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Preserving the Memory of those Perilous Times: Archaeology of a Civil War Prison in Blackshear, Georgia

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PRESERVING THE MEMORY OF THOSE PERILOUS TIMES: ARCHAEOLOGY OF A CIVIL WAR
PRISON IN BLACKSHEAR, GEORGIA

by

COLIN PARTRIDGE

(Under the Direction of Ryan McNutt)

ABSTRACT

In the closing months of 1864 Confederate prison authorities were forced to evacuate the large stockade prisoner of war (POW) camps at Millen and Andersonville, Georgia in the face of General Sherman's 'March to the Sea.' While attempting to evade Union forces, approximately 5,000 POWs were sent along the Atlantic and Gulf railroad in southeast Georgia, stopping just outside of the town of Blackshear. For three weeks prisoners and guards camped along a small tributary of the Alabaha River with only a few stakes to mark a deadline between them. No formal prison enclosure or fortifications were constructed and while escapes were frequent the majority of the prisoners would endure their stay before continuing down the line to Thomasville. In this thesis, I continue the investigation of site 9PR26 by further delineating the boundaries with metal detection survey. By examining the spatial distribution of the artifacts I attempt to determine the general layout of the camp and why this particular location was chosen as the site of a makeshift prison by its commander.

INDEX WORDS: Civil War prisoner of war camps, Conflict archaeology, Archaeology of internment, Metal detecting survey

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B.A., University of South Carolina, 2012

A Thesis Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of Georgia Southern University in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree

MASTER OF ARTS

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The American Civil War was an event that encompassed the entire nation. The most visible remnants of the conflict on the modern landscape are the battlefields, many of which have been preserved on both private and public lands and serve as memorials to those who fought as well as tools for interpreting the history of the war (Lees, 2002). However, a war, especially on the scale of the Civil War, is not contained within the fields on which armies fought. Those armies also require areas to train, camp, treat the wounded, store supplies, and hold captured prisoners of war (POWs). These sites are as abundant as the thousands of battle sites and with the aid of archaeological investigation can add to the developing interpretation of a conflict as a whole. The Confederate POW camp known as Camp Blackshear is one of those sites.

This study consists of archaeological investigations of Camp Blackshear through the use of metal detecting survey. The survey methodology employed for this study differs from those used on this and other Civil War sites but has become the preferred option for investigating nineteenth century military occupations (Balicki, 2011; Espenshade et al., 2011; Scott et al., 1989). Artifacts recovered as part of this study were analyzed in an effort to reconstruct the historic landscape of the camp to better understand how the prison operated in comparison with other Civil War prisons and encampments. By analyzing the unique history of this prison site and the results of the methods used in the archaeological investigation the author looks to contribute to the broader field of the archaeology of conflict and internment.

Blackshear prison was occupied by approximately 5,000 enlisted Union POWs, several hundred Confederate guards from the Second and Fourth Georgia Reserves, as well as several companies of Georgia State militia from the end of November through mid-December 1864 (Forno, 1899). The soldiers arrived in Blackshear by train, traveling from Savannah along the Atlantic and Gulf Railroad in an attempt to evade the Union army under General William T.

Sherman that had launched a campaign through Georgia in an effort to divide the Confederate states and disrupt the supply of its armies. Many of the prisoners that arrived at Blackshear had previously been held in Andersonville, a POW camp established in February 1864 located outside of Americus, Georgia (McElroy, 1879). A portion of the garrison and prisoners were transferred to Camp Lawton, another stockade prison located in Millen, Georgia constructed to alleviate the massive overcrowding of Andersonville, before being quickly evacuated to Savannah and Blackshear as Sherman's army began the 'march to sea' (Derden, 2012).

Unlike the other prisons the soldiers had occupied, Camp Blackshear did not have a built enclosure to contain the prisoners. It is unclear if existing structures were present during the occupation and to what extent the guards prepared a defense against possible Union troop movements (Smith, 1892:17). Many of the prisoners constructed shelters similar to those at Camp Lawton and Andersonville, using what material they had available (Long, 1886:110). These conditions left a unique impression on the POWs that is reflected in their diaries and memoirs and represents a change in the treatment of these prisoners that is so far unexplored in the historic record (Hosmer, 1896:17).

Immediately following the war, one of the more controversial topics was the treatment of prisoners by both sides during the conflict. In the North, Union veterans published accounts of their internment which were used as evidence of the cruelty of the Confederacy's leadership. Meanwhile those in the South claimed that while unable to provide adequate supplies to Union POWs, Union authorities were more than capable of preventing the deaths of thousands of Confederate POWs in northern prisons. Historians have since managed to provide a more objective view of Civil War prisons and their legacies (Cloyd, 2010; Futch, 1968; Hesseltine, 1930, 1972; Speer, 1997). However, a reliance on the historical accounts alone provides only a portion of the real lived experiences of these individuals. Archaeology becomes an integral part in understanding the events surrounding Civil War prisons.

It was not always apparent that archaeology could aid in the study of past conflict.

Historic accounts of battles fought, and maps prepared by officials based on those accounts were believed to be reliable enough sources of information that even prominent historic archaeologists did not think conflict archaeology was worth the effort. Ivor Noël Hume once wrote:

“Little can usefully be said about battlefield sites... the site will have little to distinguish it, except perhaps some graves and a scatter of hardware... there can be no meaningful stratigraphy (as far as the battle is concerned), and the salvage of relics becomes the be all and end all.” (as cited in Scott et al., 1989:188)

However, as technology progressed, the methodology for the archaeological investigation of conflict sites became more refined, which led to the development of more critical research questions. Analysis focused not only on the outcomes of individual battles but the aspects of culture that are reflected through conflict. Military lifeways reflect the culture in which they are based, and the study of military related sites can isolate characteristics of that culture for in depth analysis.

The primary method of locating and delineating historic sites of conflict is through metal detecting survey. As an archaeological survey method suitable for conflict studies, metal detecting in the U.S. got its start from the work of Scott (1989) at the battle of Little Big Horn. The study demonstrated the effectiveness of metal detecting in locating and delineating battlefield remains in the archaeological record. Conflict sites, particularly battlefield sites, are not well suited to traditional archaeological investigation methods of shovel test survey and block excavation because of the limited amount of subsurface archaeological features typically associated with them. The majority of artifacts deposited on historic conflict sites tend to remain in the upper layers of the soil and are most frequently metal. Therefore, metal detection survey provides an efficient means to investigate large sites of conflict.

Archaeologists have since adapted metal detection survey to the archaeology of Civil War encampments (Balicki, 2011; Geier et al., 2006). Although many camps were occupied for longer durations, military regulations at the time dictated that these sites were organized in a

specific layout and regularly cleared of trash and debris that would otherwise find itself in the archaeological record. As such, in order to locate and delineate these sites, metal detecting survey is employed to locate concentrations of material that could indicate specific features such as latrines or trash pits. Researchers have found that these features tend to be located in certain areas of a camp site in accordance with period regulations and the remainder of the camp can often be located by referencing these layout instructions (Whitehorn, 2006:37-40).

Civil War Prison Camps as Landscapes of Confinement

The American Civil War represented a new stage of confinement with the construction of what one historian has called America's concentration camps (Speer, 1997: xiv). Civil War prison camps were large complexes designed to contain a large number of POWs, preventing their escape and protecting them from recapture; they were a byproduct of a war that escalated beyond the scale of anything imaginable at the time. As such, the logistical planning for the occurrence of POWs before the war was far outpaced by the reality of the situation faced by both sides later in the conflict. The unpreparedness of prison authorities combined with total war tactics over the prolonged conflict would result in the high mortality rates experienced by Civil War POWs (Hesseltine, 1930).

By placing prison stockades at rural train depots, prisoners would be isolated from civilian populations and in unfamiliar territory (Davis, 2003). POWs were typically located within a central location of a prison camp often surrounded by a stockade wall. The stockade prisons were designed with exterior guard towers placed at regular intervals and manned by armed guards day and night. The presence of these towers and lack of shelter within the stockades left the prisoners exposed to the elements and the constant surveillance of the guards in their towers. Artillery positions were also placed around the camp. These protected the stockade from outside attack but also made it possible to fire on the prisoners inside (Derden, 2012; Futch, 1968). Twenty feet from the stockade wall inside the prison was a barrier known as the deadline (Speer, 1997). If a prisoner

crossed this line, intentionally or otherwise, they would be fired upon (Hesseltine, 1930). Outside of the stockade were camp facilities for the guards and their officers as well as a hospital and food preparation areas.

Investigations at Johnson's Island (Bush, 2011), Andersonville (Prentice and Mathison, 1989; Prentice and Prentice, 1990), and Camp Lawton (Chapman, 2012; McNutt, 2016) look to better understand how the war resulted in the creation of these sites and what effect the camps had on the lived experiences of the people who occupied them. Blackshear prison has been categorized as an open area or barren ground prison where POWs were concentrated in a specific area and surrounded by a guard detail. This type of prison was most frequently used by Confederate forces late in the war when large groups of POWs were being transferred from various locations across the South. Other sites of this nature include Camp Sorghum in Columbia, South Carolina, Camp Verde near San Antonio, Texas, and to some extent Bell Isle located in the James River outside Richmond, Virginia. While these sites exhibit similar characteristics of an open area prison, each is uniquely adapted to the local landscape to provide the most efficient encampment for the guards while maintaining control over the prisoners (DePratter et al., 2011; Speer, 1997; Thoms, 2004).

Previous Work at 9PR26

Camp Blackshear, site 9PR26, is situated along the banks of a small tributary of the Alabama River known as Mill Branch (Figure 1.1). The creek is fed by a natural spring located to the north of the site. According to Wood et al. (2017), the location of the site is historically proposed to be just north of the City of Blackshear, adjacent to Highway 203. A historical marker was erected along the highway in 1955 documenting the location of the prison and its history. Much of what was known about the prison and its location before archaeologists visited the site was gathered by local historians and members of the Pierce County Historical Society. John Walker Guss, former president of the society, conducted interviews with several local residents who had connections to those who could recollect details about the prison dating back to the Civil

War occupation. The general consensus of these interviews is that the location of the prison is where the original 1955 historical marker was placed. The interviewees also noted the presence of a cemetery associated with the prison being in an old stand of trees on top of the hill east of the marker (Guss, 1990, 1999 as cited in Wood et al., 2017).

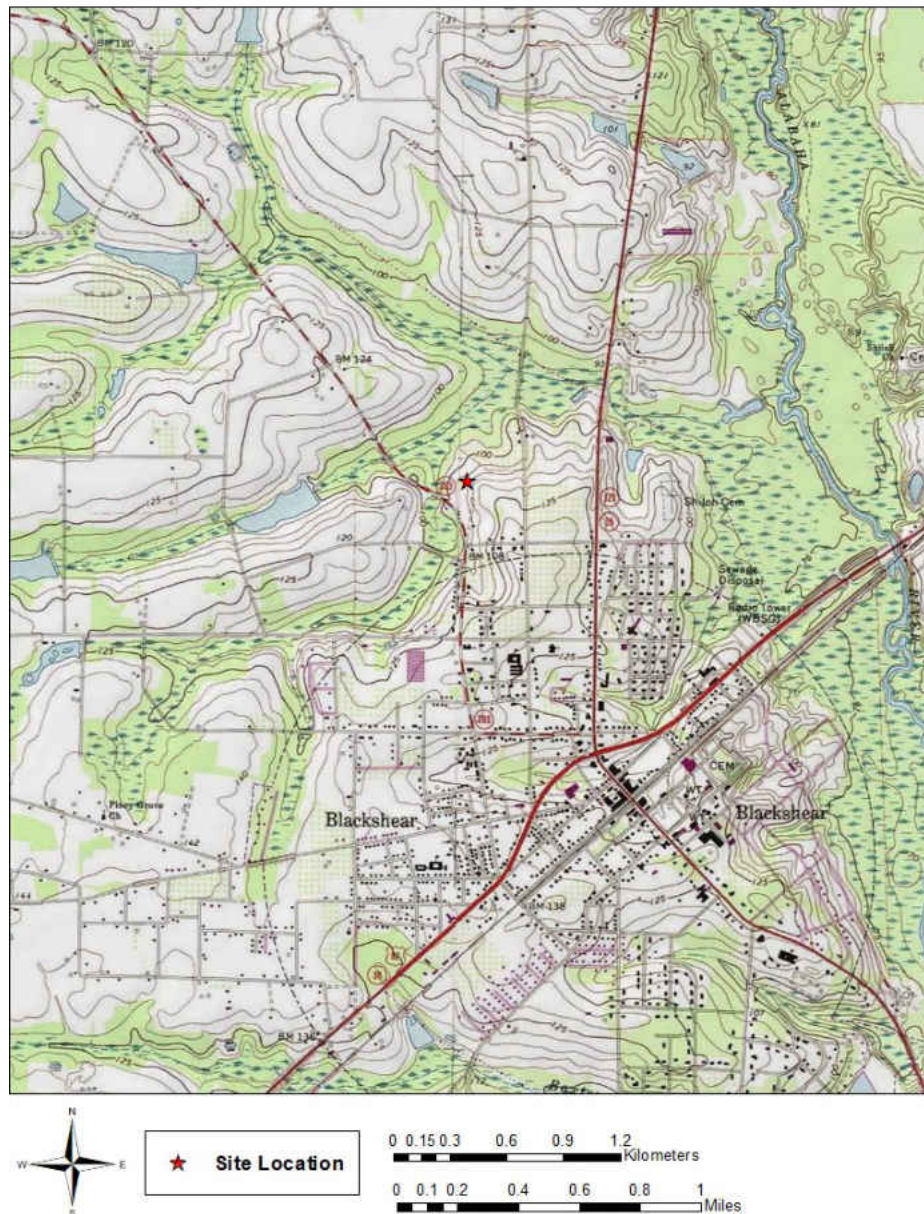


Figure 1.1: Site Location

The descriptions of the prison location by the residents interviewed by Guss correlate with those of Nellie Stewart, an inhabitant of Blackshear born in 1847. According to her account the prison was located near Wards Chapel, under a hill leading to the brick kiln pond (Stewart 1915, as cited in Wood et al., 2017). Wards Chapel was originally built in 1898 and was renamed Ward Memorial United Methodist Church in the 1940s; the building is located along Highway 203 just south of the historical marker. The current site location is on a low ridge that slopes down towards the junction of Mill Branch and another tributary of the Alabama River, Gully Branch.

Stewart also mentions the presence of Union graves throughout the town from both the prison occupation and the post-war U.S. Army occupation. Records of the exhumation and reburial of these soldiers from Blackshear were obtained by the Pierce County Chamber of Commerce and document the recovery of twenty-seven bodies, eight of which are noted as being located near the former prison site. The descriptions of these burials include references to the prison being located approximately one mile from the town and near land belonging to a Mr. Grady (Wood et al., 2017). Grady Street is located running parallel to the eastern boundary of the current site location approximately 130m (435 ft) from the southeast corner of the site and may have been used as the original road to the prison from town.

The descriptions of the prison location and geographic setting correlate with accounts from the POWs themselves. A total of seventeen prisoner accounts were referenced during the research for this project almost all of which describe the prison as being located approximately a mile from the railroad tracks, in a stand of open pine, near a stream. Wood et al. (2017) notes that the prisoner's descriptions of the town of Blackshear do not adequately match the known historic layout with many prisoners recounting the relatively small size and lack of buildings. This description may indicate that the prisoners were removed from the train before entering the town proper and marched to an out of the way area. Wood et al. (2017) also note that none of the accounts mention the crossing of a stream during their approximately one-mile march into the

woods, meaning they likely followed the banks of the Alabama River and its tributaries placing them near the junction of Gully Branch and Mill Branch.

The POWs describe the prison as being an open area near the stream and lacking any form of stockade.

“... I kept looking for another duplicate of Andersonville, but none appeared. When we were brought to a halt, about a half a mile from the railroad track, it was on the bank of a good-sized stream in a body of tall, open pine timber.” (Smith, 1893:257)

They describe the prison area as being guarded on all sides with stakes being placed at regular intervals to mark the prisoner occupation area. One POW describes the general size of the prisoner occupation area.

“...we were marched across the railroad track and about two hundred yards beyond onto a piece of land shaped like a gourd, about five acres in extent and nearly surrounded with water.” (Lightcap, 1902:62)

Although the POW accounts do mention several prisoner deaths at Blackshear, there is no mention of a camp cemetery or burial ground.

The site was first visited by archaeologists in 2007 at the request of local community members and the Pierce County Board of Commissioners who were interested in preserving the site through purchasing portions of the property. Dwight Kirkland and archaeologists from Southeastern Horizons, Inc. were consulted to do a walkover of the property which included the historically purported camp and cemetery location. While no excavation was carried out during this first visit, Kirkland did suggest the potential for future study and the Board of Commissioners purchased 2.7 acres of the property including the possible cemetery tract in 2008. Looking to expand their preservation and interpretation efforts, county officials reached out to Georgia Southern University (GSU) archaeologists Dr. Sue Moore and Dr. Lance Greene inviting them to conduct archaeological survey of the County owned portion of the property (Wood et al., 2017). The GSU archaeologists were interested in the site due to their involvement with the Camp Lawton Archaeology Project, an ongoing research agreement between Georgia Department of Natural

Resources, U.S. Fish and Wildlife, and GSU concerning the investigation of site 9JS1, the Confederate POW camp located outside of Millen, GA (McNutt, 2017).

In March 2013 Dr. Greene led the preliminary field investigations at Blackshear with a group of student volunteers. After establishing a local 100m (328 ft) by 160m (524 ft) grid, the team conducted limited shovel testing and metal detecting survey which resulted in the discovery of several artifacts dating to the 19th century. One of these finds was a U.S. Army general service button, a good indication of the Civil War occupation. The reported cemetery area was not included in the survey area so as not to disturb potential graves. Dr. Greene returned in July of that year with the GSU summer archaeology field school to conduct more extensive survey and test excavations. The primary goal of the early site visits was to determine the location of the camp and assess the integrity of the archaeological remains. The survey consisted of shovel test excavations placed at a 20m interval across the site and systematic metal detecting also at 20m intervals. Additionally, five 1m x 1m test units were excavated to better define potential cultural features located during the shovel test survey (Wood et al., 2017).

The summer field investigations resulted in the discovery of additional 19th and 20th century artifacts related to the prison and post-war occupation. A review of historic plat maps would reveal the location of an early 20th century house site at the end of Confederate Road adjacent to Highway 203. Remains from the 20th century component are scattered across the entirety of the site along with more modern material such as fence wire, shotgun shells, and fired bullets. Artifacts related to the camp include three Civil War era buttons, a .69 caliber musket ball, and a railroad spike, possibly scavenged by a POW and brought to the prison area. The test unit excavation uncovered two cultural features; the first was a linear trench feature running roughly north/south and parallel to an existing fence line. No artifacts were recovered from the feature making it difficult to determine if it was related to camp activities or post dates the Civil War occupation. The second was a large burn feature with evidence of possible reuse. No artifacts were

recovered from the feature, but several Civil War period artifacts were recovered nearby which indicates the feature could be related to the camp. POW accounts describe large fires burning around the perimeter of the camp at night to serve as watchfires; cooking fires would also have been common. The camp was reportedly burned by the guards upon evacuation which could also result in the formation of this feature (Wood et al., 2017).

In 2014, after being alerted by the Pierce County Historical Society and Chamber of Commerce, the Georgia Trust for Historic Preservation listed the Blackshear Prison site as one of its historic “Places in Peril” due to the property being privately owned and unprotected from future development (Williams, 2017). Efforts to purchase more of the site for preservation were led by current president of the Historic Society and Executive Director of the Chamber of Commerce, Angela Manders. GSU Archaeologists were encouraged to return to the site in the summer of 2017 to conduct additional systematic metal detecting survey on the property in question. Dr. Ryan McNutt, who took over directing the Camp Lawton Archaeological Project from Dr. Greene, led the week-long survey.

Based on the data recovered during the field work of 2013, as well as a terrestrial LiDAR scan conducted in 2016 by GSU archaeologist Dr. Jared Wood, and additional document research by Inger Wood in 2016, three survey grid blocks were established further downhill and closer to the stream in an attempt to locate suspected prisoner occupation areas (Blackshear Excavation Archive, 2017). Metal detecting transects were placed at 10m intervals within each grid block to achieve 25% ground coverage. Two 50m by 50m (164 ft) grids located in an open pasture produced large amounts of modern shot and fence wire with sparse evidence of a 19th century occupation. The third grid was 50m by 30m (98 ft) and was located along the base of the hill. Grid 3 contained two .32 caliber shot consistent with a buck and ball load known to be carried by Confederate reserve troops. A harmonica reed was also found nearby indicating the presence of

a possible guard picket location (Blackshear Excavation Archive, 2017). A prehistoric element of the site was located in the northern grid blocks closer to the creek.

While the previous studies successfully located evidence of the Civil War camp occupation, the extent of the site remained unclear. After comparing results from the 2013 and 2017 field work it became clear that metal detecting survey would be the most effective survey methodology going forward. Encouraged by the local community and the Pierce County Chamber of Commerce, additional archaeological survey was called for on the remaining site property to determine the boundaries of the prison.

Methods and Significance of this Study

This study is a direct continuation of the previous work to delineate Camp Blackshear and identify the integrity of the archaeological remains. The current project will also be used to better understand the benefits and limitations of the systematic metal detecting survey methods employed. The primary research goals of this project are to further delineate the Civil War occupation through metal detecting survey and identify specific areas of prisoner and guard occupation. The location of specific features related to the camp such as shelter remains, latrines, or a deadline may indicate the general layout of the prison and associated guard encampments. The main focus of the research is:

- Determine the layout of the camp and why this particular site was chosen for either military, prison, or basic camp needs.
- Identify the main prisoner and guard occupation areas to determine the spatial proximity between the two groups and the overall size of the camp.
- Offer comparisons between Camp Blackshear and other POW camps in Georgia, including Camp Lawton and Andersonville.

There are several challenges to the interpretation of Camp Blackshear, such as the lack of structural remains present in the archaeological record due to the limited timeline of the Civil War

occupation. Furthermore, the material culture available to both groups, Union and Confederate, is likely to be similar given the limitations of supply. The Confederate guards were better able to supplement their rations with foraged goods, but clothing and shelter items were limited for both groups. A camp sutler was not present at Blackshear unlike the previously occupied prisons of Andersonville and Camp Lawton and it is unknown how often the camp was resupplied and to what extent. Determination of the Confederate guard's regimental camp layout based on period regulations may also be challenging since the regiments present at Blackshear were Georgia State Reserve troops. These troops lacked the formal training and discipline of front-line units whose camps have been investigated previously (Bilecki, 2011; Reeves and Grier, 2006). The identification of specific contexts within the site will aid in the understanding of how these groups, prisoners and guards, interpreted the standards of camp construction at the time and how the construction of the prison camp at Blackshear was adapted to local conditions. This history is of great importance to both the local inhabitants of Blackshear as well as the larger sphere of American history and the history of conflict.

In the following chapter I will provide a review of the archaeology of Civil War prisons and encampments and how the American Civil War represents a new stage of confinement. I will also outline the history of Civil War prisons and how Blackshear came to be. In Chapter 3 I will discuss the methods used in the field work and how they compare with other examples of conflict archaeology, as well as the methods of analysis and how artifact patterning influences the interpretation of the use of the landscape during the Civil War occupation. Finally, I will present my results and discuss the archaeological integrity of the site and what the recovered materials can tell us about Camp Blackshear.

CHAPTER 2

CIVIL WAR PRISONS, ENCAMPMENTS, AND THEIR ARCHAEOLOGY

Introduction

During the American Civil War, fought between the United States and the Confederate States of America 1861-1865, as many as 410,000 soldiers were captured on the battlefield and incarcerated behind enemy lines (Speer 1997, xiv). At the start of the war neither side had devoted a significant amount of time or planning to the treatment of POWs. The Federal government, under President Abraham Lincoln, attempted to avoid legitimizing the Confederate government by agreeing to a formal system of prisoner exchange while the general opinion on both sides was that any hostilities would be short lived and result in few casualties or captured enemies. After the battle of Bull Run the logistic realities of the conflict regarding POWs became apparent as about one thousand retreating Union soldiers were captured by the Confederacy (Hesseltine, 1930).

In the first year of the war, prisoner exchange was organized by field commanders who frequently swapped captured enemies under a flag of truce shortly after an engagement. Prisoners taken in the first years of the war could expect to be exchanged within a few weeks of being captured and either side held no more than a few thousand prisoners at a time (Bush, 2011; Speer, 1997). A formal system of prisoner exchange was not agreed upon and signed until July 1862, a year and a half into the war. Known as the Dix-Hill Cartel, this system was modeled after a similar exchange established during the War of 1812 and allowed captured prisoners to be paroled back home and reentered into the army after they had been exchanged with a prisoner from the other side (Hesseltine, 1930). Prisoners were assigned an exchange value determined by their rank, meaning that officers were exchanged for each other, or a set number of enlisted men. Exchanges were to take place at specific locations and were organized by agents appointed by both sides to oversee each transfer (Hesseltine, 1930).

During the early war years, POWs that were transferred behind the front lines often found themselves in city jails or pre-war forts. Prisons such as the Old Capital Prison in Washington, DC were ready built and able to accept moderate numbers of captured enemy soldiers. As the battles continued through the summer months of 1862 and 1863 the number of captured POWs began to outpace the exchange system causing pre-war prisons to become overcrowded. Converted warehouses and tobacco barns, such as Libby Prison and Castle Thunder in Richmond, VA, began to be used to house prisoners as both sides implemented plans for the first purpose built prisoner of war camps of the conflict (Speer, 1997).

By Spring 1863 the system of prisoner exchange began to break down. The Union was deploying African American units into the field, and the Confederacy refused to treat these soldiers the same as white POWs. Instead, the Confederacy declared that they would enslave any captured African American troops and execute their commanding officers. The Union, therefore, refused to return any Confederate soldiers they captured, effectively ending the exchange process in the summer of 1863 (Hesseltine, 1930: 115). The total number of POWs held by both sides would begin to grow exponentially in the following months.

Recognizing the need for large scale POW camps, both governments authorized their prison authorities to acquire tracts of land far removed from the front lines. Confederate president Jefferson Davis tasked General John H. Winder, commander of all Confederate prisons in 1864, with the construction of a new prison in the interior of Georgia “where prisoners might be supported at moderate cost” (Davis, 1899). The result was Andersonville, a stockade prison enclosing 16 acres designed to hold up to 10,000 enlisted Union POWs. Also known as Camp Sumter, the prison was located outside the town of Americus and began accepting its first POWs in February 1864. A second stockade was constructed outside of Florence, South Carolina later that same year. Similar camps were constructed in the North including Elmira in New York and Point Lookout in Maryland. Officers were held in separate camps to avoid organized resistance among

the prisoners. The Confederacy constructed an officer's prison in Macon, Georgia and later Columbia, South Carolina while the Union held enemy officers on Johnson's Island in Lake Michigan (Speer, 1997).

As purpose built POW camps the design and layout of these prisons differed from those already in use. These camps were designed to isolate a large number of enemy soldiers from the current conflict until such time they would be exchanged or hostilities end. These prisons frequently held a larger number of POWs than the number of troops in the garrison. Therefore, several features of the camp were designed to deter escape or resistance, primary among which was the location of the prison far behind enemy lines and away from cities or towns to further isolate the POWs (Davis, 2003).

Other common features of these camps include a centralized prison area surrounded by a stockade or enclosure with controlled access points through which prisoners and supplies were moved. Along the top of the wall were guards either stationed on a parapet running the length of the enclosure or in regularly spaced towers allowing for clear fields of vision from the base of the stockade across the prisoner area. Sometimes a second stockade was built around the outside of the prisoner area to prevent escape via tunneling or breaching the first wall. Approximately twenty feet from the stockade wall inside the prison was a barrier known as the deadline (Speer, 1997). A low rail fence or stakes with string tied between marked an area of no man's land that prisoners could not enter lest they get too close to the stockade wall. If a prisoner crossed this line, intentionally or otherwise, they could be fired upon by a guard in a tower or along the top of the wall (Hesseltine, 1930). Artillery positions and additional fortifications were established around the outside of certain camps to protect the stockade from outside attack but also made it possible to fire on the prisoners inside serving as an additional deterrent to organized resistance.

The main difference between the POW camps in the North and the stockade prisons in the South was that, beginning with the construction of Andersonville, the Confederate prison

authorities struggled to acquire and construct additional facilities aside from the stockades themselves. Northern prisons, like Johnson's Island, Ohio, consisted of several barracks built inside the stockade to shelter prisoners. Each block house had a mess hall and sleeping areas with a sheltered latrine out the back. One block house served as a hospital for prisoners inside the stockade (Bush, 2011). The guards were also housed in barracks structures outside the stockade. The stockade at Andersonville, on the other hand, was barren. POWs were left to construct their own shelters out of what material they had with them when they entered the stockade and what timber they were able to harvest themselves (Futch, 1968). Known as shanties and 'shebangs', these prisoner huts would become common features at prisons throughout the South later in the war (Speer, 1997).

The supply of rations would also become a problem in Southern prisons. After Andersonville was constructed in February 1864 a Union army under the command of General Sherman began a campaign through Georgia to disrupt the war making ability of the Confederacy by cutting supply lines and destroying its industry (Sherman, 1891). Already struggling under the coastal blockade and loss of access along the Mississippi River, the ability of Confederate prison authorities to adequately supply rations to the growing number of POWs under their control was increasingly limited. Andersonville, which was originally designed to hold as many as 10,000 prisoners, would swell to over 30,000 POWs interred during the summer months of 1864, leading to high mortality rates. Overcrowding, a lack of supplies, and rampant disease led to the deaths of approximately 12,000 prisoners during the prison's entire occupation (Futch, 1968).

Supply of men was also at a premium in the Confederate army and by 1864 earlier losses were becoming more noticeable. At this point in the war Confederate labor was in short supply and the army was struggling to fill the ranks. The Confederate government passed a conscription law in 1862 requiring all white men between the ages of 18 and 32 to enlist. One of the groups exempt from mandatory military enlistment were men who owned twenty or more slaves, an exclusion that

angered many of the conscripts who did not own slaves. By 1864 that law had been expanded to the ages of 17 and 50 (Hesseltine, 1930). Most of the troops furnished to guard prisoners came from reserve regiments and state militias, which represented the extreme ends of the age spectrum as well as those deemed unfit for frontline duty. Reserve troops frequently supplied their own arms and equipment and were generally less trained and less disciplined than regular army troops (Derden, 2012).

In response to the death toll at Andersonville in the summer of '64, General Winder ordered a new stockade to be constructed outside of Millen, Georgia to alleviate the overcrowding. Incorporating the same prison architecture and defense characteristics employed at Andersonville, Camp Lawton was completed in October 1864. The stockade enclosed 42 acres, over twice the area of Andersonville. A natural spring running through the center of the camp provided fresh water, but problems in acquiring rations for the POWs continued. As many as 10,000 prisoners were transferred to the new prison via Savannah but their stay would be cut short as General Sherman and his Union army, which had occupied Atlanta in September, began their 'March to the Sea' (Derden, 2012).

It was at this time that the main Confederate army operating in Georgia, now under General Hood, maneuvered around Sherman's army in an attempt to draw it north into Tennessee. Ignoring this development, Sherman, encouraged by General Grant, continued his campaign towards Savannah forcing the remaining Confederate forces in front of him to retreat (Sherman, 1891). Without knowing the exact destination of Sherman's army, the Confederates were forced to evacuate the prisoners from Andersonville and Camp Lawton. As described in the historical accounts, this was a period of massive confusion exacerbated by Union cavalry raids on Confederate lines of transportation and communication (Davenport, 1977; Hosmer, 1896; Lightcap, 1902; McElroy, 1879). Camp Lawton was abandoned in late November 1864, and the POWs were moved to Savannah by rail. The Confederate guard forces then used the Atlantic and Gulf Railroad

to travel from Savannah to Thomasville and/or the rail to Charleston in the hopes of avoiding recapture. The plan was to eventually relocate the prisoners to Alabama or South Carolina depending on which railroads had not been cut by Union forces (Forno, 1899).

In the pre-dawn hours of November 22nd, 1864, the remaining POWs were ordered out of the Camp Lawton stockade and boarded railway cars heading for Savannah. After traveling all day, they arrived after dark and were divided into smaller groups to be put aboard trains headed north to Charleston and eventually the prison outside of Florence, or south along the Atlantic and Gulf railroad to Blackshear. 5,000 POWs and a portion of the Camp Lawton garrison would travel down the railroad on whatever trains were available to take them. Along the way there were breakdowns and delays caused by rail traffic bringing more Confederate reinforcements to Savannah. It would take another whole day and part of the night to travel 80 miles from Savannah to Blackshear (Long, 1886; McElroy, 1879).

Camp Blackshear

The town of Blackshear was incorporated in 1859 and is named after General David Blackshear, a U.S. Army engineer who oversaw the construction of a road through Pierce County during the War of 1812 (Guss, 2001). The town was established along the route of the Atlantic and Gulf Railroad which was built to connect the coastal railroads of Savannah and Brunswick to the Gulf of Mexico through South Georgia. Work on the railroad was suspended at the breakout of the war and the line extended only from Savannah to Thomasville. According to Wood et al. (2017), at the time the prisoners arrived in Blackshear the county seat "...had over three hundred households, a courthouse, a hotel, at least one store, and a two-story multipurpose "Academy"..." (Wood et al. 2017: 117).

Upon the arrival of the first prisoners to Blackshear station late in the day November 23rd, 1864, a decision was made by the camp's commanding officer, Colonel Henry Forno, to establish a makeshift camp north of the town. After spending the first night on the tracks, the

POWs and guard garrison were marched approximately one mile north, likely following the Alabama River in search of a suitable camp site. For a more complete summary of the locating of the camp through local and historic documents see Wood et al. 2017. Although privately owned, the land on which Camp Blackshear was established is described as being a “thick pine wood” (Ames, 1969) with no agricultural activity or existing structures mentioned in any of the POW accounts. After arriving in their new camp site, the prisoners began constructing shelters similar to those used at Camp Lawton and Andersonville.

“[November] 24, Drew a little hard bread-three small crackers to each man. Were moved about one mile from R.R. and camped in thick pine woods. Did not get anything more to eat. Prisoners begin to fell trees to build “Shebangs”. Man knocked down by falling tree.” (Ames 1969:9)

The daily diaries kept by some of the POWs while at Blackshear capture the confusion of the situation and the complete disorganization of the camp now that the prisoners were not bounded by walls (Ames, 1969; Shearer, 1864; Umstead, 1986). Much of the talk around camp was focused on the prospect of exchange. With the rapid and continued movement of the prisoners near established sites of exchange, such as Fort Pulaski Savannah, many POWs believed that a general exchange was imminent in order to avoid recapture of POWs by Sherman’s army. The Confederate authorities encouraged this rumor of exchange partially because it helped pacify and control the prisoner population by removing the desire to attempt escape if an exchange was to occur soon (Speer, 1997). However, there was also active prisoner exchange being conducted out of Savannah as reported by Forno in his December 7th letter to General Winder (Forno, 1899). The exchange appears to have been limited to only the most sick and destitute prisoners.

Colonel Forno knew that the camp at Blackshear could only hope to contain the 5,000 POWs under his charge for so long and immediately began requesting orders to commandeer passing trains to move the prisoners to a more suitable place of confinement. Two days after establishing a prison in the pines several POW diaries and Col. Forno report that approximately 1,042 prisoners were sent by rail from Blackshear back to Savannah to be forwarded on to the

stockade at Florence (Ames, 1969; Forno, 1899; Shearer, 1864; Umstead, 1986; Urban, 1882).

Much excitement was generated within the camp as the guards attempted to organize the POWs into divisions in order to better issue rations and move prisoners when need be. Divisions of 100 were formed and several were then selected to go outside the main prison into a secondary gathering area and sign a parole. On November 26th after the first division of 1,000 was sent away a second was called out to sign a parole and prepare to embark to Savannah (Ames, 1969; Shearer, 1864; Umstead, 1986).

Meanwhile organization within the camp was becoming an issue. Since the POWs from Lawton were so hastily divided at the rail depot in Savannah, Col. Forno did not know exactly how many POWs were in his camp. With no stockade and only a guard line preventing prisoner escape, small handfuls of POWs began to run the line at night. Usually these prisoners were tracked down the next day: being underfed, sparsely clothed, and likely suffering from a number of ailments it would be difficult for a POW to make it back to friendly lines on foot (Vaughter, 1881). It is also likely that none of the POWs had much of an idea about where they were or which way they could travel to reach any elements of Sherman's army at the time.

Therefore, a camp reorganization was performed on the 29th of November. The reorganization process required the prisoners to stand and be counted for much of the day as they were once again split into hundredths and then into larger divisions. Once the count was completed the Confederates realized that they had been issuing a higher number of rations to include more POWs than were actually present within the prison. Upon arriving at Blackshear most of the POW accounts state that they were given two crackers or hardtack as their daily ration after getting off the train and during the first week spent in the camp (Ames, 1969; Shearer, 1864; Umstead, 1986). By a process known as "flanking" many of the prisoners report they were able to receive their ration and then get back in the ration line to receive another without being caught by the guard. This same technique was being used in an attempt to join the divisions being escorted out of the

main camp to board the trains headed for the exchange. That same day the second division of 1,000 POWs boarded trains bound for Savannah.

According to several of the POW accounts on November 30th a prisoner was mortally wounded after being shot by a guard for crossing the deadline (Ames, 1969; Shearer, 1864; Smith, 1892; Umstead, 1986). These accounts state that this is the only occurrence of such an action while they were interred at Blackshear. Although this type of incident was more frequent inside the stockades of Andersonville and Camp Lawton, at Blackshear it appears to be more of a rarity. The accounts suggest the presence of a barrier established around the main prison area and connecting to the creek where the prisoners sourced their water and claim the prisoner inadvertently crossed the deadline which was represented by a series of stakes driven into the ground.

No record of the total number of casualties suffered by the prisoners or guards at Blackshear is in the historic record. Although many POWs recount how their rations improved by flanking and that they were glad to be out of the stockades and in open green landscape, it was still the middle of winter and the weather remained cold and rainy. Some of the POWs report burying prisoners that did not survive the journey to Blackshear adjacent to the railroad the first night of their arrival (Urban, 1882). Other than the incident of the shooting, however, there is not much mention of other POWs dying in camp or a grave detail being selected. According to various accounts approximately 750 prisoners died while at Camp Lawton where 10,000 POWs were interred for three months. If the mortality rate remained the same (approximately 8 per day) that would mean 141 men died at Camp Blackshear. Even if the death rate is reduced it can be assumed that more than one POW died in the encampment. Post-war reburial efforts account for 8 graves removed from Blackshear that may have been associated with the prison (Wood et al., 2017).

On December 2nd the second division of 1,000 POWs previously taken out for exchange returned to Camp Blackshear (Ames, 1969; Shearer, 1864; Umstead, 1986). This resulted in a drop in morale as exhibited in the POW memoirs. They felt as though they had been lied to about a

general exchange and that their best hope now was in the form of recapture by Sherman's army or an end to the war (Long, 1886). In fact, it was because of Sherman that the prisoners were returned to Blackshear. According to his memoirs and a series of dispatches in the Official Record of War of the Rebellion, Sherman knew that prisoners were being transferred out of the line of march of his army. He had reached Millen on December 2nd but his cavalry, under General Kilpatrick, had informed him on November 27th that the stockade had been abandoned (Sherman, 1891). He then ordered Kilpatrick in pursuit of the prisoners and the cavalry made it as far as the Altamaha River where Confederate forces had burned the Atlantic and Gulf railroad bridge, the only available crossing (Sherman, 1899). Thus, the trains sent by Col. Forno on Nov. 29th were forced to return, arriving on Dec. 2nd.

With only one direction left to travel, Col. Forno sent 1,600 POWs by rail to Thomasville on December 5th and set in motion plans to construct an earthwork stockade. His December 7th letter to Gen. Winder is the first time he had been able to get in touch with his commander. In his letter he describes the difficulties faced in attempting to transport prisoners, maintain the garrison, supply the camp, and prevent escape. He describes his attempts to move the entire prison to Thomasville and construct some form of prison there including an enclosure (Forno, 1899).

The remaining POWs were evacuated from Camp Blackshear on December 10th. Interestingly a few accounts remark that the prison area was subsequently burned to prevent any POWs from attempting to hide and get left behind (Long, 1886; Umstead, 1986). The last POWs out of Blackshear arrived at Thomasville on the 12th of December but their stay would not be long. By December 20th Savannah was captured by Sherman's army and there was no longer any need to construct a new prison at Thomasville. Andersonville had been spared destruction by Union forces and the stockade was still intact. The POWs that survived the evacuation of Camp Lawton and the month-long flight through southeast Georgia would find themselves back behind the walls

of Andersonville on Christmas Day, 1864 where many would see out the remainder of the war (Futch, 1968).

Archaeology of Civil War Prisons and Encampments

Studies conducted on Civil War prisons have relied on the use of archaeological survey and historic records to identify different areas of occupation within these large site contexts. Many Civil War prison complexes are documented historically through drawings and photographs allowing archaeologists to pin point areas of interest, such as the stockade entrance at Andersonville (Prentice and Mathison, 1989) or the prisoner barracks at Johnson's Island (Bush, 2000). Each of these contexts provides unique information about the occupation as a whole and can be identified through material culture. For example, the presence of medicine bottles and surgical equipment may indicate the location of a hospital, whereas expensive ceramics and bottle glass could indicate officer quarters (Reeves and Geier, 2006). Prisoner areas and guard areas should exhibit different material remains which can then be compared to each other and the historic record.

While supplies were sparse in Southern prisons late in the war, prisoner areas are hardly devoid of material remains (Wood et al., 2017). While rations were limited, many prisons had a sutler within the walls providing additional supplies to POWs in exchange for pay (Hesseltine, 1930). There was also illicit trade between prisoners and guards, as well as shipments of supplies from home or the U.S. sanitary commission. Prisoners often traded buttons and 'greenbacks' for food, alcohol, and tools (Long, 1886: 96-97). Evidence of the POW occupation can be found in the remains of shelters, latrines, and wells. Many of the materials within prisoner areas are well worn and reused, exhibiting the necessity for basic items needed to replicate the military camp life with which captured soldiers were familiar (Bilecki, 2011; Chapman, 2012; Prentice and Prentice, 1990). Close examination of material remains can provide researchers insight into the lived experiences of the POWs.

Bush, in his study of the latrines on Johnson's Island for example, attempts to categorize prisoner behavior based on the material remains and documents of their experiences (Bush, 2000). He states that three common choices are available to POWs when faced with imprisonment: "resistance/escape, survival, and collaboration to full assimilation" (Bush, 2000:70). Evidence of these behaviors are exhibited through features such as escape tunnels located within wells and latrines out of view of the guards, black market trade items such as alcohol bottles, faunal remains of vermin eaten to avoid starvation, and the regular adherence to camp rules through policing. It can be argued that POWs are not limited to one of the three behaviors but frequently make choices that exhibit multiple ones simultaneously.

In his memoir, John W. Urban of the 1st Pennsylvania Reserve Infantry Regiment recalls the burial of fellow POWs immediately before the evacuation of Camp Lawton.

"Some might think that it was a hard thing to rob the dead of the little covering on them; but it is truly said that "self-preservation is the first law of nature," and the prisoners tried to justify themselves by the thought that their poor comrades had passed through their sufferings... it could be no harm to take what they had to better their own condition."
(Urban, 1882:453)

Not long after this recorded incident Urban assisted members of his regiment with the burial of one of their company along the railroad tracks at Blackshear and claims to have saved letters from the soldier to his family for delivery after the war. He then willingly boarded another train destined for Savannah on the guise of transporting prisoners to a general parole. Despite no parole being accomplished many POWs continued to travel with their captors and comrades during this period rather than attempt escape. Urban's experiences demonstrate the uncertainty of the situation faced by prisoners in captivity and how they adapted their behaviors accordingly.

Guard occupations are represented by defensive structures, camps, and prison facilities such as the mess hall and hospital. While not on guard duty, these troops were regularly drilled and spent time improving their living conditions within camp (Hesseltine, 1930, Speer, 1997). Like many other facets of army life, regulations were employed for the proper construction and layout of

encampments. Two guide books, one by General Winfield Scott and the other by Lieutenant Colonel William Hardee, were widely used by officers on both sides of the conflict during the Civil War (Whitehorne, 2006). These guide books mapped out where members of each regiment should be located within a camp and how much space should be between each company, the officers, the mess, latrines, and even where prisoners are to be held. The layout is intended to make access to the camp simple for resupply while also ensuring that when the regiment is required to move as a whole, they can break camp in an organized manner in order of march (Whitehorne, 2006).

Certain prisons also made attempts to organize the layout of the POW area in accordance with camp guidelines. Northern prisons were regularly structured due to the presence of prisoner barracks. Southern stockade prisons on the other hand were less organized. Andersonville had only one main street from which rations were distributed, while General Winder's original plan for the construction of Camp Lawton included company streets for better organization of POWs into units called Hundredths (Derden, 2012). The layout of guard encampments and interior (inside the stockade) POW areas can have important implications for the archaeology due to the regular policing, or trash pickup, of camps. By regularly clearing camp sites of debris and designating specific areas for shelters, streets, latrines, and trash pits, 19th century military camps take on a unique archaeological signature. Material culture tends to be very sparse outside of these designated areas and heavily concentrated within certain features depending on length of occupation (Corle and Balicki, 2006).

Archaeologists investigating Civil War era camps have determined that the majority of these sites are situated in accordance with the recommended guidelines. Therefore, by identifying select features, such as latrines, there is a noticeable pattern of space between subsequent features across the entire site (Corle and Balicki, 2006). The camp regulations were followed in the same format regardless of which unit was occupying the camp or where the camp was located, either on the front lines or in the rear, at POW camps for instance. Minor adjustments are made for terrain

and size of the units occupying the camp. Camp organization was drilled into the soldiers in order to establish uniform and efficient camp construction across the entire army (Reeves and Grier, 2006, Whitehorn, 2006).

Material culture associated with Civil War era camps includes objects carried by individual soldiers that may not be present on battlefield sites. Arms and equipment as well as clothing items are joined in the record by ceramics, glass bottles, and architectural materials such as nails used to modify structures. Armies in the field were issued tents to serve as easy to assemble structures while in camp, however, as seasonal armies that campaigned in spring and summer and camped during the winter, tents were often modified to include a floor, higher walls, a hearth, and a chimney during prolonged winter encampments (Legg and Smith, 1989). In an undisturbed context, remains of these structures are readily apparent on the landscape (Reeves and Geier, 2006).

While Blackshear prison camp was occupied during the winter of 1864, the short occupation period does not lend itself to the construction of elaborate winter quarters by the prisoners or guards. The overall layout of the prison would have been adapted to its location, but it is unknown how closely the guard camps would have adhered to the guides and regulations. As the Confederate forces consisted of poorly supplied and poorly led reserve and militia troops their camp discipline may appear different in the archaeological record. Other features of both prisons and camp sites may be absent from Blackshear entirely, such as latrines, wells, and escape tunnels due to the lack of a stockade. Therefore, it can be assumed that the majority of artifacts associated with the camp occupation will be in the plowzone, not unlike a battlefield site. When the surface remains of a Civil War encampment are no longer visible, archaeologists can utilize metal detecting to locate and delineate camp sites (Corle and Balicki, 2006).

Metal Detecting Sites of Conflict

As a geophysical survey method, metal detecting can aid in the location and delineation of historic sites based on the frequency of metal artifacts present. It has become the primary

method associated with investigating battlefields and other sites of conflict for this reason. When operated correctly a metal detector can indicate where archaeologists can excavate and what type of excavation is best suited for the area, whether individual shovel tests at metal signal locations or test unit excavation. Like other geophysical survey methods, metal detectors provide data on what kind of material is in the ground and the decision can then be made to ground truth the information with excavation. Although not a new technology and relatively inexpensive compared to other geophysical survey devices, metal detecting has been slow to catch on as an accepted methodology in archaeology. Archaeologists have shied away from using metal detectors in the past due to a contentious history of metal detecting being associated with amateur treasure hunters and looters as well as the base knowledge entry barrier of successfully utilizing the technology (Scott, 2014). There is a certain level of technical training that must be undergone to successfully operate a metal detector and several important factors to consider when planning to use metal detecting on an archaeological site.

Metal detectors work by emitting a low frequency signal from the coil at the base of the rod. This signal can penetrate the ground up to 30cm depending on the model used. If a metal object is encountered the signal is reflected back to the coil and the machine sounds an alert. For the best results the coil needs to be no more than one inch above the ground surface. The detectorist swings the detector in an arc in front of them as they walk, covering approximately 1.5-2 meters in the swing. Therefore, metal detectors work best in clear open ground to allow for maximum ground coverage and ground penetration (Scott et al., 2012; Scott, 2014).

The most common metal detectors used by archaeologists are what are known as very low frequency detectors (VLF). A VLF detector works by emitting an electrical current into the ground as a continuous sine wave and measures the difference in conductivity between the ground and various objects in the ground. Objects with high conductivity interrupt the frequency emitted by the detector which results in a tone or signal (Scott, 2014). Metal detectors need to be ground

balanced in order to block out the natural conductivity in the soil and better distinguish when they encounter metal artifacts. Different types of metal have different conductivity and metal detectors are able to discriminate or block the signal from certain types of metal based on the average conductivity of those types (Skaggs and Severts, 2012). This can be used to detect around areas with a lot of modern trash which usually contains aluminum or historic sites that may contain building debris such as nail clouds.

VLF metal detectors typically have a depth range of 20-30 centimeters. Higher end detectors can produce more frequencies allowing for more accurate discrimination or metal identification and can increase the depth of detection (Scott and Fox, 1987; Scott, 2014). The type of metal detector used can influence the results of the survey. Higher end metal detectors perform differently but also tend to be less user friendly. Older metal detectors may need to be balanced more frequently and can produce more false signals (Espenshade et al., 2011). The amount of modern trash on site can influence the decision to use discrimination but discrimination also blocks out potential historical artifacts.

If metal detecting is to be used on a project the type of ground needs to be considered as well as the size of the research area and the level of disturbance. Modern trash can obscure or mask historic artifacts and is common on both urban and rural sites. Other considerations include the timeline, budget, number of crew, and their experience in metal detecting for the project. Crew experience becomes vital if they are operating the metal detector due to the level of training involved. Varying levels of training with metal detecting survey amongst professional archaeologists can result in different methods applied in the field and inconsistent reporting. Archaeology sites that do not receive the same treatment become more difficult to compare to each other, potentially limiting their research value.

When conducting metal detector survey archaeologists refer to ground coverage as a percentage of the area being investigated. 100% coverage means that overlapping transects were

walked over with a metal detector so that the entire ground surface in the survey area received at least one pass with a metal detector. The percentage becomes smaller when intervals are put between transects similar to shovel testing. Unlike shovel testing the entire transect is still covered with the average swing width of 1.5-2m. It is well known that 100% coverage is not possible due to the fact that the electrical current emitted by a VLF detector is cone shaped and at maximum depth only a portion of the entire coil width is actually receiving the signal in the ground (Espenshade et al., 2011). There is also the presence of natural obstacles such as trees and rocks that will inevitably block the transect path.

However, there continues to be a tendency when reporting metal detecting results to refer to 100% coverage and also treat it as the ideal, similar to data recovery (Balicki, 2011; Skaggs and Severts, 2012). An argument can be made that on certain sites too much metal detecting can result in skewed data pictures. If only one type of material is recovered from the site further work on the site will have to take that into account. There is also a high amount of variability in the capability of different metal detectors and the use of discrimination in the field. Efforts to control this variability can be seen in recommended practices by those who have pioneered the use of metal detecting in the field of archaeology (Espenshade et al., 2011; Scott et al., 2012; Scott, 2014).

Scott, most notably known for his work on the Little Bighorn Battlefield project, has described a method of metal detecting survey that can be applied on a broad scale (Scott and Fox, 1987). That method recommends the use of marked transects across the transect area that are to be metal detected bi-directionally with the aid of guides to keep the detectorists on track. Signals are marked by the detectorists with flags that are then excavated by a recovery team. The second group follows the metal detector and excavates the signals recording depth, soil, and position with a sub meter accurate GPS unit. A variation of this method was used in this research project and is detailed in the next chapter. Importantly, the methodology used for the current study is the same that was used during the 2017 field season. By using the same methodology on different areas of the site the

materials recovered during those studies can be compared to one another when making interpretation about specific contexts, such as identifying prisoner areas versus guard areas. With limited structural remains expected on site, the different frequencies of material culture may be the only way to recreate the historic landscape and layout of the camp.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

This project will follow a methodology influenced by The Georgia Council of Professional Archaeologists (GCPA) Standards and Guidelines for Archaeological Survey as well as other tested methods for battlefield and military camp survey across various time periods and geographic locations (GCPA, 2019; McNutt, 2016; Scott and Fox, 1987). The metal detector survey was conducted in four 50m x 50m grid blocks, referenced as Grid 1-Grid 4, established in the western portion of the site (Figure 3.1). A baseline was established running due south from the south east corner of the 2017 field season Grid 1 terminating at the tree line containing the remains of an early 20th century house site, a distance of 195m. The grid blocks for this study would be positional along the baseline to the east and west maintaining a north south orientation. A site datum was placed at the center of the baseline south of 2017 Grid 1 and north of the house site at UTM coordinates: zone 17 381117.133m E 3465625.486m N (NAD 83). This survey used a localized grid system using the site datum as a center point, 5000N 5000E.

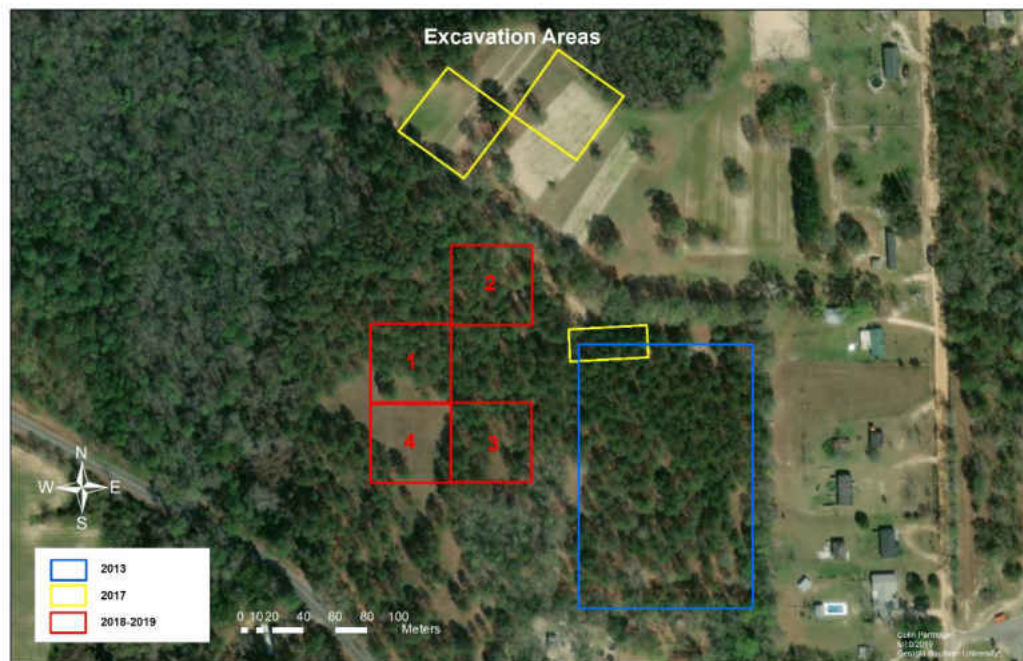


Figure 3.1: 2013-2019 excavation areas

Within each grid block six transects were laid out oriented north south at 10m intervals starting at the southern edge/ line of the grid block. The width of each transect is approximately 1.5m, the width of an average single swing of a metal detector. This survey strategy is designed to provide a representative sample of the artifacts present across the site. The north and south end of each transect was recorded with a Trimble R2 GPS unit capable of sub-meter accuracy and differential correction. Each transect was clearly marked with pin flags to aid the detectorists in maintaining their respective lines. The detectorists swept each transect bi-directionally, starting from the south end and turning around to go back over the same transect at the north end.

When a detectorist received a signal indicating the location of a metal object, that location was marked with a pin flag. After each transect was fully detected the researchers went back to the flagged locations and excavated a round, 15-30 cm diameter shovel test. Excavated dirt was screened through ¼” mesh in order to increase the chances of locating non-metal artifacts of archaeological significance. A small, handheld metal detector, known as a pinpointer, was used to aid in the recovery of small metal objects. Each shovel test was dug until the original metal find was located at which point the back dirt and hole were swept over with a metal detector to check for the presence of additional metal artifacts before refilling. All recovered artifacts of archaeological significance were collected, had their provenience recorded, were assigned a field specimen (FS) number, and had their location documented using the Trimble GPS described above.

The metal detectors used included the Garrett AT Pro and White’s Spectra V3. Both are VLF detectors with double-D wound coils. The Garrett has a depth penetration of +20cmbs and the White’s can penetrate up to 30cmbs. Due to the increased sensitivity of the White’s model they were only operated by the most experienced crew members. No discrimination was used on the metal detectors. Because this method uses a 10m transect interval only 25% of the ground within each 50m x 50m grid block was surveyed. Therefore, the artifacts sampled will only reflect 25% of the potential material on site making the targeting of specific material unnecessary.

However, there were limitations to the no discrimination sampling method. The soil at this site is very ferrous due to a high frequency of small concretions which contain iron oxides. These concretions can interrupt the signal of the metal detector causing false hits. In order to adjust to local conditions, the metal detectors used in this project were ground balanced several times a day during field work. Both the Garrett and the White's were set to near maximum balance value to counteract the highly ferrous soil.

Another limitation encountered was the high frequency of non- significant metal objects that had been deposited at the site over the decades since it had been occupied during the Civil War. These included soda cans, modern shot and shell casings, and barbed wire fencing. The fencing is associated with agricultural activity on the site starting in the early 20th century. Barbed wire was not invented until the 1880s and by 1900 had become a common feature of many farmsteads across the county (McCallum and McCallum, 1965). A 1938 aerial photograph of the site documents several fence lines that were likely constructed with wire crossing the immediate project area. The presence of the 20th century house site and associated outbuildings also contribute to the potential masking of Civil War period artifacts with the presence of nail clouds.

The majority of the metal detecting for this project was done by the author, who before working on this project had completed 80 hours of supervised metal detecting training during the Spring and Summer 2017 GSU field schools at Camp Lawton. The remainder was completed by undergraduate students, all of whom had previous field experience through the field schools taught at GSU as well as classroom instruction on the theory and application of metal detecting survey within the field of archaeology. The methodology detailed above can be a benefit when working with more inexperienced detectorists. The 50m length and even spaced transects makes it easier for detectorists to stay in their respective lanes. It also makes supervising a small group of surveyors easier by bounding them within the grid blocks; no student is detecting more than 50m from a supervisor at any time. By not using discrimination or headphones each signal is readily heard and

can be interpreted by both detectorists and supervisors. No discrimination also makes setting up each machine, particularly the Garrett AP Pro, simpler. Once the metal detector has been properly ground balanced and the settings adjusted to include no discrimination, the training of new detectorists can focus on identifying and pinpointing different signals encountered in the ground.

During the field work portion of this project all material was returned to the Archaeology lab at GSU for rough sorting and cataloging. Each artifact was assigned a unique catalog number in addition to its prerecorded FS. Cataloging and artifact classification was performed by the author. With the majority of recovered material being ferrous metal, conservation techniques were applied to stabilize these artifacts. The least invasive approach to conservation was applied on each ferrous metal artifact including the removal of corrosion through manual brushing, air abrasion, and electrolysis. After removing corrosion the artifacts were soaked in a sodium bicarbonate and deionized water solution to remove salts and chlorine before being dried in an oven at 350° for 30 minutes to remove moisture. The artifacts were then coated with a paraloid B-72 (acrylic resin) solution to seal out environmental conditions. Any ferrous metal artifacts that could not withstand heavy corrosion removal or were minimally corroded were soaked, dried, and coated in the same manner described above.

Summary Results of the Metal Detector Survey

The metal detecting survey was conducted in four grid blocks that covered a 10,000 square meter area (2.47 acres) of the site. 199 metal detecting hits were excavated and recorded resulting in 260 total artifacts recovered. The majority of the recovered artifacts were square cut nails, round wire nails, and fence staples (n=139). Several camp related items were also recovered including two brass U.S. Army general service eagle buttons, two knapsack rivets, a grommet, two rail road spikes, a utensil handle, a knife blade, and a watering bit for horses. Non-metal artifacts included a porcelain sherd, an ironstone sherd, two white ware sherds, 12 glass fragments, and two

small brick fragments. The non-metal artifacts and other non-camp related finds likely postdate the Civil War occupation and are associated with the early 20th century house site.

Soils at the site consist of Tifton loamy sand. This soil type is found on interfluvial landforms with little to no slope and is considered prime farmland due to its well-draining features (USDA, 2019). The stratigraphy across the site was uniform, with a plowzone layer of 10YR4/2 dark grayish brown loamy sand extending in depth from 25cm to 35cm below the ground surface (cmbgs), followed by a 10YR5/8 yellowish brown fine sandy loam extending to 45cmbgs and finally a subsoil of 10YR5/8 sandy clay loam underneath. As mentioned above, iron oxide concretions were present at all levels ranging in size from 1-10cm in diameter, with larger concretions containing enough iron to be detectable with the remote sensing equipment used.

Metal detecting hit FS#187 located in Grid block 4 on transect 5 uncovered the only feature located during the metal detecting survey. Several large corrugated metal sheet fragments were detected and excavated along with clear glass bottle fragments and a historic ceramic fragment. Soil stains below the plowzone indicated the presence of an in-situ deposit, designated Feature 1. A 1m x 1m test unit (TU 1) was placed over the original shovel test and oriented to grid north. The unit was excavated using arbitrary 10cm levels. Levels 1 and 2 were located in the plowzone and contained sheet metal fragments, historic ceramics, and bottle glass. Plow scars were evident at the base of Level 2 at the transition to stratum II.

Feature 1 was encountered in level 3 at 30cm below datum in the western half of the unit. The feature was excavated as its own provenience (context) to a depth of 53cm. The remaining unit matrix was excavated to sterile soil. The majority of artifacts recovered from TU 1 (n=501) were recovered from Feature 1, a cigar shaped, hand dug trench oriented north west to south east. The feature fill was interpreted as a single deposit in an open ditch that was subject to several silting episodes before being covered by the plowzone. The feature was determined to post-date the

Civil War camp occupation and is associated with the 20th century house site based on analysis of the materials recovered which will be discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Following Wood et al. (2017) the artifacts recovered during the metal detector survey and unit excavation were sorted by material and assigned a chronological period dating to the Civil War or post-dating the Civil War (Wood et al., 2017:148). The artifacts were also assigned an activity group after South (1977) which attempts to identify the past functional use of an artifact (South, 1977). By assigning activity groups to the collection it is hoped that comparisons can be made to previous field season excavations within the site and with other similar sites of this type. While originally designed for domestic sites in the southeast region, South's classification system has been modified by other researchers to better compare Civil War period occupations (Legg and Smith, 1989; Avery and Garrow, 2008). In this instance the author decided to use a system adapted by Avery and Garrow (2008) in the analysis of a phase III data recovery of portions of the Florence Stockade (1864-1865), Florence, South Carolina. The primary adaptation made in this system is the inclusion of accoutrements and other, personal weapon types in the arms category as well as the use of the activities category as a catch-all for task specific and indeterminate items (Avery and Garrow, 2008:13).

The overall artifact profile from the metal detector survey is dominated by architecture group artifacts that make up 55.38% of the total assemblage, followed by the activities group which makes up 24.23% and, the kitchen group at 15.38%. The test unit and feature excavation resulted in 50% kitchen group artifacts and 49% activity group artifacts. Several of South's original activity groups were not represented in the collection including personal items, tobacco related items, or furniture items. While these groups are not highly represented on other Civil War period campsites (Avery and Garrow, 2008), the methodology employed for this survey likely impacted the types of material recovered by selecting for metal objects.

The following results will reflect the artifact patterning from the metal detector survey broken down by activity group (Table 4.1). Spatial distribution will then be discussed by survey grid 1-4 (Figure 4.1) and compared to the 2013 and 2017 survey areas (Table 4.3). The results from the test unit and feature excavation will be discussed separately.

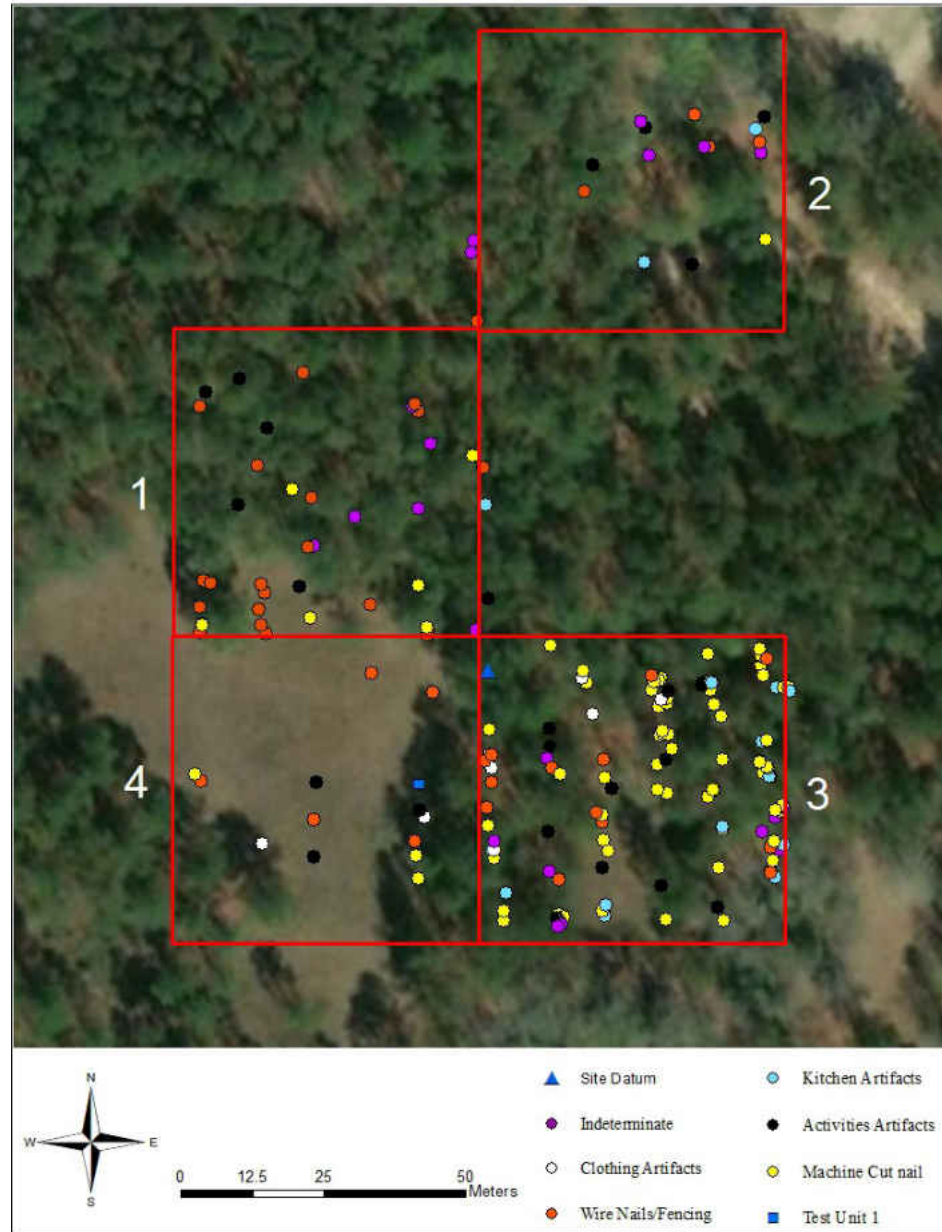


Figure 4.1: Map showing distribution of artifacts across the 2018-2019 project area

Artifact Patterning

	Type	Count	Period
Architecture	Brick	2	Post-Bellum
	Fencing	9	Post-Bellum
	Flat Glass	2	Post-Bellum
	Hardware	1	Post-Bellum
	Lead-Head Nails	1	Post-Bellum
	Round Wire Nails	35	Post-Bellum
	Square Cut Nails	81	Unknown
	Unknown Nail	13	Unknown
	Total	144	
Activities	Fuel	1	Post-Bellum
	Hardware	20	Unknown
	Horse Tack	1	Civil War Period
	Indeterminate	15	Unknown
	Sheet tin/tinned iron	23	Unknown
	Tool	1	Unknown
	Wagon/Machine part	2	Post-Bellum
	Total	63	
Kitchen	Can	21	Unknown
	Ceramic	4	Post-Bellum
	Container glass	11	Post-Bellum
	Container lid	1	Post-Bellum
	Cooking vessel	2	Unknown
	Utensil	1	Civil War Period
	Total	40	
Clothing	Buttons	2	Civil War Period
	Fasteners	6	Civil War Period
	Total	8	
Arms	Modern bullet	2	Post-Bellum
	Shot	2	Post-Bellum
	Shell casing	1	Post-Bellum
	Total	5	
	Total	260	

Table 4.1: Artifacts recovered in metal detecting survey by activity group

Architecture Group Artifacts

The majority of artifacts recovered during the metal detecting survey were those related to architecture (n=144). Among these artifacts, nails (n=130) dominate the collection making up 50% of the total artifacts recovered during survey followed by fencing material (n=9), brick

fragments (n=2), flat glass fragments (n=2), and a door hinge. The fencing material included in the collection are bent, wire, fence staples that post-date the Civil War occupation becoming common in the securing of barbed wire and other wire fencing during the late 19th century continuing to the present (McCallum and McCallum, 1965). Small fragments of wire fencing, including twisted barbed wire, were frequently encountered along every transect during the metal detecting survey. Having been determined that the wire fencing post-dates the Civil War occupation, these items were not collected or recorded on artifact distribution maps. Fence lines are present crossing the survey area in a 1938 aerial photograph of the property being used to separate fields and access roads and are currently erected on the site between property boundaries.

Of the nails recovered the majority were machine cut square nails (n=81) which are diagnostic to the 19th century (Avery and Garrow, 2008). However, it cannot be determined how many of these square nails are associated with the Civil War occupation or the later farmstead. Although replaced by round wire nails in the early 20th century, square nails continued to be used or recycled from older structures well into the 20th century (Fontana et al., 1962). Round nails (n=35) were recovered in all four survey grid blocks along with the square nails. Thirteen nails were not able to be identified as round or square due to excessive corrosion and one lead-headed roofing nail was recovered from Grid block 3. While categorized as architectural artifacts not all nails were used in building structures or fences. During the Civil War many different types of supplies were issued to troops in the field using wooden crates, including food, ammunition, and personal packages. Both the U.S. Army and the Confederate Army had regulations regarding the types of nails used in supply crates (McNutt and Jones, forthcoming).

Nails are historically categorized by pennyweight, which is a reference to how much a certain length of nail costs by the pound. The most common nail sizes used for supply crates during the Civil War were between 1" and 2" or 4d and 6d pennyweight (McNutt and Jones, 2020). While the majority of nails recovered were fragmentary, 46 square nails were able to be measured

for pennyweight (Table 4.2). The highest percentages of nails recovered by pennyweight are 2d, 4d, and 3d. The pattern is suggestive of the presence of supply crates, but it must be noted that the common cut nail was produced in all of those sizes and could be used for fencing, flooring, and siding of buildings as well (Fontana et al., 1962). While the historic documents support the presence of ration crates and even supplies from the U.S. Sanitary commission within the camp, given the post-war occupation the high percentage of square nails is not diagnostic of camp activity without more specific context (Ames, 1969; Umstead, 1968).

Pennyweight	Count	%
2d	11	23.91
3d	7	15.21
4d	11	23.91
5d	2	4.35
6d	6	13.04
7d	4	8.70
8d	1	2.17
10d	2	4.35
12d	2	4.35
Total	46	100.00

Table 4.2: Square nail pennyweight count and percentage

Activities Group Artifacts

The activities group included a variety of items (n=63) that do not belong in the other functional groups but represent a wide range of material. The items are organized into several subgroups, after Avery and Garrow (2008), with the majority of the recovered items being sheet tin/tinned iron fragments (n=23). Tinned sheet iron was used in the manufacture of a variety of items during the mid-19th century including cans, food tins, cooking vessels, buckets, etc. (Avery and Garrow, 2008:214). Many of these items were common during the Civil War as they were

mass produced in a cost-efficient manner and durable enough to survive the conditions of field use. Due to the fragmented nature of these artifacts their original function cannot be determined (Figure 4.2).

The hardware category (n=20) includes various fasteners, nuts, heavy wire, a six-link chain, a large buckle, and other items that represent a number of functions not specifically associated with the other activity groups. Of note in this category are two railroad spikes recovered in grid block 3 (Figure 4.3 and 4.4). With the site being located over a mile from the railroad, the presence of these railroad spikes could indicate an instance of scavenging for useful items by POWs as they traveled from the railroad to the campsite. This theory was also posited by Wood et al. with the discovery of a railroad spike in the 2013 survey area (Wood et al, 2017). All three railroad spikes have different dimensions and characteristics which could indicate a morphological change over time or, given the nature of the Atlantic and Gulf Railroad as being unfinished during the Civil War, a characteristic of using whatever spikes were on hand for track repairs and construction during war time. The spikes may also have been scavenged from different points along the line or from the depot.

Other activities group items include a plowshare fragment, a cultivator blade fragment, a pointed knife blade that is categorized as a tool, charcoal fuel, and a piece of horse tack identified as a watering bit that likely dates to the camp occupation (Figure 4.5) (Crouch, 1995). Fifteen total artifacts were categorized as indeterminate as they were unable to be identified by the author.



Figure 4.2: Sheet tin fragments, Catalog # 43.01



Figure 4.3: Railroad Spike, Catalog # 133.01



Figure 4.4: Railroad Spike, Catalog # 84.01



Figure 4.5: Watering bit/ Horse tack, Catalog # 81.01

Kitchen Group Artifacts

Kitchen group artifacts made up 15% of the collected material (n=40) with the majority of those items being can fragments (n=21). The can fragments consist of sheet tin rim and body fragments similar in appearance to the other sheet tin/tinned iron artifacts recovered across the site. However, the can fragments were identified as kitchen artifacts because they were excavated as a single provenience from the same shovel test and the rim fragments appear to form a circular rim of a can lid or cup base. Not far from the can artifacts in the same grid block (2), a ferrous metal utensil handle was found. The utensil handle could belong to a spoon or fork and matches those used during the Civil War period (see Figure 4.6).

Container glass (n=11) was the second most common type of kitchen group artifact recovered. This category is represented by small, individual fragments recovered alongside other metal objects during the metal detecting survey. No diagnostic characteristics were observed on the glass other than color with nine clear glass, 1 amber glass, and 1 aqua glass fragment recovered. It should be noted that six of the clear glass fragments were recovered from FS#187 which is the location of TU 1.

There were 4 ceramic sherds recovered including an undecorated porcelain fragment (n=1), undecorated ironstone (n=1), a white ware cup handle fragment (n=1), and an undecorated white ware flatware base fragment (n=1); the latter was recovered from FS#187. Although the glass and ceramic are underrepresented due to the collection strategy employed during the survey, the density does appear low given the proximity to a twentieth century house site.

Other kitchen items include iron cooking vessel fragments (n=2); although too fragmented to identify to type, the overall shape suggests cooking vessel use. An aluminum container lid (n=1) was also discovered in grid block 3 belonging to a bottle of Mitchell's Eye Salve, a common eye remedy available from ca. 1848-1930 (Anderson et al., 2015). The aluminum twist top lid indicates a later date, post-war.



Figure 4.6: Utensil handle, Catalog # 57.01

Clothing Group Artifacts

A total of eight items recovered were categorized as belonging to the clothing group making up 3.1% of the artifacts recovered. Clothing group artifacts include buttons (n=2) and other fasteners (n=6). The two buttons recovered were both two-piece, non-ferrous metal alloy, U.S. Army general service buttons that date to the Civil War period (Figures 4.7 and 4.8). The first is a cuff size button with a spread eagle and shield design on the front produced by Scoville & Co, a button manufacturer based in Waterbury, Connecticut that had been contracted to produce U.S. military buttons since 1854 (Tice, 1997). The second button is a larger coat button with a spread eagle and shield design with the letter “T” on the shield designating the wearer as a member of the infantry. The letter designation was adopted by the U.S. military in 1821 but by 1854 it was reserved for officers while the enlisted wore a blank shield (Avery and Garrow, 2008:205). Since Blackshear was a camp for enlisted POWs it is possible that this button belonged to a Confederate officer with pre-war U.S. military service.

The six other fasteners in the clothing group consist of a grommet (n=1) (Figure 4.9), a strap adjuster (n=1), rivets (n=2) (Figure 4.10), and a rivet with a small finial at one end (n=1). All of these items are made of non-ferrous metal alloy and are interpreted as likely dating to the Civil War occupation. While they have been categorized as clothing it should be noted that fasteners such as those listed above were used on a wide variety of things including haversacks, tents, and various accoutrements (Avery and Garrow, 2008, Legg and Smith, 1989). The grommet is .5" (14 mm) in diameter and is consistent with the type used for rubber blankets (also known as ponchos) and groundsheets (Babits, 1995).



Figure 4.7: U.S. Army General Service Button, Catalog # 71.01



Figure 4.8: U.S. Army General Service Button, Catalog # 136.01



Figure 4.9: Grommet, Catalog # 82.01



Figure 4.10 Alloy Rivet, Catalog # 159.01

Arms Group Artifacts

A total of five arms group items were recovered making up 1.9% of the total assemblage. The arms group included bullet fragments (n=2), lead shot (n=1), and a shell casing (n=1). Upon further examination in the lab these items were determined to post-date the Civil War occupation and are associated with the 20th century house site and later land use. The bullet fragments have a copper jacket and lead core, a technology not available until 1882 (Wood, 2003). The lead shot also exhibits patina of a more modern ammunition and the shell casing fragment is a similar size to modern .22 casings located during the survey that date to the 20th century.

Spatial Patterning

In order to better understand the layout of the prison camp the spatial distribution of artifacts was compared to the 2017 and 2013 research areas (Table 4.3). The idea being that the different excavations areas may represent different functional areas of the camp. According to POW accounts the prisoners were kept in a relatively small area of approximately five acres, bordered by the stream for easy access to water, and located under a hill from which the Confederates were able to train artillery down on the prisoner area (Lightcap, 1902; Smith, 1892). The 2013 survey area is located to the east of the current project tract on the upper section of the same landform overlooking the stream. The 2017 project area is located in open pasture below the hill, bordering the stream to the north as well as on the lower slopes of the hill. The current project area is located to the west of the site with the site boundary incorporating all three (Figure 4.11). The site boundary is based on the recovery of Civil War related material and does not include the entirety of the archaeological material present at the site including the prehistoric and 20th century elements.

Comparisons in artifact distribution of these areas indicate several similarities and some unique outliers that may contribute to identifying the prisoner and guard occupations within the camp. It should be noted that the methodologies used for the 2013 survey differ from those used in 2017 and 2018-2019. The metal detecting survey conducted in 2013 was not completely systematic and used a 20m interval for the majority of the survey area. The equipment used in 2013 also differed from the metal detectors used in 2017-2019 which contributed to the overall lack of ferrous metal recovered during the earlier survey work.

The 2017 project area contained mostly activities group artifacts including indeterminate ferrous metal fragments and miscellaneous hardware. The architecture group and activities group of the 2017 project area are similar to those recovered from Grid 4. Grid 2 also contains a similar percentage of architecture material but a higher percentage of kitchen artifacts, however, the

presence of kitchen artifacts is largely attributed to sheet tin/ tinned iron as described above.

Suggested occupation patterns for these locations is further described below.

Grid Block 1

Grid Block 1 is located in the tree line north of the open field adjacent to GA highway 203. The terrain slopes down toward the north from the field and into the creek 20m north of the grid block. 44 total artifacts were recovered from this area with the majority being nails (n=26). A fence line is visible running northwest to southeast across the grid block in the 1938 aerial photograph of the site. Overall the artifact density in this area was low with no definitive Civil War period artifacts recovered. A few artifacts that could be related to the Civil War period include thin, non-ferrous metal band fragments (n=3), a ferrous metal fragment with a rounded edge, and a semi-circle, tapered ferrous metal band all cataloged as indeterminate.

This area represents a possible western boundary of the camp as it is located near the creek and the artifact density is low including no definitive Civil War related artifacts. It has also been heavily impacted by post-war agricultural occupation.

Grid Block 2

Grid Block 2 is located at the base of the hill just south of the property boundary separating the 2018-2019 survey area and the 2017 survey tract. The grid block contained the least number of artifacts recovered (n=38) with zero artifacts recovered along transect 2. The majority of artifacts were cataloged as belonging in the kitchen group with 21 can fragments and one utensil handle recovered at the north end of transect 6. These items were recovered in close proximity within 10m of each other and could be related to the Civil War camp occupation. The other artifacts recovered likely date to the post-war period and are associated with agricultural use.

Grid Block 3

Grid Block 3 was the most dense area of the survey containing 53% of the total artifacts recovered via metal detecting (n=138). The dramatic increase in density compared to the other

survey grid blocks is due to the proximity to the 20th century house site immediately south of the grid block. 71% of the artifacts recovered in this grid block were cataloged in the architecture group. Several outbuildings are visible on the 1938 aerial photograph of the site as well as additional fence lines. These structures were either dismantled or collapsed after the abandonment of the house site resulting in the large amounts of nails and scrap metal encountered during the metal detecting survey. The presence of this material masks the earlier camp related artifacts which are also present in this grid block at the crest of the hill overlooking the creek and open field to the north. 6 clothing group artifacts, including the two U.S. general service buttons, as well as the railroad spikes and horse tack were recovered from this area of the site. These items are definitive Civil War period artifacts and may indicate the presence of the Confederate guard occupation or items dropped by POWs as they were moved into and out of the prison area.

Grid Block 4

Grid Block 4 is located adjacent to Grid Block 3 and Grid Block 1 and is in the open clearing to the west of the site. Here the artifact density drops off with only 40 total artifacts recovered during metal detecting survey. The presence of fence wire and other modern debris was also reduced compared to the rest of the survey area. Two artifacts have been cataloged as likely Civil War related including a brass alloy rivet and a brass alloy rivet with attached finial. Both are either clothing items or associated with the various accoutrements carried by soldiers at the time.

This area may have also been located along the western boundary of the camp as suggested by the limited number of artifacts. However, this area is also close to a public highway which provides easy access to the site. The Blackshear Prison historical marker is located along the highway adjacent to the property boundary and the current landowner has reported both legal and illegal metal detecting activities in this area of the site. It is possible that this portion of the site has been subject to past relic collecting activities that reduced the overall artifact density.

Test Unit 1

Grid Block 4 also contains the only feature identified during the metal detecting survey (Figure 4.12). FS#187 consisted of sheet tin fragments, corrugated sheet metal, and clear container glass fragments associated with a trash pit feature later excavated as test unit 1 (TU 1) (Figure 4.13). TU 1 contained 5 levels and extended to 55cm below datum before sterile soil was encountered (Figure 4.14 and Figure 4.15). Feature 1 was a shallow, linear trash pit visible 20cm below datum under the plow zone in level 3 and extending to level 4. The profile of the feature indicated a single fill episode that was then left open to the elements resulting in flooding and eventually being covered by plowed soil. The artifacts recovered from Feature 1 (Table 4.4) were mainly kitchen items including 8 partial and whole glass bottles, can fragments (n=54), table glass (n=3), and ceramics (n=6). Many of the items appeared to be contained under a crushed bucket which accounted for the majority of activity group items (n=192). Several of the glass bottles were identified to date of manufacture including two Coca-Cola bottles dating from ca. 1913-1917. Overall the artifacts recovered from Feature 1 were determined to date to the early 20th century and were likely related to the nearby house site.

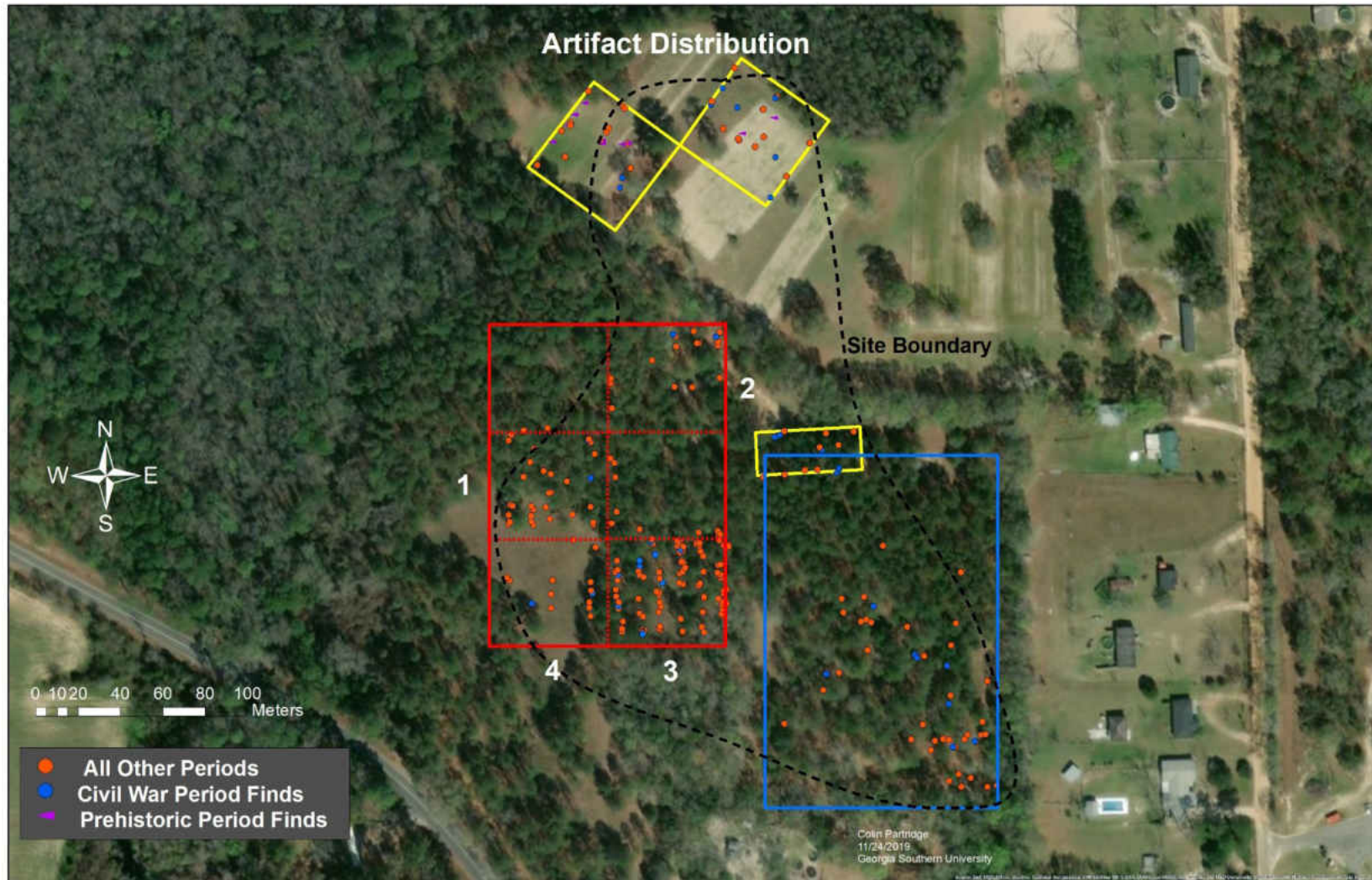


Figure 4.11: Artifact distribution and site boundary

	2018-2019 Project Area Total	Grid 1	Grid 2	Grid 3	Grid 4	TU 1	2017 Project Area Total	2013 Project Area Total
Architecture	55.38	65.91	21.05	71.01	22.5	0.6	21.21	11.11
Activities	24.23	27.3	13.16	17.4	55	49	60.6	29.63
Arms	1.92	4.54	7.89	0	0	0.2	12.12	46.3
Kitchen	15.38	2.27	57.89	7.25	17.5	50	3.03	1.9
Clothing	3.1	0	0	4.35	5	0.2	1.52	11.11
Personal	0	0	0	0	0	0	1.52	0

Table 4.3: Artifact distribution by activity group represented as a percentage

	Type	Count	Period
Architecture	Square Nails	2	Unknown
	Sheet metal	1	Post-Bellum
	Total	3	
Activities	Fuel	49	Post-Bellum
	Hardware	4	Unknown
	Sheet tin/tinned iron	192	Unknown
	Total	245	
Kitchen	Can	54	Unknown
	Ceramic	6	Post-Bellum
	Container glass	187	Post-Bellum
	Glassware	3	Post-Bellum
	Total	250	
Clothing	Buckle	1	Post-Bellum
	Total	1	
Arms	Shell casing	1	Post-Bellum
	Total	1	
Total		500	

Table 4.4: Artifacts recovered from TU 1 by activity group



Figure 4.12: FS#187 in shovel tes.

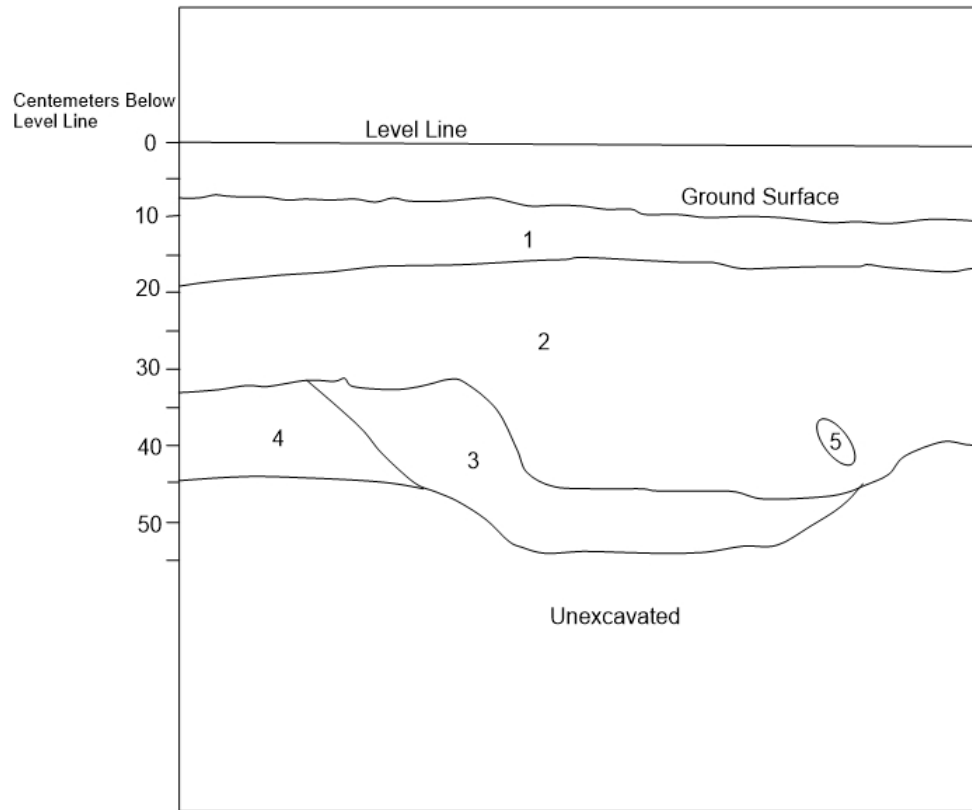


Figure 4.13: Feature 1 mid excavation



Figure 4.14: TU 1 closing photo

Test Unit 1 West Profile



- 1: 10yr 3/2 very dark gray brown, Sandy Loam
- 2: 10yr 4/3 brown, Sandy Loam
- 3: 10yr 4/4 dark yellow brown, Sandy Loam, Feature 1 fill
- 4: 10yr 5/6 yellow brown, Sandy Clay Loam, Subsoil
- 5: Historic ceramic fragment left in profile

Figure 4.15: TU 1 west profile

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The primary research goals of this project were to further delineate the Civil War occupation through metal detecting survey and identify specific areas of prisoner and guard occupation. More specifically, can certain areas of the camp layout be identified through the material record given the current integrity of the site and the survey methodology employed? The main focus of the research was to:

- Determine the layout of the camp and why this particular site was chosen for either military, prison, or basic camp needs.
- Identify the main prisoner and guard occupation areas to determine the spatial proximity between the two groups and the overall size of the camp.
- Offer comparisons between Camp Blackshear and other POW camps in Georgia, including Camp Lawton and Andersonville.

The research at Blackshear Prison has produced valuable historical information through the archaeological data set. Based on the types of materials recovered in this survey as well as the spatial distribution of the artifacts we can begin to address these research questions. Below I discuss the points outlined above and provide a general discussion of the results. While the data collected is not enough to identify functional areas of space within the camp, I argue that elements of specific guard and POW occupations were identified within the potential boundaries of the site that can be preserved for future investigation.

Discussion

The results of the metal detecting survey were not altogether unexpected given the previous work performed at the site. The proportion of diagnostic Civil War era material to artifacts that post-date the Civil War is similar to the collections from 2013 and 2017. Background research would also suggest that the archaeological signature of Camp Blackshear would be

relatively ephemeral compared to the larger, more densely populated, and longer occupied prison sites at Camp Lawton, Andersonville, and the Florence Stockade. However, evidence of the camp does appear in the archaeological record and with enough frequency to suggest that the current project area is located within a portion of the former camp site. A total of ten diagnostic Civil War artifacts were recovered from the current study area. Assuming that the material collected during the current project represents a 25% sample of the total potential artifacts within the study area, the total number of diagnostic artifacts would have been 40 during a 100% recovery. This number is far below the thousands of artifacts recovered at Camp Lawton, Andersonville, and other known Civil War camps and prisons and serves as an indicator of the limited amount of material remaining at Blackshear as well as the effectiveness of the applied survey method.

By parceling the survey area into 50 m by 50 m grid blocks, a clear pattern of artifact density emerged that indicates the boundaries of the site. The low density of artifacts in Grid 4 and lack of Civil War material in Grid 1 suggest that these areas represent the western and northwestern boundaries of the Civil War occupation. The northern most grid blocks surveyed in 2017 also contain a low density of artifacts suggesting that the north end of the site, located in the open pasture, was not a heavily occupied portion of the camp. It is likely that the main camp occupation was located on the crest of the hill in Grid 3 and extends into the 2013 survey area in the direction of the railroad.

Identifying the crest of the hill as a major occupation site indicates how the camp was positioned and why the location was selected. Originally it was thought that the POWs were housed below the high ground near the creek banks where they could be better secured and observed by the Confederate guard occupation. This assumption was based on the POW descriptions of the camp location which include descriptions of gun emplacements overlooking the POW area, similar to the position of the emplacements overlooking the stockades at Camp Lawton and Andersonville (Bates, 1910:24; Long, 1886:110; Smith, 1893:256). However, it seems that the

low areas below the hill were not densely occupied which could indicate that the POW occupation was further up the landform or they had so little material by that point that little trace remains of their occupation. The higher ground would have provided a more suitable camp location during the wet winter of 1864. Soils in the project area are sandy and well-draining and the trees on the hill would be dryer and more suitable for fire wood.

It would appear that the camp's location was selected based predominantly on its suitability as a decent camp site: a low-lying hill consisting of well-draining soil, sheltered from the elements by tall pines, and near a fresh source of water above the flood zone. However, this interpretation also suggests that this prime location may have been shared by both the POWs and their guards. The relatively small landform represents a potential change in the spatial proximity between the guards and POWs when compared to other Georgia prisons. Evidence of this close occupation can also be found in the type of material recovered from Grid 3.

Diagnostic Civil War era artifacts identified during the analysis were mostly clothing items, including two U.S. general service buttons, several non-ferrous alloy fasteners, and a grommet. The buttons are the most readily diagnostic Civil War artifacts within the collection. However, it is not immediately clear which groups occupying the prison they may represent. Buttons were frequently traded between POWs and guards in exchange for illicit items and rations. The coat, "I", button was issued to U.S. Infantry but by the time of the Civil War was reserved primarily for officers. While Blackshear was an enlisted POW camp there are accounts that place several officers among the ranks of the prisoners being transferred from Camp Lawton (Wallsmith, 2018). Given Blackshear's occupation history as a camp of necessity it seems plausible that captured U.S. officers could have been interred in the camp alongside enlisted men. The location of these buttons on top of the hill in Grid 3 and in the adjacent 2013 survey area does not immediately suggest this location as the main POW occupation. However, at Camp Lawton, while numerous U.S. general service buttons have been located within the former stockade none have been found outside of the designated POW areas (Chapman, 2013; McNutt, 2017).

The fasteners and grommet are believed to date to the Civil War occupation and were located in Grids 3 and 4. The grommet is .5" (14 mm) in diameter and is consistent with the type used for rubber blankets (also known as ponchos) and groundsheets which were used frequently in camp for shelter and water proofing and would have been highly valued by POWs and Confederate reserve troops responsible for constructing their own shelters (Babits, 1995). Brass finials are also encountered on various accoutrements, such as cartridge cases (Crouch, 1995). These finds in this location further supports this area as being occupied during the Civil War occupation, likely as an encampment area for guards given the presence of accoutrements.

Additional artifacts located in Grid 3 include a watering bit for a horse, an item that would have been used by cavalry or mounted officers. While this artifact could have been carried or scavenged by a POW it would have been an essential piece of equipment for Confederate guards on horseback. The same cannot be said of the two railroad spikes also located in Grid 3. As described above there are a number of ways these spikes may have arrived in the camp, but their possible use by POWs should be noted.

The nails recovered during the metal detecting survey account for half of the total artifacts recovered. Approximately half of the nails were machine cut and diagnostic of a 19th century occupation. Many of these nails were located alongside round nails that date to the 20th century, indicating the presence of post-war features, such as fence lines. The majority of the square nails were recovered from Grid 3, close to the 20th century house site. However, a percentage of these nails also fall into size categories utilized for supply crates during the Civil War. While not enough data was collected to conclusively discern which nails could be associated with the camp and which are associated with the later house site, the presence of these nails on the upper elevations of the landform could be an indication of supplies being gathered within the guard occupation areas of the camp for distribution to both guards and prisoners.

The overall concentration of diagnostic material in such close proximity suggests that the actual space between guards and prisoners was much closer than in the stockade prisons at Camp Lawton and Andersonville. If we consider that artifacts, such as the watering bit from Grid 3 and the buckshot and harmonica reed located in the 2017 survey area at the base of the hill, represent confederate guard occupation areas, then the proximity between guards and POWs becomes almost indistinguishable. POW identifiers, such as the US general service buttons and scavenged railroad spikes, are located in the same general area on top of the landform. A lack of diagnostic material may also indicate the main POW encampment, for instance there are no period arms or ammunition artifacts located in survey Grid 3. POWs would have limited access to these materials while in captivity.

These findings suggest a change in the overall guard/prisoner dynamic. With Blackshear being a more informal camp lacking built structures to separate and contain POWs, a different strategy had to be employed by the guards to ensure their security and limit the likelihood of escape. The archaeological data would suggest that part of this strategy involved limiting the overall size of the camp. POWs may have been concentrated on the crest of the hill in close space surrounded by guards who were positioned just outside the confines of the main prisoner occupation. In the historic accounts one POW suggests that the total size of the prisoner area was approximately five acres (Lightcap, 1902:62). That is 1/3rd the size of the Andersonville stockade and 1/8th the size of Camp Lawton. While the number of prisoners held at Blackshear is also less than at the previous camps, that small of an area limits the ability to organize a camp based on the recommended guidelines of the time. Similar to Andersonville, the POW area would have likely been too crowded for the existence of company streets making the camp difficult to police. It is also possible that given the local topography and proximity to the town and railroad the Confederate auxiliary areas, such as a field hospital, kitchen, and guard camps, may have been

placed significantly closer to the main POW holding area when compared to facilities at Andersonville and Camp Lawton, if they existed at all, or in the tradition sense.

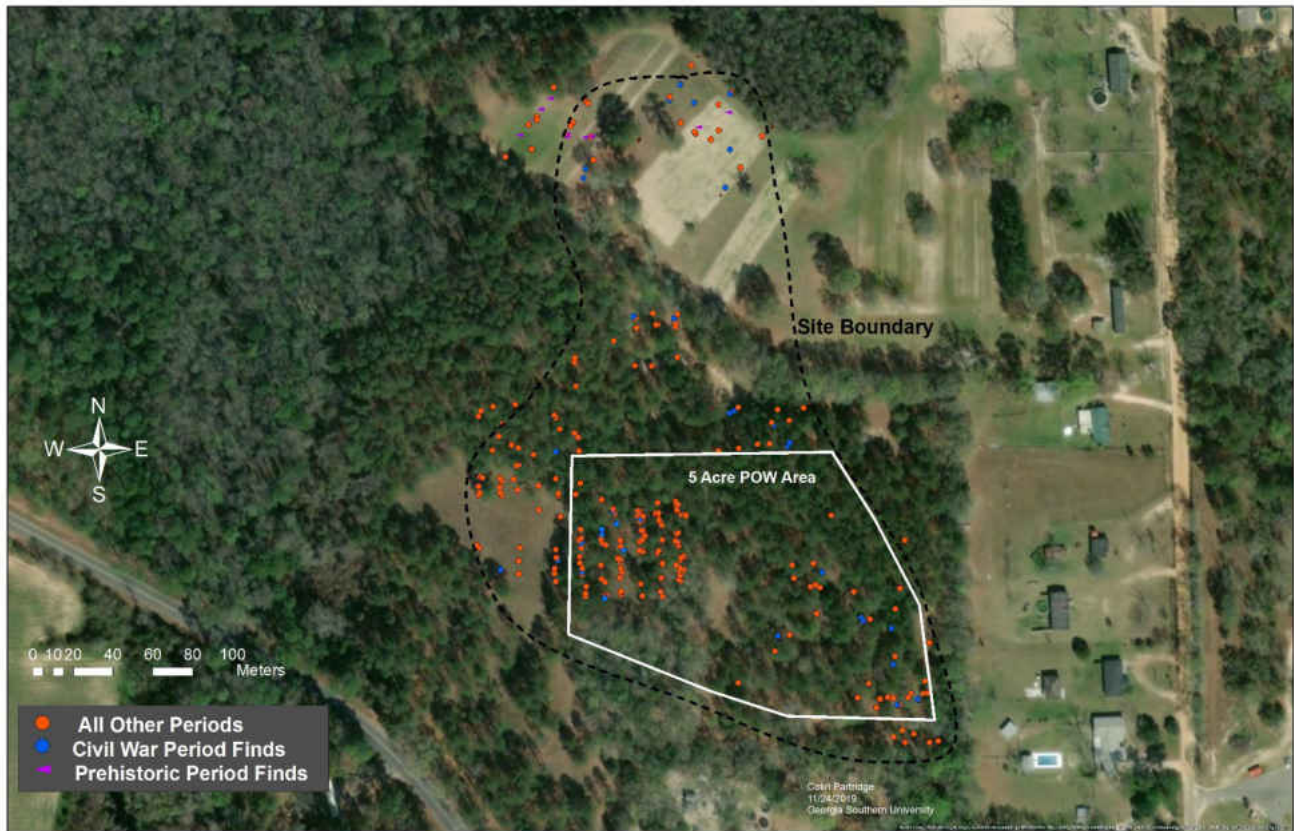


Figure 5.1: Civil War occupation site boundary and possible POW occupation area

This may have been the preferred organization by the camp commander, Col. Forno, who expresses uncertainty at what units have been ordered to guard the camp under his command in an ever-changing environment of troop movements along the Confederate line. Over the course of the prison's occupation POWs are constantly being removed from the camp along with select companies of guards who then must decamp and be ready to move at a moment's notice. Limiting the space of the guard company camps may have provided Col. Forno a stronger sense of command and control by being able to visualize the ratio of POWs to guards. This temporary nature likely produced a very different archaeological signature of the main Confederate encampment when compared to the more permanent prisons in Georgia.

Conclusion

Blackshear Prison represents a unique opportunity to further explore the role of non-battlefield related sites associated with conflict. Methodological refinements in the field of conflict archaeology have made the recovery of important data from low density sites, such as Blackshear more attainable. By utilizing metal detector survey at the intervals described, large portions of the project tract were able to be examined and the recovered artifacts analyzed through spatial distribution and artifact patterning, despite the presence of large amounts of 20th century artifacts and modern debris. By comparing the analyzed results to the previous excavations on the site, a better understanding of the overall size, integrity, and layout of the camp can be achieved.

The current project area is believed to incorporate a portion of the relatively smaller prison site at Blackshear. The site boundary represented above (Figure 4.11 and Figure 5.1) likely extends to the south and east beyond the current property boundary. The western boundary of the site is likely where Grid block 1 and 4 were positioned for the current survey. The site is bound to the north by Mill Branch and to the south west by Highway 203 and additional wetland. The POW occupation is located on the top of the landform overlooking open pasture and Mill Branch to the north and is surrounded by the guard occupation. The approximately five-acre POW area includes Grid 3 and a portion of the 2013 survey area containing diagnostic Civil War material. Guard occupation areas include the picket post in the 2017 survey area, Grid 4 and the western portion of Grid 3, and the southeast portion of the 2013 survey area. These areas contained artifacts associated with guard activity such as the ammunition, harmonica reed, watering bit, and large burn feature. The southeast portion of the 2013 survey area is closest to the railroad and Grady Street and may have served as the main entry point to the camp as well as a staging area for POWs before they were transferred to the railroad for movement to different camps.

Overall the material remains of the Civil War era prison at Blackshear are limited. The lack of material is due to a population that has been subject to continued material loss over time,

with little means to regain possessions or supplies other than the most basic of survival needs. A short occupation timeline combined with limited means of resupply and the loss of material during rapid evacuation has contributed to the low frequency of diagnostic artifacts present in the record. The archaeological record has been further diminished by post-war agricultural activities, land development, and artifact removal by means of pedestrian survey by landowners across tilled fields as well as more deliberate relic collecting activities in the form of metal detecting.

Although artifact density is low across the site, especially compared to the modern debris that was detected but not collected, it can be argued that the methodology employed was effective in further delineating the Civil War occupation. With the discovery of Feature 1 in Grid 4, it can also be argued that potential Civil War related features could be identified using the applied methodology. Additional Civil War era archaeological features may be present within the site boundaries but require more intensive survey, such as close interval metal detecting in order to locate them. Other geophysical survey methods, such as ground penetrating radar, magnetometry, and resistivity could be applied to aid in directed excavation efforts that may uncover features of the camp, especially those that do not contain metal artifacts. These alternative methods are also noninvasive and would be suitable to investigate the potential cemetery location for potential grave sites.

The high-density areas located during this survey, including the remains of the 20th century house site should be avoided to preserve the integrity of that occupation as well as more effectively locate material related to the Civil War occupation. While an analysis of the spatial distribution of artifacts recovered via metal detecting survey has aided in defining the size and boundaries of a portion of the camp, there is not enough material data to definitively assign functional context as would be expected from a military encampment of the era. In order to identify specific occupation areas including, the prison yard, guard barracks, hospital area, officer barracks, or the deadline more data is required which may be obtained through close interval testing.

Blackshear Prison represents a valuable cultural resource that has the potential to better our understanding of the history of the site and the events that took place there as well as the methods used to study archaeological sites of this nature.

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APPENDIX A

ARTIFACT CATALOG 2018-2019

FS#	Catalog #	Grid	Transect	Depth (cmbs)	Count	Weight (grams)	Artifact Description	Activity Group	Period
1	1.01	1	1	13.5	1	4.67	Fence staple	Architecture	ca. 1870-Present
2	2.01	1	1	17	1	3.3	Fence staple	Architecture	ca. 1870-Present
3	3.01	1	1	18	1	2.85	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
4	4.01	1	1	10	1	2	Nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
5	5.01	1	1	18	1	1.43	Round nail	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
6	6.01	1	1	13	1	2.29	Nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
7	7.01	1	1	21	1	1.08	Round nail	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
8	8.01	1	1	Surface <1	1	94.1	Large hexagonal nut	Activities	ca. 1917-Present
9	9.01	1	1	26	1	1.06	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
10	10.01	1	1	13	1	0.94	Round nail	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
11	11.01	1	1	7.5	1	4.55	Round nail	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
12	12.01	1	1	10	1	0.99	Nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
13	13.01	1	1	7	1	1.05	Nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
14	14.01	1	1	5	1	0.55	Small iron fragment	Activities	Unknown
15	15.01	1	1	14	1	0.61	Nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
16	16.01	1	1	6	2	1.02	Bullet fragments	Arms	Post-Bellum
17	17.01	1	1	22	1	281.5	Plowshare fragment	Activities	Post-Bellum
18	18.01	1	1	14	1	3.82	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
19	19.01	1	1	5	1	1.35	Small iron fragment	Activities	Unknown
20	20.01	1	1	3	1	30.61	Round iron band, halved and tapered	Activities	Unknown
21	21.01	1	1	5	1	2.4	Round nail	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
22	22.01	1	1	10	1	1.37	Nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
23	23.01	1	1	5	2	4.23	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
24	24.01	1	1	10	1	2.64	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
25	25.01	1	1	10	1	1.58	Round nail	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
26	26.01	1	1	7	2	1.17	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
27	27.01	1	1	3	1	0.48	Square nail head	Architecture	Unknown
28	28.01	1	1	15.5	1	1.51	Nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
29	29.01	1	1	6	1	1.55	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
30	30.01	1	1	15	1	2.24	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
31	31.01	1	1	16	2	1.19	Thin alloy fragments	Activities	Unknown
32	32.01	1	1	20	1	13.87	Strap buckle fragment	Activities	Unknown
33	33.01	1	1	10	1	6.25	Small iron fragment	Activities	Unknown
34	34.01	1	1	14	1	1.65	Thin alloy fragment, rounded end piece with small punched rivet hole	Activities	Unknown
35	35.01	1	1	16	1	4.04	Round nail	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
36	36.01	1	1	18	1	23.84	Iron fragment with rounded edge	Activities	Unknown
37	37.01	1	1	18	1	3.13	Small iron fragment	Activities	Unknown
38	38.01	1	1	15	1	0.75	Clear glass rim fragment, burnt	Kitchen	Post-Bellum
39	39.01	1	1	15	1	4.14	Fence staple	Architecture	ca. 1870-Present
40	40.01	1	1	16	1	1.03	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
41	41.01	2	1	7	1	1.66	Round nail	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
42	42.01	2	1	10	1	1.47	Iron wire fragment	Activities	Unknown
43	43.01	2	1	9	21	11.38	Can fragments	Kitchen	Unknown
44	44.01	2	1	7	1	2.01	Round nail	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
45	45.01	2	1	7	1	2.83	Shot, fired	Arms	Post-Bellum
46	46.01	2	1	12	1	1.1	Brick fragment	Architecture	Post-Bellum
47	47.01	2	1	10	1	46.41	Iron ring with attachment	Activities	Unknown
48	48.01	2	1	4.5	1	3.06	Shot, fired	Arms	Post-Bellum
49	49.01	2	1	10	1	4.21	Small iron fragment	Activities	Unknown
50	50.01	2	1	4.5	1	0.21	UID	Arms	Unknown
51	51.01	2	1	36	1	238.7	Iron hook with loop attached	Activities	Unknown
52	52.01	2	1	30	1	3.73	Round nail	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
53	53.01	2	1	20	1	4.5	Fence staple	Architecture	ca. 1870-Present
54	54.01	2	1	14	1	4.1	Nail	Architecture	Unknown
55	55.01	2	1	21	1	34.11	Linear washer with square hole in the middle	Activities	Post-Bellum

FS#	Catalog #	Grid	Transect	Depth (cmbs)	Count	Weight (grams)	Artifact Description	Activity Group	Period
56	56.01	2	6 7		1	4.58	Round nail	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
57	57.01	2	6 20		1	10.63	Utensil handle	Kitchen	Civil War Period
58	58.01	2	6 18		1	2.67	Nail head	Architecture	Unknown
59	59.01	3	1 4		1	3.21	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
60	60.01	3	2 13.5		1	5.45	Flat, round iron fragment	Activities	Unknown
61	61.01	3	1 9		1	4.43	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
62	62.01	3	2 19		1	12.83	Small metal appendage with hole in bottom half	Activities	Unknown
63	63.01	3	2 14.5		2	2.89	Sheet tin/tinned iron fragment	Activities	Unknown
64	64.01	3	2 14		1	9.3	Heavy wire	Activities	ca. 1870-Present
65	65.01	3	2 16		1	1.06	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
66	66.01	3	1 16		2	0.87	Clear glass fragments	Kitchen	Post-Bellum
67	67.01	3	2 22		1	1.49	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
68	68.01	3	2 27		1	4.37	Round nail	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
69	69.01	3	1 7		1	2.14	Square nail head	Architecture	Unknown
70	70.01	3	2 9		1	9.85	Round nail	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
71	71.01	3	1 10		1	1.47	U.S. Army General Service button, cuff size "Scovill & co. Extra"	Clothing	1860-1865
72	72.01	3	1 7		1	4.63	Sheet tin/tinned iron fragment with rivet	Activities	Unknown
73	73.01	3	2 10		1	22.04	Heavy iron wire	Activities	Unknown
74	74.01	3	2 19		1	27.17	Flat iron object with rounded edge	Activities	Unknown
75	75.01	3	1 18		1	2.46	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
76	76.01	3	1 10		1	2.34	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
77	77.01	3	2 7		1	2.92	Nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
78	78.01	3	2 12		1	1.23	Nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
79	79.01	3	2 8		1	123.88	Large iron buckle	Activities	Unknown
80	80.01	3	1 12		1	3.17	Fence staple	Architecture	ca. 1870-Present
81	81.01	3	2 11		1	81.48	Iron chain, two long round links forged together and flattened on the opposite ends, possible watering bit	Activities	Civil War Period
82	82.01	3	1 10		1	1.24	Grommet	Clothing	Civil War Period
83	83.01	3	1 7		1	2.22	Fence staple	Architecture	ca. 1870-Present
84	84.01	3	2 10		1	232.2	Railroad spike	Activities	Civil War Period
85	85.01	3	1 20		1	1.38	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
86	86.01	3	1 14		1	5.01	Round nail	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
87	87.01	3	1 20		1	1.6	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
88	88.01	3	2 25		1	2.45	Square nail head	Architecture	Unknown
89	89.01	3	6 17		1	0.32	Brick fragment	Architecture	Post-Bellum
90	90.01	3	6 5		1	2.39	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
91	91.01	3	6 17		1	1.03	Square nail head	Architecture	Unknown
92	92.01	3	6 21		1	172.58	Large flat iron fragment with rolled rim	Kitchen	Unknown
93	93.01	3	6 16		1	2.94	Nail	Architecture	Unknown
94	94.01	3	6 11		1	4.52	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
95	95.01	3	6 17		1	4.71	Round nail	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
96	96.01	3	6 9		1	2.1	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
97	97.01	3	6 7		1	1.58	Square nail, split head	Architecture	Unknown
98	98.01	3	6 23		1	48.16	Pipe fitting	Activities	Post-Bellum
99	99.01	3	6 9		1	1.16	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
100	100.01	3	6 13		1	1.23	Aluminum bottle cap, embossed lettering and eye symbol "Mitchell's Eye Salve"	Kitchen	ca. 1848-1930
101	101.01	3	6 15		1	6.03	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
102	102.01	3	6 8		1	17.8	Linear iron fragment with rounded end	Activities	Unknown
103	103.01	3	6 7		1	2.1	Small iron loop	Activities	Unknown
104	104.01	3	6 6		1	3.33	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
105	105.01	3	6 12		1	14.7	Flat angular iron fragment	Activities	Unknown
106	106.01	3	6 4		1	1.98	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
107	107.01	3	6 6		1	3.39	Square nail head	Architecture	Unknown
108	108.01	3	6 7		1	0.82	Clear flat glass	Architecture	Post-Bellum

FS#	Catalog #	Grid	Transect	Depth (cmts)	Count	Weight (grams)	Artifact Description	Activity Group	Period
109	109.01	3		6 17	1	1.64	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
110	110.01	3		6 17	1	1.97	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
111	111.01	3		6 7	1	2.63	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
112	112.01	3		6 10	1	4.18	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
113	113.01	3		6 6	1	1.58	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
114	114.01	3		6 7	1	4.17	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
115	115.01	3		6 10	1	2.89	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
116	116.01	3		6 10	1	1.86	Porcelain fragment, no decoration	Kitchen	ca. 1830-1900
117	117.01	3		6 5	1	1.72	Clear flat glass	Architecture	Post-Bellum
118	118.01	3		6 5	1	2.01	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
119	119.01	3		6 15	1	7.99	White ware, cup handle fragment, no decoration	Kitchen	ca. 1850-Present
120	120.01	3		6 10	1	1.52	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
121	121.01	3		6 13	1	6.81	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
122	122.01	3		3 N/A	4	17.87	Round nails	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
123	123.01	3		3 17	1	41.5	Iron cooking vessel rim	Kitchen	Unknown
124	124.01	3		3 3	1	9.68	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
125	125.01	3		3 16	1	15.71	Ironstone fragment, no decoration	Kitchen	ca. 1840-1930
126	126.01	3		3 6	1	1.08	Sheet tin/tinned iron fragment	Activities	Unknown
127	127.01	3		3 10	1	1.06	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
128	128.01	3		3 13	1	6.23	Heavy wire	Activities	Unknown
129	129.01	3		3 N/A	1	6.11	Round nail	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
130	130.01	3		3 8	1	6.45	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
131	131.01	3		3 9	1	1.01	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
132	132.01	3		3 8	1	3.19	Fence staple	Architecture	ca. 1870-Present
133	133.01	3		3 17	1	178.39	Railroad spike	Activities	Civil War Period
134	134.01	3		3 10	1	1.44	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
135	135.01	3		3 8	1	6.3	Lead-head roofing nail	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
136	136.01	3		3 13	1	2.35	U.S. Army General Service Infantry Button, "I"	Clothing	1860-1865
137	137.01	3		3 6	1	2.14	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
138	138.01	3		3 5	2	3.18	Strap adjuster with double loop	Clothing	Civil War Period
139	139.01	3		3 22	1	1.92	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
140	140.01	3		4 N/A	3	9.8	Round nails	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
141	141.01	3		4 12	1	3.6	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
142	142.01	3		4 18	1	24.3	Iron hook with extension	Activities	Unknown
143	143.01	3		4 N/A	2	11.5	Round nails	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
144	144.01	3		4 9	1	44.5	Large square nail	Architecture	Unknown
145	145.01	3		4 15	1	1.2	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
146	146.01	3		4 N/A	1	1.9	Round nail	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
147	147.01	3		4 8	1	2.3	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
148	148.01	3		4 12	1	39.5	Iron spacer with three holes	Activities	Unknown
149	149.01	3		4 8	1	2.1	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
150	150.01	3		4 21	1	144.5	6 link chain, hand wrought	Activities	Unknown
151	151.01	3		4 21	1	1.2	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
152	152.01	3		4 15	1	1.5	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
153	153.01	3		4 8	1	2.3	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
154	154.01	3		4 7	1	4.6	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
155	155.01	3		4 N/A	1	6.1	Round nail	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
156	156.01	3		4 8	1	2.1	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
157	157.01	3		4 7	1	2.3	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
158	158.01	3		4 12	1	2.3	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
159	159.01	3		4 8	1	3.7	Rivet for clothing or knapsack	Clothing	Civil War Period
160	160.01	3		4 12	1	6.7	Sheet tin/tinned iron fragment	Activities	Unknown
161	161.01	3		4 12	1	1.5	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
162	162.01	3		4 3	1	3	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
163	163.01	3		4 4	1	1.6	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown

FS#	Catalog #	Grid	Transect	Depth (cmbs)	Count	Weight (grams)	Artifact Description	Activity Group	Period
164	164.01	3	4	4	1	0.9	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
165	165.01	3	4	11	1	4.3	Fence Staple	Architecture	ca. 1870-Present
166	166.01	3	4	N/A	2	2.1	Round nails	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
167	167.01	3	5	10	1	6.6	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
168	168.01	3	5	16	1	217.9	Door hinge	Architecture	Post-Bellum
169	169.01	3	5	5	1	1.9	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
170	170.01	3	5	8	1	2.1	Amber glass fragment	Kitchen	Post-Bellum
171	171.01	3	5	7	1	18.6	Large square nail	Architecture	Unknown
172	172.01	3	5	8	1	2.2	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
173	173.01	3	5	N/A	2	14.1	Round nails	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
174	174.01	3	5	6	1	3	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
175	175.01	3	5	10	1	2.2	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
176	176.01	3	5	4	1	2.7	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
177	177.01	3	5	6	1	6	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
178	178.01	3	5	6	1	1.6	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
179	179.01	3	5	3	1	0.8	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
180	180.01	3	5	<1	1	160.8	Large iron spacer fragment with hole in the center broken at both ends	Activities	Unknown
181	181.01	3	5	<1	1	13.9	Knife blade fragment	Activities	Unknown
182	182.01	3	5	6	1	3.3	Aqua glass fragment	Kitchen	Post-Bellum
183	183.01	3	5	6	1	4.3	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
184	184.01	3	5	N/A	1	20.2	Round nail	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
185	185.01	3	5	13	1	4.4	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
186	186.01	4	5	18	1	7.3	Round nail	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
187	187.01	4	5	22	18	22.8	Sheet tin/tinned iron fragments	Activities	Unknown
187	187.02	4	5	22	6	49.4	Clear bottle glass fragments	Kitchen	Post-Bellum
187	187.03	4	5	22	1	4.6	White ware fragment, undecorate, flat ware base, burned	Kitchen	ca. 1870-Present
187	187.04	4	5	22	1	0.4	Small charcoal fragment	Activities	Unknown
188	188.01	4	5	22	1	126.3	Cultivator blade	Activities	Post-Bellum
189	189.01	4	5	15	1	2.4	Brass alloy rivet for clothing or knapsack	Clothing	Civil War Period
190	190.01	4	5	5	1	5.1	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
191	191.01	4	5	5	1	0.8	Square nail shaft	Architecture	Unknown
192	192.01	4	5	10	1	4.3	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
193	193.01	4	4	9	1	5	Fence staple	Architecture	ca. 1870-Present
194	194.01	4	3	8	1	16.8	Round washer	Activities	Post-Bellum
195	195.01	4	3	10	1	4.3	Nail	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
196	196.01	4	3	9	1	5.4	Round nut	Activities	Post-Bellum
197	197.01	4	2	9	1	0.8	Alloy rivet with wide back that tapers to an attached finial	Clothing	Civil War Period
198	198.01	4	1	8	1	2.2	Square nail	Architecture	Unknown
199	199.01	4	1	10	2	6.6	Round nail	Architecture	ca. 1890-Present
200	200.01	4	5	0-10	2	2.47	Charred wood fragments	Activities	Unknown
200	200.02	4	5	0-10	22	119.56	Clear bottle glass fragments, mold seams present	Kitchen	ca. 1850-Present
201	201.01	4	5	10-20	1	30.22	Red transfer print decorated white ware, rim fragment, flat ware, burned	Kitchen	ca. 1870-Present
201	201.02	4	5	10-20	2	7.54	Clear bottle glass fragments	Kitchen	Post-Bellum
201	201.03	4	5	10-20	3	0.89	Sheet tin/tinned iron fragments	Activities	Post-Bellum
201	201.04	4	5	10-20	1	2.5	4/10 shell casing base, "WRA 4/10 Super Speed Made in USA"	Arms	ca. 1930-1949
202	202.01	4	5	20-30	2	31.87	Red transfer print decorated white ware, rim and base fragments, flat ware, burned	Kitchen	ca. 1870-Present
202	202.02	4	5	20-30	1	6.45	Sheet tin/tinned iron, pressed oval shape	Activities	Post-Bellum
202	202.03	4	5	20-30	7	1.83	Charcoal fragments	Activities	Post-Bellum
203	203.01	4	5	30-40	1	0.75	Buckle fragment	Clothing	Post-Bellum
203	203.02	4	5	30-40	5	1.27	Sheet tin/tinned iron fragments	Activities	Post-Bellum
203	203.03	4	5	30-40	12	8.68	Charcoal fragments	Activities	Post-Bellum
204	204.01	4	5	30-40	1	76.68	Red transfer print decorated white ware, rim fragment, flat ware, burned	Kitchen	ca. 1870- Present
204	204.02	4	5	30-40	18	50.5	Clear bottle glass fragments, mold seams present	Kitchen	ca. 1850-Present
204	204.03	4	5	30-40	28	15.62	Can fragments, mold seams present	Kitchen	Post-Bellum

FS#	Catalog #	Grid	Transect	Depth (cmts)	Count	Weight (grams)	Artifact Description	Activity Group	Period
204	204.04	4		5 30-40	2	4	Small iron strap with rivet at one end, broken in two pieces	Activities	Post-Bellum
204	204.05	4		5 30-40	5	1.75	Charcoal fragments	Activities	Post-Bellum
205	205.01	4		5 40-53	2	13.21	Undecorated white ware, flat ware, burned	Kitchen	ca. 1870-Present
205	205.02	4		5 40-53	1	556.2	Aqua glass bottle with tooled, oil type finish, cup-bottom mold seam, embossed base "DR. S.B.H. & CO. PR. 56" Dr. Samuel B. Hartman Peruna patent medicine bottle (SHA bottle guide)	Kitchen	ca. 1890-1920
205	205.03	4		5 40-53	3	382.7	Aqua glass bottle with tooled, crown cap finish, cup-bottom mold seam, embossed sides "Coca-Cola TRADE MARK REGISTERED PROPERTY OF COCA-COLA BOTTLING CO. BRUNSWICK, GA", embossed base "Coca-Cola", straight sided Coca-Cola bottle bottled in Brunswick, GA	Kitchen	ca. 1913-1917
205	205.04	4		5 40-53	3	359.1	Solarized glass bottle missing finish, cup-bottom mold seam, body embossed "Coca-Cola TRADE MARK REGISTERED WAYCROSS, GA. PROPERTY OF THE Coca-Cola BOTTLING CO." straight sided Coca-Cola bottle bottled in Waycross, GA	Kitchen	ca. 1905-1913
205	205.05	4		5 40-53	9	322.9	Amber glass bottle tooled, crown cap finish, cup-bottom mold seam, base embossed "SB&G Co I", Steator Bottle and Glass Company beer bottle	Kitchen	ca. 1881-1905
205	205.06	4		5 40-53	6	181.58	Aqua glass vessel missing finish, post-mold base, lower body embossed "6", possible canning jar or bottle	Kitchen	ca. 1850-1910
205	205.07	4		5 40-53	6	223	Aqua glass bottle missing finish, machine-made base	Kitchen	ca. 1905-1920
205	205.08	4		5 40-53	6	201.7	Clear glass bottle base, embossed "B", Owens machine-made Charles Bolt Glass Co. non-liquor bottle	Kitchen	ca. 1919-1925
205	205.09	4		5 40-53	2	54.03	Solarized glass bottle base, embossed "H", W.H. Hamilton Co. perscription/druggist bottle	Kitchen	ca. 1898-1909
205	205.1	4		5 40-53	1	0.56	Solarized glass bottle fragment, embossed "...STER..."	Kitchen	ca. 1880-1920
205	205.11	4		5 40-53	3	13.58	Solarized glass bottle fragments, body pieces with mold seams	Kitchen	ca. 1880-1920
205	205.12	4		5 40-53	2	6.04	Solarized glass pannel bottle fragments, mold seams	Kitchen	ca. 1880-1920
205	205.13	4		5 40-53	15	36.49	Solarized glass bottle fragments, body pieces	Kitchen	ca. 1880-1920
205	205.14	4		5 40-53	1	9.61	Light Aqua glass bottle shoulder fragment	Kitchen	ca. 1800-1920
205	205.15	4		5 40-53	4	5.41	Light Aqua glass bottle body fragments	Kitchen	ca. 1800-1920
205	205.16	4		5 40-53	3	2.32	Aqua glass bottle body fragments	Kitchen	ca. 1800-1920
205	205.17	4		5 40-53	2	1.45	Clear glass bottle body fragments with mold seams	Kitchen	ca. 1850-Present
205	205.18	4		5 40-53	78	85.83	Clear glass bottle body fragments	Kitchen	ca. 1850-Present
205	205.19	4		5 40-53	3	28.59	Carnival glass tumbler rim fragment, embossed floral motif, Fenton Marigold Waterlily and Cattail Carnival Glass Tumbler	Kitchen	ca. 1908-1931
205	205.2	4		5 40-53	20	72.22	Hole in cap can, partial can with fragments, milk or fruit/vegetable can	Kitchen	ca. 1850-1920
205	205.21	4		5 40-53	76	350	Sheet tin/ tinned iron fragments with mold seams	Activities	Post-Bellum
205	205.22	4		5 40-53	6	5.15	Hole in cap can top seal fragments	Kitchen	ca. 1850-1920
205	205.23	4		5 40-53	1	5.73	Sheet tin/tinned iron, pressed oval shape	Activities	Post-Bellum
205	205.24	4		5 40-53	106	87.01	Sheet tin/tinned iron fragments, mold seams and rims	Activities	Post-Bellum
205	205.25	4		5 40-53	2	153.88	1 1/2" wide iron strapping	Activities	Post-Bellum
205	205.26	4		5 40-53	1	325.8	1 1/4" wide corrugated sheet metal fragment	Architecture	ca. 1820-Present
205	205.27	4		5 40-53	2	1.33	Square nails	Architecture	Post-Bellum
205	205.28	4		5 40-53	23	15.3	Charred wood	Activities	Post-Bellum