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Shelby Shapiro (Ph.D. American Studies), the General Editor of *The Independent Scholar*, served for many years as the English-language editor of *Tsum punkt/To the Point*, the magazine of Yiddish of Greater Washington, as well as for its predecessor publication. He is currently Associate Editor of *Records of the State of Connecticut*. His Ph.D. dissertation dealt with acculturation and American Jewish women in the Yiddish press; he is a Yiddish-English translator, and his research interests include Jazz and Blues (having presented jazz radio programs for nine years), the labor movement, the First World War, and immigrant anarchism.

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BACKYARD ARCHAEOLOGY AND INTEGRITY AT RESIDENTIAL SITES IN NORTHEAST OHIO

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Abstract

Within the United States, prehistoric archaeology in urban or residential settings has been, to date, understudied. Residential settings are located on small parcels of land, usually less than two acres in size, and have an extant residence or dwelling on them. The assumption of many archaeologists is that urban contexts are disturbed, and therefore lack significant archaeological context and integrity. However, it is unclear if this assumption is based on the reality of the archaeological record, or a self-fulfilling prophecy of professional archaeologists quick to write off sites due to their presumed low archaeological potential. The issue of integrity within urban and residential sites is not dissimilar to recent debates on the utility of the plow zone at sites documented in agricultural settings. In both cases, the issue centers on the archaeological prospection for sub-surface features almost to the exclusion of other archaeological contexts. Only through systematic survey of urban sites can we begin to understand the integrity and context of prehistoric sites in these settings. This paper presents the realities of the urban and residential archaeological record, through a sample of 41 sites discovered in Northeast Ohio in and around the cities of Akron and Cleveland. The sample was compiled using government archaeological databases such as the Ohio Archaeological Inventory. The results of this sample, though limited in geographic scope, provide an interesting template for urban prehistoric archaeology throughout North America. Residential sites have the potential to yield useful information on the prehistory of modern urban centers that would otherwise be evaluated as insignificant when considered individually.

Keywords: *Ohio Prehistory; Archaeology; Historic Preservation; Historic Archaeology; Archaeological Field Methods*

INTRODUCTION

The primary objective of cultural resource managers (CRM), according to Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act, is to assess the impacts to properties eligible or listed on the National Register of Historic Places (King 2020). There are numerous publications by the National Park Service that provide guidance on assessing eligibility to the National Register, known as *National Register Bulletins*. These bulletins outline evaluative procedures from a variety of site types, from shipwrecks to traditional cultural properties.

One could argue that our job as archaeologists, at least from the perspective of historic preservation, is to inventory artifacts and features, and determine if they are important enough to be listed along with other historically significant



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properties. However, recent scholarship has shown that these inventories of archaeological data (e.g. the Ohio Archaeological Inventory) are an underutilized resource of immense prehistoric and historic knowledge (see Nolan 2014; Olson et al. 2021; VanValkenburgh and Dufton 2020). The individual decisions of CRM have cumulative effects for anyone conducting research using data from the archaeological record.

Within the United States, municipal governments are often responsible for the cultural resource management of countless numbers of historical structures and archaeological sites (Brookstein 2001). Under regulations such as 36 CFR 800, municipal governments are often responsible for assessing the adverse impacts of Housing and Urban Development projects on these cultural resources within their jurisdiction. In many cases, historical archaeology is a logical concern and consideration, since many cities have inventories, registers, and historic landmark commissions that list historic structures and sites. Urban historic archaeology, particularly in Northeast Ohio, has long held the interest of archaeologists (Hoag and Petznick 2018; Lanouette 1999; Lee and Lewine 2000, 2003; Lewine et al. 2002, 2003; Mannik & Smith Group, Inc. 2021; Salem 2003). However, the evaluation of residential lots for prehistoric archaeological resources is often lacking. For examples of the lack of critical evaluation on residential lots, one can simply look at any of the numerous "grey literature" reports (see references in Table 1), or in the standards laid out by state agencies regarding residential properties. The Pennsylvania Historical and Museum Commission distinguishes prehistoric sites from urban sites, and clearly focuses on the aspects of archaeology as it relates to historic resources (Pennsylvania Bureau of Historic Preservation 2001). The Ohio Archaeology guidelines (Ohio Historic Preservation Office 1994:68) make a similar distinction, and note that "field testing in urban situations will normally be very limited...." The implication is that prehistoric sites are discrete and separate entities from urban or residential sites. Residential lots are often written-off as disturbed, lacking context, or unlikely to contain archaeologically significant data. In other words, prehistoric sites in residential settings are often considered to lack *integrity*.

The concern over integrity, and when it does and does not exist, has been raised previously by King (2020) in general theoretical terms, and by Brookstein (2001) in architectural terms. The issue of integrity at residential sites is not dissimilar to the debates of integrity within plow zone contexts. Prominent 20th century archaeologists, such as Ivor Noël Hume, have publicly questioned the utility of excavating the plow zone (King 2004). It is common practice for many archaeologists to mechanically strip the plow zone at sites, since this stratum is considered devoid of context (Harvey 2012). However, sites that have been damaged by plowing still retain useful information when viewed at regional scales or in aggregate (Martens 2016; Nolan 2014). The issue of plow zone as context is associated with a larger theoretical shorthand within the discipline: presence of features means sufficient integrity. This shorthand is almost explicit in the National Register Bulletin on assessing archaeological sites (Little et al. 2000), and among professionals today (Duncan 2011; Webster and Zimmerman 2021 18:50).

With the increase in professional and collector collaboration (Shott et al. 2018; Olson et al. 2021), and the ability to analyze "big data" (VanValkenburgh and Dufton 2020), there has been a revision of the old way of thinking of plowed fields and archaeological information. While this shift in thinking is nascent in the United States, Britain has been leading the way in both big data and collaboration with amateurs since the 1990s with the use of the Portable Antiquities Scheme (see Thomas and Stone 2009). There is analytical value in collector reported and collector identified sites. Projectile points are "superabundant" within North American archaeology (Shott 2020), and their individual information potential is surpassed by their aggregate information value. Often, projectile points are some of the only artifacts collected when non-professionals encounter a site.

The same cannot be said of residential prehistoric archaeology. There is a dearth of literature on prehistoric archaeology in urban contexts in North America. For New York City, the early work of William Calver and Reginald Bolton provide limited, amateur, accounts of archaeological investigations at the turn of the 20th century (Orser 2002:353). Mooney (2010) has compiled what little information there is on the four prehistoric sites inventoried within the city center of Philadelphia. Across the Atlantic, Dr. Kenny Brophy has done extensive work in Scotland researching and blogging about prehistoric sites within urban contexts on his website *The Urban Prehistorian* (Brophy 2021).

Large cities are constantly in a state of ground disturbing activities, which churn the soil and destroy archaeological contexts. However, the extent to which this perception has been systematically studied is minimal. Most soil scientists are familiar with the concept of "urban soil," as "highly disturbed soils in urban areas" (Pouyat et al. 2020:127). The current issues in soil science regarding urban soils revolve around combating soil erosion and habitat loss. In generic



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terms, urban soils are in urban areas. As Riordan et al. (2021) note, urban areas also include "pseudo-natural" soils. To identify potentially undisturbed or minimally disturbed soils, then, requires examination of regional soil survey maps. Soil surveys going back to the 1970s in Ohio have identified original undisturbed soils in the backlots of residential parcels in Ohio (Ritchie and Steiger 1974). Where there are undisturbed soils, there is potential for preserved prehistoric archaeological sites. Are archaeologists categorically excluding residential sites before putting a shovel in the ground?

The United States Department of Interior has done no favors for urban contexts, either. A site is archaeologically "disturbed" when "cultural materials have lost their important depositional context (horizontal or vertical location of deposits)" (U.S. Department of Interior 1997:23). In my classrooms, students often take a very liberal interpretation to this text. *Any* artifact found in a plowed field is disturbed, and thus, ineligible for the national register of historic places. By this logic, very few sites would be worth preserving since the artifacts were not found *exactly* where they were deposited. If this is how students interpret the state and federal standards, can we not expect city planners to come to similar conclusions? As stated previously, it is the "plow zone as context" problem, in an urban setting.

The public's perception of the national register also reflects a misunderstanding and misinterpretation of the goals of historic preservation. Heritage Works (2016) lists several common "myths" about the national register. The most common myth they report is that properties listed on the national register receive extra scrutiny, oversight, and control by the federal government. This is not true, as Heritage Works (2016) and Brookstein (2001) point out, but nonetheless it is common for the public to think listing a site on the national register comes with many strings and obligations to the landowner. Thus, there is a general public disincentive to find and register sites on the national register based on misunderstandings of how the national register works.

The general understanding among archaeologists, while similar in outcome (failure to identify prehistoric sites in residential settings), is different in approach. The assumption is that urban and residential settings will not yield significant archaeological data (criterion D of the National Register of Historic Places). This paper provides a preliminary survey and analysis of prehistoric sites recorded in urban or residential settings in Northeast Ohio. Though limited in geographic scope, the sample provided here is a baseline for further research into the patterns of prehistoric site distribution, density, and composition in residential and urban settings that can be applied to other regions of the United States. The goal of this research was to systematically evaluate the common assumption that residential sites cannot yield meaningful or significant prehistoric data.

METHODS

"Residential" for the purposes of this paper, will use the Ohio Historic Preservation Office's definition, as outlined in their guidelines for the Ohio Archaeological Inventory (OAI): "ranges from high density (e.g., multiple-unit structures of urban cores) to low-density, where houses are on lots of more than one acre, on the periphery of urban expansion" (Ohio Historical Society 2007:24). An acre is approximately 4047 square meters. For the purposes of this analysis, sites on farms were excluded from the study. Since the primary aim of this study was to investigate the impact of urban and residential development on the integrity of prehistoric sites, these large properties do not fit the criteria for inclusion. However, city parks, which often exceed two acres in size, were included. City parks have a considerable amount of development, with paved walkways, roads, parking lots, electric lighting fixtures, pavilions, gazebos, bathrooms, and other structures built up within their boundaries.

Archaeological sites were sampled from Northeast Ohio, generally, since this is the main research area of the author. Northeast Ohio also has two very large urban centers from which to examine the impacts of urbanization on prehistoric archaeological sites: Akron and Cleveland. Sites were mainly identified from field reports on file at the Ohio Historic Preservation Office, the OAI (which is digitized and accessible to professional archaeologists), and previous projects with which the author has led. Many of the sites selected were entered into the OAI by the author or were sites the author was directly involved in identifying and recording. The OAI is a statewide database of archaeological sites, using the Smithsonian Trinomial system. The Smithsonian system labels sites by their state (numerically), then the county, and finally a sequential number for the site within the county. For example, 33 CU 500 would be the 500th site inventoried in Cuyahoga County, Ohio. Ohio is 33rd alphabetically, instead of 35th, because Alaska and Hawaii were not states when the Smithsonian System was implemented. For the purposes of this study, the state number was dropped when recording site numbers, since all sites were documented within the same state (Ohio).



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While most sites recorded had a corresponding field report, most data were compiled from the OAI form. Field reports provided detailed provenience information, which was used to calculate distances to the nearest building or road. However, in the case of smaller sites, which often were identified by a single positive shovel test, the OAI centroid point in the Online Mapping System was used as the pinpoint for the artifact or site inventoried. Distances were ultimately estimates based on both the reported locations of artifacts and the scale of aerial photographs.

Sites with pinpoint locations were included in this sample; many more sites reportedly found in people's backyards could certainly be included. However, these general locations do not provide enough context about the proximity to other buildings or the main residence. The assumption is that house construction and related residential and historic activities directly and adversely impact prehistoric archaeological sites. Thus, the lot size and distance to nearest historic or modern ground disturbances are relevant to this research.

Where possible, historic and modern ground disturbances were identified using a variety of historical documentation, such as County Auditor records, historic atlases, maps created by county auditors for tax purposes (known as "plat maps"), and historic aerial photography. House lot boundaries and house construction were derived from a combination of aerial photographs, the county auditor's Geographic Information System (GIS), and the Ohio Historic Inventory (OHI). The OHI is equivalent to the OAI for above-ground resources. The lot size of sites was measured from the lot size at the time of discovery as recorded by the County Auditor. In a few instances, the nearest historic or modern disturbance was not a residential house, but an outbuilding, access road, or some other clearly distinguishable construction in photographs or maps. In these cases, the structure or feature was used as the nearest disturbance in place of a residence.

Conforming to the "golden rule" of statistical sampling, a minimum of 30 cases were sought for this sample (Drennan 1996). Documentary and report research was thorough, but likely not exhaustive of archaeological sites in this region. Sites were also selected for this study, where possible, from homes constructed from 1800 to the present. The aim of this objective was to capture a representative sample of sites under variable ages of home construction and historic residential activities.

RESULTS

In total, 41 sites were identified in residential settings in Northeast Ohio (Figure 1). Most sites were identified in the suburbs or edges of Akron and Cleveland. Seven sites were recorded on lots between 1 and 2 acres in size, and 13 sites were recorded on properties larger than 2 acres. The remaining sites (n=21) in the sample were identified on parcels an acre or less in size. Nearly 42 percent of all sites in the sample contained temporally diagnostic artifacts or features (n=15). Table 1 details the names of sites, their municipal location, and basic descriptions of the artifacts and features recorded. Table 2 details the information about historic residence construction, location of site relative to the home, and other information about the property.

Roughly 80 percent of sites (n = 33) were documented between 10 and 15 meters from the nearest building or road construction. In two cases, the "nearest building" was a constructed road (Haag Island 2 and Haag Swamp 2). Given the proximity to homes in many cases, 10 meters was a relative cut-off that was observed as data were collected.

Only two sites included in this sample were devoid of prehistoric cultural materials: Grace Park and Backyard Site #1. These sites contained historic artifacts, and an A Horizon which was not damaged by plowing or other agricultural activities or urban construction. These sites were included in analysis because their soils represent potential for intact subsoil features at other backyard residential lots, like anecdotal comments of intact subsoils noted by Ritchie and Steiger (1974).



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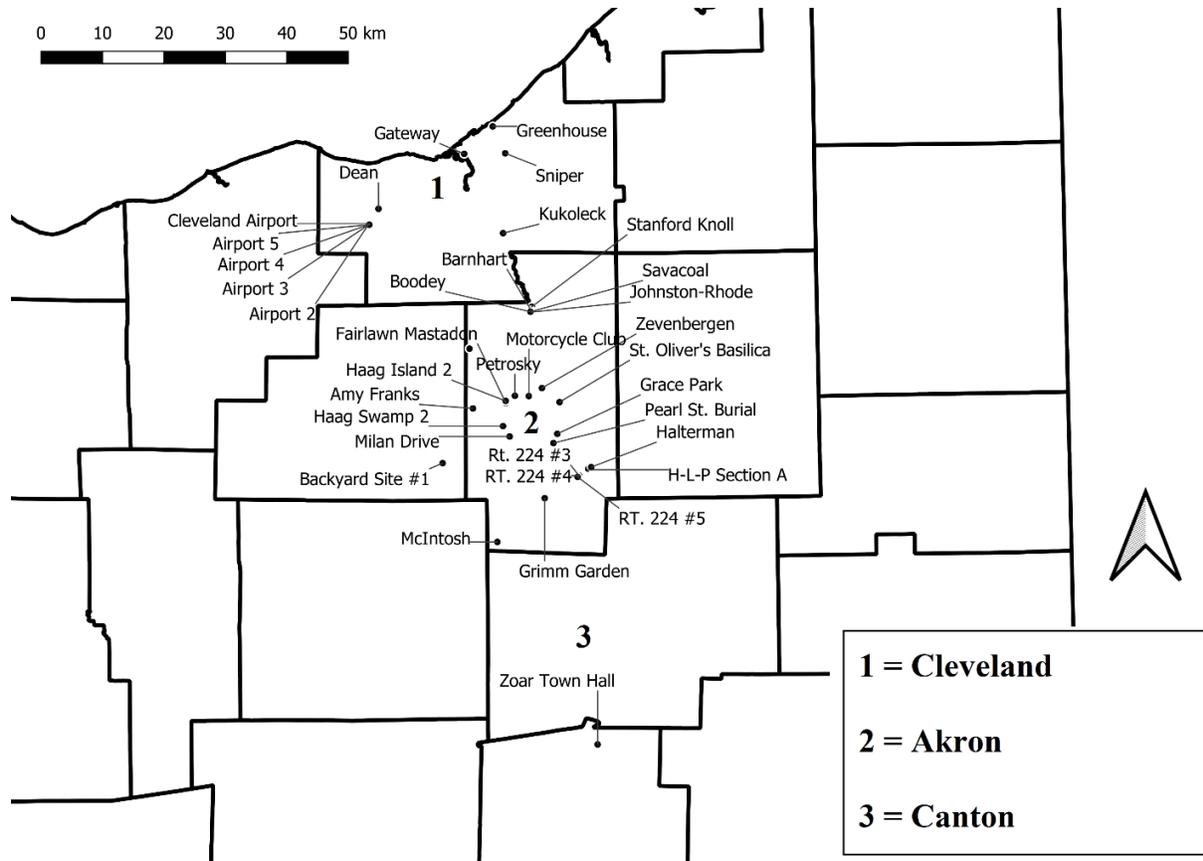


Figure 1: Location of sites included in sample, with county borders and locations of major cities.

Of the sites sampled for this study, only three sites were discovered after the original residences or buildings were razed (Gateway, Greenhouse, and Johnston-Rhode). However, in these three cases, construction activities and disturbances were still active after the original residence was razed. In particular, the Gateway site was identified prior to construction of Progressive Field in downtown Cleveland by faculty at Cleveland State University. The artifacts are currently displayed at the Cleveland State University Library.

In general, these sites included in the sample represent small lithic debitage scatters, with the occasional chipped stone tool. Only eight of these sites were identified within 10 meters of the nearest building. Four sites contained prehistoric features; however, the Pearl Street Burial lacks specific details beyond an expedient grave unearthed in 1913. From the reported evidence, the burial is likely Native American, but it was unclear from the news reports how this conclusion was made.

The Kukoleck Site

The Kukoleck site, for the purpose of this analysis, includes both the excavations in 2007, and the excavations in the 1930s by David Sanders Clark. While not listed on the OAI form, the Clark excavations extend across the road, and should be considered part of the same site. The site contains a significant number of features, which were identified in the 1930s during a survey to find the location of the historic village of Pilgerruh (Clark 1940). Clark, working as a research associate of the Western Reserve Historical Society (WRHS), surveyed the area for evidence of the Moravian town of Pilgerruh. During his excavations, he reportedly found "three circular stone fireplaces and remnants of some eight to ten posts, now nearly reverted to earth...as well as a few arrowheads, a number of hand-wrought nails, and some fragments of clay pipes" (Clark 1940:15). Clark did not clarify if the posts and fire pits were associated with Pilgerruh or older; in fact, he explicitly states he does not know (Clark 1940:16). Brose et al. (1981:263) re-examined the artifacts



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recovered by Clark and stored at "Bethlehem College, PA," which is today known as Moravian College. The artifacts examined at Bethlehem included "Late Prehistoric Whittlesey II ceramics (1100-1350 AD) and a few early nineteenth century artifacts" (Brose et al. 1981:263). Clark's (1940:15) excavation report describes a small crew of volunteers, with no mechanical assistance, digging two and a half foot trenches ten to twelve feet apart down to "virgin yellow clay." According to Finney (2002:166) the Clark excavation is known as the "Hathaway Road" site. Finney (2002:465) also approximates the Clark investigations at the present location of the Valley View Municipal Building south of Hathaway Road and east of Canal Road, or essentially on top of 33 CU 509 (the Kukoleck site). Unfortunately, artifacts from the Clark excavations could not be located at the WRHS or at Moravian College.

Professionally Excavated Sites

Unlike these early twentieth-century investigations, Stanford Knoll and the Barnhart property were excavated professionally and identified substantial prehistoric artifact assemblages and features. Stanford Knoll contains some of the oldest recorded pottery in Ohio (Wanyerka 2016), as well as domestic architecture from the Late Woodland period (Lee 1983). Stanford knoll has several radiocarbon dated features ranging from Early to Late Woodland, while the Barnhart property contains at least one Middle Woodland radiocarbon dated fire pit. It is worth pointing out that both these sites were identified on properties with homes constructed in the first half of the 19th century and have been under the protection of the National Park Service since 1974.

Despite these relatively few sites with recorded features (Barnhart, Kukoleck, Pearl St. Burial, and Stanford Knoll) there are at least three additional sites that contained indirect evidence of features: John Brown, Halterman, and Zevenbergen. At each of these sites, small amounts of fire-cracked rocks (FCR) were recorded. Where there are FCR, there are usually fire-pits or other thermal features which created them. However, in these three cases it is possible the features were destroyed during the construction of the homes on the properties. If we include these three sites as indirect evidence of features, this brings the total percent of sites within the sample with features or evidence of features to 17 percent (n = 7).

St. Oliver's Basilica

The last site worth describing in detail is St. Oliver's Basilica. St. Oliver's Basilica was surveyed using a simple metal rod as a soil probe. The probe was inserted at 25 cm increments north-south, and 1 meter east-west. When resistance was felt, the probe depth was recorded. These depths were then interpolated in QGIS to generate a shaded relief map depicting relative soil compaction. This simple technique has been used elsewhere as a cost-effective geophysical technique (Szalai et al. 2011). Figure 2 illustrates the locations of shovel test units, and a singular bucket auger overlaid on the interpolated soil depths. The slope of the backyard, resulting from the backfill of basement excavation, is clearly visible as the more compacted portion of the yard, as indicated by the shallow probe depths. This area was also notable for the high surface clay content and poor vegetation growth (spotty growth and bare dirt). As is common in the construction of homes with basements, the B horizon and deeper soil strata are spread out in the yard immediately around the home. The micro-flakes were found in the auger test, after a 500 ml soil sample was run through a simple floatation screen. The soil sample was collected as a representative sample of the soil in what appeared from both the probe data and surface observation to be the undisturbed natural soils of the backyard. The back of the house is less than five meters east of the auger test.



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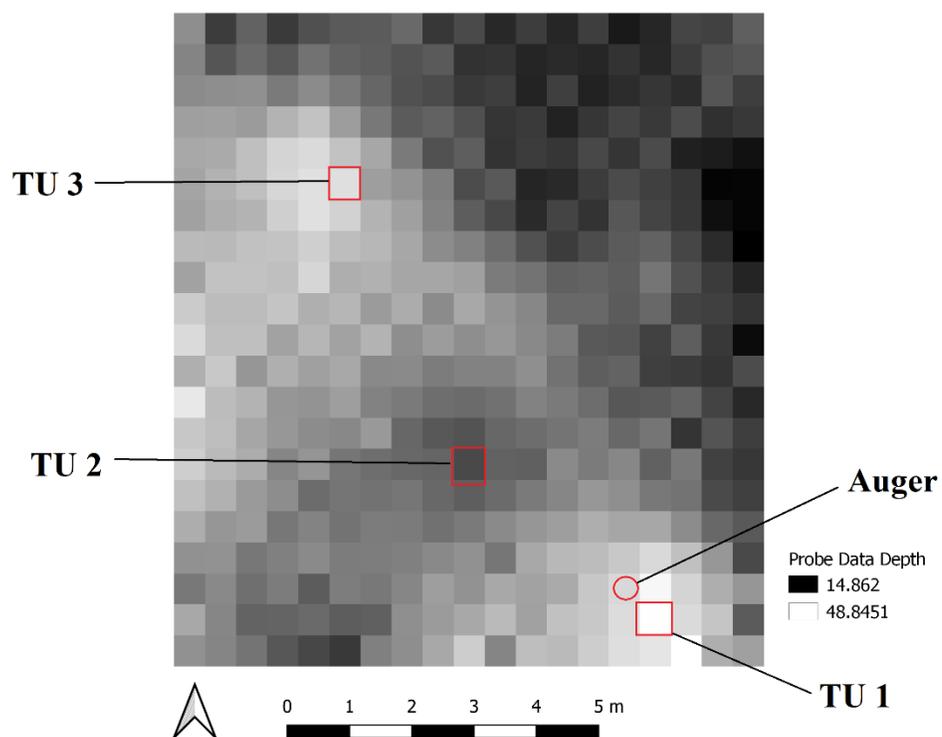


Figure 2: Location of auger test and shovel test units in an interpolation map of soil probe depth (in centimeters below surface) at St. Oliver's Basilica Site. Deeper probe tests are lighter and shallow probe tests are darker.



Figure 3: View of St. Oliver's Basilica site, looking north. Soil probe is located at 5 meters east of southwest corner.



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DISCUSSION

The pattern at St. Oliver's Basilica is emblematic of the general pattern to site discovery in residential lots. The back yard has the highest potential for preservation. The front yard is often attached to a public road, and most buried utilities are located between the front of the home and the road. This area is naturally higher in human traffic and activities because of the road access, thus leading to higher ground disturbing events such as repairs, construction, and utilities maintenance and/or installation.

Though this is a small sample, from a limited geographic region of the United States, there are some interesting patterns in these data. Sites, with intact prehistoric features, can be found on residential sites within 10 meters of a historic or modern home. However, most sites are found further away from the home. In general, the author hesitates to call this a "10-meter rule," for fear that this may be used indiscriminately by cultural resource managers. Even within this sample, the 10-meter "rule" has exceptions. In only one case were prehistoric artifacts found on a parcel less than 1011 square meters (quarter acre): St. Oliver's Basilica.

There are exceptions to this pattern, too. At the Zoar Town Hall, a single flake was discovered near the foundation, and in the front of the building. Similarly, the Stanford Knoll site lies just a few meters from the front porch of the homestead. However, both cases are at homes constructed in the first half of the 19th century, and thus had no public utilities to disturb the soil. With the advent of call before you dig laws, and organizations such as the Ohio Utilities Protection Service (OUPS), the identification and delineation of buried utilities has become as simple as a mouse-click. When paired with a simple soil probe survey of the backyard, like the one used at St. Oliver's Basilica, archaeologists can identify the extent of soil disturbance via home construction and utility installation.

Future studies should concentrate not only on sites which have been documented in urban contexts, but those surveys which yielded no archaeological materials. Given the current apathy and low expectations for urban prehistoric archaeology in the United States, extant surveys which failed to yield materials may reflect the biases of the surveyors and not the archaeological record. New studies should incorporate random samples of residential lots, with the explicit purpose of identifying prehistoric materials.

However, in all instances (e.g. past and future surveys), this belies the biggest source of data: the landowner. The current sample was restricted by provenience information, but a quick survey of sites described by Haag (2006) in Copley township could easily expand this sample. There are dozens of sites reported by Haag via landowners finding artifacts in their gardens and backyards. For example, "The Hutchinson family, who lived next door (west) of our find, had a cigar box of arrowheads they had found in their backyard garden in the late 1950s or early 1960s" (Haag 2006:136).

The issues of plow zone archaeology, raised at the beginning of this paper, are perhaps amplified in urban residential contexts. Landowners change at a higher rate of succession (and quantity) than in rural settings. The person who found a site puts their artifacts in a shoebox, and then they move to a new location, or their collection is inherited by their children who may not know anything about the artifacts. Shott (2008) has repeatedly stated, and statistically demonstrated (Shott 2015, 2017) the volume of archaeological materials in private hands. Within rural settings, there are fewer landowners collecting artifacts, and these fewer landowners tend to maintain familial ownership for longer periods of time than urban landowners. Perhaps the issue more pressing to archaeologists in residential sites is not the concern of physical integrity, but the loss of memory from landowners who no longer live there or have died. The Hutchinson's collection, as reported by Haag (2006) is probably lost to time. How many other Hutchinson's are there that are still alive with artifacts found in their gardens?

Perhaps the first place to investigate patterns in residential prehistoric archaeology are historical societies. In the case of Akron, the Summit County Historical Society houses hundreds of artifacts, mostly projectile points, found in "Akron, O." While the provenience information may be less than inspiring, archaeologists have begun to incorporate data with similar provenience in their research (VanValkenburg and Parker 2020; Olson et al. 2021). One of the largest projectile point datasets in the world, the PaleoIndian Database of Points, is provenienced to the county level. In most cases, the size of counties is orders of magnitude larger than the boundaries of a municipality. However, Historical Societies come with their own risks, often resorting to selling prehistoric artifacts before other objects in their collections, since the provenience is often poor, and prehistory is not the primary focus or mission of many historical societies. For the city



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of Cleveland, these data are likely lost. Nearly all the prehistoric collections of the Western Reserve Historical Society have been sold to the highest bidder (Mazzolini 2010).

CONCLUSION

Based on the current sample, it is untenable to claim urban or residential settings as categorically excluded from archaeological considerations. Setting aside the obvious historical archaeological potential at many residential sites, this sample of 41 archaeological surveys in "backyards" demonstrates that prehistoric artifacts and features have been identified in what are commonly assumed to be disturbed contexts (residential lots).

In general, most prehistoric materials were identified at 10 or more meters away from the foundation of the nearest home or building. However, in cases where the home was constructed in the 19th century, prehistoric materials were documented. In these cases, it is likely that the lack of underground utilities (e.g. electric, cable, plumbing) and absence of paved driveways at these older homes helped preserve these prehistoric materials. Likewise, older homes were unlikely to move earth in the same manner as modern construction using hydraulic equipment, which would disturb the soil to a higher degree.

As others have noted in studying private collections across the United States (Shott 2008, 2015, 2017; Olson et al. 2021), landowner knowledge and local collector knowledge is a wealth of information for archaeologists. However, this knowledge is often restricted to rural and agricultural settings which have not been impacted by urban development and residential construction. Local and landowner knowledge is more likely to be incomplete in urban areas due to the much higher turnover rate in ownership. The fragmentary nature of landowners means other local sources of knowledge, such as historical societies, are more likely to yield information about urban prehistory than individual landowners.

Given the limited preserved records for prehistoric sites to date, the presence of any prehistoric materials within residential contexts is significant. Prehistoric sites in residential settings are not common, and though the data they yield may be limited in scope, they provide some of the only instances where professional excavation can take place in an otherwise underrepresented region of the archaeological record. The challenges of urban prehistoric archaeology in North America pose a greater demand on literature reviews and research prior to sticking a shovel in the ground. Assuming there is nothing to be found in residential lots should no longer be the norm for cultural resource managers until there is a larger corpus of data from which to make conclusions.

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Table 1: Sites Included in sample, with basic descriptions of artifacts and features identified.

OAI	Site Name	Artifacts	Features	Other Reference
TU 809	Zoar Town Hall	Three flakes		Krumrine and Pacheco 2000
SU 456	Barnhart Property	Projectile Points, Middle Wood Bladelets bifacial tools	Two pits	Bauermeister and Richner 2012; Wanyerka 2016
SU 481	Johnston-Rodhe	Late Woodland Projectile point, 50 flakes, and retouched flake		Bauermeister and Richner 2012
N/A	John Brown House	FCR and two flakes, two French gunflints		Gintert et al. 2019
SU 138	Stanford Knoll	Late Woodland Habitation with projectile points and pottery	Postholes and pits	Bauermeister and Richner 2012
SU 353	McIntosh Site	Late Archaic Projectile Point, Three scrapers, several flakes		Heiser 2001
SU 269	Boodey House	Flake		Bauermeister and Richner 2012
N/A	Gateway	Early Woodland Bifaces		Fry et al. 2014
SU 423	Savacoal	Early Woodland Projectile Point, groundstone tool		Bauermeister and Richner 2012
SU 638	Pearl St. Burial	Human Burial (unknown cultural affiliation)	Burial	Akron Beacon Journal, June 5, 1913 page 1, column 2
CU 509	Kukoleck House	Flakes and piece of worked slate	Three fire-pits	Bauermeister 2008; Clark 1940
SU 130	Halterman	Biface, 4 flakes, FCR		Clarke et al. 1984
SU 219	RT. 224 #3	retouched flake		Dobson-Brown et al. 1994
SU 220	RT. 224 #4	flake		Dobson-Brown et al. 1994
SU 713	St. Oliver's Basilica	two micro-flakes		Olson 2021
SU 218	RT. 224 #2	Projectile Point		Dobson-Brown et al. 1994
SU 221	RT. 224 #5	biface		Dobson-Brown et al. 1994
N/A	Grace Park	Original undisturbed soils		Olson 2019
SU 129	H-L-P Section A	flakes		Clarke et al. 1984
SU 129	H-L-P Section B	flakes		Clarke et al. 1984



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SU 528	Zevenbergen	Woodland Pottery, Bifaces, and flakes		Whitman et al. 2017
SU 657	Grimm Garden	Late Archaic Projectile Points, slate axe		Vogenitz 1999:2
SU 577	Milan Drive	Two Late Archaic Projectile Points		Haag 2006: 156
SU 573	Haag Island 2	biface		Haag 2006:84
N/A	Vinyard Site	Original undisturbed soils		Olson 2017b
SU 631	Motorcycle Club Site	Middle Woodland Projectile Point		Whitman et al. 2008
SU 653	Fairlawn Mastadon	Mastadon and PaleoIndian Projectile Points		Vogenitz 1999
N/A	Petrosky	Archaic biface and nutting anvil		Olson 2017a
N/A	Backyard Site #1	Original undisturbed soils		Olson In Press
SU 576	Haag Swamp 2	Archaic Projectile Point		Haag 2006:137
SU 585	Amy Franks	Early Archaic Projectile Point and Middle Woodland pendant		Haag 2006: 59
CU 73	Sniper	Woodland Pottery, flakes		
CU 74	Greenhouse	woodland pottery, two flakes		
CU 406	Edgewater	one flake		
CU 450	Airport 1	one flake		
CU 451	Airport 2	one flake		
CU 452	Airport 3	one flake		
CU 453	Airport 4	one chert chunk		
CU 454	Airport 5	two chert chunks		
CU 455	Airport 6	one flake		



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Table 2: Historic construction episodes and years of discovery. Disturbance lag is the years between home construction and discovery.

OAI Number	Site Name	House construction	Archaeological Discovery	Disturbance lag	Municipality	Lot Size (m ²)	Distance to nearest Building or road (m)
TU 809	Zoar Town Hall	1835	2000	165	Zoar	2700	< 1
SU 456	Barnhart Property	1835	2012	177	Boston	4600	11
SU 481	Johnston-Rodhe	1830s	1986	151	Boston	13500	30
N/A	John Brown House	1840s	2019	174	Akron	7100	30
SU 138	Stanford Knoll	1850	1985	135	Boston	36000	16
SU 353	McIntosh Site	1854	1997	143	Clinton	2700	<15
SU 269	Boodey House	1860	2012	152	Boston	350	14
N/A	Gateway	1870s	1980s	100	Cleveland	3400	<20
SU 423	Savacoal	1890	2012	122	Boston	2200	<5
SU 638	Pearl St. Burial	1800s	1913	20+	Akron	1000	<15
CU 509	Kukoleck House	1914	1930s; 2007	20	Independence	5300	18
SU 130	Halterman	1917	1984	67	Akron	1400	17
SU 219	RT. 224 #3	1920	1994	74	Akron	3300	65
SU 220	RT. 224 #4	1920	1994	74	Akron	2300	19
SU 713	St. Oliver's Basilica	1929	2021	92	Cuyahoga Falls	600	<5
SU 218	RT. 224 #2	1930	1994	64	Akron	4800	60
SU 221	RT. 224 #5	1930	1994	64	Akron	4000	23
N/A	Grace Park	1930s	2018	83	Akron	29000	50
SU 129	H-L-P Section A	1930s	1984	49	Akron	3200	20
SU 129	H-L-P Section B	1930s	1984	49	Akron	2800	20
SU 528	Zevenbergen	1950	2012	62	Cuyahoga Falls	4500	16

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SU 657	Grimm Garden	1953	1990s	42	Portage Lakes	1000	15
SU 577	Milan Drive	1959	2000s	46	Copley	3400	20+
SU 573	Haag Island 2	1962	2000s	43	Fairlawn	1100	12
N/A	Vinyard Site	1966	2017	51	Richfield Twp.	6600	30
SU 631	Motorcycle Club Site	1967	2000s	38	Akron	21000	18
SU 653	Fairlawn Mastadon	1967	1967	0	Fairlawn	7300	0
N/A	Petrosky	1973	1990s	22	Fairlawn	2700	<5
N/A	Backyard Site #1	1975	2020	45	Wadsworth	1740	20
SU 576	Haag Swamp 2	1991	1990s	4	Copley	1000	<15
SU 585	Amy Franks	1998	1998	0	Copley	3400	<5
CU 73	Sniper	1800s	1976	126	Cleveland	8800+	10+
CU 74	Greenhouse	1930s	1976	41	Cleveland	100	<5
CU 406	Edgewater	1930s	1997	62	Cleveland	8800+	100
CU 450	Airport 1	1930s	1998	63	Cleveland	8800+	15
CU 451	Airport 2	1930s	1998	63	Cleveland	8800+	15
CU 452	Airport 3	1930s	1998	63	Cleveland	8800+	15
CU 453	Airport 4	1930s	1998	63	Cleveland	8800+	15
CU 454	Airport 5	1930s	1998	63	Cleveland	8800+	15
CU 455	Airport 6	1930s	1998	63	Cleveland	8800+	15