OVER 5,000 YEARS OF HISTORY IN EASTERN CONNECTICUT

The Story of the Tower Hill Road Site
Cultural resources may be anything that shows evidence of having been made, used, or altered by humans. They represent the continuity of events from the earliest evidence of human existence to the present day. Cultural resources that are pre-written record or pre-European contact in the New World are called pre-contact or prehistoric, and those that are post-written record/European contact are called post-contact or historic. Cultural resources range from ruins that are thousands of years old to a nineteenth-century farmstead; from a small scattering of stone tools to an abandoned cart path.

Unfortunately, these resources are fragile and nonrenewable. Unlike forests that can be replanted, once destroyed archaeological sites are gone forever. Objects from a site have little meaning unless they can be related to specific soil layers (stratigraphy) and associated with other evidence of human activity, such as a fire hearth, a trash pit, a burial pit, or the structure of a building. Archaeologists call this context. Any activity that disturbs the soil may destroy context and the scientific value of the archaeological site. A trained archaeologist manages a site and records the information to preserve it for future generations.

**DIFFERENT TYPES OF CULTURAL RESOURCES**

a) Statue of Liberty in NY  
b) Kent Falls covered bridge in Litchfield County, CT  
c) Eighteenth century house foundation in Connecticut  
d) Native American pottery from New England
Imagine Eastern Connecticut without roads, buildings, or farm fields and with rich and varied forests, rolling hills, and free-flowing rivers and you have a picture of the landscape Native Americans inhabited thousands of years ago. The Quinebaug and Shetucket rivers were the highways for dugout canoes heading to Long Island Sound, and the forests and rolling hills were traversed by well-worn foot trails. The environment supported many types of plant and animal species that would have attracted people to the area and made it a favorable place to live.

This is a story about what archaeologists have learned by reading the history of eastern Connecticut’s earliest inhabitants through the artifacts and other types of evidence left behind. Cultural resources can provide a glimpse into the lives of those who lived here many generations ago and the cultures that developed here over the course of millennia. Archaeologists examine and interpret the artifacts just as historians examine and interpret written accounts of the past.

This 4,000-year-old fire pit and roasting platform are archaeological evidence of some of the activities of Native Americans. Careful excavation reveals important information such as the construction technique of the roasting platform, what it was used for and when.
Although many people associate archaeology with museums and universities, most professional archaeologists in the United States work in Cultural Resource Management (CRM). CRM archaeologists work hand-in-hand with government, industry, and Tribes to preserve disappearing Native American and early European resources threatened by ground disturbing activities. CRM professionals assist government agencies and other parties in the identification, assessment, and preservation of important cultural resources that may be affected by federal or state funded projects. The CRM firm acts as an intermediary between those planning the development and the governmental agency in charge of making sure all cultural resource regulations and laws are followed. The first priority of the CRM archaeologist is to preserve a reasonable number of archaeological sites for future generations of scientists and the public, as well as the indigenous communities whose ancestors created the sites. Professional archaeologist help identify significant sites early in project planning so that many such places can be preserved for future generations. Where significant sites can not be avoided, CRM archaeologists work with federal and state agencies and Tribes to recover important information about these sites before they are damaged or destroyed.

The Tower Hill Road Site was first discovered in 2007 by CRM archaeologists from The Public Archaeology Laboratory Inc. (PAL), who were hired by Algonquin Gas Transmission, LLC (AGT), a subsidiary of Spectra Energy Transmission, LLC, to search for archaeological sites (cultural resources) along proposed pipeline routes. The HubLine/East to West Expansion Project in Connecticut consists of the removal of 2.5 miles of an existing 6-inch high-pressure gas transmission pipeline and replacement with a new 12-inch pipeline. The archaeologists dug 2,821 test pits along the pipeline route, each measuring approximately 50 centimeters (cm) square and 70 cm deep. They discovered 21 archaeological sites, one of which was Tower Hill Road. The remainder of the sites were either avoided or determined to be insignificant resources. Installing new pipeline would physically impact the Tower Hill Road Site, therefore it was evaluated to see if it was eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. The National Register is a list of the Nation’s important historical and archaeological resources. The National Register is maintained by the National Park Service, part of the U.S. Department of the Interior in Washington, D.C. Based on the cultural resources recovered, the Tower Hill Road Site was determined to be important and significant because of the information it could yield about the ancient history of America. Since the pipeline could not be redesigned to avoid the site, a data recovery plan was developed to collect information about the site and to record its significant characteristics.

On site consultation with members of the Mashantucket Pequot Tribe, the state historic preservation office, and Spectra Energy.

Many Native American tribes in the U.S. today still gather yearly for traditional powwows. The general public is usually invited as well.

The National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA) was passed in 1966. It was designed to help protect important cultural resources for future generations by requiring federal agencies to consider important archaeological sites, historic buildings, structures, and districts in project planning. The Act has largely been responsible for the growth of the cultural resource management (CRM) industry and has created a nationwide network of federal and state agencies working toward the common goal of conserving America’s cultural heritage.
The archaeological data recovery investigation of the Tower Hill Road Site involved much more than digging. There were four major steps involved as part of the study: background research, fieldwork, laboratory processing and analysis, and report writing. The first step was to conduct background research. This required consulting historic maps and discussing the project with the State Historic Preservation Office, other archaeologists, and Native American Tribes to see if any Native American or colonial sites had ever been reported within or near the project area. Other research involved searching historical documents that portray the project area and interviewing members of the local community that may have information about the history of the area. Studies of current and past geology, plants, animals, and climate are all part of preparing for fieldwork and knowing what environmental conditions to expect. Because Tower Hill Road is a Native American site, members of the indigenous community — the Mashantucket Pequot and Mohegan Indian tribes in Connecticut were consulted. Once the background research was completed, a testing plan, or research design, was created that defined what important questions about the people that once stayed here could be answered through the excavations and interpretation of the site. The kinds of questions asked reflect what we currently understand about ancient Native people and the important gaps in our knowledge. Were people trading stone or other items? Where and how did they get their food, and how was it prepared? How many people lived at the site and for how long? What did they do while they stayed at the Tower Hill Road Site? All of these questions are incorporated into the hypotheses presented in research design.

People often ask how archaeologists know where to dig. Archaeologists find sites through a variety of means. Through many years of research archaeologists have found that places used by pre-contact Native people share certain landscape characteristics. Pre-contact Native people chose locations where potable water was available nearby, where the soils were generally dry and level, and where they could see the surrounding landscape from their camps. Notably, areas preferred by most campers today are the same that early Native Americans would have chosen.

Archaeological sites in northeastern North America are difficult to locate. Native American sites that are older than a few hundred years are buried and are not visible from the surface. The most common way artifacts are buried is through the accumulation of humus (the decomposing plant remains from trees, shrubs, grasses and herbs), which decomposes into soil. Artifacts can also be moved around by the tunneling activities of ants, animals, and tree roots (bioturbation). Other natural processes, including freezing and thawing can also move artifacts.

Finding the artifacts and features such as spear points, pottery, and hearths, will reveal only part of the story. The soil in the northeast is very acidic causing all or most organic remains, such as wood, bone, antler, and other natural plant and animal fibers to decompose quickly. The annual freezing and thawing of shallow soils breaks apart porous materials and accelerates the process of decomposition. In general, the only artifacts to survive these harsh conditions are made of stone, fired pottery, and burned bone and wood ( charcoal). Because most of the materials used by ancient people are long gone, archaeologists have to collect as much information as is practical about those artifacts and features that survive. Finding an artifact in a trash pit as opposed to a grave or burial pit tells a very different story. This is why context is so important!
SOIL PROFILE

Most soils have three major horizons: A) the surface horizon, B) the subsoil, and C) the substratum. Some soils also have an organic horizon (O) on the surface, but this could also be buried.

A typical soil profile in the northeastern U.S. Artifacts are usually found below the ground surface in the Northeast, and are usually found down to about two or three feet.

Because careful documentation is so important, it is not a good idea for people untrained in the field to excavate a site. Without proper controls, digging can result in loss of archaeological resources. To learn correct archaeological methods, contact organizations listed in the Archaeological Resources section at the end of this report.
Fieldwork includes complex tasks. There is no single technique for digging. The methods used in the field vary from excavation of test pits or trenches with shovels and trowels, to the use of heavy equipment. Overall, excavations are aimed at recovering information, not things. As pointed out earlier, artifacts have little meaning taken out of context or their original setting. This is why there is a tremendous amount of record keeping during an excavation.

Archaeologists map the site, draw soil profiles, take photographs, and note the placement of artifacts and soil characteristics. The goal is to collect enough information to recreate the site back in the laboratory. For every day in the field, there are usually three days of work in the laboratory. Once in the laboratory, the artifacts are cleaned, identified, and computer-cataloged to help interpret the archaeological site. Several types of specialized analyses are performed. For example, stone tools are measured, weighed, and examined under a microscope to look for cuts, polish, and scratches to help identify their use. Archaeologists make their own stone tools and experiment with them to determine what kinds of marks are left from different activities (cutting, scraping, hunting, etc.). Finally, all the cataloged objects are labeled and preserved for future research.

At Tower Hill Road, the PAL team began by excavating test pits within a grid pattern across the area where artifacts were initially discovered. The excavated soil was sifted through a screen to catch artifacts larger than ¼ inch. Larger excavation units, measuring 2-x-2 meters square (about 6.5 feet square) were placed to more thoroughly investigate the areas of high artifact density or in areas where features such as hearths or storage pits were identified. The archaeologists removed soil in 10-cm levels (about 4 inches) from the larger excavation units. All artifacts recovered from each level were placed in a bag together. Detailed notes describing the artifacts and soils were recorded. In addition, samples from each different soil layer were collected to look for microscopic artifacts and other materials. These samples were processed in the laboratory by sifting the soil through a series of finely meshed screens, then viewing the remains under a microscope.

Larger excavation units are opened after digging test pits across the Tower Hill Road Site and all excavated soil gets passed through a ¼ inch mesh screen, leaving artifacts and rocks behind.
WHAT WAS FOUND AT THE TOWER HILL ROAD SITE?

The archaeologists recovered thousands of artifacts from the Tower Hill Road Site. Stone flakes were the most abundant type of cultural material recovered, also called chipping debris or debitage. Thousands of flakes were produced during the process of making one stone spear point. The type and size of the flakes tell us if people were making stone tools from scratch on the site, which results in large and small flakes, or if they were only sharpening and/or repairing the tools on the site, which results in smaller flakes. Most flakes were discarded by Native Americans, though some of the larger ones were used as knives or made into other stone tools.

The archaeologists found over 1,300 stone flakes. These flakes measure anywhere from 1-cm (.4 inches) to 5-cm (2 inches) in size. Native Americans developed a very sophisticated technology for making the stone tools they used for hunting, gathering and processing food, building canoes and making structures.

The majority of the tools found are projectile points that were the tips of spears used for hunting. Over 90 projectile points were recovered. Projectile points are often called arrowheads. However arrowheads only came into use in Connecticut around 1,000 years ago. Prior to then, most points are thought to have been dart tips attached to wooden shafts for spears. The wooden shafts have long since disintegrated.

Other artifacts recovered include stone tools for scraping hides, cutting, and chopping wood; stones used for crushing nuts called “nutting stones,” stones used for grinding down a smooth surface on another tool or for grinding nuts and seeds, anvil stones, stone drills for fashioning holes in pendants or weights; broken pieces of soapstone pots, and stone cores from which the blanks came to make other stone tools.

In addition to the artifacts, archaeologists discovered features at the Tower Hill Road Site that help us understand different aspects of the site and what Native people were doing here long ago. Features are basically non-portable artifacts, which cannot be removed from the ground without destroying them, such as fire pits or soil stains. Features often contain the burned remains of food and wood charcoal that can tell archaeologists what time of year a site was occupied, what types of food were prepared, and how long ago the site was used.

Twenty-five features were uncovered at the site that fall into six categories: hearths or fire pits, large pits, small pits, roasting platforms, living surfaces or house floors, and post molds. Depending on their size, pit features may represent the remains of shelters that housed the people that stayed at the site, the areas where they stored their food in the cool earth, or where they prepared their food. Many features that were made to store or prepare food were later used as

Before the use of a bow and arrow, Native Americans used atlatls—an Aztec word for throwing stick—to give them more force and distance when throwing a spear.

Stone flakes made of quartz (also called debitage and chipping debris). Hundreds of these flakes come off a core when making a stone tool.
trash pits. Shallow pits may have been areas where bowls or pots rested. Most Native pots were pointed or rounded at the bottom and would have been set between stones in a hearth or in the earth to hold them upright. The hearth features are the remains of campfires, which may have been for warmth or cooking. In addition to charcoal, the fire pits contained charred hickory nut shells. The archaeologists recovered 485 charred nut shells from the Tower Hill Road site. The remains of nut shell suggest that the people were sitting around the campfires and roasting nuts, probably during autumn when nuts are ripe and ready to eat. Post molds, or post holes, have the appearance of small round soil stains, about 2 inches in diameter, and are evidence of where wooden posts were originally sunk into the soil and then either removed or left to disintegrate. These posts would have been for a temporary structure such as a wigwam, or maybe a drying rack for meat or fish.

A feature consisting of a scattering of fire-reddened or burned rock was most likely a result of dispersing the burned rock from a hearth or sweat lodge, or the disposal of heated rocks that were in a roasting pit or boiling pot. Native people used stone to retain or transfer the heat from fires. Boiling liquids may have been done directly in pots placed in fires or in animal skins that lined a pit. The liquid in an animal skin vessel would have been heated by placing hot rocks from a nearby fire directly inside.

Closely examining samples of soil and charcoal, plant (floral) and animal (faunal) remains back in the laboratory helped to answer questions about the resources that were available and what the environment was like when the site was occupied thousands of years ago. Carefully recording features and analyzing their contents was an important part of the research at the Tower Hill Road Site and provided a wealth of information. This included the specific functions of the various features, how plant and animal resources were used, and why Native people chose to camp here. The data collected and analyzed at this site was then compared to information from other sites to help identify cultural and technological patterns. The Tower Hill Road Site tells just one small part of a much longer story about the people who stayed here. That longer story only makes sense when you start to put the other chapters into place.
The majority of the tools found were projectile points. Other types of tools were also found at the Tower Hill Road Site representing various types of activities, including items typically used for hunting, cleaning hides, processing food, and for making stone tools.

In addition to the artifacts, archaeologists discovered features that provided more of the story. They were carefully excavated and drawn in the field.
The projectile points can be attributed to particular time periods based on their style. The points found at the Tower Hill Road Site indicated that people visited as early as 10,000 years ago during the Early Archaic period, and as late as 2,700 years ago during the Late/Transitional Archaic period. This graphic shows the number of different types of projectile points recovered from Tower Hill Road and the type of stone that was used to make them. Most of the artifacts were manufactured from quartz and quartzite.
There are several ways to determine the age of a site including radiocarbon or absolute dating, and by the styles of the artifacts found or relative dating. In the case of the Tower Hill Road Site, both absolute and relative dating techniques were used. Projectile points have recognizable styles that can be associated with different archaeological time periods, just as there are typical styles of clothing or cars for different periods of modern history. This is called relative dating because we are comparing projectile point styles relative to one another and developing a point typology. The various point styles fit into a cultural chronology of major periods in the Northeast and Connecticut. Points from the Tower Hill Road Site indicate that people visited the area and camped here periodically over the course of the last 10,000 years. Based on the types of projectile points recovered, it appears that the site was used most often between 3,800 and 4,800 years ago, or during what archaeologists call the Late Archaic archaeological period.

We were also able to estimate when people occupied the site by radiocarbon dating charcoal from the features we found. Radiocarbon dating works by assessing the amount of a slightly radioactive isotope of carbon in organic materials. Living plants and animals accumulate very small amounts of Carbon 14 throughout their lives. Because we know the rate at which the Carbon 14 isotope decays, measuring the quantity remaining in a sample allows scientists to estimate the age of the sample. The radiocarbon dates from the Tower Hill Road site were obtained from wood charcoal as well as charred hickory nutshell. Most of the fire pits and were made about the same time, give or take eight hundred years, which is not a very long time for archaeologists!

Twelve radiocarbon dates were obtained from fire-related features at Tower Hill Road that ranged from as old as 6,020 years ago to as recent as 480 years ago; however nine of the 12 dates fall between 3,860 to 4,800 years ago, which indicates when the site was occupied most frequently. So, why were the Native American inhabitants attracted to that particular spot during that time? Archaeologists have been able to reconstruct settlement patterns in New England from examining thousands of sites found in the region.

### HOW OLD IS THE TOWER HILL ROAD SITE?

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FEATURE # AND TYPE</th>
<th>RADIOCARBON AGE BEFORE PRESENT (BP)</th>
<th>PLACEMENT &amp; DIMENSIONS</th>
<th>ARTIFACTS/COMMENTS</th>
<th>CULTURAL TIME PERIOD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Feature 7 Pit</td>
<td>6020±40</td>
<td>20-52 centimeters</td>
<td>Charcoal, 5 quartz flakes, 1 quartz burwell point, 5 charred nutshell</td>
<td>Middle Archaic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feature 4 Hearth</td>
<td>4580±50</td>
<td>20-36 cmbs 40 x 40 cm</td>
<td>Charcoal flecking, 1 quartz biface, 2 quartz flakes, 92 charred nutshell.</td>
<td>Late Archaic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feature 4 (nut)</td>
<td>4510±40</td>
<td>same as above</td>
<td>same as above</td>
<td>Late Archaic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feature 1 (nut)</td>
<td>4490±40</td>
<td>25-90 cmbs 60 x 65 cm</td>
<td>Charcoal, 195 charred nutshell fragments, 7 unidentified charred seeds, 29 calcined bone, 28 quartzite flakes, 22 quartz flakes, 2 granite flakes, 2 biface fragments (quartz and granite), 1 quartz utilized flake, 1 quartzite chopper, 1 quartz core, 1 chert scraper, 1 chert axe fragment, 1 granite axe preform, 1 quartzite squibnocket stemmed point, 1 quartzite lamoka point, 5 fire-cracked rock.</td>
<td>Late Archaic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feature 1 Pit</td>
<td>4340±50</td>
<td>same as above</td>
<td>same as above</td>
<td>Late Archaic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feature 4 (nut)</td>
<td>4310±50</td>
<td>30-50 cmbs 81 x-53 cm</td>
<td>Fire-cracked rock, 1 quartz biface, charcoal and seed fragments</td>
<td>Late Archaic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feature 18</td>
<td>4100±40</td>
<td>20-50 cmbs 70 x 80 cm</td>
<td>Charcoal, 2 quartz flakes, 3 quartzite flakes, 14 calcined bone fragments, 1 charred nutshell</td>
<td>Late Archaic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feature 3 (nut)</td>
<td>4050±60</td>
<td>30-34 cmbs 34-x-41 cm</td>
<td>Charcoal, 1 quartzite flake, an unidentified mammal bone fragment, and charred nutshell fragments.</td>
<td>Late Archaic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feature 3 (nut)</td>
<td>3940±40</td>
<td>50-60 cmbs 35 x 23 cm</td>
<td>Charcoal, 4 calcined bone, 9 charred nutshell</td>
<td>Late Archaic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feature 6 (nut)</td>
<td>3860±50</td>
<td>20-38 cmbs 90 x 80 cm</td>
<td>Charcoal, 40 quartz flakes, 12 quartzite flakes, 1 argillite flakes, 1 quartz scraper, 1 quartzite knife, 1 quartz biface, 6 calcined bone, 52 charred nutshell.</td>
<td>Late Archaic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feature 25 Large Pit</td>
<td>1940±40</td>
<td>16-110 cmbs 100 x 100 cm</td>
<td>Charcoal flecking, 4 quartz flakes, 2 quartzite flakes, 38 charred nutshell, 2 charred seeds (blueberry and blackberry), charcoal fragments.</td>
<td>Middle Woodland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feature 17 Fire Pit</td>
<td>480±50</td>
<td>20-36 cmbs 50 x 27 cm</td>
<td>Charcoal fragments, 1 quartz flake, fire-cracked rock.</td>
<td>Late Woodland</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
THE FIRST ARRIVAL
Finding cultural evidence dating back 10,000 years is not as rare as one may think. People first ventured into North America at least 12,000 years ago following the retreat of the melting glaciers.

The earliest evidence for human occupation in the Northeast dates from the PaleoIndian period, a time of dramatic climatic change in southern New England. The environment was much colder and drier than today and can be described as tundra-like with only coniferous trees, such as spruce and firs. The PaleoIndian people moved into the area after the glacial ice sheets began to melt and retreat. Although there were no glaciers remaining in Connecticut when the first PaleoIndians arrived, there was still such an enormous amount of ice surrounding the North and South Poles and in the major mountain ranges around the world that sea levels were at least 200 feet lower than they are today. PaleoIndians generally lived in small family groups and moved frequently from camp to camp. They collected plants and hunted mastodon, bison, elk, caribou, and smaller animals.

PaleoIndian archaeological sites are usually identified by a suite of distinctive stone tools and by the equally distinctive technology used to make them. The most readily recognizable tool form is the fluted point, a lanceolate-shaped point that has been thinned by the removal of one or more flakes from the base toward the tip, leaving an elongate flake scar (or “flute”) on each side.

Most animals had value beyond food to the early Native Americans, and many tools on PaleoIndian sites were used to process animal remains. For example, caribou hides made warm and durable clothing. Animal tendons were used to sew clothing together, bind tools to handles and tie together wooden posts and frames used for a variety of things. Tools, such as awls, were made from animal bones, and teeth were used to make jewelry or to decorate clothing.

Although nearly 100 fluted points or fragments of fluted points have been found in Connecticut, only a handful of actual sites have been excavated. They include the Templeton Site located in the Housatonic River drainage in Washington; the Great Hill Site in Seymour; the Hidden Creek Site, located on the Mashantucket-Pequot Reservation; the Liebmann Site in Lebanon; the Dill Farm Site in East Haddam; and the Baldwin Ridge Site located on a ridge overlooking the Thames River valley in Groton. These sites appear to have been small seasonal camps, where a wide range of stone tool manufacturing, tool maintenance, and domestic activities were carried out.

However, several well-documented PaleoIndian sites have been identified outside of Connecticut such as the Duchess Quarry Cave Site in New York, the Shawnee-Minisink site in Pennsylvania, and the Bull Brook and Wapanucket sites in Massachusetts. These sites yielded stone tools including knives, scrapers, hammerstones, and fluted spear points, as well as caribou bone and some charred seeds. Because the PaleoIndians moved around so often, they didn’t leave much evidence behind.
THE ARCHAIC PERIOD

Around 10,000 years ago, the climate warmed as the glaciers continued to melt. People began settling down for longer periods of time and leaving behind more cultural material. Many archaeologists refer to the Archaic period as a time of Native American colonization and settlement in the Northeastern United States. Although the mastodon and bison disappeared, many more types of plants and animals were available, such as mixed deciduous forests and white tailed deer.

People living during this time began producing a wider variety of stone tools to process their new resources. Special tools, such as axes and gouges, were made for woodworking. People settled in a wider variety of places as the forests, marshes, and floodplains developed into more complex and varied habitats.

The Archaic is typically subdivided into Early, Middle, and Late periods. Similar to the Paleo-Indian period, the earliest Archaic sites have been hard to find. During the Early Archaic, people continued to hunt and gather available game and harvest woodland and wetland vegetation and nuts. As with the PaleoIndian period, Early Archaic sites are usually identified by distinctive stone tools. The most recognizable tool form is the bifurcate-base, or “bifurcated”, projectile point.

Most of the Early Archaic sites in Connecticut have been found in the Connecticut River Valley and on the Mashantucket Pequot Reservation. At the Dill Farm Site in East Haddam several bifurcate-base points were found along with charred nuts and mammal bones, refuse pits, hearth areas, and evidence of stone tool manufacturing. One of best documented Early Archaic sites in Connecticut is the Sandy Hill Site on the Mashantucket Pequot Reservation. At this site, archaeologists found that Native Americans excavated into a sandy hillside to build “semi-subterranean” or partially buried pit houses. Radiocarbon analysis of charred hazelnut fragments recovered from the site placed it at around 9,000 years old.

Sites of this age have been found along rivers as well as in some upland settings. Upland environments are considered to be at higher elevations, usually above 300-feet above sea level, and often in interior locations several miles away from salt water. The earliest evidence of human occupation at the Tower Hill Road Site dates to the Early Archaic period. We know this because we recovered one bifurcated point, suggesting that someone, or a small group, passed through the site while hunting.

The Middle Archaic period began approximately 8,500 years
ago in the Northeast and pollen evidence indicates the climate was becoming moister and warmer allowing for the development of oak and hemlock trees. Having available wood resources resulted in a greater assortment of tool types during the Middle Archaic. The presence of woodworking tools such as adzes, gouges, and grooved axes suggests the Native Americans were making dugout canoes. The presence of net sinkers and plummets indicates the growing importance of fishing as well. The projectile points that usually identify a Middle Archaic site are called Neville, Neville variant, and Stark points.

In general, there are many more Middle Archaic sites in Connecticut than in the preceding periods, reflecting a rise in populations, an increased use of upland habitats, and the use of larger communal camps near large streams, rivers, and other wetlands. There are multiple Middle Archaic sites in the vicinity of Norwich, North Stonington, Preston and Ledyard. At Tower Hill Road, people during the Middle Archaic left behind one Neville variant spear point that can be dated to this time period.

During the Late Archaic period, starting around 5,000 years ago, the climate continued to be warm and dry, creating an environment similar to our own. The pine trees that covered much of the land during the Early and Middle Archaic periods were gradually replaced by oaks and hickories. The nuts from these trees were an important resource for people and for games animals like deer and turkey. People settled in various areas along large rivers as well as in the uplands, and would stay at campsites for longer periods of time, as is evident from the post molds left from their wigwams. Late Archaic people in the Northeast were part of active trade networks that extended to the north, south, and west. Distinctive and exotic stone materials from other regions are found at many Late Archaic sites. Many different styles of spear points represent this time period including Narrow Stemmed, Squibnocket triangle, Susquehana broad, Atlantic, and Orient Fishtail points. Stone bowls, platters, and trays carved from soapstone were made in Connecticut, Rhode Island and Massachusetts by the end of the Late Archaic. These stone bowls are among the oldest surviving containers used by Native people in the Northeast. Although it is all but certain that baskets, bags, and other vessels were made from the earliest periods of settlement, the wood, fiber, shell, and antler materials decayed long ago. The Late Archaic time period is the best represented archaeological period in Connecticut, and most numerous site type in the vicinity of Tower Hill Road.

Late Archaic sites are typically situated near wetlands, small streams, lakes and ponds, or on hills. Numerous Late Archaic sites were found at the
At Tower Hill Road, the Late Archaic period is represented by a large collection of spear points including several styles of Narrow Stemmed points as well as Susquehanna and Orient Fishtail points. Steatite bowl fragments and charcoal dating to the Late Archaic time period were also recovered. Most of the features (fire pits, storage pits, trash pits, etc.) were made during the Late Archaic period. We also know they were collecting and eating hickory nuts from the charred remains found in the features.

People settled in various areas along large rivers as well as in the uplands and would stay at campsites for longer periods of time, as is evident from the post molds we find from their wigwams.

former Norwich State Hospital complex in Preston and Norwich, along the Thames River, as well as around Cedar Swamp in Ledyard and Preston. Archaeologists have found evidence of campsites with hearths and storage pits, caches of tools, and house remains on Late Archaic sites in the area. Analysis of the charred plant remains have revealed that people were eating hickory nuts, acorns, walnuts, hazel nuts, as well as fleshy fruits such as blueberries, raspberries, and elderberries. Seeds rich in fat, such as those from goosefoot and knotweed, were harvested in the summer and falls months. Late Archaic groups were also taking advantage of the rich estuaries and salt marshes that former along the mouths of major rivers during this period. Large shell middens, heaps or piles of oyster and clam shells, are found along the shoreline and surrounding the mouths of large rivers. Fishing was an important part of life for many Late Archaic people and large weirs have been identified along the Quinebaug and Shetucket Rivers. Weirs are lines of stone, wooden posts, and brush that were built to funnel migrating fish into traps. They often extended across an entire river channel and would have taken many hundreds of hours to construct and maintain. The Late Archaic people in Connecticut occupied small special purpose camps, larger seasonal base camps, steatite quarries, rockshelters, and burial grounds.
Follow ing the A rchaic period, archae-ologists identify the W oodland period as a time of continued development for local N ative Americans. In general, the Woodland period is described as a gradual cultural transformation from a hunting and gathering way of life toward a more sedentary existence associated with the introduction of farming and pottery. This is sometimes referred to as the container revolution. Clay pots provided Woodland peoples many more options for storing and cooking food. Just as the stone spear points can be “dated” based on their style, so can the clay pottery of the Woodland period.

Like the Archaic period, the Woodland period can be subdivided into Early, M iddle and L ate periods. In general, the cultural and settlement patterns did not change dramatically in the Early W oodland period beginning around 3,000 years ago. The biggest change is the introduction of pottery, which had thick walls and pointed bottoms for placing on or in the ground, and very little decoration. This type of pot is called "Vinette I" by archaeologists. Early W oodland sites have been found in a variety of landscapes including floodplain wetlands, terraces and upland lakes. We also know that the Native American hunter-gatherers began selectively planting blueberries, goosefoot, and sunflowers that had larger seeds or fruits or thinner seed husks. The chances of a better harvest improved in succeeding years as these once wild plants were domesticated. Archaeologists work with specialists called archaeobotanists to analyze the plant remains found at sites. This information helps us understand how human and plant communities changed when farming became common in the region. Besides the distinctive Vinette I pottery, stone spear points called Rossville and Meadowood are representative of the Early Woodland period.

There are two recorded Early Woodland sites located in Ledyard at Cedar Swamp, south of the Tower Hill Road Site. The archaeologists didn’t find any evidence to suggest that people were using the Tower Hill Road Site during the Early Woodland period.

The trend towards a sedentary life continued into the M iddle W oodland period which began approximately 2,000 years ago. Relative to their Early W oodland period ancestors, M iddle W oodland people in the Northeast were spending more time in the best

Native Americans began making fired clay pottery in the Northeast about 3,000 years ago. The first styles were plain and called Vinette I, followed by more elaborately designed pots with collared necks and castellated rims.
Beginning around 1,000 years ago, Native Americans made triangular stone arrowheads to use with a bow and arrow. Once the Europeans arrived, Native Americans traded furs and maize for metal objects, such as pots, which they used to make arrowheads.
Initial contact between the Native peoples of Connecticut and Europeans occurred about 450 years ago. Archaeologists refer to this time as the Contact period. Contact with European populations triggered enormous and disruptive changes to Native American social, economic, and political culture. Diseases introduced by Europeans and warfare resulted in the reduction of Native American populations in New England by the end of the 17th century.

The lifeways of the Native populations during the Contact period are believed to have been similar to those of the Late Woodland period. There were a number of large permanent base camps and villages, some fortified, as well as smaller hunting and fishing camps. Large groups may have gathered together at certain times of the year to fish and hunt as well as for social and ceremonial functions. People began growing crops such as maize, beans, and squash more intensively. This new diet led to all sorts of changes in terms of organization of labor, and social stratification. Many of these large villages were protected with palisades, and there is also evidence of some warfare. Palisaded or fortified Indian villages were situated in commanding positions in present-day Montville (Fort Shantok) and Mystic, Connecticut. Connecticut was the home of several different Native American groups at the beginning of the 17th century, all of whom spoke related Algonquian languages.

Due to the strong presence of the Pequot and Mohegan tribes in Eastern Connecticut, numerous Contact period Native American sites are present in the vicinity of the Tower Hill Road Site. A number of these sites are located within the Mashantucket Pequot Reservation Archaeological District. On these sites archaeologists have found evidence of both Native American and European artifacts together such as pottery, copper and brass beads and kettles, copper arrowheads, English white clay pipes, Native American clay pipes, textiles, bottles, and other seventeenth-century objects—an indication of the prevalent trade network, as well as the assimilation into a European way of life.
Based on information gathered during the archaeological investigations, Tower Hill Road was a campsite that was used over a period of thousands of years by Native American hunter-gatherers or Native people that farmed but also continued to collect food and other resources from the forest. Hunter-gatherers made their living by searching for and obtaining animal and plant foods directly from their environment, without farming. They were typically egalitarian societies, meaning there was very little difference between people in terms of wealth and power. They shared food and worked together as a community. It is important to realize that all human populations throughout the world have at one time or another been hunter-gatherers, and a few groups still live this way today. The knowledge we have about modern hunter-gatherer societies, the oral histories of modern Native Americans, and information from archaeological excavations allows us to speculate about how the pre-contact Native Americans might have lived.

During the Archaic period, when the Tower Hill Road Site was primarily used, people would travel from one site to another in a regular cycle timed to the changing seasons. We suspect, for example, that during the fall, families moved to camps on the river terraces where they could hunt deer and gather acorns and other nuts for winter food. In the spring and summer, they might have moved to camps on streams, where they could fish and gather roots, berries and mussels. By coming back to their sites repeatedly over thousands of years, a great deal of waste material was left, which can be found by archaeologists.

Native Americans would use specialized task camps for short periods of time, away from their seasonal base camp. The smaller camps were usually along smaller streams and in upland areas. These small camps were used by only a few people for a few days or even hours while on a special trip to obtain food or other necessary provisions to take back to the main base camp. Examples of short-term camps include nut collecting camps, hunting and fishing camps, and quarry camps where stone was collected for making tools.

It is important to remember that the Tower Hill Road Site was used by many people over a very long period of time. Although people were likely drawn to the site by the same basic characteristics, each use reflects the needs of individuals that stayed here and the way in which they lived on the land. One of the great challenges in understanding a site such as this one is untangling the evidence of each site use from all those that came before and after. This isn’t just one story, but many related stories that together illustrate why Tower Hill Road is significant.

If the Tower Hill Road Site was used as a base camp where many people lived for long periods, archaeologists might expect to find many features, such as evidence of wigwams or other structures, fire places, storage and garbage pits, and a wide variety of tools. If it was a short-term camp used by only a few people, archaeologists would expect to find fewer tools, fewer kinds of tools, and fewer features.

Based on the identified artifacts and features, archaeologists were able to conclude that the Tower Hill Road Site was a seasonal base camp for hunting and collecting nuts during the Late Archaic period. Hunting activities are illustrated by the amount of spear points and burned bone recovered, while nut collecting is evident by the grinding stones, nutting stones, and all the charred nutshells found in the fire pits. The site was also used very briefly during the Early Archaic, Middle Archaic, Middle Woodland, and Late Woodland periods as a hunting spot or overnight campsite. Only a few artifacts and features from these time periods were identified, compared to the amount left behind from the Late Archaic occupation.

Large areas were excavated to reveal cooking hearths, post molds, and storage pits.
Almost all of the projectile points recovered from the Tower Hill Road Site were of the same basic style, called Narrow-stemmed, named for their shape. Although these points may all may look the same at first glance, there are particular attributes among them that set them apart. Four styles of Narrow-stemmed points were identified in the assemblage. By examining their location on the site, associated artifacts, and the radiocarbon dates from adjacent features, it was determined that these four types of projectile points were made at different times within the Late Archaic period and were associated with different activities. The points are called Burwell, Squibnocket Stemmed, Lamoka, and Wading River.

**All Narrow-stemmed points recovered from the Tower Hill Road site.**

### Burwell Projectile Points
A total of 15 Burwell points were recovered. They were identified by their small, thick, usually equilateral triangle shape and short, wide stem that is often tanged, and a concave base. A Burwell point was found in a pit feature that yielded a Middle Archaic radiocarbon date of 6020±40 B.P.

### Squibnocket Stemmed Projectile Points
A total of 10 Squibnocket Stemmed points were recovered. They were identified by their thick, narrow elongated shape, weak shoulders, tapered stem, and bluntly rounded base. One Squibnocket Stemmed point was recovered along with a Lamoka point from a feature yielding a radiocarbon date of 4490±40.

### Lamoka Projectile Points
A total of 30 Lamoka points were recovered. These points are relatively thick with narrow blades, C-shaped notched shoulders, and a straight or rounded base. One Lamoka point was recovered from a feature dating to 3940±40 B.P.

### Wading River Projectile Points
A total of 14 Wading River points were recovered. These points were identified by their narrow pointed blades, weak to pronounced shoulders, straight stems and bases. The majority of the Wading River points were recovered around a feature dating to 3940±40 B.P.
WHAT KIND OF STONE WAS USED TO MAKE THE TOOLS AND HOW WERE THEY MADE?

The Native Americans at Tower Hill Road used a variety of stone types to make their stone tools, most of which was common to the area. Plenty of evidence was left behind to suggest the Narrow-stemmed points were made from hand-sized cobbles of quartz and quartzite in a “split cobbles technology” fashion. Quartz and quartzite cobbles were readily available from glacial till and along river banks. Quartzite was a favored material for making stone tools throughout eastern Connecticut, with quarries found along the Honey Hill fault line that runs through the region.

The Narrow-stemmed points were manufactured from quartz and quartzite cobbles. Remnants from all stages of manufacture were recovered from the Tower Hill Road Site. Many of the points exhibit cobble cortex, which is the outside weathered rind of the cobble.

WHERE WERE THE DIFFERENT POINTS FOUND ON THE SITE?

Both the Burwell and Wading River types were concentrated in two distinct areas, whereas the Lamoka and Squibnocket Stemmed were more widespread throughout the site, and tended to overlap. The spatial configuration of points at the site suggests Burwell points may represent an earlier occupation based on their association with a ca. 6000 B.P. dated feature, and the fact the majority were concentrated in one area of the site with no overlapping. The makers of Lamoka and Squibnocket Stemmed points appear to have been contemporaneous based on their association with ca. 4500 B.P. dated features and simultaneous spatial arrangement. They also appear to be associated with the food processing living areas containing charred nutshell, nutting stones, grinding stones and calcined mammal bone. The Wading River point appears to be a slightly later invention based on their association with ca. 3800 B.P. dated features and concentrated location in one area of the site.

By plotting the location of each of the Narrow-stemmed points on the site and looking at the associated features, it was possible to attribute the four types to different time periods and activities.
ACTIVITIES AT THE TOWER HILL ROAD SITE:
WHAT DOES THE CULTURAL MATERIAL TELL US?

A combination of information was used to determine what people were doing at this site. Since so many of the tools recovered were projectile points, we believe the Tower Hill Road Site was used as a hunting camp during the Late Archaic period. Hunting camps are not necessarily the locations where actual hunting took place, but more commonly the places where one or more hunters stayed while they were hunting in the surrounding area. We also found many other types of stone tools, such as grinding and nutting stones used for crushing seeds and hickory nuts, and fragments of steatite bowls that were likely used for cooking the nuts and seeds over hot fires. The fires were also used for roasting nuts. The hickory nuts especially were high in calories and rich in fat, providing sustenance during the winter and early spring months. The hickory is available in autumn in southern New England and, unlike acorns, hickory nuts do not require extensive processing to make the nut meat edible. The charred seeds recovered include black raspberry and blueberry, which would have been available in the late summer months.

Archaeologists also examined the charcoal for species identification. The majority of the wood charcoal was chestnut and northern red oak. Chestnut, especially, makes good firewood.

The artifacts from Tower Hill Road also indicate that the inhabitants spent time making the spear points and repairing their hunting equipment. Many of the tools had been sharpened or recycled to make a new tool type.

Archaeologists examined the type of wear on the tools. Using tools on different materials leaves unique patterns of wear, such as damage or polish, and sometimes an archaeologist can tell the difference between tools used to scrape leather, cut meat, process vegetal materials or scrape wood. Wear analysis informed us that the tools were used on hard materials like wood or bone, as opposed to soft material such as flesh. People may have been using these tools for making new wooden shafts for projectile points, which often break while hunting. Also, some of the notching and broken edges on the tools used as knives could have happened while butchering an animal, which involves cutting hard, bony joints.
THE STORY OF THE TOWER HILL ROAD SITE

Overall, the archaeological finds at the Tower Hill Road Site added to the rich Native American history of eastern Connecticut. Generations of people visited the site over the course of 10,000 years. During the late summer to late fall they would make their way to this terrace to hunt deer and other fauna attracted by the wetland just below. They made their projectile points by breaking apart quartz and quartzite cobbles and collected enough nuts to last throughout the winter. It was a perfect place surrounded by hickory, chestnut and red oak trees. The wetlands supported various grasses and plants that could be used for textiles and medicine as well as food, and the presence of a natural spring for fresh water made it an especially favorite spot. Just a quarter mile away, Spaulding Pond teemed with fish and fresh water mussels. The area was conveniently located for travel. The Quinebaug River was accessible one mile to the east and the Shetucket River one mile to the west, both converging two miles downstream into the Thames River, which would take them to Long Island Sound.
**Absolute dating:** The determination of age with reference to a specific time scale, such as a fixed calendrical system also referred to as chronometric dating. Examples of absolute dating are tree-ring dating and radiocarbon dating.

**Anthropology:** The study of humanity – our physical characteristics as animals, and our unique non-biological characteristics we call culture. The subject is generally broken down into three subdisciplines: biological (physical) anthropology, cultural (social) anthropology, and archaeology.

**Archaeology:** A subdiscipline of anthropology involving the study of the human past through its material remains.

**Archaeologist:** Anyone with an interest in the aims and methods of archaeology. At a professional level, the archaeologist usually holds a degree in anthropology, with a specialization in archaeology. The professional archaeologist is one who is capable of collecting archaeological information in a proper scientific way, and interpreting that information in light of existing scientific theories and methods.

**Artifact:** Any portable object that shows evidence of modification by humans. Examples of artifacts are spear points chipped from stone, animal bones burned during preparation of a meal, fragments of pottery vessels and coins. Whether ancient or recent, artifacts are the traces of human behavior, and therefore one of the prime categories of things studied by archaeologists.

**Atlatl:** Also called a throwing stick, a tool used to increase the force behind a thrown spear. The butt of the spear shaft would fit one end of the atlatl and lie along it facing the direction of the throw. The thrower would hold the other end of the atlatl and the spear shaft together, then in throwing release the spear shaft but not the atlatl, so that the spear would be launched from the end of the atlatl rather than from the hand, artificially extending the length of the thrower’s arm for a corresponding increase in the force of the throw.

**Before Present or BP:** A chronological term used by archaeologists as an alternative to “BC.” Technically, the “present” is 1950 because that is the time to which radiocarbon dating is standardized.

**Botanical material:** Remains of plants found at a site, such as nutshells, seeds, plant products, etc. In acidic soils such as in the Northeast, these are usually not well preserved unless charred or burned.

**Biface:** An artifact that has been knapped (chipped) on both its surfaces. They are often unfinished tools. Knives and projectile points are examples of bifacial tools.

**Context:** Archaeological context refers to the setting within a site from which the relationship of archaeological features, artifacts, and environmental evidence are connected. Usually the meaning of artifacts cannot be discerned without information about their setting. One example is determining how old an object is by its depth in the ground. Unless the depth of an object is carefully recorded against a fixed point of reference, it may be impossible to relate objects to the dimension of time. Another example is finding an artifact in a ceremonial pit versus a trash pit, which gives that object different meaning.

**Core:** A block of raw material from which flakes or blades have been taken, in order to provide blanks for tools.
Cultural chronology: An outline of the major cultural developments through time—adaptations, subsistence and settlement patterns, technological innovations, etc. Archaeologists have come up with cultural chronologies for major areas around the world, usually presented in a chart from earliest to latest traits.

Cultural resources: The remains that compose our nonrenewable heritage from the past, including both the archaeological and the historical records. Archaeologically, even the smallest fragments of cultural objects potentially hold important information concerning past lifeways. Archaeologists have developed specialized techniques to recover, analyze, and preserve this information in the form of physical remains. While some artifact from ancient sites may appear insignificant to those outside the cultural group, such items may indeed hold important meaning to the descendants of those who created the artifacts. Therefore, it is vital that the broadest and most inclusive definitions of material culture be used when identifying and consulting on Native American issues.

Cultural resource management (CRM): Development of programs and policies aimed at conservation of archaeological properties and information. Such programs exist within the federal and state governments, academic institutions and private agencies.

Data: Relevant observations made on objects, serving as a basis for study.

Data recovery: An archaeological data recovery is officially defined as the “systematic removal of the scientific, prehistoric, historic, and/or archaeological data that may provide an archaeological site with its research or data value” (950 CMR 70.04).

Debitage/chipping debris: A term meaning the characteristic types of stone flakes produced from manufacture of stone tools by chipping (as, for example, stone spear or arrow points). One of the most common types of pre-contact Native American artifacts, these distinctive flakes frequently alert the archaeologist to the presence of a site.

Ecofact: The nonartificial remains found in an archaeological site, such as seeds, bones, shell, and plant pollen

Feature: In archaeology, a structure that cannot be removed from the ground without destroying it. Many things of archaeological interest are portable, such as fragments of bone, pottery and stone tools (artifacts). However, archaeological sites frequently contain human made things that are not portable, but are part of the earth itself. Examples of these features are hearths, foundations of buildings, storage pits, burial pits and canals.

Grid: A system of numbered squares printed on a map, forming the basis for references to a particular place.

Hammerstone: A stone with scarring or pitting on its end from banging, that functioned as a hammer. Hammerstones were often used to split cobbles and flake cores in stone tool manufacture. They were also used to split bones to extract marrow.

Hearth: A place where a fire is built, often ringed by stones.

Indigenous communities: The original or first peoples to settle a region. In the Americas, they are also known as American Indians, Native Americans, and First Nations.

Lanceolate-shaped point: Lanceolate: term used for knapped stone points, made without a stem, shoulders, notches, or other features that aid in attachment to a shaft.

Midden: A deposit of refuse; a garbage dump.
Pre-contact: Refers to the time period before European settlement, which in Pennsylvania dates back to at least 10,000 years ago.

Post-contact: Refers to the time period after initial European settlement, which differs depending on the geographic area in question.

Projectile point: The bifacially chipped stone head of an arrow, dart, or spear.

Radiocarbon dating: A form of absolute dating, this is the calculation of the appropriate age of an organic sample by comparing the amount of carbon-12 with that of its unstable isotope, Carbon-14. C-14 in all organic matter starts to decay at a known rate once an organism dies. This technique works only on organic material such as wood, bone, fibers, shell, etc. Dirt, rocks, and other non-organic material cannot be radiocarbon dated.

Relative dating: Determining chronological sequence without reference to a fixed time scale. Dates expressed relative to one another (for instance, earlier, later, more recent, etc.). Examples of relative dating are stratigraphy and typology.

Research design: Systematic planning of archaeological research, usually including the formulation of a strategy to resolve a particular question; the collection and recording of the evidence; the processing and analysis of these data and their interpretation; and the publication of results.

Scraper: A stone tool with flaking at the working edge used to work animal hides (deflesh), bone, wood, etc.

Site: A distinct clustering of artifacts and other remains left behind by human behavior.

Soil profile: The vertical wall of soil left between excavated areas as a record of the soil’s layering.

Steatite: A soft stone also called soapstone because of its greasy, soapy feel. Steatite was often carved into stone bowls by the Native Americans.

Stratigraphy: A number of normal processes caused the earth’s surface to be built up over time in layer cake fashion. Sometimes this is caused by floods or wind-carried soil. In other cases it may result from people piling up refuse of one kind or another. The layering effect here is called stratigraphy, and is a major interpretive tool of the archaeologist. Within a given stratigraphic sequence the most deeply buried layers are usually the oldest, and items found within the same level are usually from the same points in time. Stratigraphy is therefore a means of telling time (in a relative sense) for the archaeologist on an ideal archaeological site.

The National Register of Historic Places: The National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA) was passed in 1966. It was designed to help protect important cultural resources for future generations by having eligible sites placed on a list called the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP). Once on the list, the sites cannot be disturbed unless good alternatives can be found, such as a data recovery program. The Act has largely been responsible for growth of the CRM industry and has created a nationwide network of federal and state agencies working toward the same goal of conserving America’s cultural heritage.

Test pits: Small, systematically excavated archaeological tests. The function of the test pit is to provide a sample of a site’s contents at a particular point.

Toolkit: Cluster of artifacts that occur together as a consequence of having been used together in certain activities, such as making spear points.

Typology: The systematic organization of artifacts into types on the basis of shared attributes.
ARCHAEOLOGICAL RESOURCES—
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Archaeological Institute of America
www.archaeological.org
The AIA promotes a vivid and informed public interest in the cultures and civilizations of the past, supports archaeological research, fosters the sound professional practice of archaeology, advocates the preservation of the world’s archaeological heritage, and represents the discipline in the wider world. A nonprofit organization, the AIA also seeks to educate people of all ages about the significance of archaeological discovery and is committed to preserving the world’s archaeological resources and cultural heritage.

Connecticut Commission on Culture & Tourism
www.cultureandtourism.org/cct/site/default.asp
State Historic Preservation Office at the Connecticut Department of Economic and Community Development (SHPO) administers a range of federal and state programs that identify, register and protect the buildings, sites, structures, districts and objects that comprise Connecticut’s cultural heritage.

One Constitution Plaza, 2nd Floor
Hartford, CT 06103, 860-256-2800

Office of the State Archaeologist
www.cac.uconn.edu/osa.html
The Office of State Archaeology (OSA) is housed within the Museum of Natural History/Connecticut Archaeology Center at the University of Connecticut. The office was established by state legislation (CT G.S. Sec. 10a-112) in 1987 to identify, manage, and preserve Connecticut’s archaeological resources. Toward this end OSA works with the Friends of the Office of State Archaeology, Inc. (FOSA).

Friends of the Office of State Archaeology, Inc. (FOSA)
www.fosa-ct.org/FOSA_Home.htm
FOSA is a volunteer not-for-profit organization formed in 1997. The organization was formed by people concerned about support for the Connecticut Office of State Archaeology (OSA), which has a minimal budget for staff other than the State Archaeologist’s salary.

Yale Peabody Museum of Natural History
http://peabody.yale.edu/
The Peabody Museum at Yale University offers a wide range of opportunities and resources for teachers and the general public. The Hall of Native American Cultures showcases 360 objects from the Peabody’s substantial Native American collections. The Hall of Native American Cultures was renovated and reopened in 2000. The Yale Peabody Museum fills many important roles on the Yale University campus and has expanded its role in the community and the region.

The Archaeological Society of Connecticut
www.connarchaeology.org/
The Archaeological Society of Connecticut, Inc. was founded in New Haven in 1934. It consisted then as it does today of avocational and professional archaeologists and those interested in archaeology. The Society serves to create situations in which these people may learn, contribute and remain current on archaeological activities around the state of Connecticut as well as learn about the latest discoveries and archaeological techniques from around the country and, to a lesser extent, the world.

The Mashantucket Pequot Museum and Research Center
www.pequotmuseum.org
The center offers engaging experiences for all ages, from life-size walk-through dioramas that transport visitors into the past, to changing exhibits and live performances of contemporary arts and cultures. Extensive interactive exhibits depict 18,000 years of Native and natural history, while two libraries, including one for children, offer a diverse selection of materials on the histories and cultures of all Native peoples of the United States and Canada.