

**STAGE 1 AND 2 ARCHAEOLOGICAL
ASSESSMENTS
FOR THE KASHWAKAMAK LAKE DAM
ENVIRONMENTAL ASSESSMENT
PART OF LOT 20, CONCESSION 10
GEOGRAPHIC TOWNSHIP OF CLARENDON
NOW TOWNSHIP OF NORTH FRONTENAC
COUNTY OF FRONTENAC, ONTARIO**



Past Recovery
Archaeological Services Inc.

**STAGE 1 AND 2 ARCHAEOLOGICAL ASSESSMENTS
FOR THE KASHWAKAMAK LAKE DAM,
ENVIRONMENTAL ASSESSMENT,
PART OF LOT 20, CONCESSION 10,
GEOGRAPHIC TOWNSHIP OF CLARENDON,
NOW TOWNSHIP OF SOUTH FRONTENAC,
COUNTY OF FRONTENAC, ONTARIO**

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Past Recovery Archaeological Services Inc. was retained by McIntosh Perry Consulting Engineers Ltd., on behalf of the Mississippi Valley Conservation Authority, to undertake a Stage 1 and 2 archaeological assessments in support of a larger *Class Environmental Assessment* for the Kashwakamak Lake Dam. The subject property was located on part of Lot 20, Concession 10 in the geographic Township of Clarendon, now within the Township of North Frontenac, County of Frontenac (see Maps 1 and 2). The study area covered under the Environmental Assessment for the Kashwakamak Lake Dam was approximately 1.49 hectares (3.69 acres) in size.

The purpose of the Stage 1 investigation was to evaluate the archaeological potential of the study area and present recommendations for the mitigation of any significant known or potential archaeological resources. To this end, historical, environmental and archaeological research was conducted in order to make a determination of archaeological potential. A property inspection was completed on July 25th, 2023, to determine current conditions and to record factors that could affect the assessment of archaeological potential within the study area. The results of this study indicated that the subject property retains potential for pre-Contact and post-Contact archaeological resources (see Map 6).

The purpose of the Stage 2 assessment was to determine whether or not the property contained archaeological resources requiring further assessment, and if so to recommend an appropriate Stage 3 assessment strategy. The assessment was completed on May 2nd, 2024, conducted by means of shovel test pits across all parts of the study area determined to retain archaeological potential. The property survey resulted in the identification of one previously unrecorded potential archaeological site, identified as Findspot 1 (see Map 8).

The artifacts recovered from Findspot 1 suggests that the site was the location of a short-term campsite where the inhabitants undertook late-stage lithic reduction practices, using

both locally available and imported lithic raw materials. As the lithic assemblage was comprised of non-diagnostic flakes, no further inferences may be drawn.

As the artifact assemblage exceeded three pre-19th century artifacts found within a 10 m radius, the site meets MCM requirements for registration as an archaeological site in the Ontario Archaeological Sites Database and was thus assigned Borden Number BfGf-3 (MCM 2011:160). The result of a Stage 2 property assessment met Standard 2.2.1c.ii(2) indicating a requirement for a Stage 3 assessment by recovering more than 5 non-diagnostic artifacts from within a 10m x 10m test pit survey area, including from both the positive test pit, as well as the test unit (MCM 2011:41).

The results of the Stage 2 archaeological assessment documented in this report form the basis for the following recommendations:

- 1) A Stage 3 site-specific archaeological assessment should be undertaken for Findspot #1 (BfGf-3) by means of the controlled hand excavation of one-metre-square units over the area of the site on a 5 m grid, with an additional 20 percent of the grid total focussing on areas of interest within the site extent. The assessment should be undertaken by a licensed consultant archaeologist in compliance with Standards and Guidelines for Consultant Archaeologists (MCM 2011).
- 2) In the event that future planning results in the identification of additional areas of impact beyond the limits of the present study area, further Stage 2 archaeological assessment may be required. It should be noted that impacts include all aspects of the proposed development causing soil disturbances or other alterations, including additional temporary property needs (i.e. access roads, staging/lay down areas, associated works etc.). Any future Stage 2 archaeological assessment should be undertaken by a licensed consultant archaeologist, in compliance with *Standards and Guidelines for Consultant Archaeologists* (MCM 2011).

The reader is also referred to Section 7.0 below to ensure compliance with relevant provincial legislation and regulations as may relate to this project. In the event that any artifacts of Indigenous interest or human remains are encountered during the development of the subject property, in addition to following the *Advice on Compliance with Legislation* (see Section 7.0), the Indigenous communities listed below should be contacted:

- Alderville First Nation
- Algonquins of Ontario
- Algonquins of Pikwakanagan First Nation
- Chippewas of Beausoleil First Nation
- Chippewas of Georgina Island First Nation
- Chippewas of Rama First Nation
- Curve Lake First Nation
- Hiawatha First Nation
- Huron-Wendat Nation
- Mississaugas of Scugog Island

Contact information for the above communities can be found in the Supplementary Document entitled "*Indigenous Community Contacts.*"

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Past Recovery Archaeological Services Inc. was retained by McIntosh Perry Consulting Engineers Ltd., on behalf of the Mississippi Valley Conservation Authority, to undertake Stage 1 and 2 archaeological assessments in support of a larger *Class Environmental Assessment* for the Kashwakamak Lake Dam. The subject property was located on part of Lot 20, Concession 10 in the geographic Township of Clarendon, now within the Township of North Frontenac, County of Frontenac (see Maps 1 and 2).

The objectives of the Stage 1 archaeological assessment were as follows:

- To provide information concerning the geography, history, previous archaeological fieldwork and current land condition of the study area;
- To evaluate the potential for the subject property to contain significant archaeological resources; and,
- To recommend appropriate strategies for Stage 2 archaeological assessment in the event further assessment is warranted.

The objectives of the Stage 2 archaeological assessment were as follows:

- To document all archaeological resources on the property;
- To determine whether the property contains archaeological resources requiring further assessment; and,
- In the event that an archaeological site requiring further assessment is discovered, to recommend an appropriate Stage 3 assessment strategy.

2.0 PROJECT CONTEXT

This section of the report provides the context for the archaeological work undertaken, including a description of the study area, the related legislation or directives triggering the assessment, any additional development-related information, and the confirmation of permission to access the study area as required for the purposes of the assessment, and an acknowledgement of Indigenous territorial rights and interests.

2.1 Development Context

The Mississippi Valley Conservation Authority (MVCA) is proposing to replace the Kashwakamak Lake Dam, which is approaching the end of its expected lifespan. Given the proximity of the shoreline of Kashwakamak Lake, an archaeological assessment has been listed as one of several studies necessary to obtain approval for a *Class Environmental Assessment (Class EA)*. McIntosh Perry Consulting Engineers Ltd. was retained by the MVCA to complete the *Class EA*, with Past Recovery retained to undertake the archaeological work.

2.2 Property Description

The subject property was located on part of Lot 20, Concession 10 in the geographic Township of Clarendon, now within the Township of North Frontenac, and consisted of approximately 1.49 hectares (3.69 acres) of forested land sitting on either side of the extant Kashwakamak Lake Dam (see Maps 1 and 2). The property was thus comprised of two irregularly shaped parcels, with the smaller on the south side of the dam. The Kashwakamak Lake Dam consisted of two structures: the main control dam and a secondary saddle dam, separated by a section of land on the north side of the main structure. The focal point for this report, the main dam, was comprised of two bulkhead walls, three concrete piers forming the two sluiceways and a broad crested concrete weir. There was also an access road leading to the north side of the structure. The property was bordered to the north and to the south by additional forested lands and to the east and west by the waters of Kashwakamak Lake.

2.3 Access Permission

Permission to access the subject property and complete all aspects of the archaeological assessment, including photography, was granted by the MVCA.

2.4 Territorial Acknowledgement

The study area falls within the traditional territory of the Anishinaabeg, including the Anishinabe Algonquin, Michi Saagiig and the Chippewa nations. It is situated within the Treaty and traditional territories of the Williams Treaties First Nations - the Michi Saagiig

and the Chippewa nations¹ and forms part of the Algonquins of Ontario (AOO) Settlement Area set out by the current Agreement-in-Principle between the AOO and the federal and provincial governments, signed in 2016.² It also lies within an area of primary interest to the Huron-Wendat Nation.

¹ The Williams Treaties First Nations include the Chippewas of Beausoleil, Georgina Island, and Rama, as well as the Mississaugas of Alderville, Curve Lake, Hiawatha, and Scugog Island. These seven First Nations are signatories to various 18th and 19th century treaties that covered lands in different parts of south-central Ontario. Owing to poorly defined boundaries, disagreements over the interpretation of the wording of these agreements, and concerns over Crown title to large tracts of unceded lands, the governments of Ontario and Canada sought to broker two new treaties in 1923 known as the Williams Treaties. Continued disagreements over the terms of the treaties and off-reserve harvesting rights led to a number of legal disputes. In 2018, the Williams Treaties First Nations and the Governments of Ontario and Canada came to a final agreement involving a formal apology, recognition of treaty harvesting rights, and financial compensation.

² The Algonquins of Ontario are composed of ten communities: The Algonquins of Pikwakanagan First Nation, Antoine, Kijicho Manito Madaouskarini (Bancroft), Bonnechere, Greater Golden Lake, Mattawa/North Bay, Ottawa, Shabot Obaadjiwan (Sharbot Lake), Snimikobi (Ardoch), Whitney and Area. Federally unrecognized Algonquin communities, including Ardoch First Nation, also live in the territory but do not form part of the AOO (see Lawrence 2012). The Agreement-In-Principle is between the Algonquins of Ontario and the Governments of Ontario and Canada. Algonquins have sought recognition and protection of their traditional territory dating back to 1772 and in 1983 the Algonquins of Pikwàkanagàn First Nation (previously Algonquins of Golden Lake) formally submitted a petition to the Government of Canada, and in 1985 to the Government of Ontario. The claim was accepted for negotiations in 1991 and 1992, an Agreement-In-Principle was signed in 2016, and negotiations are on-going. For further information see www.tanakiwin.com.

3.0 HISTORICAL CONTEXT

This section of the report is comprised of an overview of human settlement in the region using information derived from background historical research. The purpose of this research is to describe the known settlement history of the local area, with the intention of providing a context for the evaluation of known and potential archaeological sites, as well as a review of property-specific information presenting a record of settlement and land use history.

3.1 Regional Pre-Contact Cultural Overview

While our understanding of the pre-Contact sequence of human activity in the region is limited, it is possible to provide a general outline of pre-Contact relationships with the land based on archaeological, historical, and environmental research conducted across what is now eastern Ontario.³ Archaeologists divide the long sequence of Indigenous history into both temporal periods and regional groups based primarily on the presence and/or style of various artifact types. While this provides a means of discussing the past, it is an archaeological construct and interpretation based only on a few surviving artifact types; it does not reflect the generally gradual nature of change over time, nor the complexities of interactions between different Indigenous groups. It also does not reflect Indigenous world views and histories as detailed in the oral traditions of Indigenous communities who have long-standing relationships with the land. The following summary uses the generally accepted archaeological chronology for the pre-Contact period while recognizing its limitations.

Across the region, glaciers began to retreat around 15,000 years ago (Munson 2013:21). Archaeological evidence indicates that humans have inhabited what is now called Ontario for at least 13,500 years, beginning with the arrival of small groups of hunter-gatherers referred to by archaeologists as Paleo-Indigenous (Ellis 2013:35; Ellis and Deller 1990:39). These groups gradually moved northward as the glaciers and glacial lakes retreated. While very little is known about their lifestyle, it is likely that Palaeo-Indigenous groups travelled widely relying on the seasonal migration of caribou as well as small animals and wild plants for subsistence in a sub-arctic environment. They produced a variety of distinctive stone tools including fluted projectile points, scrapers, burins and graters. Their sites are rare, and most are quite small (Ellis 2013:35-36). Palaeo-Indigenous peoples tended to camp along shorelines, and because of the changing environment, many of these areas are now inland. Indigenous settlement of much of eastern Ontario was late in comparison to other parts of Ontario as a result of the high-water levels associated with glacial Lake Algonquin, the early stages of glacial Lake Iroquois and the St. Lawrence Marine Embayment of the post-glacial Champlain Sea. In

³ Current common place names are used throughout this report while recognizing that the many Indigenous peoples who have lived in the region for thousands of years had, and often maintain, their own names for these places and natural features.

eastern Ontario, the old shoreline ridges of Lake Algonquin, Lake Iroquois, the Champlain Sea and of the emergent St. Lawrence and Ottawa river channels and their tributaries would be the most likely areas to find evidence of the Palaeo-Indigenous presence in the landscape (see AOO 2017; Ellis 2013; Ellis and Deller 1990; Watson 1999).

During the succeeding Archaic period (c. 10,000 to c. 3,000 B.P.), the environment of the region approached modern conditions and more land became habitable as water levels in the glacial lakes dropped. Populations continued to follow a mobile hunter-gatherer subsistence strategy, although there appears to have been a greater reliance on fishing and gathered food (e.g. plants and nuts) and more diversity between regional groups. The tool kit also became increasingly diversified, reflecting an adaptation to environmental conditions more similar to those of today. This included the presence of adzes, gouges and other ground stone tools believed to have been used for heavy woodworking activities such as the construction of dug-out canoes, grinding stones for processing nuts and seeds, specialized fishing gear including net sinkers, and a general reduction in the size of projectile points. The middle and late portions of the Archaic period saw the development of trading networks spanning the Great Lakes, and by 6,000 years ago copper was being mined in the Upper Great Lakes and traded into southern Ontario. There was increasing evidence of ceremonialism and elaborate burial practices and a wide variety of non-utilitarian items such as gorgets, pipes and 'birdstones' were being manufactured. By the end of this period populations had increased substantially over the preceding Palaeo-Indigenous period (Ellis 2013; Ellis et al. 1990).

More extensive Indigenous settlement of the region began during this period, sometime between 7,500 and 6,500 B.P. Artifacts from Archaic sites suggest a close relationship between these communities and what archaeologists refer to as the Laurentian Archaic stage peoples who inhabited the Canadian biotic province transition zone between the deciduous forests to the south and the boreal forests to the north. This region included northern New York State, the upper St. Lawrence Valley across southern Ontario and Quebec, and the state of Vermont (Ritchie 1969; Clermont et al. 2003). The 'tradition' associated with this period is characterized by a more or less systematic sharing of several technological features, including large, broad bladed, chipped stone and ground slate projectile points, and heavy ground stone tools. This stage is also known for the extensive use of cold-hammered copper tools including "*bevelled spear points, bracelets, pendants, axes, fishhooks and knives*" (Kennedy 1970:59). The sharing of this set of features is generally perceived as a marker of historical relatedness and inclusion in the same interaction network (Clermont et al. 2003). Cemeteries also appear for the first time during the Late Archaic. Evidence of Archaic inhabitation has been found across eastern Ontario (see Clermont 1999; Clermont et al. 2003; Ellis 2013; Kennedy 1962, 1970; Laliberté 2000; Watson 1990).

Archaeologists use the appearance of ceramics in the archaeological record to mark the beginning of the Woodland period (c. 3,000 B.P. to c. 350 B.P.). Ceramic styles and decorations suggest the continued differentiation between regional populations and are

commonly used to distinguish between three periods: Early Woodland (2,900 to 2,300 B.P.), Middle Woodland (2,300 to 1,200 B.P.), and Late Woodland (1,200 to 400 B.P.). The introduction of ceramics to southern Ontario does not appear to have been associated with significant changes to lifeways, as hunting and gathering remained the primary subsistence strategy throughout the Early Woodland and well into the Middle Woodland. It does, however, appear that regional populations continued to grow in size, and communities continued to participate in extensive trade networks that, at their zenith c. 1,750 B.P., spanned much of the continent and included the movement of conch shell, fossilized shark teeth, mica, copper and silver; a large number of other items that rarely survive in the archaeological record would also have been exchanged, as well as knowledge.⁴ Social structure appears to have become increasingly complex, with some status differentiation evident in burials. In southeastern Ontario, the first peoples to adopt ceramics are identified by archaeologists as belonging to the Meadowood Complex, characterized by distinctive biface preforms, side-notched points, and Vinette I ceramics which are typically crude, thick, cone-shaped vessels made with coils of clay shaped by cord-wrapped paddles. Meadowood material has been found on sites across southern Ontario extending into southern Quebec and New York State (Fox 1990; Spence et al. 1990).

In the Middle Woodland period increasingly distinctive trends or 'traditions' continued to evolve in different parts of Ontario (Spence et al. 1990). Although regional patterns are poorly understood and there may be distinctive traditions associated with different watersheds, the appearance of more refined ceramic vessels decorated with dentate or pseudo-scallop impressions have been used by archaeologists to distinguish the Point Peninsula Complex. These ceramics are identified as Vinette II and are typically found in association with evidence of distinct bone and stone tool industries. Sites exhibiting these traits are known from throughout south-central and eastern Ontario, northern New York, and northwestern Vermont, and are often found overlying earlier site components. Some groups appear to have practiced elaborate burial ceremonialism that involved the construction of large earthen mortuary mounds and the inclusion of numerous and often exotic materials in burials, construed as evidence of influences from northern Ontario and the Hopewell area to the south in the Ohio River valley. Archaeological evidence suggests that during this time period groups utilized a variety of resources within a home territory. Through the late fall and winter, small groups would coalesce at an inland 'family' hunting area. In the spring, these dispersed families would congregate at specific lakeshore sites to fish, hunt in the surrounding forest, and socialize. This gathering would last through to the late summer when large quantities of food would be stored up for the approaching winter (Spence et al. 1990).

⁴ For example, the recent discovery of a cache of charred quinoa seeds, dating to 3,000 B.P. at a site in Brantford, Ontario, indicates that crops were part of this extensive exchange network, which in this case travelled from the Kentucky-Tennessee region of the United States. Thus far, there is no indication that these seeds were locally grown (Crawford et al. 2019).

Towards the end of the Middle Woodland period (1200 B.P.), groups living in southern Ontario included horticulture in their subsistence strategy. Available archaeological evidence, which comes primarily from the vicinity of the Grand and Credit rivers, suggests that this development was not initially widespread. The adoption of maize horticulture instead appears to be linked to the emergence of the Princess Point Complex which is characterized by decorated ceramics combining cord roughening, impressed lines, and punctate designs; triangular projectile points; T-based drills; steatite and ceramic pipes; and ground stone chisels and adzes (Fox 1990).

Archaeologists have distinguished the Late Woodland period by the widespread adoption of maize horticulture by some Indigenous groups primarily across much of southern Ontario and portions of the southeast with favourable soils. Michi Saagiig oral histories recall that corn came to what is now Ontario with the arrival of the Wendat (Gitiga Migizi 2018:34). Initially only a minor addition to the diet, the cultivation of corn, beans, squash, sunflowers, and tobacco radically altered subsistence strategies and gained economic importance in the region over time. This change is associated with increased sedentarism, and with larger and more dense settlements focused on areas of easily tillable farmland. In some areas, semi-permanent villages, with communal 'longhouse' dwellings, appeared for the first time. These villages were inhabited year-round for 12 to 20 years until local firewood and soil fertility had been exhausted. Many were surrounded by defensive palisades, evidence of growing hostilities between neighbouring groups. Associated with these sites is a burial pattern of individual graves occurring within the village. Upon abandonment, the people of one or more villages often exhumed the remains of their dead for reburial in a large communal burial pit or ossuary outside of the village(s) (Wright 1966; Williamson 2014). More temporary habitations such as small hamlets, agricultural cabin sites, and hunting and fishing camps were also used. Throughout the parts of what is now Ontario situated on the Canadian Shield, however, the terrain limited horticulture and Indigenous groups continued to move frequently across their territories hunting, fishing, and gathering (Pilon 1999).

Along the St. Lawrence River valley from the east end of Lake Ontario to the Quebec City region and beyond, archaeologists have identified a distinctive material culture associated with what they refer to as the St. Lawrence Iroquoians. The material culture and settlement patterns of the fourteenth and fifteenth century St. Lawrence Iroquoian sites are directly related to the Iroquoian-speaking groups that Jacques Cartier and his crew encountered in 1535 at Stadacona (Quebec City) and Hochelaga (Montreal Island) (Jamieson 1990:386). Like those peoples inhabiting what would become southern and southcentral Ontario, the St. Lawrence Iroquoians practised horticulture and supplemented their diet with fishing, hunting and gathering. They lived in large semi-permanent villages as well as smaller camps. Numerous discrete settlement clusters have been identified across this large territory; however, the political and social relationships between these populations is unclear (Tremblay 2006).

By the late sixteenth century all of the St. Lawrence Iroquoian settlements appear to have been abandoned. Long characterized by archaeologists as a ‘mysterious disappearance,’ recent scholarship instead highlights several lines of evidence that suggest a series of planned migrations by St. Lawrence Iroquoian groups to other Indigenous populations, including the Huron-Wendat, during a period of coalescence and social realignment (Micon et al. 2021; Lesage and Williamson 2020).⁵ Horticultural villages have also been recorded along the north shore of Lake Ontario and up the Trent River dating to c. 550 B.P. (c. 1400 C.E.). By c. 450 B.P. (c. 1500 C.E), the easternmost of these settlements were located between Balsam Lake and Lake Simcoe in the region that would become historic Huronia. These population movements are also reflected in the oral histories of the Michi Saagiig (Mississauga Anishinaabeg), which recall St. Lawrence Iroquois moving westwards into their territory around 1000 A.D. (Gitiga Migizi 2018:121).

While this significant population movement is not fully understood, it undoubtedly involved complex interactions between different cultural groups including the Anishinaabeg, the Huron-Wendat and, as noted above, may also have included St. Lawrence Iroquoians. As such, there are conflicting interpretations of the archaeological and historical records related to this period (see Gaudreau and Lesage 2016; Gitiga Migizi 2018; Gitiga Migizi and Kapyrka 2015; Lainey 2006; Richard 2016; Pendergast 1972).

Anishinaabe oral histories suggest a broad homeland extending far to the west of Ontario and include references to a migration from the Atlantic seaboard, as well as a subsequent return via the St. Lawrence River to the Great Lakes region, with the latter having occurred around 500 B.P. (Hessel 1993; Sherman 2015:27). Those who became known as the Anishinabe Algonquin⁶ settled along the Ottawa River or Kichi-Sibi⁷ and its tributaries in eastern Ontario and western Quebec; the Ojibwa and Nipissing were located further to the north and west. Living on and around the Canadian Shield, all Anishinaabeg maintained a more nomadic lifestyle than their agricultural neighbours to the south, and accordingly their presence is less visible in the archaeological record (Morrison 2005; Sherman 2015:28).

⁵ This period also saw the coalescence of horticultural communities associated with a northward territorial expansion and a concomitant abandonment of the north shore of Lake Ontario, changes that have been suggested to have been driven, in large part, by an increase in conflict with the Haudenosaunee over control of trade routes and access to European trade goods.

⁶ The Anishinabe Algonquin of eastern Ontario increasingly use the Anishinaabemowin word Omàmiwinini to refer to themselves. Omàmiwinini describes the relationship with the land in the language, and though it was largely replaced by ‘Algonquin’ for many years, efforts are underway to reintroduce the term (Sherman 2008:77).

⁷ The Anishinabe Algonquin have various names specific to each part of the Ottawa River. The lower part of the river from Mattawa down to Lake of Two Mountains is traditionally known as the Kichi-Sibi, also spelled Kiji Sibi, Kichisipi, Kichissippi, and Kichissippi (AOO 2020; Morrison 2005:9; Sherman 2015:27).

Finally, while the Iroquois or Haudenosaunee⁸ homeland was initially south of Ontario in New York state, their oral histories suggest their hunting grounds extended along the north shore of Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence River into southeastern Ontario and Quebec (Hill 2017). Archaeological data indicates some Haudenosaunee were living year-round in Ontario by the early seventeenth century (Konrad 1981).

The Indigenous population shifts and relationships of the late sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries through the period of initial contact with Europeans were complex and are not fully understood. They were certainly in part a result of the disruption of traditional trade and exchange patterns among all Indigenous peoples brought about by the arrival of the French, Dutch and British along the Atlantic seaboard the subsequent emergence of the lucrative St. Lawrence River trade route.

3.2 Regional Post-Contact Cultural Overview

The first Europeans to travel into eastern Ontario arrived in the early seventeenth century; predominantly French, they included explorers, fur traders and missionaries. While exploring eastern Ontario and the Ottawa River watershed between c. 1610 and 1613,⁹ Samuel de Champlain and others documented encounters with different Indigenous groups speaking Anishinaabemowin, including the Matouweskarini along the Madawaska River, the Kichespirini at Morrison Island on the Ottawa River, the Otaguottouemin along the river northwest of Morrison Island, the Weskarini in the Petite Nation River basin,¹⁰ and the Onontchataronon¹¹ living in the South Nation River basin as far west as the Gananoque River basin (Hanewich 2009; Hessel 1993; Sherman 2015:29). These extended family communities subsisted by hunting, fishing, and gathering, and undertook some horticulture (see also Pendergast 1999; Trigger 1987). The Anishinaabeg living in the Upper Ottawa Valley and northeastward towards the headwaters of the Ottawa River included the Nipissing, Timiskaming, Abitibi (Wahgoshig), and others. As the French moved inland, however, they referred to all these groups who spoke different dialects of Anishinaabemowin as 'Algonquin' (Morrison 2005:18).

⁸ Sometime between A.D. 1142 and A.D. 1451 the Mohawk, Oneida, Onondaga, Cayuga, and Seneca united to form the Haudenosaunee Confederacy, also known as the League of Five Nations, and called the Iroquois by the French. When the Tuscarora Nation joined the confederacy in 1722, it became the League of Six Nations.

⁹ From this section onwards all dates are presented as A.D.

¹⁰ The Petite Nation River is in Quebec, with its mouth on the north side of the Ottawa River between Ottawa and Hawkesbury. It is sometimes confused with the South Nation River in eastern Ontario which empties into the south side Ottawa River opposite the Petite Nation River. Consequently, the Weskarini territory is sometimes associated with the South Nation River, but this appears to be an error (*cf.* Hessel 1993).

¹¹ This is a Haudenosaunee term and is, therefore, thought to be an Anishinabe Algonquin community that adopted Iroquoians who had been displaced from their territory along the St. Lawrence River near Montreal (Fox and Pilon 2016).

At the time of Champlain's travels, the Anishinabe Algonquin were already acting as brokers in the fur trade and exacting tolls from those using the Ottawa River waterway which served as a significant trade route connecting the Upper Great Lakes via Lake Nipissing and Georgian Bay to the west and the St. Maurice and Saguenay via the Rivières des Outaouais (the portion of the Ottawa River extending eastward into Quebec from Lake Timiskaming). These northern routes avoided the St. Lawrence River and Lower Great Lakes route and, therefore, potential conflict with the Haudenosaunee (Joan Holmes & Associates Inc. 1993:2-3). Access to this southern route and the extent of settlement in the region fluctuated with the state of hostilities (Joan Holmes & Associates Inc. 1993:3). As the fur trade in New France was Montreal-based, Ottawa River navigation routes were of strategic importance in the movement of goods inland and furs down to Montreal and, in the wake of Champlain's travels, the Ottawa River became the principal route to the interior for the French. The recovery of European trade goods (e.g., iron axes, copper kettle pieces, glass beads, etc.) from sites throughout the Ottawa River drainage basin provides some evidence of the extent of interaction between Indigenous groups and the French during this period (Kennedy 1970).

With Contact, major population disruptions were brought about by the introduction of European diseases against which Indigenous populations had little resistance; severe smallpox epidemics in 1623-24 and again between 1634 and 1640 resulted in drastic population decline among all Indigenous peoples living in the Great Lakes region (Konrad 1981). The expansion of hunting for trade with Europeans also accelerated decline in the beaver population, such that by the middle of the seventeenth century the centre of the fur trade had shifted northward from what became the northeastern states into southern Ontario. The French, allied with the Huron-Wendat, the Petun, and the Anishinaabeg, refused advances by the Haudenosaunee to trade with them directly. Seeking to expand their territory and disrupt the French fur trade, the Haudenosaunee launched raids into the region and established a series of winter hunting bases and trading settlements near the mouths of the major rivers flowing into the north shore of Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence River.¹² The first recorded Haudenosaunee settlements were two Cayuga villages established at the northeastern end of Lake Ontario (Konrad 1981). Between 1640 and 1650 conflict with the Haudenosaunee Confederacy culminated in the near complete abandonment of what is now southern Ontario by Anishinaabeg and Huron-Wendat groups. In the face of continued harassment, resident Indigenous communities appear to have opted to disperse further afield or to join other communities, settling to the north and west of the Ottawa Valley,¹³ and at the French posts of Montreal, Quebec City, Sillery, and Trois Rivières (Joan Holmes & Associates Inc.

¹² These settlements included: Quinaouatoua near present day Hamilton, Teiaiaagon on the Humber River, Ganatswekwyagon on the Rouge River, Ganaraske on the Ganaraska River, Kentsio on Rice Lake, Kente on the Bay of Quinte, and Ganneious, near Napanee (Adams 1986).

¹³ Some Nipissing, for example, re-located to the Lake Nipigon region (Joan Holmes & Associates Inc. 1993:3).

1993:3; Trigger 1987:610, 637-638).¹⁴ It should be noted, however, that available evidence suggests that segments of these groups either remained in their traditional territories or returned seasonally to hunt, fish and trap.

Fort Frontenac was established by the French at the present site of Kingston in 1673, and another fort was constructed at La Presentation (Ogdensburg, New York) in 1700. These forts served to solidify control of the fur trade and to enhance French ties with local Indigenous populations. To this end, the French also encouraged the establishment of Indigenous villages near their settlements (Adams 1986). The full extent of Indigenous settlement in eastern Ontario through to the end of the seventeenth century, however, is uncertain. The Odawa appear to have been using the Ottawa River for trade from c. 1654 onward and some Anishinabe Algonquin remained within the area under French influence, possibly having withdrawn to the headwaters of various tributaries in the watershed. In 1677 the Sulpician Mission of the Mountain was established near Montreal where the Ottawa River empties into the St. Lawrence River. While it was mostly a Mohawk community that became known as Kahnawake, some Anishinabe Algonquin who had converted to Christianity settled at the mission for part of the year and were known as the Oka Algonquin (Joan Holmes & Associates Inc. 1993).

As a result of increased tensions between the Haudenosaunee and the French, and declining population from disease and warfare, the Cayuga villages were abandoned in 1680 (Edwards 1984:17). Around this time, Anishinaabeg began to mount an organized counter-offensive against the Haudenosaunee who were pushed back to their traditional lands further south, leading to the return of the Michi Saagiig to southern and central Ontario from their winter hunting grounds in the north. This change saw Anishinaabeg gain wider access to European trade goods and allowed them to use their experience and strategic position to act as intermediaries in trade between the British and Indigenous communities to the north (Edwards 1984:10,17; Ripmeester 1995; Surtees 1982).

Following almost a century of warfare, the Great Peace was signed in Montreal in 1701 between New France and 39 Indigenous Nations, including the Anishinaabeg, Huron-Wendat and Haudenosaunee. This led to a period of relative peace and stability. During the first half of the eighteenth century, the Haudenosaunee appear to have been largely confined to south of the St. Lawrence River, while Mississauga and Ojibwa were living in southern and central Ontario, generally beyond the Ottawa River watershed (Joan Holmes & Associates Inc. 1993:3). Anishinabe Algonquin were residing along the Ottawa River and its tributaries, as well as outside the Ottawa River watershed at Trois-Rivières; Nipissing were located around Lake Nipissing and at Lake Nipigon. Reports from c. 1752 suggest that some non-resident Anishinabe Algonquin and Nipissing were trading at the

¹⁴ In the case of the 1649-1650 move of a group of Huron-Wendat from Gahoendoe (Christian) Island to the area of Quebec City, the relocation was the result of careful consideration and was planned well in advance, with a diplomatic mission having been sent in advance to discuss the move with their French allies (see Lesage and Williamson 2020).

mission at Lake of Two Mountains during the summer but returning to their hunting grounds “*far up the Ottawa River*” for the winter, and there is some indication that they may have permitted Haudenosaunee residents of the mission to hunt in their territory (Joan Holmes & Associates Inc. 1993:3; Heidenreich and Noël 1987:Plate 40).

In 1754, hostilities over trade and the territorial ambitions of the French and British led to the Seven Years’ War, in which many Anishinaabeg fought on behalf of the French. With the French surrender in 1760, Britain gained control over New France, though in recognition of Indigenous title to the land the British government issued the Royal Proclamation of 1763. This created a boundary line between the British colonies on the Atlantic coast and the ‘Indian Reserve’ west of the Appalachian Mountains. This line then extended from where the 45th parallel of latitude crossed the St. Lawrence River near present day Cornwall northwestward to the southeast shore of Lake Nipissing and then northeastward to Lac St. Jean. The proclamation specified that “*Indians should not be molested on their hunting grounds*” (Joan Holmes & Associates Inc. 1993:4) and outlawed the private purchase of Indigenous land, instead requiring all future land purchases to be made by Crown officials “*at some public Meeting or Assembly of the said Indians*” living upon the land in question (cited in Surtees 1982: 9). In 1764, the post at Carillon on the Ottawa River was identified as the point beyond which traders could only pass with a specific licence to trade in “*Indian Territory.*” Petitions in 1772 and again in 1791 described Anishinabe Algonquin and Nipissing territory as the lands on both sides of the Ottawa River from Long Sault to Lake Nipissing. Settlers continued to trespass into this territory, however, cutting trees and driving away game vital to Indigenous lifeways (Joan Holmes & Associates Inc. 1993:5). Akwesasne, within the Haudenosaunee hunting territory, became a permanent settlement towards the middle of the eighteenth century.¹⁵

At first, the end of the French Regime brought little change to eastern Ontario. Between 1763 and 1776 some British traders traveled to the Kingston area, but the British presence remained sporadic until 1783 when Fort Frontenac was officially re-occupied. With the conclusion of the American Revolutionary War (1775 to 1783), however, the British sought additional lands on which to settle United Empire Loyalists fleeing the United States, disbanded soldiers, and the Mohawk who had fought with the British under Thayendanegea (Joseph Brant) and Chief Deserontyon and were, therefore, displaced from their lands in New York State. To this end, the British government undertook hasty negotiations with Indigenous groups to acquire rights to lands; however, these negotiations did not include Anishinabe Algonquin and Nipissing who were continuously ignored, despite much of the area being their traditional territory (Lanark County Neighbours for Truth and Reconciliation 2019). Initially the focus for settlement was the north shore of Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence River, resulting in a series of ‘purchases’ and treaties beginning with the Crawford Purchases of 1783. As noted, these treaties did not include all of the Indigenous groups who lived and hunted in the region and the recording of the purchases – including the boundaries – and their execution were

¹⁵ www.firstbatuibs.info/akwesasne.html

problematic; they also did not extinguish Indigenous rights and title to the land (Joan Holmes & Associates Inc. 1993:5; Royal Commission on Aboriginal Peoples 1996). The *Crown Grant to the Mohawks of the Bay of Quinte* was issued in 1784 in recognition of the Six Nations' support during the American Revolutionary War. It included lands on the Bay of Quinte, originally part of the Crawford Purchases, on which Chief Deserontyon and other Haudenosaunee settled.¹⁶

Major Samuel Holland, Surveyor General for Canada, began laying out the land within the Crawford Purchases in 1784 with such haste that the newly established townships were assigned numbers instead of names. Euro-Canadian settlement along the north shore of the St. Lawrence River and the eastern end of Lake Ontario began in earnest about this time. By the late 1780s the waterfront townships were full and more land was required to meet both an increase in the size of grants to all Loyalists and grant obligations to the children of Loyalists who were now entitled to 200 acres in their own right upon reaching the age of 21 (H. Belden & Co. 1880:16). In 1792 John Graves Simcoe, Lieutenant Governor of the Province of Upper Canada, offered free land grants to anyone who would swear loyalty to the King, a policy aimed at attracting more American settlers. As government policy also dictated the setting aside of one seventh of all land for the Protestant Clergy and another seventh as Crown reserves, pressure mounted to open up more of the interior. As a result, between 1790 and 1800 most of the remainder of the Crawford Purchases was divided into townships (H. Belden & Co. 1880:16).

A number of other purchases during the late eighteenth century between representatives of the Crown and certain Anishinaabe covered lands immediately west of the Crawford Purchases, from the north shore of Lake Ontario northward to Lake Simcoe and Georgian Bay/Lake Huron. These included the John Collins Purchase of 1785, the Johnson-Butler Purchase¹⁷ of 1787-88, and the 1798 Penetanguishene Purchase (Treaty 5) aimed at acquiring a harbour on Lake Huron for British vessels.¹⁸ The lands purportedly covered by these purchases were often poorly defined and were thus included in the later Williams Treaties of 1923 (see below).

The *Constitution Act* of 1791, which created the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada (later Ontario and Quebec) used the Ottawa River as the boundary between the two. This effectively divided the Anishinabe Algonquin and Nipissing territories, both of which straddled the river. The Anishinabe Algonquin and Nipissing sent a letter to the Governor General of the Province of Canada in 1798, requesting that settlers be restricted to the banks of the Ottawa River and detailing the difficulties caused by encroaching settlement (Joan Holmes & Associates Inc. 1993:5; see also Lanark County Neighbours for

¹⁶ <https://www.ontario.ca/page/map-ontario-treaties-and-reserves>

¹⁷ Sometimes referred to as the 'Gunshot Treaty' as it reportedly covered the land as far back from the lake shore as a person could hear a gunshot (<https://www.ontario.ca/page/map-ontario-treaties-and-reserves>).

¹⁸ <https://www.ontario.ca/page/map-ontario-treaties-and-reserves>

Truth and Reconciliation 2019). In this letter the Chiefs noted the belt of wampum and map of their lands that was given to Governor Carleton some years earlier, pleading for no more of the encroachment that was driving away game and pushing them into infertile lands; however, there was no response. In the early 1800s, a few Anishinabe Algonquin and Nipissing settled on the shores of Golden Lake, known to them as 'Peguakonagang;' they called themselves 'Ininwezi,' which they translated as 'we people here along' (Johnson 1928; MacKay 2016).¹⁹ The Golden Lake band, as they initially came to be known, resided in this area for at least part of the year, with various band members maintaining traplines, hunting territories, and sugar bushes.

The War of 1812 between the United States and Great Britain (along with its colonies in North America and its Indigenous allies) brought another period of conflict to the region. In 1815, at the conclusion of the war, the British government issued a proclamation in Edinburgh to further encourage settlement in British North America. The offer included free passage and 100 acres of land for each head of family, with each male child to receive his own 100 acre parcel upon reaching the age of 21 (H. Belden & Co. 1880:16). At the same time, the government was seeking additional land on which to resettle disbanded soldiers from the War of 1812. Demobilized forces could thereby act as a 'force-in-being' to oppose any possible future incursions from the United States. Veterans were encouraged to take up residence within a series of newly created 'military settlements' including those at Perth (1816) and Richmond (1818). The pressure to find more land was exacerbated by the sheer number of settlers moving into the region as a result of these initiatives, which began to push settlement beyond the acquired territory into what had formally been protected as 'Indian Land.'²⁰

Additional 'purchases' were signed in the early nineteenth century between the Crown and certain Anishinabe communities including the Lake Simcoe Purchase (Treaty 16) signed in 1815 and covering lands between Lake Simcoe and Georgian Bay, the Nottawasaga Purchase (Treaty 18) of 1818 to the south and west of the Lake Simcoe Purchase, and the Rice Lake Purchase or Treaty 20 of 1818 which covered a large area around Rice Lake.²¹

Further east, with the settlement of the region underway, Lieutenant Governor Gore ordered Captain Ferguson, the Resident Agent of Indian Affairs at Kingston, to arrange the purchase of additional lands from the chiefs of the Ojibwa and Mississauga or Michi Saagiig Nishnaabeg. The resulting Rideau Purchase (Treaty 27 and 27^{1/4}) extended from the rear of the earlier Crawford Purchases to the Ottawa River and was signed by the Michi Saagiig Nishnaabeg or Mississauga in 1819 and confirmed in 1822. This 'purchase'

¹⁹ The Algonquin of River Desert identified The Golden Lake Band using the name "Nozebi'wininiwag," translated as "Pike-Water People" (Speck in Johnson 1928:174).

²⁰ Between 1815 and 1850 over an estimated 800,000 Euro-Canadian settlers moved into the region (<https://www.lanarkcountyneighbours.ca/the-petitions-of-chief-shawinipinessi.html>).

²¹ <https://www.ontario.ca/page/map-ontario-treaties-and-reserves>

was also problematic and excluded the Anishinabe Algonquin whose traditional territory it covered (Canada 1891:62; Surtees 1994:115). As this purchase included lands within the Ottawa River watershed, the Anishinabe Algonquin and Nipissing protested in 1836 when they became aware of its terms (Joan Holmes & Associates Inc. 1993:6).

As Euro-Canadian settlement spread, Indigenous groups were increasingly pushed out of southern and eastern Ontario, generally moving further to the north and west, although some families remained in their traditional lands, at least seasonally. Records relating to the Hudson's Bay Company, the diaries of provincial land surveyors, the reports of geologists sent in by the Geological Survey of Canada, census returns,²² store account books and settler's diaries all provide indications of the continued Indigenous settlement in the region, as does Indigenous oral history. In addition to their interactions with the Anishinabe Algonquin who remained in the area, the nineteenth century settlers found evidence of the former extent of Indigenous inhabitation, particularly as they began to clear the land. In 1819, Andrew Bell wrote from Perth:

All the country hereabouts has evidently been once inhabited by the Indians, and for a vast number of years too. The remains of fires, with the bones and horns of deers (sic) round them, have often been found under the black mound... A large pot made of burnt clay and highly ornamented was lately found near the banks of the Mississippi, under a large maple tree, probably two or three hundred years old. Stone axes have been found in different parts of the settlement.

(cited in Brown 1984:8)

While some Anishinabe Algonquin and Nipissing continued to spend part of the summer at Lake of Two Mountains through this period, most of the year appears to have been spent on their traditional hunting grounds, and by the 1830s there were specific claims for land by individuals such as Mackwa on the Bonnechere River and Constant Pennecy on the Rideau waterway. In 1842, Chief Pierre Shawinipinessi,²³ an Anishinabe Algonquin leader, petitioned the Crown for a land tract of 2,000 acres between the townships of Oso, Bedford and South Sherbrooke to enable his people to sustain themselves (Huitema 2001; Ripmeester 1995:164-166; Sherman 2008:32-33).²⁴ A licence of occupation for the 'Bedford Algonquin' was granted in 1844, with Mississauga (Michi Saagiig Nishnaabeg) from Alnwick reportedly also living at Bedford (Joan Holmes & Associates Inc. 1993:7-8). Illegal logging operations, however, interfered with life on the

²² While Indigenous peoples were clearly still residing in the area and making use of the land, they often do not appear in the 1851 to 1871 census records. Huitema (2001:129) notes that 'Algonquin' were sometimes listed in these records as 'Frenchmen' or 'halfbreeds' because they had utilized the mission at Lake of Two Mountains as their summer gathering place and, therefore, were thought of as being French.

²³ There are numerous variations in the spelling of Chief Shawinipinessi's name; he is also known by the name of Peter Stephens or Stevens).

²⁴ July 17, 1842 petition 115 addressed to Sir Charles Bagot, Governor General, Library and Archives Canada RG10, V186 part 2, as transcribed in Joan Holmes & Associates Inc. (1993) *Report on the Algonquins of Golden Lake Claim* Vol. 10-12:101.

reserve, and despite protests from Chief Shawinipiessi and legislation passed in 1838 and then later in 1850 to protect Indigenous lands,²⁵ it was allowed to continue, depleting the local food resources. In response to an 1861 petition to address the trespassing of settlers, the existence of the Bedford tract was denied (LAC microfilm reel C-13419). At this time some of the community moved to nearby lands while others joined the Anishinabe Algonquin at Kitigan Zibi, and at Pikwàkanagàn where the 'Golden Lake Reserve' was created in 1873 (Hanewich 2009; Joan Holmes & Associates Inc. 1993:9). Around 1836 some consideration was given to facilitating Anishinabe Algonquin and Nipissing settlement in the Grand Calumet Portage and Allumette Island area, but this was not pursued (Joan Holmes & Associates Inc. 1993).

Other treaties signed in the mid-nineteenth century included the St. Regis Purchase (Treaty 57) signed in 1847 between the Crown and the Mohawk and covering a narrow parcel of land, known as the 'Nutfield Tract' extending north of the St. Lawrence River at Cornwall towards the Ottawa River, and the Robson-Huron Treaty (Treaty 61) of 1850 between the Crown and certain Anishinaabeg for lands east of Georgian Bay and the northern shore of Lake Huron eastward to the Ottawa River.²⁶

Through the early twentieth century, off-reserve Anishinabe Algonquin and Nipissing were told to move to established reserves at Golden Lake (Pikwàkanagàn), Maniwaki (Desert River) and at Gibson on Georgian Bay (which had been established for the re-settlement of both Anishinabe Algonquin and Mohawk from Lake of Two Mountains), but many remained in their traditional hunting territories. There is also evidence to suggest that Akwesasne Mohawk trapped and hunted north of their reserve as far as Smiths Falls and Rideau Ferry between c. 1924 and 1948 (Joan Holmes & Associates Inc. 1993:10-11; Sherman 2008:33).

The Williams Treaties of 1923 were signed between the Crown and seven Anishinaabe First Nations to address lands that had not been surrendered via a formal treaty process (see above).²⁷ These lands covered a large area from the north shore of Lake Ontario to Lake Nipissing and overlapped with a number of other treaties and 'purchases.' The Williams Treaties First Nations include the Chippewas of Beausoleil, Georgina Island and Rama, and the Mississaugas of Alderville, Curve Lake, Hiawatha and Scugog Island. To address further issues with a number of the pre-confederation purchases and treaties, the Williams Treaties First Nations ratified the Williams Treaties Settlement Agreement with Canada and Ontario in June, 2018. This agreement recognized harvesting rights in

²⁵ Chapter XV. An Act for the protection of the Lands of the Crown in this Province, from Trespass and Injury. Thirteenth Parliament, 2nd Victoria, A.D. 1839. An Act for the Protection of the Indians in Upper Canada from Imposition and the Property Occupied or Enjoyed by Them from Trespass and Injury; passed by the government of Upper Canada on August 10, 1850. Available from <https://bnald.lib.unb.ca/node/5342>; United Canadas (1841-1857) 13 & 14 Victoria - Chapter 74:1409.

²⁶ <https://www.ontario.ca/page/map-ontario-treaties-and-reserves>

²⁷ <https://www.ontario.ca/page/map-ontario-treaties-and-reserves>

Treaties 5, 16, 18, 20, 27 and 27¼, the Crawford Purchase, the Gunshot Treaty and Lake Simcoe.²⁸

As noted above, lands considered traditional Anishinabe Algonquin territory were included in various nineteenth century purchases from which they were excluded. Anishinabe Algonquin claims to these lands include a series of petitions to the Crown going back to 1772 that asserted rights to land and resources. An official land claim was made in the 1980s and, in 2016, an Agreement-in-Principle was signed by Ontario, Canada and the Algonquins of Ontario, a step towards a treaty recognizing Anishinabe Algonquin rights across much of eastern Ontario.²⁹

Geographic Township of Clarendon

Clarendon Township was officially surveyed by John Snow in 1862, though references to specific lots in the 1840s indicate that there had been at least a partial survey undertaken twenty years earlier. Furthermore, after the Frontenac Road had been constructed through the township settlement lots or ranges had been laid out to either side by Thomas Gibbs in 1859. Squatters, probably the result of lumbermen relocating their families closer to their working camps, are known to have applied for patents to land to the north and south of the east end of Kashwakamak Lake in the 1840s, including on Lots 25 and 26 in Concession 10. One petitioner for this property claimed to have been a resident since 1836. A claim was also filed by another settler on Lot 16, Concession 10, for reimbursement for timber removed from her property, on which she claimed her husband had settled in either 1840 or 1841 (Armstrong 1976:12).

Timber limits along the Mississippi River were first granted by the provincial government in the 1840s. Those in the Clarendon Township area were awarded to D.M. McMartin, Joseph Porteous and Ed McKay in 1847. A lumber shanty was recorded to the south of the east end of Kashwakamak Lake in 1848, though as stated above illegal settlement (probably related to the timber business) is known to have occurred in the area as early as 1840. In 1848 a group of settlers in this area petitioned to have a school erected on land claimed by Thomas Cline, indicating a fairly sizeable community in the vicinity. When Gibbs surveyed the Frontenac Road in 1852/1853 he noted a number of families residing approximately four miles east of settlement that would become Ardoch (Armstrong 1976:12-15).

With the completion of the land survey along the Frontenac Road, much of Clarendon Township was opened for settlement as free grant land. Many of the lots were taken up in the early 1860s, but the relatively late date or lack of a patent for a large number of lots points to the transient nature of early settlement in the township, much of which was unsuited to agriculture. An 1860/61 report listed a total population of 374; another report

²⁸ www.williamstreatiesfirstnations.ca

²⁹ <https://www.ontario.ca/page/map-ontario-treaties-and-reserves>

four years later showed an increase to 487 with a total of 99 houses and 72 barns or stables (Armstrong 1976:21). The Smith Road, running south towards Kashwakamak Lake from the Frontenac Road, had probably been constructed by 1864 when a number of settlers were awarded patents for land near its western end (Armstrong 1976:18).

The timber limits came under the control of Allan Gilmour of the Gilmour Lumber Company, in the 1850s, who in turn sold them to Gilles and McLaren in 1866 (Armstrong 1976:38-39). The Kashwakamak Lake Dam located at the outlet in the northeast corner of the lake was originally constructed in the 1850s, probably by Gilmour, to ease the transportation of cut timber through the area. This dam raised the water level of the lake by up to eight feet (2.44 m). The present dam was constructed in 1910 (Mississippi Valley Conservation Authority, personal communication, 2007).

3.3 Michi Saagiig Historical Context

The following is a summary of oral tradition provided by Curve Lake First Nation:

The traditional homelands of the Michi Saagiig (Mississauga Anishinaabeg) encompass a vast area of what is now known as southern Ontario. The Michi Saagiig are known as “the people of the big river mouths” and were also known as the “Salmon People” who occupied and fished the north shore of Lake Ontario where the various tributaries emptied into the lake. Their territories extended north into and beyond the Kawarthas as winter hunting grounds on which they would break off into smaller social groups for the season, hunting and trapping on these lands, then returning to the lakeshore in spring for the summer months.

The Michi Saagiig were a highly mobile people, travelling vast distances to procure subsistence for their people. They were also known as the “Peacekeepers” among Indigenous nations. The Michi Saagiig homelands were located directly between two very powerful Confederacies: The Three Fires Confederacy to the north and the Haudenosaunee Confederacy to the south. The Michi Saagiig were the negotiators, the messengers, the diplomats, and they successfully mediated peace throughout this area of Ontario for countless generations.

Michi Saagiig oral histories speak to their people being in this area of Ontario for thousands of years. These stories recount the “Old Ones” who spoke an ancient Algonquian dialect. The histories explain that the current Ojibwa phonology is the 5th transformation of this language, demonstrating a linguistic connection that spans back into deep time. The Michi Saagiig of today are the descendants of the ancient peoples who lived in Ontario during the Archaic and Paleo-Indian periods. They are the original inhabitants of southern Ontario, and they are still here today.

The traditional territories of the Michi Saagiig span from Gananoque in the east, all along the north shore of Lake Ontario, west to the north shore of Lake Erie at Long Point. The territory spreads as far north as the tributaries that flow into these lakes, from Bancroft

and north of the Haliburton highlands. This also includes all the tributaries that flow from the height of land north of Toronto like the Oak Ridges Moraine, and all of the rivers that flow into Lake Ontario (the Rideau, the Salmon, the Ganaraska, the Moira, the Trent, the Don, the Rouge, the Etobicoke, the Humber, and the Credit, as well as Wilmot and 16 Mile Creeks) through Burlington Bay and the Niagara region including the Welland and Niagara Rivers, and beyond. The western side of the Michi Saagiig Nation was located around the Grand River which was used as a portage route as the Niagara portage was too dangerous. The Michi Saagiig would portage from present-day Burlington to the Grand River and travel south to the open water on Lake Erie.

Michi Saagiig oral histories also speak to the occurrence of people coming into their territories sometime between 500-1000 A.D. seeking to establish villages and a corn growing economy – these newcomers included peoples that would later be known as the Huron-Wendat, Neutral, Petun/Tobacco Nations. The Michi Saagiig made Treaties with these newcomers and granted them permission to stay with the understanding that they were visitors in these lands. Wampum was made to record these contracts, ceremonies would have bound each nation to their respective responsibilities within the political relationship, and these contracts would have been renewed annually (see Gitiga Migizi and Kapyrka 2015). These visitors were extremely successful as their corn economy grew as well as their populations. However, it was understood by all nations involved that this area of Ontario were the homeland territories of the Michi Saagiig.

The Odawa Nation worked with the Michi Saagiig to meet with the Huron-Wendat, the Petun, and Neutral Nations to continue the amicable political and economic relationship that existed – a symbiotic relationship that was mainly policed and enforced by the Odawa people.

Problems arose for the Michi Saagiig in the 1600s when the European way of life was introduced into southern Ontario. Also, around the same time, the Haudenosaunee were given firearms by the colonial governments in New York and Albany which ultimately made an expansion possible for them into Michi Saagiig territories. There began skirmishes with the various nations living in Ontario at the time. The Haudenosaunee engaged in fighting with the Huron-Wendat and between that and the onslaught of European diseases, the Iroquoian speaking peoples in Ontario were decimated.

The onset of colonial settlement and missionary involvement severely disrupted the original relationships between these Indigenous nations. Disease and warfare had a devastating impact upon the Indigenous peoples of Ontario, especially the large sedentary villages, which mostly included Iroquoian speaking peoples. The Michi Saagiig were largely able to avoid the devastation caused by these processes by retreating to their wintering grounds to the north, essentially waiting for the smoke to clear.

Michi Saagiig Elder Gitiga Migizi (2017) recounts:

“We weren’t affected as much as the larger villages because we learned to paddle away for several years until everything settled down. And we came back and tried to bury the bones of the Huron but it was overwhelming, it was all over, there were bones all over – that is our story.

There is a misnomer here, that this area of Ontario is not our traditional territory and that we came in here after the Huron-Wendat left or were defeated, but that is not true. That is a big misconception of our history that needs to be corrected. We are the traditional people, we are the ones that signed treaties with the Crown. We are recognized as the ones who signed these treaties and we are the ones to be dealt with officially in any matters concerning territory in southern Ontario.

We had peacemakers go to the Haudenosaunee and live amongst them in order to change their ways. We had also diplomatically dealt with some of the strong chiefs to the north and tried to make peace as much as possible. So we are very important in terms of keeping the balance of relationships in harmony.

Some of the old leaders recognized that it became increasingly difficult to keep the peace after the Europeans introduced guns. But we still continued to meet, and we still continued to have some wampum, which doesn’t mean we negated our territory or gave up our territory – we did not do that. We still consider ourselves a sovereign nation despite legal challenges against that. We still view ourselves as a nation and the government must negotiate from that basis.”

Often times, southern Ontario is described as being “vacant” after the dispersal of the Huron-Wendat peoples in 1649 (who fled east to Quebec and south to the United States). This is misleading as these territories remained the homelands of the Michi Saagiig Nation.

The Michi Saagiig participated in eighteen treaties from 1781 to 1923 to allow the growing number of European settlers to establish in Ontario. Pressures from increased settlement forced the Michi Saagiig to slowly move into small family groups around the present day communities: Curve Lake First Nation, Hiawatha First Nation, Alderville First Nation, Scugog Island First Nation, New Credit First Nation, and Mississauga First Nation.

The Michi Saagiig have been in Ontario for thousands of years, and they remain here to this day.

This historical context was prepared by Gitiga Migizi, a respected Elder and Knowledge Keeper of the Michi Saagiig Nation.

Publication reference:

Gitiga Migizi and Julie Kapyrka

*2015 **Before, During, and After: Mississauga Presence in the Kawarthas.** In Peterborough Archaeology, Dirk Verhulst, editor, pp.127-136. Peterborough, Ontario: Peterborough Chapter of the Ontario Archaeological Society.*

3.4 Nation Huronne-Wendat Historical Context

The following is a summary of the history of the Nation Huronne-Wendat provided by the Huron Wendat Nation:

As an ancient people, traditionally, the Huron-Wendat, a great Iroquoian civilization of farmers and fishermen-hunter-gatherers and also the masters of trade and diplomacy, represented several thousand individuals. They lived in a territory stretching from the Gaspé Peninsula in the Gulf of Saint Lawrence and up along the Saint Lawrence Valley on both sides of the Saint Lawrence River all the way to the Great Lakes. Huronia, included in Wendake South, represents a part of the ancestral territory of the Huron-Wendat Nation in Ontario. It extends from Lake Nipissing in the North to Lake Ontario in the South and Île Perrot in the East to around Owen Sound in the West. This territory is today marked by several hundred archaeological sites, listed to date, testifying to this strong occupation of the territory by the Nation. It is an invaluable heritage for the Huron-Wendat Nation and the largest archaeological heritage related to a First Nation in Canada.

According to our own traditions and customs, the Huron-Wendat are intimately linked to the Saint Lawrence River and its estuary, which is the main route of its activities and way of life. The Huron-Wendat formed alliances and traded goods with other First Nations among the networks that stretched across the continent.

Today, the population of the Huron-Wendat Nation is composed of more than 4000 members distributed on-reserve and off-reserve.

The Huron-Wendat Nation band council (CNHW) is headquartered in Wendake, the oldest First Nations community in Canada, located on the outskirts of Quebec City (20 km north of the city) on the banks of the Saint Charles River. There is only one Huron-Wendat community, whose ancestral territory is called the Nionwentsïo, which translates to "our beautiful land" in the Wendat language.

The Huron-Wendat Nation is also the only authority that have the authority and rights to protect and take care of her ancestral sites in Wendake South.

3.5 History of the Ojibway Nation

The following historical context was provided by the Chippewas of Rama First Nation:

The Chippewas of Rama First Nation are an Anishinaabe (Ojibway) community located at Rama First Nation, ON. Our history began with a great migration from the East Coast of Canada into the Great Lakes region. Throughout a period of several hundred years, our direct ancestors again migrated to the north and eastern shores of Lake Huron and Georgian Bay. Our Elders say that we made room in our territory for our allies, the Huron-Wendat Nation, during their times of war with the Haudenosaunee. Following the dispersal of the Huron-Wendat Nation from the region in the mid-1600s, our stories say that we again migrated to

our territories in what today is known as Muskoka and Simcoe County. Several major battles with the Haudenosaunee culminated in peace being agreed between the Anishinaabe and the Haudenosaunee, after which the Haudenosaunee agreed to leave the region and remain in southern Ontario. Thus, since the early 18th century, much of central Ontario into the lower parts of northern Ontario has been Anishinaabe territory.

The more recent history of Rama First Nation begins with the creation of the “Coldwater Narrows” reserve, one of the first reserves in Canada. The Crown intended to relocate our ancestors to the Coldwater reserve and ultimately assimilate our ancestors into Euro-Canadian culture. Underlying the attempts to assimilate our ancestors were the plans to take possession of our vast hunting and harvesting territories. Feeling the impacts of increasingly widespread settlement, many of our ancestors moved to the Coldwater reserve in the early 1830s. Our ancestors built homes, mills, and farmsteads along the old portage route which ran through the reserve, connecting Lake Simcoe to Georgian Bay (this route is now called “Highway 12”). After a short period of approximately six years, the Crown had a change of plans. Frustrated at our ancestors continued exploiting of hunting territories (spanning roughly from Newmarket to the south, Kawartha Lakes to the east, Meaford to the west, and Lake Nipissing to the north), as well as unsuccessful assimilation attempts, the Crown reneged on the promise of reserve land. Three of our Chiefs, including Chief Yellowhead, went to York under the impression they were signing documents affirming their ownership of land and buildings. The Chiefs were misled, and inadvertently allegedly surrendered the Coldwater reserve back to the Crown.

Our ancestors, then known as the Chippewas of Lakes Simcoe and Huron, were left landless. Earlier treaties, such as Treaty 16 and Treaty 18, had already resulted in nearly 2,000,000 acres being allegedly surrendered to the Crown. The Chippewas made the decision to split into three groups. The first followed Chief Snake to Snake Island and Georgina Island (today known as the Chippewas of Georgina Island). The second group followed Chief Aissance to Beausoleil Island, and later to Christian Island (Beausoleil First Nation). The third group, led by Chief Yellowhead, moved to the Narrows between Lakes Simcoe and Couchiching and eventually, Rama (Chippewas of Rama First Nation).

A series of purchases, using Rama’s own funds, resulted in Yellowhead purchasing approximately 1,600 acres of abandoned farmland in Rama Township. This land makes up the core of the Rama Reserve today, and we have called it home since the early 1840’s. Our ancestors began developing our community, clearing fields for farming and building homes. They continued to hunt and harvest in their traditional territories, especially within the Muskoka region, up until the early 1920’s. In 1923, the Williams Treaties were signed, surrendering 12,000,000 acres of previously unceded land to the Crown. Once again, our ancestors were misled, and they were informed that in surrendering the land, they gave up their right to access their seasonal traditional hunting and harvesting territories.

With accessing territories difficult, our ancestors turned to other ways to survive. Many men guided tourists around their former family hunting territories in Muskoka, showing them places to fish and hunt. Others worked in lumber camps and mills. Our grandmothers made

crafts such as porcupine quill baskets and black ash baskets, and sold them to tourists visiting Simcoe and Muskoka. The children were forced into Indian Day School, and some were taken away to Residential Schools. Church on the reserve began to indoctrinate our ancestors. Our community, along with every other First Nation in Canada, entered a dark period of attempted genocide at the hands of Canada and the Crown. Somehow, our ancestors persevered, and they kept our culture, language, and community alive.

Today, our community has grown into a bustling place, and is home to approximately 1,100 people. We are a proud and progressive First Nations community.

3.6 Property History

The following detailed review of archival research was conducted in order to develop a picture of the land-use history of the study area through the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, particularly as it relates to the archaeological potential of the property. Information was compiled from a variety of sources, including the 1862 John Snow plan of Clarendon Township, the 1880 Belden map, twentieth-century topographic maps and aerial photographs, directories, and survey plans.³⁰ Records at the Frontenac County Land Registry Office (or FCLRO) were also consulted.

Lot 20, Concession 10

The Crown patent for Lot 20, Concession 10 was awarded to Robert T. McDonnell in 1864, along with Lot 21, Concession 10 directly to the north. The 1862 plan of Clarendon Township produced by John Snow placed McDonnell on lot 21 to the north of the study area (Map 3). Just a few years later, a plan produced in 1865 illustrates Lot 20 with McDonnell's name (see Map 3).

Four years later (patent holders had to remain on their lots for at least 4 years prior to selling), the lands were deeded to Gilles and McLaren (FCLRO Instrument A121). The Gillies and McLaren Lumber Company, founded in 1853 by John Gilles and Peter McLaren, began buying up large logging limits on the upper Mississippi River in 1862. To increase the efficiency of their log drives, many improvements were made to the waterway: dredging shallow areas to create channels, as well as building dams to control water levels, timber slides around rapids and falls, and sluiceways and booms to corral

³⁰ Historical maps and aerial photographs have been geo-referenced using Geographic Information Systems (GIS) software to generate the mapping contained in this report. Geo-referencing is the name given to the process of transforming a map or image by assigning X and Y coordinates to features, allowing the software to rotate, stretch, and in some cases warp the original image to best match the supplied coordinates. Owing to considerable variation in the scale, accuracy, and resolution of historical maps and aerial photographs, there is often an unknown degree of error introduced in the process of geo-referencing and, as for this reason, the location and extent of the study area overlain on these maps should be considered approximate.

logs.³¹ The Kashwakamak Lake Dam, although originally constructed in the 1850s, probably by lumber baron Allan Gilmour, offers an example of the improvements made to ease the transportation of cut timber through the area. This dam raised the water level of the lake by up to eight feet (2.44 m; Armstrong 1976:38-39). Although the improvements were costly and time-consuming to undertake, it was still considered profitable, as other competitors had to pay tolls to use the improved river sections.

Although John Gilles sold his shares of the firm in 1871, various members of the McLaren family (Peter McLaren, James McLaren - John's eldest son, or Sophia McLaren - John's wife) held ownership of Lot 20 until 1884 when it was sold to the Canada Lands Company Limited (FCLRO Instruments A365, A376, A344). This was a large private chartered British land development company incorporated by an act of the British Parliament in 1825 to aid in the colonization of Upper Canada. They purchased undeveloped Crown and Clergy reserve lots from the province of Upper Canada to resell them to prospective settlers. That they acquired the lands is a good indication that up until this point, none of the former owners had resided on the property. The company held the lands until 1902 when Lot 20 was sold to James M. Brown and Alexander Brown *et ux.* (FCLRO Instrument B866). Brothers James Morton and Alexander Caldwell Brown had been operating the expanded four-storey Boulton Flour Mill in Carleton Place since 1885, when they took it over from their father Horace Brown. Coincidentally, their flour mill was located across the river from the Gillies and McLaren sawmill.³² It is possible they purchased the lot to hold greater control over Kashwakamak Lake dam, and subsequently the waterpower used at their mill. It seems unlikely that they ever resided on the property.

In 1911, the brothers sold the lot and the right-of-way through the waterway to the Mississippi River Improvement Company Limited (MRIC; FCLRO Instrument C1196). Recognizing a need to manage the water flow on the Mississippi River between Mazinaw Lake and the Ottawa River, Mr. Jim Brown (likely another relative) of Carleton Place founded the company in 1909. Water users on the Mississippi River system joined the company which helped to build and maintain dams on the rivers and lakes that supplied the Mississippi. In 1910 the MRIC was chartered by provincial legislation to levy tolls, initially implemented to cover the cost of operating and maintaining the dams at Cross, Long and Gill Lakes, with other dams included as they were constructed. As the system expanded, the number of users (payees) increased. Tolls were collected in the form of flour, feed or textiles at sawmills and small hydro electric generating stations. The present dam at Kashwakamak Lake was constructed in 1910 as part of this process (Mississippi Valley Conservation Authority, personal communication, 2007).

³¹ McLeod, Susanna. 2018, "Lumberman Clashed for Waterway Rights" Whig Standard. <https://www.thewhig.com/opinion/columnists/lumberman-clashed-for-waterway-rights>

³² https://www.communitystories.ca/v2/capt-a-roy-brown-reluctant-hero_heros-malgre-lui/story/the-brown-family/

In 1932 Clarence H. Brown (the son of James M. Brown) along with Alexander C. and Mary E. Brown granted part of the lot to William H. Martin (FCLRO Instrument E1654). Martin granted the land to Richard Guthering ten years later, who in turn granted the property to Carl Guthering in 1950 (FCLRO Instruments 348794 and F2018). A topographic map dating to the same year shows the dam, but little else within the study area, consistent with earlier depictions of the property (Map 4; see Map 3). The closest residence depicted was well to the north of the dam.

Through negotiations with the Mississippi Valley Conservation Authority (MVCA), the Ministry of Natural Resources and Ontario Hydro, in 1990 the lands that had previously been retained by the Mississippi River Improvement Company Limited were transferred to the Mississippi Valley Conservation Authority (FCLRO Instrument 544541). The extant Kashwakamak Lake Dam consists of two structures: the main control dam and a secondary saddle dam, separated by a section of land on the north side of the main structure. The main structures are comprised of two bulkhead walls, the concrete piers forming the two sluiceways and a broad crested concrete weir. The dam has undergone major repairs over the years to fix structural and seepage issues.

4.0 ARCHAEOLOGICAL CONTEXT

This section describes the archaeological context of the study area, including known archaeological research, known cultural heritage resources (including archaeological sites), and environmental conditions. In combination with the historical context outlined above, this provides the necessary background information to evaluate the archaeological potential of the property.

4.1 Previous Archaeological Research

In order to determine whether any previous archaeological fieldwork has been conducted within or in the immediate vicinity of the present study area, a search of the titles of reports in the *Public Register of Archaeological Reports* maintained by the Ministry of Citizenship and Multiculturalism (MCM) was undertaken. To augment these results, a search of the Past Recovery corporate library was also conducted.³³

A prime source for unregistered archaeological finds is the initial series of *Annual Archaeological Reports for Ontario* (AARO), which were published as appendices to the report of the Minister of Education in the *Ontario Sessional Papers*. In these reports, dating between 1887 and 1928, staff of the provincial museum (which eventually became the Royal Ontario Museum) published articles by several of Ontario's most prominent collectors, amateur archaeologists, and museum staff. The articles provide a record of some of the earliest archaeological fieldwork to have taken place in the province, as well as documentation of the private collections that were donated to the museum. These articles report on extensive artifact collecting in Frontenac County in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. There was only one reference to Clarendon Township in the AARO volumes, which was in reference to an earthen vessel found in conjunction with a stone enclosure on Lot 4, Concession 8, by renowned Canadian geologist and archaeologist, Sir John William Dawson, in 1859 (*Annual Archaeological Reports for Ontario, 1889*).

An archaeological survey of the Mississippi River from Mazinaw Lake to Dalhousie Lake was completed in 1977 by Phill Wright (Wright and Englebert 1978). The section of the Mississippi surveyed during 1977 yielded few new sites. The paucity of archaeological data recovered is likely the result of cottage development and raised water levels (Wright

³³ In compiling the results, it should be noted that archaeological fieldwork conducted for research purposes should be distinguished from systematic property surveys conducted during archaeological assessments associated with land use development planning (generally after the introduction of the *Ontario Heritage Act* in 1974 and the *Environmental Assessment Act* in 1975), in that only those studies undertaken to current standards can be considered to have adequately assessed properties for the presence of archaeological sites with cultural heritage value or interest. In addition, it should be noted that the majority of the research work undertaken in the area has been focused on the identification of pre-Contact Indigenous sites, while current MCM requirements minimally require the evaluation of the material remains of occupations and or land uses pre-dating 1900.

and Englebert 1978:iv). To the knowledge of Past Recovery staff, no previous archaeological assessments have occurred within or within the immediate vicinity of the study area.

4.2 Previously Recorded Archaeological Sites

The primary source for information regarding known archaeological sites in Ontario is the *Archaeological Sites Database* maintained by the Ontario Ministry of Citizenship and Multiculturalism. The database largely consists of archaeological sites discovered by professional archaeologists conducting archaeological assessments required by legislated processes under land use development planning (largely since the late 1980s). A search of the *Sites Database* indicated that there is a single registered archaeological site located within a one-kilometre radius of the study area (Table 1).

Table 1. Summary of Registered Archaeological Sites within a One-Kilometre Radius of the Study Area.

Borden Number	Site Name	Time Period	Inferred Agency	Inferred Function	Review Status
BfGf-1	Logger's Rock	Post-Contact	Euro-Canadian	Memorial	Unknown

Logger's Rock (BfGf-1)

This site is represented by a bedrock outcrop north of the dam at the northeast end of Kashwakamak Lake. The rock is approximately 1.5 m x 0.75 m and is inscribed with the names of four to five log drivers killed in a driving accident, according to local legend. One of the names is clearly discernable, with the date immediately to the right: T. Maroney, 1881. Although weathering has taken its toll on the remaining names, the same date is visible in other places on the outcrop. The site was first registered in 1977.

4.3 Cultural Heritage Resources

The recognition or designation of cultural heritage resources (here referring only to built heritage features and cultural heritage landscapes) may provide valuable insight into aspects of local heritage, whether identified at the local, provincial, national, or international level. As some of these cultural heritage resources may be associated with significant archaeological features or deposits, the background research conducted for this assessment included the compilation of a list of cultural heritage resources that have previously been identified within or immediately adjacent to the current study area. The following sources were consulted:

- Federal Heritage Buildings Review Office online Directory of Heritage

Designations;³⁴

- Canada's Historic Places website;³⁵
- Ontario Heritage Properties Database;³⁶
- An archived listing of Ministry of Citizenship and Multiculturalism's Heritage Conservation Districts;³⁷ and,
- Ontario Heritage Trust website.³⁸

No designated cultural heritage sites were found within a 300 m radius from the study area.

4.4 Heritage Plaques and Monuments

The recognition of a place, person, or event through the erection of a plaque or monument may also provide valuable insight into aspects of local history, given that these markers typically indicate some level of heritage recognition. As with cultural heritage resources (built heritage features and/or cultural heritage landscapes), some of these places, persons, or events may be associated with significant archaeological features or deposits. Accordingly, this study included the compilation of a list of heritage plaques and/or markers in the vicinity of the study area. The following sources were consulted:

- The Ontario Heritage Trust Online Plaque Guide;³⁹
- A listing of plaques transcribed at www.readtheplaque.com;
- Parks Canada Directory of Federal Heritage Designations;⁴⁰ and,
- A listing of historical plaques of Ontario maintained by Sarah J. McCabe.⁴¹

No plaques or monuments were found within a 300 m radius from the study area.

4.5 Cemeteries

The presence of historical cemeteries in proximity to a parcel undergoing archaeological assessment can pose archaeological concerns in two respects. First, cemeteries may be associated with related structures or activities that may have become part of the archaeological record, and thus may be considered features indicating archaeological potential. Second, the boundaries of historical cemeteries may have been altered over time, as all or portions may have fallen out of use and been forgotten, leaving potential for the presence of unmarked graves. For these reasons, the background research

³⁴ https://www.pc.gc.ca/apps/DFHD/default_eng.aspx

³⁵ <https://www.historicplaces.ca/en/rep-reg/search-recherche.aspx>

³⁶ <https://www.heritagetrust.on.ca/en/oha/advanced-search>

³⁷ https://web.archive.org/web/20220325223537/http://www.mtc.gov.on.ca/en/heritage/heritage_conserving_list.shtml

³⁸ <https://www.heritagetrust.on.ca/en/index.php/pages/tools/plaque-database>

³⁹ <https://www.heritagetrust.on.ca/en/index.php/pages/tools/plaque-database>

⁴⁰ https://www.pc.gc.ca/apps/dfhd/default_eng.aspx

⁴¹ <https://ontarioplaques.omeka.net/>

conducted for this assessment included a search of available sources of information regarding historical cemeteries. For this study, the following sources were consulted:

- An archived listing of all registered cemeteries in the province of Ontario maintained by the Consumer Protection Branch of the Ministry of Public and Business Service Delivery (last updated 06/07/2011);
- Field of Stones website;⁴²
- Ontario Cemetery Locator website maintained by the Ontario Genealogical Society;⁴³
- Ontario Headstones Photo Project website;⁴⁴ and,
- Available historical mapping and aerial photography

No known cemeteries were located within or adjacent to the study area.⁴⁵ The closest registered cemetery is St. John's Anglican Cemetery, located at 6161 Road 506 in Ardoch, approximately 4.5 km northeast of the study area.

4.6 Mineral Resources

The presence of scarce mineral resources on or near to a property may indicate potential for archaeological resources associated with both pre-Contact and post-Contact exploration and exploitation. For this reason, the background research conducted for the assessment includes a search of available sources of information on the locations of outcrops of rare and highly valued minerals, such as quartz, chert, ochre, copper, and soapstone, as well as minerals sought out by post-Contact prospectors and miners for more industrial-scale exploitation (i.e. gold, copper, iron, mica, etc.). Useful tools in this search are provided by databases maintained by the Ontario Geological Survey and the Ministry of Northern Development and Mines, including:

- *Abandoned Mines Information System* which contains a list of all known abandoned and inactive mine sites and associated features in the Province;
- *Mining Claims* which contains a list of all active claims, alienations, and dispositions;
- *Mineral Deposits Inventory* which contains a list of known mineral occurrences of economic value in the Province; and,
- *Bedrock Geology Data Set*, which shows the distribution of bedrock units and illustrates geologic rock types, major faults, iron formations, kimberlite intrusions, and dike swarms.

⁴² <https://freepages.rootsweb.com/~clifford/history/>

⁴³ <https://vitacollections.ca/ogscollections/2818487/data?g=d>

⁴⁴ <https://canadianheadstones.ca/wp/cemetery-lookup/>

⁴⁵ It should be noted that the research undertaken as part of this Stage 1 archaeological assessment is unlikely to identify the potential for the presence of unrecorded burial plots, such as those of individual families on rural properties. See Section 7.0 of this report for information regarding compliance with provincial legislation in the event that human remains are identified during future development.

A review of the above-mentioned databases revealed no cases of mineral deposits within a 300 m radius of the study area.

4.7 Local Environment

The assessment of present and past environmental conditions in the region containing the study area is a necessary component in determining the potential for past occupation as well as providing a context for the analysis of archaeological resources discovered during an assessment. Factors such as local water sources, soil types, vegetation associations and topography all contribute to the suitability of the land for human exploitation and/or settlement. For the purposes of this assessment, information from local physiographic, geological and soils research has been compiled to create a picture of the environmental context for both past and present land uses.

The physiography and distribution of surficial material in this area are largely the result of glacial activity that took place in the Late Wisconsinan (Bajc 1994). This period, which lasted from approximately 23,000 to 11,000 years before present, was marked by the repeated advance and retreat of the massive Laurentide Ice Sheet. As the ice advanced, debris from the underlying sediments and bedrock accumulated within and beneath the ice. The debris, a mixture of stones, sand, silt, and clay, was deposited over large areas as till plains, drumlins, and moraines. During deglaciation, as the Late Wisconsinan ice margin receded to the north, massive inflows of glacial meltwater into the Huron-Georgian Bay-Lake Simcoe basin flooded adjacent lands, which had been depressed by the weight of the continental ice sheet, forming glacial Lake Algonquin by 11,500 years ago (Eshman and Karrow 1985 in Gao 2010). These waters created shoreline features that, with isostatic rebound, are now as much as 100 to 150 metres above the present water level in Georgian Bay. Where the northern limit of glacial Lake Algonquin was formed by the retreating ice sheet, new lake outlets developed as progressively lower sills were exposed, and water levels dropped to successively lower levels. About 10,100 B.P., during the Ottawa-Marquette Low Stand, Glacial Lake Algonquin drained away and a series of smaller lakes (called Hough and Stanley) occupied depressions in the Huron Basin below the present-day water level. While low-water conditions continued in the former Laurentide Lake basin for millennia, only c. 500 years later water volumes increased rapidly in the French-Nipissing-Mattawa basin. These changing conditions resulted in much higher water levels in the Mattawa Lowlands and Ottawa River Valley, creating a series of raised post-Algonquin relic shorelines. Modern water levels in the Great Lakes basins only developed sometime after 3,000 years ago, with only minor climate-related fluctuations since that time.

The study area is situated within the Algonquin Highlands physiographic region which is characterized by an extensive tract of shallow soil over granite or other hard Precambrian bedrock (Chapman and Putnam 1984:211). The relief is generally rough with rounded knobs and ridges, some up to 170 m high. Surficial geological mapping indicates that the study area is underlain by Precambrian bedrock (Map 5).

The soil survey of Frontenac County shows the survey property consists of the Tweed Sandy Loam complex, comprised of shallow, calcareous sandy loam till and acidic with low fertility, usually associated with rock outcrops, rough topography, stones and swamps. In general, these are not considered arable soils but are well draining (Hoffman et al. 1967; see Map 5). Topographic mapping at 2 m contours shows the study area consists of a gentle slope down to the water on either shoreline, with elevations ranging between 260 m and 264 m above sea level (masl; see Map 5).

The study area lies within the Mississippi Valley watershed, and more specifically the Crotch Lake-Mississippi River subwatershed. Kashwakamak Lake is a 15 km long, relatively narrow, freshwater lake running in an east-west direction. It is 0.74 km at its widest point with a maximum depth of 22 m. The primary inflow and outflow are both via the Mississippi River; upstream from Marble Lake over the White Fish rapids and downstream, controlled by the Kashwakamak Dam, towards Mud Lake. The damming of this lake raised the water levels up to eight feet (2.44 m; Armstrong 1976:38-39).

The study area is also within the Middle Ottawa sub-region of the Great Lakes-St. Lawrence Forest Region. Tree species within this area include sugar maple, beech, yellow birch, red maple, hemlock, white pine and red pine with lesser numbers of jack pine, white spruce, balsam fir, aspen, white birch, red oak and basswood. Hardwood and mixed wood swamps also can contain eastern cedar, tamarack, black spruce, black ash, red maple and elm. Other occasional species include butternut, bur oak, white ash and black cherry (Rowe 1972:48). The area would have been cleared of its original forest cover with the intensification of Euro-Canadian settlement and extensive logging in the nineteenth century.

5.0 STAGE 1 ARCHAEOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT

This section of the report includes an evaluation of the archaeological potential within the study area, in which the results of the background research described above are synthesized to determine the likelihood of the property to contain significant archaeological resources.

5.1 Optional Property Inspection

In addition to the above research, Past Recovery completed an optional site inspection on July 25th, 2023. The weather was sunny and warm with a high of 29 degrees Celsius. These conditions permitted adequate to excellent visibility for the identification and documentation of archaeological potential. The inspection was conducted according to archaeological fieldwork standards outlined in *Standards and Guidelines for Consultant Archaeologists* (MCM 2011), with field conditions and features influencing archaeological potential documented through digital photography, a field map, and field notes. The complete Stage 1 photographic catalogue is included as Appendix 1 and the locations and orientations of all photographs referenced in this section of the report are shown on Map 6. As per the *Terms and Conditions for Archaeological Licences* in Ontario, curation of all photographs generated during the Stage 1 archaeological assessment is being provided by Past Recovery pending the identification of a suitable repository. An inventory of the records generated during the inspection is provided below in Table 2. The property inspection has been used to supplement the background information to help inform the archaeological potential model developed below.

The site visit confirmed the conditions obvious in the 2019 aerial image used to define the study area (see Map 2) and noted other natural features or disturbances affecting the archaeological potential of the property (Images 2 to 19). The north side of the lake consisted of primarily rocky, hilly terrain with small, flat areas between (see Images 2 and 3). There were areas of exposed bedrock, and the appearance of thin soils elsewhere.

Table 2. Inventory of the Stage 1 Documentary Record.

Type of Document	Description	Number of Records	Location
Photographs	Digital photographs (*.jpg) documenting the subject property and conditions at the time of the property survey	72 digital photographs	On Past Recovery Server - file PR23-021
Mapping Data	Shapefiles (*.shp)	2 files	On Past Recovery Server - file PR23-021
Field Notes	Field notes from the site visit (*.pdf)	1 digital file	On Past Recovery Server - file PR23-021

The trees consisted of mature forest cover and the shoreline was rocky, sloping down towards the water (see Images 4 to 6).

As mentioned previously, the main control dam consisted of two bulkhead walls, three concrete piers forming the two sluiceways and a broad crested concreted weir. There was also a buoy line in place to catch any floating debris. The lower retaining wall was at the north end of the study area (see Image 7). There was concrete infill at the north end shoreline, to create a level area (see Images 8 and 9). The majority of the southern shoreline was rocky with many areas of bare stone (see Image 10) or very thin soils. The southern shoreline at the control dam had been lined with concrete abutment barriers, but was otherwise treed and flat (see Image 11). Further east of the dam, the shoreline was composed of bare rocks. As a result of the high water levels, the southern shoreline could not be reached on foot, as water was cresting the dam, preventing crossing. The assessment photographs were taken from the dam and the northern shoreline, but a more thorough look will be taken as part of the Stage 2 assessment.

There was a saddle dam located approximately 75 metres to the north-northeast of the main dam (see Image 12). This was an auxiliary dam constructed to confine the reservoir created by a primary dam either to permit a higher water elevation and storage or to limit the extent of the reservoir for increased efficiency. Saddle dams are generally constructed in a low spot or saddle through which the reservoir would otherwise escape. This saddle dam was a concrete, linear construction hugging the shoreline. It had rough concrete backfill on the landward side, both to support it and fill in the low-lying shoreline (see Image 13).

An access road ran through the western edge of the study area, roughly following the curve of the shoreline. It was gravel packed, and in some areas had clearly been artificially raised from the surrounding terrain through the addition of fill (see Images 14 and 15). Further to the north the road became a dirt track with older gravel fill (see Images 16 and 17).

Possible locations for the staging/laydown area were indicated to be on lands east of the access road. Although the topography was generally hilly between the control dam and the staging area (see Image 18), a relatively flat area was also included (see Image 19). These lands sloped gently down to the water with a slight rise at the western end.

5.2 Evaluation of Archaeological Potential

The evaluation of the potential of a particular parcel of land to contain significant archaeological resources is based on the identification of local features that have demonstrated associations with known archaeological sites. For instance, archaeological sites associated with pre-Contact settlements and land uses are typically found in close physical association with environmental features such as sources of potable water, transportation routes (navigable waterways and trails), accessible shorelines, areas of

elevated topography (i.e. knolls, ridges, eskers, escarpments, and drumlins), areas of sandy and well-drained soils, distinctive land formations (i.e. waterfalls, rock outcrops, caverns, mounds, and promontories and their bases), as well as resource-rich areas (e.g. migratory routes, spawning areas, scarce raw materials, etc.). Similarly, post-Contact archaeological sites are often found in association with many of these same environmental features, though they are also commonly connected with known areas of early Euro-Canadian settlement, early historical transportation routes (e.g. roads, trails, railways, etc.), and areas of early Euro-Canadian industry (i.e. the fur trade, logging and mining). For this reason, assessments of the potential of a particular parcel of land to contain post-Contact archaeological sites rely heavily on historical and archival research, including reviews of available land registry records, census returns and assessment rolls, historical maps, and aerial photographs. The locations of previously discovered archaeological sites can also be used to shed light on the chances that a particular location contains an archaeological record of past human activities.

Archaeological assessment standards established in the *Standards and Guidelines for Consultant Archaeologists* (MCM 2011) specify which factors, at a minimum, must be considered when evaluating archaeological potential. Licensed consultant archaeologists are required to incorporate these factors into potential determinations and account for all features on the property that can indicate the potential for significant archaeological sites. If this evaluation indicates that any part of a subject property exhibits potential for archaeological resources, the completion of a Stage 2 archaeological assessment is commonly required prior to the issuance of approvals for activities that would involve soil disturbances or other alterations.

The *Standards and Guidelines for Consultant Archaeologists* (MCM 2011) also establish minimum distances from features of archaeological potential that must be identified as exhibiting potential for sites. For instance, this includes all lands within 300 m of primary and secondary water sources, past water sources (i.e. glacial lake shorelines), registered archaeological sites, areas of early Euro-Canadian settlement, or locations identified as potentially containing significant archaeological resources by local histories or informants. It also includes all lands within 100 m of early historic transportation routes (e.g. roads, trails, and portage routes). Further, any portion of a property containing elevated topography, pockets of well-drained sandy soils, distinctive land formations, resource-rich/harvesting areas, and/or previously identified cultural heritage resources (i.e. built heritage properties and/or cultural heritage landscapes that may be associated with significant archaeological resources) must also be identified as exhibiting archaeological potential.

5.3 Analysis and Conclusions

The background research undertaken for this assessment indicates that all of the subject property exhibits potential for the presence of significant archaeological resources associated with pre-Contact settlement and/or land uses. Specifically:

- All of the study area lies within 300 m of Kashwakamak Lake/Mississippi River (a major pre-Contact transportation corridor), which offered a source of potable water and food, making the entire area a suitable location for camps for pre-Contact hunter-gatherer populations; and
- Soils in the study area are well-drained sandy loam, of a type preferred for pre-Contact campsites.

The study area also exhibits characteristics that indicate potential for the presence of archaeological resources associated with post-Contact settlement and/or land uses. Specifically:

- All of the study area lies within 300 m of Kashwakamak Lake/Mississippi River, a major post-Contact transportation corridor which continues to serve as a transportation corridor today; and,
- Nineteenth century logging activity occurred throughout the general area.

The evaluation of archaeological potential also included a review of available sources of information (i.e. high resolution aerial photographs and satellite imagery) to determine if part or all of the study area had been subject to deep and intensive soil disturbance (i.e. quarrying, road construction, major landscaping involving grading below topsoil, former building footprints, utility line and infrastructure development, etc.) in the recent past, as these activities would have severely damaged the integrity of or removed any archaeological resources that might have been present. Further, the review included an assessment of the property for additional factors that might limit archaeological potential such as land with permanent water saturation, exposed bedrock or steep slope of greater than 20 degrees in elevation. As has been noted above, a gravel-covered access road mirrored the shoreline of the lake, and the Kashwakamak Dam system consisted of the main control dam as well as the secondary saddle dam. Evidence for these attributes was clearly visible in the study area, confirming associated deep disturbance. The remainder of the property appeared to be unaltered, though there were clearly areas of steep slope.

Based on the historical sources and imagery reviewed and the site visit it has been determined that all of the study area retains potential for both pre-Contact and post-Contact archaeological resources, with the exceptions of the sloped areas, as well as the areas that have been disturbed through the construction of the dams and the creation of the access road. The extents of the disturbed areas will need to be confirmed during Stage 2 testing. The remainder of the study area should be subject to Stage 2 archaeological field assessment to determine whether or not there are archaeological resources prior to any future ground disturbance. The archaeological potential determination has been illustrated on Map 6.

5.4 Stage 1 Recommendations

The results of the background research discussed above have indicated that all of the study area exhibits potential for the presence of significant archaeological resources. Accordingly, it is recommended that:

- 1) The portions of the study area that have been determined to exhibit archaeological potential should be subject to Stage 2 archaeological assessment prior to the initiation of below-grade soil disturbances or other alterations (see Map 6).
- 2) Any future Stage 2 archaeological assessment should be undertaken by a licensed consultant archaeologist, in compliance with *Standards and Guidelines for Consultant Archaeologists* (MCM 2011). As the study area is non-agricultural land, all portions identified as exhibiting archaeological potential should be assessed by means of a shovel test pit survey conducted at 5 m intervals.
- 3) In the event that future planning results in the identification of additional areas of impact beyond the limits of the present Stage 1 study area, further archaeological assessment may be required. It should be noted that screening for impacts should include all aspects of the proposed development that may cause soil disturbances or other alterations (i.e. access roads, staging/lay down areas, associated works etc.), and that even temporary property needs should be considered.
- 4) Any future archaeological assessment should be undertaken by a licensed consultant archaeologist, in compliance with *Standards and Guidelines for Consultant Archaeologists* (MCM 2011).

6.0 STAGE 2 ARCHAEOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT

This section of the report describes the methodology used and results of the Stage 2 property survey conducted to determine whether the subject property contains significant archaeological resources.

6.1 Field Methods

The Stage 2 archaeological fieldwork was completed on May 2nd 2024, by a crew of eight people consisting of a licensed field director and seven field technicians. Fieldwork was conducted according to archaeological fieldwork standards outlined in *Standards and Guidelines for Consultant Archaeologists* (MCM 2011). Weather conditions were partially sunny and a high of 17 degrees C. These conditions permitted adequate to excellent visibility for the identification, documentation, and, where appropriate, recovery of archaeological resources.

In order to ensure full coverage during the Stage 2 property survey, the Past Recovery field crew used 'Mapit Pro' GIS software on a tablet loaded with detailed satellite imagery overlain with the study area. This digital mapping interface, along with a high accuracy, GIS-mapping-grade Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS) receiver, allowed the field crew to accurately delimit the study area in relation to their 'real time' position and record features of interest. The GNSS unit employed for this purpose was a Trimble Catalyst DA1 antennae connected to a Samsung tablet running Trimble Mobile Manager software and receiving Trimble RTX corrections. While in use, the receiver reported accuracies within the range of plus or minus 1 m.

The study area was comprised primarily of open, mixed woodland, mostly deciduous trees, with rolling topography. As such the Stage 2 archaeological assessment consisted of a shovel test pit survey on a 5 m grid across the study area (Images 20 to 22; Map 7). Some sections of the study area were not tested because of a combination of steep slopes, low lying and wet areas, disturbances from dam construction and exposed bedrock. Survey methods and field conditions were recorded on project mapping and estimates of survey coverage are provided in Table 3.

The terrain across the undisturbed portions of study area consisted of rocky, hilly terrain with small, flat areas in between. There were areas of exposed bedrock, and the appearance of thin soils elsewhere. The trees consisted of mature forest cover and the shoreline was rocky, sloping down towards the water. The northern edge of the property ran along a former river, now dried up because of the saddle dam. This former riverbed had very steep slopes on either side and was permanently wet at the bottom. This area was not tested (Images 23 and 24; see Map 7)

Table 3. Estimates of Survey Coverage during the Stage 2 Assessment.

Survey Type	Area Covered	Percentage of Study Area (Total = 62.0 ha)
Shovel test pit survey at 5 m intervals	1.39 hectares	95%
Area obvious extensive and deep recent land alterations visually assessed	0.04 hectares	3%
Low lying and wet areas with permanently saturated soils visually assessed	0.02 hectares	2%
Steeply sloped lands (greater than 20 degrees) visually assessed	0.01 hectares	1%

The terrain across the undisturbed portions of study area consisted of rocky, hilly terrain with small, flat areas in between. There were areas of exposed bedrock, and the appearance of thin soils elsewhere. The trees consisted of mature forest cover and the shoreline was rocky, sloping down towards the water. The northern edge of the property ran along a former river, which is likely related to the placement of the saddle dam. This former riverbed had very steep slopes on either side and was permanently wet at the bottom. This area was not tested (Images 23 and 24; see Map 7)

Apart from where indicated, all test pit survey was completed at 5 m intervals using shovels and trowels, with back-dirt screened through 6 mm hardware mesh (see Images 20 to 22). Shovel test pits were at least 30 cm in diameter and excavation continued for 5 cm into sterile subsoil. All pits were examined for soil stratigraphy, cultural features, and/or evidence of deep and intensive disturbance. Sample test pits were documented with digital photographs and field notes. Once all required recording had been completed, all test pits were backfilled. Testing continued to within 1 m of built structures. Where archaeological resources were found, test pit intensification Strategy A was undertaken with eight additional test pits excavated within 2.5 m of the positive test pit, as well as a 1 m test unit placed over the positive test pit

Field activities were recorded through field notes, digital photographs, and digital mapping. A catalogue of the material generated during the Stage 2 property survey is included below in Table 4. The complete photographic catalogue is included as Appendix 1, and the locations and orientations of all photographs referenced in this section of the report are shown on Map 7. As per *Terms and Conditions for Archaeological Licences in Ontario*, curation of all photographs and field notes generated during the Stage 2 archaeological assessment is being provided by Past Recovery pending the identification of a suitable repository.

Table 4. Inventory of the Stage 2 Documentary Record.

Type of Document	Description	Number of Records	Location
Photographs	Digital photographs documenting the Stage 2 fieldwork	129 photographs	On Past Recovery computer network – file PR23-021
Mapping data	Shapefiles (*.shp)	8 files	On Past Recovery computer network – file PR23-021
Field Notes	Scanned and digital notes on the Stage 2 fieldwork; test pit forms	8 pages (3 *.pdf files)	On Past Recovery computer network – file PR23-021

6.2 Laboratory Methods

Following the completion of the Stage 2 archaeological fieldwork, all artifacts recovered were cleaned, catalogued with their full provenience (surface find and findspot), and inventoried. The inventory used was based on a version of a database designed for post-Contact period sites by staff at Parks Canada. The Parks Canada database and associated *Artifact Inventory Guide* (Christianson and Plousos n.d.) identifies artifacts according to functional *Classes* intended to allow specific types of activities and behaviors to be separated for analysis. The ‘Foodways’ class, for example, is used to identify types of artifacts associated with all aspects of food preparation, storage, and consumption. In a similar way, the ‘Architectural’ class is a catch-all category for structural items such as bricks, nails, window glass, etc. These *Classes* are further subdivided into *Groups*, reflecting more specialized activities/behaviors. Artifacts are further categorized by *Object* and *Datable Attribute*, which are either functionally or temporally diagnostic. This type of artifact inventorying method facilitates the recognition of general trends in the dating and use of a site by allowing the assemblage to be conveniently organized for analysis. The pre-Contact artifact assemblage was catalogued using a modified version of the same Parks Canada database. Changes to the database included alterations to the artifact categories and types to better reflect meaningful categories of analysis for pre-Contact archaeological sites, while following a similar organization structure.

A complete inventory of the artifact assemblage is included as Appendix 2. Sample artifacts were photographed for inclusion in this report. As per the *Terms and Conditions for Archaeological Licences* in Ontario, curation of all artifacts generated during the Stage 2 archaeological assessment is being provided by Past Recovery pending the identification of a suitable repository. The artifact assemblage resulting from this archaeological assessment, consisting of 14 pre-Contact items, is housed in one standard banker’s box (measuring 41.4 cm x 32.5 cm x 26.4 cm).

6.2 Fieldwork Results

The soil stratigraphy where there were undisturbed soils was comprised of shallow (between 5 cm to 15 cm) medium to dark brown sandy loam/humus over a yellow to orange sand subsoil (Images 25 to 27). The stratigraphy in the parking area showed a modern topsoil and gravel fill had been added over the natural topsoil, likely to create a more level surface (Image 28). Several disturbed areas were also encountered during the Stage 2 investigation. These included areas within and adjacent to the access road, the lands directly adjacent to the saddle dam, and the lands at the northern end of the control dam.

As a result of the inability to cross the control dam during the Stage 1 property inspection, a thorough look of this portion of the study area was also completed during the field work. Conditions were much the same as on the northern side of the dam with the terrain sloping up from the control dam, mixed hardwood vegetation and a generally rocky shoreline (Images 29 to 31). On the southern side of the dam, a small area was visually assessed as disturbed (see Map 7). The test pits in this location contained the same stratigraphy as on the north side of the dam, mainly a thin layer of topsoil over subsoil, with a few directly onto bedrock at the south end (Image 32).

Findspot 1

Findspot 1 was encountered on the eastern half of the northern study area. The findspot consisted of one positive test pit containing a single chert flake and a 1x1 metre test unit, spread out over an area which measured approximately 5.5m north-south by 5.5m east-west (Map 8).

In accordance with Standard 2.1.3.2, dealing with test pit survey when archaeological resources are found, Intensification Strategy A was chosen to obtain additional information with regards to making it clear whether a Stage 3 archaeological assessment was necessary. In this case the intensification method selected dictated that eight additional test pits were dug at 2.5m from the positive test pit and a 1x1 metre unit was placed over the original positive test pit (Images 33 to 35). The stratigraphy in the test unit comprised of between 2 and 10 cm of dark brown sand topsoil with inclusions of roots and stones (Lot 1) over an orange sand subsoil (Lot 2). One additional flake was found in Lot 1, with 13 more flakes recovered from the top 30 cm of subsoil. Excavation continued into subsoil until 5 cm beyond where artifacts were recovered (Images 36 and 37; see Map 8).

No additional archaeological resources were encountered within the study area.

6.3 Record of Finds

The Stage 2 test pit survey yielded a total of 14 pieces of lithic material, and a fragment of calcined mammal bone. The lithic assemblage is composed solely of knapping

debitage (tertiary and broken or partial flakes). Thirteen pieces ofdebitage are of Kichesippi chert, and one is a tertiary flake of Hudson Bay Lowland chert (Table 5). No temporally diagnostic artifacts were recovered; it is therefore not possible to assign a date to the lithic assemblage.

Several sources for the local Kichesippi chert are known in the Ottawa valley, including at Jessup’s Rapids on the Bonnechere River, down river from Eganville, and on the Eardley escarpment near Gatineau (Fox 2009:359).

The cherts collectively known as Hudson Bay Lowland include cherts of the Silurian and Devonian Severn River, Ekwan, and Stooping River formations, which outcrop along the Severn and Albany rivers in the Hudson Bay Lowland basin in northern Ontario. Cherts commonly occur as large cobbles and pebbles, found in moraine deposits south of the primary sources, and were utilized by Pre-contact groups in the collection of high quality lithic raw material (Fox 2010: 355-357).

Most of the lithic artifacts are tertiary flakes (13), of which 12 are Kichesippi chert, and one Hudson Bay Lowland chert. One broken or partial flake of Kichesippi chert was also recovered. These results indicate that later stage reduction practices, such as tool finishing and maintenance, were taking place at the site.

Analysis of the lithic assemblage suggests that the site was the location of a short-term campsite where the inhabitants undertook late-stage lithic reduction practices, using both locally available and imported lithic raw materials.

Table 5. Breakdown of the Pre-contact Lithic Artifacts by Material.

Material and Utilization	#	% of Total
Kichesippi Chert	13	92.9
<i>Tertiary Flake</i>	12	85.8
<i>Broken/Partial Flake</i>	1	7.1
HBL Chert	1	7.1
<i>Tertiary Flake</i>	1	7.1
Total	14	100%

6.4 Analysis and Conclusions

The Stage 2 archaeological assessment consisted of a shovel test-pit survey at 5 m intervals across all portions of the study area determined to exhibit archaeological potential; the remaining areas were not tested having been determined to be of low archaeological potential as a result of deep disturbance, permanently wet areas or steeply sloped terrain (> 20 degrees; see Map 7). The property survey resulted in the

identification of one previously unrecorded potential archaeological site, identified as Findspot 1 (see Map 8).

The artifacts recovered from Findspot 1 suggests that the site was the location of a short-term campsite where the inhabitants undertook late-stage lithic reduction practices, using both locally available and imported lithic raw materials. As the lithic assemblage was comprised of non-diagnostic flakes, no further inferences may be drawn.

As the artifact assemblage exceeded three pre-19th century artifacts found within a 10 m radius, the site meets MCM requirements for registration as an archaeological site in the Ontario Archaeological Sites Database and was thus assigned Borden Number BfGf-3 (MCM 2011:160). The result of a Stage 2 property assessment met Standard 2.2.1c.ii(2) indicating a requirement for a Stage 3 assessment by recovering more than 5 non-diagnostic artifacts from within a 10m x 10m test pit survey area, including from both the positive test pit, as well as the test unit (MCM 2011:41).

No other archaeological resources were found over the course of this assessment.

6.5 Stage 2 Recommendations

On the basis of the results of the Stage 2 property survey discussed above, it is recommended that:

- 1) A Stage 3 site-specific archaeological assessment should be undertaken for Findspot #1 (BfGf-3) by means of the controlled hand excavation of one-metre-square units over the area of the site on a 5 m grid, with an additional 20 percent of the grid total focussing on areas of interest within the site extent. The assessment should be undertaken by a licensed consultant archaeologist in compliance with Standards and Guidelines for Consultant Archaeologists (MCM 2011).
- 2) In the event that future planning results in the identification of additional areas of impact beyond the limits of the present study area, further Stage 2 archaeological assessment may be required. It should be noted that impacts include all aspects of the proposed development causing soil disturbances or other alterations, including additional temporary property needs (i.e. access roads, staging/lay down areas, associated works etc.). Any future Stage 2 archaeological assessment should be undertaken by a licensed consultant archaeologist, in compliance with *Standards and Guidelines for Consultant Archaeologists* (MCM 2011).

The reader is also referred to Section 7.0 below to ensure compliance with relevant provincial legislation and regulations as may relate to this project. In the event that any artifacts of Indigenous interest or human remains are encountered during the development of the subject property, in addition to following the *Advice on Compliance*

with Legislation (see Section 7.0), the Indigenous communities listed below should be contacted:

- List to be provided in the Indigenous Content Doc

Contact information for the above communities can be found in the Supplementary Document entitled "*Indigenous Community Contacts.*"

7.0 ADVICE ON COMPLIANCE WITH LEGISLATION

In order to ensure compliance with relevant Provincial legislation as it may relate to this project, the reader is advised of the following:

- 1) This report is submitted to the Ministry of Citizenship and Multiculturalism as a condition of licensing in accordance with Part VI of the *Ontario Heritage Act*, R.S.O. 1990, c 0.18. The report is reviewed to ensure that it complies with the standards and guidelines that are issued by the Minister, and that the archaeological fieldwork and report recommendations ensure the conservation, protection and preservation of the cultural heritage of Ontario. When all matters relating to archaeological sites within the project area of a development proposal have been addressed to the satisfaction of the Ministry of Citizenship and Multiculturalism, a letter will be issued by the ministry stating that there are no further concerns with regard to alterations to archaeological sites by the proposed development.
- 2) It is an offence under Sections 48 and 69 of the *Ontario Heritage Act* for any party other than a licensed archaeologist to make any alteration to a known archaeological site or to remove any artifact or other physical evidence of past human use or activity from the site, until such time as a licensed archaeologist has completed archaeological fieldwork on the site, submitted a report to the Minister stating that the site has no further cultural heritage value or interest, and the report has been filed in the Ontario Public Register of Archaeological Reports referred to in Section 65.1 of the *Ontario Heritage Act*.
- 3) Should previously undocumented archaeological resources be discovered, they may be a new archaeological site and therefore subject to Section 48 (1) of the *Ontario Heritage Act*. The proponent or person discovering the archaeological resources must cease alteration of the site immediately and engage a licensed consultant archaeologist to carry out archaeological fieldwork, in compliance with Section 48 (1) of the *Ontario Heritage Act*.
- 4) The *Funeral, Burial and Cremation Services Act*, 2002, S.O. 2002, c.33 requires that any person discovering human remains must notify the police or coroner and the Registrar of Cemeteries at the Ministry of Public and Business Service Delivery.
- 5) Archaeological sites recommended for further archaeological fieldwork or protection remain subject to Section 48 (1) of the *Ontario Heritage Act* and may not be altered, or have artifacts removed from them, except by a person holding an archaeological licence.

8.0 LIMITATIONS AND CLOSURE

Past Recovery Archaeological Services Inc. has prepared this report in a manner consistent with that level of care and skill ordinarily exercised by members of the archaeological profession currently practicing under similar conditions in the jurisdiction in which the services are provided, subject to the time limits and physical constraints applicable to this report. No other warranty, expressed or implied, is made.

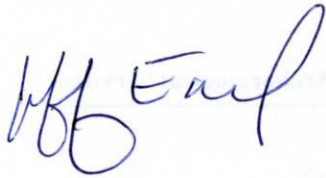
This report has been prepared for the specific site, design objective, developments and purpose prescribed in the client proposal and subsequent agreed upon changes to the contract. The factual data, interpretations and recommendations pertain to a specific project as described in this report and are not applicable to any other project or site location.

Unless otherwise stated, the suggestions, recommendations and opinions given in this report are intended only for the guidance of the client in the design of the specific project.

Special risks occur whenever archaeological investigations are applied to identify subsurface conditions and even a comprehensive investigation, sample and testing program may fail to detect all or certain archaeological resources. The sampling strategies in this study comply with those identified in the Ministry of Citizenship and Multiculturalism's *Standards and Guidelines for Consultant Archaeologists* (2011).

The documentation related to this archaeological assessment will be curated by Past Recovery Archaeological Services Inc. until such a time that arrangements for their ultimate transfer to an approved and suitable repository can be made to the satisfaction of the project owner(s), the Ontario Ministry of Citizenship and Multiculturalism and any other legitimate interest group.

We trust that this report meets your current needs. If you have any questions or if we may be of further assistance, please do not hesitate to contact the undersigned.



Jeff Earl, M.Soc.Sc.
Principal
Past Recovery Archaeological Services Inc.

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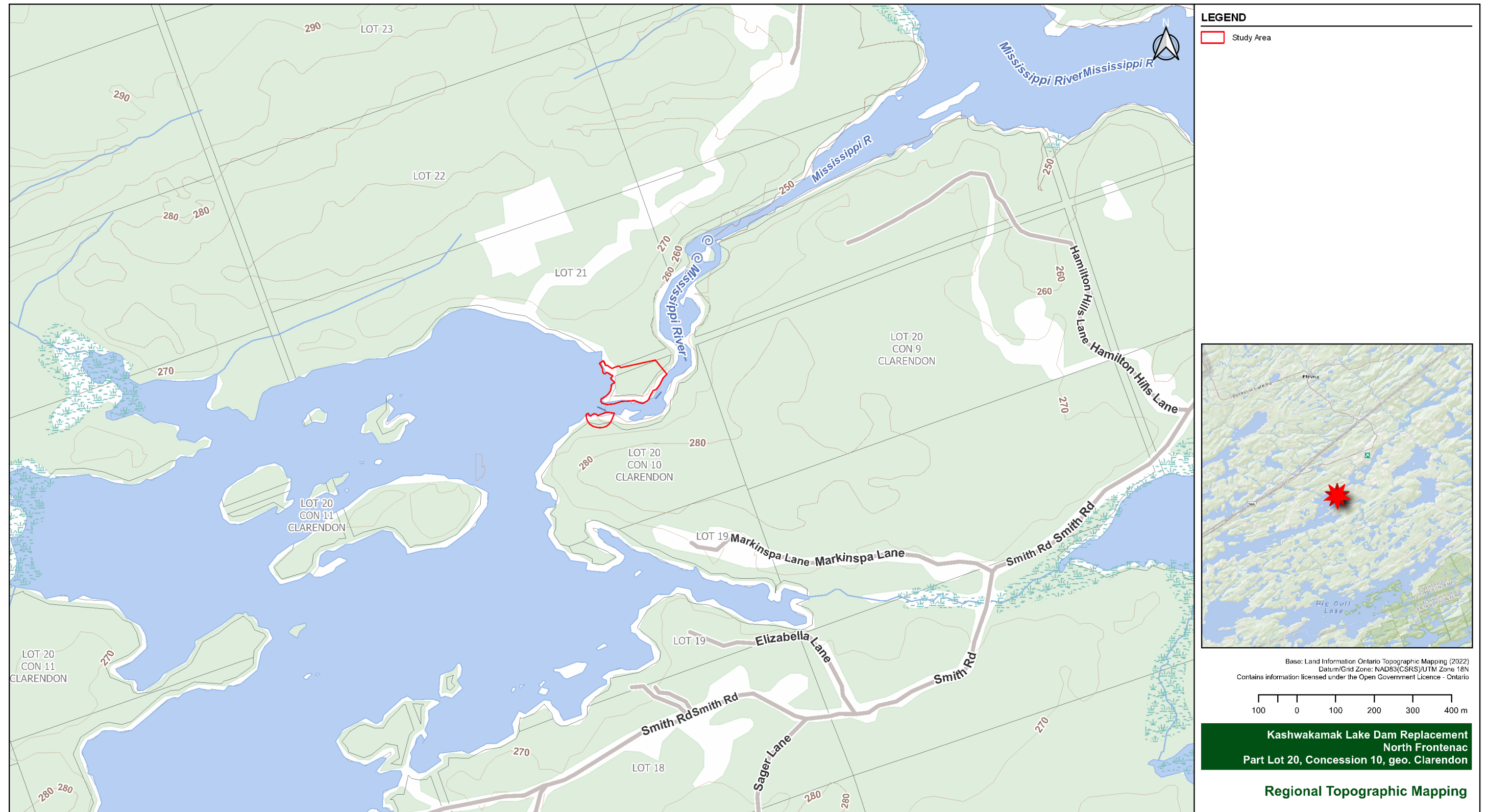
Department of Lands and Forests:

Lands and Surveys Branch:

Crown Land Plans of Clarendon Township, North Sheet 1966

Crown Land Plans of Clarendon Township, South Sheet 1967

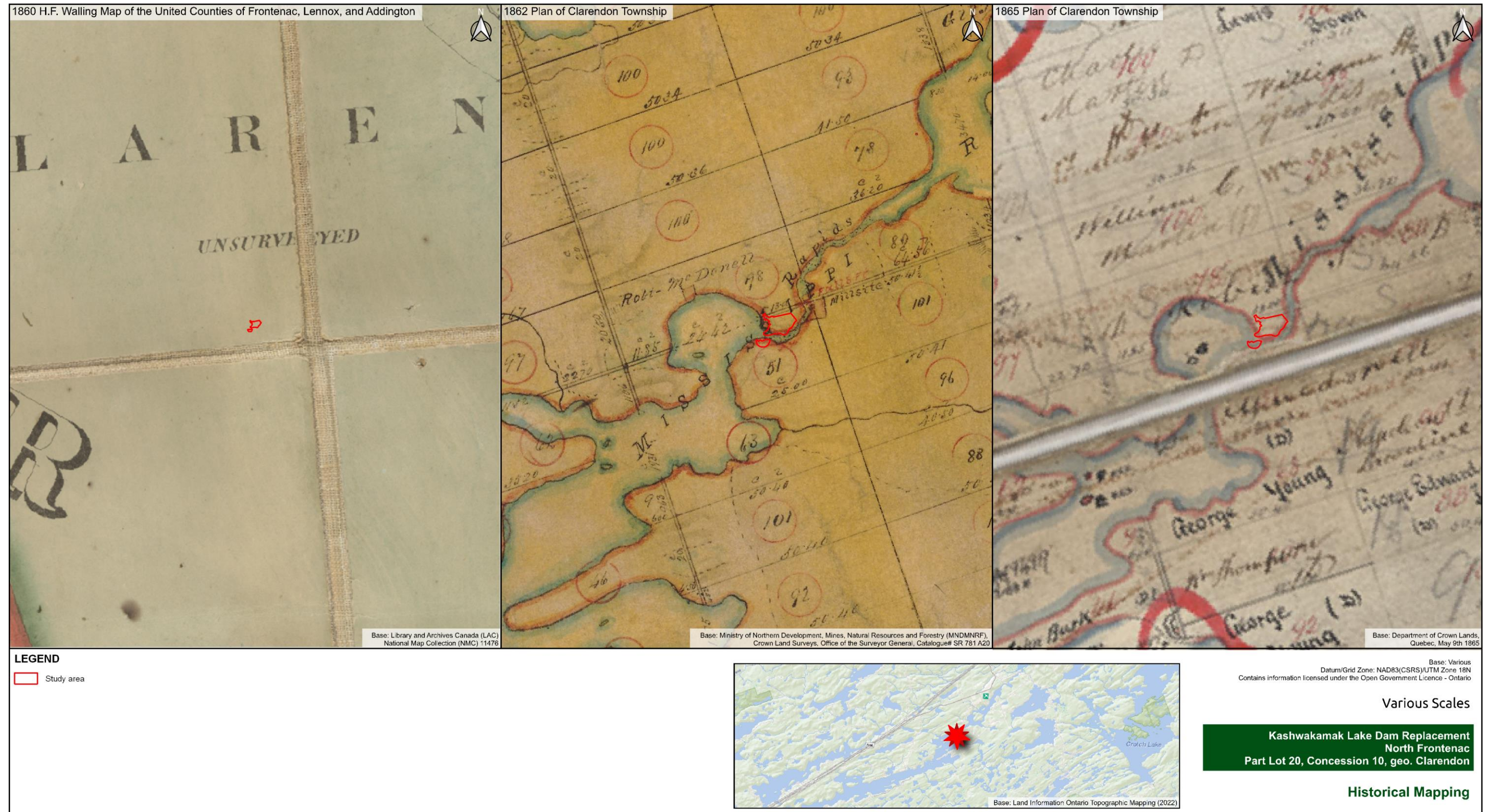
10.0 MAPS



Map 1. Location of the study area.



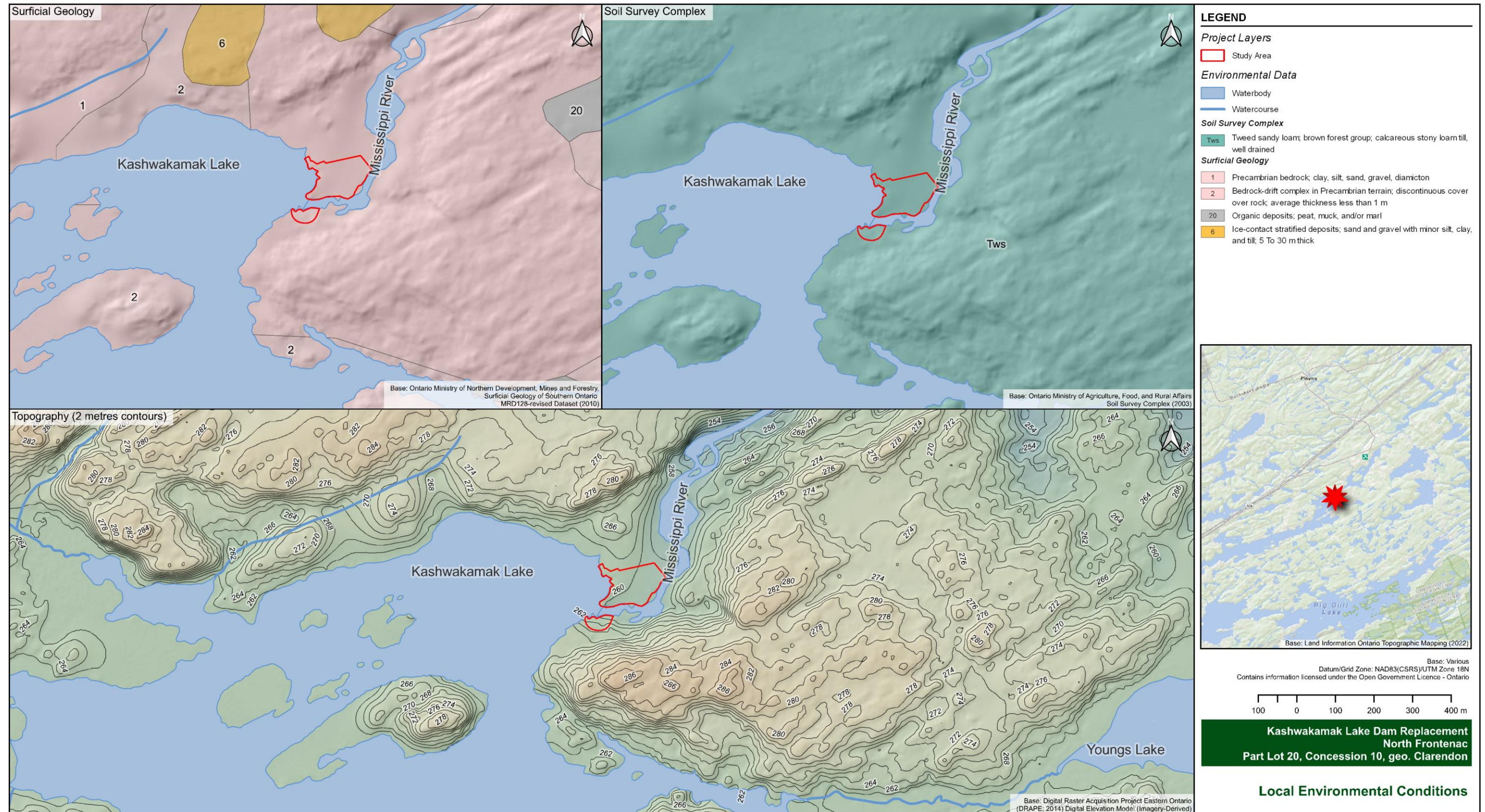
Map 2. Recent (2019) orthographic imagery showing the study area.



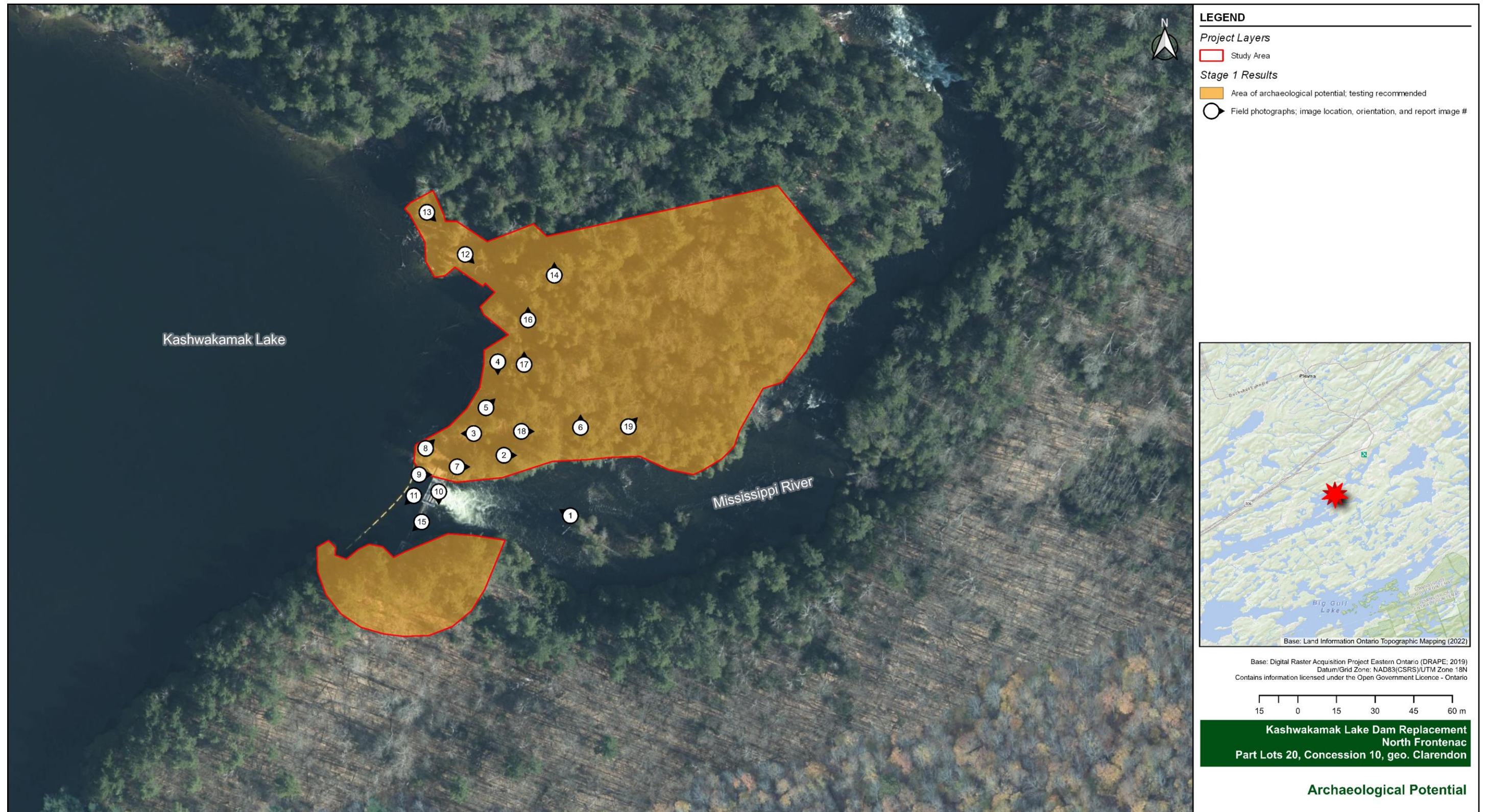
Map 3. Historical mapping showing the approximate location of the study area.



Map 4. Historical mapping and topographic mapping showing the study area.



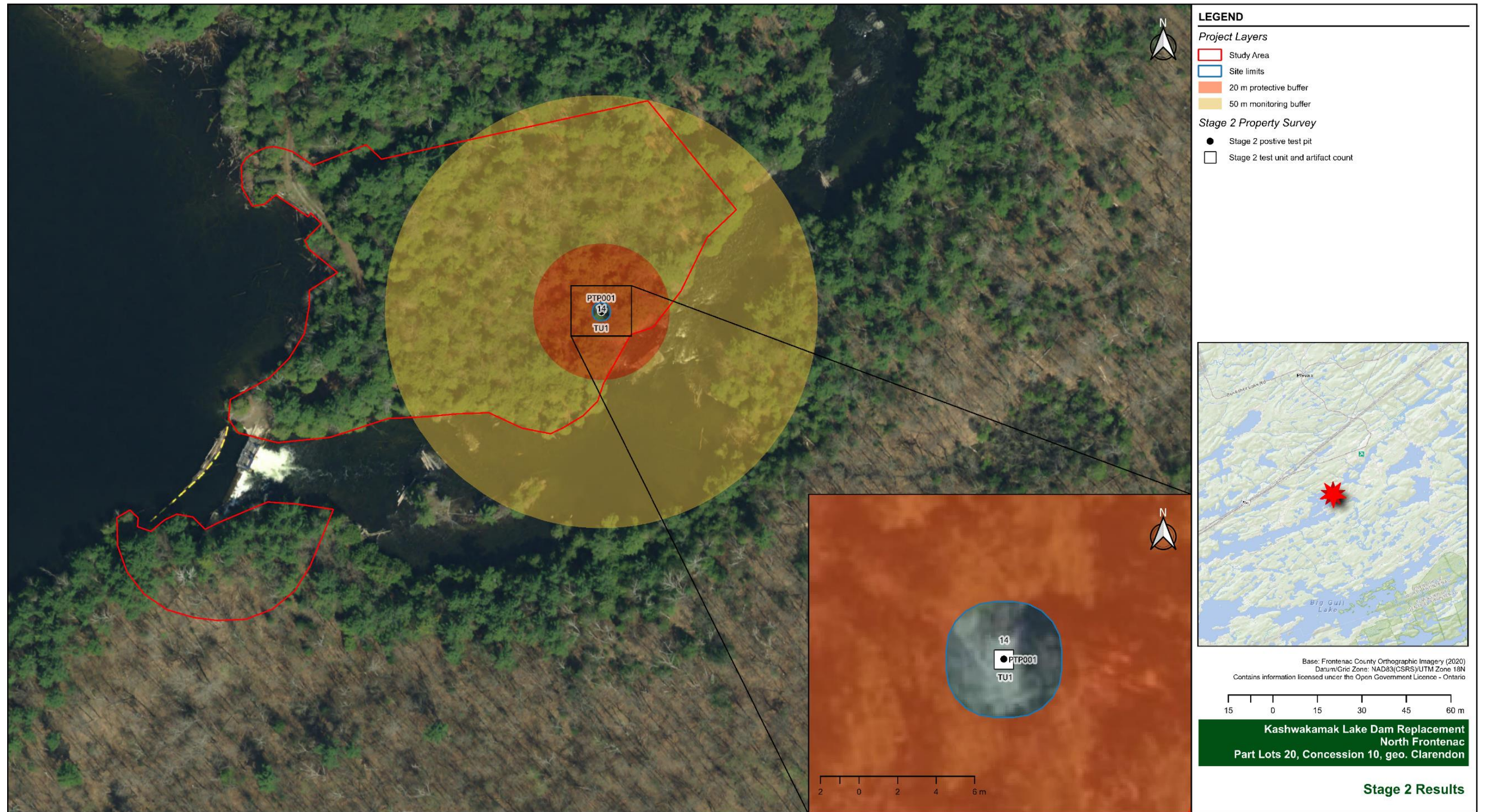
Map 5. Environmental mapping showing the study area.



Map 6. Recent (2019) orthographic imagery showing the archaeological potential within the study area.



Map 7. Recent (2020) orthographic imagery showing the Stage 2 methodology as well as field photography; location, orientation, and report image number.



Map 8. Recent (2020) orthographic imagery showing the Stage 2 results.

11.0 IMAGES



Image 1. Photograph of the Kashwakamak Lake Dam, facing west-northwest. (Courtesy of MVCA)



Image 2. Overview of forest growth, facing east. (PR23-021D015)



Image 3. View of the hilly topography on the west side of the access road, facing north.
(PR23-021D020)



Image 4. View of the slope down to the rocky shoreline, facing south. (PR23-021D016)



Image 5. View of the slope down to the shoreline, facing northeast. (PR23-021D018)



Image 6. View of the slope up from the shoreline near the proposed staging area, facing north. (PR23-021D031)



Image 7. View from above of the retaining wall at the north end of the control dam, facing east. (PR23-021D013)



Image 8. View of the main patch of concrete filling in the approach to the northern end of the control dam, facing northeast. (PR23-021D012)



Image 9. View of a secondary patch of concrete fill at the northern end of the control dam, facing east. (PR23-021D014)

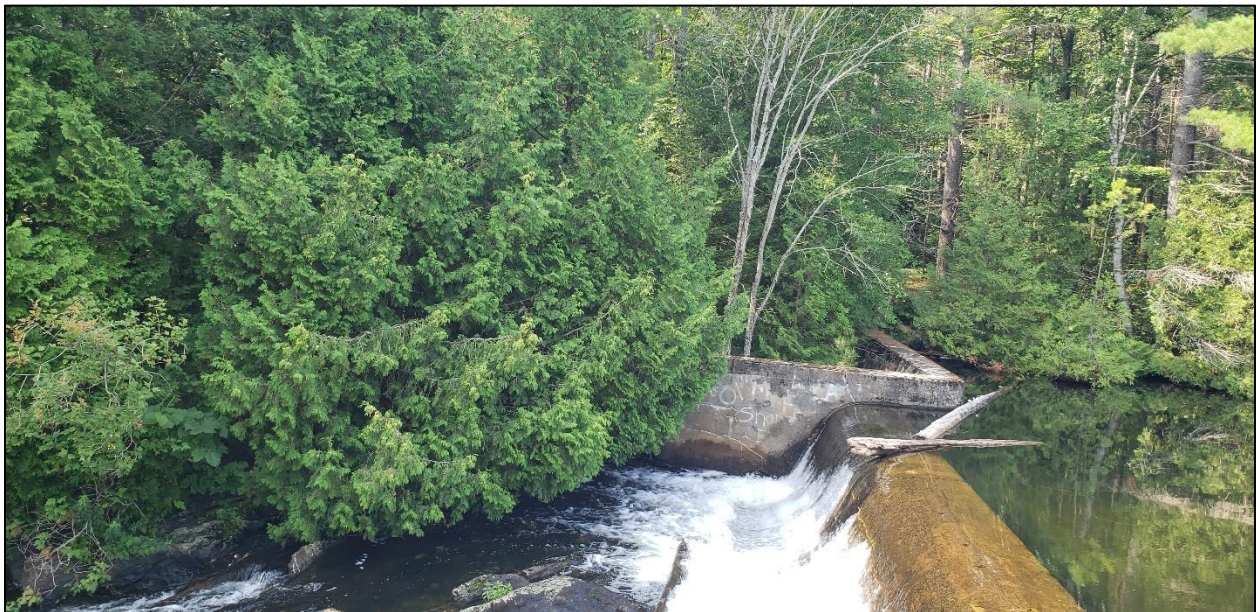


Image 10. View of the southern shoreline at the control dam, facing south. (PR23-021D008)



Image 11. View of the southern shoreline at the control dam, facing southwest. (PR23-021D007)



Image 12. View of disturbance caused by construction activities in the northern portion of the study area, facing southeast. (PR23-021D041)



Image 13. View of disturbance caused by construction activities in the northern portion of the study area, facing southeast. (PR23-021D052)



Image 14. View of the access road and the change in elevation between the road and the natural topography, facing north. (PR23-021D019)



Image 15. View of the south half of the control dam and the south shore, facing southwest. (PR23-021D005)



Image 16. View of the access road near the saddle dam, facing north. (PR23-021D044)



Image 17. View of the access road fill near the saddle dam, facing north. (PR23-021D047)

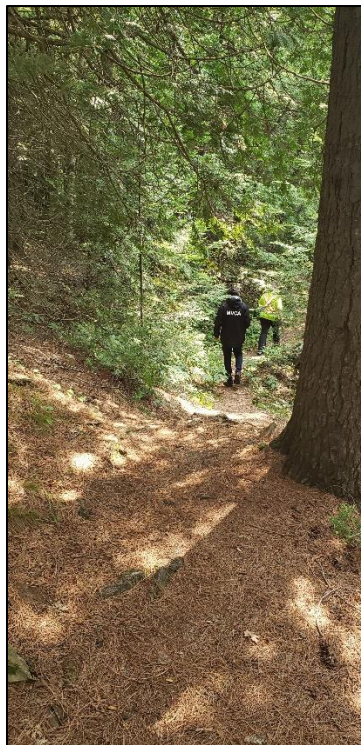


Image 18. View of the hilly topography between the saddle dam and the proposed staging area, facing east. (PR23-021D027)



Image 19. View of the proposed staging area, facing northeast. (PR23-021D033)

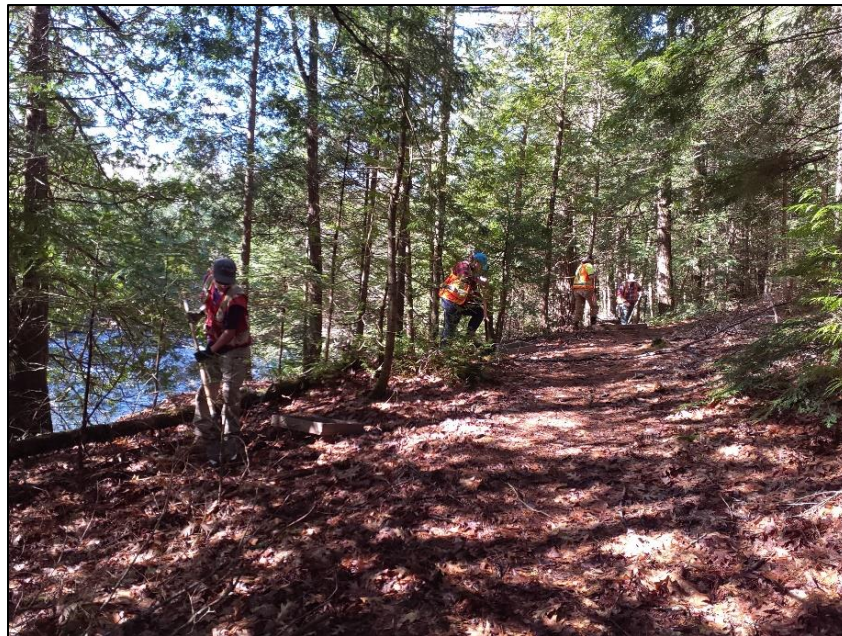


Image 20. View of field crew shovel testing at 5m intervals in the eastern portion of the study area, facing southwest. (PR23-021D073)



Image 21. View of field crew shovel testing at 5m intervals in the northern portion of the study area, facing east-southeast. (PR23-021D082)



Image 22. View of the field crew shovel testing at 5m intervals in the southern study area, facing east-northeast. (PR23-021D079)



Image 23. View of the steep slope along the former riverbed in the north portion of the study area, facing east. (PR23-021D109)



Image 24. View of the standing water within the former riverbed, in the north portion of the study area, facing west-northwest. (PR23-021D113)



Image 25. View of sample test pit in the eastern portion of the study area showing natural soil stratigraphy, facing west. (PR23-021D075)



Image 26. View of sample test pit in the western portion of the southern study area showing natural soil stratigraphy, facing west. (PR23-021D078)



Image 27. View of sample test pit in the centre of the study area showing natural soil stratigraphy, facing north. (PR23-021D092)



Image 28. View of sample test pit in the southwestern portion of the study area showing imported parking lot fills over natural stratigraphy. (PR23-021D121)



Image 29. View of the south side of the control dam, facing southwest. (PR23-021D086)



Image 30. View of the rocky water edge within the southern study area, facing east-northeast. (PR23-021D087)



Image 31. View of the centre of the study area, facing east-southeast. (PR23-021D096)



Image 32. View of sample test pit in the southern portion of the southern study area showing natural soil stratigraphy over bedrock, facing west. (PR23-021D093)



Image 33. View of the field crew excavating intensification test pits at 2.5 m intervals around Test Unit 1, facing south. (PR23-021D128)



Image 34. View of the field crew excavating Test Unit 1 at Findspot 1, facing east. (PR23-021D099)



Image 35. View of the field crew excavating Test Unit 1 at Findspot 1, facing north. (PR23-021D118)



Image 36. View of Test Unit 1 showing the natural stratigraphy, facing north. (PR23-021D124)



Image 37. View of the north profile of Test Unit 1, showing natural stratigraphy, facing north. (PR23-021D125)

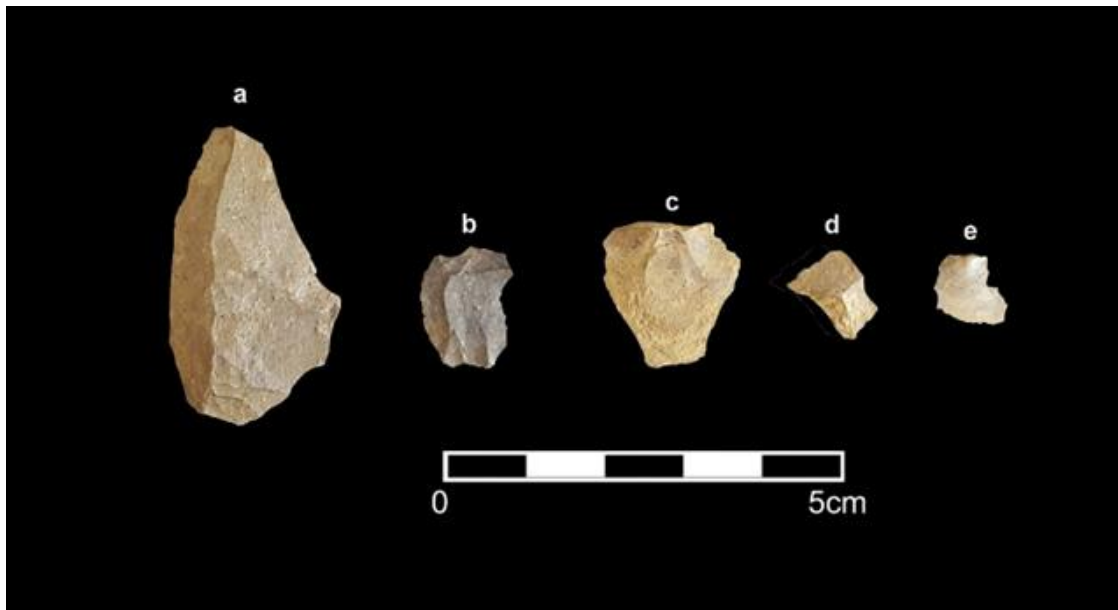


Image 38. Sample of Lithic artifacts.

a: Kichissippi chert chipped stone tertiary flake, PTP001:1 (#1000); b: Kichissippi chert chipped stone tertiary flake, TU1:1 (#1001); c: Kichissippi chert chipped stone tertiary flake, TU1:2 (#1002); d: Kichissippi chert chipped stone broken/partial flake, TU1:2 (#1003); e: Hudson Bay Lowland Chert chipped stone tertiary flake, TU1:2 (#1004)

APPENDIX 1: Photographic Catalogue

Camera: Samsung S5

Catalogue No.	Description	Dir.
PR23-021D001	View of Kashwakamak Lake from the North shore	W
PR23-021D002	North shore adjacent to the main dam	W
PR23-021D003	View of the buoy line and south shore	W
PR23-021D004	View of the rocky shoreline near the main dam	NW
PR23-021D005	South half of the control dam and south shore	SW
PR23-021D006	View of the southern shoreline at the control dam	SW
PR23-021D007	View of the southern shoreline at the control dam	SW
PR23-021D008	View of the southern shoreline at the control dam	S
PR23-021D009	View of Kashwakamak Lake, downstream from the dam	E
PR23-021D010	View of the northern shoreline at the control dam	NE
PR23-021D011	View of the retaining wall at the north end shoreline of the control dam	NE
PR23-021D012	Concrete filling in the approach to the north end of the control dam	NE
PR23-021D013	Top down view of the retaining wall at the north end of the control dam	E
PR23-021D014	Concrete fill material at the north end of the control dam	E
PR23-021D015	Overview of forest growth	E
PR23-021D016	View of slope down to the rocky shoreline	S
PR23-021D017	View of the slope down to the rocky shoreline	S
PR23-021D018	View of the slope down to the shoreline	NE
PR23-021D019	View of the access road and change in elevation between the road and the natural topography	N
PR23-021D020	View of the hilly topography, on west side of the access road	N
PR23-021D021	View of the slope down to the shoreline	SW
PR23-021D022	Rocky shoreline along the north shore	S
PR23-021D023	View of the slope down to the shoreline	E
PR23-021D024	Coniferous needle ground cover	W
PR23-021D025	View of the shoreline along the north shore	S
PR23-021D026	View of the hilly topography along the north shore	N
PR23-021D027	View of the hilly topography between the control dam and the staging area	E
PR23-021D028	Slope down to the shoreline near the staging area	S
PR23-021D029	Rocky shoreline near the staging area	S
PR23-021D030	Shoreline near the staging area	SW
PR23-021D031	View of the slope up from the shoreline near the staging area	N
PR23-021D032	Possible staging area	N
PR23-021D033	Possible staging area	NE
PR23-021D034	Possible staging area	E
PR23-021D035	Shoreline near the staging area	E
PR23-021D036	Eastern end of the staging area	E

Catalogue No.	Description	Dir.
PR23-021D037	Rise at the west end of the possible staging area	N
PR23-021D038	Possible staging area	N
PR23-021D039	Possible staging area, with rise in the background	NW
PR23-021D040	Possible staging area	N
PR23-021D041	View of the saddle dam	NW
PR23-021D042	View of the saddle dam	NW
PR23-021D043	View of Kashwakamak Lake from the saddle dam	W
PR23-021D044	Access road at the saddle dam	N
PR23-021D045	View of the slope off from the saddle dam	E
PR23-021D046	View of the shoreline at the saddle dam	NW
PR23-021D047	View of the access road fill at the saddle dam	N
PR23-021D048	View of the access road fill at the saddle dam	N
PR23-021D049	View of the shoreline at the north end of the saddle dam	W
PR23-021D050	Close up of the saddle dam and concrete back fill	S
PR23-021D051	View of saddle dam and concrete back fill	NW
PR23-021D052	View of the south end of the saddle dam	NW
PR23-021D053	View of the shoreline at the south end of the saddle dam	W
PR23-021D054	View of the shoreline at the south end of the saddle dam	W
PR23-021D055	View of the access road at the south end of the saddle dam	SE
PR23-021D056	View of the access road at the south end of the saddle dam	SE
PR23-021D057	View of the woods on the east side of the access road	E
PR23-021D058	View of the sloped terrain on the east side of the access road	E
PR23-021D059	View of the terrain on the east side of the access road	NE
PR23-021D060	View of the terrain on the east side of the access road	SE
PR23-021D061	View of the terrain on the east side of the access road	NE
PR23-021D062	View of the woods on the east side of the access road	E
PR23-021D063	View of the shoreline between the control and saddle dam	W
PR23-021D064	View of the access road between the control and saddle dam	S
PR23-021D065	View of the hilly topography north of the control dam	E
PR23-021D066	View of the hilly topography north of the control dam	E
PR23-021D067	View of the shoreline between the control and saddle dam	E
PR23-021D068	Sloped topography north of the control dam	NE
PR23-021D069	View of the shoreline near the control dam	SW
PR23-021D070	Sloped topography north of the control dam	E
PR23-021D071	Sloped topography north of the control dam	N
PR23-021D072	Shoreline north of the control dam	E
PR23-021D073	View of field crew shovel testing at 5 m intervals in the eastern portion of the study area	SW
PR23-021D074	View of sample test pit in the eastern portion of the study area showing natural soil stratigraphy	W
PR23-021D075	View of sample test pit in the eastern portion of the study area showing natural soil stratigraphy	W

Catalogue No.	Description	Dir.
PR23-021D076	View of sample test pit in the western portion of the southern study area showing natural soil stratigraphy	W
PR23-021D077	View of sample test pit in the western portion of the southern study area showing natural soil stratigraphy	W
PR23-021D078	View of sample test pit in the western portion of the southern study area showing natural soil stratigraphy	W
PR23-021D079	View of field crew shovel testing at 5 m intervals in the southern study area	ENE
PR23-021D080	View of field crew shovel testing at 5 m intervals in the northing portion of the study area	E
PR23-021D081	View of field crew shovel testing at 5 m intervals in the northing portion of the study area	SW
PR23-021D082	View of field crew shovel testing at 5 m intervals in the northing portion of the study area	ESE
PR23-021D083	View of field crew shovel testing at 5 m intervals in the northing portion of the study area	ESE
PR23-021D084	View of field crew shovel testing at 5 m intervals in the southern study area	SSW
PR23-021D085	View of the south side of the control dam	NNW
PR23-021D086	View of the south side of the control dam	SW
PR23-021D087	View of the rocky water edge within the southern study area	ENE
PR23-021D088	View of field crew shovel testing at 5 m intervals in the southern study area	NW
PR23-021D089	View of sample test pit in the centre of the study area showing natural soil stratigraphy	N
PR23-021D090	View of sample test pit in the centre of the study area showing natural soil stratigraphy	N
PR23-021D091	View of sample test pit in the centre of the study area showing natural soil stratigraphy	N
PR23-021D092	View of sample test pit in the centre of the study area showing natural soil stratigraphy	N
PR23-021D093	View of sample test pit in the southern portion of the southern study area showing natural soil stratigraphy onto bedrock	W
PR23-021D094	View of sample test pit in the southern portion of the southern study area showing natural soil stratigraphy onto bedrock	W
PR23-021D095	View of sample test pit in the southern portion of the southern study area showing natural soil stratigraphy onto bedrock	W
PR23-021D096	View of the centre of the southern study area	ESE
PR23-021D097	View of the centre of the southern study area	ESE
PR23-021D098	View of the centre of the southern study area	S
PR23-021D099	View of field crew excavating test unit at Findspot 1	E
PR23-021D100	View of field crew excavating test unit at Findspot 1	E
PR23-021D101	View of sample test pit in the western portion of the study area showing natural soil stratigraphy	N
PR23-021D102	View of sample test pit in the western portion of the study area showing natural soil stratigraphy	N
PR23-021D103	View of sample test pit in the western portion of the study area showing natural soil stratigraphy	N
PR23-021D104	View of sample test pit in the western portion of the study area showing natural soil stratigraphy	N
PR23-021D105	View of disturbed road adjacent to the saddle dam	NNW

Catalogue No.	Description	Dir.
PR23-021D106	View of disturbed road adjacent to the saddle dam	NW
PR23-021D107	View of disturbed road adjacent to the saddle dam	SSE
PR23-021D108	View of disturbed road adjacent to the saddle dam	S
PR23-021D109	View of steep slope along former river in the north portion of the study area	E
PR23-021D110	View of steep slope along former river in the north portion of the study area	E
PR23-021D111	View of standing water in the former river in the north portion of the study area	N
PR23-021D112	View of standing water in the former river in the north portion of the study area	N
PR23-021D113	View of standing water in the former river in the north portion of the study area	NW
PR23-021D114	View of steep slope along former river in the north portion of the study area	E
PR23-021D115	View of standing water in the former river in the north portion of the study area	WNW
PR23-021D116	View of standing water in the former river in the north portion of the study area	NW
PR23-021D117	View of steep slope along former river in the north portion of the study area	E
PR23-021D118	View of field crew excavating test unit at Findspot 1	N
PR23-021D119	View of field crew excavating test unit at Findspot 1	N
PR23-021D120	View of sample test pit in the southwestern portion of the study area showing imported parking lot fills over natural stratigraphy	W
PR23-021D121	View of sample test pit in the southwestern portion of the study area showing imported parking lot fills over natural stratigraphy	W
PR23-021D122	View of sample test pit in the southwestern portion of the study area showing imported parking lot fills over natural stratigraphy	W
PR23-021D123	View of Test Unit 1 showing natural stratigraphy	NNW
PR23-021D124	View of Test Unit 1 showing natural stratigraphy	NNW
PR23-021D125	View of north profile of Test Unit 1 showing natural stratigraphy	NNW
PR23-021D126	View of field crew shovel testing at 5 m intervals in the northwestern portion of the study area	SW
PR23-021D127	View of field crew shovel testing at 5 m intervals in the northwestern portion of the study area	SW
PR23-021D128	View of field crew excavating intensification test pits at 2.5 m intervals around TU1	S
PR23-021D129	View of field crew excavating intensification test pits at 2.5 m intervals around TU1	S

APPENDIX 2: Glossary of Archaeological Terms

Archaeology:

The study of human past, both prehistoric and historic, by excavation of cultural material.

Archaeological Sites:

The physical remains of any building, structure, cultural feature, object, human event or activity which, because of the passage of time, are on or below the surface of the land or water.

Archaic:

A term used by archaeologists to designate a distinctive cultural period dating between 8000 and 1000 B.C. in eastern North America. The period is divided into Early (8000 to 6000 B.C.), Middle (6000 to 2500 B.C.) and Late (2500 to 1000 B.C.). It is characterized by hunting, gathering and fishing.

Artifact:

An object manufactured, modified or used by humans.

B.P.:

Before Present. Often used for archaeological dates instead of B.C. or A.D. Present is taken to be 1951, the date from which radiocarbon assays are calculated.

Backdirt:

The soil excavated from an archaeological site. It is usually removed by shovel or trowel and then screened to ensure maximum recovery of artifacts.

Chert:

A type of silica rich stone often used for making chipped stone tools. A number of chert sources are known from southern Ontario. These sources include outcrops and nodules.

Contact Period:

The period of initial contact between Indigenous and European populations. In Ontario, this generally corresponds to the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries depending on the specific area.

Cultural Resource / Heritage Resource:

Any resource (archaeological, historical, architectural, artifactual, archival) that pertains to the development of our cultural past.

Cultural Heritage Landscapes:

Cultural heritage landscapes are groups of features made by people. The arrangement of features illustrate noteworthy relationships between people and their surrounding environment. They can provide information necessary to preserve, interpret or reinforce the understanding of important historical settings and changes to past patterns of land use. Cultural landscapes include neighbourhoods, townscapes and farmscapes.

Diagnostic:

An artifact, decorative technique or feature that is distinctive of a particular culture or time period.

Disturbed:

In an archaeological context, this term is used when the cultural deposit of a certain time period has been intruded upon by a later occupation.

Excavation:

The uncovering or extraction of cultural remains by digging.

Feature:

This term is used to designate modifications to the physical environment by human activity. Archaeological features include the remains of buildings or walls, storage pits, hearths, post moulds and artifact concentrations.

Flake:

A thin piece of stone (usually chert, chalcedony, etc.) detached during the manufacture of a chipped stone tool. A flake can also be modified into another artifact form such as a scraper.

Fluted:

A lanceolate shaped projectile point with a central channel extending from the base approximately one third of the way up the blade. One of the most diagnostic Palaeo-Indigenous artifacts.

Historic:

Period of written history. In Ontario, the historic period begins with European settlement.

Lithic:

Stone. Lithic artifacts would include projectile points, scrapers, ground stone adzes, gun flints, etc.

Lot:

The smallest provenience designation used to locate an artifact or feature.

Midden:

An archaeological term for a garbage dump.

Mitigation:

To reduce the severity of development impact on an archaeological or other heritage resource through preservation or excavation. The process for minimizing the adverse impacts of an undertaking on identified cultural heritage resources within an affected area of a development project.

Multicomponent:

An archaeological site which has seen repeated occupation over a period of time. Ideally, each occupation layer is separated by a sterile soil deposit that accumulated during a period when the site was not occupied. In other cases, later occupations will be directly on top of earlier ones or will even intrude upon them.

Operation:

The primary division of an archaeological site serving as part of the provenience system. The operation usually represents a culturally or geographically significant unit within the site area.

Palaeo-Indigenous:

The earliest human occupation of Ontario designated by archaeologists. The period dates between 9000 and 8000 B.C. and is characterized by small mobile groups of hunter-gatherers.

Pre-Contact:

Before written history. In Ontario, this term is used for the period of Indigenous occupation up until the first contact with European groups.

Profile:

The profile is the soil stratigraphy that shows up in the cross-section of an archaeological excavation. Profiles are important in understanding the relationship between different occupations of a site.

Projectile Point:

A point used to tip a projectile such as an arrow, spear or harpoon. Projectile points may be made of stone (either chipped or ground), bone, ivory, antler or metal.

Provenience:

Place of origin. In archaeology this refers to the location where an artifact or feature was found. This may be a general location or a very specific horizontal and vertical point.

Salvage:

To rescue an archaeological site or heritage resource from development impact through excavation or recording.

Stratigraphy:

The sequence of layers in an archaeological site. The stratigraphy usually includes natural soil deposits and cultural deposits.

Sub-operation:

A division of an operation unit in the provenience system.

Survey:

To examine the extent and nature of a potential site area. Survey may include surface examination of ploughed or eroded areas and sub-surface testing.

Test Pit:

A small pit, usually excavated by hand, used to determine the stratigraphy and presence of cultural material. Test pits are often used to survey a property and are usually spaced on a grid system.

Woodland:

The most recent major division in the prehistoric sequence of Ontario. The Woodland period dates from 1000 B.C. to A.D. 1550. The period is characterized by the introduction of ceramics and the beginning of agriculture in southern Ontario. The period is further divided into Early (1000 B.C. to A.D. 0), Middle (A.D. 0 to A.D. 900) and Late (A.D. 900 to A.D.1550).