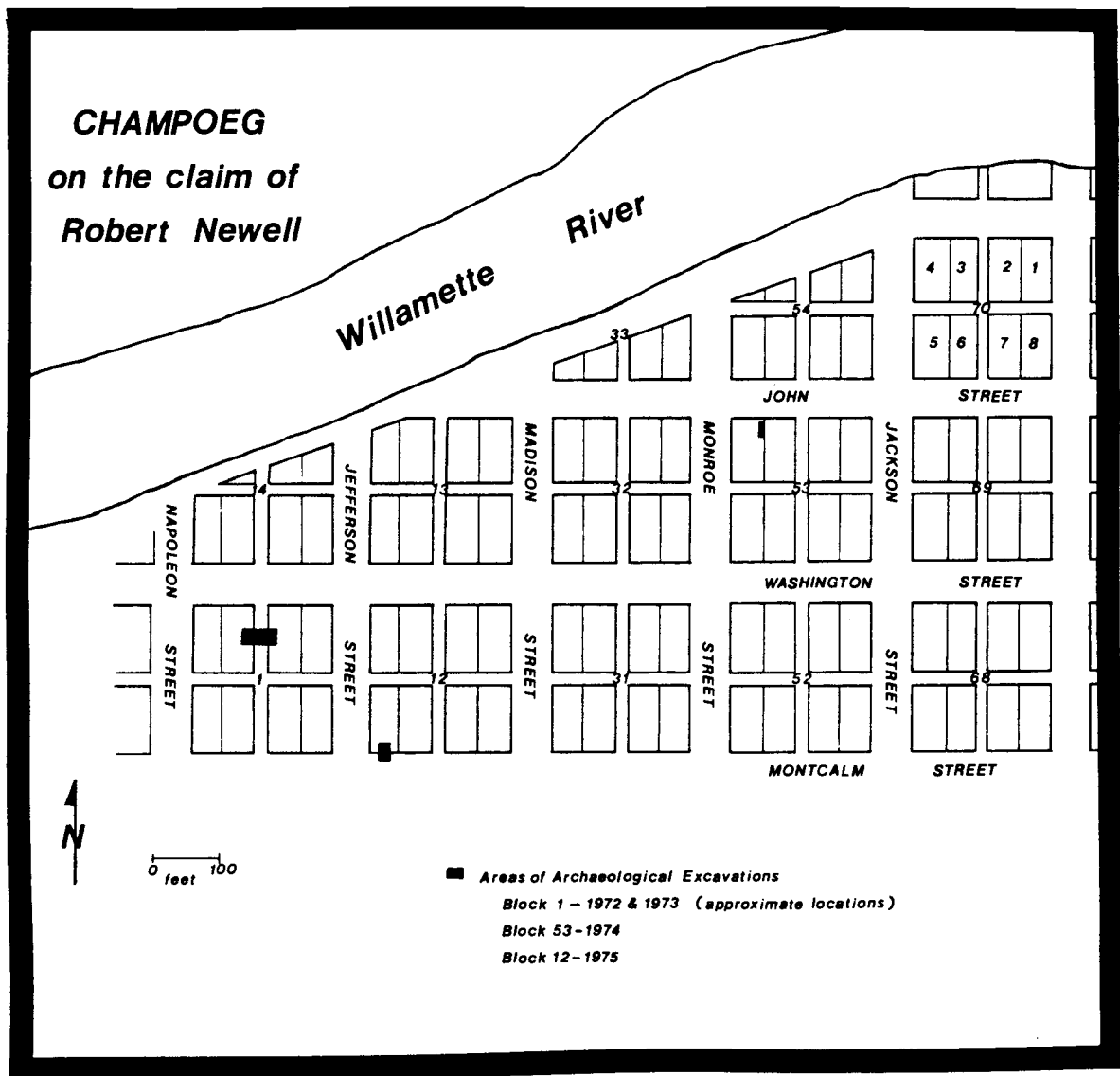


Figure 8. Areas of Archaeological Investigations at Champoege in 1972 thru 1975.

amount of information concerning this community.

The data which forms the basis of this thesis is Atherton's 1973, 1974 and 1975 collection. In March 1981 an arrangement was made between Oregon State University, Portland State University and the Oregon State Historic Preservation Office to transfer the Champoege collection to the Oregon State University Historical Archaeology Lab to use for research purposes and a thesis topic. In July 1984, twelve more boxes containing artifacts from the 1975 excavations were transferred from the archives of the Oregon Historical Society to the Champoege Interpretive/Visitor Center for permanent storage. The material was subsequently cataloged and added to this project by the author. The collection housed at Oregon State University for this research project has been returned to the Champoege Museum where it will be permanently stored. Thus, the entire Champoege collection will be consolidated under one roof and accessible to future researchers.

THE FRONTIER MODEL

The term "frontier" has been variously described as a boundary, a line, a process, a point in time, a style or a peculiar society. While there is no standard definition of a "frontier" there are attributes which are useful for this discussion.

Briefly, the frontier is a recurring pattern, with a dynamic fluid social structure, where the low intruding population is predominantly male, and there are two or more cultural groups encountering each other for the first time. The exploitation of natural resources is the main emphasis of the intruding population. There is little or no recognized political system and only a simple exchange economy. The in-migrating population is isolated from its cultural and manufacturing centers. The frontier is usually transcended by an increasing population which brings with it an established order of government, currency and a wider range of commercial activities (Hudson in Miller and Steffen 1977:12-13).

The concept of the frontier as a social process which shaped the American character is much more difficult to define. Frederick Jackson Turner's essay, "The Significance of the Frontier in American History" (1893) is credited with adapting the myth of the frontier into a research topic. Historians then and now have argued the merits and

contradictions of Turner's hypothesis. It is beyond the scope of this paper to refute or uphold Turner's logic. However, it is useful to suggest parallels between the development of Champoeg and attributes of the frontier.

Within this framework of frontier characteristics, many similarities with the settlement and development of Champoeg can be identified. The French-Canadian and American fur trappers first came to the Northwest to exploit the fur bearing animals, encountering a well established native population. A recognizable form of social control did not arrive until nearly a decade after the first out-post was established. The hierarchy of the Hudson's Bay Company maintained control over the barter economy for twenty years because of the region's isolation from trade-centers. The American pioneer settlers were a second intruding population. They came to exploit the land for agriculture and did not recognize any political structure except their own. The simple exchange economy continued by necessity until the gold rush of 1849 relieved the lack of currency. Turner advocates could claim that the Provisional Government organized at Champoeg is the perfect example of a frontier community coming to terms with its needs and independently, but also democratically solving the issues.

Champoeg meets the criteria of a frontier community based on attributes provided by historians. But, Champoeg is also an archaeological site, does it fit the characteristics of a frontier artifact assemblage?

Stanley South (1977) formulated an artifact classification system for frontier and settlement sites of the southern East Coast. South's frontier pattern is based on a small sample of sites with a definite military emphasis. The frontier pattern is based on data from three sites, including two trading posts and a fort, dating from the 1750s. The artifacts were classified under functional group headings (Table 1). The percentage of each artifact group was then tabulated and compared between the three sites, the average of the three becoming the recognized frontier pattern range (Table 2).

South found that there was a larger percentage of architecture items compared to kitchen items,

an increase in by-products associated with architecture in frontier situations can be suggested. This might result from a shorter occupation period for each architectural unit on the frontier than in the settlements not on the frontier, thus increasing the Architecture group artifacts in relation to secondary midden deposits of Kitchen group artifacts (South 1977:146).

Further explanations for this inverse relationship could include the distance from supply centers and the difference of materials used on the frontier. The sample size or collection strategy also may have influenced the Frontier Pattern characteristics.

South's settlement period pattern or Carolina pattern is based on data from five sites grouped and tabulated like the before described Frontier pattern. Table 2 relates the artifact pattern mean and range (South 1977:107). The most notable aspect of the Carolina pattern, for this

Table 1. South's Classification System

<u>Kitchen Artifact Group</u>	<u>Domestic Items</u>
1. Ceramics	19. Buckles
2. Wine Bottle	20. Thimbles
3. Case Bottle	21. Buttons
4. Tumbler	22. Scissors
5. Pharmaceutical Bottle	23. Straight Pins
6. Glassware	24. Fasteners
7. Tableware	25. Bale Seals
8. Kitchenware	26. Glass Beads
<u>Bone Group</u>	<u>Personal Group</u>
9. Bone Fragments	27. Coins
	28. Keys
<u>Architectural Group</u>	29. Personal Items
10. Window Glass	<u>Tobacco Pipe Group</u>
11. Nails	30. Tobacco Pipes
12. Spikes	
13. Construc. Hardware	<u>Activities Group</u>
14. Door Lock Parts	31. Construction Tools
<u>Furniture Group</u>	32. Farm Tools
15. Furniture Hardware	33. Toys
<u>Arms Group</u>	34. Fishing Gear
16. Musket Balls, Shot, Sprue	35. Stub-stemmed Pipes
17. Gunflints, Gunspalls	36. Colo-Indian Pott.
18. Gun Parts, Bullet Molds	37. Storage Items
	38. Ethnobotannical
	39. Stable and Barn
	40. Misc. Hardware
	41. Other
	42. Military Objects

discussion, is the significantly higher number of kitchen group artifacts than the architecture group.

The Carolina pattern is based on excavations of a tailor shop, a residence and a dump, two forts and a cellar dump. The sample emphasizes secondary disposal at all of the sites, particularly the dump sites. Secondary refuse includes items which are discarded away from the location of use (Schiffer in South 1977:13). Therefore, items which are

Table 2. South's Artifact Models

<u>Carolina Pattern</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>% Range</u>
Kitchen	63.1	51.8-69.2
Architecture	25.5	19.7-31.4
Furniture	.2	.1- .6
Arms	.5	.1- 1.2
Clothing	3.0	.6- 5.4
Personal	.2	.1- .5
Tobacco Pipes	5.8	1.8-13.9
Activities	1.7	.9- 2.7
<u>Frontier Pattern</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>% Range</u>
Kitchen	27.6	22.7-34.5
Architecture	52.0	43.0-57.5
Furniture	.2	.1- .3
Arms	5.4	1.4- 8.4
Clothing	1.7	.3- 3.8
Personal	.2	.1- .4
Tobacco Pipes	9.1	1.9-14.0
Activities	3.7	.7- 6.4

broken and discarded would probably include a greater assortment of domestic items.

There are some problems with relating South's models to the Champoege artifact collection. First, the difference of a hundred years could change the material culture dramatically even though the "frontier" and "settlement period" descriptions are historically applicable. Second, the problems inherent with supplying the West Coast with goods was quite different from the trade development on the East Coast. And last, Champoege is a town site, the areas tested being associated with a hotel/tavern, a

dwelling/shop, and a blacksmith shop. All of these sites transcend the frontier period into the settlement period and do not relate directly to South's sample sites. Although the problems mentioned here are complex, the Champoege artifact collection offers a unique opportunity to compare a West Coast frontier cultural assemblage with an East Coast model.

The first step in comparing the Champoege collection with South's model is, of course, classification and analysis of the collection. There are a variety of strategies for classifying the artifact assemblages from historic sites. The following discussion will outline a few of the methods and difficulties faced when analyzing historic cultural materials.

The Fort Bowie site in Arizona classified the collection in terms of material type. Thus, glass, ceramic, and metal were the major categories. Within these major categories, whenever practical, subdivisions were made along functional or cultural lines (Herskovits 1978:2). For instance, the category of glass contains bottles, window glass, buttons, beads and marbles. This system is an internally-consistent and expedient way to sort and describe an artifact collection. It does not, however, attempt to interpret the material assemblage past the descriptive level.

Stanley South has provided a model for interpreting

frontier and colonial sites. To enable South to formulate his cultural patterns, the ordering of his data follows a form and function scheme. Artifacts are placed in activity groups, "the groups are based on functional activities related to the systemic context reflected by the archaeological record" (South 1977:93). The nine activity groups are derived from smaller classes of artifacts, or sub-groups. The classes are described by attributes including material, ware, and type. From this arrangement South expected:

that broader cultural processes will likely be revealed at the group level of generalization due to the functional relationship between the group and generalized behavioral activity in the cultural system. Comparison at the type or style level of classification is expected to reveal answers to questions about nationalistic or ethnic origin, trade routes, culture contact, etc. (South 1977:93).

South's artifact groups were devised with the cultural assemblage in mind. The tobacco pipe group and arms group are defined because of the large number of these items found.

Two other classification methods which utilize a descriptive-functional format are the Fort Vancouver excavations (Ross 1975 & 1976; Chance & Chance 1976; Thomas & Hibbs 1984) and Roderick Sprague's (1980-81) system. The Fort Vancouver artifact collection is grouped according to artifact classes and "descriminated by type and style within their respective classes" (Thomas & Hibbs 1984:23). A confusing aspect of this system is how the class

distinctions were determined since both material type and function are used as class designators. It is difficult to interpret the artifact information when there does not seem to be a consistent method for establishing the artifact classes. This class system is really only a refined material-type method, with functional headings used seemingly when items could be grouped together.

The last classification system to be examined is Sprague's "Functional Classification for Nineteenth and Twentieth Century Sites in Historic Archaeology" (Sprague 1980-81). As he reports, in the system proposed here, each artifact is placed in a particular functional category and described in the context of that category (Sprague 1980-81:1).

Sprague's classification system imposes a culturally-recognized format to organize an artifact collection. The goals of this format are to be internally consistent, mutually exclusive and expandable (Table 3). Sprague's system is flexible and does not mix general with specific artifact groupings such as the kitchen items group and the tobacco pipe group of South's model.

While Sprague's classification system seems the most appropriate for the Champoege assemblage, Sprague did not create a predictive scheme for site characteristics to go with it. Unfortunately, Sprague's and South's classification systems do not match very well. Architecture is the only artifact group which remains intact. The main

Table 3. Sprague's Classification System

<u>Personal Items</u>	<u>Commerce and Industry</u>
A. Clothing	A. Agriculture
B. Footwear	B. Hunting
C. Adornment	C. Fishing
D. Grooming	D. Gathering
E. Medical	E. Trapping
F. Birth Control	F. Logging
G. Indulgences	G. Mining
H. Recreation	H. Blacksmithing
I. Ritual	I. Construction
J. Accessories	J. Manufacturing
K. Infant Care	K. Commercial service
L. Luggage	
<u>Domestic Items</u>	<u>Group Services</u>
A. Furnishings	A. Government
B. Housewares	B. Public safety
C. Cleaning	C. Education
	D. Entertainment
	E. Utilities
	F. Penal
<u>Architecture</u>	<u>Group Ritual</u>
A. Structures	A. Religious
B. Construction	B. Fraternal
C. Plumbing	C. Public monuments
D. Fixed illumination	
E. Fixed heating, cooling	
F. Conveyances	
G. Private communications	<u>Unknowns</u>
H. Architectural safety	A. Metal
I. Landscaping	B. Glass
	C. Ceramic
	D. Other
<u>Transportation</u>	
A. Vehicles	
B. Maintenance	
C. Ritual	

problem is that wine bottles and tobacco pipes are placed in the personal items category in Sprague's system but are in two separate categories in South's. Also a difficulty is encountered when defining the personal items group. South's personal items group has a different functional meaning than Sprague's.

In order to have a consistent classification system and a working model it was necessary to rearrange South's artifact groups to match Sprague's classification system, then retabulate the sites to create an adjusted Frontier and Carolina Pattern (Table 4). South's general description of a frontier artifact assemblage remains true in the adjusted pattern format. The artifact assemblage maintains the characteristic inverse ratio between kitchen or domestic items and architectural items.

Table 4. Adjusted Artifact Models

<u>(adjusted) Carolina Pattern</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>% Range</u>
Domestic	41.5	53.2-18.9
Architecture	23.6	31.5-20.0
Personal	32.7	58.5-20.1
Commerce & Industry	1.7	3.3- 1.0
Group Services	0.08	.1- .05
<u>(adjusted) Frontier Pattern</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>% Range</u>
Domestic	15.7	18.1-11.5
Architecture	52.1	57.5-43.4
Personal	23.1	32.0-13.6
Commerce & Industry	8.5	11.7- 6.8
Group Services	.3	.7- .05

The cultural material recovered from Champoege, after being classified according to Sprague's system, will be compared to the adjusted Frontier and Carolina pattern models. The artifact assemblage should resemble the Frontier model, if indeed, there is a recognizable behavior pattern unique to life on the frontier.

DESCRIPTION OF CULTURAL MATERIALS

The cultural material descriptions in this chapter will follow Roderick Sprague's classification format as discussed in Chapter Three of this thesis.

PERSONAL ITEMS

Buttons: Twenty-six buttons were recovered from the 1973 and 1975 field investigations at Champoeg. The buttons vary in material and design but can be generally classified by the attachment method of either eyeloop shank or four-hole sew-through (Table 5).

Button making in America probably began during the Revolutionary War but did not gain recognition as an industry until after 1810. By 1800 the manufacture of brass buttons was nearly mechanized. The metal was rolled into sheets and button blanks cut out; and either planished, if for plain buttons, or were die struck or hand wrought for ornamented buttons (Albert & Kent 1949:13). The buttons were then coated with gilt giving them a shiny gold appearance. Gilt buttons were extremely popular between 1830 and 1850 when the product was of the highest quality. After 1850 gilt buttons "lacked the quality of material and work-manship...most of them were smaller, and had cheaper brass fronts, less gilt, and thin metal backs (Luscomb 1967:79).

Table 5. Buttons

<u>Type</u>	<u>Material</u>	<u>Quantity</u>	<u>Diameter</u>
eye-loop shank	brass	2	11.0-19.2mm
corroded, loop-shank	metal	3	21.0-27.5mm
anchor, dome loop shank	brass	1	15.0mm
concave face, four-holed sew-through	metal	2	14.0-17.9mm
concave face, four-holed, sew-through	pewter	1	12.3mm
concave face, four-holed sew-through	Prosser ceramic	6	11.0-15.6mm
concave face, four-holed, sew-through	white milk glass	7	9.9-11.0mm
concave face, four-holed, sew-through	blue (5PB 4/6) milk glass	2	11.0mm
concave face, four-holed, sew-through	brown (7.5YR 3/2) milk glass	1	10.3mm
four holed, sew-through	bone	1	12.5mm

Three brass buttons, all with eye-loop shank backs but differing in design, are included in the Champoege collection. Of the brass buttons one is plain faced, probably originally gilt, and two are domed and decorated, one with an impressed design, the other with a relief design of an anchor. "Plain faced brass-gilt buttons were popular

between 1800 and 1865, mostly those made before 1850" (Luscomb 1967:78). The two ornamented buttons were probably also gilt and may relate to a branch of military service (Figure 9).

The distinctive design of an upright foul anchor has been associated with the U.S. Navy from the American Revolution to the present except between 1830-1840 (Johnson 1948:78). The anchor button found at Champoege differs from the American Naval buttons only slightly. However, the design around the edge of the button is unique and can not be matched to U.S. Navy buttons.

Three metal button fragments were recovered, probably with an eye-loop shank back attachment. However, the corroded condition of the button makes interpretation difficult. The button fragments may represent an inferior grade of gilt buttons, possibly of post-1850 vintage.

Two metal four-holed sew-through buttons complete the metal button inventory from Champoege. "Metal pants buttons are all alike to the extent that they are all small, flattish, round sew-thrus" (Adams 1961:122 and Olsen 1963:552). Lester Ross (1976:606-607) describes pants buttons as brace buttons which were recovered from excavations at Fort Vancouver (1824-1860). Brace buttons were basically of one design--a thin disc with a central concave well, having four holes. This design was probably patented in the 1830s or 1840s, and was found both japanned and uncoated.

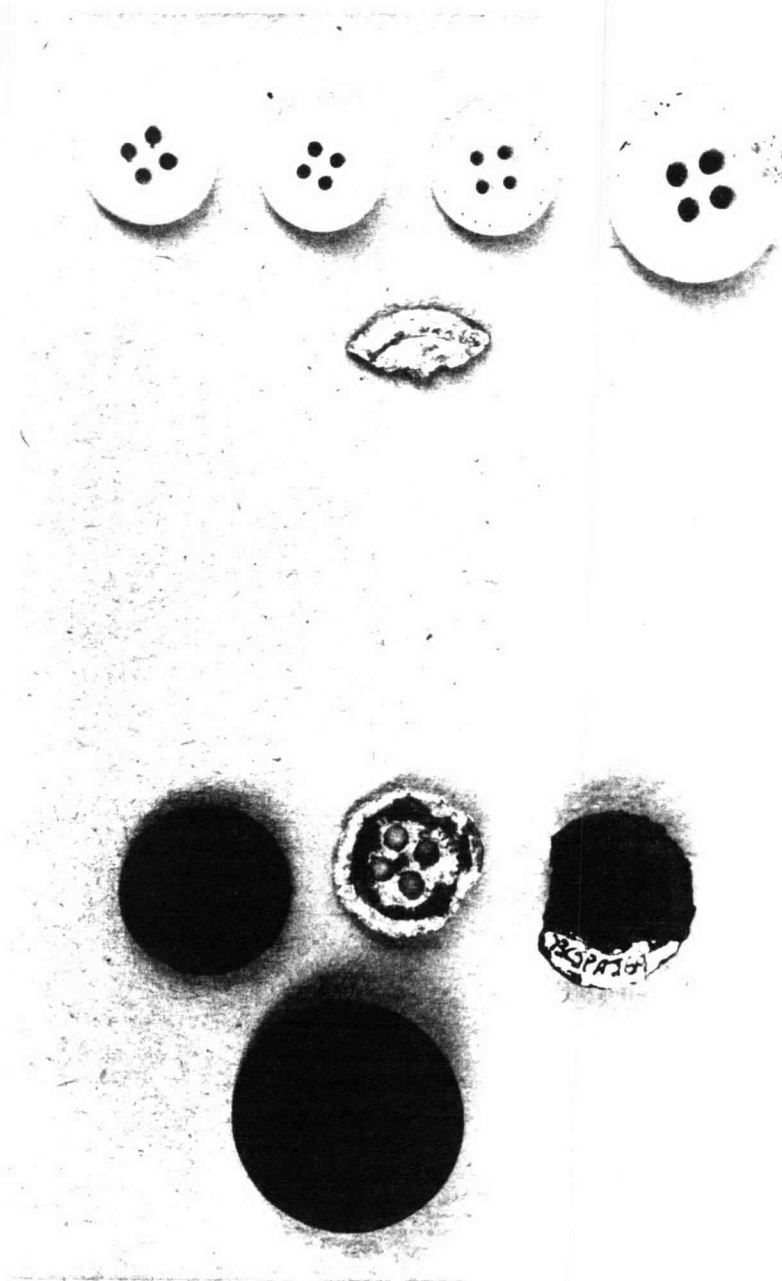


Figure 9. Buttons.

One of the four-holed sew-through buttons was composed of a base metal, probably pewter, and is in a very deteriorated state. Pewter buttons were made in the early 1800s but by 1823 the popularity of brass buttons surpassed pewter buttons, and by the middle of the century the demand for pewter had nearly ceased (Ford 1943:216-217).

Six white ceramic buttons, all of the concave-well, four-hole, sew-through variety were uncovered at Champoeg (Figure 9). Two buttons were complete, two were broken in half and one was a fragment. Richard Prosser in 1841 patented a process by which to manufacture ceramic buttons using a dry-mold technique. The Prosser ceramic buttons were made in Great Britain at the Minton pottery. Such buttons were initially made for undergarments and shirts, but later became common on women's dresses (Ross 1976:598,613). The Prosser buttons were decorated in a variety of ways including painted, transfer printed and impressed. One impressed button was found at Champoeg, with a molded rim design which is commonly referred to as piecrust. "Ceramic buttons in a wide variety of sizes and shapes were in common use in England and France after 1850. The fashion naturally spread to American where china buttons were made in tremendous quantities to about 1910" (Albert & Kent 1949:35).

Seven examples of milk glass buttons were found at Champoeg, all are of the four-holed, sew-through variety (Figure 9). Two different styles are present, distinguished

by the concave well shape, although two are merely fragments. "Much milk glass was produced at Bristol, England, from the mid-eighteenth century. Milk glass was made in the colonies and in many glass houses of the federal era" (Albert & Kent 1949:50).

Three opaque colored glass buttons, two blue and one brown, were present at the site; all are four-holed, sew-through. The colored buttons are somewhat of an anomaly as the opaque glass style was referred to simply as milk glass. Blue milk glass buttons have been recovered from historic archaeological sites of circa 1855 date (Roberts 1960:140 and South 1964).

The sew-through button was popular throughout the nineteenth century. A large collection of four-holed buttons were recovered from Fort Hoskins, an 1855-1865 era site near Corvallis, Oregon, and from Fort Vancouver.

One bone button fragment, although in a deteriorated condition, appears to have been turned on a lathe and is a four-hole, sew-through style. "Since the eighteenth century bone has been used as a material for underwear buttons with two, three, or four holes drilled through the body of the button" (Albert and Kent 1949:25).

The variety of button types and materials collected from Champoege reflect nineteenth century styles and technological capabilities. However, the higher number of ceramic and glass buttons might reflect the process of

corrosion which significantly altered the appearance of the metal buttons in this sample.

Fastners: Two types of fastners other than buttons were found at Champoege. A metal rivet, which is commonly associated with heavy denim work pants, was located in Block 1. Post-1850 deposition of this artifact is likely as rivet-type fly closures on garments were available during the 1849 California gold rush. Many male Oregon residents sought their fortune in the mines and then returned to the Willamette Valley after their adventure.

One broken belt buckle with an ornate impressed pattern of leaves and flowers was unearthed. The buckle is thin and finely decorated; it probably belonged to a female or child.

Material: Three pieces of cloth were collected from the surface during the 1973 field investigations. Analysis of the cloth by Liz Hoffman and Cindy Roberts of the Clothing, Textiles, and Related Arts Department at Oregon State University aided in the identification of the material. Two of the samples look similar and may be two pieces of the same cloth item. They were identified as: plain weave, cellulosic fiber, probably cotton. A small fragmented piece of material tentatively identified as wool was also found.

It is unusual to recover fibrous material such as cloth at sites in the Willamette Valley due to the wet climate. Thus, there is a suspicion that the cloth reflects

a much more recent addition to the archaeological record at Champoege.

Footwear: Evidence of footwear is suggested by the recovery of an eyelet, fragmented pieces of leather, and a shoe tack. The leather fragments are thought to represent shoe sole leather. The eyelet is a two piece clamp variety, probably part of a shoe or boot as there is leather still attached to it. The shoe tack is 0.9 cm in length including the head. All of the fragmented pieces of footwear were found in Block 12 or in Montcalm Street.

Beads: Beads are usually associated with the fur trade, serving as a medium of exchange throughout the frontier. The twenty-four beads recovered from Champoege are very similar to beads found at Fort Vancouver. A limited variety of beads, including twenty tube beads, three wire wound beads, and one Prosser ceramic bead in only blue, black, and white, make up the total Champoege collection (Figure 10)(Table 6).

Both white and blue, plain, single, or double-layered, hot tumbled glass tube beads were desired beads for trade in the Pacific Northwest during the mid-nineteenth century. Prior to 1844 at Fort Vancouver, bead types other than tube beads were relatively uncommon, but in later years (1844-52), wire wound...became more popular. The general drift of stylistic change appears to have been toward an increase in the varieties of large "necklace" beads during the latter half of fort occupation. Presumably, this change could have resulted from the shift in the Hudson's Bay Company economic base at Fort Vancouver (i.e., the shift from a native fur trading economy to a Euroamerican mercantile economy) (Ross 1976:677-678).

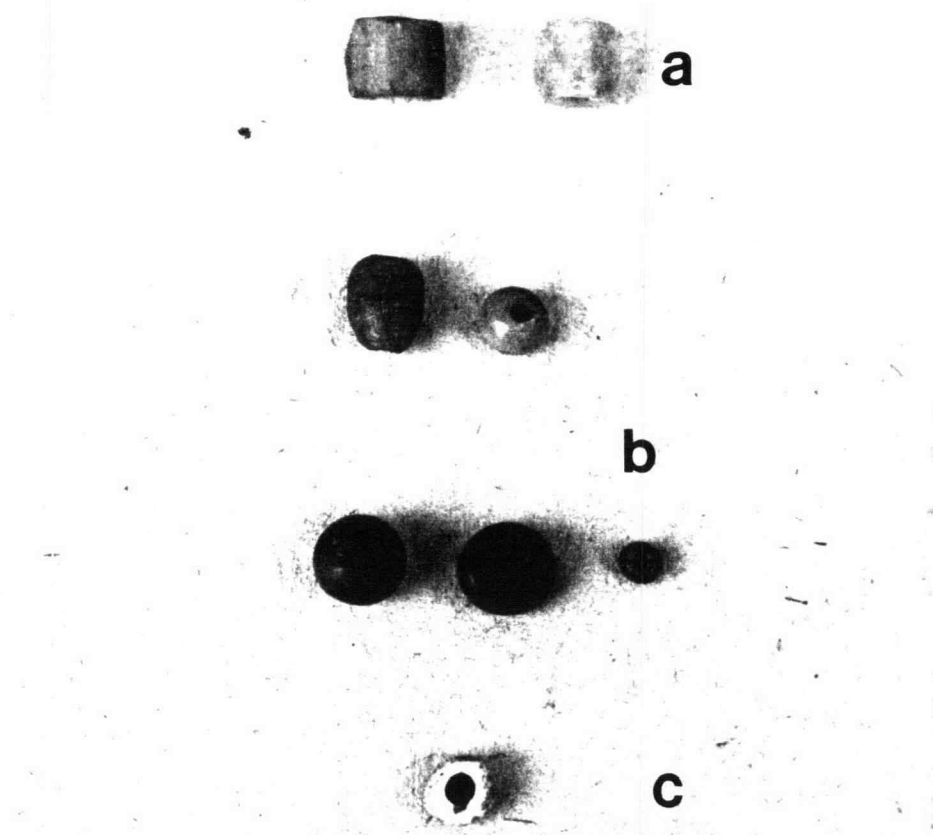


Figure 10. Beads.

a. tube b. wire wound c. Prosser

Tube beads are the most common type of bead found at Champoege. Tube beads have been manufactured since the 17th century in Italy; however, by the 18th and 19th century the technology had spread to other countries including England, Belgium, France, and China.

Wire wound beads differ from tube beads in that they are hand made, one at a time. The shape of air bubbles within the bead is a good clue in determining whether a bead

Table 6. Beads.

<u>Type</u>	<u>Description</u>	<u>Variety</u>	<u>N</u> <u>Sample</u>
Tube	Faceted, double-layered, six or seven facets	Length: 5.4mm Diameter: 6.5mm Color: Dk. blue over lt. blue (5 PB 4/8, 5 PB 5/8)	1
Tube	Faceted, single-layered, six or seven facets	Length: 5.5mm Diameter: 5.9mm Color: Translucent white	1
Tube	Faceted, single-layered, seven facets	Length: 2.3 - 3.8mm Diameter: 2.5mm - 2.9mm Color: Black	2
Tube	Hot tumbled, undecorated, single-layered	Length: 0.08mm Diameter: 0.11mm Color: Light blue (5 PB 7/6)	1
Tube	Hot tumbled, undecorated, single-layered	Length: 4.1mm Diameter: 6.4mm Color: Black	1
Tube	Hot tumbled, undecorated, single-layered	Length: 0.09 - 0.10mm Diameter: 0.14 - 0.19mm Color: Translucent white	3
Tube	Hot tumbled, undecorated, single-layered	Length: 0.09 - 0.11mm Diameter: 0.15 - 0.19mm Color: White	3
Tube	Hot tumbled, undecorated, single-layered	Length: 0.13mm Diameter: 0.20mm Color: Dark blue (5 PB 2/8)	1
Tube	Hot tumbled, undecorated, single-layered	Length: 0.20mm Diameter: 0.25 - 0.30mm Color: Blue (5 B 5/4, 10 BG 4/4)	6
Tube	Hot tumbled, undecorated single-layered	Length: 0.13mm Diameter: 0.21mm Color: Black	1
Wire Wound	Undecorated, spherical, single-layered	Length: 3.8mm Diameter: 4.9mm Color: Blue (5 B 6/6)	1
Wire Wound	Undecorated, spherical, single-layered	Length: 5.1mm Diameter: 6.1mm Color: Translucent blue (5 B 4/8)	1
Wire Wound	Undecorated, conical, single-layered	Length: 6.5mm Diameter: 5.0mm Color: Blue (5 B 4/6)	1
Prosser	Undecorated, spherical, ceramic	Length: 3.4mm Diameter: 4.9mm Color: White	1

TOTAL: 24

is tubular or wire wound. "In the case of tube beads, little bubbles, like the fibres of glass, have been drawn out into long, thin shapes, a sure indication of the method used to make them. Just as certainly in the case of wire wound beads, the bubbles are either globular or oval and never elongated" (Kidd and Kidd 1970:50).

A third type of bead manufacturing process has a patent date of 1841. Richard Prosser developed a process by which to mold buttons and beads with either glass or ceramic, usually ceramic.

A wide variety of decorative beads were popular and available in the mid-nineteenth century. Beads were attached to women's clothing, used to decorate table covers, and worn as pendant strands.

Tobacco Pipes: Tobacco pipes are inexpensive, easily-produced, available to all social classes, very breakable, and preserve well in the archaeological record. The use of tobacco became quite popular in the 17th century and by the 19th century, the use was a common feature of every social class. The ceramic pipe, a popular method of enjoying tobacco, caused the pipe industry in England, Holland, Germany, France, and the United States to develop rapidly. Decorative features such as molded designs or trademarks were applied before firing. The decorative features and trademarks are identifiable often to manufacturer and are thus datable. There are eight varieties of pipes recovered

from Champoege with several sub-styles distinguished.

Five styles of 'TD' pipes were collected at Champoege all from Block 12 and Montcalm Street (Figure 11). Of twenty-four fragments recovered, five were of one style, the TD surrounded by stars and the bowl covered with cross-hatching. Three fragments with cross-hatching and a frond design up the seam, could relate to the previously-mentioned star style. Two fragments have only the TD and surrounding stars, and an even plainer pipe bowl fragment has just a dash line surrounding the TD. A pipe bowl base fragment has two stars on either side of the base seam, but relates to the TD pipe variety. The remaining fragments were identified by the characteristic cross-hatching design found on at least two of the TD styles.

The TD pipe style is rather ubiquitous as they have been manufactured for 200 years on two continents and there are at least fifteen styles documented. The first TD pipe and its maker may never be known; what is noteworthy is that the initials TD meant a quality pipe worthy of plagiarism. An important additional decorative feature on TD pipes, the surrounding circle of stars, is thought to date from the War of 1812 as a patriotic American product (Calver 1931; Fontana and Greenleaf 1962; Peterson 1963; Walker 1966; Humphrey 1969; Wilson 1971; and Fox 1972).

Two Prince Albert pipes were recovered from subsurface testing of Block 12 and Montcalm Street. The Prince Albert

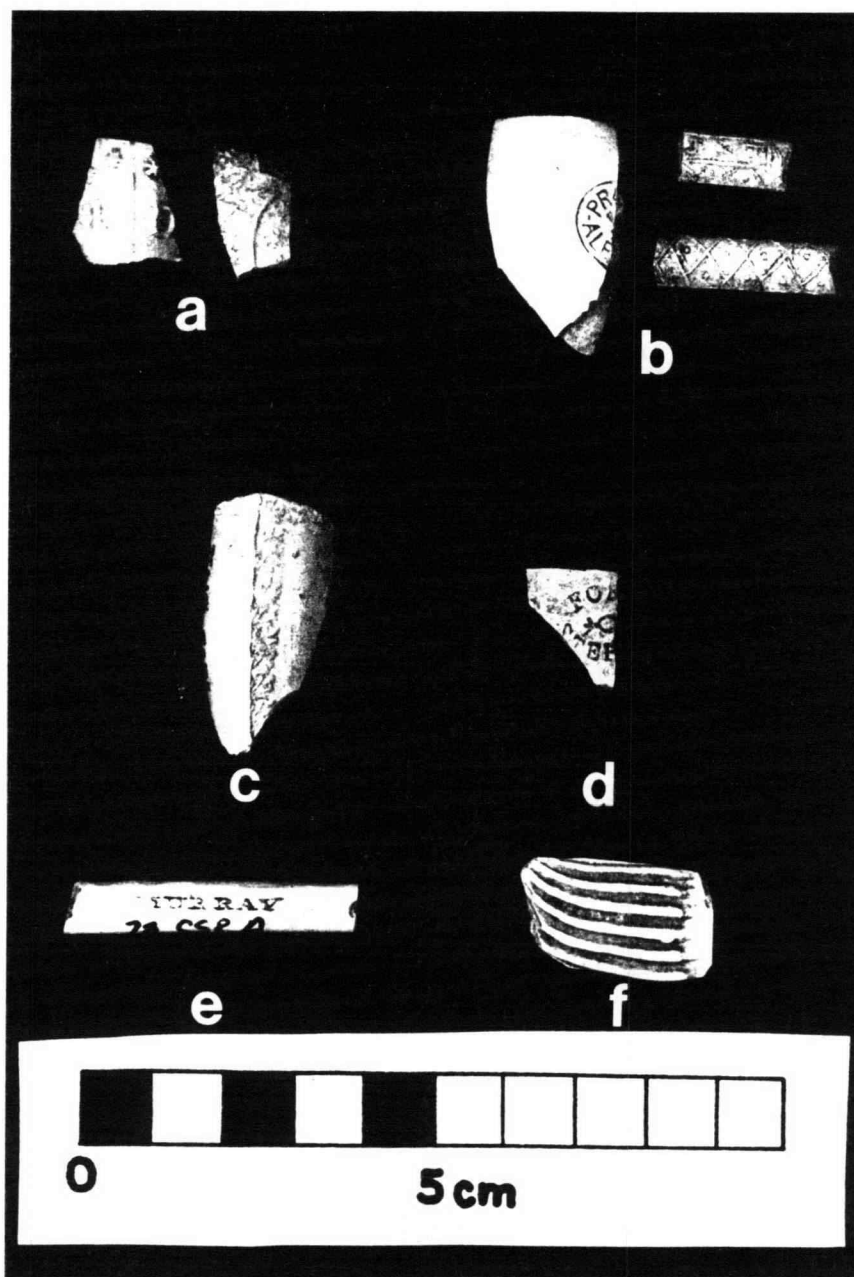


Figure 11. Tobacco Pipes.

- | | |
|---------------------------|------------------|
| a. TD | b. Prince Albert |
| c. Spiked Alternate Frond | |
| e. Murray/Glasgow | f. Cockles |

pipe style can be dated rather closely to the period 1837 to 1870. The commemorative pipe was made to honor the marriage of England's Queen Victoria to Prince Albert in 1840.

"Prince Albert is impressed within a circle on the back of the bowl, surrounding a cockade. The stem bears J & T on one side and Ford on the other" (Chance and Chance 1976:169) (Figure 11). There were two J & T Ford companies in England, the Ford's of London and the Ford's of Stephney. Fort Vancouver imported only the Stephney pipes. This company was known to make the Prince Albert pipe from 1840 to 1850 only. However, there is no conclusive evidence to prove that the pipes at Champoeg were made by the Stephney company rather than the London company.

Two bowl fragments decorated with a leaf pattern along the seams and around the top are identified as the "spiked alternate frond" pipe pattern (Figure 11). "The overall superficial appearance is of one ear of grain though the leaves can be seen to be lobate and not oval as with grains" (Chance and Chance 1976:171).

One bowl fragment with Ford Stephney impressed surrounding an insect was collected (Figure 11). The insect is an impressed oval stylized with three legs on each side.

The Ford Stephney pipe varieties, including the TD, spiked alternate frond pattern, and Prince Albert type, made up 95% of the Fort Vancouver archaeologically recovered inventory. It is interesting to note that all three of these patterns were recovered at Champoeg.

One Murray/Glasgow pipe stem was recovered from Block 1, (Figure 11). "The Murray company was founded in Glasgow, Scotland in 1826 and apparently continued in business until 1861-2, at which time it became the Davidson company" (Humphrey 1969:15 and Omwake 1965). The William Murray Company supplied pipes to the Hudson's Bay Company at Fort Vancouver from 1850 to 1858 (Ross 1976:805).

A second Scottish company, one operated by Duncan McDougall, also supplied pipes to the Hudson's Bay Company (Caywood 1955:60). A pipe stem with 'McDougall' on one side and 'Glasgow' on the other was collected at Champoege. "The McDougall Company was founded in 1810 by Duncan McDougall. McDougall stems were sometimes used with TD bowls" (Humphrey 1969:17-18).

One bowl fragment with only raised ribs as a decoration was described by Chance and Chance (1976:171,78,28) as type 16; thin, widely-spaced cockles, found in a Hudson's Bay Company cultural deposit and dated to circa 1844-53 (Figure 11).

A small bowl fragment with green and yellow color under a clear glaze was recovered from the surface of Block 12. In the later half of the nineteenth century very ornate pipe bowls were designed, often using color in the pattern.

Thirteen bowl fragments with decorative features including stars, ridges, leaf shapes, and an impressed trademark, too faint to decipher, along with two pipe juncture fragments were present at the site. The small size

of the fragments or lack of an identifiable feature reduces their utility as a means of dating the material. There were also fifty plain bowl fragments recovered from the site. The plain bowl fragments range from very small fragments which may be part of a decorated pipe to large pieces which are, in fact, plain bowl pipes. Ten of the plain fragments had identifiable rims. None of the pipes could be cross-mended.

Pipe stem fragments were the most common element of pipes found throughout the site. The stems have been separated by hole diameter for descriptive purposes. However, the hole diameter as a dating technique has not been demonstrated as useful on the West Coast (Table 7). Six stems were stained with a yellow or orange glaze on the mouth tip or close to the tip. The glaze treatment was used to protect the smoker's lips from sticking to the pipe stem (Ross 1976).

The general attributes of the pipe collection reflect the influence of the Hudson's Bay Company. The only recognized "American" product is the TD with stars pattern. The Hudson's Bay Company imported clay pipes from 1823 to 1861, and thus they could have supplied the variety of pipes found at Champoeg.

Table 7. Pipe Stem Size Range.

<u>Diameter of Bore Size</u>	<u>Decoration</u>	<u>Total</u>
Less than 1/16"	None	41
4/64"	(2) Prince Albert, (1) Murray/Glasgow	84
5/64"	(1) McDougall/Glasgow	51
6/64"	None	<u>13</u>
Total:		189

Alcohol Bottles: The dark olive green or black bottle glass is associated with alcohol containers produced primarily between circa 1815 and 1885 (Newman 1970:72). Of the 259 olive green and three amber fragments collected, only sixty-seven have morphological attributes which can be associated to individual containers. Thirty-one fragments are all part of one reconstructed bottle.

There were seven bottle finishes recovered from Champoege. Six lip treatments, including the reconstructed bottle, are "tooled, with broad sloping collar terminating in undercut rounded ring" (Kovel 1967:102). The type of lip treatment is commonly referred to as a brandy bottle lip (Felton 1977:185a). The tooling technique was employed as early as 1820 but did not gain wide usage until 1850 to 1860. Neck finishes of this sort are easily discernible through the high degree of perfection achieved by the tools (Ferraro 1966). The one variant form is an amber bottle

which has a hand applied wide bead finish instead of a collar.

Seven bottle necks and twelve bases or basal fragments were found at Champoeg. These fragments are included because of several features such as the glass thickness, the rounded or cylindrical shape, and dark olive green color. Two fragments are the interior portion of a stylized kick-up. Three kick-up bases were found, and all are made with a pontil or cone shaped object. Bottles with pontil marks can be relatively accurately dated to manufacture prior to 1860. The kick-up is a deep basal concavity which was formed either while being blown in a mold or after the bottle had been removed from the mold. The bottles were made in wooden open molds or cup molds and have no mold seam but have a change of texture and shape at the shoulder (Kendrick 1963; Ferraro 1966; Vienneau 1969; Jones 1971a; and White 1978).

Alcohol bottles range in color from black to olive-amber and this range is reflected in the bottles from Champoeg (Munsey 1970; Vienneau 1969). Based on the glass color, shape, kick-up style with pontil mark, molded body, free-blown neck, and tooled lip, the Champoeg collection was manufactured between circa 1840s and 1860s.

Wine Seal: One pewter wine seal with the impressed name of CARR BURNETT & OLDNER, N.Y. with a grape cluster motif was found in Block 12 at Champoeg. This company was not a

supplier of Hudson's Bay Company as far as the historical record shows (Ross 1976). No other information is known about this seal or the manufacturer who produced it.

"In the eighteenth century the presence of a baling seal on a packet was both a trade mark of the manufacturer and a means of assuring the receiver of the goods that the bale had not been tampered with" (Petersen 1964:43). The baling seal served no secondary purpose, being discarded after the package was opened.

Marbles: Marbles have been a popular gaming piece since prehistoric times. The various games of marbles were quite popular during the 18th and 19th centuries. Marbles have not always been associated with children's pastimes, but were considered entertainment for adults as well. "Pubs and inns and taverns had built-in marbles 'bowling alleys' for their patrons' pleasure" (Ferretti 1973:18).

Of the five marbles found at Champoeg, two are glass and three are fired porcelain (china). The china marbles are distinguished from clay, crockery and unfired porcelain for a more accurate description. The china marbles were formed in molds, dried, handpainted then fired. Two of the china marbles in the Champoeg collection are handpainted with a series of lines which encircle the marble.

According to Baumann,

"In the last third of the eighteenth century, china factories arose in South Thuringen in what is now the eastern zone of Germany. By the turn of the nineteenth

century some of these factories had specialized in the production of china marbles" (Baumann 1970:32-33).

The Thuringen province is also a principal maker of glass marbles. In 1846, a tool was invented to produce marbles from glass rods and by 1856, the demand was so great a new business was opened specifically for the manufacture of glass marbles (Baumann 1970:35).

DOMESTIC ITEMS

Furnishings: There is very little evidence of furniture found at Champoeg. Organic materials decompose quickly in the wet climate of the Willamette Valley. The combination of simple handmade wooden and fibrous furnishings coupled with the abandonment after flooding has left very little information about the pioneer's home furnishings.

One squat-U-shaped furniture staple fabricated by hand from an iron tie rod was recovered from Block 1 at Champoeg. The rod thickness is 0.29cm, the staple width is 2.90cm. The staple is broken cleanly as though snapped.

Thirty-one machine cut tacks or tack-like nail fragments complete the artifact inventory of furnishings present at Champoeg. Two tacks are reverse crimp, the remaining twenty-nine tacks are in various states of deterioration and cannot be classified as to type other than small head and machine cut. The tacks range in size from 0.7cm to 2.5cm with a mean size of 1.2cm.

Tacks have been manufactured as long as nails both by hand and then by machine (Bealer 1976). Common uses for tacks include upholstering and carpeting (Francke and Schindler 1896). The large number of tacks found at Champoeg compared to the lack of furniture pieces possibly reflects the variety of uses in which tacks can be employed. Therefore, although tacks are described under the heading furniture they may have served a variety of needs.

Floor Covering: Floor coverings were used throughout the nineteenth century including various types "made by water-proofing coarse fabric, woven of hemp or flax, with oil paint" (Blackman and Dietsch 1982:9).

Linoleum was first produced by applying linseed oil and fillers to cloth backing. The process was perfected in England, but was quickly brought to America. By the 1860s several American companies were producing the floor covering (Blackman and Dietsch 1982:10).

One small fragment of a hard black rubber-type material with a white painted woven surface appears to be an early example of floor covering or linoleum. However, linoleum seems a bit exotic for a rural community, especially as it post-dates the major construction era at the site. Oil painted and treated fabric, on the other hand, would have been fairly familiar and available to the settlers, as the earliest floor cloth dates from 1760 (Blackman and Dietsch 1982:9).

Culinary: Five items which relate to cooking were recovered from Champoeg, including a cast iron vessel fragment and four cast iron stove parts.

The cast iron vessel fragment is 0.5cm thick with a 1.2cm band around the top which increases the thickness of the rim to 0.7cm. The piece is slightly curved and the side is 10.8cm high; although this is not its total height, it

would appear to be a tall round container, most likely part of a dutch oven or stew pot.

Cast iron was in common use in the early nineteenth century (Gould 1942:47). "Cooking was accomplished in fireplaces and/or domed brick ovens prior to the advent of the iron cooking stove on the frontier in the early 1840s" (Meyer 1972:325).

A cast iron cook stove leg represents one of four legs that would have supported a woodburning stove. The leg has a molded design in relief and is 0.7cm thick. Two cast iron stove box parts and a broken stove grate are all testimonials of the widespread use of cook stoves on the frontier. There is no evidence to suggest they are from a single stove.

Cast iron cook stoves were imported from Canada to the Hudson's Bay Company at Fort Vancouver.

Such stoves were of a unique design with a firebox below and oven above which were vented through funnels or stovepipes. Canada stoves were constructed of cast iron plates which were easily dismantled for storage. The upper oven could be removed, leaving the top plate for the firebox, and a compact heating stove was created (Ross 1976:650; and Lardner 1833:Vol 4, 185 in Ross 1976).

Flatware: Four pieces of flatware were recovered from Block 12 and Montcalm Street. Although in fragmented and deteriorated condition, two knives, one fork and one handle complete the sample (Figure 12).

The two knives are made of iron and are corroded so that the full length of the blades is impossible to measure. The knife blade widths are 2.55cm and 1.99cm. The thickness of both knives is 0.22cm tapering to 0.15cm at the cutting edge. The attachment of the blade to the handle is only visible on one specimen and is attached to an iron rod which was covered with a bone or wooden handle.

The fork fragment is a two-tined variety. "Two-tined steel forks were common from the last quarter of the seventeenth century to the beginning of the nineteenth century, when the three-tined variety came into vogue" (Noel Hume 1978:180). Possibly the two-tined forks were popular up to a later period on the West Coast.

A handle with two small hallmarks stamped on the back and an outline design in relief on the front and back was collected. The hallmarks are difficult to decipher but appear to be the initials BMI and a flower or cartouche. "Between 1730 and 1830 the hallmark shape became a rectangle, oval, cartouche, ribbon or annulet. Most craftsmen used the rectangle with a plain outline" (Snodin & Beldon 1976:34). The hallmarks are generally associated with silversmiths but were also used on silver-plated wares (Kovel 1975). The hallmarks refer to a makers name, city, or trade emblem.

The composition of the handle is difficult to identify. However, it is probably made of Britannia and electroplated

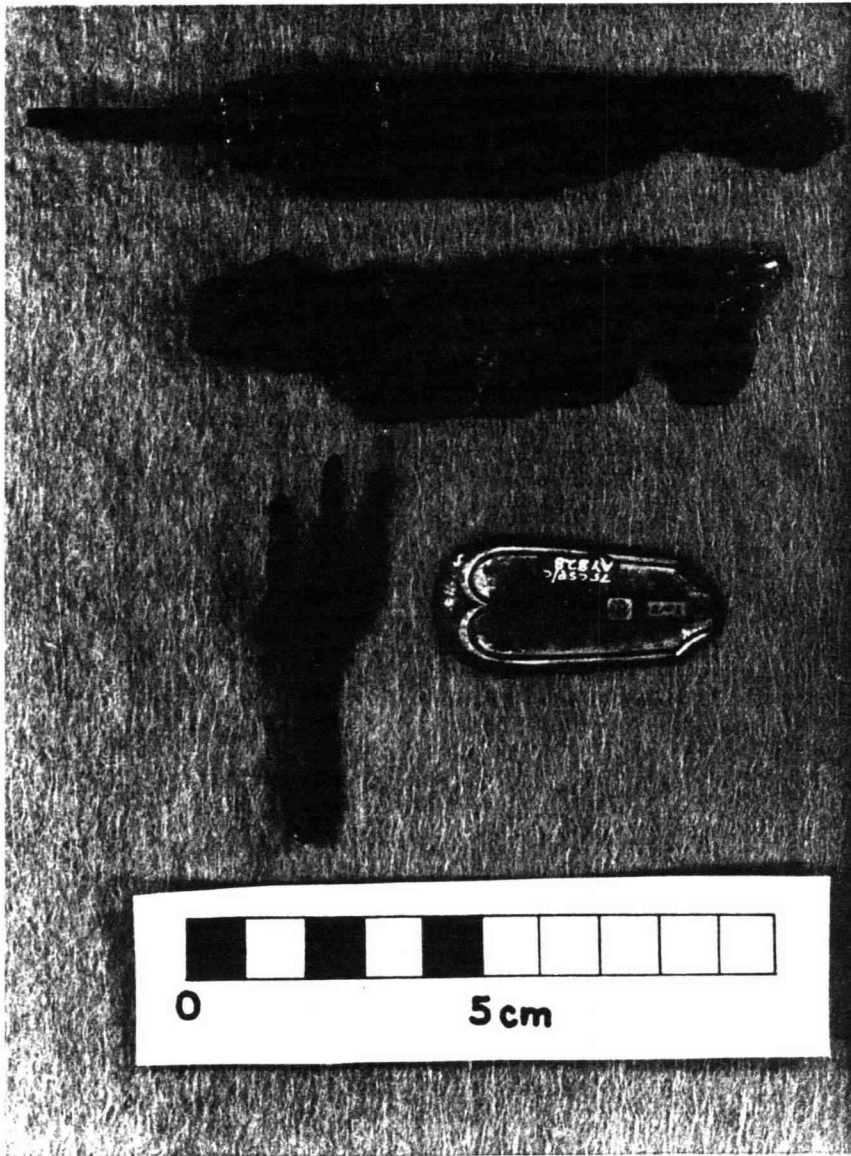


Figure 12. Flatware utensils.

with silver. Britannia metal is fabricated much like pewter except that it is a more resilient material. Britannia metal was very popular until 1870 when cheaper electroplated silver took over the market (Snodin & Beldon 1976). The areas of Sheffield and Birmingham were large production centers for Britannia ware, especially for the American market (Snodin & Beldon 1976). However, no manufacturer or trade center can be associated with the initials "BMI" found on the Champoeg handle.

The handle shape is a simple fiddle-thread pattern. The fiddle pattern was manufactured in both England and America during the period 1800-1860. However, the handle most likely represents a British manufactured item because it is double-struck, with the design on both sides of the stem, whereas American-made fiddle handles were straight-sided and undecorated (Snodin & Beldon 1976:46, 48).

One iron handle which was inserted into a bone or wooden handle completes the inventory of utensils collected at Champoeg. The handle is in poor condition and the complete form is impossible to determine.

Ceramics: The collection of ceramics recovered from Champoeg represents one of the largest categories of artifacts, with 1089 fragments. Ceramics can contribute much to the interpretation of a site as they, much like pipes, are mass produced, available to all social classes,

have datable stylistic changes, and though breakable preserve well in the archaeological record. Ceramics can represent a wide variety of human activities. The following discussion describes the ceramic fragments according to functional attributes and minimum number of vessels.

Noteworthy attributes include rims, brims, brinks, center, footrings, base, body material, decoration, and, whenever possible, a hollow ware or flat ware determination. "Hollow ware vessels are 'open' vessels such as cups, bowls, and vegetable dishes. Flat ware vessels include plates of various sizes, soup plates, and platters" (Sanders, Weber and Brauner 1983:82).

The minimum number of vessels or MNV is a unit of measure for counting the relative number of vessels present. The MNV is achieved by counting only those fragments that have distinguishable traits. With this method both the total fragment count and the distinguishable attributes are quantified. Thus, the total number of fragments can be balanced with the minimum number of vessels, providing a more realistic idea of the actual number of dishes present.

Transfer-printed Earthenware: Of the 209 transfer-printed earthenware fragments, twenty-seven patterns have been distinguished. The transfer printed wares are typically of British manufacture, suggesting a rather strong dependence on the Hudson's Bay Company trade items. In the following discussion of transfer-printed designs, unless otherwise

noted, the manufacturer is British. The patterns have been identified through the use of pattern books, comparative archaeological collections and the aid of ceramic specialist Harriet Munnick.

Transfer printed earthenware was very popular during the first half of the nineteenth century. Many patterns were created to meet the market demands. Often patterns were produced only for a short period, and in many cases the beginning and ending date of production are known. Table 8 shows the relationship of the transfer printed patterns recovered from Champoeg, the production date range and the period of occupation at Champoeg.

Excelsior or Voilet (Pattern CSP 1) (5P 3/8): There is some dispute on the actual pattern name, as the fifty-three fragments lack any identifiable trademark (Figure 13a). The Excelsior pattern designation is derived from Little (1969:Plate 114). The fleur de lis and medallions on the rim surround a romantic river scene of sanpans and a turreted castle on the hillside behind the boats. The fragmented pieces from Champoeg contain these same elements. However, Munnick discovered a vessel of a similar motif with the name Voilet stamped on the bottom (Munnick 1983:Personal Communication). Munnick feels that Voilet was a manufacturer's error in spelling 'violet' which would refer to the color of the transferware print. It is supposed that either one or both of the pattern types are represented in

Table 8. Ceramic production date range

YEAR	1800	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890
PATTERN	PERIOD OF OCCUPATION AT CHAMPOEG									
Lombardy						-----				
Canova				----	-----					
Willow			-----	-----						-----
California						----->?				
Marino				-----	-----					
Italian			-----	-----						
Excelsior	-----	-----	-----	-----				-----		
Warwick Vase				-----						
Chinese Flowers			-----	-----						
Tyrolean				-----	-----					
Watteau						-----				
Columbia						----->?				
Athena						----->?				
Filigree			-----	--						
British Flowers				--	-----					

Figure 13. Transfer Printed Earthenware.

- | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------|
| a. CSP 1, Excelsior/Voilet | b. CSP 2, Canova |
| c. CSP 3, Italian | d. CSP 4, Tyrolean |
| e. CSP 5, Columbia | f. CSP 6, Watteau |

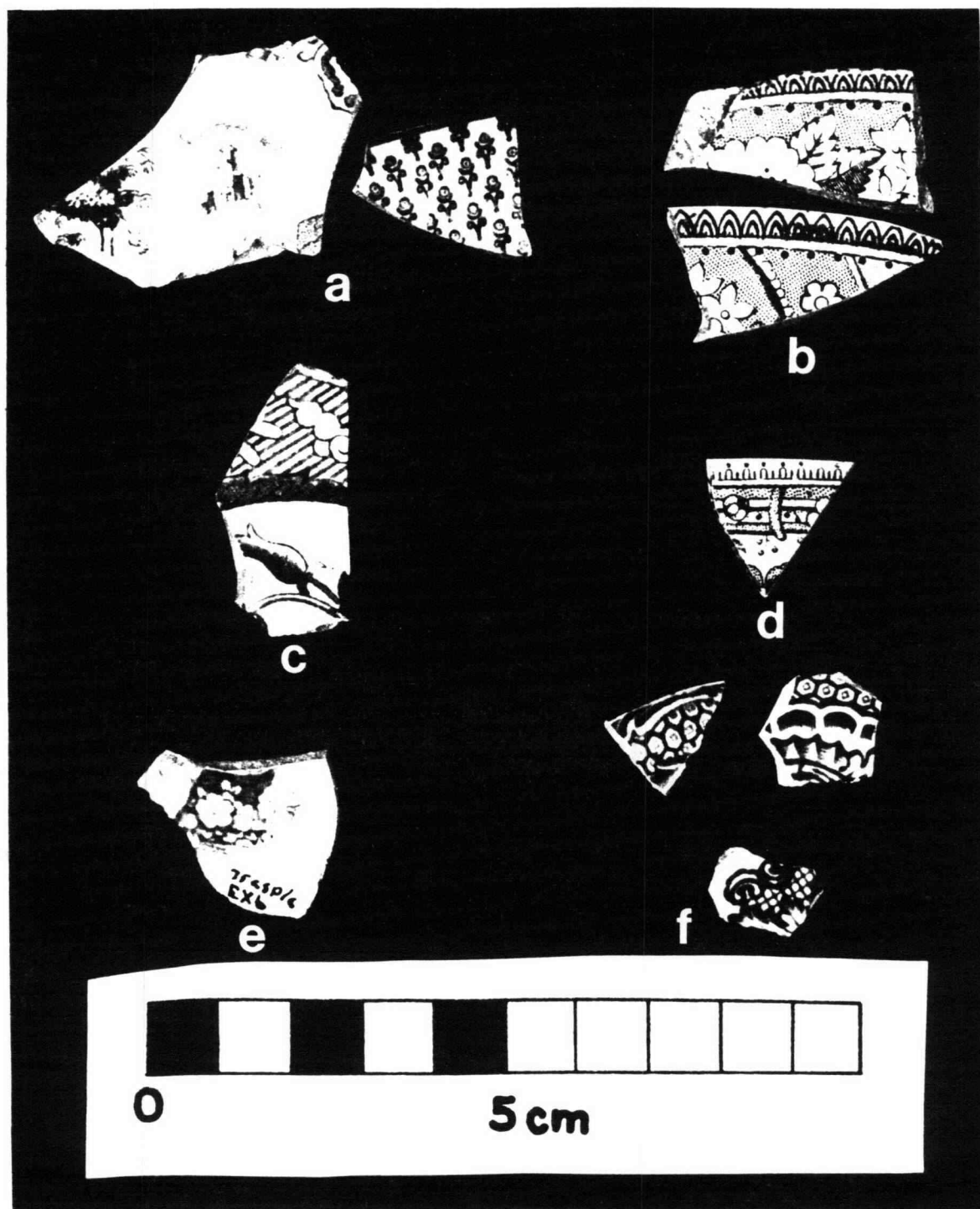


Figure 13.

the Champoeg collection.

There are three cup fragments and eight fragments that might be associated with the cups having the design on both interior and exterior. Three fragments with footrings may represent cup plates. A minimum number of vessels count defines ten pieces.

This pattern is the most numerous transfer design found at Champoeg. It also has the longest manufacturing record--spanning the entire period of Champoeg's occupation. The Excelsior pattern was made by Samuel Moore and Co., Wear Pottery, Southwick, Sunderland from 1803 to 1874 (Little 1969). The Voilet pattern was marked with J.T. (possibly J. Turner).

Canova (Pattern CSP 2) (7.5YR 2/2): Two sepia toned transferware printed fragments representing two pieces of flatware were excavated from contiguous test units in Block 1 (Figure 13b). Canova was manufactured by Thomas Mayer (1826-1835), by G. Phillips (1834-1848), and by David Henderson of the American Pottery Company in Jersey City (ca. 1849-1854) (Barber 1904; Godden 1964; Williams 1978; and Gates and Ormerod 1982). American manufacturing did not begin until after 1840, however. It is not known which company made the fragments found at Champoeg. The Canova pattern was also found at Fort Vancouver and the Willamette Mission, but were printed in blue.

Italian (Pattern CSP 3) (5PB 5/8-2/8): Two fragments, printed in blue, relate to a flat ware (possibly a soup

plate) form as the rim, brim and brink are distinguishable (Figure 13c). This pattern was introduced by Spode, Copeland and Garrett as early as 1816, although it was most popular between 1833 to 1847 (Williams 1949:118).

Beginning in the middle 1830s, Copeland and Garrett began to sell wares to the Hudson's Bay Company (Ross 1976:193). "For this reason, the occurrence of Spode/Copeland and Garrett patterns is widespread in early historic sites in the Pacific Northwest" (Sanders, Weber and Brauner 1983:109). Italian was also recovered from the Willamette Mission.

Tyrolean (Pattern CSP 4) (7.5YR 2/2): One small rim fragment of a cup was found in Block 53 (Figure 13d). Printed in sepia this pattern was made by William Ridgway and Company (1834-1854) (Williams 1978:437).

Columbia (Pattern CSP 5) (5PB 7-2/8): One fragment which has the name printed on the bottom was recovered from Montcalm Street (Figure 13e). The Columbia pattern is printed in blue and was manufactured by William Adams and Sons beginning in 1850 (Williams 1978:237).

Watteau (Pattern CSP 6) (6.25PB 3/12): Nine fragments all recovered from two excavation units in Montcalm Street probably represent two vessels (Figure 13f). This blue printed pattern was produced by Copeland & Garrett and W.T. Copeland during the period of 1847 to 1861. However, the exact introductory year and termination year are not known (Sussman 1979b).

The Watteau pattern was distributed to nearly every fort controlled by the Hudson's Bay Company (Sussman 1979b).

California (Pattern CSP 7) (5PB 7/8): Thirty fragments of which five vessels are distinguishable included three flat ware of varying thickness and design size, one platter, one dinner plate, and one cup plate. Two hollow ware vessels of unknown shape and eighteen undetermined fragments complete the inventory of this blue and black transfer printed pattern (Figure 14a). A trademark was printed on the bottom of a flat ware fragment which can be recognized as the British dating code.

California was made by Podmore Walker and Company as early as 1849, although no beginning and ending bracket dates have been determined (Williams 1978:212).

Marino (Pattern CSP 8) (5PB 7/8 & 4/8): All eleven fragments of this light blue printed pattern were recovered from Block 1. The fragments suggest that one vessel, a piece of flat ware is represented (Figure 14b).

Marino was a popular pattern manufactured by George Philips, Thomas Phillips and Thomas Godwin during the period of 1834 to 1854 (Williams 1978:327). The dinnerware found at Champoege has no trademark so it is not possible to identify which company produced it.

Athena (Pattern CSP 9) (10G 5/1): One rim fragment of a piece of hollow ware (probably a bowl) was found on the surface of Block 4 (Figure 14c). The maker was not

Figure 14. Transfer Printed Earthenware.

- a. CSP 7, California b. CSP 8, Marino
- c. CSP 9, Athena d. CSP 10, Crystal Palace
- e. CSP 11, Filigree f. CSP 12, Oak & Flowers

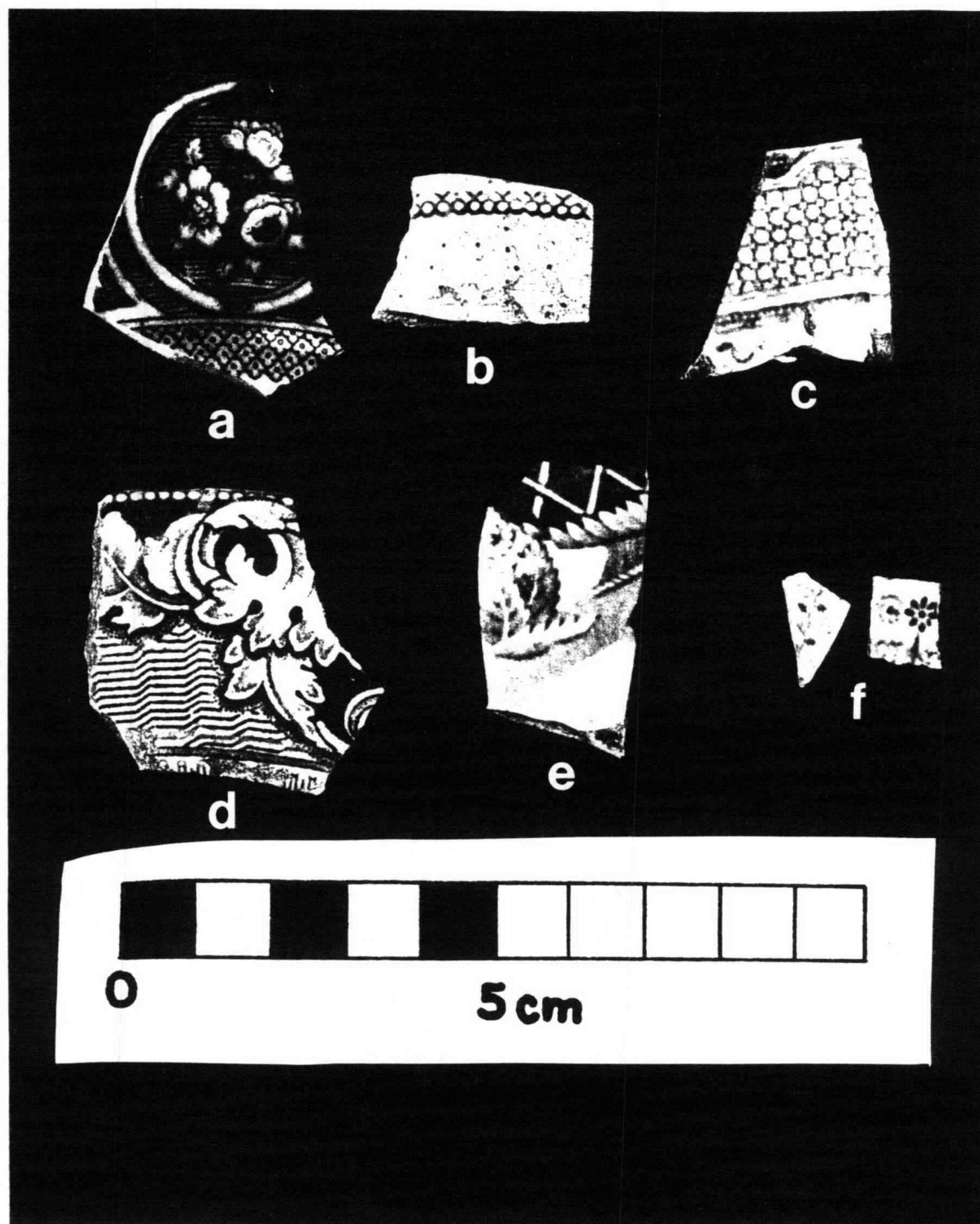


Figure 14.

identified. However, the introductory date for the pattern is 1852 (Williams 1978:61).

Crystal Palace (Pattern CSP 10) (5PB 4/6): Six blue printed fragments which comprise three flat ware vessels were collected (Figure 14d). The Crystal Palace pattern was identified by Harriet Munnick from her comparative collection which has been compiled from Champoege and nearby French-Canadian home sites. No specific date is associated with this pattern.

Filigree (Pattern CSP 11) (5PB 5/8): One fragment of a hollow ware vessel of this blue printed pattern was recovered from Block 1 (Figure 14e). The Filigree pattern was created by Copeland and Garrett (ca. 1823- post 1833) (Sussman 1979b:113). Fort Vancouver is the only Hudson's Bay Company post where the Filigree pattern was found (Sussman 1979b:14).

Oak and Flowers (Pattern CSP 12) (5PB 5/8): Four pieces of this pattern were identified by Munnick (1983). Of the four fragments one is a hollow ware form and the other three fragments are of undertermined form. The pattern name is descriptive rather than an actual design name. The blue printed stylized oak leaves are arranged in rows intermixed with flowers (Figure 14f). The center design shows a man in a kilt standing by a castle (Munnick 1983: Personal Communication). Neither the manufacturer nor the period of production is known. Munnick suggested that

the pattern is unique to Champoege and is not found at other sites in the area (Munnick 1983: Personal Communication).

Persian Vase (Pattern CSP 13) (5PB 6/8): Three fragments representing two vessels were collected (Figure 15a). This blue printed pattern was identified by Munnick (1983). "The maker was Davenport but the production period was not determined. Persian Vase was found at other sites in the area around Champoege" (Munnick 1983: Personal Communication).

British Flowers (Pattern CSP 14) (5PB 3/10): One small rim fragment of undetermined form was found during subsurface excavation of Montcalm Street (Figure 15b). The maker is Copeland and Garrett and W.T. Copeland with production spanning over 100 years, ca. 1829 to 1874. The rim pattern was used with a variety of center floral designs (Sussman 1979b:61). British Flowers was recovered at many Hudson's Bay Company forts including Fort Vancouver (Sussman 1979b:12-16).

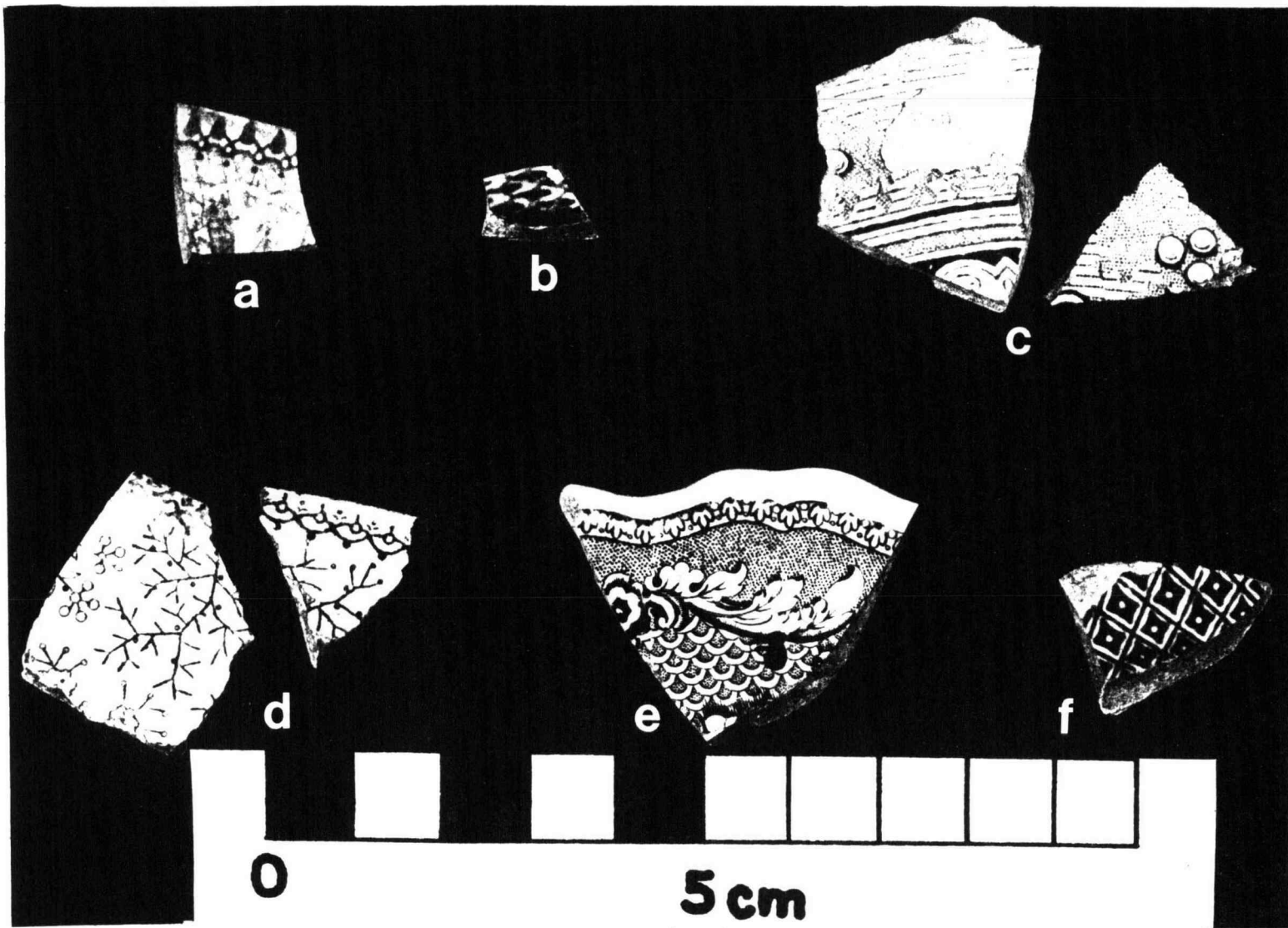
Florence (Pattern CSP 15) (2.5R 3/10): Four red printed fragments found in Montcalm Street may reflect one vessel, possibly a soup plate (Figure 15c). The pattern was made by William Adams and Sons and is thought to be an early pattern but the introduction date is not known at this time (Munnick 1983: Personal Communication).

Lombardy (Pattern CSP 16) (10G 3/8): Two rim fragments printed in green are tentatively identified as Lombardy, and represent one piece of flat ware (Figure 15d). Lombardy was

Figure 15. Tranfer Printed Earthenware.

- a. CSP 13, Persian Vase
- b. CSP 14, British Flowers
- c. CSP 15, Florence
- d. CSP 16, Lombardy
- e. CSP 17, Adelaide's Bower
- f. CSP 18, Willow

Figure 15.



produced by Joseph Heath & Company between 1828-1841 (Williams 1978:316).

The Hudson's Bay Company is not known to have imported stock from the J. Heath & Company as no patterns associated with this company have been recovered through archaeological investigations. Thus, the pattern may relate to Nathaniel Wyeth's enterprises, or to an alternative supply source other than the Hudson's Bay Company.

Adelaide's Bower (Pattern CSP 17) (7.5YR 2.2): One scalloped-edged rim fragment of a plate or platter was recovered from Block 1 (Figure 15e). The sepia printed pattern was identified by Munnick (Personal Communication 1983). No maker or manufacturing date has been located.

Willow (Pattern CSP 18) (5PB 3/8): One small fragment was found on the surface of Block 12 (Figure 15f). Willow ware was very popular throughout the 19th century and is still in production. The Willow pattern originated at Caughley, England by either Thomas Milton (Noel Hume 1970:130) or Thomas Minton (Collard 1967:122). Whether Thomas Minton was the first to cut the pattern or not, he was very quickly commissioned by Josiah Spode to do so. And, it is the Spode version of Willow which is even today the most familiar (Collard 1967:122). "There are many versions of the same theme, having certain features in common, but often arranging them differently, and adding or omitting certain details. The Spode factory alone produced

more than a dozen Willow or Willow-type designs" (Collard 1967:122).

The Champoege fragment is much too small to distinguish the maker or form of the vessel. The Fort Vancouver site contained Willow ware manufactured by Spode, Copeland & Garrett. While the Willamette Mission site recovered fragments of Broseley, a Willow-type pattern also produced by Spode as well as other factories (Sanders, Weber and Brauner 1983:108-109).

Brunswick (Pattern CSP 19) (2.5R 3/10 and 10GY 6/8): Brunswick is the only multi-chrome transfer pattern recovered at Champoege. The pattern is actually a black transfer print with red and green colors added to accentuate flowers and leaves (Figure 16a). Davenport manufactured Brunswick; however, there was no trademark on any of the fragments in the Champoege collection. Of the seventeen fragments collected, four are distinguishable flatware vessels. Three vessels are probably plates, while one is obviously a platter because of a molded grip-handle.

Warwick Vase (Pattern CSP 20) (2.5R 3/10): One hollow ware rim fragment of the red transfer print Warwick Vase was found in Block 1 (Figure 16b). The Warwick Vase pattern style also occurred at Fort Vancouver and at the homesite of French-Canadian, Etienne Lucier (Munnick 1983:Personal Communication). Warwick Vase was a product of Spode, Copeland and Garrett during the circa 1833-1847 period (Chance and Chance 1976:72).

Figure 16. Transfer Printed Earthenware.

- a. CSP 19, Brunswick
- b. CSP 20, Warwick Vase
- c. CSP 21, Goodwin's Marine
- d. CSP 22, Chinese Flowers
- e. CSP 23, Unidentified
- f. CSP 24, Unidentified

Figure 16.



Goodwin's Marine (Pattern CSP 21) (2.5PB 8/4): One flatware fragment of Goodwin's Marine was located in Block 1 (Figure 16c). The pattern was identified by Munnick; however the maker or date are unknown (Munnick 1983:Personal Communication).

Chinese Flowers (Pattern CSP 22) (5PB 4/10): One fragment of undetermined form was collected at Champoeg (Figure 16d). The pattern Chinese Flowers was produced by Spode, Copeland and Garrett (ca. 1815 - post-1847) and was part of the inventory shipped to Fort Vancouver (Sussman 1979b:86).

The Chinese Flowers pattern was also found at the Etienne Lucier homesite (Munnick 1983:Personal Communication). Lucier had settled a short distance upstream from Champoeg by 1830.

Unidentified Transfer Printed Patterns: The following five transfer printed patterns are presented with only a brief description and illustration as they remain unidentified. The five represent unique patterns within the collection. Many small fragments, also unidentified, are not included here as they may relate to patterns previously discussed but are too fragmented to discern.

Pattern 1 (Pattern CSP 23) (5PB 7/6-3/6): One hollow ware rim fragment (possibly a tea cup) was recovered from Block 1 (Figure 16e). The rim pattern, printed on both sides is made up of horizontal lines and scrolls.

Pattern 2 (Pattern CSP 24) (5PB 6/8): Four fragments of a blue transfer printed design made up of parallel lines of zig-zags and dots were recovered (Figure 16f). The pieces probably represent one flatware vessel. The fabric is rather thick, possibly a type of ironstone, popular in the latter half of the 19th century. Part of a trademark is printed on two of the pieces.

Pattern 3 (Pattern CSP 25) (2.5R 3/10): Three flatware fragments representing two vessels with a romantic scene of a gondola landing at a palace were collected (Figure 17a). Interestingly, the two vessels are broken in nearly the same place, giving a view of the plate well but little else. A trademark is only partially visible on the back of each vessel.

Pattern 4 (Pattern CSP 26) (7.5YR 5/10): Four small fragments of an orangish-brown were recovered from the surface of Block 3 (Figure 17b). Functional characteristics include a shallow footring and subtle curve to the remaining three pieces.

Pattern 5 (Pattern CSP 27) (10G 5/1): One flatware rim shard was located on the surface of Block 3 (Figure 17c). The pattern shows a flower motif in a rather unusual shade of grey-green.

Transfer printed fragments of a size too small for identification or pieces that cannot be associated with a similar pattern were counted and functional distinctions noted such as footring, rim, etc. There are a total of

Figure 17. Transfer Printed Earthenware.

- a. CSP 25, Unidentified
- b. CSP 26, Unidentified
- c. CSP 27, Unidentified
- d. CSP 28, Flow Blue

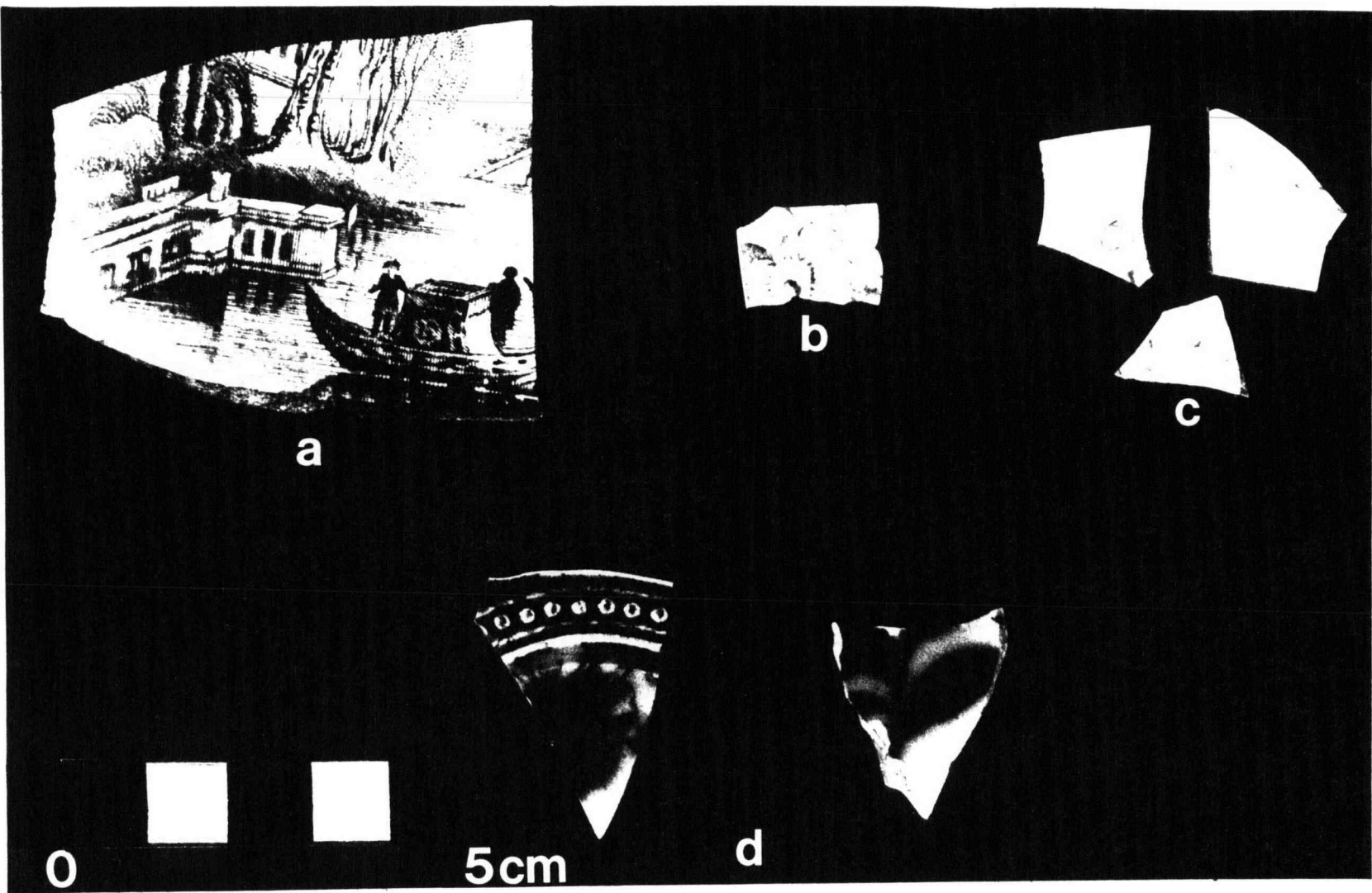


Figure 17.

ninety-six fragments in this category, fifty-eight lacking any functional characteristics. There are two distinct footrings, eleven flatware pieces, twelve hollow ware, and eleven rims present. There was no attempt to count minimum number of vessels for this sample. Distribution across the site reflects the sampling strategy as more fragments were recovered from subsurface excavations than from surface collecting.

Flow Blue (Pattern CSP 28) (5PB 7-2/8): Two fragments of Flow Blue were collected during the surface survey of Blocks 3 and 12 (Figure 17d). One piece has a rim decoration with beading and a ridge in relief. The other fragment shows only a stem and leaf detail.

Flow Blue was first made in 1825, but it was not until 1835 that production began in earnest. Two stylistic periods are discerned for the manufacture of Flow Blue, 1835 to 1850s and 1860s to 1870s, although production continued until the turn of the century. The earliest examples are predominantly oriental motifs with some romanticized scenic designs, a few floral patterns appear among the early pieces (Williams 1971:7). "All of the leading pottery companies produced Flow Blue, including: Davenport; J&G Meakin; Podmore, Walker and Co.; William Adams; Ridgways; etc." (McClinton 1951:28).

Edge-Decorated Earthenware (Pattern CSP 29) (7.5PB 3/10 and 3/8): Seventeen fragments of edge-decorated earthenware were collected. All but one of the fragments are blue shell or feather edge design; both have a scallop and a straight edge variety as well (Figure 18a). Although the rim fragments are rather small, they all appear to be flat ware, possibly plates or soup plates. Of the ten rim fragments, eight individual vessels can be determined.

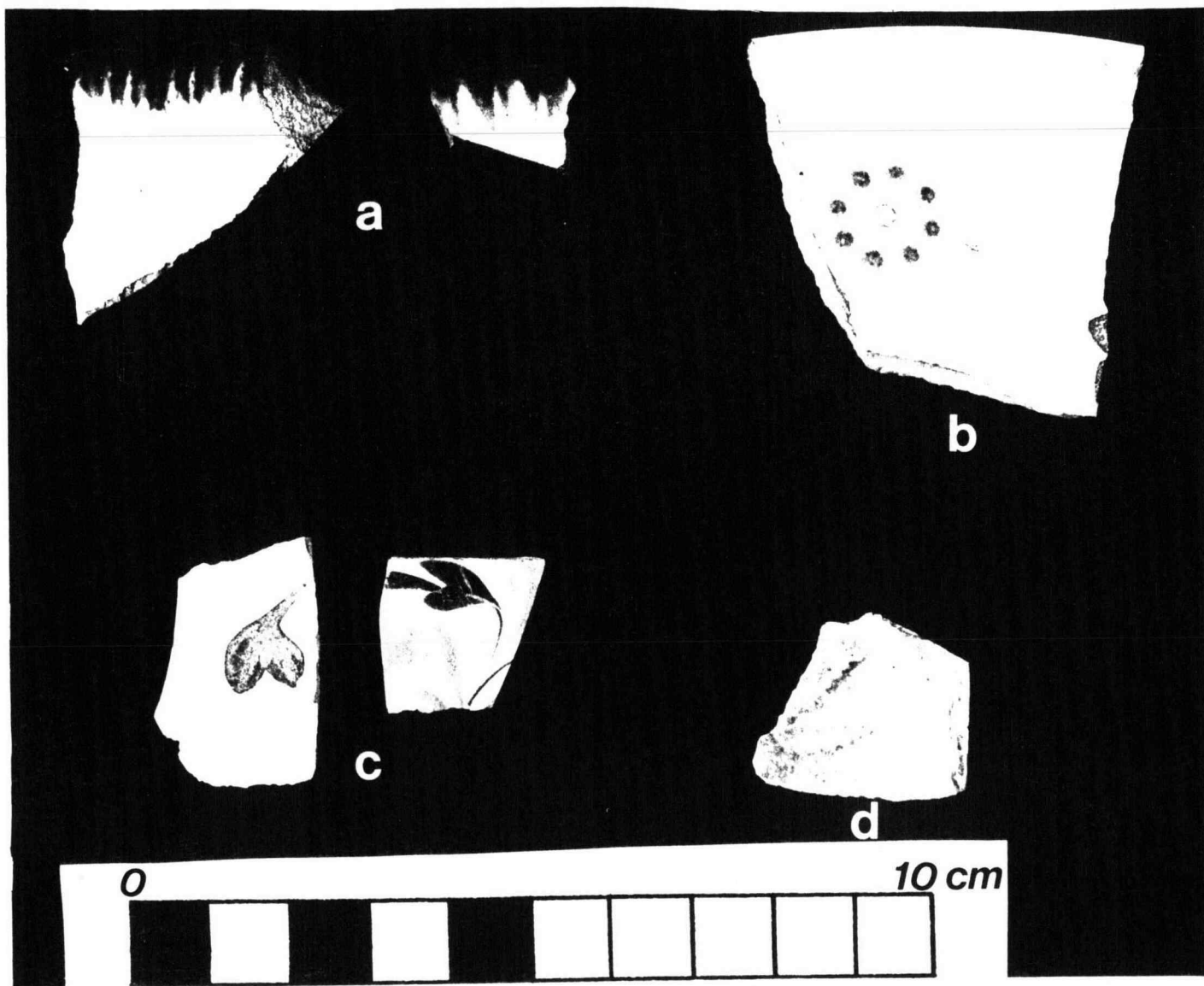
Edge-decorated ware was popular from the later part of the 18th century up until the 1840s. The shell-edge decoration was first produced on creamware, then on pearlware, and by 1830 on white earthenware. The stylized design of the rim painting "had been reduced from careful strokes brushed outwards to the edge, emphasizing the shell pattern, to no more than a painted lateral stripe" (Noel Hume in Quimby 1973:242). All of the fragments in the Champoeg collection are white earthenware and the range of variability in workmanship is readily apparent.

One fragment of edge-decorated white earthenware has a molded brim somewhat like the shell edge; however, there is a wash of blue and pink (5RP 6/6) instead of a solid color. The pink color is also found as a glaze on the exterior of the piece which has the general form of a plate.

Polka Dots (Pattern CSP 30): Polka Dots is a descriptive name for a pattern which is thought to have been applied by stamping the bisque with a cork (Chance and

Figure 18. Non-transfer Decorated Earthenware.

- a. CSP 29, Shell-edge
- b. CSP 30, Polka-dots
- c. CSP 31, Handpainted
- d. CSP 33, Parian



Chance 1976:91). The design includes green, red, blue, yellow, and orange dots in circular patterns (Figure 18b). One vessel recovered from Champoege is the base of a pitcher. The ware was also found at Fort Vancouver, which suggests bracket dates of circa 1824 to 1860. However, no manufacturer has been identified for the ware.

Hand-Painted Earthenware (Pattern CSP 31):

Twenty-three hand-painted earthenware fragments are included in the Champoege collection (Figure 18c). Three individual vessels are present, represented by a cup, and two hollow ware vessels. All of the fragments maintain a common polychrome floral design of red (2.5R 3/10), blue (2.5PB 4/10), and green (10GY 2/4). The only difference in color hues is a darker green (10GY 2/4) on one fragment.

Hand-painted wares were popular throughout the period of occupation at Champoege. The ware was produced at Staffordshire potteries for the American and Canadian markets (Sanders, Weber and Brauner 1983:132 and Freeman 1949:26).

Brown Banded Earthenware (Pattern CSP 40): A white earthenware fragment with a single brown band (7.5YR 3/4) was collected from the surface of Block 3. This vessel probably served as a soup plate or shallow serving dish. Banded rims accompanied handpainted and simple printed center designs.

Porcelain (Pattern CSP 32): Nineteen fragments of porcelain were collected over a wide area at Champoege.

However, not one of the pieces had a trademark or backstamp, so that the makers and dates of manufacture remain unknown.

Porcelain was produced in Europe, Japan, China and the United States throughout the nineteenth century. "Some time prior to 1829 a factory was established in Jersey City, New Jersey, by persons not known,...which made hardpaste porcelain. No mark was used" (Prime 1879:404).

The fragments are plain white, except for three pieces of bluish-grey tinged Chinese export porcelain and one piece with an orange decoration. Of the nineteen fragments, there were eight flatware and nine hollow ware vessels distinguished. A molded hollow fragment appears to be a decorative handle. Three miniature hollow ware fragments with footings may relate to a toy-sized tea set.

Chinese export porcelain was found at Fort Vancouver "and has been attributed to Boston merchants who acquired these wares at Canton and presumably sold them to the Hudson's Bay Company in the Sandwich Islands" (Ross 1976:241). Chinese porcelain was also recovered at the Willamette Mission.

Parian (Pattern CSP 33): Two pieces of molded Parian were recovered from Block 1 and Montcalm Street (Figure 18d). Although both fragments are hollow ware vessels with molded leaf designs in relief they differ in appearance. One fragment is white with a matte finish on the exterior and a clear glaze on the interior. The other piece is buff to almost a yellowish-brown body, with matte exterior finish

and white interior glaze.

Parian, also referred to as "statuary porcelain," was first made by Josiah Spode in 1840 (Collard 1967:177; Ray 1974:157). "Of all the ornamental wares produced in porcelain and sent for sale in Canada the most popular by far were those in Parian, the china that looked like marble" (Collard 1967:177). "From 1847 to 1858, Christopher Fenton made at Bennington, Vermont, a type of porcelain which he called Parian ware" (Clement 1944:31).

Parian ware took many forms, most commonly molded in relief with flowers, fruit or scenes. The interior of Parian pitchers were usually glazed. Two tints were produced, one fawn-colored, from the presence of a little oxide or iron, and the other white, from its absence (Barber 1971:168,172). The two fragments in the Champoege collection are hollow ware with glazed interiors suggesting they may have been pitchers.

White Earthenware: The largest sample of ceramic fragments is made up of plain white earthenware. The occupation at Champoege spanned the years when transfer printed wares were being replaced with plain whiteware. White earthenware and white ironstone are very similar in appearance, but the ironstone was a much finer ware. Ironstone came into popularity very rapidly as it was cheap and did not craze or stain like earthenware. "It was marketed by many firms through patent-use, under such names as Semi-Porcelain, White Granite, Parisian Granite, Royal

Stoneware, etc." (Kamm 1956:vii). The first white ironstone appeared in the early 1840s. Throughout the 1840s and 1850s the molded designs were rather simple. However, by the 1860s intricate floral, vegetable and Grecian patterns were more popular (Wetherbee 1980:37).

The overall category of white earthenware is quite large, 555 fragments were collected. The whiteware category necessarily includes the undecorated portions of edge-decorated, handpainted, and cork-stamped wares. However, forty-nine fragments including six distinct rim patterns can be identified as ironstone. All of the rim patterns are quite simple mold designs, suggesting pre-1860 manufacture. Three rim shapes were registered; the Sydenham Shape which was developed in England in 1850 and was copied by many potteries (Wetherbee 1980:48). The Virginia Shape which was registered by Brougham and Mayer in 1855 and Scalloped Decagon which was potted by both Davenport and J. Wedgewood after 1856 (Wetherbee 1985:74,40).

The white ironstone was not always marked, prior to about 1870 American potters often neglected to apply a mark hoping the consumer would think the ware was imported (Wetherbee 1985:157). Thus, only sixteen fragments are marked and of those, only five could be identified (Figure 19). The companies include two British, two American and one Scottish.

Spode, Copeland and Garrett: One fragment with the mark, 'Late Spode' with 'Copeland Garrett'

surrounding it, dates to between 1833 and 1847, or more specifically 1839 (Williams 1949:208; Hayden 1924:178).

Robert Cochran: One plate with Robert Cochran, Glasgow stamped on it. "Robert Cochran's Brittannia Pottery in Glasgow had a long association with Canada, from the time when it was sent out at mid-19th century" (Webster 1974:262).

Homer Laughlin: An American potter in East Liverpool, Ohio produced a white granite ware between 1874 -1879.

Marks on White Granite show an American Eagle over the British lion. On semi-vitreous china toilet and table services the same symbol is used within a circle, with the name of the company enclosed in the ring. The pattern name was printed beneath the trademark such as "Colonial", "Golden Gate", or "An American Beauty (Barber 1904:111).

The fragment found at Champoeg has the name enclosed in a circle; however, the complete trademark is not visible.

Knowles, Taylor & Knowles Company: Established in 1854 at East Liverpool, Ohio, the pottery of Knowles, Taylor & Knowles claimed to be the most extensive in America. Up until 1872, the pottery produced yellow wares, but then began potting white granite ware. A series of trademarks traces the company's development (Barber 1904:108-109; Lehner 1980:86). The trademark found at Champoeg was produced during the 1880s.

T.J. Mayer: The British firm of Thomas J. Mayer, "won a prize for their white ironstone in 1851. Many of their ware included the words 'Prize Medal' in their marks on the undersides of their dishes" (Wetherbee 1980:37). Included

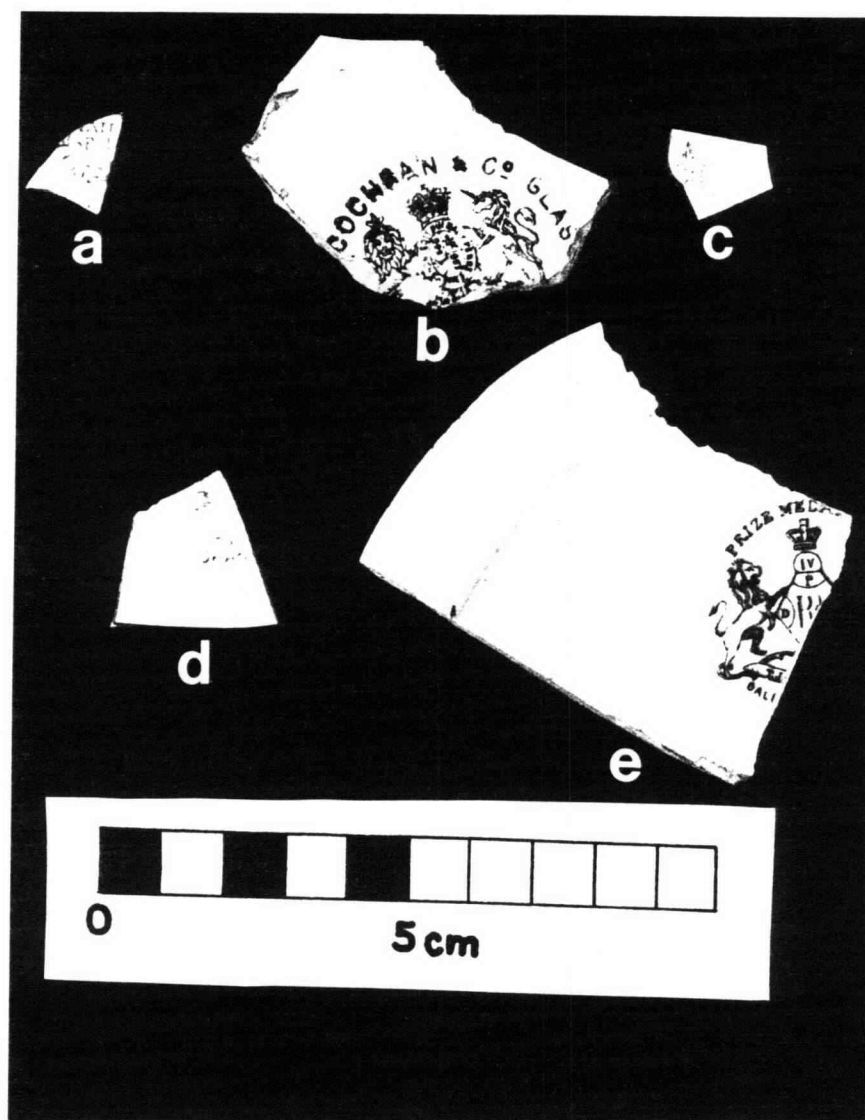


Figure 19. Backstamp Trade Marks.

- a. Spode, Copeland and Garrett
- b. Robert Cochran
- c. Homer Laughlin
- d. Knowles, Taylor & Knowles
- e. T. J. Mayer

in the trademark is a patent office registration mark, thus dating the ware to the day, month and year of production.

The plate fragment recovered from Champoeg shows only the month (September) and the year (1851) (Barber 1904:284-285; Ray 1974:29).

The remaining trademarks are too fragmented to allow identification. The popular symbols of eagles and lions were used in a variety of designs, many copying, quite closely, rival companies (Collard 1967:323-324). Table 9 shows the companies which produced ceramics, both transfer print and whiteware, which were recovered at Champoeg. The predominance of British companies may reflect the American manufacturers reluctance to use trademarks rather than a lack of American made goods.

Table 9. Manufacturing Companies Present at Champoeg.

<u>Company</u>	<u>Place of Manufacture</u>
Samuel Moore and Co.	England
J.T. (Turner)	England
Thomas Mayer	England
George Phillips	England
David Henderson	America
Spode, Copeland and Garrett	England
William Ridgeway and Co.	England
William Adams and Sons	England
Podmore Walker and Co.	England
Thomas Phillips	England
Thomas Godwin	England
Joseph Heath and Co.	England
Thomas Minton	England
Thomas Milton	England
Davenport	England
Robert Cochran	Scotland
Homer Laughlin	America
Knowles, Taylor and Knowles	America

Glass Table Ware: Fifteen rim fragments and one base

of clear glass tumblers were recovered from Champoeg. The tumbler fragments lack decoration except for one which has a simple vertical-line impressed pattern, in two narrow bands encircling the top of the tumbler.

Glass tumblers and stem ware have been found during archaeological investigations at Fort Vancouver (Ross 1975 and Ross 1976). While information is not readily available as to the date of manufacture or maker of the tumblers, it is apparent that glass table ware was available to local residents.

Utilitarian Vessels: Utilitarian vessels includes earthenware and stoneware ceramic which were used for food preparation and/or storage. Containers such as bowls, crocks, milk pans, and jugs come under this heading. Of the 204 fragments recovered at Champoeg, 109 are yellow earthenware and twenty-three are stoneware. Generally, the earthenware is thought to represent mixing bowls and possibly milk pans and mugs, while stoneware usually takes the form of crocks and jugs.

Yellow Ware (CSP Pattern 36) (10YR 7/6 to 8/6):

Fifty-two fragments of unidentifiable yellow ware were found at Champoeg. The body color ranges from light buff to gold with a clear glaze. The fragments very likely are pieces from banded or mocha ware, to be discussed below.

Nine flatware and sixteen hollow ware pieces were distinguished, including four rims and three bases with

footrings.

Mocha (CSP Pattern 37): Mocha originated in England in the late 1790s but did not hit its peak of popularity until the 1840s to 1860s (Collard 1967 and Ray 1974). Mocha ware was produced in the United States as early as 1808, and nearly every pottery turned out mocha (Gaines 1968). Mocha ware was considered kitchen or tavern ware (McClinton 1951:6).

There are several design patterns of mocha, yet each piece is unique because it is handcrafted. Generally speaking, mocha ware was not marked, so accurate dating or distinguishing place of origin is impossible. The characteristic fern-like motif is created by dropping the coloring agent (tobacco juice, stale urine and turpentine) on to the piece and either inclining, blowing, or spinning the vessel to achieve the desired design (McClinton 1951:4; Collard 1967:144).

Six mocha ware fragments were collected from Champoeg; three pieces of a green (10GY 4/4) sea-weed type design and two with a blue (2.5PB 6/8) fern-like design (Figure 20a).

Banded Ware (CSP Pattern 38): Banded ware is a close relative to mocha ware and encompasses both yellow and cream fabric earthenwares. Basically, a utilitarian ware, it took the form of jars, pitchers, baking dishes, mixing bowls, covered storage crocks, serving dishes, pie plates, cups, plates, platters, and bowls (Ramsay 1939:148; Ketchum 1970:17; Ketchum 1971:96).

Banded cream-colored ware was also popular during the nineteenth century for kitchen bowls. Six distinct patterns were found at Champoeg (Figure 20b). The fabric of all the pieces is white earthenware. A blue slip (2.5PB 6/6-6/8) was applied to the body of the vessel in wide bands, with narrower banding of dark brown or blue usually around the top and/or base. One distinctive piece has a grey-green (10GY 5/2) colored slip with white and brown narrow bands. All fifteen of the pieces are from hollow ware vessels, representing a minimum of six vessels.

Nine varieties of banded yellow ware, representing eleven vessels, were collected from Champoeg (Figure 20c). The fabric color varied from buff to gold (10YR 7/6 to 8/6).

Spatter and Sponge Decorated (CSP Pattern 39): Spatter and sponge decorated wares were popular during the nineteenth century as cheap dinnerware or kitchen utilitarian ware. The decoration names are often used interchangeably, but they do refer to differences in the color application technique and type of ware. Spatter ware is thought to have been produced as early as circa 1800, although "a peak seems to have been reached in the 1830-40 decade" (Robacker and Robacker 1978:32). Sponge ware was introduced slightly later, but overlaps the spatter ware period of production.

Although there is some disagreement over the proper method or methods used to decorate spatter ware the most

Figure 20. Utilitarian Ware.

- a. CSP 37, Mocha Ware
- b. CSP 38, Banded Creamware
- c. CSP 38, Banded Yellow Ware
- d. CSP 39, Spatter/Sponge Ware

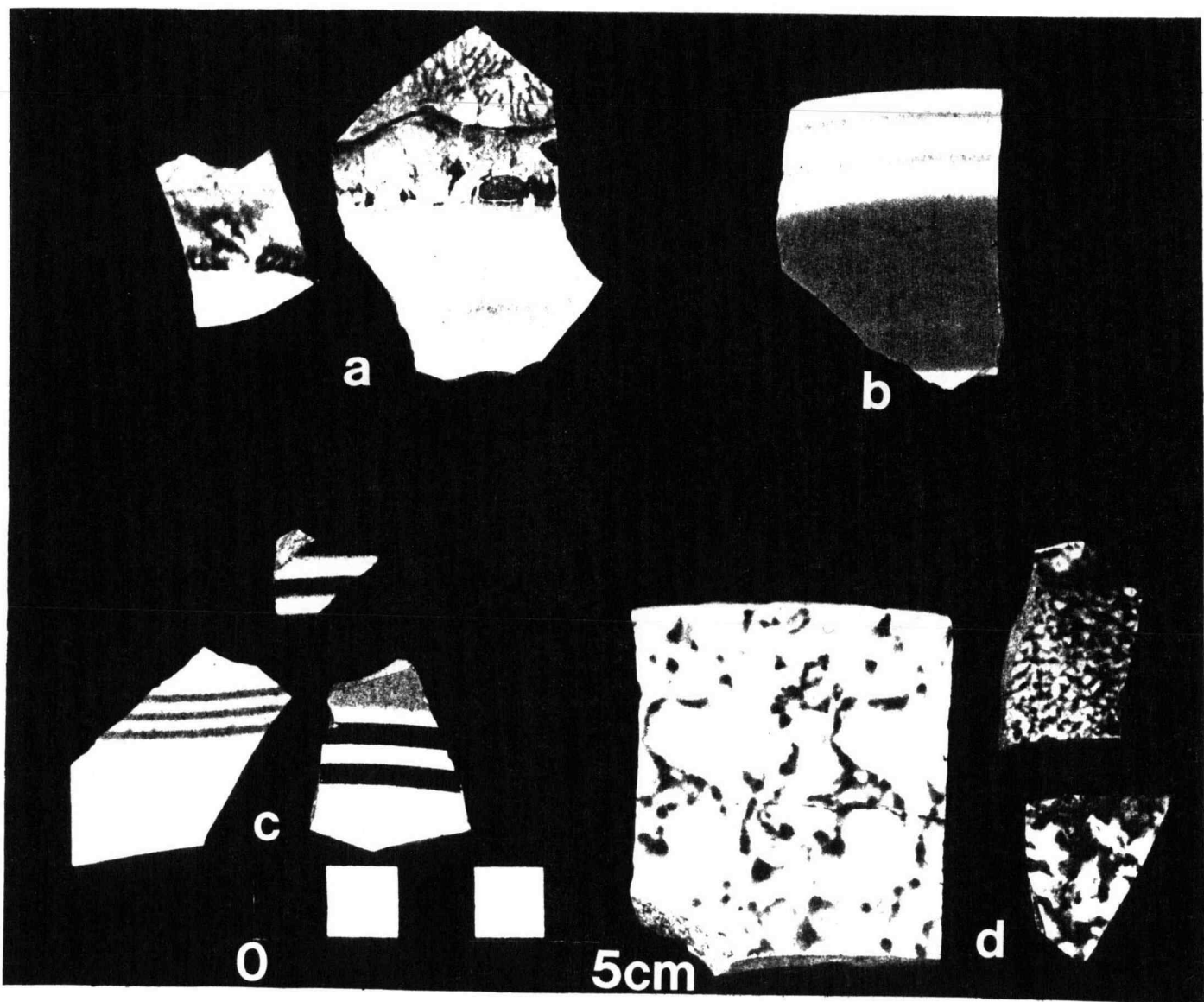


Figure 20.

common technique was accomplished by tapping a brush full of paint against the piece being decorated. By the mid-1840s, a cut-sponge process was developed, color-filled sponges, large or small, or cut into shapes were stamped on the unglazed ware. Spatter and sponge ware came in a variety of colors including blue, yellow, green, bright pink and lavender, and using two or more colors was not unusual (Freeman 1949:22; Collard 1967:144-45; Ray 1974:212). Spatter ware can also be broken down into stylistic groups such as: true spatter, design spatter, flowing spatter and cottage spatter. The predominant variety collected at Champoege was cottage spatter, although several small fragments of true spatter were identified.

The cottage spatter title is somewhat of a misnomer as the decoration was almost certainly applied by means of a sponge (Robacker and Robacker 1978:119,121). There is a difference between cut-sponge and cottage spatter, however. Cut-sponge was a design pattern used on tableware and was in many cases quite intricate, whereas cottage spatter was merely a quick and easy way to apply color to a utilitarian vessel. No example of cut-sponge tableware was found at Champoege.

The small fragments of true spatter are identified only by the rim decoration, there are no examples in the Champoege collection that includes a handpainted center design.

Many manufacturers produced spatter or sponge ware and the following companies produced other wares which were

recovered at Champoege: Davenport, Wm. Adams & Sons, Podmore & Walker Co., T. Walker, and J & G Meakin (Greaser and Greaser 1964:93; Robacker and Robacker 1978:48). Spatter and sponge ware was rarely marked, perhaps because of its utilitarian status and no examples of marked ware were recovered.

Although produced in England, spatter and sponge ware was really targeted for the "out-markets" of the world. Canada was one of these out-markets and it was equally popular in the United States (Collard 1967:145).

Ten vessels can be distinguished by morphological attributes, three of which are hollow ware. Fifteen fragments are plain blue, while forty-two pieces are a multi-chrome, blue and red variety (Figure 20c). The superimposing of one color over another was common on sponge wares. The colors were ordinarily red on blue or red on green (Robacker and Robacker 1978:119).

Stoneware: Stoneware vessels usually took the form of items predominantly used for food and beverage storage or preparation (McClinton 1951:54). Of the nineteen stoneware fragments recovered from Champoege eleven individual vessels are identified. Although it is a small collection the vessels reflect a world wide trade network. English, German, Chinese, United States (East Coast), and local Willamette Valley potteries are all represented.

Stoneware was produced quite early in American and in Oregon by 1853. Barnet Ramsey, an Illinois potter, built a

kiln near Springfield, Oregon, in 1853, and produced stoneware for nine years. Ramsey continued to manufacture stoneware at various locations in the Willamette Valley until 1868 (Ketchum 1971:89).

Two vessels from England include a blue glazed, straight-sided, faceted form and may represent a pitcher. The technique for manufacturing a straight-sided form was developed after 1850 when a plaster mold was used. Prior to 1850 all vessels were hand thrown on a potter's wheel creating an ovoid shape (Ketchum 1971:54). The second vessel from England has the characteristic ovoid shape also and is a jar or jug, with a two-toned brown and tan salt-glazed finish.

A Rhenish-type of stoneware with a grey body, cobalt decoration, and salt-glazed finish, is of German manufacture. The rim and part of a decorative molding suggest the vessel was made in a mold rather than being hand-thrown.

One very small fragment of a Chinese-made stoneware bottle was identified by Daniel Scheans of the Portland State University Ceramic Analysis Laboratory. Scheans suggested that, "the Champoege fragment was similar to a Chinese wine bottle found in a circa 1860-to-1890 McMinnville, Oregon dump (Scheans 1985:Personal Communication).

Two vessels of Bristol glaze, (brown exterior, clear interior) are thought to be produced by East Coast

potteries, although Bristol glazed wares were potted in Oregon after 1860. A bottle with an orangish-brown salt-glazed finish and a large brown glazed jar or jug with a strap handle complete the eastern United States pottery sample collected at Champoeg.

Seven stoneware fragments can not be definitely identified as to place of origin. Four fragments were finished only with a clear glaze over a cream body fabric. Two fragments have a hand painted design in blue, and blue, pink and green. A very small fragment has an unusual dark blue-grey glaze over a cream body.

Redware: Redware is described as "a soft, porous, 'red' fabric earthenware frequently coated with a colorless soft lead glaze" (Sanders, Weber & Brauner 1983:141). Fifteen fragments collected from Champoeg fit this description. Redware functioned much like stoneware but included flower pots and drain tile (Ramsay 1939:128-130). "Americans produced it (redware) when they first settled, and it continued to be a significant product until the close of the nineteenth century, utilizing local clays in kilns that were fairly easy to set up" (Schwartz 1969:15).

Two fragments from the Champoeg collection were recognized by Scheans as poorly-fired lid fragments from the Buena Vista pottery (1860-1888) (Scheans 1985:Personal Communication). The Buena Vista pottery, located in the mid-Willamette Valley near Salem, was founded by Freeman Smith and his son Amedee Freeman Smith in 1860. In 1888,

its name was changed to the Oregon Pottery Company and it continued to operate until 1890 (Scheans 1984:34,50). The Buena Vista/Oregon Pottery Company produced stonewares, salt-glazed, Albany slip finished and unglazed wares such as flower pots. Common identifiable traits of the pottery wares were flanged or collared rims, knob and strap handles, and covers, both flat and flanged (Scheans 1984:42-45).

Scheans also identified three fragments which appear to be made with Willamette Valley clays, but which are different from the Buena Vista pottery. The three fragments may represent a local pottery or even ware produced at the Champoege townsite. Two fragments have a lead glaze on both the interior and exterior surfaces, while the third fragment has a yellowish-orange glaze on one surface only.

Of unknown origin are two lid fragments and a broken strap handle, all with a dark brown lead glaze. Six very small fragments which lack functional attributes complete the redware inventory. All of the six fragments have a dark brown lead glaze on either one or two surfaces.

Straight Pins: Sewing straight pins have been manufactured in England since the 17th century. However, in 1813, a Boston inventor developed an early machine for making coil-headed pins automatically. In 1825, a machine for making solid headed pins was patented. This machine was first built and operated in England in 1826 (Huey 1969).

Improvements in manufacturing continued increasing production dramatically.

Eleven straight pins were found at Champoeg. The pins range in size from 1.4cm to 3.1cm in length. Pins came in small, medium and large sizes but the dimensions of each size is not known.

ARCHITECTURE

Window Glass: There are several methods of manufacturing window glass, three of which are represented at Champoege. The earliest example is "crown glass" produced in England until about 1850 and in America until about 1820 (Roenke 1978:6). For a complete discussion of window glass manufacturing techniques, see Roenke (1978).

Although new manufacturing methods were being used in Europe and in America by 1820, protective tariffs allowed the crown glass industry to flourish in England until about the 1850s when all protection was removed. The Hudson's Bay Company imported window panes from England (Ross 1975:1070). The source of the crown glass recovered from Champoege most likely was from the Hudson's Bay Company.

American and European glass houses began using the "cylinder process" by about 1820. Cylinder glass, as it is known, would have been sold by American merchants in the Oregon territory in the 1840s and by the Hudson's Bay Company after 1850.

The last type of window glass present at Champoege is plate glass. Plate glass differs from crown or cylinder glass in that it is not blown; rather, molten glass is poured into a form. Improvements on this production technique included grinding and polishing the glass. "Polished plate glass was commercially manufactured in the United States after 1870" (Roenke 1978:9-10).

Polished plate glass is a modern-type of glass and lacks the bubbles often found in crown or cylinder glass. Plate glass is also thicker than the hand blown varieties. Plate glass was used principally for large windows in shop fronts.

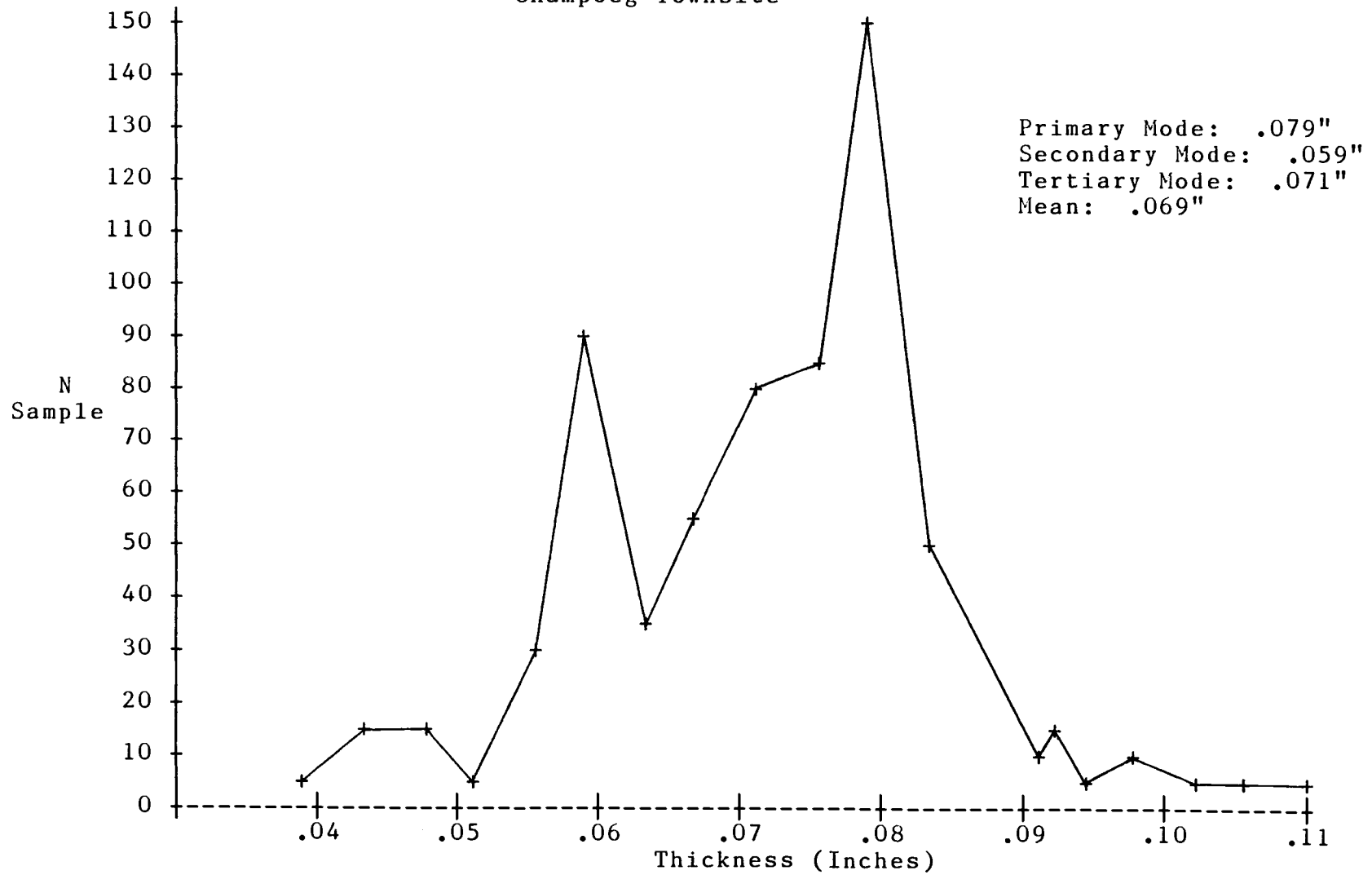
Karl Roenke has developed a chronology of window glass thicknesses in use in the Pacific Northwest during the nineteenth century (Table 10). In simplest terms the model suggests that window pane thickness increased during the nineteenth century.

All of the 697 window glass fragments recovered from Champoege were measured for thickness (Figure 21). Figure 21 illustrates a primary mode of 0.079 inch which relates to the 1850-1885 period when cylinder glass was readily available. The secondary mode of 0.059 inch reflects the earlier building phase of the 1830s-1840s at Champoege. Dependency on the Hudson's Bay Company supplies was at its height up to about 1850 during which period crown glass was the only type of pane imported.

Table 10. Roenke's Window Glass Thickness and Date Range

<u>Dates</u>	<u>Thickness</u>
1810-1835	0.055 inches
1830-1840	0.045 inches
1835-1845	0.045-0.055 inches
1845-1855	0.065 inches
1850-1865	0.075 inches
1855-1885	0.085 inches
1870-1900	0.095 inches
1900-1915	0.105 inches

Figure 21. Window Glass Thickness Frequency for
Champoeg Townsite



Window glass thickness frequency was calculated for Blocks 1, 12 and Montcalm Street where subsurface investigations had been completed (Figures 22 and 23). It is interesting to note that the amount of window glass found in the excavations of Montcalm Street is comparable to that of the blocks where structures have been documented.

Although only a small sample of window glass was collected from the surface, the thickness frequencies reveal some interesting information (Table 11). The window glass was clustered in about a twelve block area along the river and on Robert Newell's claim. There was no window glass recovered from the blocks further than four blocks from the river. The window glass distribution and thickness frequencies would seemingly be very useful for predicting and determining areas of building activity at the townsite.

Brick: Of the 111 1/2 pounds (50.17 kilograms) of brick fragments found at Champoege only twenty-six partial and three nearly-whole bricks could be measured. Because of the large amount and small size of the fragments, weight was felt to be the only meaningful measurement of the sample. The total weight can take on greater significance when divided by the approximate weight of one whole brick. The most complete brick from the Champoege collection weighed 3 pounds. The adjusted brick weight, or minimum number of bricks, gives a clearer view of the amount of brick recovered from each block (Table 12). The large sample of

Figure 22. Window Glass Thickness Frequency for Block 1.

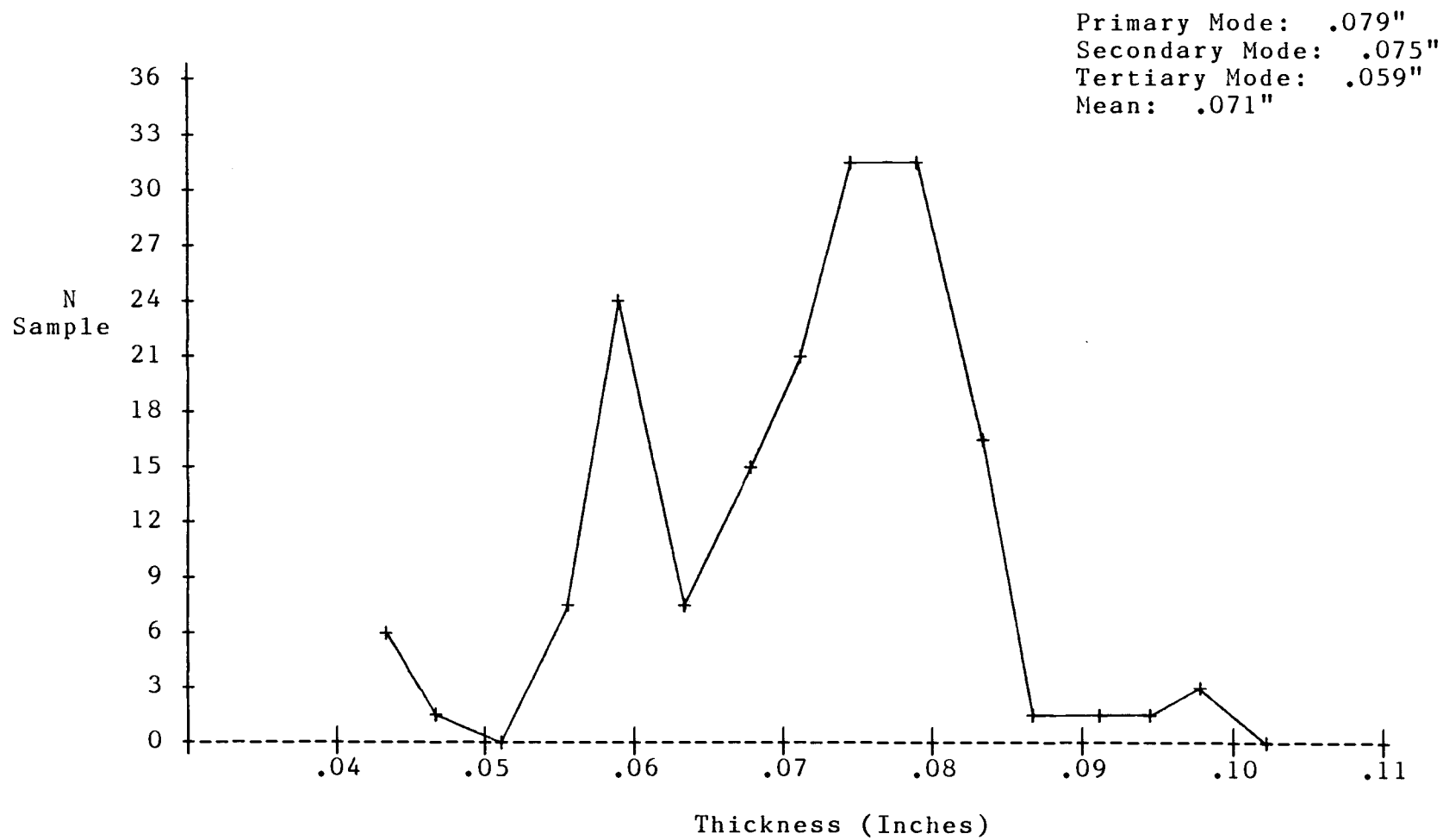


Figure 23. Window Glass Thickness Frequency for
Block 12 and Montcalm Street.

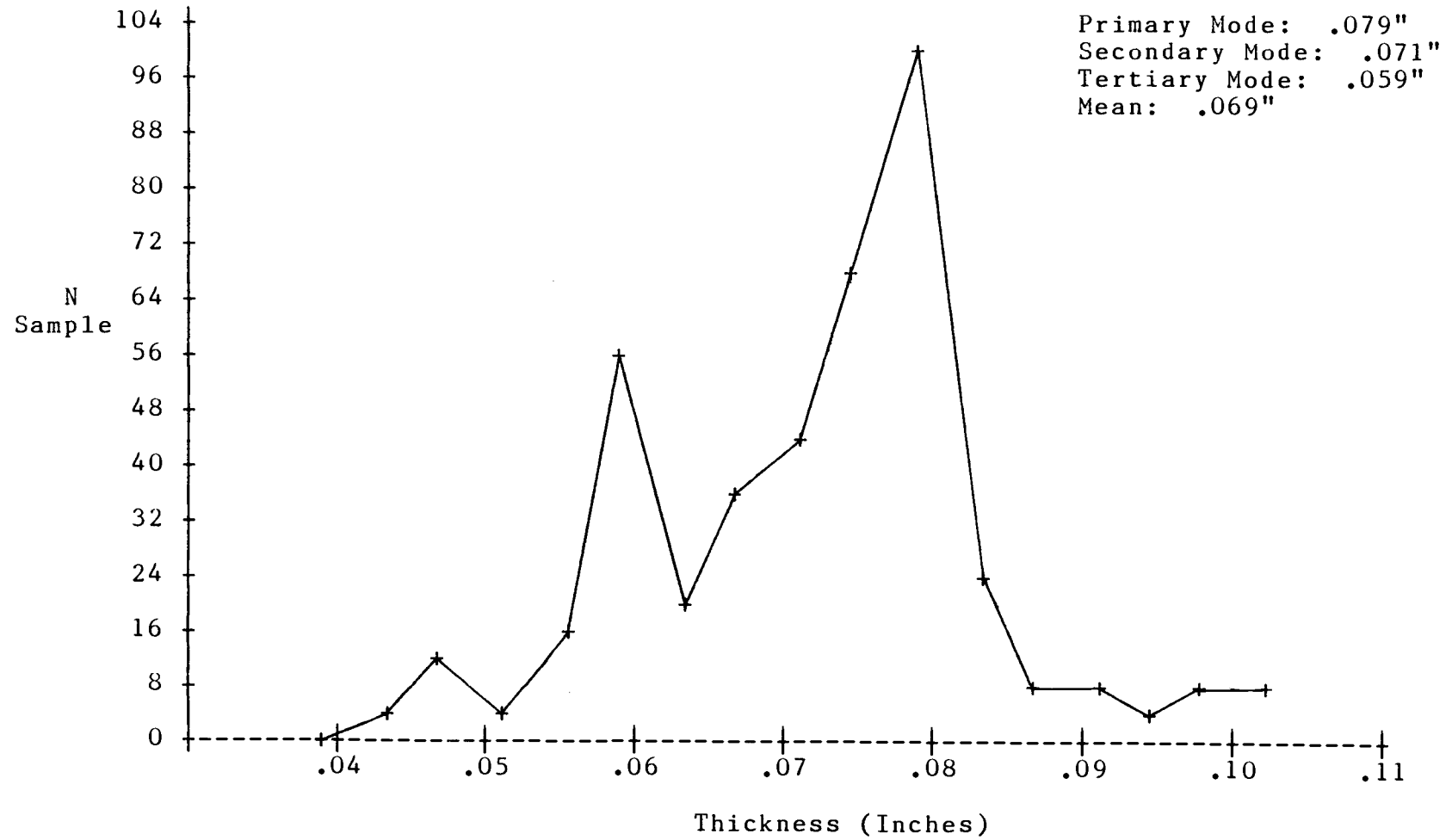


Table 11. Frequency Distribution of Window Glass Surface Collected
at the Champoege Townsite.

Block	Thickness (Inches)									
	.030	.040	.050	.060	.070	.080	.090	.100	.110	
2				2	1	2	1			
3				2	1	4	6	3	2	1
4							1	1		
5							1			
11						2				
14				4	1	1	2			
15					1		1			
19				1						
32			1	1		1	1			
34						3				
52		1	1	1	1					
53*		2	1	2	1	2	3	5	2	1
54				2	1					
68			1	1						
70							1		1	

(*Includes subsurface material)

brick found at Champoege is in sharp contrast to the Willamette Mission where only 15.1 pounds (6.8 kilograms) were collected.

Table 12. Adjusted Brick Minimum Number.

<u>Location</u>	<u>Weight</u>	<u>MNB</u>
Block 1	45 lbs	15
Block 12	54 lbs	18
Block 25	6 lbs	2
Block 53	3 lbs	1
Block 67	21 lbs	7
Montcalm St.	66 lbs	22

Brick making in the Willamette Valley began either in the late-1830s or in 1840-41. The brick recovered from the Willamette Mission was locally made, although trace element analysis of the brick suggests it was not made at the site (Sanders, Weber and Brauner 1983:192). Charles Wilkes toured the valley in 1841 and noted, "we passed one or two brick kilns" (Wilkes 1845:357). However,

abandonment of the original mission complex was already underway by the summer of 1841. It is unlikely that brick made that summer would have been incorporated into the mission buildings. Brick recovered from the mission site suggests that brick manufacture in the Willamette Valley began prior to 1841 (Sanders, Weber and Brauner 1983:194).

Whatever the initial date of brick making in the Willamette Valley it apparently was a successful enterprise. "By 1844 bricks were shipped from the Willamette Valley to Fort Vancouver (Hussey 1972:48-49).

The dimensions of brick is temporally sensitive with smaller sizes being older. However, when the brick dimensions of the Willamette Mission, Fort Vancouver (Type

IIA-1) and Champoeg are compared the differences are not found to be significant (Table 13). The process of hand-molding contributes to uneven sizes of brick. Also brick often was re-used in new structures so that defining a brick size to a particular era is difficult.

Table 13. Brick Size Variation.

<u>Site</u>	<u>Thickness</u>	<u>Width</u>
Champoeg	1 3/4 - 2 1/4	3 3/8 - 4 1/4
Block 1	1 3/4 - 2	3 3/8 - 4 1/8
Block 12	1 1/2 - 2	4 1/8 - 4 1/4
Montcalm St.	1 5/8 - 2 1/8	4 - 4 1/4
Fort Vancouver		
Iron Store	2 - 2 3/8	3 5/8 - 3 7/8
SE Bastion	2 1/4 - 2 5/8	- 3 3/4
Blacksmith	1 7/8 - 2 1/4	3 5/8 - 3 7/8
Will. Mission	1 9/16 - 1 7/8	

Brick makers began to mechanize parts of the long process as early as 1793 (McKee 1973:84). By the late 1830s, brick was being turned out at a phenomenal rate using a variety of patented brick forming contraptions. Two examples of machine molded or pressed brick were collected at Champoeg. The term 'pressed brick' is often used to "describe bricks of uniform appearance... Pressed bricks had sharper corners and were more regular than those molded by hand; in general they were also more dense" (McKee 1973:88-89). The 'pressed brick' found at Champoeg may represent early examples of machine pressed brick, but more likely 'repressed,' as McKee (1973:89) describes:

Early in the nineteenth century a few bricks appear to have been pressed in hand-operated machines

after they had been removed from hand moulds, before drying. This process was called "repressing".

Pressed brick was included in a shipment of the barque Ann Smith operated by Couch and Co. and advertised in the Oregonian in March 1851. Thus, pressed brick was available to the residents of the Oregon Territory by 1851 through American merchants.

The hand molded bricks display a wide range of color and density (Table 14). The variation in brick firing is common in a single firing of a stove or field kiln, due to the uneven heat and the proximity of the brick to the heat source (Noel Hume 1978:81).

Table 14. Brick High, Medium and Low Fire.

	Color/Munsell	No.
High Fire	Dark reddish brown (2.5 YR 3.4)	5
	Reddish brown (2.5YR 4/4)	2
Medium Fire	Red (2.5YR 5/6)	14
Low Fire	Light red (2.5YR 6.8)	5
	Reddish yellow (5YR 7/8)	<u>3</u>
Total:		29

Mortar: Mortar is made from lime, sand and water, as such it is extremely soluble. The mortar nodules recovered at Champoege are quite small. And in the ten or more years between excavation and this analysis most of the nodules have disintegrated into loose sand. It is, therefore,

difficult to measure or quantify the amount of mortar collected from the site.

Mortar was not used to any great extent, "very little mortar was found in association with the French Prairie brick. Five recovered specimens and observation of in situ residual mortar indicate use of a combination of native lime and fine sand" (Thomas and Hibbs 1984:511). And, only four pieces of mortar were recovered from the Willamette Mission.

The small amount of mortar recovered from archaeological sites in the Northwest suggests that either very little mortar was used, or mortar deteriorates so rapidly as to skew the recoverable sample size.

Nails: Nails represent one of the largest artifact categories of the Champoege collection, numbering 1,768 in all. The nails are predominantly (1,745) machine-made common-cut, with fourteen hand wrought, five wire drawn, and two cast nails also present in the sample.

The large number of machine cut nails reflect the technological changes in the nail industry at the beginning of the nineteenth century. Machine cut nails were first manufactured in the 1790s; however, it was not until 1830 that cut nails were manufactured cheaply and in volume (Bealer 1976:205).

Machine cut nails were imported to Fort Vancouver in the late 1840s from American manufacturers (Ross 1976:891). "Wrought rod nails were utilized almost exclusively from

1829 to ca. 1844, whereupon machine cut sheet nails manufactured in England and America probably began being introduced" (Steele, Ross & Hibbs 1975:95).

Apparently, America led the world in nail quality and production.

There is substantial evidence that the embryo nation, the United States, was a leader in the producing of nails by machine. These machines were adapted to steam, water, or horse power. It is reported that after the domestic demands were met, great quantities were exported (Kauffman 1972:120-121).

The machine cut nails recovered from Champoege appear in a full range of sizes and most abundantly where subsurface excavations were completed (Table 15&16) (Figure 24). While machine cut nails replaced many of the handwrought varieties, "it is important to emphasize that wrought nails continued to be used for several decades following the introduction of the cheaper cut nails" (Nelson 1968:3).

The main building period within the townsite of Champoege occurred during the 1850s. Machine cut nails were available through both Hudson's Bay Company and American merchant stores.

Hand Wrought: Hand wrought nails, as the name implies, were individually produced by hammering rod stock to an appropriate pointed shape, cutting it, then producing a head by a number of blows to the blunt end (Mercer 1924:170). The resulting nail is of irregular size and head shape, yet

Table 15. Machine Cut Nails.

<u>Common</u> (N)	<u>Nails</u> Size	<u>Finishing</u> (N)	<u>Nails</u> Size
20	3 1/4in (12d)	12	3 in (10d)
48	3 in (10d)	3	2 7/8in
27	2 7/8in	4	2 3/4in (9d)
21	2 3/4in (9d)	14	2 1/2in (8d)
38	2 1/2in (8d)	<u>21</u>	2 in (6d)
43	2 1/4in (7d)	54	
52	2 in (6d)		
50	1 3/4in (5d)		
93	1 1/2in (4d)		
58	1 1/4in (3d)		
33	1 in (2d)		
<u>686</u>	fragments		
1169			

Table 16. Distribution of Nails at Champoeg.

<u>Location</u>	<u>MCC</u>	<u>HW</u>	<u>Cast</u>	<u>Wire</u>	<u>Total</u>
Block 1	984	7	1	2	994
Block 12	303	3	1	0	307
Block 53	33	1	0	0	34
Montcalm St.	408	4	0	0	412

attributes of head design can be defined.

Although less than one percent of the entire sample of nails recovered from Champoeg are handwrought two styles can be identified. The first style is a rosehead nail which was the most common type of wrought nail and used for a variety of construction needs. The second type of nail is a clasp nail, so named because the head could be driven below the surface of the wood. Only two clasp nails and nine rosehead nails were recovered from Champoeg (Figure 24).

Cast Nails: Two cast nails were found at Champoeg (Figure 24). "Cast nails were manufactured by introducing

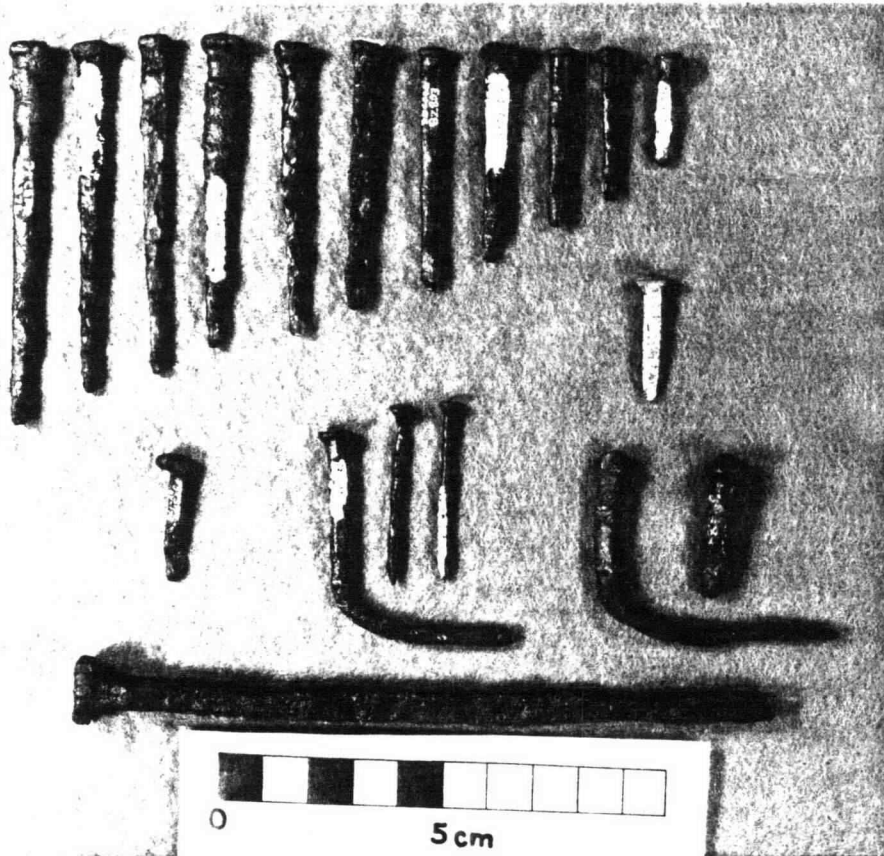


Figure 24. Nails, representative sample.

liquid metal, usually copper or brass, into a mold, to form the shank and head in one operation" (Steele, Ross & Hibbs 1975:95). Cast nails appear to have been manufactured using a two-piece mold based on mold seams appearing at shank corners (Sanders, Weber & Brauner 1983:180). Cast nails have commonly been associated with maritime activities where corrosion-resistant nails were needed. The Willamette River was always an important transportation route for the residents of Champoeg, thus the cast nails may relate to river travel.

Wire Drawn Nails: Wire drawn nails were produced in the 1850s yet "wire nail machinery was not really perfected until the 1860s and 70s" (Nelson 1968:8). The five wire drawn nails found at Champoeg most likely post-date the town's active growth period (Figure 24). The nails may have been used to build or reconstruct after the flood of 1861, or the nails could be of modern origin. "Wire nails did not really become the dominant type until the 1890s, and many builders preferred using cut nails well into the twentieth century" (Nelson 1968:8).

Sprig or Brad: Sprigs or brads are generally referred to as headless, L-head or T-head nails. Smaller sizes were usually called sprigs, 1/2" to 2", and larger sizes were usually called brads, 4d to 24d" (Nelson 1968:6).

The two L-head nails recovered from Champoeg are both broken so that sizing is impossible (Figure 24). The L-head nails appear to be machine cut, although one specimen is

very corroded.

Spikes: Three handwrought spikes were collected at Champoeg, varying in size from 6" to 10" (Figure 24). Spikes are generally used for medium to heavy construction purposes. One spike is too corroded to fully identify.

The third example of a spike, although corroded, was identified by Hibbs as "a wrought spike with a nail shank, serrated edges and a chisel end. This type of spike was found at Fort Vancouver in association with the stockade construction and is commonly used for timber" (1986:Personal Communication).

The nail sample collected at Champoeg reflects the rapidly changing technological advances of the nineteenth century. When comparing the 1,768 nails from Champoeg to the 1,737 nails recovered from the Willamette Mission site several differences are observed. At the Mission site 10% of the sample is handwrought, including eight distinct types of nails. There are also twenty spikes in the Mission collection. At Champoeg less than 1% of the sample is handwrought and there are only three spikes.

The Willamette Mission predates the major building episode at Champoeg by about ten years. That is, the Mission was in operation from 1834 to 1843 and although Champoeg was settled initially in the 1830s; the late-1840s and 1850s were the boom years. There seems to have been very little use of hand wrought nails once the cheaper machine cut nails were available. Perhaps a difference in

building techniques would help to explain the discrepancy in the number of large sized nails. The residents of Champoeg were probably relying more on sawn lumber for building materials, while the missionaries used logs for construction.

Hardware: Perhaps the most interesting hardware items found at Champoeg are the eight brass key guides, two rim locks, two keys and one door latch handle and back plate (Figure 25). The door hardware was recovered during the subsurface excavations of Block 1, formally recognized as 'Structure A'.

The brass key guides are of nearly uniform size and shape. It is significant that all of the key guides were found in one location.

The door handle is hand made, straight handle with decorative design at the top. The front latch usually includes the handle or grasp, the escutcheon or back plate and a thumb-press or similar device for releasing the bar (Sonn 1928:23). The thumb-press on the specimen from Champoeg is missing, although the space where it was attached through the back plate is obvious above the handle. The back plate is quite thin (.2cm) and is probably rolled sheet iron. This type of door latch was quite popular in the nineteenth century and was available from both British and American manufacturers.

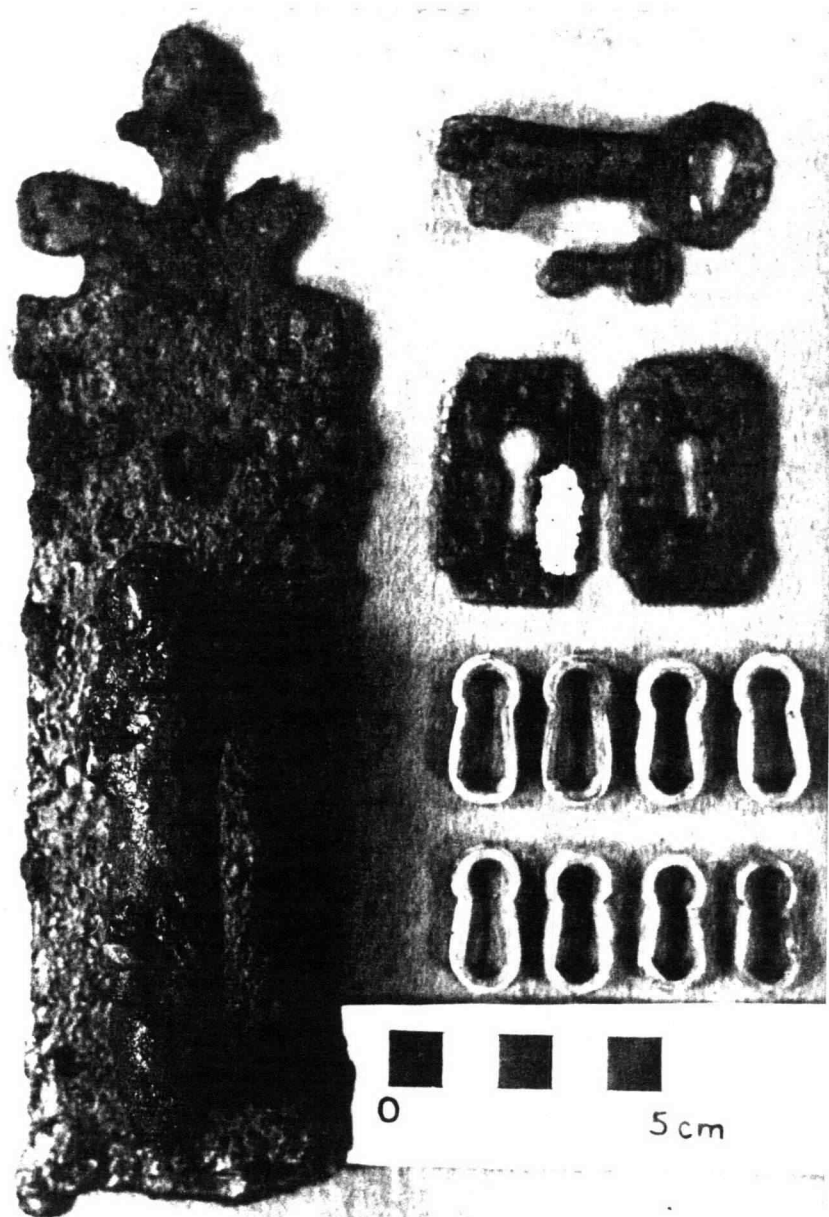


Figure 25. Door Hardware.

Two fragmented butt hinges, a latch bar, and a cast iron door knob tumbler for a case lock can be associated with door hardware. Butt hinges are simple to make and were used extensively in the nineteenth century; as they are today. The latch bar is broken but is similar to types in the Fort Vancouver collection (Hibbs 1986:Personal Communication). The door knob tumbler was found on the surface of Block 1 and may be of modern deposit.

A light-weight strap handle or grasp broken at either end of its attachment joints may have been used as a cabinet pull.

One nut, 3/4" square, and two broken washers were recovered from Block 1. An unidentifiable piece of building hardware was collected from Block 53. The iron piece may have been a "home-made" type of latch keeper. The item does not resemble anything in the Fort Vancouver collection and no specific function could be identified (Hibbs 1986:Personal Communication).

Screws: Four screws were found in subsurface test excavations at Champoege. Only two of the screws are complete enough for identifying manufacturing technique.

The screws are both counter-shank, flathead, wood screws, with pointed tip and even threads, size 3d. The even threads and centered notch on the head suggests a post-1846 machine cut manufacturing technique (Kovel 1967:137-138).

Machine cut screws were first made in 1810, but up until 1846 they had blunt tips. Prior to 1810 wood screws were hand wrought and have uneven threads and an off-center slot in the head (Kovel 1967:138).

Plumbing: Two redware drain tile fragments were found on the surface of Block 34. The tile fragments are unglazed, distinguishing them as non-food containers (Stiles 1941:53).

The tiles may represent a later improvement to the site or may have been transported to the site as debris. The lack of subsurface investigation makes any determination of on site use versus secondary deposit difficult. Ceramic drainage tile was recovered at Kanaka Village and was associated with the Hudson's Bay Company occupation period (Thomas & Hibbs 1984).

PERSONAL AND DOMESTIC TRANSPORTATION

Four items recovered at Champoeg can be classified under the general topic of vehicles. Two types of wagon hardware were identified by Hibbs (1986:Personal Communication). The items are both clevises, one a screw or round pin type, the other a clevis with pintle. Clevises were used for attaching or suspending parts.

A heavy weight iron eye "could have been part of a loading apparatus or an eye for a dock cable; certainly this type of work would be much in demand at a location such as Champoeg" (Atherton 1974:8). One other item related to river travel is an iron weight or net sinker found near the bank of the Willamette River in Block 14.

It is ironic that Champoeg was recognized as a trade center, a stagecoach and steamboat stop-over point, yet only four fragments can be associated archaeologically with transportation activities. Certainly if the site were interpreted on the basis of the artifact assemblage alone Champoeg would be described more in terms of an isolated out-post rather than a transportation and trade center.

COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY

Horse, Pony and Ox Shoes: One horse, one pony and one ox shoe, eight loose horse shoe nails and a brass bridle decoration are the only items that can be categorized under agriculture and husbandry. There were no farm implements such as plows, and the only two wagon parts could not be specifically identified as belonging to a farm wagon. Once again the artifact assemblage from Champoege seems to lack essential evidence of a trade center in the midst of a rich agriculture area.

The horse shoe appears to be modern and was probably deposited within the last fifty years. The pony shoe and especially the ox shoe were identified by Larry Bewley of the Oregon State University Ferrier School as being manufactured in the nineteenth century (Figure 26) (1982:Personal Communication).

Percussion caps: Three whole and two fragmented percussion caps were discovered during excavations of Block 12 and Montcalm Street.

The percussion caps are made from thin-gauge corrugated copper, the sides are split in four places and flair slightly from a rounded top. The dimensions can be measured on only three of the specimens, all are 3/16 inch in diameter.

Copper percussion caps were introduced in 1816 as an improvement over the flintlock spark system. "The

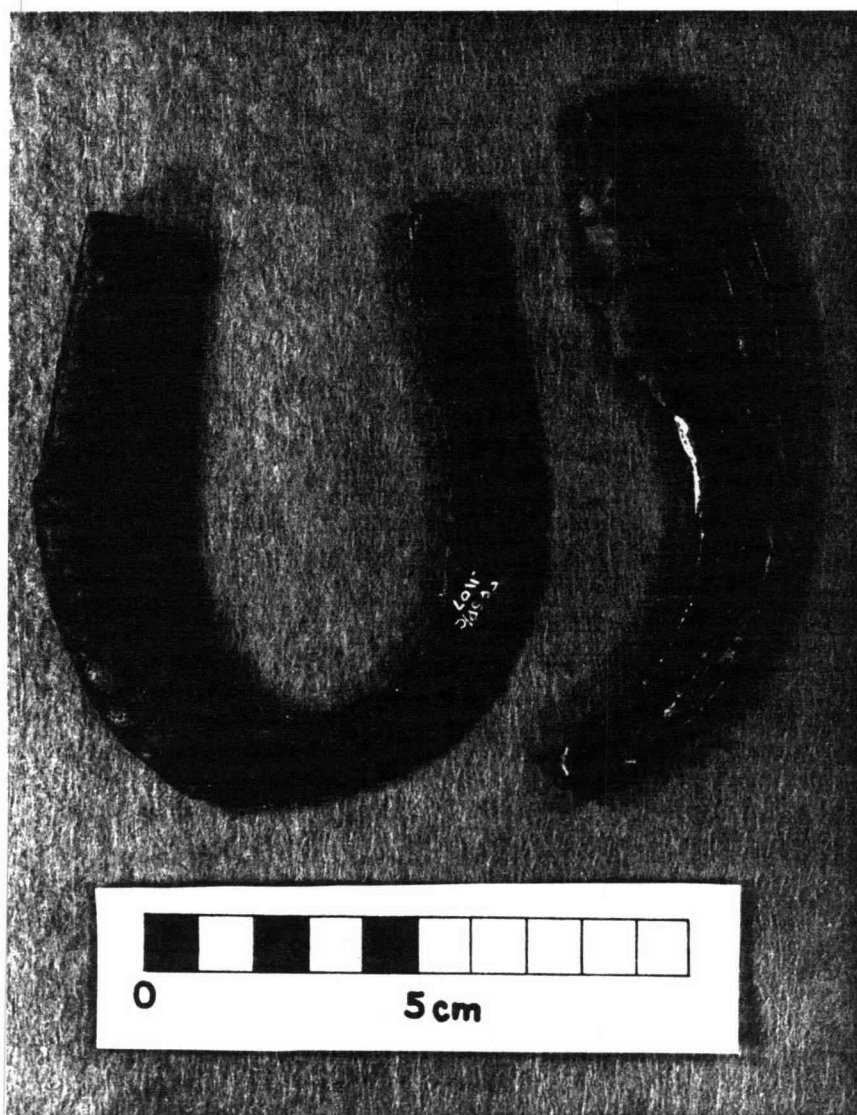


Figure 26. Pony and Ox Shoes.

percussion cap system came into general use in the western United States by the middle 1830s. Often, old flintlock weapons were converted to cap-lock guns" (Russell 1957:242-243).

Lead Balls and Shot: The lead shot and balls collected at Champoege were used in smoothbore flintlock weapons. The flintlock firearm was in general use up to about the 1850s.

All seventy-four pieces of lead shot and lead balls, of varying sizes, were found during subsurface excavations in Block 1, Block 12, and Montcalm Street (Table 17).

Sixty-seven percent of the sample (fifty) were found in one test unit in Block 12. The shot found in this cluster were of various sizes. No other evidence of firearms was found in Block 12, making the cluster difficult to interpret.

Shot recovered from Fort Vancouver and the Willamette Mission were most commonly of two sizes, 3/16 inch (5mm) and 5/16 inch (8mm) (Ross 1976:1258 and Sanders, Weber & Brauner 1983:214). However, shot from Champoege is predominantly a smaller size, 1/16 inch to 2/16 inch.

Table. 17. Lead shot size and distribution.

Location	Diameter in inches					
	Diameter in millimeters					
	1/16	2/16	3/16	4/16	5/16	9/16
	3.0	3.5	5.0	6.5	8.0	1.45
Block 1	3	4	5	3	2	
Block 12	26	18	3	1	3	1
Montcalm St.	2	3				

Gunflint: One dark grey English-made gunflint was collected from Block 1. The dimensions are length 14/16 inch (2.3cm) x width 13/16 inch (2.1cm) x thickness 4/16 inch (0.6cm).

Flintlock rifles were used in Canada probably until the mid-nineteenth century (Webster 1974:206). The fur trappers were known to have carried flintlock rifles and the Hudson's Bay Company at Fort Vancouver imported gunflints from England (Ross 1976:1267).

Nine gunflints were recovered at the Willamette Mission of both British and French manufacture.

Cartridge Casings: Two gun shell casings were collected from Block 3 and Block 53. Both cartridge casings are rimmed and are copper or copper with brass plating. An impressed 'H' stamped into the head of the smaller cartridge casing with a head diameter of 4/16 inch relates to a Winchester Repeating arms (rimfire cartridge case). In 1866, the New Haven Arms Co. was reorganized into Winchester (1867-present) (Berge 1980:224).

The second casing, with a head diameter of 6/16 inch, has an impressed stamp of 'Peters .32 S.& W.'. The Peters Cartridge Company operated from 1887 to 1934 when it was absorbed by the Remington Company (Berge 1980:224).

Both cartridge casings date to the post-flood period at Champoege.

Gun Barrel: A threaded gun barrel stock 10/16 inch in bore diameter was recovered from Block 53. The gun barrel

is split lengthwise and is 1 1/4 inches in length. There were no other gun parts and only one piece of post-1861 ammunition found in Block 53.

Knife: A long slightly curved blade with a wooden handle is thought to represent a hunting knife. The blade length is 6 1/2 inches, approximately 1 inch wide and is too corroded to measure the thickness. The blade may actually be encased within a sheath of some sort. Unfortunately, the sandy soil and corrosion have combined to form a solid covering over the entire blade making conclusive analysis impossible.

The wooden handle is short, only 2 1/2 inches long, and is split so that a nail is projecting on either side. The handle may also be broken in length, or the wooden handle may have been inserted into a larger handle covering.

Blacksmithing: Although a blacksmith shop was reportedly found by Atherton during the 1974 field season, the paucity of supporting archaeological material suggests a review of this interpretation.

Five pieces of iron stock, three round and two square, were collected from Block 53. The iron stock is a raw material of blacksmithing used to form items such as nails. Similar material was found at the blacksmith shop at Fort Vancouver:

Of the 1,717 specimens recovered, square-rectangular and circular iron rod was most frequent. In HBC terminology this compares with the

"flat bar iron" and "round bolt iron" stock inventoried for the iron store in 1844. The round stock was probably utilized for bolt and rivet manufacture in the Blacksmith Shop (Steele, Ross & Hibbs 1975:165,169).

The stock fragments recovered at Champoege match the standard Hudson's Bay Company sizes, yet the disparity in the amount of material recovered from two blacksmith shops is worthy of note.

A long iron rod may also be a stock material but was found in Block 1. The rod is 23 3/4 inches (61.0cm) long and 3/4 inch (1.9cm) in diameter. The 3/4 inch diameter is a standard stock size.

A tool identified by Hibbs attributed to a blacksmith operation, was located in Block 12. The tool is described as a "resharpened, recurved file or a modified file to a blade of fairly heavy square stock" (Hibbs 1986:Personal Communication).

GROUP SERVICES

Slate and Pencils: One of the earliest schools in the Northwest was operated near Champoege for several months by Philip Edwards in 1835-36. Edwards was a trained schoolmaster who had come to Oregon in 1834 with the Methodist Mission. After the school closed some of the pupils transferred to the Willamette Mission (Hussey 1967:81-82).

A schoolhouse was later built in the early 1850s and its approximate location is described in the land survey records of the Donald Manson farm in 1857. An attempt was made to locate it with only partial success as Atherton has reported:

A small test excavation was unsuccessful in locating remains of the foundation, but a careful surface survey of Block 67 indicates that a building, probably the schoolhouse, existed there. The large number of widely scattered brick fragments found indicates that the foundation might have been made of brick (Atherton 1974:11).

Nine slate fragments and one slate pencil were all recovered from subsurface excavations in Montcalm Street adjacent to Block 12. The slate pencil is faceted and both ends are sharpened to a point; it is only 2.7cm in length and 0.43cm thick. Pencils with a faceted shape were found at Fort Vancouver and attributed to the 1825-1844 occupation period (Chance and Chance 1976:195). Slate and slate pencils were also recovered from the Willamette Mission, some of which were brought from America.

All of the slate found in Montcalm Street is dark grey in color; however, a brown piece of slate was collected from the surface of Block 15. It is not known if the slate is of British or American origin. None of the fragmented pieces show evidence of an edge (the edges were usually bevelled to fit into a wooden frame).

The slate and pencil found at Champoege may represent school teaching activities before the construction of the circa 1850 schoolhouse in Block 67. Yet, slate was also used by Hudson's Bay Company clerks for making tallies (Chance and Chance 1976:195). It is quite likely that the slate found at Champoege was used by store clerks to tally the amount of wheat or keep track of accounts. An ink pen stylis found in Block 12 may also be evidence of book keeping of some sort. Whether for record keeping in a store or a school the slate and pen tip are evidence of literacy in a frontier village.

UNKNOWNNS

The unknowns category is made up of metal, glass, and ceramic items. The metal fragments include both flat (strapping or cast) iron and round (nail stock) iron. There are also brass and lead fragments included in this category (Table 18). Metal deteriorates at an alarming rate in the Pacific Northwest. The number of unidentifiable metal fragments recovered from Champog has grown since the excavations as the corrosion process continues. An attempt was made to stabilize at least part of the collection by coating the fragments with beeswax.

Seventy-one fragments of strapping iron or sheet iron were recovered from Champogeg. Flat sheet iron was inventoried at Fort Vancouver in 1844 (Steele, Ross & Hibbs 1975:169). Sheet iron was used for light manufacturing and strapping iron was used mainly for making barrels or kegs.

A total of ten fragmented pieces of wire, six of which are iron and four are copper, were unearthed at Champogeg. The wire varies in gauge size, although all of the copper wire is the same, very thin gauge.

The glass sample includes container fragments that could not be assigned to a functional group. That is, glass containers were used for a variety of purposes including personal and domestic. When a container could not be placed within a particular group with confidence it was placed in the unknowns category. It was believed that, although this restricts the number of items categorized by function, it

also removes some of the discrepancies when placing glass containers into categories based more on intuition than on morphological traits. Also included in the unknown glass category is burned, melted, or other heat-altered glass (Table 18).

The glass collection is characterized by air bubbles within the glass, colored tinting from impurities in the glass, and two- or three-part mold markings. Six bottle finishes and one bottle base are presented in Figure 27. This is only a representative sample, not the entire range of styles present. All of the seven bottles are aqua colored. Two bottle finishes are an applied bead in which a solid band of glass was added to the finish, providing a large enough rim for a closure to be fastened beneath the bead. Typically, a stopper of some sort was tied or wired and secured below the bead.

A prescription lip finish is identified by the narrow neck and flaring lip. The term prescription lip is used because this neck and finish were commonly associated with medicines. Closure was with a cork.

Three examples of a laid-on-ring finish represent possibly the oldest bottle type in this sample. The laid-on-ring method was in operation from about circa 1830 to the 1870s. The method entailed simply wrapping a string of melted glass around the upper portion of the bottle neck. The closure was made with a cork stopper (Toulouse 1969:533-34). Two of the examples of laid-on-ring have

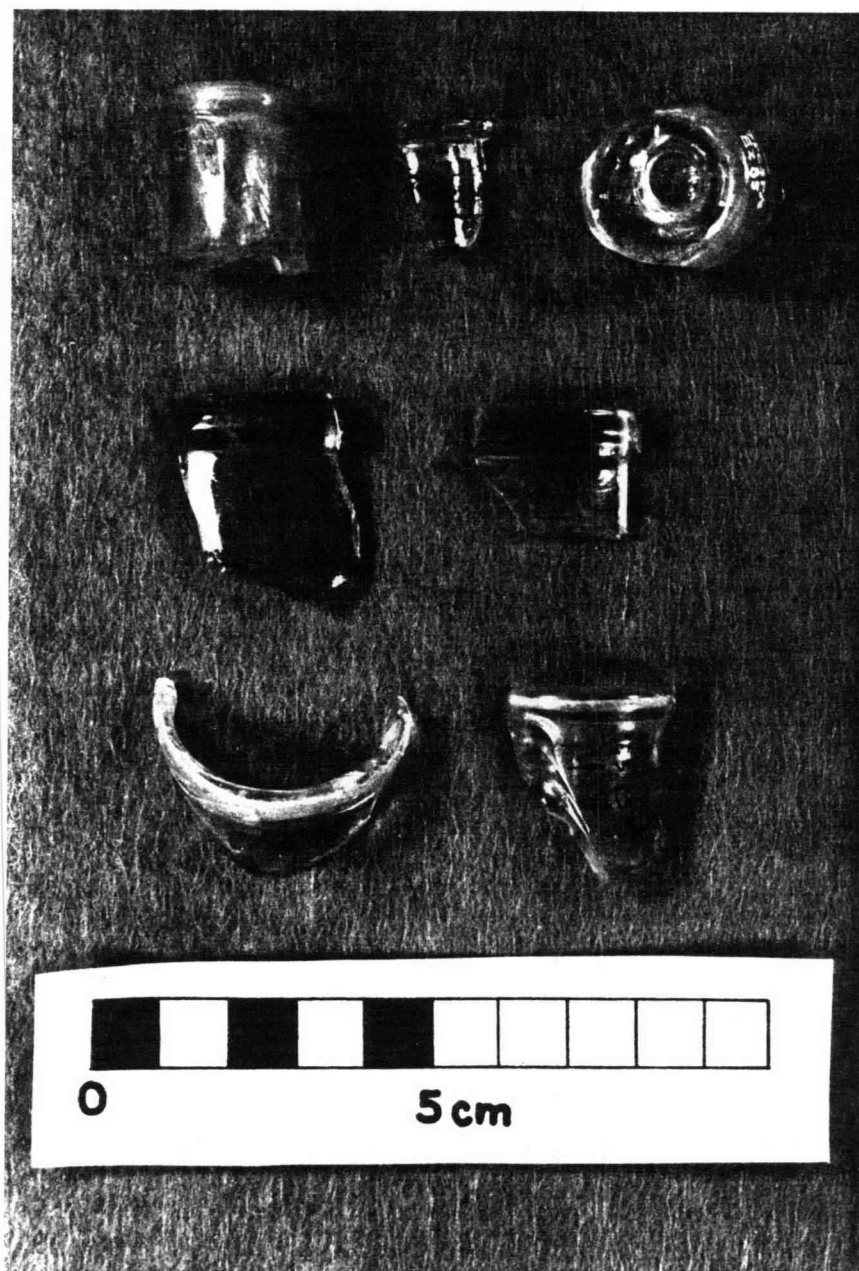


Figure 27. Glass Bottle Sample.

hollow centers, in one example the hollow portion is large, uneven and is the crudest example.

The one bottle base is a small round, vial-type and has a pontil scar. The pontil scar is a round blow pipe pontil and is indented into the base. The pontil scar indicates manufacture prior to the 1850s.

The unknown ceramic collection includes the very tiny fragments and burned or other heat-altered pieces (Table 18).

Table 18. Unknown: Metal, Glass & Ceramic.

<u>Location</u>	<u>Metal</u>	<u>Glass</u>	<u>Ceramic</u>
Block 1	313	489	207
Block 2	0	13	1
Block 3	15	61	0
Block 4	0	19	5
Block 5	0	0	3
Block 11	0	3	4
Block 12	479	559	113
Block 13	0	1	2
Block 14	1	18	38
Block 15	0	11	0
Block 19	0	4	1
Block 25	0	3	1
Block 30	0	1	1
Block 31	0	4	0
Block 32	3	18	0
Block 34	0	8	0
Block 36	4	0	0
Block 53	21	31	3
Block 54	0	11	0
Block 56	0	1	0
Block 67	0	0	1
Block 68	0	1	0
Block 70	0	10	0
John Street	1	2	0
Montcalm Street	1222	958	488

MISCELLANEOUS AND MODERN ITEMS

The Miscellaneous and Modern Items category is an addition to Sprague's classification system by the author. The items in this category are difficult to classify with the previously discussed historic material. The miscellaneous heading was created for the faunal remains, lithic items and wood specimens recovered from Champoege.

Faunal Remains: The faunal remains contain fragments possibly relating to the historic period, but also to the present use of the area as sheep pasturage.

The complete faunal collection has never been analyzed; however, most of the specimens collected in 1973 were identified by John Fulhaber, a student at the University of Oregon. Subsequently, at the request of the author, the faunal remains were re-identified in 1981-82 by Dave Schmitt, a graduate student at Oregon State University. Although some redundancy did occur, Schmitt was able to identify the 1975 faunal collection. The findings of both Fulhaber and Schmitt are presented in Table 19, along with the distribution across the site. Six fragments of a fresh water mussel and one unidentifiable shell were also collected. The mussel is commonly found even today.

Lithics: The lithic items, including two contact-era point styles and nine flakes are the only evidence of a known food resource area of the Kalapuya (Table 20). Perhaps further archaeological investigations will aid in

Table 19. Faunal Remains.

<u>Location</u>	<u># of Specimens</u>	<u>Species</u>	<u>Element</u>	<u>Butchered</u>
Block 1	10	cf. mammal	long bone	-
	2	"	"	+
	30	"	---	-
	1	---	lower molar	-
	52	---	---	-
	15	cf. mammal	---	-
	1	pig	molar	-
	2	cf. mammal	---	+
Block 2	1	sheep-domestic	distal end	-
	1	cow	left humerus	-
	1	cf. mammal	proximal phalanx	-
	1	cow	---	-
		cow	upper molar	-
Block 3	1	cow	P4	-
	1	cf. mammal	calcaneum	-
	1	---	upper molar	-
	3	lg. mammal	long bone	+
	1	sheep-domestic	mandible	-
	2	---	---	+
	18	cf. mammal	---	-
	1	cf. mammal	---	+
	1	lg. mammal	skull frag.	-
Block 4	2	lg. mammal	---	-
	1	sheep-domestic	upper molar	-
Block 5	1	lg. mammal	auditory bone	-
	1	cow	upper molar	-
	3	lg. mammal	long bone	-
	1	---	---	-
	1	---	phalange frag.	-
Block 11	2	cow	tooth P4, M2	-
	1	sm. mammal	long bone	-
	2	lg. mammal	long bone	-
	1	lg. mammal	long bone	+
	1	---	---	-
Block 12	2	herbivore	tooth frag.	-
	5	cf. mammal	long bone	-
	7	cf. mammal	---	-
	2	<u>Ovis ovis</u>	tooth	-
	1	pig	pre-molar	-
	1	sheep	mandible	-
	158	---	---	-
Block 17	1	lg. mammal	long bone	+
Block 30	1	lg. mammal	long bone	+
Block 31	1	Nutria	left mandible	-
	1	cow	distal end	+
			fibia	-
Block 32	1	---	pelvis frag.	-
	1	lg. mammal	long bone	+
	3	lg. mammal	long bone	-
Block 53	1	cf. mammal	---	-
	1	---	---	-
Block 70	1	sheep-domestic	axis vertebrae	-
Montcalm Street	2	cf. mammal	long bone	+
	1	cf. mammal	long bone	-
	40	cf. mammal	---	-
	205	---	---	-
	1	---	canine tooth	-
	1	<u>Ovis ovis</u>	tooth	-
	1	cf. mammal	---	+

our understanding of this transition period between the Kalapuya and the white settlers.

The two projectile points are similar in style. Both are stemmed, with small triangular blades produced on a moderately thick flake, and flaking is random. The differences are in material, one being obsidian and one cryptocrystalline silica or petrified wood. The blade edges also vary, the obsidian blade is straight to slightly incurvate with irregular barbs, while the cryptocrystalline silica specimen has slightly serrated edges. All of the flakes are small thinning flakes, or small chunks. There is no evidence to suggest that the tools were made at the site; rather, retouching or resharpening seems to have been the only lithic activity attempted.

Table 20. Lithic Material.

<u>Location</u>	<u>Material</u>	<u>Amount</u>	<u>Length</u>	<u>Width</u>	<u>Thickness</u>
Block 34	obsidian	1	.18mm	.13mm	.3mm
Block 53	CCS	1	.23mm	--	.4mm
Block 14	obsidian	1			
Block 12	CCS	4			
Block 12	obsidian	1			
Block 12	quartz	1			
Montcalm Street	obisdian	2			

Wood Sample: The wood samples recovered from Champoege are very small and in fragmented condition. The wood that could be identified is all softwood including Douglas fir (Pseudotsuga menziessii), Western red cedar (Thuja plicata) and one that is probably a pine. Nearly all the wood samples, sixteen of twenty, were collected from Block 1.

One wood specimen was saw cut on two sides and painted green.

Special thanks go to Dr. Robert Krahmer of the Forest Products Lab at Oregon State University, for identification of the wood fragments.

MODERN ITEMS

Modern items relate to twentieth century cultural material. The townsite is now incorporated into a State Park and has been the scene of large gatherings through the years since 1901 when the Provisional Government monument was installed. The items in this category will not be included in the discussion of the nineteenth century community.

Mirror: Four mirror fragments were recovered from Block 1 and Block 13. Two of the fragments are from a car mirror. The modern type of mirror manufacturing technique was discovered in the 1840s, "but the earliest practical applications of the technique did not emerge until the early part of the twentieth century" (Newman and Newman 1978:15).

Key: A very corroded key, probably for a car, was collected from Montcalm Street. The key has the basic appearance of an American car key.

Glass Containers: Six glass containers, all of which are machine made, were found at Champoege. One clear jar base has part of an Owens Illinois Glass Company trademark, the plant number is '20' and the manufacturing location was

Oakland, California. A large amber jar or jug base also with the Owens Illinois trademark was produced in Tracy, California. Both jars were produced after 1956 (Toulouse 1971:407).

Two amber and a clear fragment have trademarks or maker's marks in relief but the pieces are too small to identify. One amber bottle lip, which was probably sealed with a crown cap was also found. Machine-made bottles were produced after 1915.

Pewter Ring: A pewter or base metal ring was collected from the surface of Block 51. The ring is broken and any further functional interpretation is difficult.

Skeet: Skeet or rubber pigeons are the targets of shot gun or rifle practice. Skeet shooting was a hobby activity pursued in the large open fields at Champoeg. Fragments of the targets were recovered from Block 1 (5), Block 11 (2), Block 12 (19) and Montcalm Street (17).

Plastic: Evidence of twentieth century living is not often found at the townsite. However, the sixteen bits of plastic are reminders that cultural history is a dynamic process. Twelve fragments, including one red tail light cover, were collected from the surface of Block 15. Block 15 has long been an area designated for large picnic groups and vehicles are frequently at the scene. A broken guitar pick and plastic-ware dishes are the only other items which can be distinguished in the collection.

Tableware: An example of pressed glass and earthenware, both hollow ware vessels, were collected from the surface of Block 36. No trademark was present; however, the vessels can be relatively dated to the 1940s-1950s period.

Paint can and tin can: The manufacture of tin cans began in the 1820s and became a popular method of storage by the 1850s (Rock 1984). While tin cans were being produced on the East Coast during Champoege's growth period, the fragments of tin cans collected at the site appear to be of later, post-1900 manufacture. Several pieces may belong to one can as there is a red enamel paint and yellow print on the can. Unfortunately, corrosion makes it possible to decipher only a word or two, and no product or brand name can be read.

A rather interesting find is that of a paint can with solidified white paint still in it. The can is in a very deteriorated condition. The paint can was located just under the surface during the excavation of Block 1.

DISCUSSION

The artifact assemblage collected from the Champoeg townsite in 1973, 1974, and 1975 presents a large but cumbersome data base. The cultural material recovered during the surface survey in 1973 and the test units outside of Block 53 in 1974 suggest that nineteenth century material is widely scattered across the site. One aim of this final discussion is to combine the historic record with the archaeological record. The record of Champoeg is short but complex, so attention will be focused on only Blocks 1, 12 and 53.

Block 1 has undergone by far the most extensive archaeological investigations with ten 5x5 foot units excavated in a nearly square unit adjacent to the 1972 excavations. The location of the 1973 excavations in Block 1 has been approximated by the author as no field map was discovered to definitely pinpoint the test units (Figure 28). Block 12 and Montcalm Street were tested in 1975. Actually, only one 2x2 meter and one 1x1 meter unit were located in Block 12, whereas two 2x2 meter and one 1x1 meter unit were placed quite close to Block 12 in Montcalm Street (Figure 28). The Montcalm Street excavations contained as much or more material than the excavations within the identified Block 12 area where structures were known to have been located. In fact, without the helpful designator of street, differentiation between block and roadway could not

Figure 28. Areas of archaeological excavations
during 1972, 1973 and 1975 at Champoeeg.
(The Block 1 excavations are the
approximate locations).

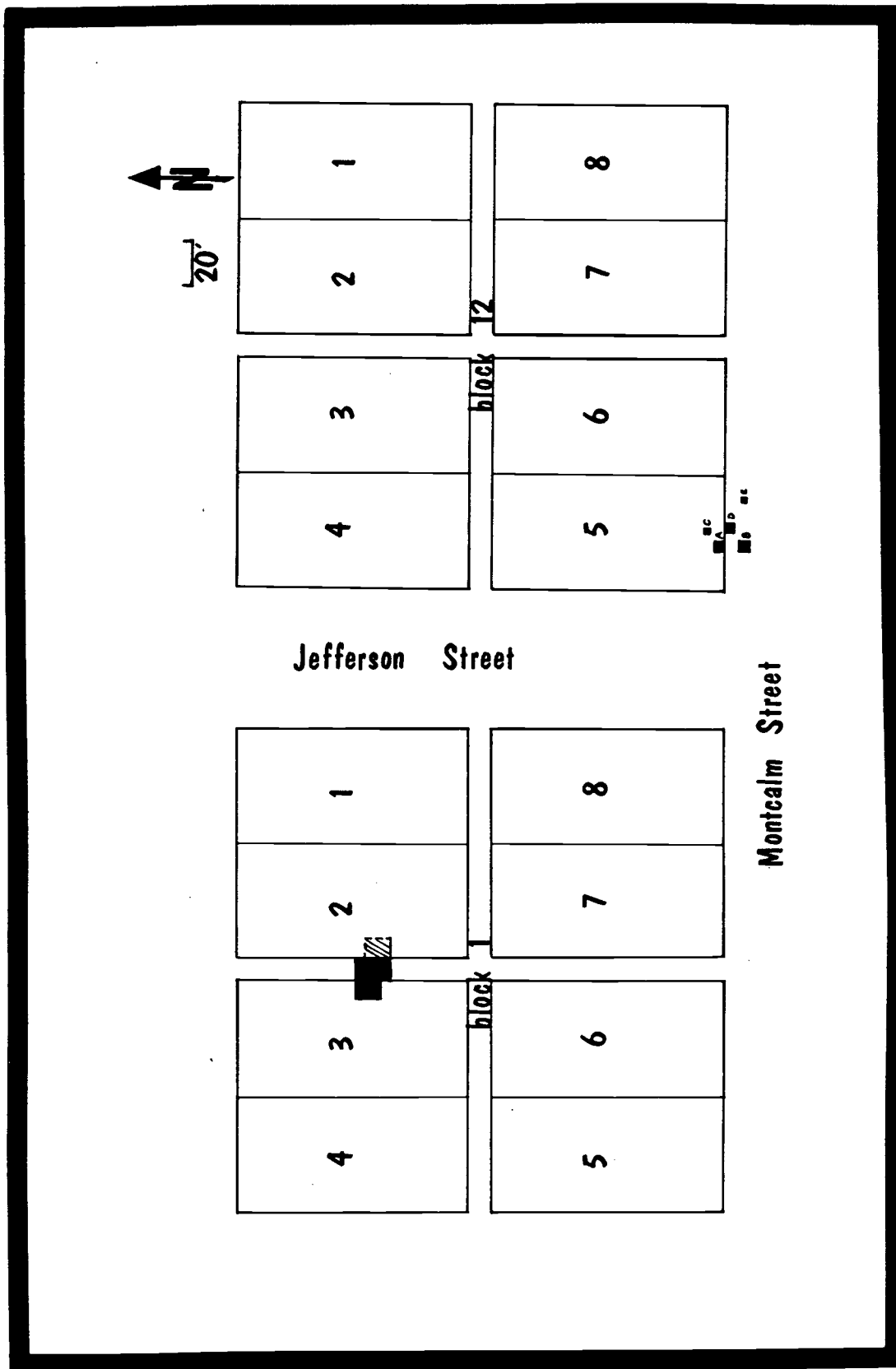


Figure 28.

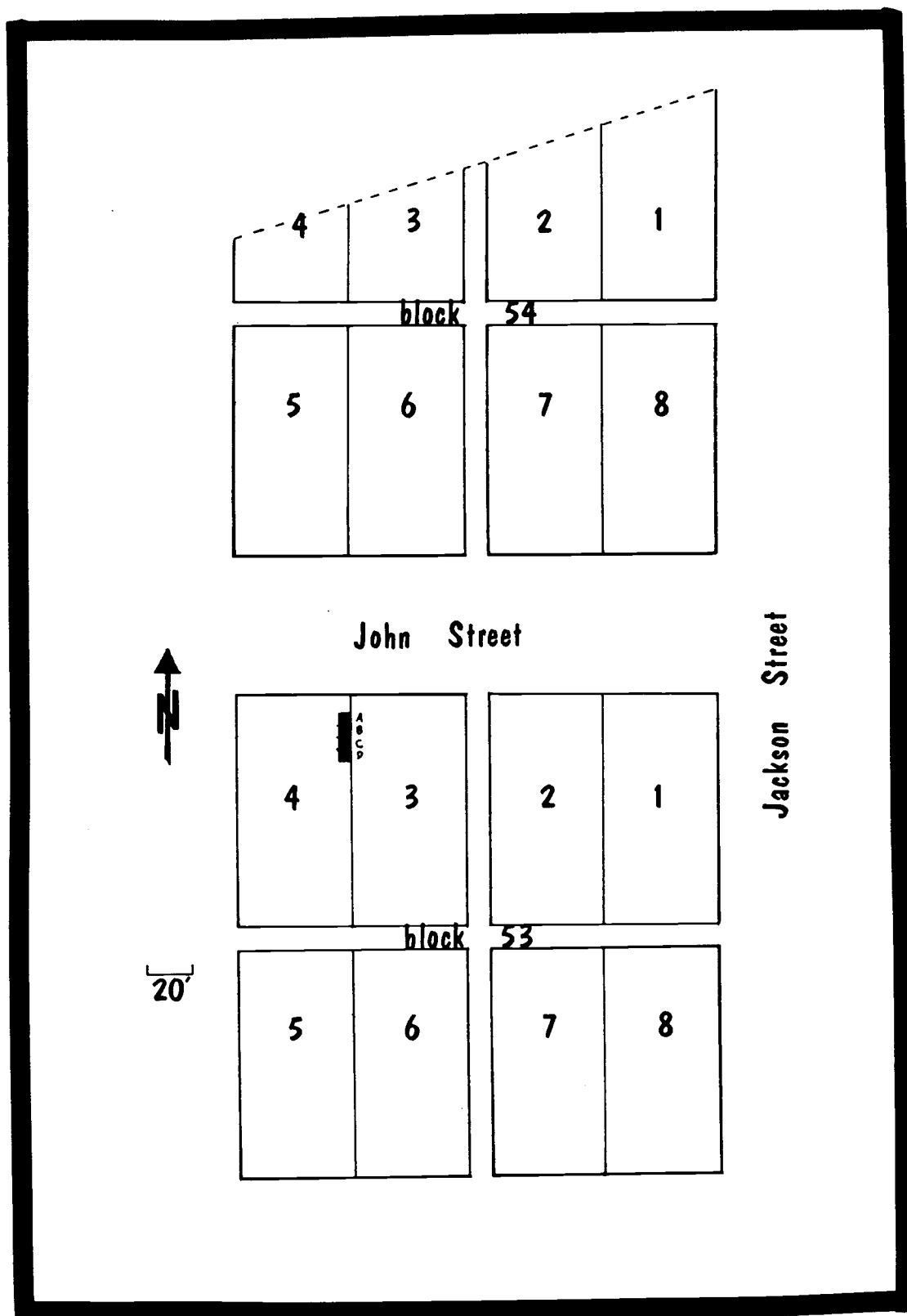


Figure 29. Area of archaeological excavation during 1974 at Champoeg.

easily have been made. The 1974 field work centered on Block 53 where an 8x2 meter unit was opened up in lot 4 (Figure 29).

Block 1: Block 1 at Champoege has undergone the most extensive archaeological investigation. The field work of Nesbitt in 1972 and Atherton in 1973 revealed evidence of a structure. This structure, identified as 'Structure A', has been associated with various residents of Champoege.

The county records are useful for establishing ownership of property, but the records do not begin until 1855, thus the period of earliest settlement is not well-documented at Champoege. For example, a land transaction between Robert Newell and Harriet M. Stevens occurred in 1855 for lots 1,2,3,6,7, and 8 in Block 1 for one dollar (Marion County Records Book 1:164). Yet, Harriet and her husband John were operating a hotel at that location by 1853. The Champoege Public House was advertised in the 1853 Oregon Statesman.

Champoege Public House... The undersigned having purchased the public house at Champoege, respectfully inform the travelling community that they are always ready to accomodate them in the best possible manner. The house having been enlarged and entirely refitted, they flatter themselves that they can give entire satisfaction to such as will patronize them.

John H. Stevens and Greene Arnold

Thus, while the county land records give precise dates, the dates are not always correct.

The partnership of John Stevens and Greene Arnold was

not a close one. Arnold came to Oregon from Michigan in 1852, probably in the same group as the Stevens. Arnold settled in Milwaukie and opened a hotel there. He was active in land speculation and in 1862 established the town of LaGrande where he lived the remainder of his life (Oregon Historical Society Pioneer File).

According to the newspaper advertisement a structure was "purchased" and "refitted" by the Stevens in 1853. Apparently a hotel of some sort was already in operation at Champoeg prior to 1853. Unfortunately, no earlier proprietor can be identified with this location.

Nathun Meerholtz and Aaron Meier bought lot 4 in Block 1 in Champoeg from Robert Newell in August 1857 for \$560.00 (Marion County Records Book 2:136). The high cost for only one lot suggests that there was a substantial structure already standing when Meerholtz and Meier purchased the lot. Meerholtz and Meier had formed a partnership in the early 1850s in a small mercantile store. The Meerholtz and Meier team lasted about seven years, and they had businesses in several cities, Champoeg apparently being one of them. Meier went on to start the very successful firm of Meier and Frank in Portland (Carey 1922:695).

Meerholtz and Meier sold the property in 1858 to Alexander Mayer and Mayer, in turn, sold lot 4 to John Hoefer a few months later (Marion County Deed Records Book 3:6 and 3:112). Information regarding Mayer is lacking, but his stay at Champoeg does not seem to have been long. The

German-born Hoefer came to the United States in 1848 and crossed the plains with an emigrant train in 1852. Hoefer first settled in Butteville where he worked as a carpenter for a Mr. Carey. In the spring of 1853 he moved to Champoege (Oregon Historical Society Scrapbook 276:144). In 1860, Hoefer and his wife Annie included John Zorn, his two sons and a carpenter, Herman Hucker as part of their household (Champoege Census Records 1860:250).

Lot 5 in Block 1 was sold by Newell to John Hug, a Swiss wagon maker, in September 1858 for \$135.00 (Marion County Deed Records Book 3:177). Hug came to America in 1849, staying with family members until 1852 when he crossed the plains, possibly with the same party as Hoefer. The Hug family history gives an account of how he may have earned his way to Oregon. "Some young unmarried men drove wagons for others, and he may have driven for someone, or he may have repaired wagons" (Lee 1933:2).

John Hoefer and John Hug shared many common interests and experiences. By 1858, the two had teamed up to buy Harriet and John Stevens' property in Block 1 for \$2700, including "all the improvements now thereon consisting of houses and barns, stables, fencing, etc, etc." (Marion County Deed Records Book 3:111). Hug and Hoefer kept the hotel operating. Two years later John Hoefer bought Hug's share of Block 1 for \$1000.00 and became the sole owner (Marion County Deed Records Book 4:336) (Table 21). Apparently the hotel continued to operate until the flood.

Table 21. Blocks 1, 12 and 53 land transactions.

BLOCK	LOTS								Year
1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
	Stevens					Stevens			1855
									1856
				M & M					1857
	H & H			Mayer	Hug	H & H			1858
				Hoefer					1859
	Hoefer				Hoefer	Hoefer			1860
									1861
12	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
							X	X	1855
			Hoefer						1856
			Jacobs	Hug					1857
	Bloom			Bailey					1858
	Hug								1859
	Goodman Schutz					Petty			1860
			Wehrum					1861	
53	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
	X	X			X	X	X	X	1855
									1856
									1857
									1858
			Weston						1859
									1860

Block 12 and Montcalm Street: The excavation strategy of Block 12 and Montcalm Street was based on surface artifact concentrations. The street and block are treated herein as separate entities only for the sake of a consistent discussion.

The first land transaction recorded for Block 12 took place in 1856 when John Hoefer bought lot 3 for \$100.00 from Robert Newell (Marion County Deed Records Book 1:227).

Newell sold lots 1 and 2 for \$150.00 to Jacob Bloom in August 1857 (Marion County Deed Records Book 2:102). Jacob Bloom was born in Poland in 1826, coming to America while in his teens.

In the early 1850s he came to Oregon, by way of the Isthmus of Panama and San Francisco, and started a mercantile business at Champoege, then the business center of the Willamette Valley. He prospered and established branch stores in Butteville, Corvallis, and The Dalles...In 1860, he sold out his interest and removed to Portland...where he died in 1900 (Oregon Historical Society Scrapbook 36:167).

Bloom did not gain title to lots 1 and 2 until 1857.

However, much like the Stevens, Bloom was apparently operating a business out of that location prior to 1857.

Bloom sold the property in December 1857 to John Hug (Marion County Deed Records Book 2:291).

Hoefer sold lot 3 including the houses and appertunances thereon to the mercantile firm of S. Jacobs and Company in 1857 for \$525.00 (Marion County Deed Records Book 2:95). Simon Jacobs was born in Pennsylvania in 1824 and crossed the plains to Oregon in 1852. He first located

in Dayton, Oregon, but was operating a store in Champoege before 1857 (Oregon Historical Society Pioneer File Index).

John Hug bought lots 4 and 5 of Block 12 from Robert Newell in September 1856. Hug also acquired lots 1 and 2 from Jacob Bloom in 1857 (Marion County Deed Records Book 1:381 and Book 2:291).

Hug then sold off each of the lots over the next several years. In 1857 William Bailey bought lot 5 for \$500.00 "together with the houses and improvements thereon" (Marion County Deed Records Book 2:129). Dr. William Bailey arrived in Oregon from California in 1835, being with one of the first parties to travel the overland route from San Francisco. The party was attacked by Rogue River Indians and Bailey was severely wounded. Bailey was something of a malcontent with the general tendency to drink excessively. However, Bailey came under the influence of Dr. Elijah White of the Methodist Mission and converted to Methodism. Bailey married Margaret Jewett Smith a teacher at the mission, in 1839. The marriage was extremely stormy as Bailey repudiated his conversion and returned to his nefarious ways two days after the wedding (Hussey 1967:88).

The Bailey household initially was located southeast of Champoege. In 1850 the Baileys sold their farm and traveled east for a visit. Upon their return they lived in Portland and Butteville, before settling in Champoege in September 1853 (Hussey 1967:91-92). Although there are no land transactions recorded for Bailey before 1857, he owned a

house in Champoeg which burned shortly after he and Margaret had moved there in 1853.

Fire at Champoeg--The dwelling of Dr. Bailey, Champoeg, a new and valuable one, was destroyed by fire on Tuesday morning last, with all the furniture and etc. The Doctors stock of medicines only were taken out, and they were soon afterwards completely destroyed by a runaway horse, which found his way into the yard where they were lying upon the ground. The house is supposed to have taken fire from a cigar. (The Oregon Statesman 13 September 1853:2).

The Baileys were divorced in 1854, he remarrying the next year and moving to a new house built on a hill above the present Champoeg State Park entrance (Hussey 1967:92). Bailey apparently moved back into the town proper in 1857, perhaps occupying a house in lot 5, Block 12.

Hug sold lot 2 to Newman Goodman for \$175.00 in 1858 (Marion County Deed Records Book 3:91). There were no improvements or structures mentioned in the deed. Goodman was of Prussian ancestry, arriving in Oregon via California by ship in about 1852. Goodman first located in Butteville (Oregon Historical Society Pioneer File Index).

In 1860 Hug sold lot 1 to William Schutz for \$1000.00 (Marion County Deed Records Book 5:78). Although no houses are mentioned, the high price would suggest some improvements on the property, especially since Goodman had bought the lot next door for only \$175.00. Schutz was a carpenter who arrived in Oregon sometime after 1850.

Lot 6 of Block 12 was retained by Robert Newell until 1859 when he sold it to Mrs. Mary Petty for \$100.00 (Marion County Deed Records Book 4:204). Lot 6 was apparently

empty, as the deed record does not mention any improvements and the price is appropriate for a vacant city lot.

In the spring of 1861, Hug disposed of the last of his property in Block 12. Lot 4 was purchased by Henry Wehrum for \$225.00 with the buildings thereon (Marion County Deed Records Book 5:297). Wehrum came from Germany but not much else is known about him. Lots 7 and 8 were never sold (Table 21).

Block 53: David Weston is the only person to have bought lots in Block 53. In July 1859 Weston purchased lots 3 and 4 in Block 53 and lots 5 and 6 in Block 54 for \$100.00 from Robert Newell (Marion County Deed Records Book 3:452). However, according to local tradition, Weston was working as a blacksmith in Champoeg prior to 1859. David Weston came to Oregon in the fall of 1842. "Upon reaching the Willamette Valley he went to work for Thomas J. Hubbard as a blacksmith" (Lang 1885:610). Thomas Hubbard had settled in the Champoeg area, described by Farnham in 1839, "we called at a farm occupied by an American, who acted as blacksmith and gunsmith for the settlement" (Farnham 1843:88). It is, of course, not clear if Hubbard resided within the townsite of Champoeg. Hubbard had moved his operation to Yamhill by 1847 and Weston probably went with him (Hussey 1967:104).

Weston returned to the Champoeg area in 1850, acquiring the donation land claim of Mr. Morris. The land claim adjoined Robert Newell's claim on the east, in the area

between Champoeg Creek and 'La Butte'. There he spent the remaining years of a long and useful life (Hussey 1967:104).

Weston married Mary Sinclair in 1852 and had three children by 1860 (Jane, James, and Josephine). According to the 1850 and 1860 census records, Thomas Warner from Indiana was also living with the Weston household. The 1850 census lists Warner's occupation as a shoemaker, but by 1860 he was working as a blacksmith. Weston died in December 1875 and was buried on his farm (Hussey 1967:223).

The county land records provide information useful to the historical archaeologist. Block 1 was quite densely built upon with a hotel and its companion structures, a store and a cabinet/carpentry shop. The area excavated relates to the hotel operated from sometime prior to 1853 until 1861, or an associated house or out building.

The excavations in Block 12 and Montcalm Street are located in or close to lot 6, where a residence was located. Block 53 was purchased in 1859 by blacksmith David Weston. According to local tradition this was the area of his shop.

A hotel, residence and blacksmith shop should provide a diverse artifact assemblage from each of the areas excavated. Comparisons of the three areas should lend supporting evidence to the different activities suggested by the land records.

Blocks 1, 12 and 53 all had structures built on the property prior to when ownership was legally transferred from Robert Newell to the grantee. The artifact assemblage

can reflect a more accurate date of when the property was occupied.

Block 1: The historic record of lots 2 and 3 in Block 1 suggest a hotel or associated structure. Structure A (as it was identified by Nesbitt, 1972) may have been part of the hotel or it may have served as the family residence of the Stevens. Evidence of a structure is plentiful as architectural items make up 64.5% of the artifacts recovered. Included in the architectural items are door hardware, window glass, nails, and brass key guides.

Window glass thickness is a temporal indicator in the Pacific Northwest. The window glass thickness from Block 1 showed two peaks, an early peak dating from circa 1835 to 1855 and a later and larger peak dating from circa 1855 to 1885 (refer to Figure 22). The two peaks in window glass thickness suggest that Structure A may have been built in the 1840s and then "enlarged and refitted" in 1852-53.

Operation of a hotel and its associated need for a large assortment of tableware and kitchen items would easily explain the high ratio (25.1%) of domestic items present in Block 1. A closer look at the ceramic collection can reveal a relative dating chronology and evidence of a trade network.

The ceramics with known beginning and ending production dates or periods of stylistic popularity can be used to calculate a mean ceramic date (Table 22). The mean ceramic

date is circa 1852.5 which includes a large amount of white earthenwares and utilitarian ware. Without the whiteware the mean date falls to circa 1840.6.

Upon closer examination of the transfer printed earthenwares several interesting facts are noted. There are thirteen identified patterns, eight of which have a known production period, and five of the patterns were out of production before 1849. Three of the early patterns were produced by Spode, Copeland and Garrett and sold through the Hudson's Bay Company. However, the total number of transfer printed ceramic fragments is quite small when compared to the later, more utilitarian type of wares including whiteware, handpainted and spatter.

The artifact categories themselves may provide more information about the types of activities performed in Structure A (Table 23). The highest percentage of artifacts relate to architecture, with domestic items and personal items making up the other third of the assemblage. The remaining categories of commerce and industry, group services, and transportation are completely lacking or with so few items as to have no effect on the overall artifact pattern.

Based on the artifact assemblage, two occupations of Block 1 are obvious. An early circa 1840s occupation, probably a residence, and the later hotel. The window glass and ceramic typology suggests a reliance on the Hudson's Bay

Table 22. Block 1: Mean Ceramic Dates.

<u>Pattern Type</u>	<u>Date Range</u>	<u>Median Date</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Product</u>
Excelsior	1803-1874	1838	29	53302
Canova	1834-1848	1841	2	3682
Italian	1833-1847	1840	1	1840
California	1849-1852	1851	16	29616
Marino	1834-1854	1844	11	20284
Filigree	1823-1833	1828	1	1828
Oak & Flowers	? - ?			
Adelaide's Bower	? - ?			
Brunswick	? - ?			
Warwick Vase	1833-1847	1840	1	1840
Goodwin's Marine	? - ?			
Chinese Flowers	1815-1847	1831	1	1831
Unknown #23	? - ?			
Edge-decorated	1820-1850	1835	7	12775
Polka Dots	1824-1860	1842	8	14736
Handpainted	1824-1860	1842	10	18420
Parian	1840-1858	1849	1	1849
Whiteware	1850-1870	1860	245	455700
Yellow wares	1840-1860	1850	34	62900
Cream wares	1820-1850	1835	3	5505
Spatter	1800-1860	1830	<u>30</u>	<u>54900</u>
			400	741008

Mean Ceramic Date = 1852.5

Mean Ceramic Date without Whiteware = 1840.6

Table 23. Block 1: Artifact Pattern.

<u>Category</u>	<u>N Sample</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Personal	167	11.1
Domestic	467	25.0
Architecture	1200	64.5
Transportation	1	0.0
Commerce & Industry	23	1.0
Group Services	0	0.0
Total	<u>1858</u>	

Company for supplies. The transfer printed patterns recovered are few in number, but the variety in pattern types suggests a piece-meal collection, common when supplies were limited, rather than a "set" of dishes.

The change in window glass thickness and ceramics (more

utilitarian types) also reflects a wider trading network as American products are present. By 1852, when the Stevens' took over operating the hotel, American goods were competing with the Hudson's Bay Company more successfully.

Block 12: The excavation units in Block 12 were located in lot 6. The cultural material collected is dominated by architectural items, 63.4% of the sample. Considering that only a small amount of the lot was tested, the structure must have been fairly substantial.

The window glass thickness data shows a fairly steady increase from 1835-1855 to 1855-1885, at which time it falls off sharply (refer to Figure 23).

The mean ceramic date calculated for Block 12 is circa 1855 and without the ubiquitous whiteware, circa 1845 (Table 24). There are only five types of transfer printed patterns identified, and the earliest end of production date is 1852. All of the ceramic types present were popular throughout the 1850s. The dominant wares were utilitarian types such as whitewares and yellow wares.

The personal items out-numbered domestic items by a slight amount; this is unusual as personal items are usually fewer. The commerce and industry artifact category is rather high (6.4%). The large number of lead shot is responsible for the high percentage, however. Table 25 presents the artifact pattern of Block 12.

Lot 6 in Block 12 does not appear to have had an early

circa 1840s occupation, but rather, the artifact assemblage reflects an 1850s period. The window glass and ceramic fragments have both British and American made products.

Mrs. Mary Petty bought lot 6 in 1860.

Table 24. Block 12: Mean Ceramic Date.

<u>Pattern Type</u>	<u>Date Range</u>	<u>Median Date</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Product</u>
Excelsior	1803-1874	1838	4	7352
California	1849-1852	1851	5	9255
Persian Vase	? - ?			
Florence	? - ?			
Willow	1824-1860	1842	1	1842
Flow Blue	1825-1862	1843	1	1843
Edge-decorated	1820-1850	1835	1	1835
Handpainted	1824-1860	1842	2	3684
Whiteware	1850-1870	1860	67	124620
Yellow wares	1840-1860	1850	15	27750
Cream wares	1820-1850	1835	1	1835
Spatter	1800-1860	1830	3	5490
			100	185506

Mean Ceramic Date = 1855

Mean Ceramic Date without Whiteware = 1845

Table 25. Block 12: Artifact Pattern.

<u>Category</u>	<u>N Sample</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Personal	143	16.0
Domestic	124	13.9
Architecture	564	63.4
Transportation	0	0.0
Commerce & Industry	57	6.4
Group Services	1	.01
Total	889	

Montcalm Street: Montcalm Street poses several problems for interpretation. The three test units uncovered a wide variety of artifacts. Based solely on the amount of architectural items (53.1%) a structure would certainly be

inventoried for this location. The window glass recovered shows an initial peak at 1845-1855 with a decline and a larger peak at 1855-1885 then the characteristic sharp drop-off. Once again there does not seem to be any building activity in the area after the flood.

There are twelve transfer printed patterns, but only four have both beginning and ending dates of production. All of the dateable transfer ware spans the 1850 period. The mean ceramic date of the entire sample is circa 1852.7 or circa 1843.7 without the white earthenware (Table 26). However, two of the transfer patterns were produced by Spode, Copeland and Garrett and were available at Fort Vancouver until 1860. The ceramic sample includes dinnerwares and several types of utilitarian wares.

There is a high level of domestic and personal items, although in this case the domestic group is greater. Commerce and industry and group services make up less than 2% of the sample (Table 27). A concentration of slate fragments and a pencil make-up about 90% of the group services items recovered from the site as a whole.

The archaeological evidence of Montcalm Street suggests that an 1850s residence was built there. Except for the slate fragments and pencil, the artifact assemblage reflects no specialized activities such as a commercial enterprise; rather is dominated by architectural and domestic items.

Table 26. Montcalm Street: Mean Ceramic Date.

<u>Pattern Type</u>	<u>Date Range</u>	<u>Median Date</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Product</u>
Excelsior	1803-1874	1838	18	33084
Columbia	1850- ?	1850	1	1850
Watteau	1847-1861	1854	9	16686
California	1849-1852	1851	8	14808
Crystal Palace	? - ?			
Oak & Flowers	? - ?			
Persian Vase	? - ?			
British Flowers	1829-1860	1844	1	1844
Florence	? - ?			
Brunswick	? - ?			
Unknown #24	? - ?			
Unknown #25	? - ?			
Edge-decorated	1820-1850	1835	2	3670
Polka Dots	1824-1860	1842	1	1842
Handpainted	1824-1860	1842	4	7368
Parian	1840-1858	1849	1	1849
Whiteware	1850-1870	1860	130	241800
Yellow wares	1840-1860	1850	41	75850
Cream wares	1820-1850	1835	7	12845
Spatter	1800-1860	1830	15	27450
			238	440946

Mean Ceramic Date = 1852.7

Mean Ceramic Date without Whiteware = 1843.9

Table 27. Montcalm Street: Artifact Pattern.

<u>Category</u>	<u>N Sample</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Personal	243	20.6
Domestic	289	24.5
Architecture	626	53.1
Transportation	0	0.0
Commerce & Industry	9	0.7
Group Servies	10	0.8
Total	1177	

However, why would anyone build a house in the street? Several ideas to explain this behavior can be hypothesized. First, the community that Robert Newell planned may never have actually existed as such. The platted blocks were

arranged on paper in 1852, while a drawing of the town in 1851 shows only a straggling line of eight to ten structures. The location of a structure in the platted Montcalm Street in the early 1850s was probably of not much concern to the locals. Secondly, the debris in Montcalm Street may be the remains of a structure which was moved by the flood to this spot where it collapsed and was buried by the silt. Third, Montcalm Street was not a busy throughfare and was used as a dump by the local residents. Fourth, the townsite as it was replatted in the 1970s was slightly off so that the test units thought to be in Montcalm Street should actually be included in Block 12. To conclude this rather lengthy discussion of explanations it must be noted that only further archaeological investigations can offer solutions to these problems.

Block 53: The archaeological investigations of lot 4 in Block 53 is most noteworthy because of its lack of diagnostic material. However, the area excavated encompasses only a small portion of the lot. A preliminary interpretation can be drawn with the hope that future archaeological excavations can test it.

The most predominant category of artifacts relate to architecture (59.7%). Only twenty fragments of window glass were recovered, suggesting that windows were not a major feature of the structure. The window glass thickness measurements indicate a small clustering dating to

1855-1865.

The ceramic tableware and utilitarian ware shed some light on the type of household goods present. Only one fragment of an identifiable transfer printed ware which could be described as "good" china was found. The transfer pattern was produced until circa 1854. However, the calculated mean ceramic date is 1850 (Table 28). Plainly decorated or whiteware and utilitarian types complete the inventory.

The commerce and industry group of artifacts is rather high (11%), yet evidence of a blacksmith shop is certainly not over-whelming (Table 29).

Table 28. Block 53: Mean Ceramic Date

<u>Pattern Type</u>	<u>Date Range</u>	<u>Median Date</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Product</u>
Tyrolean	1834-1854	1844	1	1844
Edge decorated	1820-1850	1835	1	1835
Polka Dots	1824-1860	1842	2	3684
Whiteware	1850-1870	1860	8	14880
Yellow wares	1840-1860	1850	3	5550
Cream wares	1820-1850	1835	<u>2</u>	<u>3670</u>
			17	31463

Mean Ceramic Date = 1850.7

Mean Ceramic Date without Whiteware = 1842.5

The excavated portion of lot 4 can be interpreted as a circa 1850s industry-related shop and temporary living space. The domestic items do not reflect a family setting, especially if Weston had a wife and three children by 1860. The lack of personal items supports the proposal that this is not a residential dwelling. The relatively high number

Table 29. Block 53: Artifact Pattern.

<u>Category</u>	<u>N Sample</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Personal	7	7.2
Domestic	20	20.6
Architecture	58	59.7
Transportation	1	1.0
Commerce & Industry	11	11.0
Group Services	0	0.0
Total	<hr/> 97	

of items related to commerce and industry suggests that a shop was operated in this location. Yet, the lack of clinkers, metal scrap and blacksmithing equipment proves that this was not the main activity area.

It would seem, from this proposed interpretation, that Weston set up a shop in the area of Block 53, possibly as early as 1850. Although blacksmithing appears the likely activity, the excavations did not discover the primary work location. This interpretation also assumes that Weston and his family did not live in this area of the block.

CONCLUSIONS

The cultural assemblage unearthed from Champoeg helps to substantiate the documentary evidence of structure locations and functions. Yet, the goal of historical archaeology must reach beyond the limited aim of merely elaborating on historic events. Rather, questions must be formulated regarding cultural processes "in hopes of explaining change and variation among present-day societies" (Lewis in Miller and Steffen 1977:139).

The Frontier Pattern is a socio-cultural adaptation to meet the needs of a society within a new environment and social situation. Champoeg must be viewed in the context of this frontier adaptive process. For, "by examining a particular frontier situation it should be possible to demonstrate the relevance of the frontier model on the basis of archaeological evidence...as a means of elucidating processes of cultural change" (Lewis in Miller and Steffen 1977:141).

The archaeological model used for this thesis was one proposed by South (1977) and adjusted by the author. Although the artifact assemblage is small when compared to the large site area, it does provide adequate data to test the adjusted Frontier Pattern as presented in Chapter 3.

The adjusted Frontier model is an attempt to merge South's Frontier Pattern with Sprague's artifact

classification system. The results of this adjusted pattern is presented in Table 30. The Champoege artifact pattern was determined by calculating only the cultural material which was collected from Blocks 1, 12, and 53 and Montcalm Street.

Table 30. Champoege Artifact Pattern.

	N Sample	%	Range	Frontier Range
Personal	560	13.9	7.2-20.6	13.6-32.0
Domestic	900	22.3	13.9-25.0	11.5-18.1
Architecture	2448	60.8	53.1-64.0	43.4-57.5
Transportation	2	0.04	.0-01.0	---
Commerce/Industry	100	2.4	0.7-11.0	6.8-11.7
Group Services	<u>11</u>	0.2	.0- 0.8	.0- 0.7
	4021			

The Champoege artifact pattern resembles the adjusted Frontier Pattern. The characteristic inverse ratio between architectural items and domestic is evident. As South explains "the increase in by-products associated with architecture in frontier situations might be the result from a shorter occupation period for each architectural unit of the frontier than in the settlements" (South 1977:146). At Champoege the length of occupation can at least be end-dated to 1861, making the occupation of any structure not more than about twenty years. And, as Atherton reported, the flooding actually buried a portion of the structures. By the action of the flood a more complete architectural record may have been preserved than if the buildings had been allowed to weather slowly or had been torn down to be used for new buildings.

The decrease in the number of domestic items when compared to the later "settlement" sites also needs

consideration. As South has suggested, this decrease may be the result "of the remoteness of the frontier from the source of supply...and might be paralleled by a decrease in the number of artifact classes making up the kitchen (domestic) group" (South 1977:146). The supply of goods to the Oregon country was limited through most of its early history. The influx of American settlers and merchants shifted the supplier from British to American goods by the 1850s, but the volume did not meet the market demand until after Champoege had been destroyed. The historic record documents the distance from supply centers, and the lack in variety or quantity of goods. Of the remaining artifact categories none are large enough to substantially contribute to any type of range because they are nearly non-existent. The sites South used to create his model seemingly had a higher variety of goods present than that which was found at Champoege. The lack of more functionally specific artifact groups may be due to the testing strategy or the distance from a consistent retail supplier for the residents.

In conclusion, Champoege is a historically recognized frontier community which also relates closely to an archaeological frontier model designed according to sites approximately 100 years older and several thousand miles away. The frontier model, with minor adjustments to meet a new classification system, remained a useful guide for comparing the material culture of two distinctly different areas of North America. In this instance, the artifact

group ratios were strikingly similar. The frontier experience as related by the archaeological record seems to transcend time or ethnic differences. The human experience of adapting to a new region, isolated from home trade centers, seems to be one that is shared and which has characteristics which can be tested and documented. Thus, the model created by South is an accurate measure of the material culture of a frontier community, and that community, be it in South Carolina or Oregon, has shared traits which are part of a recognizable cultural phenomenon.

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